Biological Control

Comparison of the performance of an eriophyid mite, Aceria salsolae, on nontarget plants in the laboratory and in the field --Manuscript Draft--

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Response to Reviewers:	Response to Editor comments regarding the manuscript BCON_2020_391R1, "Comparison of the performance of an eriophyid mite, Aceria salsolae, on nontarget plants in the laboratory and in the field". Our responses are in all capitals text following each of the Editor comments listed below. Editor Comments: As it stands the Discussion is too long, which makes it difficult for the reader to get the message that is being conveyed. It will benefit from being trimmed considerably.					

There are two main problems:
(i)repetition of details from the results. Only the broad findings of the results are needed to support points that are being made in the Discussion. WE DELETED THIS TEXT AND MOVED SOME OF IT TO THE METHODS SECTION.
(ii)Several parts provide details from other studies which are not needed here (e.g. mark-up in lines 453 – 483 of the attached file). While details of species names and measurement values are appropriate for reviews, research articles only need the principle of the findings (e.g. the life span of mites decreases with increasing temperature) and the reference that shows this trend. WE REDUCED THE TEXT REFERRING TO OTHER STUDIES.
The discussion would also benefit from more paragraph breaks to improve the flow of ideas. ONE PARAGRAPH WAS SPLIT AT NEW LINE 492.
COMMENTS FROM THE ANNOTATED MANUSCRIPT PDF: We accepted all proposed changes except the following.
L 71 Keep "important" instead of "necessary" proposed by the Editor.
L293 We agree that a one-sentence section is odd; however the section serves to group the two laboatory experiments, which parallels the structure of the Methods section. The one sentence is to document that there was no contamination of the mite colony. This eliminates the possible hypothesis that another mite species may have infested some plants. de Lillo is mentioned in the Methods section as the taxonomist, so this sentence could be omitted with the unstated assumption that there was no contamination. We do not object to deleting this section but prefer to keep it.
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21 Sept. 2020

TO: Editor of Biological Control

Dear Dr. Hoffmann;

Attached please find a revised version of manuscript BCON_2020_391, "Comparison of the performance of an eriophyid mite, *Aceria salsolae*, on nontarget plants in the laboratory and in the field".

Thank you very much for your consideration.

Sincerely,

Erich St

Lincoln Smith Research Entomologist



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Agricultural Research - Investing in Your Future

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Highlights

Aceria salsolae is a prospective agent of Russian thistle (Salsola tragus).Small size and dispersal by wind makes it difficult to asses host specificity.We conducted laboratory and field experiments to measure host plant specificity.Mite densities were much lower on target and nontarget plants in the field.Risk analysis indicates that this mite should be safe to use in the USA.

1	Title - Comparison of the performance of an eriophyid mite, Aceria salsolae, on nontarget plants		
2	in the laboratory and in the field.		
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24 Abstract

25 There is increasing interest in the possibility of using eriophyid mites as biological control agents 26 of invasive alien weeds; however their small size and our lack of knowledge about their general 27 biology present challenges to evaluating their risk to nontarget plants. Aceria salsolae has been 28 proposed as a candidate agent for Russian thistle (Salsola tragus) in the USA. During host 29 specificity testing this mite could sometimes persist and possibly multiply on a few five 30 nontarget species under laboratory no-choice conditions. We conducted a series of no-choice 31 laboratory experiments and a field experiment to try to delineate the physiological and ecological 32 host ranges of this mite and assess its risk to nontarget plants. In the laboratory, A. salsolae 33 increased exponentially on S. tragus, multiplying about 80 fold in 5 weeks. Low levels of A 34 little reproduction wereas observed on some plants of Atriplex coronata, Bassia hyssopifolia, B. 35 prostrata, Kochia scoparia and Suaeda calceoliformis in the laboratory during 5 weeks, but 36 mean mite densities remained low (less than 6 fold increase vs. 80 fold on S. tragus). In a field 37 experiment in which plants were inoculated with mites in June and then harvested when they 38 began to produce seed, mites persisted on A. coronata for up to 9 weeks after inoculation, but at 39 extremely low densities, and with no evidence of reproduction. No mites persisted on A. 40 truncata, B. hyssopifolia, or S. calceoliformis. Mite densities were lower on all plants in the 41 field than in the laboratory, probably due to increased mortality factors and the ability 42 opportunity to disperse by wind. No signs of damage were observed on any of the nontarget 43 plants in the laboratory or the field experiments. We conclude that this mite is not likely to 44 multiply on any of these plants under field conditions, and that it is not expected to pose a risk to 45 any nontarget plants in the contiguous USA. 46 47 Key words: host plant specificity; risk assessment; biological control of weeds; Eriophyidae;

