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# Cryptic carnivores: Intercontinental sampling reveals extensive novel diversity in a genus of freshwater annelids

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# ABSTRACT

Freshwater annelids are globally widespread in aquatic ecosystems, but their diversity is severely underestimated. Obvious morphological features to define taxa are sparse, and molecular phylogenetic analyses regularly discover cryptic diversity within taxa. Despite considerable phylogenetic work on certain clades, many groups of freshwater annelids remain poorly understood. Included among these are water nymph worms of the genus *Chaetogaster* (Clitellata: Tubificida: Naididae: Naidinae)*.* These worms have diverged from the detritivorous diet of most oligochaetes to become more predatory and exist as omnivores, generalist predators, parasites, or symbionts on other invertebrates. Despite their unusual trophic ecology, the true diversity of *Chaetogaster* and the phylogenetic relationships within the genus are uncertain. Only three species are commonly referenced in the literature (*Chaetogaster diaphanus, Chaetogaster limnaei,* and *Chaetogaster diastrophus*), but additional species have been described and prior molecular data suggests that there is cryptic diversity within named species. To clarify the phylogenetic diversity of *Chaetogaster,* we generated the first molecular phylogeny of the genus using mitochondrial and nuclear sequence data from 128 worms collected primarily across North America and Europe. Our phylogenetic analyses suggest that the three commonly referenced species are a complex of 24 mostly cryptic species*.* In our dataset, *Chaetogaster "diaphanus"* is represented by two species, *C. "limnaei"* is represented by three species, and *C. "diastrophus"* is represented by 19 species. North American and European sequences are largely interspersed across the phylogeny, with four pairs of clades involving distinct North American and European sister groupings. Overall, our study demonstrates that the species diversity of *Chaetogaster* has been underestimated and that carnivory has evolved at least twice in the genus. *Chaetogaster* is being used as a model for symbiotic evolution and the loss of regenerative ability, and our study indicates that researchers must be careful to identify which species of *Chaetogaster* they are working with in future studies.

### **1. Introduction**

Small benthic invertebrates are abundant in freshwater ecosystems, contribute significantly to benthic production, and are critical food sources for larger organisms [\(Poff et al., 1993; Ptatscheck et al., 2020;](#page-13-0)  [Schmid-Araya et al., 2020\)](#page-13-0). Nonetheless, freshwater groups with meiofaunal species, like annelids, flatworms, rotifers, crustaceans, and nematodes, are greatly underrepresented in the molecular phylogenetic and metabarcoding literature [\(Schenk and Fontaneto, 2020](#page-13-0)). Many freshwater annelids are particularly difficult to collect and identify, due to small body sizes, an infaunal habitat, and a paucity of apparent morphological differences. Because morphology often fails to capture the full diversity of freshwater annelids, molecular phylogenetic studies on the group frequently discover new and cryptic species ([Bely and](#page-12-0)  [Weisblat, 2006; Liu et al., 2017a; Martinsson and Ers](#page-12-0)éus, 2021).

Cryptic diversity is prominent within the subfamily Naidinae (Annelida: Clitellata: Tubificida: Naididae) [\(Bely and Wray, 2004;](#page-12-0)  [Envall et al., 2012; Ers](#page-12-0)éus et al., 2017), a group of small annelids that primarily reproduce asexually by fission. Ranging in length between 1 and 20 millimeters (mm), these delicate worms can be found worldwide

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buried in freshwater sediments or clinging to rocks, submerged aquatic vegetation, and larger organisms. Despite their ubiquity (and charm), only one of the estimated 24 genera in the subfamily (*Nais*) has been the subject of a detailed molecular phylogeny [\(Envall et al., 2012](#page-12-0)). Our understanding of evolutionary relationships within the other genera is limited to the handful of representatives that are included in broader scale phylogenies of the Naidinae ([Bely and Wray, 2004; Ers](#page-12-0)éus et al., [2017\)](#page-12-0).

The genus *Chaetogaster* is a remarkable group of naidines*.* Though they exhibit many traits common to the Naidinae, such as asexual reproduction by fission, a cosmopolitan distribution, and a small body size, *Chaetogaster* worms diverge strongly from their relatives in trophic strategy and morphology (Fig. 1A and 1B). Notably, *Chaetogaster* has abandoned the herbivorous and detritivorous diets that are typical of the Naidinae and most other oligochaetes. Instead, a number of *Chaetogaster*  species have adapted to carnivorous diets, either as free-living worms or symbionts with other invertebrates ([Green, 1954;](#page-12-0) [Gruffydd, 1965](#page-12-0)). Accompanying such striking dietary shifts are an array of unique morphological adaptations in *Chaetogaster*. These include a heavily muscularized suctorial pharynx, a statocyst near the brain, a welldefined stomach, the absence of dorsal chaetae, and a reduced prostomium [\(Sperber, 1948\)](#page-13-0). *Chaetogaster* is also conspicuously unable to regrow anteriorly amputated segments, while most of its relatives are capable head regenerators ([Bely and Sikes, 2010](#page-12-0)). Interestingly, many of the traits that distinguish *Chaetogaster* from other naidines are also found in the leeches, a 150 – 200 million year old clitellate clade of muscular, non-regenerative predators and parasites (Erséus et al., 2020). Despite *Chaetogaster*'s position as an ecological, morphological, and developmental outlier in the Naidinae, and its potential as a model for understanding major transitions in the Annelida, the true diversity of the genus and evolutionary relationships between known *Chaetogaster* species is uncertain.

