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| 2 | Forest type interacts with milkweed invasion to affect spider communities |
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| 11 | Short title: Spiders of invaded plantation forests |
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| 13 | |
| 14 | Abstract. |
| 15 | 1. Non-native tree plantations constitute a large part of forestation worldwide. Plantations are |
| 16 | prone to invasion by exotic herbaceous plant species due to habitat properties, including understory |
| 17 | vegetation structure. |
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| 18 | 2. We established 40 sampling sites in 10 plantation forests. Sites were selected according |
| 19 | to tree species (native poplar forests, exotic pine plantations) and common milkweed (Asclepias |
| 20 | syriaca) density (invaded, non-invaded sites) in a full factorial design. We collected spiders with |
| 21 | pitfall traps. |

3. We found a significant effect of *A. syriaca* invasion on spider functional diversity (Rao's
quadratic entropy), with invaded sites having a lower functional diversity than non-invaded sites
A larger effect of invasion with *A. syriaca* on the RaoQ of spiders was observed in pine compared

to poplar plantations. Spider species were larger and web building spiders were more frequent in
poplar forests than in pine plantations. We found no effect of *A syriaca* invasion on species
richness or abundance of spiders.

4. Species composition of spider assemblages in the two forest types were clearly separated
according to non-metric multidimensional scaling. We identified 7 species associated with pine
plantations and 6 species associated with poplar plantations.

5. The similar species richness and the higher functional diversity of non-invaded sites suggested that these trait states were less similar than invaded sites, and that functionally different species were present. In contrast, the invaded sites had lower functional diversities, and thus more uniform trait state compositions, suggesting that environmental filtering played an important role in species sorting, making invaded plantations low quality secondary habitats for the original spider fauna.

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Key words. Plantation, forest, invasion, spider, Araneae, functional diversity, species
composition, pine, poplar, *Asclepias syriaca*.

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41 Introduction

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43 The land cover of commercial tree plantations is increasing worldwide, replacing natural forests. These secondary forests include native and non-native tree plantations. Generally, they have a 44 negative impact on the original native ecosystems (Vitousek et al., 1996; Gratton & Denno, 2006; 45 Spirito et al., 2014), Although international pressure is increasing to tackle the negative 46 environmental effects of such plantations, tree plantation covers more than 7% of total forest area 47 worldwide (Payn et al., 2015). However, plantations may also have a positive impact on local 48 biodiversity by providing secondary habitats for rare and threatened species (Brockerhoff et al., 49 2008). 50

51 Pine plantations are common in Europe, where they are generally used for timber 52 production. Pine trees can alter hydrologic regimes (Urcelay *et al.*, 2017), microclimate and soil

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properties. The layer of pine needles on forest floor makes the soil acidic (Selvi *et al.*, 2017), and the change in chemical and physical properties of the soil results in loss of fertility (Augusto *et al.*, 2002). These processes are responsible for the changes in understory vegetation structure and microhabitat diversity (Chiarucci & De Dominicis, 1995), and in turn, lower species diversity of arthropods compared to natural forests (Brockerhoff *et al.*, 2008; Gallé *et al.*, 2018).

58 Due to altered microclimate and soil properties, plantation forests are prone to invasion by 59 non-native herbaceous plant species (Henneron *et al.*, 2015). In turn, invasive plants alter 60 vegetation diversity (Knops *et al.*, 1999) and biotic interactions (Bezemer *et al.*, 2014). A high 61 density of invasive plants changes the physical properties of a habitat by altering its structure, 62 including its microclimatic conditions, such as the light intensity and temperature of the invaded 63 area (Carter *et al.*, 2015). These changes may lead to changes in ecosystem functioning (Schirmel 64 & Buchholz, 2013; Gomes *et al.*, 2017).

Common milkweed (Asclepias syriaca) in Europe spreads aggressively and is found in 11 65 European countries (Szitar et al., 2018). It establishes dense populations in disturbed habitats 66 (Pysek et al., 2012; Kelemen et al., 2016), and may change the composition of existing vegetation 67 68 and form novel ecosystems (Kelemen et al., 2016; Szitár et al., 2016). Milkweed was introduced into Europe in the 17th century (Gaertner, 1979; Bukovinszky et al., 2014) from eastern North 69 America and into Hungary in the 18th century by beekeepers (Balogh et al., 2007; Csontos et al., 70 2009). Currently, A. svriaca endangers the semi-natural and natural vegetation of sandy regions 71 72 (Ducs et al., 2016), has become one of the most abundant invasive plant species in Hungarian lowland forest plantations, and represents a major problem in conservation areas (Szitár et al., 73 74 2016). However, its negative effects are not always straightforward (Szitár et al., 2016; Somogyi et al., 2017). A. svriaca attracts many insects, particularly pollinators, because of the open 75 76 structure of its flowers. As such, it serves as a continuous resource for pollinators day and night, attracting both diurnal and nocturnal pollinators (Southwick, 1983). The high density of 77 pollinators, in turn, may attract predatory arthropods. The effect of plant invasion on arthropod 78 assemblage structure is still not well defined, and is crucial in understanding terrestrial ecosystem 79 ecology (Bezemer et al., 2014). 80

Although there are reports on the ecology of forest invertebrates in the context of changes in quality
(reviewed by Kuuluvainen *et al.*, 2012, Lassauce *et al.*, 2011, Schulze *et al.*, 2016). The majority

of this work focuses on species diversity patterns (Kuuluvainen et al., 2012), with few studies

focusing on functional diversity of spiders (Magura, 2017, Gallé *et al.*, 2018). The concept of functional diversity helps to explain how ecosystems react to environmental change (Petchey & Gaston, 2006; Cardoso *et al.*, 2011). Changes in habitat quality may act as a filter, structuring the community with functionally similar species (Cardinale *et al.*, 2012, Dalzochio *et al.*, 2016).

The effect of habitat structure of forests on functional diversity of arthropods has been documented (Corcuera *et al.*, 2016; Dalzochio *et al.*, 2018; Gallé *et al.*, 2018); however, there is limited information on how arthropod assemblages and functional diversity is affected by plant invasion in different forest types. In the present study, we focused on spider assemblages as the ideal indicators of the impact of plantation tree species and non-native plants on assemblage structure of invertebrates due to their sensitivity to vegetation structure (Mgobozi *et al.*, 2008).