- 48 Aceria salsolae; Salsola tragus
- 49

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Commented [A3]: A six fold increase could be considerable without any context. What was the control?

Commented [A4]: An ability is innate. Should this be "and a tendency to disperse"

50 1. Introduction

Mites in the superfamily Eriophyoidea constitute a relatively underutilized group of potential 51 52 biological control agents for invasive plants (Smith et al., 2010). About 4,800 species of 53 eriophyoids have been described (de Lillo and Skoracka, 2010; Amrine & de Lillo unpubl. data). 54 A review of 3,331 species concluded that 80% of them have only one known host plant species, 55 and 95% of them have known hosts that are all in one plant genus (Skoracka et al., 2010). 56 Although the high rate of apparent monospecificity may be partly due to the lack of sampling for 57 mites on other plants (i.e., lack of knowledge), it nevertheless suggests that many species may be 58 highly specific. Furthermore, some eriophyoid mites are important crop pests, which indicates 59 that at least some could have enough impact to be effective as classical biological control agents 60 (Lindquist et al., 1996; de Lillo et al., 2018).

Improving methods for identifying mites has helped to foster increasing research to evaluate 61 62 them as prospective biological control agents (e.g., Denizhan et al., 2008; Vidović et al., 2018). 63 However, their very small size (< 200 μ m) and the fact that they disperse primarily by wind (e.g., 64 Bergh, 2001; Valenzano et al., 2019; Kuczyński et al., 2020) make it challenging to design 65 laboratory experiments that simulate realistic conditions that allow mites to move among plants. 66 Thus, while no-choice laboratory experiments may be relatively easy to conduct, they delineate the physiological (or fundamental) host range and may overestimate the risk of attack under field 67 68 conditions (ecological host range) (Schaffner, 2001). In cases where a nontarget plant species is 69 attacked under no-choice conditions, assessing its risk of attack under more natural conditions 70 may provide convincing evidence of its safety as a biological control agent (Hinz et al., 2014). 71 Furthermore, it is also important to quantify any reduction in fitness (size, survivorship or 72 reproduction) of the nontarget plant by the agent (Sheppard et al., 2005). Field garden host 73 specificity tests may be the best way to assess the ecological host range of prospective arthropod 74 agents of plants (Schaffner et al., 2018). 75 Russian thistle (Salsola tragus L. sensu lato, Chenopodiaceae) is an invasive annual forb in 76 the western USA that originates from Central Asia (Young, 1991; Mosyakin, 1996). The 77 taxonomy of this plant has been very confusing (Rilke, 1999), and recently it has been 78 determined that five closely related species occur in California: S. australis R. Br., S. gobicola 79 Iljin, S. paulsenii Litv., S. ryanii Hrusa and Gaskin, and S. tragus L. sensu stricto (Hrusa and Gaskin, 2008). The differences in the biology and ecology of these species have not been well 80

