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Article

COMMUNITY STRUCTURE AND INFECTION BURDEN OF HELMINTH PARASITES IN PAMA CROAKER OTOLITHOIDES PAMA HAMILTON, 1822 (PERCIFORMES: SCIAENIDAE) OF VATIARY COAST, CHATTOGRAM, BANGLADESH

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ABSTRACT: One hundred fresh specimens of pama croaker Otolithoides pama Hamilton, 1822 (Perciformes: Sciaenidae) from Vatiary costal area, Chittagong, Bangladesh, were necropsied to explore the species composition, study the community structure, microhabitat preference and infection dynamics of helminth parasites. Overall, 79.0% of examined fishes were parasitized by twelve species of parasites namely, Microcotyle spinicirrus and Pseudempleurosoma haywardi (Monogenea), Uterovesiculurus hamati, Phyllodistomum folium, Helicometrina elongata and Stephanostomum sp. (Digenea), Parachristianella trygonis (larva) and Unidentified cestode larva (Cestoda), Philometra protonibeae, Spirocamallanus notopteri and larvae of Contracaecum sp. (Nematoda) and Acanthocephalus sp. (Acanthocephala). The present parasite community was dominated by nematodes, Contracaecum sp. was the core species with highest prevalence (67%) and abundance (8.82). Except the unidentified cestode larva (rare species), the rests were satellite species. Among the recovered parasites, M. spinicirrus (gill), P. protonibeae (ovary) and Acanthocephalus sp. (intestine) showed strict organ specificity and Contracaecum sp. was cosmopolitan in nature found to harbor body cavity, stomach, intestine and pyloric caeca. The females (84.91%) were found to be more susceptible to parasitic infection than male (72.34%). Stages of sexual maturity of fish had a significant influence on the prevalence, the gravid fishes were found to be 100% infected and the infection rate was lowest in the spent fishes. Significant positive correlation was observed between weight and prevalence. The association between infection site (organs) and prevalence was also significant. The intestine was the most preferred microhabitat (55.0%) while the liver, kidney, testis and swim bladder were resistant to parasitic infection.

Key words: Community structure, species composition, microhabitat preference, infection dynamics, helminth parasites, *Otolithoides pama*.

INTRODUCTION

Fish is a healthy food, easy to digest, source of vitamins, essential amino

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acids and an excellent source of calcium, phosphorus, iodine, iron, zinc, selenium and other important minerals required for human health (Sartori and Amancio 2012, Tilami and Sampels 2018). Fishes are extensively used as the cheapest protein rich diet for humans. Fish related aquaculture activities play a major role in shaping the economic prosperity of a country like Bangladesh. To carry out a fruitful aquaculture practice, maintenance of fish health is one of prime concern as it has direct effect on the annual yield. Among the factors affecting fish health and production, parasitic infection has a major role. Like other living beings, fish can be infected by many parasites. These parasites affect host phenotypes, including changes to host morphology, behavior, and physiology (Frainer et al. 2018). Parasites use the fish for their shelter and food, adversely affect their biological aspects, make wound or diseases, and cause pathological damages and influence the survival of fish by reducing their size, altering the behavior of infected fish and making them vulnerable to other infections, resulting in higher mortality. Therefore, parasites can cause considerable economic losses in fish production due to mortality and tissue damage (Thomas et al. 2014, El Asely et al. 2015). They also contribute to reduction in fecundity that threaten the abundance and diversity of fish species (Paperna 1996, Adams et al. 1997). The ultimate damages imposed on hosts depend on parasite species, type of spoliation of host tissue, number of parasites and the health status of the host (Tavares-Dias et al. 1999). Beside this, most of the fishes not only serve as the host of different parasites but also serve as a carrier of many larval parasitic forms that mature and cause serious diseases in many vertebrates including man (Akter et al. 2007), and thus raising a great public health concern. Helminthiases transmitted by fish are limited to lowincome populations, or cultures where consumption of raw, salted or smoked fish is in practiced. Approximately 56 million cases of parasite infections associated with the consumption of raw or undercooked fish or fish products but worldwide the number of people at risk, including those in developed countries, is more than half a billion (Santos and Howgate 2011, WHO 2012). In Southwest Asia alone, around 300,000 cases of infections with 1,323 deaths were recorded in 2005 (FAO 2014). So, accurate and early diagnosis and controlling steps towards these parasitic diseases are of great importance. Moreover, study of parasitic fauna of fishes is very important to understand the host-parasite relationship and the status of the aquatic environment (Lafferty 2008).