In this study we assessed the effect of A. syriaca invasion on species richness, and species 94 95 composition of spiders in the native and exotic plantation. We also applied the functional diversity concept to link diversity patterns with ecosystem processes and functioning. Hypotheses for this 96 study were: (1) species richness would be higher in native forests compared to exotic forests, and 97 tree species would have an effect on species functional diversity (i.e. functional richness and 98 99 evenness, Rao's quadratic entropy and community weighted mean trait values) and composition of spider assemblages; (2) functional diversity and abundance of spiders would be higher in the 100 101 forests which were invaded by A. syriaca as this plant would attract more pollinators, herbivores and associated predators; and (3) A. syriaca would have a different effect on spider diversity in 102 103 native and exotic forests. We assumed, that changes in habitat structure by A. syriaca in the low quality exotic pine habitat may have a more pronounced deterioration effect on spider communities 104 105 than in native forests.

106

107 Materials and methods

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109 *Study area*

110 The present study was carried out in the Kiskunság region, in the southern part of the Great 111 Hungarian Plain (Appendix 1.). The landscape was dominated by agriculture and semi-natural 112 forest plantations, with small patches of the original forest-steppe habitats (Gallé *et al.*, 2018). The 113 soil was calcareous coarse sand and the climate was semiarid with mean annual precipitation and 114 temperatures in the ranges 550 - 600 mm and 10.2 - 10.8 °C, respectively (Török *et al.*, 2003). 115

116 *Study design and sampling*

117 We selected 5 poplar and 5 pine plantation forests for spider sampling. We surveyed grounddwelling spiders at 4 sampling sites in each of the 10 forests, for a total of 40 sampling sites. Sites 118 were selected according to tree species (native poplar forests vs. exotic pine plantations) and 119 common milkweed density (invaded vs. non-invaded sites) in a full factorial design resulting in 10 120 replicates per treatment combination. All sampled plantations were mature forests with no recent 121 intensive forestry activity. Sampling sites were located at least 70 m distance from each other, and 122 each sampling site was located more than 100 m from the forest edges. We assessed A. syriaca 123 quantity in four 1 m² quadrates at each invaded sampling site; the density of A. svriaca stems was 124 7.33 ± 3.86 stems/m² (mean \pm SD), and its cover was $30.31\% \pm 17.05$ (mean \pm SD). We 125 characterized the habitat structure at the sampling sites by the approximate percentage cover of 126 herbaceous plants (excluding A. syriaca), the average height of the vegetation and by the cover of 127 leaf litter. 128

We used 3 pitfall traps for collecting spiders at each site. The traps were plastic cups with a diameter of 8.5 cm (Császár *et al.*, 2018). We supplied the traps with plastic funnels and we placed a metal roof above them. Traps were filled with a 50% water-ethylene-glycol solution to which we had added a few drops of detergent. Traps were open for three 7-day sampling periods: May 23 - 30, 2017; June 26 - July 3, 2017; and Oct 2 - 10, 2017.

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135 *Data analysis*

From the habitat structure data, mean values were calculated for each variable at the site. To detect possible differences in herbaceous cover, average height of the vegetation and the cover of leaf litter, we applied generalized linear mixed models (GLMMs) with binomial error terms. Forest type (i.e., native poplar, exotic pine), presence of *A. syriaca* (i.e. invaded, non-invaded sites) were fixed factors. Sampling site nested in plantation forest was used as random effect.

We chose 4 attributes for functional categorization of spiders. We classified species according to: shading tolerance, ranging from 1 (open) to 4 (shaded); moisture preference, ranging from 1 (very dry) to 5 (very humid habitats); feeding, 0 (active hunter) and 1 (web builder); and size, as a continuous variable in mm (Buchar & Ruzicka 2002, Bell *et al.*, 2005, Blandenier 2009, Nentwig *et al.*, 2017). If a species was assigned to more than 1 category, the values were averaged. Spiders

were considered as generalists if they were assigned to more than 3 categories in the case of 146 shading tolerance and moisture preference. They were also considered generalist species if they 147 were present at both extremes of the given categories, and their score was excluded from further 148 analyses, as their distribution is determined by other factors. We calculated community-weighted 149 mean (CWM) values for each trait at each sampling site; Functional richness (FRic), Functional 150 evenness (FEve) and Rao's quadratic entropy (RaoQ) to characterize the functional diversity of 151 spider assemblages, using FD package in R (Laliberté et al., 2014). The FRic index describes the 152 dispersion of all species in a trait space without information on relative abundances, the FEve 153 index the combines distribution of species traits and evenness of species relative abundances 154 (Laliberté and Legendre, 2010). The RaoQ index was useful for detecting assembly rules, habitat 155 filtering (trait convergence) and limiting similarity (trait divergence; Botta-Dukat & Czucz, 2016). 156 We used the Poisson error term for species richness data, negative binomial error term for 157 abundance data to account for over-dispersion of the data and Gaussian error terms for RaoQ and 158 CWM values. 159

We explored the multivariate response of spider assemblages to tree species and the 160 161 presence of A. syriaca with non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) using Bray-Curtis distance measure. We tested the effect of the above variables on spider assemblage composition 162 with non-metric multivariate analysis of variance (PERMANOVA), using the Bray-Curtis distance 163 measure, 10000 permutations and the vegan analysis package (Oksanen et al., 2015). Where 164 165 significant correlation with tree species and A. syriaca invasion was found, we used indicator value analysis to detect characteristic spider species (IndVal; Dufrtne & Legendre, 1997) with the 166 167 'labdsv' package (Roberts, 2016).

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- 169

170 **Results**

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Herbaceous plant cover was higher in non-invaded than in invaded sites (z = 2.257, p = 0.024).

- However, leaf litter cover was higher in invaded than in non-invaded sites (z = -2.032, p = 0.042),
- and it was higher in poplar compared to pine plantations (z = 2.547, p = 0.011). No difference was
- 175 found in the height of the vegetation.

