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**Gastroenteric parasite of wild Galliformes in the Italian Alps: implication for conservation management**

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1 **Gastroenteric parasite of wild Galliformes in the Italian Alps: implication for conservation**  
2 **management**

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10 Running title: Parasite community of wild alpine Galliformes.

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24 **Summary page**

25 **Abstract**

26 This study provides insights about the diversity, prevalence and distribution of alpine wild  
27 galliforms gastrointestinal parasite community, trying to fill a gap in the scientific information  
28 currently available in scientific literature. The analysis included 3 host species: 77 rock partridge  
29 (*Alectoris graeca saxatilis*), 83 black grouse (*Tetrao tetrix tetrix*) and 26 rock ptarmigan (*Lagopus*  
30 *mutus helveticus*) shot during the hunting seasons 2008–2015. Parasites isolated were *Ascaridia*  
31 *compar*, *Capillaria caudinflata* and cestodes. The rock ptarmigan was free from gastrointestinal  
32 parasites, whereas the most prevalent helminth (37%) was *A. compar* in both black grouse and rock  
33 partridge. *C.caudinflata* occurrence was significantly higher in black grouse (prevalence=10%,  
34 mean abundance=0.6 parasites/sampled animal) than in rock partridge (prevalence=1.20%, mean  
35 abundance=0.01 parasites/sampled animal). Significant differences were detected among hunting  
36 districts. *A.compar* was found with significant higher degree of infestation in the hunting districts in  
37 the northern part of the study area whereas cestodes abundance was higher in Lanzo Valley.  
38 Quantitative analysis of risk factors was carried out using a generalized linear model (GLM) only  
39 on the most common parasite (*A.compar*). Latitude was the only factors associated with infestation  
40 risk (OR= 52.4). This study provides information on the composition and variability of the parasite  
41 community in the alpine Galliformes species.

42

43 **Keywords:** Galliformes, parasites, Alps, Ascaridia, conservation

44

45 **Key findings**

46 • Three different parasites were detected in Alpine Galliformes: *Ascaridia compar*, *Capillaria*  
47 *caudinflata* and cestodes.

48 • *A. compar* was the most prevalent parasite

49 • No parasites were detected in the rock ptarmigan

50 • A significant difference in infestation risk was found among the different hunting districts

51

## 52        **1. Introduction**

53        The Alps are recognized as one of the major hotspots of biodiversity in Europe. Specifically, they  
54        host different species belonging to Galliformes order, and among them the rock partridge (*Alectoris*  
55        *graeca saxatilis*), the black grouse (*Tetrao tetrix tetrix*) and the rock ptarmigan (*Lagopus mutus*  
56        *helveticus*). These three species are listed in the Directive 2009/147/EC of the European Parliament  
57        for the conservation of wild birds in Europe (European Parliament and European Council, 2009).  
58        Moreover, according to the National Red Data Book of Italy, both rock partridge and rock  
59        ptarmigan are classified as “vulnerable”, whereas the black grouse as “least concern” (Rondinini *et*  
60        *al.*, 2013). More in general, the wild Galliformes population in some areas of the Alps has globally  
61        reduced in the last years (Giordano, 2017). Considering the critical status of conservation of some  
62        species, a correct management of these population is of pivotal importance. Several factors are  
63        negatively affecting wild Galliformes population density, including habitat loss and degradation  
64        (Pearce-Higgins *et al.* 2007; Ludwig *et al.* 2009; Signorell *et al.* 2010). Some studies have also  
65        highlighted the harmful effects of climate changes on alpine environments (Anfodillo 2007; Tinner  
66        and Vescovi 2007), and some typical alpine fauna, such as the rock ptarmigan, living between 1800  
67        and 3000 meters above sea level (a.s.l) with fresh north-facing slopes (Lasagna, 2009), has been  
68        proved to be particular sensitive to climate changes (Watson and Moss, 2004).