Croakers or drums, locally called Jewfish, are the largest groups of commercially important fishes exploited from Bay of Bengal, Bangladesh (Zafar *et al.* 2000, Sabbir *et al.* 2020, 2021). About 20 species of corkers under 12 genera have been reported from the marine water of Bangladesh (Fanning *et al.*

2019). Otolithoides pama (Hamilton, 1822), is one of the most common croakers, found in the Bay of Bengal, estuary and rivers of Bangladesh (Talwar and Jhingran 1991) and locally known as Poa fish or Pama croaker. It is a prominent bottom-dwelling carnivore, consume mainly small fish and prawn (Bhakta et al. 2019). This fish species is very much common in the local markets of Chittagong region and it is consumed by local marginal people in high amount due to its low price. Like other croakers this fish species also found to harbor many parasites, so there is a great chance of parasitic infection for human.

Though pama croaker is one of the popular and cheapest fish in our country, no detailed parasitic investigation has been done so far. Therefore, the present study was aimed to explore the species composition, study the community structure, microhabitat preference and infection dynamics of helminth parasites, of pama croaker *Otolithoides pama*.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Host collection: Fresh samples of *O. pama* were collected directly from local fish markets, local fishermen and fish landing stations of Vatiary coast, Chittagong between January 2022 to June 2023. The samples were brought directly to the laboratory and autopsied as early as possible.

Parasite collection, preservation and mounting: The parasitological procedure was done by following Justine et al. (2012). Prior to autopsy, total length and body weight were measured using standard tools. The fishes were dissected and the body cavity was examined using magnifying glass to detect parasites that inhabits the cavities and those attached to the mesenteries or other internal organs. After then the gills, esophagus, stomach, intestine, pyloric caeca, liver, kidney, swim bladder and gonads were removed from the body and the body cavity was then rinsed with saline solution (0.85%). The gills were taken in a plastic jar containing saline water and shaken. The washed water was examined under stereo microscope. Each organ was opened, scraped slightly in some cases, and placed into separate petri dish containing saline water. Recovered parasites were fixed and preserved in 70% ethyl alcohol. The parasites were permanently mounted on slides following Cable (1977). The parasites were studied and identified using a compound microscope following Yamaguti (1941, 1958, 1961 and 1965), Arthur and Ahmed (2002) and relevant documents (Moravec and Barton 2015, Theisen et al. 2017).

Data analysis: The fishes were identified, classified according to gender (two groups), maturity stages of gonad (four groups), length, weight and condition factor (five groups each). Prevalence, intensity, abundance and index of infection, were calculated by following Margolis *et al.* (1982) and the condition

factor was calculated followed the formula given by Pauly (1983). The parasites were graded into core species (> 60%), secondary species (40–60%), satellite species (5–40%) and rare species (<5%) (Holmes 1991). Diversity parameters like, Shannon index of species diversity, Simpson index, evenness index, index of species richness and community dominance were calculated. Statistical test included Chi – square test (X^2) and Correlation co-efficient (r) (significance level 0.05).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Species composition of helminth parasites in Otolithoides pama: Twelve species of helminth parasites were recovered from one hundred (47 males and individuals of O. pama namely, Microcotyle spinicirrus, Pseudempleurosoma haywardi, Uterovesiculurus hamati, Phyllodistomum folium, Helicometrina elongata, Stephanostomum sp., Parachristianella trygonis (larva), Unidentified cestode larva, Contracaecum sp. larva, Philometra protonibeae, Spirocamallanus notopteri and Acanthocephalus sp. (Table 1). Among the parasite groups, trematodes were the most diversified (4 species) followed by nematodes (3 species), monogeneans (2 species), cestodes (2 species) and acanthocephalans (1 species). Similar to this present study, a diversified helminth fauna was reported from abroad working with many Sciaenid fish other than O. pama (12 species from Menticirrhus americanus by Chaves and Luque 1999, 9 species from Otolithes ruber by Khosheghbal et al. 2017, 20 species from Micropogonias furnieri by Alves and Luque 2001, 12 species from Paralonchurus brasiliensis by Luque et al. 2003, 15 species from Cynoscion quatucupa and 14 species from Macrodon ancylodon by Sabas and Luque 2003, 10 species from Ctenosciaena gracilicirrus by Cardenas et al. 2012 and 15, 13, 14, 16 and 18 species from Bairdiella chrysoura, C. arenarius, M. americanus, M. littoralis, and Umbrina coroides, respectively by Montoya-Mendoza et al. 2019).