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We collected 1621 adult spider specimens from 53 species. The most abundant species in
total catch were *Arctosa lutetiana* (Simon, 1876), *Pardosa alacris* (C. L. Koch, 1833) and *Zelotes apricorum* (L. Koch, 1876) with 256, 241 and 221 individuals, respectively; all 3 species are
abundant in dry forests with relatively open canopies (Buchar & Ruzicka, 2002).

We did not find a significant effect of tree species or A. syriaca invasion on the species 180 richness and abundance of spider assemblages (Table 1). There was a significant effect of A. 181 syriaca on RaoQ of spiders, with the invaded sites having lower functional diversity than non-182 invaded sites. The significant interaction effect of forest types and invasion of A. syriaca on RaoQ 183 of spiders indicated that invasion had a more pronounced effect in pine than in poplar forests (Fig. 184 1a). We did not find a significant effect of tree species or A. svriaca invasion on FRic and FEve 185 indices. Spider species were larger (Fig. 1b) and web building spiders were more abundant (Fig. 186 1c) in poplar forests than in pine plantations; however, there was no significant effect of moisture 187 and shading (Table 1). 188

Spider assemblages of the 2 forest types clearly separated according to the NMDS (Fig. 2). Non-metric multivariate ANOVA indicated a significant difference in composition of spider assemblages from poplar and pines forests ($R^2 = -0.227$, p < 0.001). We found 7 species associated with pine plantations and 6 species associated with poplar plantations, according to indicator value analysis (Appendix 2).

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195 Discussion

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In accordance with hypothesis (1), we found different species compositions for poplar and pine forests. Furthermore, we found a higher proportion of web-building spiders and larger species in poplar forests than in pine forests. In contrast to hypothesis (2), functional diversity was higher in non-invaded sites than in invaded sites; however, we found no effect of *A. syriaca* invasion on the abundance of spiders. Supporting hypothesis (3), *A. syriaca* had a negative effect on functional diversity in pine forests, while its effect was less pronounced in poplar forests.

Canopy closure is among the most important determinants of spider species richness and assemblage composition, because it can affect the soil microclimate and understory vegetation development (Finch, 2005; Lange *et al.*, 2011). Vegetation structure provides various microhabitats (Rodrigues & Mendonça Jr, 2012), which in turn, determine the species composition of

spider assemblages. In the present study, both poplar and pines forests were commercially mature. 207 Mature plantation forests generally have dense understory vegetation (Calviño-cancela et al., 208 209 2012) and well-developed canopies that reduce extreme microclimatic variation (Harms et al., 2000). Herbaceous vegetation structure depends on the light availability at the forest floor. Poplar 210 forests have relatively open canopies and sunlight penetrates to the forest floor, favoring more 211 diverse herbaceous understory vegetation than for pine plantations with their closed canopies 212 (Balandier et al., 2006). The resulting complex vegetation structure might provide numerous 213 potential web attachments for web-building spider species (Schirmel et al., 2012). We found that 214 species composition differed between forest types, as indicated by the significant results of 215 multivariate PERMANOVA and the clear separation by NMDS ordination. The high number of 216 significant indicator species also underpinned the marked differences in spider assemblages of 217 pine and poplar forests, even though we detected no differences in herbaceous vegetation cover 218 between the plantations types. 219

The quality and quantity of leaf litter determined the microhabitat structure of the forest 220 floor, thus having an effect on the diversity of spiders (Pearce *et al.*, 2004; Castro & Wise, 2009). 221 222 The thick layer of deciduous leaf litter in poplar forests creates a more complex forest floor than in pine forests (Gallé et al., 2014). Furthermore, the leaf litter in pine plantations consists of pines 223 224 needles which reduces soil pH and may change the physical properties of the soil, as well (Selvi et al., 2017). Coniferous forests generally provide less diversified herbaceous understory 225 226 vegetation than deciduous forests due to different soil conditions and lower light availability (Barbier *et al.*, 2008). The resulting relatively uniform microhabitat conditions of pine plantations 227 may result in a uniform spider species composition (Schultz, 1997). Besides habitat structure, leaf 228 litter also influences the abundance of decomposer organisms, and therefore, potential food 229 230 sources for spiders. Springtails (Collembola) provide a large part of the diet of ground-dwelling spiders in forests (Block & Zettel, 2003; Wise, 2004). Springtails are more abundant in native 231 forests than in exotic plantations (Kováč et al., 2005; Bolger et al., 2013), offering an easily 232 accessible food source for ground-dwelling spiders in poplar forests, and may enhance the 233 234 colonization and increase the abundance of larger species of spider. In the present study, we also found larger CWM size values in poplar forests. 235

Invasive plants affect species composition of spider assemblages (Bultman & DeWitt,
2008; Mgobozi *et al.*, 2008), and the behavior and density of spider species (Gallé *et al.*, 2015;

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Pearson, 2009). Invasive plant species may have a direct effect on spiders, as they affect the architecture of vegetation (Souza & Martins, 2005; Simao *et al.*, 2010) and therefore, habitat structure. Included in these changes are a variety of shelters and structural supports for web building (Litt *et al.*, 2014).

Plant invasion may provide herbivore arthropods with novel food resources (Bezemer et 242 al., 2014), thus affecting the potential prey abundance for spiders. In North America, where A. 243 syriaca is a native plant, 457 insect species from 8 orders are associated with it, mainly as 244 pollinators and specialist herbivores (Dailey et al., 1978). The continuously open flowers are a 245 relatively large and stable food resource for pollinator insects (Dafni & Kevan, 1997). However, 246 association as herbivores or pollinators may require a common evolutionary history with the 247 invasive plant (Tallamy et al., 2010). The poisonous cardenolide content of its white latex hinders 248 top-down control of native generalist herbivores (Zandt & Agrawal, 2018), and specialist native 249 herbivores are presumably negatively affected by loss of native vegetation due to the invasion of 250 A. syriaca (Litt et al., 2014). Several authors found that herbivore abundance was reduced due to 251 plant invasion (Simao et al., 2010; Cronin et al., 2015). 252

