

# The effects of trail following on the distance between opposite sex and the effect of its benefit on the evolution of trail following in Pacific abalone *Haliotis discus hannai*

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**Background.** Aggregation of animals affects their fertilization rate in species that utilize external fertilization. However, the process of aggregation has not been widely examined in many species or using theoretical models. The Pacific abalone *Haliotis discus hannai*, which is an externally fertilizing gastropod species, shows aggregation in the wild. This study was conducted to evaluate whether mucus trail following shortens the distance between members of the opposite sex. We also examined whether the fertilization rate increased by mucus trail following is an evolutionary driving force in mucus following behavior. **Methods.** Whether *H. discus hannai* follows the trail mucus of another individual was tested using y-maze. The distance between members of the opposite sex of the abalones that followed the trail mucus was compared to that of abalones that did not follow the trail mucus using an individual-based model consistent with the behavior of *H. discus hannai*. Finally, to examine whether mucus trail following evolved to shorten the distance between members of the opposite sex, simple population genetic models of a diploid population undergoing nonoverlapping, discrete generations was constructed. **Results.** *Haliotis discus hannai* chose the arm with trail mucus more frequently than the arm without trail mucus, regardless of the sex of the abalone that secreted the mucus and reproductive season. In the model, the distance between the opposite sex was shortened by the mucus trail compared to without mucus trail following; however, the difference in distance between opposite sex members was only several centimeters. Additionally, simple population genetic models indicated that the shortening effect of the distance between the opposite sex members was a weak evolutionary driving force in mucus trail following. **Conclusions.** These results suggest that behavior of mucus trail following evolved as a mechanism to increase the fertilization rate; however, the increased fertilization rate was weak evolutionally driving force in mucus trail following.

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2 **opposite sex and the effect of its benefit on the evolution of**  
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13

14 **Abstract**

15 **Background.** Aggregation of animals affects their fertilization rate in species that utilize  
16 external fertilization. However, the process of aggregation has not been widely examined in  
17 many species or using theoretical models. The Pacific abalone *Haliotis discus hannai*, which is  
18 an externally fertilizing gastropod species, shows aggregation in the wild. This study was  
19 conducted to evaluate whether mucus trail following shortens the distance between members of  
20 the opposite sex. We also examined whether the fertilization rate increased by mucus trail  
21 following is an evolutionary driving force in mucus following behavior.

22 **Methods.** Whether *H. discus hannai* follows the trail mucus of another individual was tested  
23 using y-maze. The distance between members of the opposite sex of the abalones that followed  
24 the trail mucus was compared to that of abalones that did not follow the trail mucus using an  
25 individual-based model consistent with the behavior of *H. discus hannai*. Finally, to examine  
26 whether mucus trail following evolved to shorten the distance between members of the opposite  
27 sex, simple population genetic models of a diploid population undergoing nonoverlapping,  
28 discrete generations was constructed.

29 **Results.** *Haliotis discus hannai* chose the arm with trail mucus more frequently than the arm  
30 without trail mucus, regardless of the sex of the abalone that secreted the mucus and reproductive

31 season. In the model, the distance between the opposite sex was shortened by the mucus trail  
32 compared to without mucus trail following; however, the difference in distance between opposite  
33 sex members was only several centimeters. Additionally, simple population genetic models  
34 indicated that the shortening effect of the distance between the opposite sex members was a  
35 weak evolutionary driving force in mucus trail following.

36 **Conclusions.** These results suggest that behavior of mucus trail following evolved as a  
37 mechanism to increase the fertilization rate; however, the increased fertilization rate was weak  
38 evolutionally driving force in mucus trail following.