Generally, trematodes and nematodes are the most diversified parasite groups in marine fish which is also corroborate with the present study and all the above-mentioned research works. Contrary to those and present findings, Sehrin et al. (2023) reported only five species of helminth from three species of croaker of Bay of Bengal, Bangladesh. The carnivorous feeding habits and wide diet spectrum of croakers including pama croaker, bringing them in contact with several potential intermediate hosts of digenean trematodes, nematodes and acanthocephalans (Bell and Burt 1991, Alves and Luque 2001). Since, several helminth parasite species were reported from O. pama (Gymnorhynchus sp., Lytocestus sp., Goezia sp. and Pallisentis sp. by Arthur and Ahmed 2002, Contracaecum sp. by Naha et al. 2019) previously, the present study provides the first record for the occurrence of the above-mentioned helminth parasites (except Contracaecum sp.) in pama croaker.

Table 1. Prevalence, intensity, abundance, index of infection, dominance value and site of infection of helminth parasites in 0. pama

Parasite group	Name of the species	No. Of Host	Infe c ted	Preva lence %	Parasite s recovere	Inte n sity	Abu n danc	Index of infectio	Dominan ce Value	Site of infection
Monogen	Microcotyle	100	20	20	d 24	1.2	e 0.24	n 4.8	(DV) 1.83	Gill
ea	spinicirrus	100		20			0.21	1.0	1.00	O.I.I
	Pseudempleuros oma haywardi	100	11	11	35	3.18	0.35	3.85	2.66	Esophagus, stomach
Trematod a	Uterovesiculurus hamati	100	20	20	26	1.3	0.26	5.2	1.98	Body cavity, stomach, intestine
	Phyllodistomum folium	100	12	12	20	1.67	0.20	2.4	1.52	Body cavity, urinary bladder
	Helicometrina elongata	100	15	15	46	3.07	0.46	6.9	3.50	Body cavity, intestine, pyloric caeca
	Stephanostomum sp.	100	8	8	15	1.88	0.15	1.2	1.14	Stomach, intestine
Cestoda	Parachristianella trygonis	100	14	14	19	1.36	0.19	2.66	1.45	Stomach, intestine
	Unidentified cestode larva	100	4	4	69	17.2 5	0.69	2.76	5.25	Body cavity, intestine
Nematoda	Contracaecum sp. larva	100	67	67	882	13.1 6	8.82	590.94	67.12	Body cavity, stomach, intestine, pyloric caeca
	Philometra protonibeae	100	18	18	84	4.67	0.84	15.12	6.39	Gonad (ovary)
	Spirocamallanus notopteri	100	21	21	63	3.0	0.63	13.23	4.79	Body cavity, intestine
Acantho cephala	Acanthocephalus sp.	100	11	11	31	2.82	0.31	3.41	2.36	Intestine
Total		100	79	79.0	1314	16.6 3	13.14	•		

Community structure of helminth parasites in O. pama: The present parasite community was a moderately stable, dominating community with medium species diversity and low species richness (Table 2). The Contracaecum sp. was the core species and the Unidentified cestode larva found to be rare. The rests (10 species) were considered to be satellite species (Table 1). The dominance pattern of the parasite species was Contracaecum sp. larva > P. protonibeae > Unidentified cestode larva > S. notopteri > H. elongata > P. haywardi > Acanthocephalus sp. > U. hamati > M. spinicirrus > P. folium > P. trygonis (larva) > Stephanostomum sp. (Table 1, Figure 1). Group wise, the most and least dominant groups were Nematoda (78.31%) and Acanthocephala (2.36%), respectively. Like the present study, nematode dominated parasite fauna in Sciaenid fishes were reported by Alves and Luque (2001), Luque et al.