253 Plant invasion may also change plant–pollinator relations, either positively or negatively (Larson et al., 2006; Bartomeus et al., 2008; Fenesi et al., 2015). Furthermore, invasive plant 254 species can weaken the relationship between native plants and their pollinators (Aizen *et al.*, 2008), 255 resulting in significant changes in pollinator abundances and assemblage structure. In accordance 256 257 with Bezemer et al., (2014), we did not find a significant indirect effect of altered prey availability of invaded sites on spider species richness and abundance. This was in line with Groot et al., 258 (2007), who suggested that profiles of predatory arthropods such as spiders were not closely related 259 to plant species composition, and were less vulnerable to the effects of invasive plants. However, 260 we found that A. svriaca had a negative effect on the functional diversity of spiders, and this effect 261 was larger in pine plantations than is poplar forests. 262

In pine plantations, the similar species richness and the higher functional diversity (RaoQ index) of non-invaded sites suggest that traits values are less similar then in invaded sites, and functionally different species are present in the assemblage (Schirmel & Buchholz, 2013). In contrast, the invaded sites had lower functional diversity, and thus a uniform trait state composition. Invaded pine forests only favored certain trait state combinations, which implied that environmental filtering played an important role in species sorting. This presumably precluded thecolonization of several species of the original forest-steppe fauna.

270 In conclusion, plantation type and invasion of A. syriaca affected different elements of spider functional diversity. Spider species composition of exotic forests was different from that of 271 native forest assemblages, and they were not functionally equivalent. This might also affect 272 arthropod food web structure (Gratton & Denno, 2006). In exotic plantations, invasion of A. 273 syriaca had an effect on the trait composition of spiders, suggesting strong habitat filtering and the 274 generation of low quality secondary habitats for the original spider fauna. This may have further 275 top-down effects on the broader invertebrate herbivore and detritivore community. The 276 information on the effect of pine plantations and A. svriaca invasion on biodiversity is critical for 277 forestry and conservation management (Mgobozi et al., 2008). 278

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280 Acknowledgement

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This work was supported by the Hungarian National Research, Development and Innovation Office (Grant Id: NKFIFK-124579) and the "Lendület" program of the Hungarian Academy of Sciences. KI and HK are supported by Stipendium Hungaricum Scholarship of Tempus Public foundation. Authors have no conflict of interest.

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499 Figure legends

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501 Figure 1. Effect of forest type and *Asclepias syriaca* invasion on spider functional diversity. Open

502 circles: non-invaded; black dots: invaded sites. (A) RaoQ index; (B) Community weighted mean

503 (CWM) of hunting strategy; (C) CWM value of spider body sizes.

504

Figure 2. NMDS ordination plot of spider samples (dots), with significant indicator species (crosses), and community weighted mean values (CWM) also fitted (arrows). Black dots: pine plantations, open circles: poplar plantations. Species names are abbreviated with the first letter of genus name and the first three letters of species names, please see Appendix 2. for further details.

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| 2 3 | Forest type interacts with milkweed invasion to affect spider communities |
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| 11 | Short title: Spiders of invaded plantation forests |
| 12 | |
| 13 | |
| 14 | Abstract. |
| 15 | 1. Non-native tree plantations constitute a large part of forestation worldwide. Plantations are |
| 16 | prone to invasion by exotic herbaceous plant species due to habitat properties, including understory |
| 17 | vegetation structure. |
| 18 | 2. We established 40 sampling sites in 10 plantation forests. Sites were selected according |
| 19 | to tree species (native poplar forests, exotic pine plantations) and common milkweed (Asclepias |
| 20 | syriaca) density (invaded, non-invaded sites) in a full factorial design. We collected spiders with |
| 21 | pitfall traps. |
| 22 | 3. We found a significant effect of A. syriaca invasion on spider functional diversity (Rao's |

23 quadratic entropy), with invaded sites having a lower functional diversity than non-invaded sitesA

24 significant effect of *A. syriaca* on functional diversity (Rao's quadratic entropy) was indicated by

GLMMs, with invaded sites having a lower functional diversity than non-invaded sites. A larger
effect of invasion with *A. syriaca* on the RaoQ of spiders was observed in pine compared to poplar
plantations. Spider species were larger and web building spiders were more frequent in poplar
forests than in pine plantations.; We found no effect of *A syriaca* invasion on species richness or
abundance of spiders.however, we found no effect on species richness and abundance.

4. Species composition of spider assemblages in the two forest types were clearly Species
 composition of the 2 forest types clearly separated according to non-metric multidimensional
 scaling. We identified 7 species associated with pine plantations and 6 species associated with
 poplar plantations.

5. The similar species richness and the higher functional diversity of non-invaded sites suggested that these trait states were less similar than invaded sites, and that functionally different species were present. In contrast, the invaded sites had lower functional diversities, and thus more uniform trait state compositions, suggesting that environmental filtering played an important role in species sorting, making invaded plantations low quality secondary habitats for the original spider fauna.

40

41 Key words. Plantation, forest, invasion, spider, <u>Araneae</u>, functional diversity, species
42 composition, pine, poplar, *Asclepias syriaca*.

43

44 Introduction

45

The land cover of commercial tree plantations is increasing worldwide, replacing natural forests. These secondary forests include native and non-native tree plantations. Generally, they have a negative impact on the original native ecosystems (Vitousek *et al.*, 1996; Gratton & Denno, 2006; Spirito *et al.*, 2014), Although international pressure is increasing to tackle the negative environmental effects of such plantations, tree plantation covers more than 7% of total forest area worldwide (Payn *et al.*, 2015). However, plantations may also have a positive impact on local biodiversity by providing secondary habitats for rare and threatened species (Brockerhoff *et al.*,
2008).

Pine plantations are common in Europe, where they are generally used for timber production. Pine trees can alter hydrologic regimes (Urcelay *et al.*, 2017), microclimate and soil properties. The layer of pine needles on forest floor makes the soil acidic (Selvi *et al.*, 2017), and the change in chemical and physical properties of the soil results in loss of fertility (Augusto *et al.*, 2002). These processes are responsible for the changes in understory vegetation structure and microhabitat diversity (Chiarucci & De Dominicis, 1995), and in turn, lower species diversity of arthropods compared to natural forests (Brockerhoff *et al.*, 2008; Gallé *et al.*, 2018).