69        In a context of wildlife conservation, there is a great interest to assess the role of pathogens in  
70        influencing population dynamics (Smith *et al.*, 2006; Delogu *et al.*, 2013). This is partially due to  
71        the fact that the number of pathogens to which wildlife is exposed has recently increased, for  
72        several reasons. In particular for wild Galliformes there is an increased risk of disease transmission  
73        as a consequence of the restocking of games species (Gortazar *et al.*, 2014). Every year the red  
74        partridge, the ring neck pheasant and other wild species are introduced for hunting purpose in the  
75        Italian Alps (Regione Piemonte, 2018). These game animals, not always raised with adequate  
76        hygienic and sanitary conditions, can potentially shed pathogens in the environment, which might  
77        be hazardous for wildlife population. Based on scientific literature in fact, different factors make  
78        captive-born animals particularly susceptible to infectious diseases (Lafferty and Gerber, 2002). For  
79        this reason, they can potentially have heavy parasite loads that can be transmitted to wild  
80        populations (Power and Mitchell, 2004).

81        Taking into account that pathogens might have a negative impact on welfare and population  
82        dynamics (Hudson 1986; Holmstad *et al.* 2005; Citterio *et al.* 2006), the studies on the parasite  
83        fauna hosted by endangered species can provide a better understanding of such interactions  
84        (Formenti *et al.*, 2013). However, the health status of wild Galliformes populations is poorly

85 known. This is in partly due to the complexity of sampling animals in the alpine environments, to  
86 the low density of targeted species and to the few ongoing projects focusing on health issues of  
87 Galliformes.

88 With the objective of improving the knowledge on wild Galliformes populations pathogens, we  
89 evaluated the helminth community parasitizing the rock partridge, the black grouse and the rock  
90 ptarmigan in the Italian Alps.

## 91 **2. Material and Methods**

### 92 2.1 Sample collection

93 During the hunting seasons (October-November) 2008 to 2015, 77 rock partridge, 83 black grouse  
94 and 26 rock ptarmigans were collected in 6 different hunting grounds in the Italian Alps.  
95 Specifically, the following districts were investigated: Comprensorio alpino Sondrio (C.A.  
96 Sondrio), Aosta valley, Comprensorio Alpino Biella valley (C.A. BI1), Comprensorio Alpino  
97 Lanzo valleys (C.A. TO4), Comprensorio Alpino Varaita valley (C.A. CN2), Comprensorio Alpino  
98 Maira valley (C.A. CN3). This work has been carried out in accordance with the hunting activity  
99 laid down by regional laws (Regione Piemonte, 2018). Figure 1 shows the provinces sampled  
100 during the study. The sample composition, divided by species and district, is presented in table 1.

101  
102 [Figure 1]

103 [Table 1]

### 104 2.2 Parasitological analysis

105 Gastrointestinal tracts were examined and processed. Parasite collection was done with the support  
106 of a stereomicroscope. The identification was carried out consulting the available identification  
107 keys (Skrjabin, 1954; Kalil *et al.*, 1994). Nematodes were stored in 70% ethanol while cestodes  
108 were fixed in AFA solution (acetic acid 3%, formaldehyde 15%, alcohol 50 degrees 82%). Cestodes  
109 identification at genera and species levels was not possible due to the non-optimal conservation of  
110 the samples.

### 112 2.3 Statistical analysis

113 Prevalence (positive/total animals), abundance (number parasites / total animals) intensity (number  
114 parasites / positive animals) were computed for each parasite in each host species and hunting  
115 district. The “number of parasites” refers to the number of individuals found for each parasite taxa.  
116 Prevalence data were compared using the Fisher’s exact test, frequency distribution of parasites

117 intensity and abundance using the Kruskal-Wallis test (Rozsa *et al.*, 2000). Considering the  
118 unbalanced sample size for some areas, Aosta valley and Sondrio samples were excluded from the  
119 statistical comparison, while Varaita and Maira valleys were aggregated in a unique sample area, as  
120 for geographic location they can be consider as a part of a common population sharing the same risk  
121 factors. In case of significant difference between groups, pairwise comparisons with correction for  
122 multiple testing were computed between groups (Benjamini and Hochberg, 1995). Rock ptarmigan  
123 samples were excluded from the statistical analysis as no parasite was detected in this species.

