

1 **TITLE:** The perfect storm: Extreme weather drives and predation maintains phase shift in  
2 dominant Chesapeake Bay bivalve

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14 **RUNNING PAGE HEAD:** Storm-driven phase shift

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22 **SUMMARY**

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24 Extreme weather events are expected to increase in frequency, duration, and severity due  
25 to anthropogenic climate change, and they have been implicated in ecosystem phase shifts in  
26 terrestrial and marine systems<sup>1,2</sup>. As these events become more severe, it is critical to understand  
27 how they alter ecosystems. Tropical Storm Agnes in 1972 was a “100-year storm” that lowered  
28 salinity and increased sedimentation throughout Chesapeake Bay<sup>3,4</sup>, and was suspected of  
29 altering long-term ecosystem dynamics<sup>5</sup>. Here we show that Tropical Storm Agnes resulted in a  
30 phase shift to a low-density state for the soft-shell clam *Mya arenaria*, which was once a  
31 biomass dominant in Chesapeake Bay. The storm caused massive mortality of bivalves,  
32 including *M. arenaria*<sup>6</sup>. This storm also altered predator-prey dynamics between *M. arenaria* and  
33 the blue crab *Callinectes sapidus*, shifting from a system controlled from the bottom-up by prey  
34 resources, to a system controlled from the top-down by predation pressure on bivalves. Predation  
35 by *C. sapidus* is sufficient to maintain the low-density steady state where *M. arenaria* densities  
36 hover 40 y later. Two species may exhibit nonlinear dynamics that result in phase shifts<sup>2</sup>, and  
37 extreme weather events may serve as a natural pulse stressor, triggering the phase shift<sup>7</sup>.  
38 Considering the increasing frequency of stochastic storm events<sup>8</sup> and the preponderance of  
39 multispecies interactions exhibiting nonlinear dynamics, phase shifts are likely to become more  
40 common in the future. Hence, identification of species that are most at risk to shifts in state under  
41 extreme climate events should be a priority for marine ecosystem conservation.

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44 **TEXT**

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46 Extreme weather events are costly, and are likely to become even more common with  
47 predicted increases in the intensity and frequency of extreme events due to anthropogenic  
48 climate change<sup>8</sup>. In the U.S. alone, there were 30 climate disasters exceeding \$1 billion U.S.D.  
49 between January 2016 and October 2017, including hurricanes Harvey, Irma, and Maria which  
50 impacted the southeastern U.S. and Caribbean territories in the summer of 2017<sup>9</sup>. When  
51 examining the cost of extreme weather, ecological impacts are rarely considered, even though  
52 the impacts of such events on the ecosystem may be severe<sup>10</sup>. Traditionally, the impacts of these  
53 ecosystem changes have been hard to quantify, though when quantified they illustrate the value  
54 of ecosystem services for humanity<sup>11</sup>.

55 Understanding the impacts of extreme climate events on ecosystems is essential to make  
56 predictions for the future, and to prevent unwanted ecological surprises<sup>1</sup>. Biotic interactions such  
57 as predator-prey dynamics contain nonlinearities that result in complex and often unpredictable  
58 ecosystem responses<sup>2</sup>. Shifts in predator-prey interactions may occur due to differences between  
59 predators and prey in their tolerance to stressors<sup>12</sup>. When strong or frequent extreme weather  
60 events occur, they may cause mass mortality of one or a few species with low resistance or  
61 resilience<sup>13</sup>. Such declines in abundance of one or a few species may lead to an alternative stable  
62 state<sup>7,14</sup>. Multiple stable states occur when the relative abundances of species within a  
63 community are altered and persist under the same environmental conditions; this change in  
64 abundance occurs due to a perturbation, but persists after the perturbation ends<sup>2</sup>.

65 Tropical Storm Agnes, which reached and remained in the Chesapeake Bay watershed  
66 21-23 June 1972, has long been suspected of resulting in long-term changes for the Bay<sup>5</sup>.

67 Tropical Storm Agnes was a “100-year storm” that caused sustained, extremely low salinities  
68 (Figure 1) and increased sedimentation throughout Chesapeake Bay<sup>3,4</sup>. This storm has been  
69 blamed for the loss of seagrass in certain areas of Chesapeake Bay<sup>5</sup>, high mortality rates and  
70 recruitment failure in oysters *Crassostrea virginica*<sup>15</sup>, and declines in abundance of the soft-shell  
71 clam *Mya arenaria*, which suffered a mass mortality after the storm<sup>6</sup>.