(2003), Sabas and Luque (2003). In contrast, digenean dominated parasite community also been reported by Chaves and Luque (1999) and Montoya-Mendoza *et al.* (2019). Among the nematodes, *Contracaecum* sp. was the predominant species with highest prevalence and abundance which is supported by Luque *et al.* (2003).

Table 2. Diversity parameters of the helminth parasite community in O. pama

Diversity parameters	Values	Criteria for Diversity parameters (Odum 1971)				
Shannon Index (H)	1.37	H < 1 - Low diversity 1 > H < 3 - Medium diversity H > 3 - High diversity				
Simpson Index (D)	0.46	The value of D ranges from 0 to 1 D<0.50 - Low diversity 0.50>D <0.75 - Moderate diversity D>0.75 - High diversity				
Richness Index (RI)	1.53	RI < 2.5 - Low species richness 2.5 > RI < 4 - Medium species richness RI > 4 - High species richness				
Evenness Index (E)	0.55	The value of E ranges from 0 to 1 E approaches 0 - Unstable species abundance distribution conditions E approaches 1 - Stable species abundance distribution conditions				
Dominance Index (DI)	0.91	The value of DI ranges from 0 to 1 DI< 0.50 - No species dominates 0.50> DI <0.75 - Moderate dominance DI> 0.75 - High dominance (one or a few species dominate the community)				

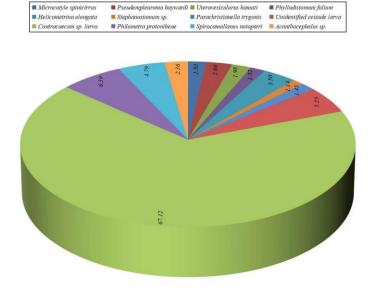


Fig. 1. Dominance pattern of the helminth parasites in O. pama

Microhabitat preference by helminth parasites within O. pama: Almost all the organs, e.g., body cavity, gill, esophagus, stomach, intestine, pyloric caeca, liver, kidney, urinary bladder, swim bladder and gonads (both male and female) were examined separately for occurrence of helminth parasites. Among these, intestine was the most favored microhabitat (55.0%), followed by body cavity (47.0%), stomach (20.0%) and gill (20.0%), gonad (18.0%), pyloric caeca (14.0%), urinary bladder (10.0%), and esophagus (9.0%) (Table 3, Figure 2). The prevalence, intensity, abundance and species richness (8 species) were highest in intestine probably due to being relatively nutrient rich habitat. On the other hand, liver, kidney, swim bladder and testis (male gonad) were proved to be completely unsuitable habitats for the survival of parasites. Contrary to present finding, stomach and liver (Sehrin et al. 2023) and body cavity (Naha et al. 2019) were found to be the most suitable sites for parasites, though liver was proved to be unsuitable for parasites presently.

Among the parasites, *M. spinicirrus*, *P. protonibeae* and *Acanthocephalus* sp. were strictly site specific, restricted only in gill, ovary (female gonad) and intestine, respectively (Table 4). The *Contracaecum* sp. was cosmopolitan in nature, found to harbor body cavity, stomach, intestine and pyloric caeca. During the present study, urinary bladder dwelling parasite, *P. folium* was recovered from body cavity, that might be the result of mishandling during the autopsy of fish. Though many other species of this genus were recovered from intestine of fish (Agrawal1966, Sarwat 2011, Rajput and Langer 2022), so, careful study should be needed.

Table 3. Organ wise prevalence, intensity and abundance of helminth parasites in O. pama

Site of infection (organs)	Host examined	Infecte d	Uninfec ted	Prevalen ce %	Parasite recovered	Intensity	Abunda nce	Chi - square value (p- value)
Body cavity	100	47	53	47.0	421	8.98	4.21	113.569 (0.0000)
Gill	100	20	80	20.0	24	1.20	0.24	Significant
Esophagus	100	9	91	9.00	26	2.89	0.26	
Stomach	100	20	80	20.0	68	3.40	0.68	
Intestine	100	55	45	55.0	627	11.4	6.27	
Pyloric caeca	100	14	86	14.0	47	3.36	0.47	
Gonad	100	18	82	18.0	84	4.67	0.84	
Urinary bladder	100	10	90	10.0	17	1.70	0.17	
Total	100	79	21	79.0	1314	16.63	13.14	