### 39 **Introduction**

40 Studies of the Allee effect in external fertilization species is important for population  
41 management because decreasing the density of adults decreases the fertilization rate (Berec,  
42 Angulo & Courchamp, 2007). Previous studies indicated that water flow (Babcock & Keesing,  
43 1999), spawning synchrony (Calabrese & Fagan, 2004), and the distance between opposite sex  
44 (Babcock & Keesing, 1999; Levitan, Sewell & Chia, 2016) affect egg fertilization. Although the  
45 distance between individuals of the opposite sex decreases naturally with increasing population  
46 density, distance can also decrease because of aggregation, defined as the result of animals  
47 remaining close together. Models including aggregation showed higher rates of fertilization rate  
48 compared to models that did not consider aggregation at the same population density  
49 (Claereboudt, 1999; Lundquist & Botsford, 2004; Zhang, 2008). The process of aggregation has  
50 not been widely examined in many species or by using theoretical models. It is important to  
51 understand the cues used by individuals to recognize individuals of the opposite sex. For  
52 instance, when individuals visually recognize other individuals, the encounter rate is low at low  
53 population densities; if individuals recognize each other through olfaction, they can search for the  
54 opposite sex from a distant location (Jumper, & Baird, 1991). Although a model has been  
55 developed that considers the distance over which individuals can recognize opposite sex (Baird  
56 & Jumper, 1995; Coates & Hovel, 2014), the cue used by animals for recognition remains  
57 unclear. Gastropod species follow mucus trails likely to encounter the opposite sex, as they  
58 prefer to follow mucus from the same species (Nakashima, 1995) and opposite sex (Erlandsson  
59 & Kostylev, 1995; Johannesson et al., 2010; Ng et al., 2011). However, whether the encounter  
60 rate of opposite sex is increased by mucus trail following has not been tested in any species.

61 Thus, the encounter rate of the opposite sex should be compared between individuals that follow  
62 a mucus trail and those that do not.

63 In *Haliotis* species, a gastropod species that uses external fertilization, the effect of the  
64 distance between members of the opposite sex and aggregation on the fertilization rate have been  
65 investigated as important factors in population management. It is thought that male sperm release  
66 and female egg release are not completely synchronized in *Haliotis* species: based on spawning  
67 behavior in aquaculture systems, males release sperm over several hours while females release  
68 eggs intermittently during male sperm release (Uki & Kikuchi, 1983). Similar asynchronous  
69 spawning behavior between males and females was also observed in wild population of *H.*  
70 *kamtschatkana* (Breen & Sloan, 1988). Because spawning of *Haliotis* species occurred even in  
71 the absence of the opposite sex in a tank (Uki & Kikuchi, 1983) and field (Breen & Adkins,  
72 1980), these species may spawn in response to environmental changes rather than upon  
73 recognition of the opposite sex and spawn in synchronization with males and females.  
74 Aggregation during spawning behavior was observed in *Haliotis* species (Breen & Adkins, 1980;  
75 Stekoll & Shirley, 1993), possibly as a mechanism to shorten the distance between members of  
76 the opposite sex and increase the fertilization rate during asynchronous spawning.

77 In *H. discus hannai*, although spawning may occur under stormy condition (Sasaki &  
78 Shepherd, 2001), aggregation is observed even in the absence of spawning (see supplemental  
79 Fig. S1) . This aggregation behavior may shorten the distance between members of the opposite  
80 sex and increase the fertilization rate of asynchronous spawning in *H. discus hannai*. It is  
81 probable that these aggregations are formed by mucus following because they can not reach the  
82 origin of smell using water-borne chemicals (Uchida et al., 2010). This study was conducted to  
83 examine the relationship between mucus trail following and distance between the opposite sex.  
84 First, whether *H. discus hannai* follows the mucus trail of another individual was tested in a tank.  
85 Next, whether mucus trail following can shorten the distance between members of the opposite  
86 sex was tested. The distance between opposite sex abalones who do not follow trail mucus may  
87 be shortened by abalones who follow trail mucus when both locomotion types coexist; thus,  
88 shortening of the distance between members of the opposite sex may not be the evolutionary  
89 driving force of mucus trail following. Therefore, whether abalones that follow trail mucus  
90 produce more offspring than those that do not was tested using an individual-based model.

## 91 **Materials & Methods**

### 92 **Study species**

93 *Haliotis discus* species is a marine gastropod mollusk in the family *Haliotidae*. Japanese *H.*  
94 *discus* species consists of *H. discus hannai* (Ezo abalone) and *H. discus discu*. This species  
95 inhabits our study site in Iwate prefecture in Japan (Hara & Sekino, 2005).