124 Nematode distribution can be highly influenced by environmental variable (Sanchis-Monsonís *et al.*,  
125 2019), considering that they can influence the survival of infective stages in the environment. With  
126 the purpose to better understand the geographic distribution of nematodes, the influence of  
127 environmental factors on parasite presence was evaluated through a generalized linear model  
128 (GLM). Taking into account that a low prevalence value might lead to a loss in accuracy and  
129 precision of risk estimates (Doerken *et al.*, 2019), the GLM model was applied on *A. compar* only,  
130 because it was the only parasite with a adequate number of presence data (72 geo-referenced  
131 records). Spatial analysis was carried out with QGIS software version 3.6 (QGIS Development  
132 Team, 2017). Environmental covariates were computed considering a buffer area around the  
133 sampled location, using species specific home ranges according to the available literature: 686  
134 meters radius for the black grouse (Storch, 1994 ) and 829 meters radius for the rock partridge  
135 (Asters, 2012).Covariates were log transformed and tested for multicollinearity through VIF  
136 approach (Heiberger, 2018). The ones whose VIF was greater than 5 were excluded from the  
137 analysis. The most parsimonious models were selected computing the Akaike Information Criterion  
138 (AIC) (Akaike, 1973). Model performance was assessed by computing the area under the curve  
139 value (AUC). All statistical analyses were performed using R (R Core Team, 2018). GLM was built  
140 using *glmulti package* (Calcagno, 2019). Table 2 shows the environmental variables used, a brief  
141 description and the original source.

142 [Table 2]

### 143 **3. Results**

#### 144 **3.1 Parasitological analysis**

145 Seventy-five out of 186 animals hosted gastrointestinal helminths (prevalence: 40.3%). Parasites  
146 were found in 42 black grouse out of 83 (prevalence: 50.6%) and 33 rock partridges out of 77  
147 (prevalence: 42.8%) whereas no worm was detected in the rock ptarmigan. Three different parasites  
148 were identified; *Ascaridia compar*, *Capillaria caudinflata* and cestodes. Parasites were mostly



149 found in the small intestine (40%) and cecum (13.7%), while the gizzard was parasitized in only  
150 three cases (1.9%)

### 151 3.2 Analysis by host species

152 *A. compar* was recorded with the highest prevalence in both species (37%), while *C. caudinflata*  
153 was more prevalent in the black grouse (10%) than in the rock partridge (1.2%). Finally, cestodes  
154 prevalence was similar for both species (7% in black grouse and 5 % in rock partridge). Prevalence,  
155 abundance and intensity for each parasite and in each host species are presented in table 3.

156 [Table 3]

157 Fisher test shows that the proportion of birds infested by *C. caudinflata* was significantly different  
158 between host species (p value=0.017). No significant difference was found for the remaining  
159 parasites groups. In accordance with the Kruskal-Wallis test, the frequency distributions of *C.*  
160 *caudinflata* abundance indicates that also the level of infection is significantly different between the  
161 two host species (p value=0.02).

162

163 No difference was detected for the abundance of the other parasite and in general no difference was  
164 highlighted for parasite intensity.

### 165 3.3 Analysis by hunting district

166 A clear spatial aggregation of the parasites has been found. *A. compar* was found mainly in Biella  
167 (59%) and Lanzo valleys (54%). Biella valley shows also the highest prevalence of *C. caudinflata*  
168 infestation (12%). Cestodes were the only parasite not showing a specific geographic distribution of  
169 prevalence. Table 4 shows the prevalence, abundance and intensity values for each parasite in each  
170 hunting district. Considering the small sample size in Aosta and Sondrio district, the differences  
171 detected in these two hunting districts have not be considered for statistical comparison but just for  
172 descriptive purposes, as the different sampling intensity could reduce the robustness of the analysis.

173 [Table 4]

174 Significant differences for prevalence among the areas were found only for *A. compar* Biella and  
175 Lanzo Valleys prevalence was in fact significantly higher than the hunting district of Maira and  
176 Varaita valleys together. ~~Prevalence in Aosta valley was also significantly higher than in Sondrio~~  
177 ~~and in Varaita valley.~~ Detailed information on areas comparison, and statistical differences for the  
178 relevant hunting districts are provided in the supplementary material.

179 The Kruskal-Wallis test showed significant differences for *A. compar* abundance; Biella valley and  
180 Lanzo valley were significantly higher than Maira and Varaita valleys together.

181 Finally, cestodes abundance was significantly higher in Lanzo valleys compared to Biella valley.

### 182 3.2.3. Generalized linear model for *A. compar* infestation

183 The reduced GLM model for *A. compar* (AIC=53.7) included latitude and aspect (western  
184 exposition) as independent variables. The only significant factor retained in the model was the  
185 latitude (p value=0.002) The estimated odds ratio of latitude (OR=52.4) highlights that there is a  
186 clear risk of parasite infestation in animals living at higher latitude in our study areas. The model  
187 fitted the data very well (AUC=0.91), and the amount of deviance accounted was 0.42.