72 *Mya arenaria* was abundant enough to support a major commercial fishery throughout  
73 Chesapeake Bay prior to 1972<sup>16</sup>. When the population declined abruptly after Tropical Storm  
74 Agnes, the fishery never recovered in lower Chesapeake Bay (Virginia)<sup>17</sup>. Attempts to revive a  
75 commercial fishery in Virginia waters were never realized after the storm’s passage. The  
76 commercial fishery for soft-shell clams in the Maryland portion of the Bay is characterized by  
77 variable and low harvest<sup>18</sup>; the fishery declined by 89% after the storm and has been near  
78 collapse since<sup>19</sup>.

79 The failure of *M. arenaria* to recover from storm-related declines has been attributed to  
80 predation, habitat loss, disease, rising temperatures, and overfishing<sup>17</sup>. The Virginia and  
81 Maryland portions of Chesapeake Bay have different habitats, disease dynamics, climates, and  
82 fishing pressure; therefore, these factors are unlikely to explain the inability of *M. arenaria* to  
83 recover from low density in both regions<sup>17,18</sup>. More recently, disease has been blamed for an  
84 added minor decline in *M. arenaria*<sup>18</sup>; however, there is no evidence that disease prevalence or  
85 intensity are correlated with *M. arenaria* density<sup>17</sup>.

86 Experimental evidence suggests that on a local scale, interactions between *M. arenaria*  
87 and their major predator, the blue crab *Callinectes sapidus*<sup>20</sup>, are capable of keeping clams at low  
88 densities<sup>21,22</sup>. *Mya arenaria* burrow deeply in sediments, and when clams are at low densities,  
89 crabs are unable to detect their presence<sup>21</sup>. The result is a low-density refuge for *M. arenaria*,

90 driven by disproportionately low predation, which is characteristic of a type III functional  
91 response<sup>21,22</sup>. Given this evidence regarding a potential mechanism for the decline in *M. arenaria*  
92 and maintenance of the population at low density, this study examines the effects of Tropical  
93 Storm Agnes and predator-prey interactions on basin-scale population dynamics of *M. arenaria*.

94 We show that Tropical Storm Agnes in 1972 resulted in a phase shift for *M. arenaria*,  
95 which was maintained at low abundance likely due to predation by the blue crab *C. sapidus*. An  
96 abrupt shift in clam abundance was identified in 1972, the year of Tropical Storm Agnes (Figure  
97 2). Before the storm, crab abundance was positively correlated with clam abundance at a lag of 1  
98 y ( $r = 0.66$ ,  $p = 0.01$ ), indicating that each year, clams were prey for juvenile crabs that recruited  
99 to the fishery at one year of age (Figure 3a). After the storm, clam abundance was negatively  
100 correlated with crab abundance with a lag of 1 y ( $r = -0.48$ ,  $p = 0.04$ ), indicating that each year,  
101 crabs were consuming juvenile clams that would have recruited to the fishery a year later (Figure  
102 3b). This is consistent with a phase shift from a system controlled from the bottom-up by prey  
103 resources, to a system controlled from the top-down by predation pressure on bivalves.

104 Predator-prey modeling confirmed the presence of high-density (at carrying capacity) and  
105 low-density (at 1.41 clams  $m^{-2}$ ) steady states separated by an unstable steady state at 20.93 clams  
106  $m^{-2}$  (Figure 4). We propose that *M. arenaria* existed in Chesapeake Bay at high density until  
107 perturbed past the unstable steady state in 1972 by Tropical Storm Agnes. Thereafter, it was able  
108 to persist at low abundance due to the low-density refuge from blue crab predation<sup>21,22</sup>, rather  
109 than collapsing to local extinction. Unfortunately, *M. arenaria* is unlikely to rebound to high  
110 abundance without a beneficial disturbance, such as a considerable recruitment episode or  
111 substantial reduction in predation pressure, which propels it above the unstable steady state  
112 (Figure 4) and concurrently allows it to overcome the exacerbated disease burden.

