**How important is host migration for parasite-host dynamics? Using bird haemosporidians as a model to estimate migration effect in parasite-host system.**

Daniela de Angeli Dutra¹\*, Antoine Filion¹, Alan Fecchio², Érika Martins Braga³, Robert Poulin¹

[danideangeli@live.com\*](mailto:danideangeli@live.com*) https://orcid.org/0000-0003-2341-2035

[afilion90@gmail.com](mailto:afilion90@gmail.com) https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1198-3017

[alanfecchio@gmail.com](mailto:alanfecchio@gmail.com) https://orcid.org/0000-0002-7319-0234

[embraga@icb.ufmg.br](mailto:embraga@icb.ufmg.br) <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5550-7157>

[robert.poulin@otago.ac.nz](mailto:robert.poulin@otago.ac.nz) https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1390-1206

1.Department of Zoology, University of Otago, Dunedin, New Zealand

2.Programa de Pós-graduação em Ecologia e Conservação da Biodiversidade, Universidade Federal de Mato Grosso, Cuiabá, MT 78060-900, Brazil

3.Departamento de Parasitologia, Instituto de Ciências Biológicas, Universidade Federal de Minas Gerais, Brazil

**\*Correspondence:**

Daniela de Angeli Dutra

danideangeli@live.com

**Abstract** Migration has an important impact on the transmission of pathogens around the world. Certainly, migratory birds may disperse pathogens thought their routes, and may introduce pathogens to new areas and hosts. Indeed, haemosporidian parasites are among the most prevalent, diverse and important bird pathogens. South America provides an ideal opportunity to investigate the role of migration and parasite dispersal as it holds a great richness of resident and migratory birds (~3500 species). Here, we hypothesize that (1) migratory birds spread parasite lineages along their routes, and (2) localities crossed by more migratory routes have greater prevalence and richness of haemosporidians. For the first hypothesis, we tested whether parasite lineages found (i) only in migratory birds, (ii) in both migrants and residents, and (ii) only in residents, differ in their frequencies of occurrence among localities. For the second hypothesis, we tested for a relationship between localities and overall local haemosporidian parasite richness and prevalence, and the proportion of migratory bird individuals passing through a locality. To this end, we combined a dataset on 13,200 bird samples with data from the MalAvi database (overall total: ~2800 sequenced parasites comprising 668 distinct lineages, from 506 host species and 156 localities), and used Bayesian multi-level and mixed models to test the above hypotheses. Our results demonstrate that parasites shared by resident and full or partial migratory species are the most widespread, however, parasites shared by all three bird categories presented the smallest distribution in our dataset. In addition, we observed, respectively, negative and no relationship for parasite richness and prevalence per bird species as a function of the proportion of migrants occurring in a locality. Therefore, migrant birds may contribute to parasites dispersal, however, bird migration and visiting migrants do not raise local prevalence and richness of avian haemosporidian parasites.

1.Introduction

Migration has an important impact on the transmission of disease across the world because migrant species can potentially disperse pathogens and parasites between two or more localities, they are exposed to more infectious agents (Bartel et al. 2011, Bauer and Hoye 2014, Teitelbaum et al. 2018). In this way, migrant species might play an important role in the evolution and distribution of parasites and promote the spread of pathogens to new areas and new hosts species. At the same time, human introduced pathogens and host species can decrease the fitness and survival of resident and native species, compromising the population abundance of local species and reducing community richness (Callaway and Ridenour 2004, Prenter et al. 2004). Conversely, the spread of pathogens might increase host richness by reducing competition pressures and, therefore, preventing competitive exclusion. Hence, pathogen spread might act as an environmental filter to new species colonization. Recent studies have demonstrated that migratory birds harbor a greater diversity of parasites than resident species (Koprivnikar and Leung 2015, Gutiérrez et al. 2019). In addition, several studies have documented the influence of migratory birds on the spread of important pathogens with some of these able to infect humans (Alekseev et al. 2001, Morshed et al. 2005, Poupon et al. 2006, Hellgren et al. 2007, Lindeborg et al. 2012, Ricklefs et al. 2017). Thus, the migratory behavior of birds may influence directly host local richness and population size.

