

1 **Spatial and Temporal Variability in Infestation of Oregon Oyster** 2 **Farms by Shell-boring Polychaetes**

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13 **Highlights:**

- 14 • Commercial oyster farms in Oregon are currently at risk of infestation by shell-boring
15 polychaetes.
- 16 • Prevalence of infestation varied spatially and temporally within oyster farms and across
17 estuaries.
- 18 • Infestation was greatest in Netarts Bay, where 72% of the Pacific oysters contained shell-
19 boring polychaetes.
- 20 • Off-bottom culture was associated with lower infestation and offers a possible approach
21 to mitigate loss of oyster value.
- 22 • Prevalence of infestation varied by season, but there were no associations between
23 infestation and shell height or tissue mass.

24 **Abstract:**

25 Shell-boring polychaetes burrow into the shells of cultivated and wild molluscs, leading
26 to the formation of unsightly blisters that fill with mud, detritus, and fecal material. Infestation of
27 cultivated oysters poses economic risks for the Pacific Northwest's shellfish mariculture industry
28

29 because the blisters reduce the aesthetic quality and market appeal of oysters sold on the half-
30 shell market. To help Oregon’s multimillion-dollar mariculture industry develop resilience
31 against this emerging biosecurity threat, we quantified seasonal variability and spatial differences
32 in the infestation of Pacific oysters (*Crassostrea gigas*) by shell-boring polychaetes, and assessed
33 whether prevalence varied among grow-out methods, seasons, and host traits (shell height and
34 tissue mass). In 2019–2021, we obtained 829 Pacific oysters from seven commercial shellfish
35 farms spanning the Oregon coast (Tillamook Bay, Netarts Bay, Yaquina Bay, and Coos Bay),
36 and observed a mean statewide infestation rate of 11–31% over four sampling seasons. We
37 observed the highest prevalence of infestation by shell-boring polychaetes (72%) in Netarts Bay.
38 Oysters cultivated off-bottom exhibited lower prevalence of infestation than oysters grown on-
39 bottom. Our study also revealed a significant effect of seasonality, with higher rates of
40 infestation during winter. Oyster shell height and tissue mass were not significantly associated
41 with the prevalence of infestation. Our observations identify an infestation hotspot in Netarts
42 Bay, and suggest that off-bottom culture may help reduce infestation rates, mitigating damage
43 caused by shell-boring polychaetes in Oregon bays and estuaries.

44

45 **Keywords:** *Crassostrea gigas*¹, mud blister worm², oyster parasite³, oyster aquaculture⁴, pest⁵

46

47 **1. Introduction**

48 Commercial mariculture of oysters is a rapidly expanding sector of the seafood industry,
49 but shellfish parasites can pose major challenges for ongoing operations and future growth (Botta
50 et al., 2020). Among these parasites are shell-boring polychaetes, also known as mud blister
51 worms, which bore into the shells of oysters, clams, mussels, abalone, and other shellfish
52 (Spencer et al., 2020). The spionid polychaete *Polydora websteri* is one of the most commonly

53 studied blister worms due to its broad host range and global distribution, as well as the severity
54 of its impacts on oyster production (Blake & Evans, 1973; Simon & Sato-Okoshi, 2015; Spencer
55 et al., 2020). It is likely that *P. websteri* is indigenous to Asia (Rice et al., 2018). Lack of genetic
56 differentiation among specimens of *P. websteri* collected across ocean basins suggests that
57 introduction to new locations probably occurred via human-mediated transport rather than
58 natural dispersal (Rice et al., 2018). Shell-boring *Polydora* spp. and other related shell-boring
59 polychaetes (e.g., *Dipolydora* spp., *Boccardia* spp.) have a long history of impacts to commercial
60 shellfish industries worldwide (Spencer et al., 2020).