### 96 **Following the mucus trail of another individual**

97 To evaluate whether *H. discus hannai* follows a mucus trail, binary choice tests were conducted  
98 using a y-maze on December 11–28, 2015, August 17–20, 2016, and June 26–July 17, 2017. The  
99 y-maze consisted of 50-cm stem and 50-cm arms (width, 9 cm; height, 5 cm). The details of the  
100 experimental abalones are described in Supplemental data S1. Experiments were conducted as  
101 follows.

102 **Step 1:** To attach the trail mucus to the surface of the y-maze, one arm of the y-maze was closed  
103 using a plastic plate where individuals (marker) were allowed to move (right arm: n = 38, left  
104 arm: n = 37). The marker individual often began creeping within 1 h and reached the end of arms  
105 of the y-maze. After reaching the end of arm, the marker was removed, and the closed arm was  
106 opened. If marker individuals remained at the starting point for over a day, they were replaced  
107 with a new marker individual.

108 **Step 2:** The tested individual (follower) was released at the starting points and the direction of  
109 creeping was observed. Step 2 was started at 18:00 because *H. discus hannai* are active after  
110 sunset. Followers often reached the end of the arms within several minutes. If a follower  
111 remained at a star point for over 30 min, the direction of creeping was observed using a video  
112 camera until 6:00.

113 The effects of marker-tracker combinations and season on the mucus trail following rates  
114 were tested using a generalized liner model (binomial distribution) with likelihood ratio tests  
115 using the “Anova” function in the car package R v3.5.2. The marker-tracker combinations and  
116 season did not affect the mucus trail following rates (see Results). Additionally, statistics type II  
117 error may have occurred because of the small sample number. Therefore, whether abalones tend  
118 to creep in arms with mucus trail of another abalone was determined using a binomial test  
119 without dividing the abalone into experimental groups.

**120 Mucus trail following shortens the distance between members of the opposite sex**

121 To examine whether mucus trail following shortens the distance between members of the  
122 opposite sex, an individual-based model consistent with the behavior of *H. discus hannai* was  
123 constructed (see also supplemental Fig. S2 and supplemental file S1) using NetLogo 5.3.1.  
124 (<https://ccl.northwestern.edu/netlogo/>). The script are available on GitHub with file name;  
125 supplemental file S1 (<https://github.com/YMatsumoto5536/PeerJ-netlogo>). In this model, one  
126 model female abalone that followed the mucus (mutant females), one model female abalone that  
127 did not follow the mucus (wild females), and model male abalone that did not follow the mucus  
128 (wild males) were generated in the field. The distance between wild males of the mutant females  
129 and wild females were compared; this comparison revealed whether mucus trail following is  
130 effective for shortening the distance between opposite sex members from the aspect of female  
131 benefit, however, did not consider the distance between wild males and mutant females is  
132 shortened by mucus trail following of mutant females.

133 **Space and time of individual based models:** The size of the patch was  $10 \times 10$  cm and the field  
134 in the models was constructed from  $30 \times 10$  patches (i.e.,  $3 \text{ m}^2$  field size). Model abalones were  
135 generated in the field. The field was a closed system; when model abalones reached a boundary,  
136 they turned  $180^\circ$  in a random direction and began moving. Each tick corresponds to one day.

137 **Rules of model abalones behaviors:** Model abalones moved simultaneously according to the  
138 following procedure. The behaviors of mutant females were based on movement distance in the  
139 tank (see Supplemental Fig. S4) and the mucus trail following rate. The mucus trail following  
140 rate, irrespective of sex combination and season (binomial distribution: trail number = 75,  
141 number of arms with mucus = 60, estimated following rate = 0.8, Table 1), was applied in the  
142 model because the effects of the sex combination of mucus on the following rate were small. All  
143 types of abalones left the mucus on the patches while moving (see details Fig. 1). The distance  
144 moved was determined for each individual/day by random number following the exponential  
145 distribution (mean = 48.76 patches). Before the mutant females moved by 1 patch (10 cm), they  
146 checked the presence of mucus at the patches in front of them. If mucus was present within the  
147 search range, mutant female moved to one of the patches with mucus according to the mucus  
148 trail following rate. This behavior was repeated until reaching the determined locomotion  
149 distance. Although the wild female and wild male moved the same distance as the mutant  
150 female, the direction of creeping was random. Some studies have suggested that the trail mucus

151 of gastropods is degraded by bacteria within a day (Herndl & Peduzzi, 1989; Peduzzi & Herndl,  
152 1991). Therefore, the functional period of the mucus was set to 1 day in this study. After moving  
153 for 30 days in the model, the nearest neighbor distance of each female was measured. The  
154 difference between the distance of mutant females and wild females was compared using the  
155 generalized liner mixed model (Gaussian distribution) using the “lmer” function in the lmer  
156 package R v3.5.2. To conduct paired comparison within simulations, simulation number was  
157 treated as a random-intercept in the model. The effects of locomotion type on the nearest  
158 neighbor distance was tested with likelihood ratio tests using the “Anova” function in the car  
159 package.