Avian malaria parasites and related haemosporidians could be used as geographical markers for migratory birds (Marzal 2012). Previous research has demonstrated differences in the timing of the main occurrence of haemosporidian infection in migrating birds. These studies have suggested that differences in haemosporidian lineages harbored could indicate whether birds had become infected in different areas (Marzal 2012). Since most haemosporidians cause life-long infections, parasites may travel across long distances with their bird host during migration. This would therefore allow them to infect new vectors and new avian hosts in novel environments (Fecchio et al. 2020). Indeed, migratory species are known for their potential to connect distant habitats and transfer large amounts of biomass and nutrients between ecosystems (Altizer et al. 2011). Furthermore, O’Connor et al. 2020 have demonstrated that migratory birds do not possess higher immune gene richness in wetter areas, which are usually associated with higher risk of avian malaria (Zamora-Vilchis et al. 2012, Gonzalez-Quevedo et al. 2014). Thereby, migratory birds may be more susceptible to pathogens in those regions. For this reason, it might also be expected that migratory birds harbor a more diverse range of parasites and might be more susceptible to parasite infections.

South America comprises different types of biomes, which hold a great richness of native resident and migratory bird species, thus making it an ideal system to investigate such questions. Previous research has documented the prevalence of avian malaria in different regions of Brazil, and markedly different prevalence for *Plasmodium* spp have been reported between these regions (Braga et al. 2011). Indeed, the most prevalent avian haemosporidian parasite genus in this region is *Plasmodium* (Braga et al. 2011). *Plasmodium* parasites present higher host-shifting rates than other bird haemosporidians (Hellgren et al. 2007), which could certainly contribute to their increased dissemination by migratory birds into new areas. Indeed, host-shifting of a *Plasmodium* species from domestic chicken to wild and native birds has already been reported in South America (Ferreira-Junior et al. 2018).

Furthermore, the great avian richness (~3500 species) and abundance in South America (Remsen et al. in press) could also enhance the probability of parasite host-shifting between migratory and resident birds, given the likely presence of susceptible birds in any particular area. Besides that, the great richness and abundance of vectors (Consoli and Oliveira 1994) could also increase the chances of host-shifting between migratory and resident birds as it increases the chances of compatible vectors being present. Thus, these features make the South American avian haemosporidians a great model to investigate the putative transmission of pathogens via host migration in nature.

In this context, the main goal of this study is to evaluate the influence of migratory birds on the spread of haemosporidian parasites in South America. Specifically, we evaluated the hypothesis that (1) migratory birds spread parasite lineages along their migratory routes, and (2) localities crossed by more migratory routes have greater prevalence and richness of haemosporidian lineages. For the first hypothesis, we tested whether parasite lineages found (i) only in migratory birds, (ii) in both migrants and residents, and (ii) only in residents, differ in their frequency of occurrence among localities. Due to the fact migrants can carry parasites from many sites and potentially infect resident birds, we predicted that parasite lineages using migratory birds should occur in a greater percentage of localities than those using only resident birds. Moreover, migration behavior increases the exposure of birds to more parasite lineages and hence their contact with different parasites as migrants pass through regions that harbor different parasite communities. Therefore, we expect higher haemosporidian richness and prevalence in regions with more migratory birds. For the second hypothesis, we tested for a relationship among localities between the overall local haemosporidian parasite richness and prevalence, and the proportion of migratory birds passing through a locality.

2. Methods

2.1 Dataset

All analyses were performed using a dataset comprising ~13200 bird blood samples accounting for 916 species from 63 different localities sampled from 2005 to 2018 in South America, previously described in Lacorte et al. 2013, Ferreira et al. 2017, Fecchio et al. 2019, Rodrigues et al. 2020 and supplemented with new, previously unpublished data. In addition, haemosporidian lineages from the MalAvi database (<http://130.235.244.92/Malavi/>, Bensch et al. 2009) were included from South American regions (Figure 1, Supplementary material). Combining both datasets, we obtained a total of ~2800 sequenced parasites representing 668 distinct lineages collected from 506 different host species and 156 localities (all lineages belonging to one of these three genera: *Plasmodium*, *Haemoproteus* and *Leucocytozoon*). Each locality was assigned to a biome based on the classification of Turchetto-Zolet et al. 2013. The parasite prevalence per bird species and locality was estimated using PCR diagnostic protocols described by Hellgren et al. 2004 and Fallon et al. 2003. The parasite lineages were identified by the PCR protocol described by Hellgren et al. 2004. This protocol produces a *cyt b* fragment of 478 bp. The birds present in each locality were classified into three ecological classes: (1) resident; (2) partial migrant and (3) full migrant, according to the Brazilian Committee of Ornithology Records - CRBO 2014, Somenzari et al. 2018 and BirdLife International (<https://www.birdlife.org/>).