61 Shell-boring polychaetes excavate a U-shaped burrow through the calcareous shell of
62 their molluscan hosts (Blake & Arnofsky, 1999; Zottoli & Carriker, 1974). In response, the host
63 secretes a layer of nacre around the irritant, creating a pocket that fills with mud, detritus, and
64 worm fecal material, resulting in a mud blister on the inside of the shell (Blake & Arnofsky,
65 1999; Wargo & Ford, 1993; Zottoli & Carriker, 1974). These blisters can reduce the aesthetic
66 quality of oysters marketed “on-the-half-shell”, which is the most lucrative and common retail
67 product for oyster growers in the United States (Botta et al., 2020; Morse et al., 2015). While
68 infestation by shell-boring polychaetes does not render oyster meat harmful for human
69 consumption, it can decrease the market value of the half-shell product and has been responsible
70 for substantial losses and, in some cases, collapse of commercial oyster industries around the
71 world (Lunz, 1941; Bailey-Brock & Ringwood, 1982; Bower et al., 1992; Ogburn et al., 2007;
72 Spencer et al., 2020). Further devaluation of bivalve shellfish products can also occur due to the
73 associated reduction in host condition and body size, weakened shell, decreased oocyte size, and
74 increased mortality rates at some locations (Chambon et al., 2007; Royer et al., 2006; Handley,
75 1998; Bower et al., 1992; Kent, 1981). Shell-boring polychaetes may also pose ecological risks

76 for wild stock shellfish, as worms may spread from mariculture operations to the natural
77 environment (Moreno et al., 2006).

78 Morse and colleagues (2015) reviewed potential treatments to kill shell-boring
79 polychaetes in infested oysters as well as possible management strategies for oyster farms to
80 reduce the prevalence of boring worms in oysters cultivated in bays and estuaries. Effective
81 treatments that could be realistically used on oyster farms in the Pacific Northwest include
82 drying, refrigeration, and freshwater baths (Martinelli et al., 2022). Management strategies to
83 mitigate against damage from shell-boring polychaetes often differ among farms, and may
84 involve modifications to gear and growing methods, such as using off-bottom culture to suspend
85 growing oysters above muddy substrate (Smith 1981; Ogburn, 2011; Morse et al., 2015; Spencer
86 et al., 2020). In some regions, mitigating mud worm infestations may cause production to
87 become unprofitable due to reduced oyster densities, changes in culture systems, and additional
88 labor required to treat affected oysters (Curtin, 1982; Nell, 2007; Morse et al., 2015; Spencer et
89 al., 2020).

90 The shell-boring polychaete *Polydora websteri* was positively identified on commercial
91 oyster farms in Washington State in 2017 (Martinelli *et al.*, 2020). Considering the potential
92 impacts of host–parasite interactions, the presence of *P. websteri* in Washington poses both
93 economic and ecological risks for the Pacific Northwest’s multi-million-dollar oyster industry.
94 While shell-boring polychaetes have been reported previously in Oregon (Blake & Evans, 1973),
95 there are no records of the current distribution of shell-boring polychaetes across Oregon’s bays
96 and estuaries.

97 Oregon’s oyster aquaculture industry is characterized by small-scale operations that are
98 located primarily in Tillamook Bay, Netarts Bay, Yaquina Bay, and Coos Bay, which are some

99 of Oregon's largest estuaries. Fewer than 20 shellfish mariculture facilities currently operate in
100 Oregon, and most growers cultivate Pacific oysters (*C. gigas*) using both on-bottom (grown on
101 the tidal flat with little to no equipment) and off-bottom (suspended off the bottom using various
102 culture systems) techniques. Mariculture of oysters contributes a significant portion of total
103 aquaculture activities in Oregon, where the economic impact is estimated at \$19.6 million USD
104 annually (USDA, 2019).

105 Baseline studies that document prevalence and impacts of shell-boring polychaetes to
106 host species are an important initial step toward identifying effective mitigation strategies
107 (Moreno et al., 2006). The research described herein was initiated to build upon earlier work by
108 Martinelli and colleagues (2020), extending their observations of commercial mariculture
109 operations in Washington to the bays and estuaries in Oregon. To help inform industry best
110 practices and guide biosecurity management actions, we specifically sought to answer the
111 following research questions: (1) What is the current spatial distribution and prevalence of shell-
112 boring polychaetes on commercial oyster farms located in Oregon? (2) How does the prevalence
113 of shell-boring polychaetes vary over seasons (winter and summer) and among different culture
114 techniques (on- and off-bottom)? (3) Is the incidence of infestation by shell-boring polychaetes
115 related to variability in oyster traits, such as shell height and tissue mass?