### 160 **Whether mucus trail following evolved to shorten the distance between opposite sex** 161 **members**

162 To examine whether the abalone evolved the ability to follow mucus trails mucus to shorten the  
163 distance between members of the opposite sex, we constructed simple population genetic models  
164 for a diploid population undergoing nonoverlapping, discrete generations. However, *H. discus*  
165 *hannai* undergoes repeated spawning for several years. In this model, mutant abalone that  
166 followed the mucus trail and wild abalone that did not follow the mucus trail were evaluated for  
167 one autosomal locus with two alleles, Dominant (D) and recessive (d). Individuals with “DD”  
168 and “Dd” followed the mucus trail, while individuals with “dd” did not. The population size was  
169 set to 10,000 because beneficial traits are removed from population by random genetic drift  
170 processes when the population size N is small; however, the random genetic drift effect could not  
171 be completely excluded. Therefore, in addition to the model in which individuals with DD and  
172 Dd followed the mucus trail (mucus trail following model), a control model in which individuals  
173 with DD and Dd did not follow the mucus was constructed to eliminate the effects of random  
174 genetic drift. At the start of simulation, 9990 model abalones with dd and 10 model abalones  
175 with Dd were generated. Model abalones were generated at male to female ratio of 1:1. The field  
176 in the models was constructed from 1000 × 1000 patches (i.e., 10,000 m<sup>2</sup> field size). The  
177 behavioral rules of mutant type and wild-type were the same as in the model described above.  
178 After 30 days in the model, the nearest neighbor distance between members of the opposite sex  
179 were measured. The generation of fertilized eggs by each female based on the nearest neighbor  
180 distance between males was determined by the following equation: Fertilization =  $88.31^{-0.32 \times}$   
181  $\text{distance}$ , as described by Babcock and Keesing (1999) (Babcock & Keesing, 1999). The rate of

182 mutant type and wild-type in the new generation ( $n + 1$ ) was determined based on the ratio of the  
183 number eggs of each type of the previous generation ( $n$ ). This cycle was repeated for 100  
184 generations and the number of each allele was counted. The details of the simulation are  
185 described in Supplemental data S3 and model are available on GitHub with file  
186 name;Supplemental file S2 and S3 (<https://github.com/YMatsumoto5536/PeerJ-netlogo>).

## 187 **ResultsThe**

### 188 **Following the mucus trail of another individual**

189 Mucus trail following rates in each experiment are shown in Table. 1. The combination of  
190 marker and follower combinations (likelihood-ratio test,  $df = 4$ ,  $\chi^2 = 2.68$ ,  $p = 0.61$ ), season ( $df =$   
191  $1$ ,  $\chi^2 = 0.026$ ,  $p = 0.87$ ), and their interaction term ( $df = 3$ ,  $\chi^2 = 0.36$ ,  $p = 0.95$ ) did not affect the  
192 mucus trail following rate. The abalones chose the arm with a mucus trail more frequently than  
193 the arm without a mucus trail when the abalone were not divided into experimental groups  
194 (binomial test,  $p = 1.588e-07$ ).

### 195 **Mucus trail following shortened the distance between opposite sex members**

196 The distance between wild males and mutant females was shorter than that between wild males  
197 and wild females ( $df = 1$ ,  $F = 6.90$ ,  $p = 0.009$ ); however, the estimation value of the difference in  
198 distance was only 2.4 ( $\pm SD = 0.8$ ) cm.