2.2 Potential correlates of prevalence and richness

*Spatial correlation*

All analyses were conducted in R (R Core Team, 2019). We determined whether there was significant spatial autocorrelation among localities for prevalence and parasite richness in our dataset by calculating the Moran Index value. In order to estimate this index, we combined the coordinates data into a matrix and employed the function “Moran.I” from the “Ape” package (Paradis and Schliep 2018).

*Phylogenetic Signal*

In order to estimate the phylogenetic signal among prevalence and richness estimates for the bird species in our dataset, we downloaded the file AllBirdsHackett1.tre from <https://birdtree.org/> website. Using the “treeman” package (Bennett et al. 2017), we created a treeman file containing all trees from the original file. Then, we randomly selected 100 trees. This new file was converted from treeman to a phylo file, from which we extracted one single random tree to account for phylogenetic uncertainty. We grouped our data per species and eliminated all bird species from the phylo tree which were not present in our dataset. Using the “match” function from the “picante” package (Kembel et al. 2010), we matched the species between the tree and our dataset. Then, we calculated Pagel’s lambda (λ) to evaluate the phylogenetic signal among bird species in our dataset, for both haemosporidian prevalence and parasite richness. Values of λ can range between 0 (no phylogenetic signal) and 1 (strong phylogenetic signal). In order to estimate lambda (λ), we applied the “phylosig” function from the “phytools” package (Revell 2012).

*Climate variables*

We used mean precipitation seasonality, and annual mean temperature (ºC) as predictors in the mixed models. We used R to extract these climate variables from the Worlclim database (<https://worldclim.org/version2>). Using the package “raster”, we extracted the data using the “getData” function, then we selected only the data from the 63 localities included in our original dataset since climate variables were applied only in mixed model analyses, for which the MalAvi data was not employed.

2.3 Statistical Analyses

The spatial autocorrelation analyses revealed there was no substantial effect of space on parasite richness, however, for prevalence, we observed a Moran Index effect of 0.15, and for this reason, locality and biome were used as random effects in our mixed models to control for idiosyncratic characteristics of localities. Likewise, considerable phylogenetic signals were observed among bird species for prevalence (0.49) and parasite richness (0.17).

*Bayesian models*

In order to determine whether migratory birds spread parasite lineages along their migratory routes and to evaluate the parasite connectivity among localities due to migratory behavior, we used multi-level modeling (MLM) with the “brms” package (Bürkner 2017) to evaluate the percentage of localities in which haemosporidian lineages occurred depending on whether they were found only in resident birds, only in partial migrant and fully migrant birds, or in both residents and migrants. We decided to use this approach as it allows us to statistically estimate the percentage of localities among which lineages are distributed according to their host status.

Firstly, we applied the “get\_priors” function to fit the priors for our model. We considered as independent and dependent variables bird migratory categories and percentage of localities in which each lineage was present, respectively, and lineages present only resident birds as reference category. We consider host richness and number of bird individuals infected by each lineage as fixed variables. We selected the fixed variables testing their significance separately and both variables had significant effects on our model. Thus, we ran the model applying the “Beta” family, 4 chains with 2000 total iterations per chain and 1000 of warmup interactions. The model results were plotted using the “conditional\_effects” function to visualize the predictions of the population-level effects. We ran three models: one for all three parasite genera combined, one for *Plasmodium* lineages only, and one for *Haemoproteus* lineages only.