Three species of *Chaetogaster* were originally recognized based on size, ecology, and chaetal morphology: *Chaetogaster limnaei* [von Baer](#page-13-0)  [1827](#page-13-0) (the type species of the genus)*, Chaetogaster diaphanus* ([Grui](#page-12-0)[thuisen 1828](#page-12-0))*,* and *Chaetogaster diastrophus* [\(Gruithuisen 1828](#page-12-0))*.* 

*Chaetogaster limnaei* is a small (1 – 2 mm long) ectosymbiont and/or endoparasite on snails and other molluscs; *Chaetogaster diaphanus* is a large (0.5 – 2 cm long) generalist predator of other invertebrates ([Monakov, 1972](#page-13-0)); and *Chaetogaster diastrophus* is a small (1 – 2 mm long) putative omnivore [\(Streit, 1977](#page-13-0)). Most *Chaetogaster* research has focused on interactions between *C. limnaei* and its molluscan partners. Early researchers distinguished between two forms of this species. One exists as a potentially mutualistic ectosymbiont that protects its host by consuming harmful parasites like trematodes ([Hobart et al., 2022](#page-12-0); [Michelson, 1964](#page-13-0)). The other form is endosymbiotic and inhabits mollusc kidneys, ovaries, or gills ([Conn et al., 1996;](#page-12-0) [Gruffydd, 1965](#page-12-0)). In some cases, the endosymbiotic form of *C. limnaei* can negatively impact host fitness as it consumes gill, kidney, or ovarian tissue ([Liquin et al., 2021](#page-12-0)). [Vaghin \(1946\)](#page-13-0) and [Gruffydd \(1965\)](#page-12-0) suggested that these two strategies were representative of distinct subspecies, but a recent cytochrome *c*  oxidase subunit I (COI) phylogeny of *C. limnaei* rejected this distinction. Instead, a mixed ectosymbiotic/endosymbiotic *C. limnaei* clade was recovered as sister to two exclusively ectosymbiotic *C. limnaei* clades ([Smythe et al., 2015\)](#page-13-0). It is uncertain if these three groups represent distinct species. Recent research focused on the large carnivore of the genus, *C. diaphanus,* is more limited. Prior work has primarily been descriptive, with papers highlighting general anatomy ([Brinkhurst and](#page-12-0)  [Gelder, 1989; DeHorne, 1916; Zattara and Bely, 2015\)](#page-12-0), dietary preferences [\(Green, 1954; Monakov, 1972\)](#page-12-0), reproductive strategies ([Meewis,](#page-13-0)  [1934; Poddubnaya, 1968](#page-13-0)), and regenerative ability ([Bely and Sikes,](#page-12-0)  [2010\)](#page-12-0). Existing research on *C. diastrophus* is even sparser, with only a few studies exploring its diet and population dynamics [\(McElhone,](#page-13-0)  [1980; Schonborn, 1984; Streit, 1977\)](#page-13-0).

Since the description of *Chaetogaster* in the 1820s, various researchers have relied on often subtle morphological features to describe additional species beyond *C. limnaei, C. diaphanus,* and *C. diastrophus*. In her treatise on the Naidinae (formerly Naididae; Erséus et al. (2008)), [Sperber \(1948\)](#page-13-0) recognized nine *Chaetogaster* species based on body size and variation in the number of segmental chaetae, in addition to four subspecies of *C. limnaei*. Later dichotomous keys of aquatic oligochaetes only recognized six species in the genus and relied on a mixture of body



**Fig. 1.** Overview of evolution and morphology among some common water nymph worm genera (Annelida: Clitellata: Tubificida: Naididae: Naidinae). **A:** Relationships and morphological diversity. Anterior ends are pointing up. Note that the *Chaetogaster "diastrophus"* morphotype (represented here by species 8) is among the smallest of the naidines, while the *C. "diaphanus"* morphotype (represented here by species 3) is among the largest. Images are to scale. Scale bar represents 5 mm. B: Diversity of anterior morphology among some common water nymph worm genera. Anterior is left. Bottom and top row images are lateral views. Middle row images are dorsal views. Note that *Chaetogaster* worms are unique in having large, rounded, and muscular heads. Scale bars represent 0.2 mm.

size, chaetal shape, prostomial morphology, and trophic ecology to delimit species [\(Brinkhurst and Jamieson, 1971](#page-12-0)). One investigation in Lake Baikal even reported up to ten species in the genus, nine of which were described as endemic to the lake [\(Semernoi, 1985](#page-13-0)). To date, the World Register of Marine Species (WoRMs) lists 17 total species of *Chaetogaster* worldwide [\(WoRMS Editorial Board, 2022\)](#page-13-0). However, it is difficult to assess species diversity without molecular data as many characters can be unreliable in *Chaetogaster*. For example, the range of chaetal counts per segment, an important character in many *Chaetogaster* descriptions, often overlap between presumptive species. Other characters, such as the prostomial incision separating *C. diaphanus* and the putative *Chaetogaster cristallinus* [Vejdovsky 1884](#page-13-0)*,* can be difficult to detect and may even be found in multiple species [\(Sperber, 1948](#page-13-0)). Despite this body of literature on *Chaetogaster*, it is still uncertain how many species exist in the genus beyond *C. diaphanus, C. limnaei,* and *C. diastrophus.* 

Morphological descriptions of freshwater meiofauna are often inadequate to capture all the diversity in a particular group and *Chaetogaster* is unlikely to be an exception. Indeed, a recent phylogeny of the entire subfamily Naidinae revealed that two specimens of *C. "diastrophus"* were non-monophyletic. Meanwhile, rather large genetic distances (*>*5%) separated *C. diaphanus* individuals collected in North America and Europe (Erséus et al., 2017). This prior work, taken in the context of unreliable morphological descriptions, suggests that *Chaetogaster* might be more diverse than previously described*.* 

Here, we evaluate the extent of *Chaetogaster* diversity and investigate intra-generic relationships by leveraging molecular phylogenetic analyses of 128 individuals collected primarily across Europe and North America. We employ multiple sources of evidence to delimit species, including two mitochondrial loci, two nuclear loci, and three statistical species delimitation tools. Generating a robust phylogeny of *Chaetogaster* represents a necessary step toward approximating the true diversity of the Naidinae, and freshwater meiofauna more generally. Furthermore, it provides a needed phylogenetic framework to help develop this genus as a model for challenging questions in evolutionary biology, such as the evolution of carnivory, the maintenance of hostsymbiont interactions ([Hobart et al., 2022](#page-12-0)), and the loss of regenerative ability [\(Bely and Sikes, 2010\)](#page-12-0).