## 188 4. Discussion

189 This paper provides important information on the parasite community of wild Galliformes in the  
190 Italian Alps. Despite the objective difficulties in sampling wild animals in the alpine environment,  
191 this study was able to include a sample of 186 wild Galliformes, collected in six different hunting  
192 areas from 2009 to 2015. Apart from the relevant number of animals that have been sampled,  
193 another important aspect of the paper is the description of the parasite community in 3 different  
194 species with different biology, ecological needs, conservation status and population densities. Only  
195 three helminths were detected in the black grouse and rock partridge, whereas no gastrointestinal  
196 parasite was found in the rock ptarmigan. The epidemiological indexes of prevalence, intensity and  
197 distribution highlighted differences among infected species and sampled areas. In particular, the  
198 most infected hunting districts were localized in the northern part of the study areas, and *C.*  
199 *caudinflata* showed a specific host predilection for the black grouse. The presence of a spatial  
200 aggregation of some parasite species, has been also confirmed by the results of the GLM model.

201 The low parasite richness recorded in this work is in accordance with previous studies carried out in  
202 Eastern Italian Alps (Viganò *et al.*, 2012a,b; Formenti *et al.*, 2013). It is particularly worthy to  
203 highlight the completely absence of parasite in the rock partridge, living at high altitude, in areas  
204 with more extreme climatic conditions that probably do not allow the development of parasite  
205 cycles. On the contrary, some parasites extensively detected in previous studies like *Heterakis*  
206 *gallinarum* (in the rock partridge) (Florio and Gamba 1993; Milani 2010; Viganò *et al.*, 2012b;  
207 Viganò and Giacomelli, 2014), were not detected in our survey. The absence of this parasite might  
208 be due to either a reduction of the host population density, which is no longer able to maintain the  
209 parasite cycle, or to a host-parasite equilibrium reached in the ecosystem. In a context of low host

210 density, the parasite fitness can in fact declines with a lower ability to infest next generations and a  
211 potential local extinction in a long-term perspective.

212 Compared with similar surveys carried out in northern European countries, the parasite richness  
213 found in our study is significantly lower. Several parasite species found in northern Europe have  
214 never been recorded on the Alpine Galliformes. These include *Heterakis bonasae* (Kalla *et al.*,  
215 1997), *Trycostrongilus tenuis* (Holmstad *et al.*, 2005), *Syngamus trachea* (Wissler and Halvorsen,  
216 1977). A possible explanation to these findings may be provided by the work of Altzier *et al.*  
217 (2007). These authors in fact have demonstrated how an isolated and low-density host population  
218 might have fewer parasites. Hence Alpine Galliformes may harbour fewer parasite species, as a  
219 consequence of restricted and isolated geographical ranges. This is particularly true for species like  
220 the rock ptarmigan that is a glacial relict, whose population remained isolated at the end of the last  
221 glaciation.

222 Regarding the prevalence of the parasite in the other two host species, *A. compar* was detected in  
223 the black grouse at lower prevalence (37%) in comparison with other studies (62.3-82.4%) (Viganò  
224 *et al.*, 2012a), as well as *C. caudinflata* (10% vs 48.4-79.3%) (Viganò *et al.*, 2012a). On the  
225 contrary, in rock partridge, *A. compar* prevalence (37%) was three times higher than the one found  
226 in Viganò *et al.* (2012b), while *C. caudinflata* prevalence was lower (1.2% vs 19.2%) (Viganò *et*  
227 *al.*, 2012b).

228 Despite there were no statistically significant differences in prevalence among the areas, *C.*  
229 *caudinflata* was found mainly in Biella valley, providing evidences of a heterogeneous sanitary  
230 status of the different alpine populations.