In the second model, we analysed the prevalence of infection in each bird species among localities. For this, we considered local positives and total sample of each bird species as our dependent variable and local percentage of migratory bird individuals (i.e., percentage of migratory individuals out of all individual birds sampled in a locality) as our independent variable. Negative binomial distribution was applied in this model with 4 chains with 2000 total iterations per chain and 1000 of warmup interactions. The model results were plotted using the “conditional\_effects” function to visualize the predictions of the population-level effects. Again, we firstly we evaluated if host richness (i.e., number of bird species sampled per locality), parasite richness, percentage of migratory species, number of migrant individuals, temperature and precipitation had significant effects on bird prevalence. Following these analyses, only parasite richness was retained as a fixed factor. Further, we considered biome as a random variable and used the fuction “cov\_ranef” to account for phylogenetic influence. In this model, we filtered our data in order to include only species with 10 or more bird individuals analysed, in addition, we used only our dataset described above and excluded data from the MalAvi database, since the latter presents only positive and sequenced samples. Again, we ran three models: one for all three parasite genera combined, one for *Plasmodium* lineages only, and one for *Haemoproteus* lineages only, in these models we considered zero inflated negative binomial distribution.

*Mixed model*

A mixed model was performed to estimate whether localities with more migratory birds have greater prevalence and richness of haemosporidian lineages. We firstly created previous models including all variables that presented significant correlation with our dependent variable, and then selected the best model among them using “AIC” function in R, similar model selection approach was suggested by Rodrigues et al. 2020.

For the mixed model, we considered parasite richness as the dependent variable and percentage of migratory bird individuals as the independent variable. We applied the “glmer” function from the “lme4” package (Bates et al. 2015) applying Poisson distribution. Besides, we employed “AIC” analyses to determine which model we should use, for this we considered local host richness, prevalence across all birds sampled, percentage of migratory species, number of migrant individuals, temperature and precipitation as fixed variables. Biome was set as random variable. Our “AIC” analyses reveled the best model set considered only local host richness, prevalence across all birds sampled, percentage of migratory species, number of migrant individuals as fixed variables (Supplementary table 1). In this model, we did not use data from the MalAvi database, but only our dataset described above since it provides more information regarding the localities, such as prevalence data and host richness. We ran three models: one for all three parasite genera combined, one for *Plasmodium* lineages only, and one for *Haemoproteus* lineages only.

3. Results

Our first Bayesian model analyses revealed the lineages shared by resident and migratory or partial migratory species are the most widespread spatially, as they are found in a higher percentage of localities (Figure 2, Table 1). However, we observed that the lineages shared by all three categories (resident, partial migrant and full migrant) are the least widespread, followed by those shared only between residents, partial or full migrants. Nevertheless, despite the fact lineages shared by partial or full migratory species and residents are more widely distributed, lineages present in only residents, migratory or partially migratory species presented similar spatial distribution according to our model. When repeating these analyses separately for the two main parasite genera, we observed a similar pattern of distribution between *Plasmodium* and *Haemoproteus*. (Figure S1, Figure S2, Table S1 and Table S2).

For the second model, in which we analysed the relationship between local prevalence per bird species and local percentage of migratory bird individuals, we observed no correlation between the relative occurrence of migrants and prevalence of haemosporidian parasites per species (p = 0.36, Figure 3, Table 2). However, when we repeated the analysis separately for only *Plasmodium* or *Haemoproteus* lineages, we observed negative and positive relation between local percent of migrants and number of positive birds per host species, respectively (p = 0.003, p <0.001, Figure S3 and S4, Table S4 and S5). Parasite richness had significant effect on prevalence per bird species, whether when considering all haemosporidian lineages (Table 2), or only *Plasmodium* or *Haemoproteus* lineages (Tables S3 and S4).

Our mixed model examining the influence of migrants on local parasite richness and prevalence of infections also revealed differences depending on whether we considered both haemosporidian genera together or separately. Our first null model revealed that there is no correlation between the percentage of migratory bird individuals per locality and local parasite richness (p = 0.27, Figure 4, Table 3). However, we observed negative relation between the proportion of migratory species and parasite richness. Further, we also observed no effect of the percentage of migratory bird individuals on local parasite richness for *Plasmodium* and *Haemoproteus* infections when the two genera were treated separately (p = 0.15, p = 0.60, respectively; Figure S5 and S6, Table S6 and S7). Moreover, in all models we observed significant effects on parasite richness of the other two predictors: local host richness and overall local prevalence.