### **2. Materials and methods**

#### *2.1. Specimen collections*

We collected 128 *Chaetogaster* individuals from ponds, lake shores, and creeks primarily in North America (mostly within the state of Maryland) and Europe (mostly within Scandinavian countries) ([Table 1](#page-3-0)). Worms were identified as *C. diaphanus, C. diastrophus,* or *C. limnaei* based on body size, habitat, and similarity to descriptions in [Kathman and Brinkhurst \(1998\)](#page-12-0). *Chaetogaster "diaphanus"* species were typically found clinging to submerged aquatic vegetation in lentic habitats and were identified by their large body size. Meanwhile, most *Chaetogaster "diastrophus"* species were collected by sifting through shallow lotic sediment and were identified by their small body size and free-living ecology. In both lentic and lotic habitats, *Chaetogaster "limnaei"* species were found living on or within freshwater snails and were identified by their sharply hooked chaetae. Worms were preserved in 75 – 95% ethanol. Most European worms and some North American worms were cut in half to preserve the anterior end in formalin or 80 – 95% ethanol as a partial morphological voucher. Because *Chaetogaster* individuals are so small, in some cases the whole animal was used for DNA extractions to ensure adequate DNA yields*.* Five specimens of worms from the genus *Amphichaeta* were also newly collected for this study as an outgroup to *Chaetogaster*, as these two genera are known to be sister clades (Erséus et al., 2017).

# *2.2. DNA extraction and sequencing*

We extracted DNA from our *Chaetogaster* samples and PCR amplified and Sanger sequenced regions of two mitochondrial loci (COI and 16S) and two nuclear loci (H3 and ITS2). Our collaboration spanned three lab groups (lab group A: JMM, AEB; lab group B: HCP, PH, RL, HS; and lab group C: CE, SM, MK) and specific methodologies differed slightly across groups. [Table 1](#page-3-0) indicates the sequences contributed by each group and the details of DNA extraction, PCR, and sequencing can be found in the Supplementary methods. Lab group A generated sequences from all worms collected and processed by this group, as well as the 16S, H3, and ITS2 sequences from worms collected and processed by lab group B; lab group B generated all COI sequences from worms collected and processed by this group; and lab group C generated all sequences from worms collected and processed by this group. [Table 2](#page-6-0) lists the primers used for PCR. New sequences were submitted to GenBank under the numbers listed in [Table 1.](#page-3-0)

### *2.3. Phylogenetic analyses*

Sequences from each locus were aligned in the online version of MAFFT ver. 7 [\(Katoh et al., 2019\)](#page-12-0) according to default settings. For the ITS gene, only the ITS2 portion was used for both the individual gene trees and the concatenated dataset. The alignments for each locus were concatenated in Mesquite ver. 3.70 [\(Maddison and Maddison, 2021](#page-13-0)) to produce a combined dataset of 2,325 characters (COI: 720 bp; 16S: 500 bp; ITS2: 776 bp; H3: 329 bp).

We assessed phylogenetic relationships using both maximum likelihood (ML) and Bayesian Inference (BI) optimality criteria. In all trees, we included sequences from *Nais alpina* and up to three *Amphichaeta*  species as outgroups (Envall et al., 2006; Erséus et al., 2010; Liu et al., [2017b\)](#page-12-0).

For ML analyses, we used IQTREE ver. 2.1.2 on the CIPRES science gateway to estimate the best-fitting models of nucleotide evolution for each locus and construct a phylogeny from the concatenated dataset and gene trees for each locus ([Kalyaanamoorthy et al., 2017; Miller et al.,](#page-12-0)  [2010; Minh et al., 2020\)](#page-12-0). IQTREE assigned five separate partitions to the combined four gene dataset. Each followed a unique model of nucleotide evolution. Most were estimated to follow a GAMMA distribution of nucleotide rates, with empirically calculated base frequencies and an estimated proportion of invariable sites. The exception is the final codon position of H3, which did not include a proportion of invariable sites. IQTREE subsequently constructed the most likely tree topology for the concatenated alignment. Node support values were estimated from 1000 bootstrap replicates. We also used IQTREE to generate gene trees for each individual locus. For the COI gene tree, additional sequences were included. To assess which of our *C. "limnaei"* clades match those recovered in the previous study by [Smythe et al. \(2015\),](#page-13-0) we added eleven sequences from GenBank to our dataset ([Table 1](#page-3-0)). For the BI analysis, we used MrBayes ver. 3.2.7 on the CIPRES science gateway [\(Huelsenbeck](#page-12-0)  [and Ronquist, 2001; Miller et al., 2010](#page-12-0)) to generate a phylogeny from the concatenated dataset. The analysis was run for 2 million generations with trees sampled every 1,000 generations. The same partitioning scheme as the ML analysis was used. Burn-in was set to 25% and Tracer ver. 1.7.2 ([Rambaut et al., 2018\)](#page-13-0) was used to confirm that the MCMC had reached convergence. Tree files were visualized in FigTree ver. 1.4.4 ([Rambaut, 2017\)](#page-13-0) and annotated in Adobe Illustrator.

### *2.4. Species delimitation*

Four statistical approaches were employed to assess the number of species more objectively in *Chaetogaster*: an assessment of genetic distances, two species delimitation analyses of single locus data, and a species delimitation analysis of multi-locus data.

First, to determine the range of inter- and intra-specific distance, uncorrected p - distances were calculated within and between COI clades

#### <span id="page-3-0"></span>**Table 1**

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Specimens and sequences represented in this study. GenBank accession numbers of new sequences generated for this study are indicated in bold.



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 $\sigma$ 



(*continued on next page*)

<span id="page-5-0"></span>

<sup>a</sup> sequenced by lab group A.<br>
<sup>b</sup> sequenced by lab group C.<br>
<sup>d</sup> [Smythe et al., 2015](#page-13-0).<br>
<sup>e</sup> [Envall et al., 2012](#page-12-0).<br>
<sup>f</sup> Erséus et al., 2017.

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<sup>8</sup> [Envall et al., 2006](#page-12-0).<br><sup>h</sup> Erséus et al., 2010.<br><sup>i</sup> [Liu et al., 2017b](#page-13-0)

<sup>j</sup> Sjölin [et al. 2005](#page-13-0).