Due to altered microclimate and soil properties, plantation forests are prone to invasion by non-native herbaceous plant species (Henneron *et al.*, 2015). In turn, invasive plants alter vegetation diversity (Knops *et al.*, 1999) and biotic interactions (Bezemer *et al.*, 2014). A high density of invasive plants changes the physical properties of a habitat by altering its structure, including its microclimatic conditions, such as the light intensity and temperature of the invaded area (Carter *et al.*, 2015). These changes may lead to changes in ecosystem functioning (Schirmel & Buchholz, 2013; Gomes *et al.*, 2017).

Common milkweed (Asclepias syriaca) in Europe spreads aggressively and is found in 11 68 European countries (Szitar et al., 2018). It establishes dense populations in disturbed habitats 69 (Pysek et al., 2012; Kelemen et al., 2016), and may change the composition of existing vegetation 70 71 and form novel ecosystems (Kelemen et al., 2016; Szitár et al., 2016). Milkweed was introduced into Europe in the 17th century (Gaertner, 1979; Bukovinszky et al., 2014) from eastern North 72 America and into Hungary in the 18th century by beekeepers (Balogh et al., 2007; Csontos et al., 73 2009). Currently, A. svriaca endangers the semi-natural and natural vegetation of sandy regions 74 75 (Ducs et al., 2016), has become one of the most abundant invasive plant species in Hungarian lowland forest plantations, and represents a major problem in conservation areas (Szitár et al., 76 2016). However, its negative effects are not always straightforward (Szitár et al., 2016; Somogyi 77 et al., 2017). A. svriaca attracts many insects, particularly pollinators, because of the open 78 structure of its flowers. As such, it serves as a continuous resource for pollinators day and night, 79 attracting both diurnal and nocturnal pollinators (Southwick, 1983). The high density of 80 pollinators, in turn, may attract predatory arthropods. The effect of plant invasion on arthropod 81

assemblage structure is still not well defined, and is crucial in understanding terrestrial ecosystem
ecology (Bezemer *et al.*, 2014).

Although there are reports on the ecology of forest invertebrates in the context of changes in quality 84 (reviewed by Kuuluvainen et al., 2012, Lassauce et al., 2011, Schulze et al., 2016). The majority 85 of this work focuses on species diversity patterns (Kuuluvainen et al., 2012), with few studies 86 focusing on functional diversity of spiders (Magura, 2017, Gallé et al., 2018). The concept of 87 functional diversity helps to explain how ecosystems react to environmental change (Petchey & 88 Gaston, 2006; Cardoso *et al.*, 2011). Changes in habitat quality may act as a filter, structuring the 89 community with functionally similar species (Cardinale et al., 2012, Dalzochio et al., 2016). 90 The effect of habitat structure of forests on functional diversity of arthropods has been documented 91

92 (Corcuera *et al.*, 2016; Dalzochio *et al.*, 2018; Gallé *et al.*, 2018); however, there is limited 93 information on how arthropod assemblages and functional diversity is affected by plant invasion 94 in different forest types. In the present study, we focused on spider assemblages as the ideal 95 indicators of the impact of plantation tree species and non-native plants on assemblage structure 96 of invertebrates due to their sensitivity to vegetation structure (Mgobozi *et al.*, 2008).

97 In this study we assessed the effect of A. syriaca invasion on species richness, and species composition of spiders in the native and exotic plantation. We also applied the functional diversity 98 concept to link diversity patterns with ecosystem processes and functioning. Hypotheses for this 99 study were: (1) species richness would be higher in native forests compared to exotic forests, and 100 101 tree species would have an effect on species functional diversity (i.e. functional richness and evenness, Rao's quadratic entropy and community weighted mean trait values) and composition 102 103 of spider assemblages; (2) functional diversity and abundance of spiders would be higher in the forests which were invaded by A. svriaca as this plant would attract more pollinators, herbivores 104 105 and associated predators; and (3) A. syriaca would have a different effect on spider diversity in native and exotic forests. We assumed, that changes in habitat structure by A. syriaca in the low 106 quality exotic pine habitat may have a more pronounced deterioration effect on spider communities 107 than in native forests. 108

- 109
- 110 Materials and methods
- 111
- 112 Study area

Page 23 of 41

Insect Conservation and Diversity

The present study was carried out in the Kiskunság region, in the southern part of the Great Hungarian Plain (Appendix 1.). The landscape was dominated by agriculture and semi-natural forest plantations, with small patches of the original forest-steppe habitats (Gallé *et al.*, 2018). The soil was calcareous coarse sand and the climate was semiarid with mean annual precipitation and temperatures in the ranges 550 - 600 mm and 10.2 - 10.8 °C, respectively (Török *et al.*, 2003).

118

119 *Study design and sampling*

We selected 5 poplar and 5 pine plantation forests for spider sampling. We surveyed ground-120 dwelling spiders at 4 sampling sites in each of the 10 forests, for a total of 40 sampling sites. Sites 121 were selected according to tree species (native poplar forests vs. exotic pine plantations) and 122 123 common milkweed density (invaded vs. non-invaded sites) in a full factorial design resulting in 10 replicates per treatment combination. All sampled plantations were mature forests with no recent 124 intensive forestry activity. Sampling sites were located at least 70 m distance from each other, and 125 each sampling site was located more than 100 m from the forest edges. We assessed A. syriaca 126 quantity in four 1 m² quadrates at each invaded sampling site; the density of A. syriaca stems was 127 7.33 ± 3.86 stems/m² (mean \pm SD), and its cover was $30.31\% \pm 17.05$ (mean \pm SD). We 128 characterized the habitat structure at the sampling sites by the approximate percentage cover of 129 herbaceous plants (excluding A. syriaca), the average height of the vegetation and by the cover of 130 leaf litter. 131

We used 3 pitfall traps for collecting spiders at each site. The traps were plastic cups with a diameter of 8.5 cm (Császár *et al.*, 2018). We supplied the traps with plastic funnels and we placed a metal roof above them. Traps were filled with a 50% water-ethylene-glycol solution to which we had added a few drops of detergent. Traps were open for three 7-day sampling periods: May 23 - 30, 2017; June 26 - July 3, 2017; and Oct 2 - 10, 2017.