**4. Discussion**

Animal migrations can play important roles in geographical dispersal of disease agents and in their local epidemiology for both resident and migratory species (Bradley and Altizer 2005, Bauer and Hoye 2014, Teitelbaum et al. 2018). Here, we demonstrated that some migratory birds may disperse parasite lineages through their migratory routes, pointing that lineages infecting migrants and residents are spread to more localities. Despite migration may lead to lineages dispersal in South America, we did not observe higher parasite prevalence in localities with higher proportions of migratory birds. Nevertheless, we observed different patterns for *Plasmodium* and *Haemoproteus* parasites, being *Plasmodium* prevalence negatively correlated to higher proportion of migrants whereas *Haemoproteus* prevalence benefits of migrant’s presence. Moreover, haemosporidian richness decreased as the proportion of migratory individuals rose across localities. However, parasite richness seems to be positively related to local host richness and prevalence. Thus, migrant birds could potentially influence the ecology and evolution of haemosporidian dispersal in South America leading to a certain increase in parasite spread and influencing haemosporidian prevalence, composition and richness.

Further, despite the fact lineages shared by resident and full or partial migratory species presented the highest frequency of occurrence among localities, parasites infecting only full or partial migrant birds were present in a similar proportion of localities as those infecting only resident avian hosts. We believe insufficient sampling of certain migrant avian species in many areas could lead to the low percentage of localities in which lineages infecting only partial and full migrant birds were found, since lineages infecting only migrant hosts may be specialist parasites. Besides, no single migrant species passes through all localities, reducing their likelihood of sampling parasite lineages from all areas. Still, we observed that lineages present in all bird categories presented the lowest distribution across our localities.

Dispersal of haemoporidians might be an important step toward parasite diversification for local community composition since parasites, after establishing in new regions, can evolve into new separate parasite lineages (Ellis et al. 2019, Fecchio et al. 2019). Indeed, Ellis et al. 2019 demonstrated that South America presents the greatest proportion of sympatric nodes for *Plasmodium* spp. and one of the greatest *Haemoproteus* diversification rates, indicating high rates of parasite diversification in this region. Hence, considering the potential contribution of migrant birds toward parasite dispersal, these hosts might play a fundamental role in parasite evolution and diversification in South America, as suggested by Fecchio et al. 2019. Indeed, many species migrate during the breeding season and relapses (increases in parasite intensity circulating in the host) mainly occurs after this period (Valkiūnas 2005), thus facilitating parasite dispersal to new regions. However, we did not observe a clear relation between the presence of migrant birds and haemosporidian prevalence since our data suggests that *Plasmodium* and *Haemoproteus* parasites respond differently to the presence of migrant host. Indeed, the fact that most of our lineages were observed only in resident birds could explain the absence relationship between avian migrants and haemosporidian prevalence, since the greatest haemosporidian diversity occurs in resident avian species. In addition, Hellgren et al. 2007 also suggest that new haemosporidian introductions into resident bird faunas are not common evolutionary events. Moreover, we observed that other factors such as host richness and overall local prevalence also influence parasite prevalence. Therefore, it seems environmental and host features could be more important to determine parasite richness than dispersal patterns.

It is worth mentioning that distinct parasites can respond differently to migrant presence. As we reported in this study, despite the fact no relation was observed for general haemosporidian prevalence, *Plasmodium* and *Haemoproteus* presented counter responses due to the increase of the proportion of migrant individuals. Whereas *Plasmodium* prevalence is negatively affected by the increase of migrant in bird community, we observe a raise in *Haemoproteus* infections. Such behavior illustrates that different pathogens do not respond equally to migratory behavior. Indeed, previous research have documented different effects of host migration and parasite-host dynamics (Hellgren et al. 2007, Koprivnikar and Leung 2015, Teitelbaum et al. 2018). This distinct pattern for haemosporidians can occur due to the fact haemosporidian are vector-borne transmitted parasites whose vectors differ between parasite genera. Thus, the broad range of broad host preferences of *Haemoproteus* vectors (Santiago-Alarcon et al. 2012) could explain the raise in parasite prevalence observed for this parasite genera as the chance of parasite transmission between hosts should increase for parasites vectored by highly generalist hosts.