#### <span id="page-6-0"></span>**Table 2**

The primers used for amplification and sequencing of genes included in our study.

| Gene           | Primer<br>Name                              | Sequence $(5' – 3')$   | Citation  |
|----------------|---|--|---|
| <b>COL</b>     | LCO1490<br><b>HCO2198</b><br>CHCr<br>COI-E- | GGTCAACAAATCATAAAGATATTGG<br><b>TAAACTTCAGGGTGACCAAAAAATCA</b><br>TTATGWGCIACAATATGAAATTGC<br>TATACTTCTGGGTGTCCGAAGAATCA | Folmer et al. 1994<br>Folmer et al. 1994<br>This study.<br><b>Bely and Wray</b><br>2004 |
| 16S            | 16SAR-L                                     | CGCCTGTTTATCAAAAACAT   | Palumbi et al.<br>1991  |
|                | 16SBRH                                      | <b>CCGGTCTGAACTCAGATCACGT</b>  | Palumbi et al.<br>1991  |
| H <sub>3</sub> | H3F<br>H3R                                  | ATGGCTCGTACCAAGCAGACVGC<br>ATATCCTTRGGCATRATRGTGAC   | Colgan et al. 1998<br>Colgan et al. 1998  |
| <b>TTS</b>     | CH18sF<br>CH28sR<br>606F<br>1082R           | CGAGTCATAAGCTCGCGTTGATTACG<br>CCTAAACACCACAGTTCGCGACGTCC<br>GTCGATGAAGAGCGCAGCCA<br>TTAGTTTCTTTTCCTCCGCTT                | This study.<br>This study.<br>Liu & Erséus 2017<br>Liu & Erséus 2017                    |
| M13            | M13F  | <b>GTAAAACGACGGCCAGT</b>   | Messing et al.<br>1981; Vieira and<br>Messing 1982                                      |
|                | M13R  | GGAAACAGCTATGACCATG  | Messing et al.<br>1981; Vieira and<br>Messing 1982                                      |

in MEGA11 [\(Tamura et al., 2021](#page-13-0)). Standard errors for the distances were estimated from 1000 bootstrap replicates.

Second, we delimited species based on single-locus data using two methods: Assemble Species by Automatic Partitioning (ASAP) [\(Puillan](#page-13-0)[dre et al., 2021](#page-13-0)) and General Mixed Yule Coalescence (GMYC) [\(Pons](#page-13-0)  [et al., 2006\)](#page-13-0). ASAP takes sequence data from a single locus and searches for a natural "barcoding gap," inferred as the threshold between intraspecific distances and interspecific distances. Based on this limit, the software assigns taxa in the dataset to distinct species partitions. Both COI and 16S ingroup alignments were separately input into ASAP for delimitation analysis. Meanwhile, GMYC delimits species from an ultrametric tree by finding the most likely combination of nodes that define transitions between interspecific diversification and intraspecific coalescence. For the GMYC analysis, ingroup ultrametric trees were constructed using BEAST implemented on the CIPRES platform [\(Suchard](#page-13-0)  [et al., 2018\)](#page-13-0). The following settings were used to generate the trees for each locus: the HKY  $+ F + I + G4$  model of nucleotide evolution; base frequencies 'estimated'; clock model 'lognormal relaxed clock (uncorrelated)'; tree prior 'coalescent/constant size'; UPGMA starting tree; constant.popsize 'lognormal:  $Log(Mean) = 0.0$ ,  $Log(Stdev) = 1.0$ , offset  $= 0.0$ '. For the COI ultrametric tree, the Ucld.stdev was set to "normal" with a mean  $= 1.0$ , Stdev  $= 1.0$ . Default settings were retained for the remaining priors. Tree searches were run for 100 million generations with sampling every 10,000 generations. Burn-in was set to 10% and Tracer ver. 1.7.2 was used to confirm MCMC convergence. Trees were summarized with TreeAnnotator ver 1.10.4 included in the BEAST package. The GMYC analysis was separately run on the ultrametric tree for each of the four loci in R ver. 4.1.2 ([R Core Team, 2021\)](#page-13-0) using the "splits" package [\(Ezard et al., 2021](#page-12-0)).

Finally, to further evaluate the species delimitations resulting from the ASAP and GMYC analyses, we performed multi-locus species delimitation using Bayesian Phylogenetics and Phylogeography (BPP) ver. 4.3.8 [\(Yang, 2015\)](#page-13-0). BPP uses a multi-species coalescent model to compare the species groupings based on one locus with sequence data from other loci. For each species-grouping, it outputs a posterior probability that can be interpreted as statistical support across loci for each species hypothesis. In this study, joint Bayesian species delimitations ([Rannala and Yang, 2013; Yang and Rannala, 2010\)](#page-13-0) and species tree

estimations ([Rannala and Yang, 2017; Yang and Rannala, 2014\)](#page-13-0) were conducted to assess the support of COI delimitations against a concatenated 16S, H3, and ITS2 alignment. Three analyses with different population size  $(θ)$  and divergence time  $(τ0)$  inverse-gamma priors were conducted (A:  $\theta = 3, 0.01, \tau = 3, 0.02; B: \theta = 3, 0.004, \tau = 3, 0.02; C: \theta$  $= 3, 0.002, \tau 0 = 3, 0.02$ . These were chosen to match the gamma prior means used in similar studies and correspond to large, intermediate, and small estimates of genetic distances ([Martinsson and Ers](#page-13-0)éus, 2018). Each analysis was run thrice for 300,000–400,000 generations to ensure consistency between runs.

# *2.5. Morphological comparisons*

To compare body dimensions among *Chaetogaster* species, live worms from six putative species (species 3, 6, 8, 10, 12, and 22) spanning the genus were collected from North American localities, identified to putative species with COI, and imaged at 10X magnification on a Leica MZ16 stereomicroscope (for species 3) or 100X magnification on a Zeiss Axioplan2 microscope (for all other species). Body length and width at the widest point of the pharynx were measured for 1 – 10 specimens of each species using ImageJ and averaged (Abràmoff et al., [2004\)](#page-12-0).

#### **3. Results**

### *3.1. Extensive phylogenetic diversity within Chaetogaster*

Phylogenetic analyses of our concatenated, four-locus dataset recovered largely congruent topologies using ML ([Fig. 2](#page-7-0)) and BI [\(Fig. 3\)](#page-8-0) criteria. Each tree yielded 24 highly supported (*>*75% likelihood bootstrap support [LBS] and *>* 0.9 posterior probability [PP]) terminal clades within *Chaetogaster*. From this point onwards, these 24 terminal clades are interpreted to be putative species based on multiple lines of evidence reported here (3.3 and 3.4). These 24 clades include two terminal clades of large-bodied *Chaetogaster "diaphanus"* species (species 3 and 4), three terminal clades of the mollusc-associating *Chaetogaster "limnaei"* species (species 22, 23, and 24), and 19 terminal clades of small-bodied *Chaetogaster "diastrophus"* species (species 1, 2, and 5–21). Both ML and BI analyses recover a clade of *Amphichaeta* sequences as sister to *Chaetogaster*. However, only the BI analysis highly supports this node ( $PP = 1$ ). The relationships among ingroup terminal clades are also consistent between ML and BI trees. Both analyses recover putative *Chaetogaster* species 1 and 2 as sister to the remainder of the genus with high support (LBS = 100%;  $PP = 1$ ). Other highly supported internal relationships include a clade formed by putative species 3 and 4 (the *C. "diaphanus"* species) along with species 5, 6, 7, 8, and 9 (LBS  $= 80\%$ ;  $PP = 0.98$ ); a clade formed by species 10, 11, 12, and 13 (LBS = 87%; PP  $= 1$ ); a clade formed by species 14, 15, 16, and 17 (LBS = 100%; PP = 1); and a clade formed by species 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, and 24 (the latter 3 are the *C.* "*limnaei*" species) (LBS =  $100\%$ ; PP = 1).