137

138 *Data analysis*

From the habitat structure data, mean values were calculated for each variable at the site. To detect possible differences in herbaceous cover, average height of the vegetation and the cover of leaf litter, we applied generalized linear mixed models (GLMMs) with binomial error terms. Forest type (i.e., native poplar, exotic pine), presence of *A. syriaca* (i.e. invaded, non-invaded sites) were fixed factors. Sampling site nested in plantation forest was used as random effect.

We chose 4 attributes for functional categorization of spiders. We classified species according to: 144 shading tolerance, ranging from 1 (open) to 4 (shaded); moisture preference, ranging from 1 (very 145 146 dry) to 5 (very humid habitats); feeding, 0 (active hunter) and 1 (web builder); and size, as a continuous variable in mm (Buchar & Ruzicka 2002, Bell et al., 2005, Blandenier 2009, Nentwig 147 et al., 2017). If a species was assigned to more than 1 category, the values were averaged. Spiders 148 were considered as generalists if they were assigned to more than 3 categories in the case of 149 150 shading tolerance and moisture preference. They were also considered generalist species if they were present at both extremes of the given categories, and their score was excluded from further 151 152 analyses, as their distribution is determined by other factors. We calculated community-weighted mean (CWM) values for each trait at each sampling site; Functional richness (FRic), Functional 153 evenness (FEve) and Rao's quadratic entropy (RaoQ) to characterize the functional diversity of 154 spider assemblages, using FD package in R (Laliberté et al., 2014). The FRic index describes the 155 dispersion of all species in a trait space without information on relative abundances, the FEve 156 index the combines distribution of species traits and evenness of species relative abundances 157 (Laliberté and Legendre, 2010). The RaoQ index was useful for detecting assembly rules, habitat 158 159 filtering (trait convergence) and limiting similarity (trait divergence; Botta-Dukat & Czucz, 2016). We used the Poisson error term for species richness data, negative binomial error term for 160 abundance data to account for over-dispersion of the data and Gaussian error terms for RaoQ and 161 CWM values. 162

163 We explored the multivariate response of spider assemblages to tree species and the presence of A. syriaca with non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) using Bray-Curtis 164 165 distance measure. We tested the effect of the above variables on spider assemblage composition with non-metric multivariate analysis of variance (PERMANOVA), using the Bray-Curtis distance 166 167 measure, 10000 permutations and the vegan analysis package (Oksanen et al., 2015). Where significant correlation with tree species and A. syriaca invasion was found, we used indicator value 168 analysis to detect characteristic spider species (IndVal; Dufrtne & Legendre, 1997) with the 169 'labdsv' package (Roberts, 2016). 170

- 171
- 172
- 173 **Results**
- 174

Herbaceous plant cover was higher in non-invaded than in invaded sites (z = 2.257, p = 0.024). However, leaf litter cover was higher in invaded than in non-invaded sites (z = -2.032, p = 0.042), and it was higher in poplar compared to pine plantations (z = 2.547, p = 0.011). No difference was

178 found in the height of the vegetation.

We collected 1621 adult spider specimens from 53 species. The most abundant species in total catch were *Arctosa lutetiana* (Simon, 1876), *Pardosa alacris* (C. L. Koch, 1833) and *Zelotes apricorum* (L. Koch, 1876) with 256, 241 and 221 individuals, respectively; all 3 species are abundant in dry forests with relatively open canopies (Buchar & Ruzicka, 2002).

We did not find a significant effect of tree species or A. syriaca invasion on the species 183 richness and abundance of spider assemblages (Table 1). There was a significant effect of A. 184 syriaca on RaoQ of spiders, with the invaded sites having lower functional diversity than non-185 invaded sites. The significant interaction effect of forest types and invasion of A. syriaca on RaoQ 186 of spiders indicated that invasion had a more pronounced effect in pine than in poplar forests (Fig. 187 1a). We did not find a significant effect of tree species or A. syriaca invasion on FRic and FEve 188 indices. Spider species were larger (Fig. 1b) and web building spiders were more abundant (Fig. 189 1c) in poplar forests than in pine plantations; however, there was no significant effect of moisture 190 and shading (Table 1). 191

Spider assemblages of the 2 forest types clearly separated according to the NMDS (Fig. 2). Non-metric multivariate ANOVA indicated a significant difference in composition of spider assemblages from poplar and pines forests ($R^2 = -0.227$, p < 0.001). We found 7 species associated with pine plantations and 6 species associated with poplar plantations, according to indicator value analysis (Appendix 2).

197

198 Discussion

199

In accordance with hypothesis (1), we found different species compositions for poplar and pine forests. Furthermore, we found a higher proportion of web-building spiders and larger species in poplar forests than in pine forests. In contrast to hypothesis (2), functional diversity was higher in non-invaded sites than in invaded sites; however, we found no effect of *A. syriaca* invasion on the abundance of spiders. Supporting hypothesis (3), *A. syriaca* had a negative effect on functional diversity in pine forests, while its effect was less pronounced in poplar forests.

Canopy closure is among the most important determinants of spider species richness and 206 assemblage composition, because it can affect the soil microclimate and understory vegetation 207 208 development (Finch, 2005; Lange et al., 2011). Vegetation structure provides various microhabitats (Rodrigues & Mendonça Jr, 2012), which in turn, determine the species composition of 209 spider assemblages. In the present study, both poplar and pines forests were commercially mature. 210 Mature plantation forests generally have dense understory vegetation (Calviño-cancela et al., 211 2012) and well-developed canopies that reduce extreme microclimatic variation (Harms et al., 212 2000). Herbaceous vegetation structure depends on the light availability at the forest floor. Poplar 213 forests have relatively open canopies and sunlight penetrates to the forest floor, favoring more 214 diverse herbaceous understory vegetation than for pine plantations with their closed canopies 215 (Balandier et al., 2006). The resulting complex vegetation structure might provide numerous 216 potential web attachments for web-building spider species (Schirmel et al., 2012). We found that 217 species composition differed between forest types, as indicated by the significant results of 218 multivariate PERMANOVA and the clear separation by NMDS ordination. The high number of 219 significant indicator species also underpinned the marked differences in spider assemblages of 220 221 pine and poplar forests, even though we detected no differences in herbaceous vegetation cover between the plantations types. 222