113 Predator-prey models with these two species alone was capable of reproducing  
114 observations of clam densities and mortality rates, consistent with the idea that blue crabs are a  
115 major driver of *M. arenaria* population dynamics<sup>20–22</sup>. The low-density steady state predicted by  
116 the predator-prey model is similar to observed densities of *M. arenaria* in Chesapeake Bay. *Mya*  
117 *arenaria* persist in the lower Chesapeake Bay at average densities of 0.4 – 1.73 m<sup>-2</sup> (95% CI),  
118 despite episodes of high recruitment<sup>17</sup>. In the field, juvenile *M. arenaria* exposed to predators  
119 suffered 76.3% higher mortality as compared to caged individuals<sup>23</sup>. Predator exclusion  
120 treatments confirmed that blue crabs were responsible for most of the mortality of juvenile *M.*  
121 *arenaria*<sup>23</sup>, and mortality rates observed in the field were comparable to mortality rates predicted  
122 by the model for blue crab density 4.8 m<sup>-2</sup>, which is a typical density for juvenile crabs in the  
123 summer months in Chesapeake Bay<sup>24</sup>.

124 The observations, theory, and mechanistic basis indicate that *M. arenaria* was subjected  
125 to a storm-driven phase shift to low abundance, which has been maintained by blue crab  
126 predation. As extreme weather events become more common with climate change, it is essential  
127 to examine the potential for such perturbations to produce phase shifts that may permanently  
128 change basin-scale trophic dynamics. Evidence for storm-driven phase shifts in coral reefs<sup>14</sup>,  
129 kelp ecosystems<sup>7</sup>, and now soft-sediment communities (current study) suggests that management  
130 of these ecosystems should include an examination of nonlinear interactions and the potential for  
131 phase shifts. Identification of species that are most at risk to shifts in state will help to preserve  
132 communities that are sensitive to extreme weather events, minimizing ecological and economic  
133 losses.

134

135 **METHODS**

136

137 Changepoint analysis of time series was conducted in R statistical software<sup>25</sup> on *Mya*  
138 *arenaria* landings<sup>26</sup> and adult female *Callinectes sapidus* abundance (VIMS trawl survey) in the  
139 Chesapeake Bay from 1955-1994, with an AIC penalty and using the segment neighbor  
140 algorithm<sup>27,28</sup>. This time period was chosen for analysis because it begins when *M. arenaria*  
141 landings data first became available and ends before the slow decline in landings post-1994 due  
142 to fisheries collapse.

143 Predator-prey ordinary differential equation (ODE) models were modified with a type III  
144 functional response:

145

$$N(t) = rN \left( 1 - \frac{N}{K} \right) - f(N)P$$

146

147 where N is the density of prey, P is the density of predators, r is the intrinsic per capita growth  
148 rate, K is the carrying capacity, and  $f(N)$  takes the form of a type III functional response:

149

150 Type III:  $f(N) = \frac{N^2 b T}{1 + c N + b T_h N^2}$

151

152 where T is the time available for foraging,  $T_h$  is handling time, and b and c are components of the  
153 attack rate in a type III response<sup>29,30</sup>.

154 Models were parameterized using data from the literature as follows:  $P = 0.06 \text{ m}^{-2}$ <sup>31</sup>,  $r =$

155  $1.75 \text{ y}^{-1}$ <sup>32</sup>,  $K = 200 \text{ m}^{-2}$ <sup>33</sup>,  $T = 1 \text{ y}$ ,  $T_h = 0.001483 \text{ y}^{21}$ ,  $b = 26.29743 \text{ y}^{-1}$ <sup>21</sup>, and  $c = 0.143$ <sup>21</sup>.

156 Models were analyzed for steady states. To examine mortality rates, we solved the equation for  
157 number consumed:

158

$$N_E = N - f(N) P$$

159

160 where  $N_E$  = the number of clams eaten calculated for a period of 8 d (0.02192 y) at an initial  
161 density of  $N = 48 \text{ m}^{-2}$  to match the field predation experiments<sup>23</sup>. We then calculated mortality  
162 as:

163

$$M = \frac{N - N_E}{N} * 100 \%$$

164

165 where  $M$  = percent mortality. Density of predators  $P$  was allowed to vary to achieve  $M = 76.3\%$   
166 <sup>23</sup>, and the resultant predator density that achieved observed mortality rates of juvenile  $M$ .

167 *arenaria* was compared to published juvenile blue crab densities for Chesapeake Bay.