Individual gene trees are largely congruent with results from the concatenated analyses. ML gene trees of COI (Supplementary Fig. 1) and ITS2 (Supplementary Fig. 2) each recover the same 24 terminal clades with high support (LBS *>* 75%). However, support at deeper nodes is generally poor and neither gene tree recovers the clade containing putative *Chaetogaster* species 1 and 2 as sister to the remainder of the genus, which was recovered in the concatenated dataset. Both gene trees agree in placing putative species 5 as sister to the *C. "diaphanus"* species  $(3 \text{ and } 4)$  (COI LBS = 100%; ITS2 LBS = 98%) and in grouping the three putative *C. "limnaei"* species (22 – 24) together with putative species 19, 20, and 21, albeit with poor support in the COI tree (COI LBS = 44%; ITS2 LBS = 98%). Many of the same terminal clades are recovered in the 16S and H3 gene trees, with a few exceptions. In the former, putative species 18 is paraphyletic (Supplementary Fig. 3). In the latter, two of the putative *C. "limnaei"* species (22 and 23) group together in a single clade alongside sequences collected by [Smythe et al. \(2015\)](#page-13-0) 

<span id="page-7-0"></span>

**Fig. 2.** Maximum likelihood phylogeny (*lnL* = -19440.5590 ± 523.5033) based on a concatenated alignment of four loci (COI, 16S, ITS2, and H3). Nodes with bootstrap support*>*75% are indicated with circles. Sequences are color coded according to sampling locality. *Chaetogaster* morphogroup labels indicate the preliminary identifications of each specimen prior to our analyses. The numbered clades are interpreted as putative species.

#### (Supplementary Fig. 4).

### *3.2. Mixed phylogeographic patterns in Chaetogaster*

Both ML and BI phylogenies include four instances of North American and European sister lineages that are highly supported. Some of these sister lineages are deeply separated, such as the division between putative species 3 and 4, which represent *C. "diaphanus"* worms largely collected in North America and Europe, respectively (LBS =  $96\%$ ; PP = 0.99). Other divisions are much shallower, such as the split between North American and European sequences of putative species 20 (LBS = 100%,  $PP = 1$ ). A few clades do not show deep divergence between continents. For example, in putative species 12 an Italian sequence (CE10252) falls with North American sequences (LBS = 87%;  $PP =$ 0.84), while the sole North American sequence of putative species 18 forms a clade with Scandinavian sequences (LBS =  $100\%$ ; PP = 1). Interestingly, the well-supported grouping of putative species 14, 15, 16, and 17 shows a particularly broad geographic range, including specimens from Guam (putative species 14), Sardinia (putative species 15), Sweden (putative species 15 and 16), and Texas (putative species 17). Some terminal clades do not have a counterpart in North America (*i.e.,*  putative species 1, 2, 5, 9, 13, 15, 16, 19, and 21) or Europe (*i.e.,* putative species 17 and 24).

# *3.3. Species delimitation methods recover at least 24 species in Chaetogaster*

The ASAP analysis to delimit species based on genetic distances recovered a large barcoding gap in the COI dataset between 3.4 and 10% pairwise distance. The most likely delimitation scheme based on this threshold includes 24 potential species, which correspond to the 24 terminal clades identified in the ML and BI phylogenies. A large barcoding gap was not found for the 16S alignment, but 24 delimitations are still recovered based on a 0.8–1% threshold separating intraspecific and interspecific distances. GMYC analyses for COI, 16S, H3, and ITS2 arrived at a similar species count to ASAP. Individual gene BEAST trees input into GMYC delimited 24 species based on either COI or ITS2, 21 species based on 16S, and 19 species based on H3. The modest

<span id="page-8-0"></span>

**Fig. 3.** Bayesian inference phylogeny based on a concatenated alignment of four loci (COI, 16S, ITS2, and H3). Nodes with posterior probabilities*>*0.9 are indicated with circles. Sequences are color coded according to sampling locality. *Chaetogaster* morphogroup labels indicate the preliminary identifications of each specimen prior to our analyses. The numbered clades are interpreted as putative species.

differences between analyses are not surprising, as distinct molecular markers can often produce somewhat conflicting GMYC results ([Ritchie](#page-13-0)  [et al., 2016\)](#page-13-0).

To further evaluate these species delimitations, we chose to test the ASAP and GMYC COI results using BPP. Most groups delimited according to ASAP and GMYC were highly supported in the BPP analysis (PP *>* 0.95) across large, intermediate, and small priors of genetic distance (Supplementary table 1). Species 6, 8, 9, and 15 had poorer support for one of the three runs (run C) in the BPP analysis, perhaps because the small prior does not reflect the large range of genetic distances in our dataset.

## *3.4. Large pairwise COI distances separate delimited species*

We calculated uncorrected p - distances for the 24 delimited species of *Chaetogaster* to assess the extent of intra- and interspecific divergence (Supplementary Tables 2 and 3). In summary, the average interspecific pairwise distance is  $15\% \pm 1.3$  (range 5 – 18.5%), while the average intraspecific pairwise distance is  $0.7\% \pm 0.2$  (range 0 – 2.3%). Pairwise distances between North American and European sequences range widely. For the four pairs of species comprising North American and European sister species (species 3 and 4; 6 and 7; 10 and 11, and 22 and 23), the average between species distance is 8.2%  $\pm$  1 (range 5.7 – 10.4%). Meanwhile, the average between group distance for the four terminal clades where North American and European sequences are not split into separate species (species 8, 12, 18, and 20) is  $1.1\% \pm 0.3$ (range 0.6 – 2.4%).