231 Additionally, *Capillaria* shows a clear host preference: 9 over 83 black grouse were found  
232 parasitized versus 1 over 77 rock partridge. This difference might be due to the fact that the parasite  
233 host-specificity increases with higher host densities (Forbes *et al.*, 2017). In the Italian Alps in fact,  
234 the black grouse is the wild Galliformes with the highest population density (Giordano *et al.* 2017).  
235 Moreover, considering that *Capillaria* have an indirect cycle, with earthworms as intermediate host,  
236 the different risk of infestation can also be due to different feeding behavior and diet of the two host  
237 species. The black grouse in fact feed more on earthworms while the rock partridge on insects. Yet  
238 data on *C. caudinflata* infestation in wild Galliformes are relatively limited, this worm has been  
239 recorded in a wide range of bird species causing severe enteritis and anemia leading to poor general  
240 conditions and weight loss even in case of mild infestation (Villanúa *et al.*, 2007, Pinto *et al.*, 2008,  
241 McCain, 2015). The impact of this parasite on black grouse population dynamics should be then  
242 further evaluated.

243 Host specificity has not been recorded in the case of *Ascaridia* or Cestodes which have been found  
244 to equally infest black grouse and rock partridge.

245 In addition to density and diet preferences, other specific variables related to behaviour, phenology,  
246 and nest structure can influence the predisposition to parasitism. Indeed, the quality of being a  
247 competent host for parasites depends on host-specific variation in parasite reproductive success  
248 (Stokke *et al.*, 2018). However, more studies about parasites of Galliformes on the Alps are needed  
249 to better evaluate the factors explaining this variation in host selection.

250 As regards *A. compar* infestation, the prevalence, abundance and intensity values found in the  
251 hunting districts in the northern part of the study area (Lanzo and Biella Valleys) were significantly  
252 higher than in the southern part. This different degree of parasitism is probably due to different  
253 climatic conditions influencing the development and survival of both eggs, larvae and intermediate  
254 hosts of the parasites.

255 The spatial variation of parasitism degree might also reflect the sanitary management and sanitary  
256 status of game birds released in the different hunting districts. Restocking with farmed game birds,  
257 above all for red-legged partridge and ring-necked pheasant, is a practice still quite common in  
258 Italy. Specific articles of the Regional laws (Regione Piemonte, 2018) do not allow to release  
259 animals in the areas where alpine Galliformes lives; however, these interdictions are not always  
260 fully respected. Game birds are kept in aviaries where proper hygienic conditions cannot be  
261 maintained, thus infestation by parasites are likely (Stadler and Carpenter, 1996). Moreover,  
262 sanitary check before releasing the animals are always lacking. Once released, these animals can  
263 shed their parasites in the environment which becomes a potential source of infestation for free-  
264 ranging wild birds. This might be an additional problem for wild Galliformes  
265 conservation (Tompkins *et al.*, 2015). A study carried out in Spain have clearly demonstrated that  
266 areas where restocking is a common practice, the sanitary status of the wild Galliformes can  
267 significantly deteriorate (Villanúa *et al.*, 2008). Under this perspective, the sanitary status of the  
268 different areas could be considered an indirect index of the quality of the wildlife management  
269 activity carried out in the different hunting districts.

270 In addition, various environmental risk factors might play an important role in parasite infestation.  
271 The GLM model built for *Ascaridia compar*, highlighted that, among all the environmental factors  
272 assessed, latitude was the only one with a clear influence on parasite distribution. Latitude in this  
273 case can be seen as a proxy of the climatic and environmental conditions required for the  
274 development of free-living stages of nematodes. These parameters in fact, can vary according to the  
275 latitude. In particular according to climatic data from the Regional Agency for the protection of the

276 environment (ARPA Piedmont - <http://www.arpa.piemonte.it/>, accessed August 2019) the northern  
277 hunting districts are characterized by annual average precipitation values higher than the southern  
278 ones, thus creating more favorable condition for parasites development (humidity and dense  
279 vegetation cover). Latitude, as factor explaining parasite distribution and parasite richness has been  
280 found also in other works, modelling the spatial distribution of parasite, at local (Sanchis-Monsonís  
281 et al, 2019) and regional scale (Nunn et a., 2005).

## 282 **5. Conclusion**

283 This work increases the limited knowledge on the sanitary status of Galliformes in the Alps. Our  
284 results show that the level of parasitic infestation in the black grouse and rock partridge varies  
285 across the study areas. This insight is of interest considering that the parasite load might affect the  
286 conservation of endangered population. On the other hand, our sample was not homogeneously  
287 distributed across the whole study area and an increase in the number of animals sampled from  
288 some hunting districts would help to clarify further the host and environmental requirements of the  
289 parasites. Further epidemiological studies about parasite species and their impact on wild  
290 Galliformes populations are needed to correctly plan conservation measures, considering that some  
291 parasite can have a huge direct (mortality) or indirect (reduce population fitness) effect at  
292 population level.