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264

## 265 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

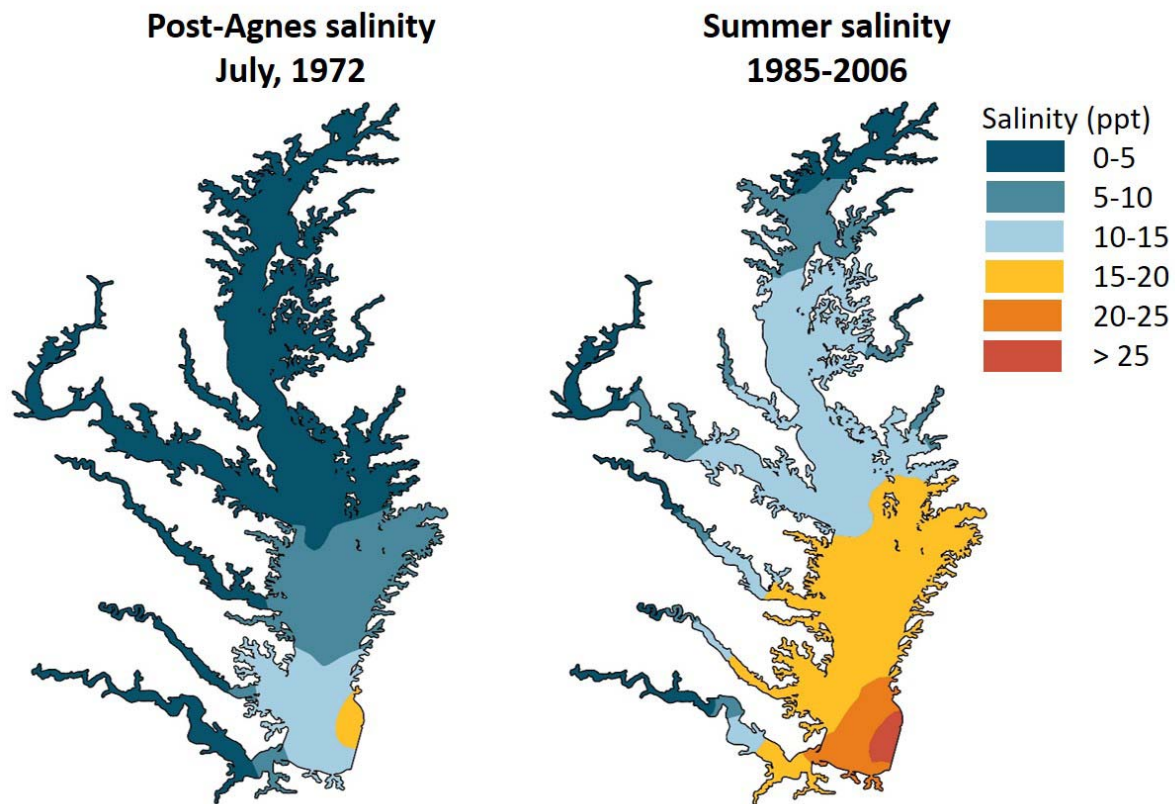
266

267 CNG performed the analysis and wrote the manuscript. CNG, RDS, and RNL contributed  
268 substantially to study conception and design, interpretation of the data, and manuscript revisions.

269

270 **FIGURES**

271



273 Figure 1. Salinity profiles for post-Agnes (left) and average summer (right) conditions. Post-  
274 Agnes salinity was measured over the period June 29 – July 3, 1972<sup>4</sup>. The summer salinity  
275 profile (right) is average surface salinity for 1985-2006<sup>34</sup>.