116

117 **2. Materials and methods**

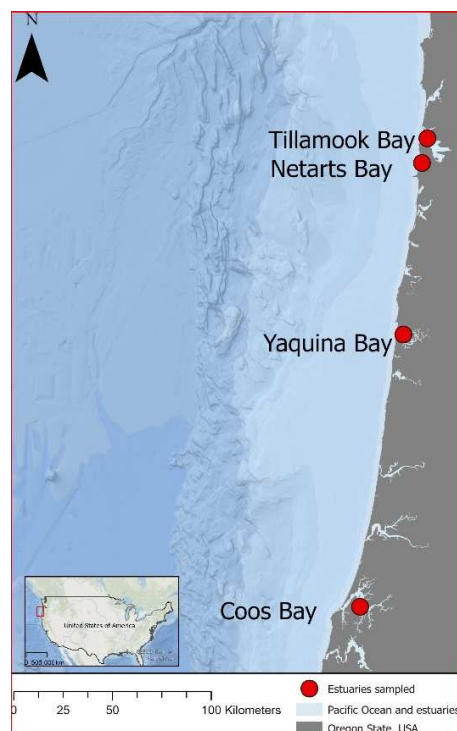
118 *2.1 Oyster collection*

119 A total of 829 oysters were sampled from seven farms in four Oregon estuaries, including
120 Tillamook Bay (Tillamook; 1 farm; 121 oysters), Netarts Bay (Netarts; 2 farms; 247 oysters),

Figure 1: Location of commercial mariculture operations in Oregon where Pacific oysters were sampled for shell-boring polychaetes.

121 Yaquina Bay (Yaquina; 1 farm; 174 oysters), and Coos Bay (Coos; 3 farms; 287 oysters; Figure
122 1). Oyster collection occurred during summer months (July–September) of 2019 and 2020 and
123 during winter months (January–April) of 2020 and 2021, for a total of four sampling seasons.
124 For each farm, a randomly selected sample of 25 oysters was requested for on-bottom and off-
125 bottom culture types, although not all farms were able to supply a full sample of 25 individuals
126 or a sample from each culture type in every sampling period. The type of off-bottom culture
127 system used was not specified by each farm.

128



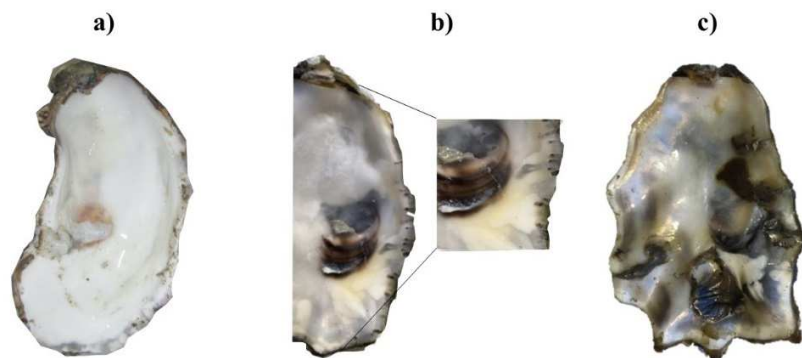
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131 2.2 Oyster processing

132 All oysters were shucked and measurements were recorded for tissue mass (g), right and left
133 valve height (mm), length (mm), width (mm), shell mass (g), and shell thickness (mm; Galtsoff,
134 1964). The internal surfaces of the shells were examined with a Leica Wild M37 stereoscope to
135 record the presence or absence of burrows (small tunnels or marks) and blisters (bubbles of
136 nacre; Figure 2). Both the right and left valves for each oyster, regardless of infestation, were
137 photographed for record
138 keeping.

Figure 2: Infestation of Pacific oysters by shell-boring polychaetes: (a) non-infested oyster shell; (b) oyster shell with multiple burrows on shell margin; (c) oyster shell with multiple large blisters.