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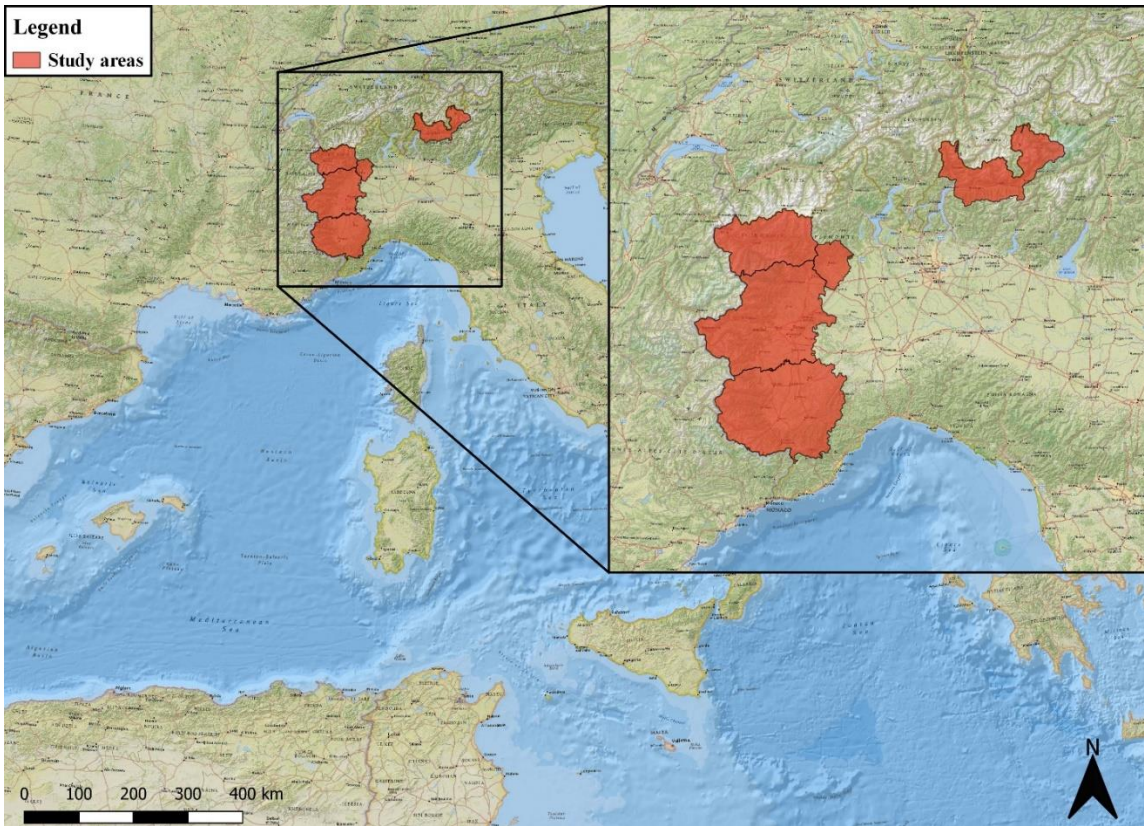
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433

434 **Figure**

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*Figure I: Italian provinces where the study was undertaken*

439 **Tables**

440

<b>Species</b>	<b>Sondrio (C.A. Sondrio)</b>	<b>Aosta Valley</b>	<b>Biella Valley (C.A. BI1)</b>	<b>Lanzo Valleys (C.A. .TO4)</b>		<b>Varaita and Maira Valley (C.A. CN2 and C.A. CN3)</b>
Rock partridge	1	2	34	8		32
Black grouse	1	5	25	24		28
Rock ptarmigan	17	1	0	3		5