The site preference of parasites may be due to innate variance among them indicating their reaction to specific stimuli that bringing them to be confined establishment and successive migrations, influenced by some biochemical and

Table 4. Microhabitat distribution of individual parasite species in O. pama

Name of the species	Body cavity	Gill	Esoph agus	Stomach	Intes tine	Pyloric caeca	Gonad (ovary)	Urinary bladder	Total
Microcotyle spinicirrus	-	24	-	-	-	-	-	-	24
Pseudempleurosoma haywardi	-	-	26	9	-	-	-	-	35
Uterovesiculurus hamati	7	-	-	17	2	-	-	-	26
Phyllodistomum folium	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	17	20
Helicometrina elongata	2	-	-	-	10	34	-	-	46
Stephanostomum sp.	-	-	-	1	14	-	-	-	15
Parachristianella trygonis larva	2	-	-	-	17	-	-	-	19
Unidentified cestode larva	5	-	-	-	64	-	-	-	69
Contracaecum sp. larva	382	-	-	41	446	13	-	-	882
Philometra protonibeae	-	-	-	-	-	-	84	-	84
Spirocamallanus notopteri	20	-	-	-	43	-	-	-	63
Acanthocephalus sp.	-	-	-	-	31	-	-	-	31
Total	421	24	26	68	627	47	84	17	1314

physiological gradients in different organs of same host (Ulmer 1971, Holmes 1973, Evans 1977). In the present study, M. spinicirrus was found to occur only in gill. Previously, several microcotylid monogeneans were reported from gills of the Sciaenid fish (Sciaenacotyle sciaenicola in Argyrosomus japonicus by Hayward et al. 2007, Cynoscionicola jamaicensis in C. guatucupa and M. ancylodon by Sabas and Luque 2003, C. pseudoheteracantha from C. arenarius and *U. coroides* by Montoya-Mendoza et al. 2019, C. sciaenae in Sciaena deliciosa and C. americana in M. ophicephalus, Paralonchurus peruanus, S. fasciata and Stellifer minor by Oliva and Luque 1998). Another monogenean P. haywardi, reported presently from esophagus and stomach, was previously collected from the esophagus and anterior stomach of the croakers Nibea soldado, O. ruber and Johnius amblycephalus by Theisen et al. (2017) from Indonesia. Another species of this genus, P. qibsoni was reported by Luque et al. (2003) from the gill and pharynx of banded croaker. Species belonging to this genus Pseudempleurosoma adapted to an endo-parasitic mode of life, having

different adaptation level (Yamaguti 1965), especially in the anchor apparatus, remain attached to the esophageal folds (Gerasev *et al.* 1987).

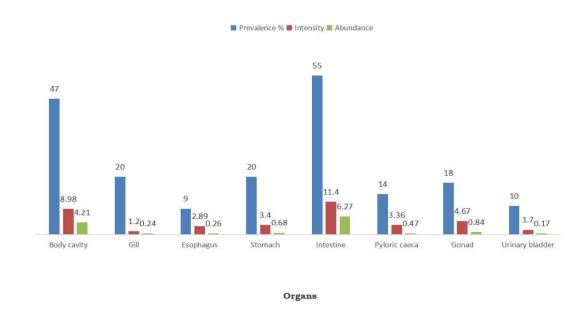


Fig. 2. Prevalence (%), intensity and abundance of helminth parasites in *O. pama* in relation to site of infection (organs)

One species of gonad infecting nematode, P. protonibeae was collected during the present study. Sehrin et al. (2023) has reported P. cephalopholidis in Pennahia anea from the coast of the Bay of Bengal, Bangladesh. The following gonadinfecting species of Philometra have been reported from fishes of the family Sciaenidae: P. carolinensis from C. nebulosus and M. americanus, and P. floridensis from Sciaenops ocellatus (Moravec et al. 2006, Moravec and de Buron 2009, Moravec et al. 2010, Moravec and de Buron 2013); P. johnii from J. dussumieri and Johnius sp. (Moravec and Ali 2013, Moravec and Diggles 2014); P. otolithi from O. ruber (Moravec et al. 2013 and 2014, Moravec and Manoharan 2013, Moravec and Ali 2014, Khosheghbal et al. 2017); and P. sciaenae from P. argentata (Yamaguti 1941, Moravec et al. 1998, et al. 2008) and P. protonibeae from Blackspotted croaker, P. diacanthus (Moravec and Barton 2015).