141

142 2.3 Infestation prevalence

143 Any oyster that had at least one burrow or blister on either the right or left valve was considered
144 an infested individual (Figure 2). To avoid duplicating information about shell metrics (i.e. shell
145 height, shell length, shell width, shell mass, shell thickness) by considering both right and left
146 valves, we used correlation coefficients to determine whether the prevalence of infestation of the
147 left (generally more deeply cupped) and right valves (generally less cupped) were significantly

148 different. A correlation coefficient above 0.8 was deemed to have a strong positive relationship
149 (Akoglu, 2018). Because infestation between valves was not significantly different (see Results),
150 infestation status was evaluated by assessing whether the right valve displayed blisters or
151 burrows.

152 *2.4 Statistical analysis*

153 A generalized linear model (GLM) was used to evaluate whether oyster traits, culture type, and
154 season were significant explanatory variables for infestation by shell-boring polychaetes in
155 Oregon estuaries. Only the oyster traits of shell height and tissue mass were used to avoid
156 redundancy and multicollinearity. The fixed factors for the GLM were estuary (4 levels:
157 Tillamook, Netarts, Yaquina, and Coos), culture type (2 levels: on and off-bottom), and season
158 (2 levels: winter and summer). Shell height and tissue mass were used as continuous fixed
159 covariates. Additionally, random factors of year (2019-2021) and farm (7 levels) were included
160 to account for potential spatial and temporal autocorrelation among our samples. We did not nest
161 farm within estuary due to the high degree of singularity (e.g., some estuaries had only one
162 farm). The response variable (presence or absence of infestation) was modeled with a binomial
163 distribution (presence = 1, absence = 0) as follows:

$$164 \text{ Infestation}_{ijklmn} \sim \text{ShellHeight}_{ijklmn} + \text{TissueMass}_{ijklmn} + \text{CultureType}_j + \text{Season}_k + \text{Estuary}_n + (1|\text{Year}_l) + \\ 165 (1|\text{Farm}_m)$$

166 where the response variable $_{ijklmn}$ represents the presence or absence of infestation in the i th oyster
167 collected from the j th culture type during the k th season of the l th year in m th farm of the n th
168 estuary.

169 We accounted for potential collinearity by checking the generalized variance inflation factors
170 (GVIFs), which can accommodate combinations of categorical and continuous predictor
171 variables. A VIF above 5 was considered to indicate multicollinearity among our samples
172 (Mason and Perreault, 1991; Becker et al., 2015). The GLM model was performed in R Studio
173 using the 'glm' function, and GVIFs were calculated for the final model using the 'vif' function
174 in the 'car' package (Fox and Weisberg 2018). Data management, correlation coefficients, and
175 data visualization were also carried out in R Studio (Version 4.0.5, R citation).

176

177 **3. Results**

178 Right and left valves of the oyster shell were equally infested by shell-boring polychaetes
179 (Wilcoxon test, $V = 810$, $p\text{-value} = 0.3389$), so we chose right valves for all further analyses to
180 avoid duplication of measurements for a given oyster. The average prevalence of infestation by
181 shell-boring polychaetes on commercial Pacific oysters was 2% for Tillamook Bay, 72% for
182 Netarts Bay, 3% for Yaquina Bay, and 1% for Coos Bay (ordered north to south; Figure 1).

183 All GVIF values were below 5 indicating low multicollinearity (Table 1). The GLM indicated a
184 significant difference for the effect of estuary ($p < 0.0001$; Figure 4), due to the elevated
185 prevalence of infestation in Netarts Bay in comparison with other estuaries. The GLM also
186 indicated that on-bottom culture had 34% higher prevalence of infestation than off-bottom
187 culture ($p < 0.0001$; Figure 3), and that there was a significant effect of season with winter
188 having a higher rate of infestation ($p = 0.0048$; Figure 3). The GLM analysis did not reveal
189 significant differences in shell-boring polychaete infestation for shell height or tissue mass
190 (Table 2).

Coefficients	GVIF	Df	GVIF ^{1/(2*Df)}
Height	2.307	1	1.519
Tissue Mass	2.440	1	1.562
Culture Type	1.153	1	1.074
Season	1.174	1	1.083
Estuary	2.409	3	1.158

Table 1: Generalized variance inflation factors showing low multicollinearity values among coefficients for oyster traits (shell height, tissue mass) and fixed sampling factors (culture type, season, estuary).