# *3.5. Most Chaetogaster species share similar chaetal morphology and body size*

Despite efforts to identify morphological features that can distinguish the different *Chaetogaster* species, we found that most worms were extremely similar in external morphology. Our morphological assessments of North American *Chaetogaster* worms ([Fig. 4](#page-9-0)) indicate that several species spanning the genus share a similar body size range. Species 8, 10, 12, 20, and 22 (which collectively span much of the phylogenetic diversity in the genus, including worms originally

<span id="page-9-0"></span>

**Fig. 4.** Overview of phylogenetic relationships and morphological diversity in *Chaetogaster*. Carnivory is inferred to have evolved twice within the genus. Body sizes (average body length and average pharyngeal width) are shown for a subset of North American species. Error bars represent standard error where more than one individual was available for measurement. The measurements represent averages from 10 individuals for species 3, 8, 10, 12, and 20; from 8 individuals for species 22, and from the single available individual of species 6.. Scale bars represent 1 mm. Most specimens were photographed alive and are not represented in the phylogenetic dataset. An exception is the representative of species 6, which is the formalin-preserved anterior end of JM016. The x indicates the posterior cut site, which precluded obtaining a body length measurement.

identified by us as *C. "diastrophus"* and *C. "limnaei"*) tend to be 1 – 2 mm long, with pharynxes that are around 100–200 µm wide. Species 3 (a *C. "diaphanus"* species) is consistently much larger, with an average body length of 5 mm and an average pharyngeal width of 500 µm. Interestingly, the one specimen of species 6 available for morphological assessment appears to have a pharyngeal width in between the range of widths for the *C. "diaphanus"* species (species 3) and the other *C. "diastrophus"* species (species 8, 10, 12, and 20).

Across the *Chaetogaster* species in our dataset, chaetae are bifid with curved teeth. The only notable exception are the *C. "limnaei"* group species, which have bifid chaetae that are longer and more strongly

hooked than the other *Chaetogaster* species [\(Kathman and Brinkhurst,](#page-12-0)  [1998\)](#page-12-0).

### **4. Discussion**

# *4.1. Extensive novel diversity within the genus Chaetogaster*

Here we present the first in-depth molecular phylogenetic analysis of *Chaetogaster*, a widespread and unusual genus of freshwater annelids that includes large predators, small omnivores, and mollusc symbionts. Our data from two mitochondrial and two nuclear loci strongly supports the existence of at least 24 species in the genus. This is far more than the three species commonly recognized and even greater than the maximum number of species proposed from morphological descriptions. In our dataset, the large-bodied *C. "diaphanus"* and mollusc symbiont *C. "limnaei"* are represented by two and three species, respectively. Meanwhile, the name *C. "diastrophus"* encompasses at least 19 species. Most of these *C. "diastrophus"* species are extremely similar in overall body shape, body dimensions, and chaetal morphology. We were unable to distinguish these *C. "diastrophus"* species using morphology alone. Although surprising, such extensive cryptic diversity is not unprecedented as the biodiversity of small freshwater invertebrates has long been underestimated. For example, comparable or greater levels of crypticity are common in other freshwater annelids [\(Liu et al., 2017a](#page-13-0)), rotifers [\(Obertegger et al., 2014](#page-13-0)), crustaceans (Schön [et al., 2017\)](#page-13-0), and flatworms [\(Atherton and Jondelius, 2018\)](#page-12-0).

While molecular analyses have proven to be effective tools for the identification and eventual description of new species (*e.g.,* [Knutson and](#page-12-0)  [Gosliner, 2022; Lawley et al., 2021\)](#page-12-0), further morphological analyses of *Chaetogaster* are necessary to formally document the diversity reported in this study. Our phylogenetic analyses and proposal of putative species merely represent the first step toward a deeper understanding of the diversity within *Chaetogaster.* 

# *4.1.1. The large-bodied predator Chaetogaster "diaphanus" is at least two distinct species*

Under the microscope, *C. "diaphanus"* worms stand-out amid the bustle of a freshwater community. They can be found prowling in search of prey or wrapped around an algal frond, waiting to ambush passing crustaceans. Given their intriguing lifestyle, it is not surprising that images and videos of *C. "diaphanus"* are common online and even place highly in microscopy competitions (Supplementary links). Nonetheless, despite its popular appeal, *C. "diaphanus"* as a species has received little attention in the scientific literature.

In this study, we show that the charismatic worms often identified as *C. "diaphanus"* are unlikely to be a single species. In all our analyses, *C. "diaphanus"* is clearly split between a North American lineage (species 3) and a European lineage (species 4), with an average between group COI divergence of  $10.4\% \pm 1.1$ . These two lineages are highly supported as distinct delimitations in the BPP analysis, strongly suggesting that the name *Chaetogaster "diaphanus"* refers to two species. One might be largely confined to North America and the other to continental Europe, but broader sampling is necessary to confirm this. Interestingly, a sequence obtained from Australia (CE17416) falls within an otherwise North American clade of species 3. This may represent an example of human-mediated dispersal and it does not rule out the possibility of a yet undiscovered Australian lineage of *C. "diaphanus".*  Nonetheless, it is apparent from our dataset that large-bodied and predatory *Chaetogaster* worms diversified into at least two species (3 and 4) from an ancestral assemblage of small-bodied, possibly omnivorous *Chaetogaster* worms*.* 

It is unlikely that the North America – Europe separation seen in species 3 and 4 corresponds to *C. "diaphanus"* and *C. "cristallinus"*. Both species have been reported from Europe and North America and the latter purportedly differs from *C. "diaphanus"* in possessing a prostomial incision, a shorter overall body length, and shorter chaetae in segment II ([Brinkhurst and Jamieson, 1971; Sperber, 1948](#page-12-0)). However, the absence of significant phylogenetic structure within species 3 and within species 4, despite the former including sequences from widely separated American localities, supports the presence of one large-sized and predatory *Chaetogaster* species in North America and another in Europe. Median incisions are common among North American *C. "diaphanus"*  worms, but it is uncertain if all large, predatory *Chaetogaster* worms on the continent have the trait. It could also be a plastic trait determined by environmental conditions, like the intraspecific variability observed in chaetal morphology for other naidids [\(Chapman and Brinkhurst, 1987;](#page-12-0)  [Smith, 1985](#page-12-0)). The closest relatives to the *C. "diaphanus"* species in our

dataset are species 5, 6, or 7 and it is more likely that one of these represents *C. "cristallinus".* In support of this, the single preserved specimen of species 6 (JM016) has a pharyngeal width between that of species 3 and the other *Chaetogaster* worms, suggesting that it may represent an intermediate form that has been identified as *C. "cristallinus"* in the past (this specimen's body length could not be assessed because the posterior end was removed for DNA analysis). Further sampling and analysis of species 5, 6, and 7, in addition to comparisons with species 3 and 4, will be necessary to assess whether one of those three species may be assigned to *C. "cristallinus".* 