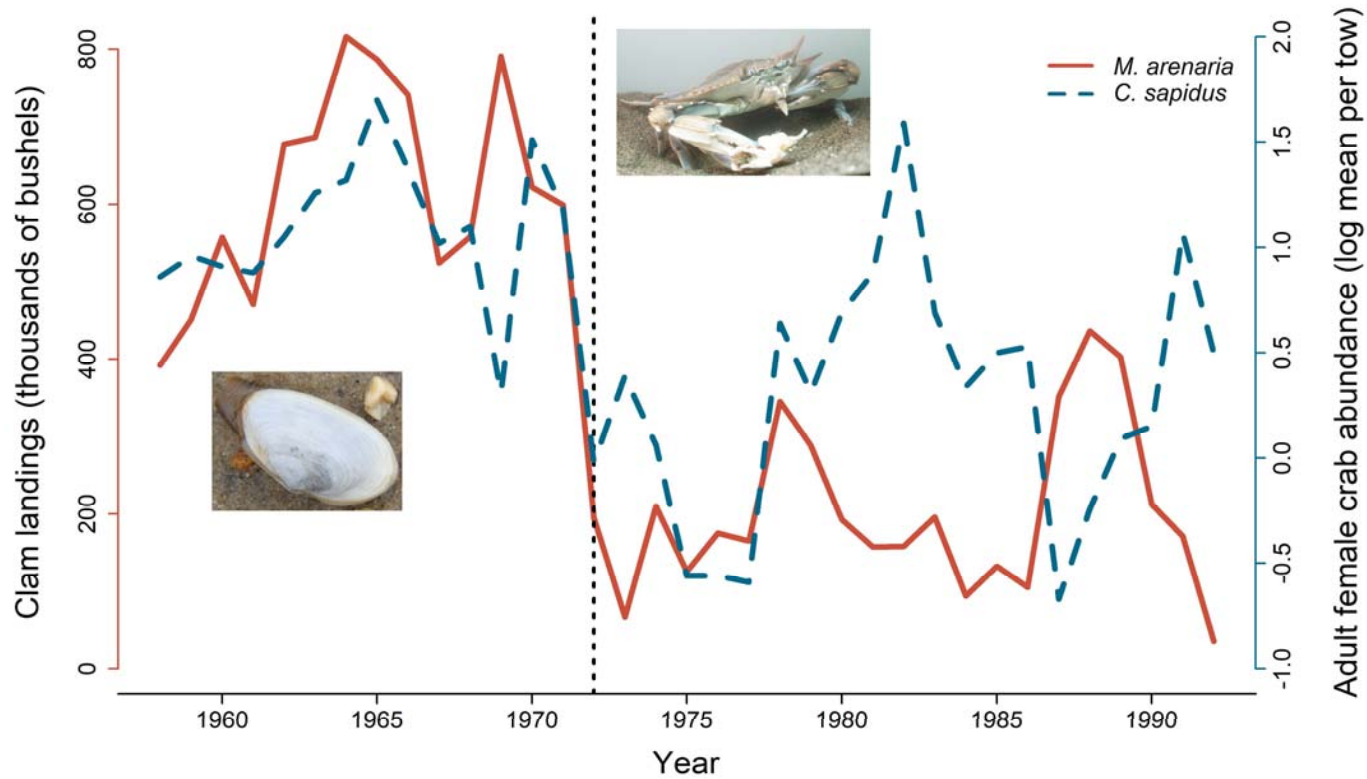
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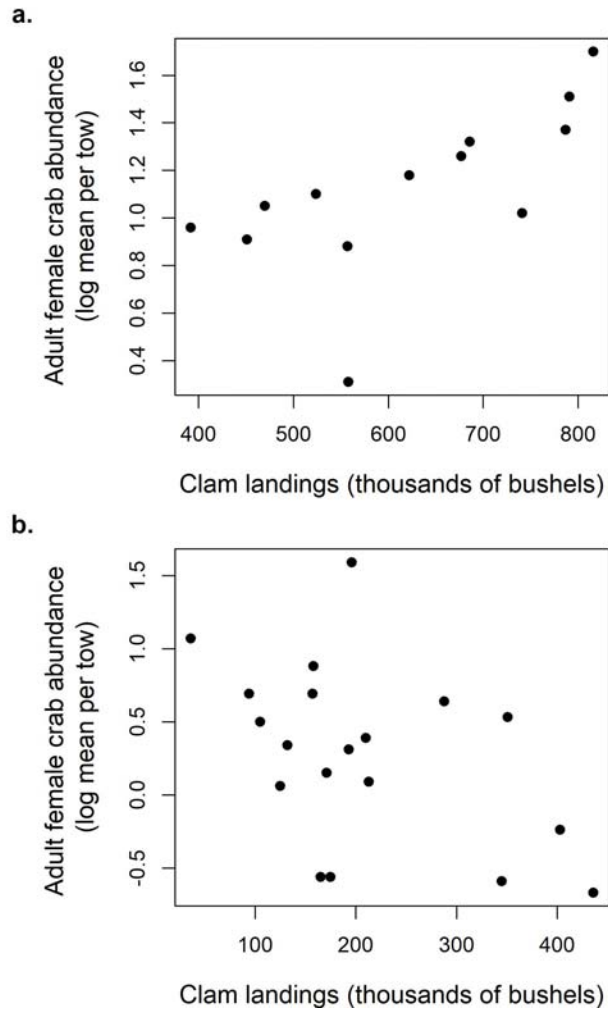