During the present study three larval parasite species were recorded. Presence of helminth larval stages may indicate the possible intermediate trophic level of this fish and may be part of the diet of marine mammal or birds, and elasmobranch fishes (Alves and Luque 2001). Adult *Contracaecum* found in

the stomach or small intestine of piscivorous birds and mammals associated with fresh, brackish and marine environments (Anderson 2000) and a wide spectrum of invertebrates and many fish species have been reported to carry larval *Contracaecum* sp. (Norris and Overstreet 1976). The larval stage of *Contracaecum* sp. is responsible for causing a severe parasitic syndrome in final host (Wharton *et al.* 1999). Normally they found in the intestinal mesentery or adhered to viscera, may travel to muscles after the host's death. Though, preference for parasitizing visceral organs limits their zoonotic potential, they may migrate into the flesh of fish if not frozen or filleted after capture. Thus, considering the potential public health importance of larval *Contracaecum* sp. special care should be given in the consumption of this fish.

Infection dynamics of helminth parasites in O. pama: The overall prevalence, intensity and abundance of helminth parasites were 79.0%, 16.63 and 13.14, respectively. Among the parasites Contracaecum sp. was the most prevalent species (67.0%) followed by S. notopteri (21.0%), M. spinicirrus (20.0%) and U. hamati (20.0%), P. protonibeae (18.0%), H. elongata (15%), P. trygonis larva (14.0%), P. folium (12.0%), P. haywardi (11.0%) and Acanthocephalus sp. (11.0%), Stephanostomum sp. (8.0%) and Unidentified cestode larva (4.0%) (Table 1, Figure 3). Comparatively, a higher prevalence of parasitic infection in Sciaenid fish than the present study was also reported by Alves and Luque (2001), Luque et al. (2003), Sabas and Luque (2003), etc. Prevalence and intensity are dependent on parasite species and their biology, host and its feeding habits, physical factors and hygiene of the water body, and presence of intermediate hosts where necessary (Shukerova et al. 2005, Hussen et al. 2012). In the present study, the females (84.91%) were found to be more vulnerable to parasitic infection than male (72.34%) though, no significant differences were observed. Both the intensity and abundance were also higher in female fish (Table 5, Figure 4A). The stages of the sexual maturity (stages of gonads) found to have significant influence on the prevalence, the prevalence was recorded 100% in ripe/gravid fishes and spent fishes have minimum infection (47.37%) (Table 6, Figure 4B). The prevalence, intensity and abundance were higher in larger (length and weight) fishes (Table 7 and 8, Figure 4C and 4D) and in fishes having 0.73-0.82 condition factor range (Table 9, Figure 4E). All the relationships between prevalence, intensity and abundance with length, weight and condition factor of fish were found insignificant positive except the significant positive relation between weight and prevalence. Having no influence of sex on parasite prevalence and abundance is a widely documented pattern (Luque et al. 2003, Sabas and Luque 2003, Cardenas et al. 2012), and interpreted as a consequence of the absence of sexual differences in some biological aspects of the fish (Luque et al. 1996, Alves et al. 2002). Again, according to Siddiqui (2014), the differences in the infection levels

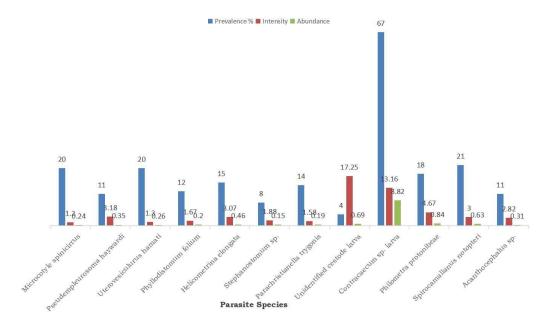


Fig. 3. Prevalence (%), intensity and abundance of helminth parasites in O. pama in relation to parasite species

of the parasites in the female and male hosts may be due to the physiological changes in quantity and quality of steroid hormone presumably androgens of male and estrogens of female hosts. He concluded that, the differences of distribution of parasites between different sexes were not due to any one single factor, but it might be result of combination of several factors.