441

*Table 1: Number of animals sampled, divided per species and hunting district*

442

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Description</b>	<b>Source</b>
Altitude*	Average altitude	DEM from SRTM
North exposition	Area exposed to North (%)	<a href="http://srtm.csi.cgiar.org/">http://srtm.csi.cgiar.org/</a>
South exposition*	Area exposed to South (%)	
East Exposition	Area exposed to East (%)	
West exposition	Area exposed to West (%)	
Artificial lands	Areas covered by Artificial lands (%)	
Permanent pastures	Areas covered by Permanent pastures (%)	Corine Land Cover 2006
Extensive agriculture	Areas covered by Extensive agriculture (%)	<a href="https://land.copernicus.eu/pan-european/corine-land-cover">https://land.copernicus.eu/pan-european/corine-land-cover</a>
Shrubs and grass*	Areas covered by Shrubs and grass (%)	
Sparse and absent vegetation	Areas covered by Sparse and absent vegetation (%)	
Coniferous and mixed forests	Areas covered by Coniferous and mixed forests (%)	
Deciduous forest	Areas covered by Deciduous forest(%)	
Latitude	Latitude of the sample location	NA

443 \*variables with collinearity (VIF>5)

444 *Table 2: Overall listing of variables taken into account in the study*

445

<b>Host species</b>	<b>Parasite</b>	<b>Prevalence (CI<sub>95%</sub>)</b>	<b>Mean abundance (sd)</b>	<b>Median abundance (IQR)</b>	<b>Mean intensity (sd)</b>	<b>Median intensity (IQR)</b>
Black grouse	<i>Ascaridia compar</i>	37% (0.27-0.47)	3.27 (7.95)	0 (2)	8.74 (11.1)	3 (10.5)
	<i>Capillaria caudinflata</i>	10% (0.04-0.16)	0.61(3.62)	0 (0)	5.67(10.1)	1(3)
	Cestodes	7% (0.02-0.12)	0.08(0.32)	0 (0)	1.17(0.41)	1(0)
Rock patridge	<i>Ascaridia compar</i>	37% (0.26 - 0.48)	3.75 (8.97)	0 (2)	9.97 (12.4)	3(14)
	<i>Capillaria caudinflata</i>	1.20% (-0.01-0.03)	0.01(0.11)	0 (0)	1(NaN)	1(0)
	Cestodes	5% (0 - 0.10)	0.13(0.66)	0 (0)	2.5(1.73)	2(1)

446 *Table 3:Prevalence, abundance and intensity for each helminth and host species*

447

District	Parasite	Prevalence (CI <sub>95%</sub> )	Mean abundance(s d)	Median abundance (IQR)	Mean intensity (sd)	Median intensity (IQR)
Aosta Valley	<i>Ascaridia compar</i>	0.38 (0.04-0.71)	3 (6.27)	0 (2)	7(8.72)	3 (8)
	<i>Capillaria caundinflat a</i>	0	0(0)	0 (0)	-	-
	Cestodes	0.25 (-0.05-0.55)	0.43(0.80)	0(0.5)	1.5(0.71)	1.5(0.5)
C.A. TO4	<i>Ascaridia compar</i>	0.54 (0.38-0.70)	4.28(10.3)	1 (2)	6.85(12.5)	2(4.25)
	<i>Capillaria caundinflat a</i>	0	0(0)	0(0)	-	-
	Cestodes	0.11 (0.06-0.21)	0.16(0.45)	0(0.5)	1.25(0.5)	1(0.25)
C.A. CN2 and C.A. CN3	<i>Ascaridia compar</i>	0.01 (-0.01-0.04)	0.01(0.12)	0(0)	1(NaN)	1(0)
	<i>Capillaria caundinflat a</i>	0.05 (-0.004-0.09)	0.07(0.41)	0(0)	1.7(1.15)	1(1)
	Cestodes	0.06 (0-0.12)	0.14(0.68)	0(0)	2.25(1.89)	2(2)
C.A. BI1	<i>Ascaridia compar</i>	0.59 (0.46-0.71)	6.8(10.5)	2 (10.5)	11.1(11.5)	7.5(14)
	<i>Capillaria caundinflat a</i>	0.12 (0.04-0.20)	0.80(4.27)	0(0)	6.71(11.4)	-
	Cestodes	0	0(0)	0(0)	-	-

C.A. SONDRIO	<i>Ascaridia compar</i>	0	0(0)	0(0)	-	-
	<i>Capillaria caudinflat</i> <i>a</i>	0	0(0)	0(0)	-	-
	Cestodes	0	0(0)	0(0)	-	-

448 *Table 4: Prevalence, abundance and intensity for each helminth in each hunting district*