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283 Figure 2. Time series for *Mya arenaria* landings (red) and adult female blue crab (*Callinectes sapidus*) abundance (blue). Blue crab  
284 data are log-transformed mean female abundance per tow (VIMS trawl survey). *Mya arenaria* data are fisheries landings (1000  
285 bushels)<sup>19</sup>. Vertical dashed line represents Tropical Storm Agnes (1972), and the location of the changepoint from time series analysis.

286 Photo credits: C.N. Glaspie (clam), R.N. Lipcius (crab).

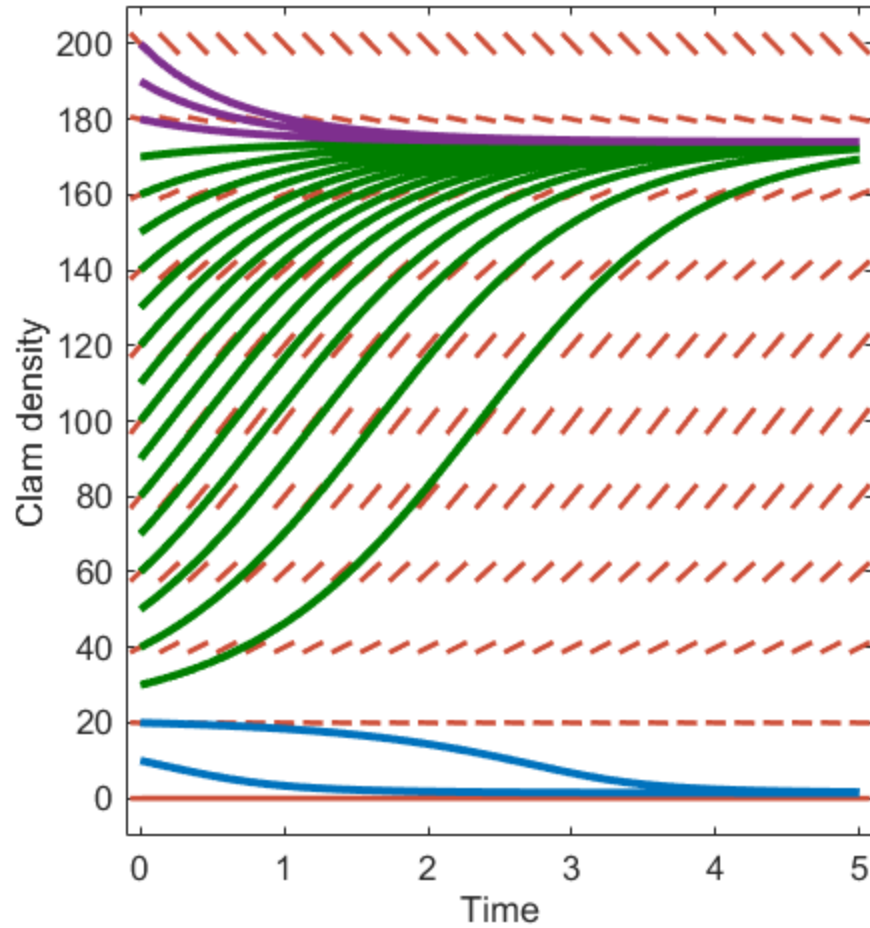


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288 Figure 3. Scatter plots showing the relationship between crab abundance and clam landings

289 before Tropical Storm Agnes in 1972 (a) and after the storm (b).

290



291

292 Figure 4. Slope field diagrams for predator-prey models. Trajectories of *Mya arenaria* density  
293 either approach a high-density stable steady state at carrying capacity (green and purple lines) or  
294 a low-density stable steady state at 1.41 clams  $m^{-2}$ . Trajectories diverge from an unstable steady  
295 state at 20.93 clams  $m^{-2}$ .