Table 5. Gender wise prevalence, intensity and abundance of helminth parasites in O. pama

Gender	Host examined	Infected	Un infected	Prevalence %	Parasite recovered	Intensity	Abundanc e	Chi - square value (p-value)
Male	47	34	13	72.34	437	12.85	9.30	2.371 (0.1236)
Female	53	45	8	84.91	877	19.49	16.55	Insignificant
Total	100	79	21	79.0	1314	16.63	13.14	

Table 6. Maturity stage wise prevalence, intensity and abundance of helminth parasites in O. pama

Stages of gonadal maturity	Host examined	Infected	Un infected	Prevalence %	Parasite recovered	Intensity	Abundance	Chi - square value (p- value)
Immature	18	14	4	77.78	289	20.64	16.06	17.884 (0.0000)
Mature	40	33	7	82.50	402	12.18	10.05	Significant
Ripe / Gravid	23	23	0	100.0	530	23.04	23.04	· ·
Spent	19	9	10	47.37	93	10.33	4.89	
Total	100	79	21	79.0	1314	16.63	13.14	

Table 7. Length wise prevalence, intensity and abundance of helminth parasites in O. pama

Length group (L)	Host examined	Infected	Un infected	Prevalence (%)	Parasite recovered	Inten sity	Abundance	Correlation co- efficient (p-value)
14.1 – 18.6	35	29	6	82.86	544	18.76	15.54	L vs P = 0.6421 (0.2428) Insignificant
18.6 - 23.1	32	23	9	71.88	368	16.00	11.5	· ·
23.1 – 27.6	24	19	5	79.17	263	13.84	10.96	L vs I = 0.1745 (0.7789) Insignificant
27.6 - 32.1	5	4	1	80.00	38	9.5	7.6	-
32.1 – 36.6	4	4	0	100.0	101	25.25	25.25	L vs A = 0.3606 (0.5510) Insignificant
Total	100	79	21	79.0	1314	16.63	13.14	-

Table 8. Body weight wise prevalence, intensity and abundance of helminth parasites in O. pama

Weight group (W)	Host examined	Infected	Un infected	Prevalence (%)	Parasite recovered	Intensity	Abundance	Correlation co- efficient (p-value)
25.1 – 91.0	71	56	15	78.87	1006	17.94	14.17	W vs P = 0.8892 (0.0435) Significant
91.0 - 156.9	19	14	5	73.68	151	10.79	7.95	Ŭ
156. 9 – 222.8	6	5	1	83.33	56	11.2	9.33	W vs I = 0.5588 (0.3275) Insignificant
222.8 - 288.7	1	1	0	100.0	32	32.0	32.0	ŭ
288.7 – 354.6	3	3	0	100.0	69	23.0	23.0	W vs A = 0.6519 (0.2332) Insignificant
Total	100	79	21	79.0	1314	16.63	13.14	<u> </u>

Table 9. Condition factor wise prevalence, intensity and abundance of helminth parasites in 0. pama

Condition factor (C)	Host examined	Infected	Un infected	Prevalence (%)	Parasite recovered	Inten sity	Abundance	Correlation co- efficient (p-value)
0.55 – 0.64	9	5	4	55.56	42	8.4	4.67	C vs P = 0.4394 (0.4591) Insignificant
0.64 - 0.73	40	32	8	80.00	665	20.78	16.63	•
0.73 – 0.82	31	28	3	90.32	320	11.43	10.32	C vs I = 0.1557 (0.8026) Insignificant
0.82 - 0.91	14	9	5	64.29	240	26.67	17.14	Ü
0.91 – 1.00	6	5	1	83.33	47	9.4	7.83	C vs A = 0.1976 (0.7501) Insignificant
Total	100	79	21	79.0	1314	16.63	13.14	