# *4.1.2. The small-bodied mollusc symbiont Chaetogaster "limnaei" is at least three distinct species*

*Chaetogaster "limnaei"* worms are notable for their ectosymbiotic and endosymbiotic relationships with molluscs. As a result, they are a productive study system for research on the evolution of host-symbiont interactions [\(Hobart et al., 2022; Hopkins et al., 2022; Stoll et al.,](#page-12-0)  [2013\)](#page-12-0). However, this body of work usually refers to *C. "limnaei"* as a single species, regardless of sampling locality. We have shown that this underlying assumption is incorrect. Our analyses divide *Chaetogaster "limnaei"* into three clades: *C. "limnaei"* worms collected from North America (species 22), *C. "limnaei"* worms collected from Europe (species 23), and a third species distantly related to the other two only recovered from North America (species 24). Two distinct North American clades were also recovered in a prior COI analysis of *C. "limnaei"* [\(Smythe et al.](#page-13-0)  [2015\)](#page-13-0). These clades likely correspond to species 22 and 24, as representative sequences from the prior study fall alongside sequences from either species 22 or 24 in our COI gene tree.

It is important that future research on *C. "limnaei"* considers the new diversity we report here. North American and European *C. "limnaei"*  cannot be treated as a single species, nor can researchers assume that all *C. "limnaei"* worms collected in North America are one species. The two North American species recovered in this study may even overlap in range, as some specimens of species 22 and 24 were collected from localities less than 10 km apart in Maryland. We cannot say if the three *C. "limnaei"* species recovered in our dataset show distinct host preferences or clear morphological synapomorphies. Each species was collected from at least two families of host snail (Physidae and Lymnaeidae), and all display the distinctive hooked chaetal morphology that characterizes *C. "limnaei"*. Further investigation with larger sample sizes is needed to determine if the new *C. "limnaei"* species reported here show strong differences in host preferences, symbiotic behavior, and/or morphology. In the meantime, DNA barcoding using the COI locus is a reliable means of distinguishing between the three lineages. A barcoding approach for species identification has been similarly recommended when working on at least three other freshwater annelid models in which cryptic species have been recognized (*Helobdella*: [Bely and](#page-12-0)  [Weisblat 2006](#page-12-0); *Lumbriculus:* [Gustafsson et al., 2009;](#page-12-0) and *Tubifex:* [Beau](#page-12-0)[champ et al., 2001\).](#page-12-0)

# *4.1.3. The small-bodied free-living Chaetogaster "diastrophus" is many distinct species*

Most of the diversity in *Chaetogaster* appears to be represented by worms resembling the small, free-living, and potentially omnivorous *C. "diastrophus"* species. Historically, keys of freshwater annelids have included three names for these *Chaetogaster* worms: *Chaetogaster "diastrophus", Chaetogaster "langi"* [Bretscher, 1896](#page-12-0), and *Chaetogaster "setosus"* [Svetlov 1925.](#page-13-0) Of these, *C. "diastrophus"* and *C. "langi"* (both originally described from Europe) could refer to any number of the 19 species recovered in our phylogenies, as they resemble all of the "*C. diastrophus"* specimens that we collected and there are few morphological features to distinguish the two ([Brinkhurst and Jamieson,](#page-12-0)  [1971\)](#page-12-0). For this reason, authors have synonymized *C. "diastrophus"* and *C. "langi"* ([Brinkhurst and Wetzel, 1984; Kathman and Brinkhurst,](#page-12-0)  [1998\)](#page-12-0). Because the name *C. "diastrophus"* likely encompasses many morphologically similar species, *C. "langi"* might be retained in formal descriptions for one of them, but the others will likely need new names.

It is unlikely that *C. "setosus"* is present in our dataset. Originally described from Russia, *C. "setosus"* is notable among *Chaetogaster* worms in having simple pointed chaetae, rather than the curved bifid chaetae present in all other known species. None of the European or North American specimens in our dataset fit this description, despite keys indicating that *C. "setosus"* can be found on both continents [\(Brinkhurst](#page-12-0)  [and Jamieson, 1971\)](#page-12-0). It is possible that more intensive phylogenetic sampling in North America and Europe may recover *C. "setosus"* as one or more species separate from the new taxa discovered in this study.

### *4.2. At least two origins of carnivory in Chaetogaster*

Carnivory is a rare feeding strategy among the  $\sim 8,000$  species of clitellate annelids and represents a highly derived condition. Most extant clitellate lineages are detritivorous and/or herbivorous, subsisting on organic debris, algae, and biofilms. Of the clitellate predators and parasites, most are confined to the leeches, which likely represent a single 150-million-year-old acquisition of blood-feeding followed by adaptation to carnivory in some lineages [\(Borda and Siddall, 2004;](#page-12-0)  [Phillips and Siddall, 2009; Siddall et al., 2016](#page-12-0)). *Chaetogaster* is highly unusual among clitellates in having evolved carnivory. Our phylogenetic analyses strongly suggest that within *Chaetogaster* there have been at least two origins of carnivorous diets [\(Fig. 4](#page-9-0)). In one lineage, the *Chaetogaster "diaphanus"* clade (formed by species 3 and 4) has evolved a generalist predatory strategy, favoring crustaceans, other annelids, and miscellaneous small invertebrates ([Green, 1954; Monakov, 1972](#page-12-0)). In another lineage, the *Chaetogaster "limnaei"* clade (formed by species 22, 23, and 24) has adapted to a mixed lifestyle of ectosymbiosis and endosymbiosis on and within molluscs. While the ectosymbionts show a mixed diet of invertebrates, ciliates, and diatoms, the endosymbionts exclusively subsist on host cells ([Conn et al., 1996](#page-12-0); [Gruffydd, 1965\)](#page-12-0). It is uncertain what the remaining 19 *Chaetogaster* species eat, as dietary reports on *Chaetogaster "diastrophus"* are contradictory and rely on a now outdated taxonomy of the genus. However, it is probable that they rely on a mixed omnivorous diet of ciliates, diatoms, and rotifers ([McElhone, 1980; Schonborn, 1984; Taylor, 1980\)](#page-13-0). Thus, two separate origins of carnivory derived from likely non-predatory relatives in *Chaetogaster*, coupled with the diatom-feeding sister genus *Amphichaeta*  ([Mastrantuono, 1988](#page-13-0)), make *Chaetogaster* an excellent system for the study of trophic evolution. The novel phylogeny presented in this study deepens our understanding of the diversity and relationships across *Chaetogaster*, providing an important foundation for future comparative work that demystifies how and why these worms evolved such distinct trophic strategies.