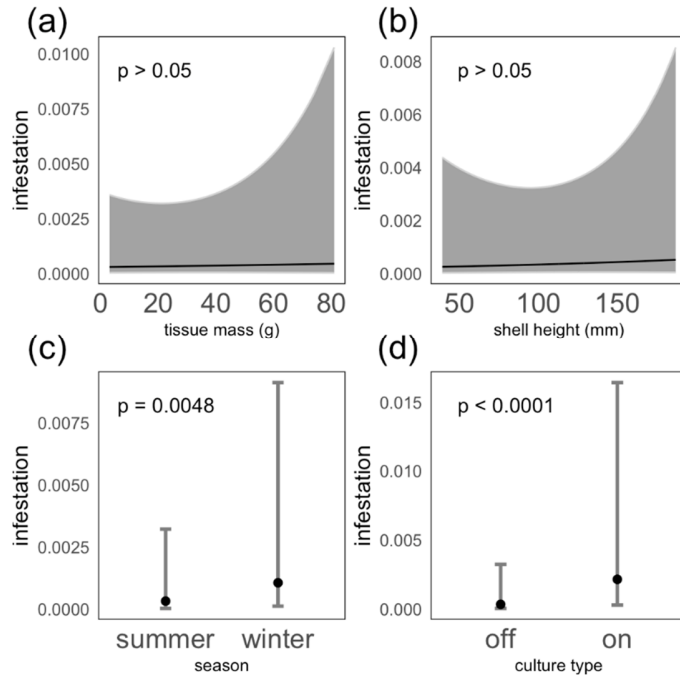
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Coefficients	Estimate	Standard Error	z-value	p-value
Intercept	-8.028	1.171	-6.856	7.10e-12 ***
Height	0.1375	0.3336	0.412	0.6802
Tissue Mass	0.08252	0.3301	0.250	0.8026
Culture Type	1.885	0.4465	4.221	2.43e-05 ***
Season	1.185	0.4205	2.819	0.00482 **
Netarts	6.964	0.8703	8.002	1.23e-15 ***
Tillamook	1.228	0.9306	1.320	0.1869
Yaquina	1.574	0.8669	1.816	0.06943

Table 2: Output from Generalized Linear Model indicates differences in mud blister worm infestation of Pacific oysters among coefficients for oyster traits (shell height, tissue mass) and fixed sampling factors (culture type, season, estuary).

192

Figure 3: Effect of (a) tissue mass (in grams), (b) shell height (in mm), (c) season (i.e., summer or winter), and (d) culture type (i.e., on or off bottom) on the prevalence of shell-boring polychaete infestation (1 = infested, 0 = not infested), where data represent predicted (fitted) values for the response of infestation, computed while keeping all other factors (including random effects) in the model constant using the `ggpredict()` function in the `ggeffects` package in R (Ludecke, 2018). All error bars and bands represent 95% confidence intervals. Significance is based on a generalized linear model, see Table 2. For a plot of the raw data used to calculate these predictions, please see Supplementary Figure S.1.



193

194

Figure 4: Differences in prevalence of infestation for estuary presented as boxplots indicating the median, quartiles with whiskers, and mean with diamond. Significance is based on a generalized linear model, see Table 2.

Prevalence

195

196 4. Discussion

197 While shell-boring polychaetes were present in all the estuaries sampled, Netarts Bay
 198 consistently exhibited the highest prevalence of infestation. We postulate that the elevated