The maturity stages of the fish can potentially influence the levels of parasitism due to behavioral and physiological differences. Susceptibility to parasites is greater for some fish species during the reproductive period (Machado *et al.*2000) and the physiological state of female fish during gonad development could

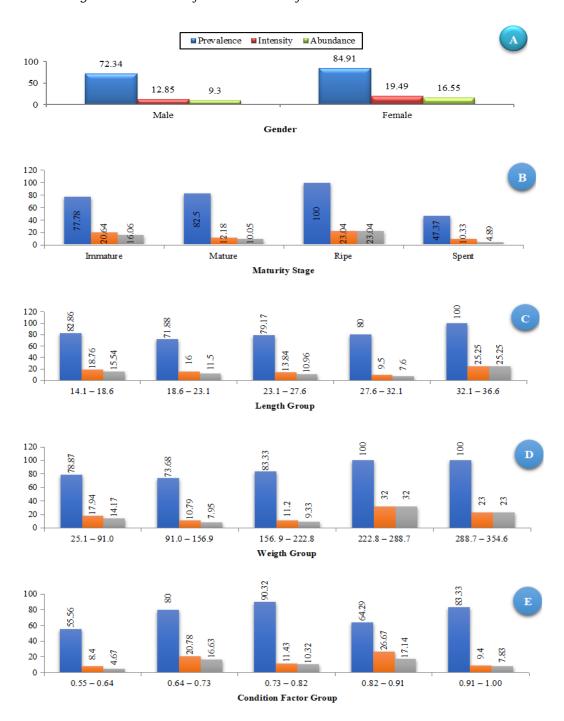


Fig. 4.. Prevalence (%), intensity and abundance of helminth parasites in *O. pama* in relation to- A. Gender, B. Maturity stages, C. Length, D. Weight, E. Condition factor

have reduced resistance to parasitic infestation (Omeji et al. 2011). The higher intensity in female fish may be related to their involvement in reproduction is more costly than that in males (Shukerova et al. 2005). In general, the length of fish is directly related to its age and body size (Shotter 1973). Parasite prevalence and intensity are positively associated with fish age (Chandler et al. 1995, Mohammed et al. 2008). The increased prevalence and intensity in larger fish might be attributed to the fact that large fish take more food and travel wider areas in searching for food for longer time of exposure to the environment and thus are more susceptible to parasitic infestation which is consistent with the report of Omeji et al. 2011, Naha et al. 2019, Sehrin et al. 2023) but contradicts that of Tasawar et al. (2007), who stated that, smaller fish have higher parasite load than large ones. Though significant correlation with length with parasite prevalence and abundance reported by Sabas and Luque (2003), the present findings regarding positive, but weak and insignificant correlation between prevalence, intensity and abundance with length, weight and condition factor of fish are in agreement with Poulin (2000) who concluded that this pattern cannot be generalized. Besides, the ontogenetical changes in the feeding behavior might have influence on parasite prevalence and abundance in the host size classes (Saad-Fares and Combes 1992).

Multiple infections were very frequent (78.48%) during the present study. Only 17 (out of 79 infected, 21.52%) showed infection with single parasite species and 18 (22.79%), 24 (30.38%), 11 (13.92%), 2 (2.53%), 6 (7.59) and 1 (1.27%) showed multiple infections with 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 and 7 parasite species, respectively. Like the present study, multiple infection was very common in Sciaenid fishes (Chaves and Lique 1999, Alves and Luque 2001, Luque *et al.* 2003, Sabas and Luque 2003, etc.). The occurrence of multiple parasite species in single host, indicates the absence of competition with respect to ecological requirements, probably because of not occupying the same niche along the microenvironment of parasites.

CONCLUSION

The present study was conducted, for the first time, to explore the total helminth fauna along with the community structure, their infection dynamics and preference for microhabitat, of a common Sciaenid fish *O. pama* which may increase the data on the biodiversity and enhances the knowledge of the helminth with regard to public health importance and sustainable fishery management, especially presence of *Contracaecum* sp. larvae and the infection in gonad (ovary) by *P. protonibeae*, respectively. However, specific morphological and molecular identification of parasites and more information about host biology are needed to improve the interpretation of these parasitological patterns, in an ecological framework incorporating pertinent environmental and biological information.

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