We also demonstrated that where the percentage of migrant birds in a community is high, local haemosporidian richness is low, indicating the presence of migrant birds can decrease parasite richness in bird communities. In fact, migration often allows species to escape environments with higher risks of infection, decreases infection levels, and could favor the evolution of less-virulent pathogens (Altizer et al. 2011, Poulin et al. 2012, Satterfield et al. 2015). These facts could lead to reduced haemosporidian richness in localities with higher proportions of migrant birds since long-distance migratory behavior can remove infected individuals from bird communities as diseased animals are less likely to successfully migrate because of the physiological requirements of migration and the energetic costs of disease (Bradley and Altizer 2005, Altizer et al. 2011). However, Hahn et al. 2018 experimentally verified that low intensity haemosporidian infections do not affect the capacity of birds to migrate, thus, most infected birds could still migrate and potentially spread their parasites into new areas. Meanwhile, the fact that migration filters highly and moderately infected birds, which are the most likely to infect new vectors (Pigeault et al. 2015), allows community prevalence and parasite richness to remain low. Certainly, further research will be required to confirm the importance of migration behavior in mitigating haemosporidian community richness.

Previous studies had tried to explain parasite assembly globally and in South America (Clark et al. 2014, Fecchio et al. 2019). These authors have reported that South America presents the greatest diversity of *Plamodium* and *Haemoproteus* parasites in the globe, indeed, Fecchio et al. 2019 suggest parasite dispersal as one of the main process that drive parasite diversity in this region. Contrastingly, we detected negative effect on parasite richness in regions with greater proportion of migrant individuals, while host richness and prevalence seem to be the main factors that drivers positively parasite diversity. Also, we did not observe a clear relation between migratory behavior and prevalence as well. Recently, Barrow et al. 2019 suggested that susceptibility is partially driven by conserved, latent aspects of anti-parasite defense and that bird phylogeny is considerably related to prevalence intensity in South American birds. Further, Fecchio et al. 2019 also suggest that host historical speciation is also one of the main process that drivers for haemosporidian diversity in South America. Process which is affected by climate condition, mainly precipitation process which parasites exhibiting greater host specificity in localities where rainfall presents pronounced seasonality and wetter dry seasons (Fecchio et al. 2019). Thus, it seems other process (apart from parasite dispersal through migrants) might be more important in the determination of parasite richness and prevalence in South America.

Thus, according to previous research that has suggested a modest influence of bird migration on parasite dispersal between Europe and Africa (Hellgren et al. 2007) or North America and the Caribbean (Soares et al. 2019), we also demonstrated that South American migrants represent a moderate role in parasite dispersal and, consequently, in their evolution and diversity. Further, as observed by Ricklefs et al. 2017, most lineages are not shared between resident and migrant species, indeed, most of our parasite lineages were observed only in resident birds, demonstrating that resident host species harbour the greatest parasite richness in our study system. We also demonstrated that, despite the fact migrants might carry haemosporidians to new localities, migration of itself may not affect parasite general prevalence. In addition, migrants appear increase homogeneity of parasites hosted bird communities in our study system, as their presence seems to be related to lower community-wide haemosporidian richness. By comparing the distribution of different pathogen lineages, our analyses demonstrate that migrants could carry haemosporidians and possibly other pathogens throughout their migration routes, thereby contributing to the spread of disease on a continental scale.

**Funding**

D. de Angeli Dutra and A. Filion were supported by doctoral scholarships from the University of Otago. During the project, Alan Fecchio was supported by a postdoctoral fellowship (PNPD scholarship) from Coordenação de Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Nível Superior (CAPES), Érika M. Braga was supported by Conselho Nacional de Desenvolvimento Científico e Tecnológico (CNPq).

**Acknowledgments**

We thank the MalAvi curators for maintaining the database and for making all data available, as well as all researchers who shared their data. We are also grateful to all funding agencies that made this research possible.

References

Alekseev, A. N. et al. 2001. Evidence of Ehrlichiosis Agents Found in Ticks ( Acari : Ixodidae ) Collected from Migratory Birds Evidence of Ehrlichiosis Agents Found in Ticks ( Acari : Ixodidae ) Collected from Migratory Birds. - J. Med. Entomol. 38: 471–474.