223 The quality and quantity of leaf litter determined the microhabitat structure of the forest floor, thus having an effect on the diversity of spiders (Pearce et al., 2004; Castro & Wise, 2009). 224 225 The thick layer of deciduous leaf litter in poplar forests creates a more complex forest floor than in pine forests (Gallé *et al.*, 2014). Furthermore, the leaf litter in pine plantations consists of pines 226 227 needles which reduces soil pH and may change the physical properties of the soil, as well (Selvi et al., 2017). Coniferous forests generally provide less diversified herbaceous understory 228 229 vegetation than deciduous forests due to different soil conditions and lower light availability (Barbier et al., 2008). The resulting relatively uniform microhabitat conditions of pine plantations 230 may result in a uniform spider species composition (Schultz, 1997). Besides habitat structure, leaf 231 litter also influences the abundance of decomposer organisms, and therefore, potential food 232 233 sources for spiders. Springtails (Collembola) provide a large part of the diet of ground-dwelling spiders in forests (Block & Zettel, 2003; Wise, 2004). Springtails are more abundant in native 234 forests than in exotic plantations (Kováč et al., 2005; Bolger et al., 2013), offering an easily 235 accessible food source for ground-dwelling spiders in poplar forests, and may enhance the 236

colonization and increase the abundance of larger species of spider. In the present study, we alsofound larger CWM size values in poplar forests.

Invasive plants affect species composition of spider assemblages (Bultman & DeWitt, 2008; Mgobozi *et al.*, 2008), and the behavior and density of spider species (Gallé *et al.*, 2015; Pearson, 2009). Invasive plant species may have a direct effect on spiders, as they affect the architecture of vegetation (Souza & Martins, 2005; Simao *et al.*, 2010) and therefore, habitat structure. Included in these changes are a variety of shelters and structural supports for web building (Litt *et al.*, 2014).

Plant invasion may provide herbivore arthropods with novel food resources (Bezemer et 245 al., 2014), thus affecting the potential prev abundance for spiders. In North America, where A. 246 syriaca is a native plant, 457 insect species from 8 orders are associated with it, mainly as 247 pollinators and specialist herbivores (Dailey et al., 1978). The continuously open flowers are a 248 relatively large and stable food resource for pollinator insects (Dafni & Kevan, 1997). However, 249 association as herbivores or pollinators may require a common evolutionary history with the 250 invasive plant (Tallamy et al., 2010). The poisonous cardenolide content of its white latex hinders 251 252 top-down control of native generalist herbivores (Zandt & Agrawal, 2018), and specialist native herbivores are presumably negatively affected by loss of native vegetation due to the invasion of 253 A. syriaca (Litt et al., 2014). Several authors found that herbivore abundance was reduced due to 254 plant invasion (Simao et al., 2010; Cronin et al., 2015). 255

256 Plant invasion may also change plant-pollinator relations, either positively or negatively (Larson et al., 2006; Bartomeus et al., 2008; Fenesi et al., 2015). Furthermore, invasive plant 257 species can weaken the relationship between native plants and their pollinators (Aizen et al., 2008), 258 resulting in significant changes in pollinator abundances and assemblage structure. In accordance 259 260 with Bezemer et al., (2014), we did not find a significant indirect effect of altered prey availability of invaded sites on spider species richness and abundance. This was in line with Groot et al., 261 (2007), who suggested that profiles of predatory arthropods such as spiders were not closely related 262 to plant species composition, and were less vulnerable to the effects of invasive plants. However, 263 264 we found that A. syriaca had a negative effect on the functional diversity of spiders, and this effect was larger in pine plantations than is poplar forests. 265

In pine plantations, the similar species richness and the higher functional diversity (RaoQ index) of non-invaded sites suggest that traits values are less similar then in invaded sites, and functionally different species are present in the assemblage (Schirmel & Buchholz, 2013). In contrast, the invaded sites had lower functional diversity, and thus a uniform trait state composition. Invaded pine forests only favored certain trait state combinations, which implied that environmental filtering played an important role in species sorting. This presumably precluded the colonization of several species of the original forest-steppe fauna.

In conclusion, plantation type and invasion of A. svriaca affected different elements of 273 spider functional diversity. Spider species composition of exotic forests was different from that of 274 native forest assemblages, and they were not functionally equivalent. This might also affect 275 arthropod food web structure (Gratton & Denno, 2006). In exotic plantations, invasion of A. 276 svriaca had an effect on the trait composition of spiders, suggesting strong habitat filtering and the 277 generation of low quality secondary habitats for the original spider fauna. This may have further 278 top-down effects on the broader invertebrate herbivore and detritivore communitythis may have a 279 top-down effect on invertebrate herbivore and decomposer assemblages. The information on the 280 effect of pine plantations and A. syriaca invasion on biodiversity is critical for forestry and 281 conservation management (Mgobozi et al., 2008). 282

283

284 Acknowledgement

285

This work was supported by the Hungarian National Research, Development and Innovation Office (Grant Id: NKFIFK-124579) and the "Lendület" program of the Hungarian Academy of Sciences. KI and HK are supported by Stipendium Hungaricum Scholarship of Tempus Public foundation. Authors have no conflict of interest.

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502

503 Figure legends

504

505 Figure 1. Effect of forest type and *Asclepias syriaca* invasion on <u>spider</u> functional diversity. Open

506 circles: non-invaded; black dots: invaded sites. (A) RaoQ index; (B) Community weighted mean

507 (CWM) of hunting strategy; (C) CWM value of spider body sizes.

508

509 Figure 2. <u>NMDS ordination plot of spider samples (dots)</u>, with significant indicator species

510 (crosses), and community weighted mean values (CWM) also fitted (arrows). NMDS ordination

511 plot of sampling sites (dots), and significant indicator species (crosses), community weighted mean

512 values (CWM) are fitted onto the ordination plot (arrows). Black dots: pine plantations, open

513 circles: poplar plantations. Species names are abbreviated with the first letter of genus name and

the first three letters of species names, please see Appendix 2. for further details.

515

Associate Editor Comments to Author:

Associate Editor

Comments to the Author:

Thank you for submitting your revised manuscript. An additional reviewer has looked at your manuscript and has suggested some further minor comments. I have also given a list of small changes below that I would like you to make.