199 prevalence of shell-boring worms observed in Netarts Bay could be due to differences in the
200 estuarine environment and growing conditions (Ruesink et al., 2005; Spencer et al., 2020).
201 Interestingly, Netarts Bay is a bar-built estuary that experiences a considerably lower tidal prism,
202 less freshwater influence, and lower hydrodynamic residence time than the other estuaries
203 sampled, making the higher prevalence by shell-boring polychaetes unexpected (Glanzman,
204 1971; McCallum, 1977). Investigations conducted in other locations in North America found that
205 infestation decreased with increasing salinity (Loosanoff & Engle, 1943; Calvo et al., 1999;
206 Hanley et al., 2019) and one study documented lower prevalence where salinity was more
207 variable (Cole, 2018). Additionally, larval transport studies indicate that the dispersal of
208 meroplankton largely depends on the length of planktonic development and the hydrodynamic
209 regime (Roegner, 2000). Larval transport becomes more complex in an estuarine setting where
210 organisms may be exported out to sea with regular tidal flushing, such as Netarts Bay
211 (Weinstein, 1988; Roegner, 2000). Larval development of shell-boring polychaetes varies
212 depending upon the species, with some entering the water column after hatching and remaining
213 for up to 85 days prior to settlement while others live in the burrow for an extended period
214 (Blake, 1969; Orth, 1971; Blake & Woodwick, 1971; Haigler, 1969; Blake & Arnofsky, 1999;
215 Simon & Sato-Okoshi, 2015). While the reasons for a higher prevalence of shell-boring
216 polychaetes in the marine-dominated waters of Netarts Bay remain unknown, the small bar-built
217 estuary is identified as a troublesome hotspot with a pressing need for industry and resource
218 management actions.

219 Our study did identify significant effects of seasonality, in alignment with investigations
220 in other regions, which indicate that seasonal changes in temperature or salinity may contribute
221 to prevalence of infestation by shell-boring polychaetes. For example, mud worm larval

222 development, growth, and settlement have been shown to be temperature dependent, and
223 seasonal patterns vary geographically (Blake & Arnofsky, 1999; Blake & Woodwick, 1971). In
224 Oregon, during spring and summer months coastal upwelling influences estuarine temperatures
225 as cold bottom water moves in during the tidal cycle (Brown & Power, 2011; Coogan et al.,
226 2019). Additionally, increased salinity is generally associated with a lower prevalence of
227 infestation by the shell-boring worms, and in Oregon, freshwater influences increase during
228 winter months (McCallum, 1977). Spencer and colleagues (2021) hypothesize that changes in
229 carbonate chemistry, which occurs seasonally in Oregon due to coastal upwelling, could impact
230 mud worm infestation, although this proposition remains untested. Higher infestation during
231 winter months agrees with findings from other west coast states (Martinelli et al., *in revision*).
232 Understanding the influence of seasons on infestation may help inform management strategies
233 such as the timing of treatments to control or eradicate worms.

234 Our study did not find differences in prevalence of infestation among oysters of different
235 sizes, which is not consistent with earlier studies on the impacts of shell-boring polychaete to
236 host fitness (Bower et al., 1992; Royer et al., 2006; Chambon et al., 2007). Reduced oyster
237 condition, especially tissue mass, can further devalue oyster products. For this study, the
238 causality and significance of this relationship could not be fully established. Future research is
239 needed to improve our understanding about the impacts to physiological characteristics and the
240 mechanisms behind these observations.

241 Our findings suggest that off-bottom culture could be used to mitigate against infestation
242 by shell-boring polychaetes in Oregon oyster farms. The significant difference in prevalence
243 between on and off-bottom culture may be due to differences in aerial exposure or siltation
244 levels, although our correlational study cannot tease out the mechanism underlying this pattern or

245 draw conclusions about causation. Studies in other locations have shown prevalence of
246 infestation to be higher with higher siltation levels and lower tidal height, and growers have
247 previously reported higher infestation for on-bottom culture (Littlewood et al., 1992; Handley &
248 Bergquist, 1997; Nell, 2007; Morse et al., 2015; Clements et al., 2017). Additionally, in the state
249 of Oregon, permit approval for off-bottom culture systems is site-dependent and not all growers
250 are able to implement this strategy (Oregon Department of Agriculture, n.d.). The permitting
251 process involves a commenting period where input is received from multiple sources including
252 federal and state agencies, tribal governments, local jurisdictions, private businesses, NGOs, the
253 public, and other interested parties (Oregon Department of Agriculture, n.d.). Proposed changes
254 to oyster mariculture operations sometimes receive social opposition due to the visual impacts
255 from farm infrastructure (Knapp et al., 2016; Krause & Mikkelsen, 2017; Botta et al., 2020), and
256 off-bottom methods can increase visibility of structures during low tides, making it difficult to
257 obtain permit approval. While the mechanisms underlying the lower prevalence of infestation by
258 shell-boring polychaetes are unclear for off-bottom culture operations, our findings suggest this
259 culture method may offer a potential mitigation strategy for growers that are able to acquire
260 permit approval.