Altizer, S. et al. 2011. Animal migration and infectious disease risk. - Science (80-. ). 331: 296–302.

Barrow, L. N. et al. 2019. Deeply conserved susceptibility in a multi-host, multi-parasite system. - Ecol. Lett. 22: 987–998.

Bartel, R. A. et al. 2011. Monarch butterfly migration and parasite transmission in eastern North America. - Ecology 92: 342–351.

Bates, D. et al. 2015. Fitting linear mixed-effects models using lme4. - Stat. Softw. 67: 1–48.

Bauer, S. and Hoye, B. J. 2014. Migratory animals couple biodiversity and ecosystem functioning worldwide. - Science (80-. ). in press.

Bennett, D. J. et al. 2017. Treeman: An R package for efficient and intuitive manipulation of phylogenetic trees. - BMC Res. Notes 10: 1–10.

Bensch, S. et al. 2009. MalAvi: A public database of malaria parasites and related haemosporidians in avian hosts based on mitochondrial cytochrome b lineages. - Mol. Ecol. Resour. 9: 1353–1358.

Bradley, C. A. and Altizer, S. 2005. Parasites hinder monarch butterfly flight: Implications for disease spread in migratory hosts. - Ecol. Lett. 8: 290–300.

Braga, É. M. et al. 2011. Recent advances in the study of avian malaria: An overview with an emphasis on the distribution of Plasmodium spp in Brazil. - Mem. Inst. Oswaldo Cruz 106: 3–11.

Bürkner, P. C. 2017. brms: An R package for Bayesian multilevel models using Stan. - J. Stat. Softw. in press.

Callaway, R. M. and Ridenour, W. M. 2004. Novel weapons: Invasive success and the evolution of increased competitive ability. - Front. Ecol. Environ. 2: 436–443.

Clark, N. J. et al. 2014. A review of global diversity in avian haemosporidians (Plasmodium and Haemoproteus: Haemosporida): New insights from molecular data. - Int. J. Parasitol. 44: 329–338.

Comitê Brasileiro de Registros Ornitológicos - CRBO 2014. Listas das aves do brasil. - Com. Bras. Regist. Ornitológicos: 1–38.

Consoli, R. A. G. B. and Oliveira, R. L. de 1994. Principais mosquitos de importância sanitária no Brasil. - Fiocruz.

Ellis, V. A. et al. 2019. The global biogeography of avian haemosporidian parasites is characterized by local diversification and intercontinental dispersal. - Parasitology 146: 213–219.

Fallon, A. S. M. et al. 2003. Detecting Avian Malaria : an Improved Polymerase Chain Reaction Diagnostic Detecting Avian Malaria : an Improved Polymerase Chain. 89: 1044–1047.

Fecchio, A. et al. 2019. Avian host composition, local speciation and dispersal drive the regional assembly of avian malaria parasites in South American birds. - Mol. Ecol. 28: 2681–2693.

Fecchio, A. et al. 2020. Evolutionary ecology, taxonomy, and systematics of avian malaria and related parasites. - Acta Trop.: 105364.

Ferreira-Junior, F. C. et al. 2018. A new pathogen spillover from domestic to wild animals: Plasmodium juxtanucleare infects free-living passerines in Brazil. - Parasitology: 1–10.

Ferreira, F. C. et al. 2017. Habitat modification and seasonality influence avian haemosporidian parasite distributions in southeastern Brazil. - PLoS One in press.

Gonzalez-Quevedo, C. et al. 2014. Predictors of malaria infection in a wild bird population: Landscape-level analyses reveal climatic and anthropogenic factors. - J. Anim. Ecol. 83: 1091–1102.

Gutiérrez, J. S. et al. 2019. Micro- and macroparasite species richness in birds: The role of host life history and ecology. - J. Anim. Ecol. 88: 1226–1239.

Hahn, S. et al. 2018. Low intensity blood parasite infections do not reduce the aerobic performance of migratory birds. - Proc. R. Soc. B Biol. Sci. in press.

Hellgren, O. et al. 2004. A New Pcr Assay For Simultaneous Studies Of Leucocytozoon, Plasmodium, And Haemoproteusfrom Avian Blood. 90: 797–802.