# *4.3. A complex biogeographic history in Chaetogaster*

*Chaetogaster* lineages from North America and Europe are broadly interspersed across our phylogeny. Most species appear confined to one continent or the other, but we did not recover large continent-specific clades of species. Eight subclades in our phylogeny contain both North American and European sequences. Four of these represent sets of sister species each with a North American and a European species (species 3 and 4; species 6 and 7; species 10 and 11; and species 22 and 23), while another four are likely intercontinental species with representatives on both North America and Europe (species 8, 12, 18, and 20). This pattern suggests significant intercontinental migration during the diversification of the genus. For the latter four species, intercontinental migration is inferred to have been recent, such that lineages on each continent have not yet completely speciated or that there have been repeated reintroductions through dispersal. As *Chaetogaster* worms are small, softbodied freshwater invertebrates with no known adaptations to resist desiccation, successful migration between continents is likely to be rare. However, because *Chaetogaster* can reproduce clonally, even a single individual migrating to a new continent could rapidly establish a population, likely facilitating successful intercontinental transfers.

Because freshwater annelids have a poor fossil record, it is challenging to infer the role and timing of biogeographic events that contributed to the diversification of the genus. However, based on molecular divergences, we propose that the diversification of *Chaetogaster*  lineages in our dataset occurred both prior to and following the breakup of Laurasia into North America and Eurasia. A recent fossil-calibrated molecular clock phylogeny of clitellate annelids indicates that *Chaetogaster* diverged from the other naidines between 230 and 80 million years ago (Erséus et al., 2020), well before the break up of Laurasia, approximately 80–40 million years ago [\(Seton et al., 2012](#page-13-0)). The four instances of North American and European sister species in our dataset thus likely represent not vicariance from continental drift but speciation events that occurred well after North America and Eurasia were separated. This hypothesis is supported by the relatively shallow genetic divergences between the North American and European sister species in our COI dataset. If we assume that mitochondrial DNA in annelids evolves at a rate similar to that of other animals, then the average 8.2% (range 5.7 – 10.4%) COI divergence between North American and European sister species of *Chaetogaster* would have been generated only in the past 1 – 5 million years ([DeSalle et al., 1987; Fleischer et al., 1998](#page-12-0)).

Clearly, the biogeographic history of *Chaetogaster* is complex and there have likely been a range of factors responsible for the diversification of the genus. *Chaetogaster* species are reported from most continents yet molecular data are thus far limited primarily to North America and Europe. With morphological data being of such limited utility for inferring patterns of diversification in this group, expanded molecular sampling of this genus is needed.

### *4.4. A note on future Chaetogaster sampling*

We discovered extensive cryptic diversity in the genus *Chaetogaster,*  but sampling of the genus could and should be expanded. Most of our North American sequences were gathered from worms collected in Maryland, while our European sequences were largely sourced from worms collected in Scandinavian countries. Given the diversity observed in our dataset, it is probable that sampling from additional localities will reveal more species in the genus. Various *Chaetogaster* species have been reported from localities in Eurasia ([Park et al., 2013; Semernoi, 1985;](#page-13-0)  [Zalozny and Vorobiev, 2017\)](#page-13-0), South America [\(Collado et al., 2019](#page-12-0)), Africa [\(Bayer and Matthews, 1955](#page-12-0)), Australia ([Mitchell and Leung,](#page-13-0)  [2016\)](#page-13-0), and India ([Annandale, 1905](#page-12-0)). It remains to be determined whether any of these populations correspond to one or more of the 24 species in our dataset or if they represent additional *Chaetogaster* species beyond those recognized here. Lake Baikal is a particularly promising locality for new *Chaetogaster* diversity, as nine species endemic to the lake have been morphologically described in the past [\(Semernoi, 1985](#page-13-0)).

Future phylogenetic studies that leverage more global sampling will be necessary to estimate the true diversity and biogeographic history of *Chaetogaster*. Such endeavors are becoming increasingly important for small freshwater invertebrates*.* As the sixth mass extinction looms over precious freshwater ecosystems (*e.g.,* [Burkhead, 2012; Rocha-Ortega](#page-12-0)  [et al., 2020\)](#page-12-0), it is essential to document and conserve the incredible diversity of the small invertebrates that dwell beneath the surface of ponds, creeks, lakes, and rivers*.* Otherwise, we risk losing a myriad of tiny, remarkable, and poorly studied organisms like *Chaetogaster* and the fascinating evolutionary stories that they can tell.

### **CRediT authorship contribution statement**

**Joseph M. Mack:** Conceptualization, Writing – review & editing, Investigation, Formal analysis. **Mårten Klinth:** Conceptualization, Writing – review & editing, Investigation. **Svante Martinsson:**  Conceptualization, Investigation. **Robert Lu:** . **Hannah Stormer:**  <span id="page-12-0"></span>Investigation. **Patrick Hanington:** Investigation. **Heather C. Proctor:**  Writing – review & editing, Investigation. Christer Erséus: Conceptualization, Writing – review & editing, Investigation. **Alexandra E. Bely:**  Conceptualization, Writing – review  $\&$  editing, Investigation.

#### **Declaration of Competing Interest**

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

### **Data availability**

Data will be made available on request.

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#### **Appendix A. Supplementary data**

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at [https://doi.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ympev.2023.107748)  [org/10.1016/j.ympev.2023.107748.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ympev.2023.107748)

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