Answer: We would like to thank the Editor for the comments, we made the requested changes in the revised manuscript.

L23 Change sentence to "We found a significant effect of A. syriaca invasion on spider functional diversity (Rao's quadratientropy), with invaded sites having a lower functional diversity than non-invaded sites".

Answer: We corrected.

L27 Split sentence in two, and change second half to "We found no effect of A syriaca invasion on species richness or abundance of spiders." *Answer*: We changed.

L29 Change to "Species composition of spider assemblages in the two forest types were clearly..." *Answer*: We changed.

L39 Add 'Araneae' to the key words *Answer:* We added Araneae to key words

L218 change "PERANOVA" to "PERMANOVA" *Answer*: We corrected.

L277 Change sentence to "This may have further top-down effects on the broader invertebrate herbivore and detritivore community". *Answer*: We changed.

L503 Please add "spider" before "functional diversity" in the caption of Figure 1 so that it is clear these data refer to your spider functional diversity. *Answer*: We corrected the figure legends.

L507 For clarity, please change the caption to Figure 2 to the following: "NMDS ordination plot of spider samples (dots), with significant indicator species (crosses), and community weighted mean values (CWM) also fitted (arrows)..." *Answer*: We changed.

Reviewer(s)' Comments to Author:

Reviewer: 1

Comments to the Author

This study looks at the effects of forest type and milkweed invasion on spider assemblages, using both taxon and functional data. It is clear, straightforward and pretty much ready for publication after the initial review. I just have a few extra comments:

Answer: We would like to thank Pedro Cardoso for the overall positive evaluation of our study, we made the requested changes in the manuscript.

Ln 104 – Hypothesis 3 should include a tentative explanatory mechanism, why should the effect be different?

Answer: We added to hypothesis (3) "We assumed, that changes in habitat structure by *A. syriaca* in the low quality exotic pine habitat may have a more pronounced deterioration effect on spider communities than in native forests."

Ln 151 - It is not clear why these were excluded? Please clarify

Answer: For clarification, we added to Ln 148-150 "They were also considered generalist species if they were present at both extremes of the given categories, and their score was excluded from further analyses, as their distribution is determined by other factors."

Ln 155 – "(the) FEve (index) …" *Answer*: We corrected

Ln 218 – PER(M)ANOVA *Answer*: We corrected

Pedro Cardoso

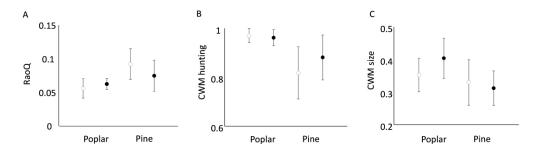


Figure 1. Effect of forest type and Asclepias syriaca invasion on functional diversity. Open circles: noninvaded; black dots: invaded sites. (A) RaoQ index; (B) Community weighted mean (CWM) of hunting strategy; (C) CWM value of spider body sizes.

1268x374mm (96 x 96 DPI)

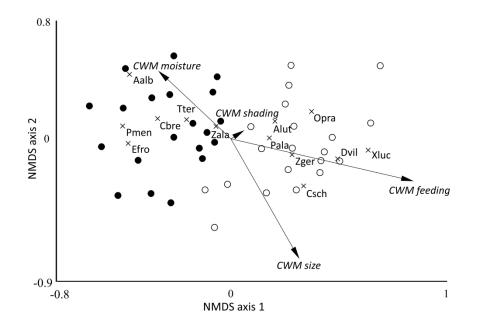


Figure 2. NMDS ordination plot of sampling sites (dots), and significant indicator species (crosses), community weighted mean values (CWM) are fitted onto the ordination plot (arrows). Black dots: pine plantations, open circles: poplar plantations. Species names are abbreviated with the first letter of genus name and the first three letters of species names, please see Appendix 2. for further details

1270x762mm (96 x 96 DPI)

- 1 Table 1. The effect of tree species and *Asclepias syriaca* invasion on species richness, abundance
- 2 and functional diversity measures of spiders according to mixed models, parameter estimates \pm
- 3 95% confidence intervals and (z/t values) are given. Ep: exotic pine; np: native poplar; i:
- 4 invaded; n: non invaded sites.
- 5

| | Tree (np/ep) | Type (n/i) | Tree: Type |
|-------------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|------------------------------|
| Spacing righnood | 0.052 ± 0.256 | -0.149 ± 0.245 | 0.140 ± 0.358 |
| Species richness ¹ | (0.396) | (-1.189) | (0.767) |
| Abundance ² | -0.143 ± 0.231 (- 0.121) | -0.171 ± 0.182 (- 1.800) | 1.176 ± 0.260 (1.320) |
| FRic | -0.077 ± 2.254 (-0.06) | -1.305 ± 1.779 (- 1.437) | 2.226 ± 2.516 (1.733) |
| FEve | $0.042 \pm 0.088 \ (0.930)$ | $0.040 \pm 0.088 \ (0.890)$ | -0.062 ± 0.125 (- 0.972) |
| RaoQ ³ | 0.012 ± 0.015 | -0.017 ± 0.013 | 0.023 ± 0.021 |
| KauQ | (1.431) | (-2.223)* | (2.166)* |
| Shading CWM ³ | -0.015 ± 0.070 | 0.174 ± 0.039 | -0.032 ± 0.062 |
| | (-0.436) | (0.770) | (-1.023) |
| Uporting CWM3 | -0.080 ± 0.068 | 0.063 ± 0.058 | -0.072 ± 0.084 |
| Hunting CWM ³ | (-2.284)* | (2.037) | (1.656) |
| Moisture CWM ³ | 0.034 ± 0.052 | -0.028 ± 0.035 | 0.018 ± 0.029 |
| woisture C w M ³ | (1.288) | (-1.556) | (0.711) |
| Ω_{-} | -0.091 ± 0.027 | -0.017 ± 0.049 | 0.069 ± 0.071 |
| Size CWM ³ | (-3.318)** | (-0.683) | (-1.907) |

6 ¹ Models were fitted with Poisson distribution

7 ² Models were fitted with negative binomial distribution

- 8 ³ Models were fitted with normal distribution
- 9 Significance levels: *: <0.05, **: <0.01, ***: <0.001.
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