### 199 **Whether mucus trail following evolved to shorten the distance between opposite sex** 200 **members**

201 In the mucus trail following model, the number of D alleles (Fig. 1a, see also supplemental data  
202 S4) increased with the generation at a rate of 34.6% (346/1000 simulations). In the control  
203 model, D alleles (Fig. 1b, see also supplemental data S5) also increased within the population at  
204 a rate of 27.3% (273/1000 simulations). The proportion of the simulation in which the D allele  
205 increased within the population significantly differed between the mucus trail following model  
206 and control model (2-sample test for equality of proportions without continuity correction,  $\chi^2 =$   
207  $12.47$ ,  $df = 1$ ,  $p = 0.000414$ ); however, the 95% confidence interval of the proportion difference  
208 was 3.26–11.3%.

## 209 **Discussion**

**210 Following the mucus trail of another individual**

211 Our experiments strongly suggested that the mucus trail of another individual affected the  
212 decision regarding the creeping direction of *H. discus hannai*. The mucus trail of *H. discus*  
213 *hannai* attracted their larvae (Roberts, 2001); thus, it is not surprising that adult individuals also  
214 reacted to the mucus trail. Individuals touched the bottom of the tanks using their tentacles  
215 during creeping; thus, the tentacles may function as a sensory organ. The tentacles of *H. asinina*  
216 react to extracted protein from mucus trails *in vitro* (Kuanpradit et al., 2012). This result in *H.*  
217 *asinina* supports that *H. discus hannai* also searched for the mucus trails using their tentacles.  
218 In this study, *H. discus hannai* followed the mucus irrespective of the marker sex and season.  
219 Selective following of mucus trail from the opposite sex would indicate that this behavior  
220 evolved to shorten the distance between members of the opposite sex as in other species (Ng et  
221 al., 2011). In this study, because the focal abalone did not allow for the selection of mucus from  
222 different sexes simultaneously, we can not deny the possibility that *H. discus hannai* could  
223 choose the mucus from opposite sex. While, sex-related differences in mucus components have  
224 not been detected in *H. asinina*, a *Haliotis* species. Therefore, the preference for mucus from the  
225 opposite sex may not occur in *H. discus hannai* even if the focal abalone can choose the mucus  
226 from different sexes simultaneously. Although the preference for mucus from the opposite sex in  
227 *H. discus hannai* was not detected in this study, mucus trail following may shorten the distance  
228 between opposite sex members more efficiently than creeping without mucus trail following.

**229 Mucus trail following shortens the distance between members of the opposite sex**

230 Although some previous studies suggested that mucus trail following increases the encounter rate  
231 of the opposite sex members (Ng et al., 2013), no studies have shown definitive results. Previous  
232 studies only investigated the rate of mucus trail following rather than the function of this  
233 behavior. This study shows that the distance between opposite sex members was shortened by  
234 mucus trail following compared to creeping without mucus trail following using an individual-  
235 based model. However, the distance between members of the opposite sex of mutant females was  
236 longer than that of wild females in 4907 of 10,000 simulations. Additionally, the distance  
237 between opposite sex members of wild males was shortened by following of mutant females,  
238 indicating that the fertilization of wild males can increase without mucus trail following.  
239 Therefore, the benefit of increasing the fertilization rate may be weak as an evolutionary driving

240 force of the trail mucus following, although the difference in the distance between opposite sex  
241 members was significant.

242         Locomotion patterns may have affected the distance between males and females by more  
243 than mucus trail following in our model. The random number generated from the probability  
244 distribution of the locomotion distance in *H. discus hannai* consisted of lévy flight  
245 (Supplemental Fig. S4), which is an effective searching behavior when the target is sparsely  
246 distributed (Sims et al., 2012). The locomotion pattern in another *Haliotis* species was found to  
247 involve lévy flight in the wild (Strain, Johnson & Thomson, 2013); therefore, the locomotion  
248 pattern of *H. discus hannai* in the wild may also involve lévy flight. This study focuses on mucus  
249 trail following as a method of shortening the distance between members of the opposite sex;  
250 however, other behaviors such as locomotion patterns should also be investigated in the future.