Hellgren, O. et al. 2007. Detecting shifts of transmission areas in avian blood parasites - A phylogenetic approach. - Mol. Ecol. 16: 1281–1290.

Kembel, S. W. et al. 2010. Picante: R tools for integrating phylogenies and ecology. - Bioinformatics 26: 1463–1464.

Koprivnikar, J. and Leung, T. L. F. 2015. Flying with diverse passengers: Greater richness of parasitic nematodes in migratory birds. - Oikos 124: 399–405.

Lacorte, G. A. et al. 2013. Exploring the Diversity and Distribution of Neotropical Avian Malaria Parasites - A Molecular Survey from Southeast Brazil. - PLoS One 8: 1–9.

Lindeborg, M. et al. 2012. Migratory Birds, Ticks, and Crimean-Congo Hemorrhagic Fever Virus. - Emerg. Infect. Dis. 18: 2095–2097.

Marzal, A. 2012. Recent Advances in Studies on Avian Malaria Parasites. - Malar. Parasites: 135–158.

Morshed, M. G. et al. 2005. Migratory songbirds disperse ticks across Canada, and first isolation of the Lyme disease spirochete, Borrelia burgdorferi, from the avian tick, Ixodes auritulus. - J. Parasitol. 91: 780–790.

O’Connor, E. A. et al. 2020. Wetter climates select for higher immune gene diversity in resident, but not migratory, songbirds. - Proceedings. Biol. Sci. 287: 20192675.

Paradis, E. and Schliep, K. 2018. ape 5.0: an environment for modern phylogenetics and evolutionary analyses in R. - Bioinformatics 35: 526–528.

Pigeault, R. et al. 2015. Avian malaria: a new lease of life for an old experimental model to study the evolutionary ecology of Plasmodium. - Philos. Trans. R. Soc. Lond. B. Biol. Sci. 370: 323–330.

Poulin, R. et al. 2012. Migration as an escape from parasitism in New Zealand galaxiid fishes. - Oecologia 169: 955–963.

Poupon, M. et al. 2006. Prevalence of Borrelia burgdorferi Sensu Lato in Ticks Collected from Migratory Birds in Switzerland Prevalence of Borrelia burgdorferi Sensu Lato in Ticks Collected from Migratory Birds in Switzerland. - Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 72: 976–979.

Prenter, J. et al. 2004. Roles of parasites in animal invasions. - Trends Ecol. Evol. 19: 385–390.

Remsen, J. V. J. et al. A classification of the bird species of South America. - Am. Ornithol. Soc.

Revell, L. 2012. phytools: An R package for phylogenetic comparative biology (and other things). - Methods Ecol. Evol 3: 217–223.

Ricklefs, R. E. et al. 2017. Avian migration and the distribution of malaria parasites in New World passerine birds. - J. Biogeogr. 44: 1113–1123.

Rodrigues, R. A. et al. 2020. Using a multistate occupancy approach to determine molecular diagnostic accuracy and factors affecting avian haemosporidian infections.: 1–10.

Santiago-Alarcon, D. et al. 2012. Bloodmeal analysis reveals avian plasmodium infections and broad host preferences of culicoides (diptera: Ceratopogonidae) vectors. - PLoS One in press.

Satterfield, D. A. et al. 2015. Loss of migratory behaviour increases infection risk for a butterfly host. - Proc. R. Soc. B Biol. Sci. in press.

Soares, L. et al. 2019. Neotropical migratory and resident birds occurring in sympatry during winter have distinct haemosporidian parasite assemblages. - J. Biogeogr.: 1–12.

Somenzari, M. et al. 2018. An overview of migratory birds in Brazil.

Teitelbaum, C. S. et al. 2018. Migratory behaviour predicts greater parasite diversity in ungulates. - Proc. R. Soc. B Biol. Sci. in press.

Turchetto-Zolet, A. C. et al. 2013. Phylogeographical patterns shed light on evolutionary process in South America. - Mol. Ecol. 22: 1193–1213.

Valkiūnas, G. 2005. Avian Malaria Parasites and other Haemosporidia.

Zamora-Vilchis, I. et al. 2012. Environmental temperature affects prevalence of blood parasites of birds on an elevation gradient: Implications for disease in a warming climate. - PLoS One in press.