- 81 studied, but *S. tragus* appears to be the most widespread in the western USA. Seeds germinate in
- the spring, plants flower in late summer and autumn, and eventually die due to lack of water or
- 83 frost. Russian thistle has been targeted for classical biological control in the USA, and two
- 84 moths were introduced in the 1970s (Coleophora klimeschiella Toll and C. parthenica Meyrick,
- 85 Coleophoridae). Although both species have established, their feeding damage causes relatively
- 86 minor impact to the weed, and mortality caused by natural enemies and/or poor seasonal
- 87 synchrony have limited their populations to low densities (Goeden and Pemberton, 1995).
- 88 Consequently, there is still a need for an effective biological control agent.
- 89 Exploration for prospective agents led to the discovery of the mite *Aceria salsolae* de Lillo and
- 90 Sobhian (Eriophyidae) in Turkey (de Lillo and Sobhian, 1996). The mite is multivoltine, and

91 behaves as a vagrant mite on immature Salsola plants, occurring primarily in the narrow spaces 92 of leaf axils in branch tips (Smith, 2005). It also forms galls, presumably from flower bud tissue, 93 later in the season (S. tragus flowers in autumn). In December and February, live mites have been found under the bracts surrounding seeds that are still attached to dead plants (personal 94 95 obs.). Thus, it is likely that overwintering mites may be dispersed with the seeds. It is not 96 known how early in the season mites attack new plants, but they are present in early June in 97 northern Greece (Smith et al., 2009). Laboratory no-choice experiments indicated a high degree 98 of host plant specificity (Smith, 2005). Development occurred on all five species of Salsola 99 listed above, plus Salsola collina Pall. (slender Russian thistle), but not on any of 35 nontarget 100 species, including Salsola soda L. that were tested. The original host plant test list for A. 101 salsolae was based on the taxonomic treatment of Kühn (1993) for the family Chenopodiaceae, 102 which indicated that Bassia and Kochia (Tribe Camphorosmeae) were in a different subfamily 103 (Chenopodioideae) than Salsola (Salsoloideae). Thus, based on the centrifugal phylogenetic 104 hypothesis (Wapshere, 1974), higher priority was placed on testing nontarget species in the 105 Salsoloideae (e.g. Halogeton, Sarcobatus, Suaeda) than the Camphorosmeae. However, after 106 this work was conducted, a phylogeny based on molecular genetics by Berner et al. (2009) 107 showed that the Camphorosmeae is a sister tribe of Salsoleae, which includes Salsola. Thus, 108 Kochia and Bassia are now considered to be the most closely related genera present in North 109 America to Salsola after Halogeton. Additional no-choice tests conducted in the laboratory indicated some persistence of the mites on Bassia hyssopifolia (Pallas) Kuntze and Kochia 110 111 -scoparia (L.) Schrader 5 weeks after inoculation. Additional tests of Atriplex coronata S. Watson, A. truncata (Torr. ex S. Wats.) Gray and Suaeda calceoliformis (Hook.) Moq. also 112 113 showed a few live mites on some plants 5 weeks after inoculation. Thus, a field experiment was 114 conducted to further test these nontarget plant species to determine if mites would persist and 115 damage them under natural conditions (Smith et al., 2009). The results showed no live mites on 116 B. hyssopifolia or S. calceoliformis, and an average of less than 1 mite on K. scoparia two 117 months after inoculation. 118 A petition was submitted to the U.S. Department of Agriculture, Animal and Plant Health 119 Inspection Service (APHIS) in 2004, and the Technical Advisory Group for Biological Control 120 Agents of Weeds (TAG) recommended approval for release in 2005. An Environmental

121 Assessment was published in the Federal Register in 2009 (vol. 74(45): 10223-10224), calling 122 for public comments to the proposed release. One public comment received noted that only 3 *S*.

calceoliformis plants survived to the end of the field experiment, and that more plants should be tested. It also recommended testing some *Atriplex* species in the field.

125 The purpose of this study is to further assess the risk of *A. salsolae* to nontarget plants by 126 comparing its performance on potentially suitable nontarget plant species in the laboratory and 127 versus-in the field.