### 251 **Whether mucus trail following evolved to shorten the distance between members of the** 252 **opposite sex**

253 In some cases, the D allele increased within the population in the mucus trail following model  
254 (346/1000 simulations) and its proportion was higher than that in the control model (273/1000  
255 simulations). These results indicate that increasing the fertilization rate is the evolutionary  
256 driving force in the mucus trail following in our model, although the benefits were small. The d  
257 allele was not perfectly removed from all simulations although the number of d alleles decreased  
258 within the population (Fig. 1a). This is because the d allele was present in Dd; thus, individuals  
259 with dd were removed from population because of their low fertilization rate, while Dd  
260 individuals were not removed from the population and showed a high fertilization rate as mutant  
261 abalone. This study indicates that the distance between members of the opposite sex was  
262 shortened (i.e., increasing fertilization rate) by mucus trail following and that the alleles  
263 expressed during mucus trail following increased within the population in an individual-based  
264 model.

265         The D allele disappeared within the population in 654 of 1000 simulations at the start of  
266 simulations. This may be because the wild-type abalone, which did not follow the mucus trail,  
267 can shorten the distance between members of the opposite sex when the mutant type followed  
268 the mucus trail of the wild-type. Thus, the few D alleles were removed from the population

269 quickly the occasion when the shortening effect was not effective. This suggests that other  
270 benefits of mucus trail following may be required to begin increasing the D allele. For example,  
271 mucus trail following decreased the energy cost for adhesion and locomotion; gastropods species  
272 require energy to secrete a mucus trail to adhere and creep on the substrate (Davies & Hawkins,  
273 1998). However, an individual following a mucus trail can decrease the amount of the mucus  
274 being secreted (Davies & Blackwell, 2007; Hutchinson et al., 2007). *Haliotis discus hannai* may  
275 follow mucus to save the energy required for secreting mucus rather than to increase the  
276 fertilization rate, as the mucus trail was followed and mucus was secreted even in the non-  
277 reproductive season. The evolutionary driving force of mucus trail following in *H. discus hannai*  
278 may be clarified in studies considering the benefits of this behavior.

## 279 **Conclusions**

280 This study indicates that trail mucus affects the direction of creeping in *H. discus hannai*.  
281 Additionally, the possibility that mucus trail following evolved as a mechanism to increase the  
282 fertilization rate was indicated by the individual-based model. This study also indicates that  
283 increasing the fertilization rate is not only evolutionary driving force of mucus trail following  
284 because the D allele, which is expressed during mucus trail following, were removed from the  
285 populations in 654 of 1000 simulations. The findings showing that *H. discus hannai* follow the  
286 mucus trail regardless of the reproductive season and that both sexes secreted mucus also  
287 supported the presence of an evolutionary driving force other than increasing the fertilization  
288 rate.

289 Estimating the aggregation and nearest neighbor distance is important for the population  
290 management of *Haliotis species* (Button, 2008) because these factors affect egg fertilization rate  
291 (Babcock & Keesing, 1999). The aggregation size in the wild can be reproduced by using a  
292 process in which individuals follow the mucus trail of each other rather than a process in which  
293 individuals remain in a preferred spot on a rock in *Nodilittorina unifasciata* (Stafford, Davies &  
294 Williams, 2007). An individual based model constructed based on the mucus trail following may  
295 be helpful for predicting the aggregation of *H. discus hannai* if mucus following is more  
296 beneficial than choosing a preferred location based on environmental characteristics. The  
297 location preference based on environmental characteristics and its benefits should be tested in the  
298 wild to apply our individual-based model to population management.