261 Signs of shell-boring polychaete infestation have also been found in several species of
262 wild-stock native clams, including native littleneck clams (*Leukoma staminea*) and butter clams
263 (*Saxidomus giganteus*), collected from Netarts Bay and Tillamook Bay, respectively (Considine
264 & Rumrill, *unpublished data*). The infestation of native molluscan hosts may create a reservoir
265 that promotes further dispersal of shell-boring polychaetes, making eradication difficult. The
266 potential to spread pests from mariculture facilities to the natural environment also has
267 implications for resource management, commercial harvest of wild stocks, and recreational

268 fisheries (Moreno et al., 2006; Spencer et al., 2020). For example, the introduction of shell
269 boring polychaetes through mariculture activities in Australia has been identified as a primary
270 causative factor for the loss of subtidal native oyster reefs and consequent impacts on wild
271 harvest industries (Ogburn, 2007; Diggles, 2013).

272 Spatial transport of cultivated oysters for mariculture purposes has been identified as a
273 major pathway for introduction of aquatic invasive species in the Pacific Northwest (Molnar et
274 al., 2008; Ruesink et al., 2005). The history of oyster transfers in this area began in the late 1800s
275 with introduction of the eastern oyster (*Crassostrea virginica*) from the U.S. East Coast and
276 Pacific oyster (*C. gigas*) from Asia to replace the overharvested and depleted native Olympia
277 oyster, *Ostrea lurida* (Ruesink et al., 2005). The shell-boring polychaetes observed in Oregon
278 may be recent invaders or they may be long-term residents that were not previously detected due
279 to low infestation level or lack of awareness (Spencer et al., 2020).

280 Regulatory and management options may include limiting the transfer of oysters from
281 areas of high prevalence such as Netarts Bay, inspecting oysters for diseases and pests prior to
282 transfer approval, and implementing treatments prior to movement to reduce the abundance or
283 kill living worms (Ruesink et al., 2005; Moreno et al., 2006; Morse et al., 2015). Outreach and
284 engagement with the commercial oyster mariculture industry is also an important management
285 action for reducing market and shellfish resource impacts. Local industry–researcher
286 partnerships have made this research possible and should be continued to inform successful
287 mitigation strategies.

288

289 **5. Conclusion**

290 Infestation of commercial shellfish mariculture areas by shell-boring polychaetes is an
291 emerging issue in the state of Oregon. This research provides a baseline reference to describe the
292 presence and absence of shell-boring polychaetes on Oregon commercial oyster farms. Of the
293 four estuaries sampled, Netarts Bay consistently exhibited the highest prevalence of infestation,
294 and off-bottom culture was identified as a potential mitigation strategy. These findings provide
295 initial information for resource management and industry best practices. Future research is
296 needed to better understand the effects of environmental conditions as well as impacts to native
297 shellfish and host fitness.

298

299 **6. Author Contributions**

300 **Megan E Considine:** Investigation, Formal Analysis, Data Curation, Visualization, Writing –
301 Original Draft. **Julieta C Martinelli:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Validation, Supervision,
302 Writing – Review & Editing. **Teri L King:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Writing – Review
303 & Editing. **Steve S. Rumrill:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Validation, Resources,
304 Supervision, Writing – Review & Editing. **Chelsea L Wood:** Conceptualization, Methodology,
305 Validation, Project Administration, Writing – Review & Editing.

306

307 **7. Funding**

308 This project was supported by the Western Regional Aquaculture Center from the USDA
309 National Institute of Food and Agriculture grants 2018-38500-288889 and 2020-38500-32561.

310

311 **8. Acknowledgments**

312 We would like to express our sincere appreciation to all of the oyster growers who shared
313 their local knowledge and provided samples for this work. This study would not have been
314 possible without their willingness to participate. Nicolás Gómez Andújar kindly created Figure 1.
315 Dr. George Waldbusser and Samuel Chan provided feedback on an earlier version of this
316 manuscript.

317

318 **9. Data Statement**

319 Data files are provided in Dryad.

320

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