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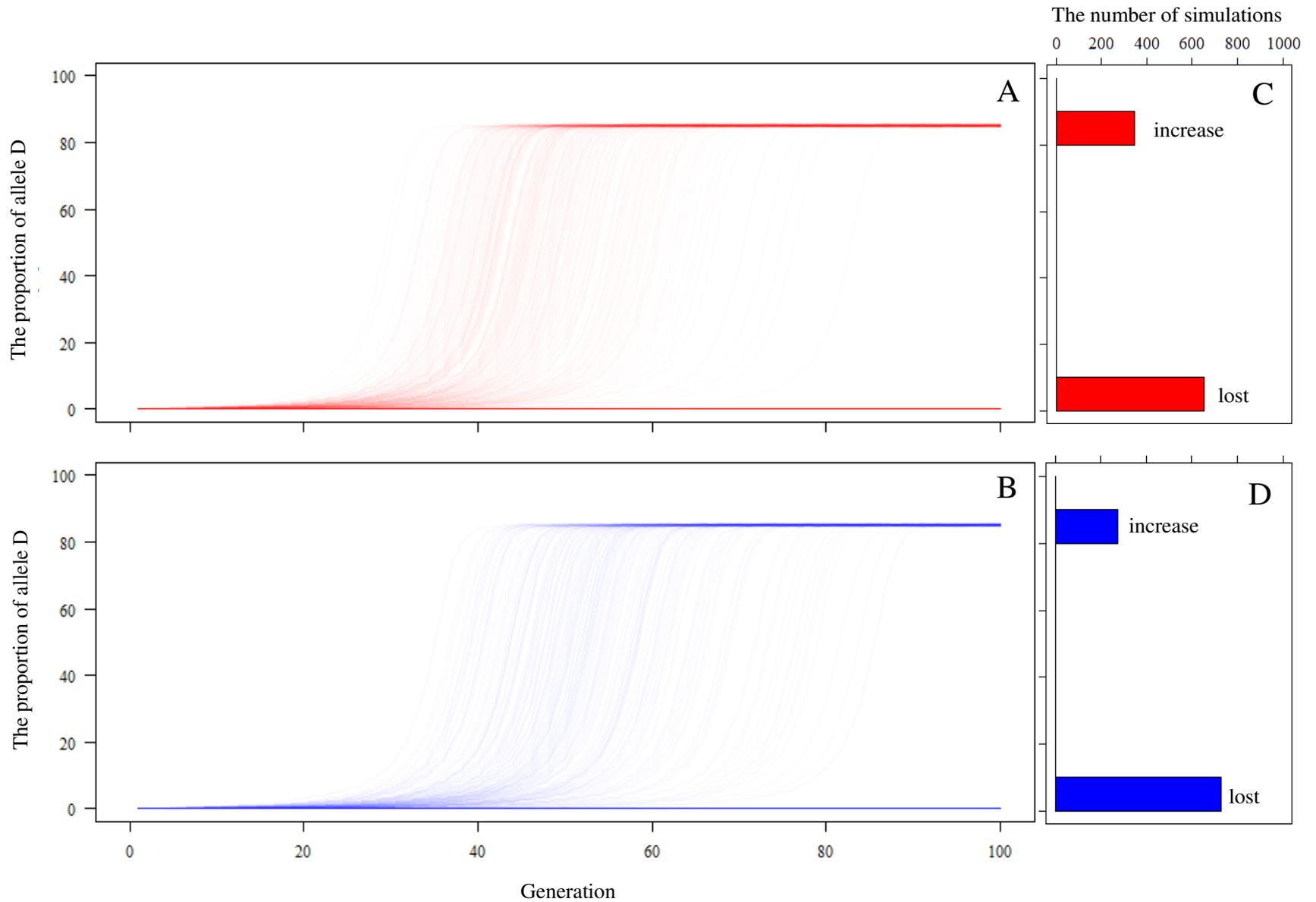
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**Figure 1**(on next page)

Figure 1

(A) Change in frequency of allele D in the mucus model and (B) Change in frequency of allele D in the control model. (C) The comparison of the number of case that allele D increase and the case that allele D lost in the mucus model. (D)The comparison of the number of case that allele D increase and the case that allele D lost in the control model.



**Table 1** (on next page)

Table. 1

The number of abalones choosing arm with mucus or without mucus.

| Experimental season     | marker | follower | with mucus | without mucus | estimate | 95 % confidence interval |
|-------------------------|--------|----------|------------|---------------|----------|--------------------------|
| Reproductive season     | male   | male     | 5          | 1             | 1        | 0.36-1.00                |
|                         | female | female   | 8          | 1             | 0.89     | 0.52-1.00                |
|                         | female | male     | 9          | 1             | 0.8      | 0.55-0.99                |
|                         | male   | female   | 8          | 3             | 0.72     | 0.44-0.95                |
| Non-reproductive season | male   | male     | 8          | 4             | 0.67     | 0.35-0.91                |
|                         | female | female   | 7          | 2             | 0.67     | 0.4-0.97                 |
|                         | female | male     | 8          | 1             | 0.88     | 0.52-1.00                |
|                         | male   | female   | 7          | 2             | 0.88     | 0.39-0.97                |
| total                   |        |          | 60         | 15            | 0.8      | 0.69-0.88                |

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