128 2. Materials and methods:

129 2.1 Laboratory tests

130 These methods pertain to the two experiments described below (sections 2.2.1 and 2.2.2).

- 131 Mites for the laboratory experiments came from a colony of A. salsolae that originated from
- 132 Kozani, Greece (Smith, 2005) and were maintained on cuttings of S. tragus inside glass-topped
- 133 wooden sleeve boxes at room temperature (23°C, range 16 25°), 16 h L: 8 h D photoperiod, in a

134 certified containment laboratory in Albany, CA. Individual plants were inoculated with a given 135 number of adult mites by transferring them one-by-one using an eyelash glued to a wooden 136 applicator stick with the aid of a compound microscope. No-choice experiments were conducted 137 inside Dacron chiffon screen cages (70 mesh; 0.3 mm-wide openings; 0.7 x 0.7 x 1.0 m) with a sheet metal bottom that was placed on pedestals standing in water moats to prevent mite escape. 138 139 The screen cage prevented air drafts which might permit the mites to disperse aerially. Working 140 surfaces were regularly wiped with 95% ethanol to disinfest them, and uninfested sentinel 141 cuttings of S. tragus in water vials placed outside the cages were regularly monitored to detect 142 possible escape of mites. Nontarget plants consisted of 5-wk-old plants grown from seed in 15 143 mL plastic flower pots (containing SupersoilTM: sand: perlite in 3:1:1 ratio). Salsola test plants 144 were 15-cm tall cuttings from potted plants in the vegetative stage (no flowers or fruits) that were 145 held in water vials. Target and nontarget plants were placed in separate cages on a table. 146 Diurnal photoperiod was 16 h using ceiling fluorescent lamps, which were augmented by 147 halogen lamps for 4 h in the middle of the day. Vaseline smeared around the outside of each 148 flower pot provided a barrier against mite movement. Strips of double-sided tape were placed on 149 the floor of the cage in a grid pattern to isolate each plant and restrict mite movement.

150 At the appropriate sample date, the plants were examined for signs of mite damage and for 151 the presence of eggs, nymphs and adult mites under a microscope at 20x magnification. Each 152 plant was cut up and washed in a soapy solution to extract all mites which were transferred to a 153 5.3-cm diameter Petri dish (Monfreda et al., 2007). This procedure was at least twice as 154 effective for finding mites as visual inspection of intact plants. The extract solution was 155 immediately examined under the microscope and only live mites were counted. For samples that had a large number of mites (viz. S. tragus), a grid (5 mm x 5 mm cells) was placed under the 156 Petri dish, and mites in 7 diagonal cells were counted. This number counted was multiplied by 157 158 the ratio of the area of the dish to that of the 7 cells to estimate the population. For the S. tragus 159 cuttings in the host plant suitability experiment (section 2.1.2), to reduce work, the top and 160 bottom branches were cut, weighed, and extracted separately to count live mites. The total 161 number of live mites per cutting was estimated by using the formula (# mites on top + (# mites 162 on bottom \times (wt whole cutting - wt top) / wt bottom)). Mite numbers are greatest at the top and 163 fewest at the bottom (the mean difference was 6.79 fold in this experiment). This formula tends 164 to underestimate the true number of mites, whereas a simple weighted average of the two values 165 is an overestimate. Mites were identified based on morphology by E. de Lillo.

166 2.1.1 Elapsed time experiment

167 The purpose of this experiment was to assess whether mite populations continued to increase 168 on nontarget plants. Each plant was inoculated with 10 adult *A. salsolae*, and experiments were 169 run between 13 December 2005 and 16 March 2006. The change in mite population over time 170 was measured on *B. hyssopifolia* and *K. scoparia* compared to *S. tragus* following the general

procedures described above. Five nontarget plants were destructively sampled at 3, 5 or 7 weeks

post-inoculation, and 3 cuttings of the target plant were sampled at 3 and 5 weeks. Because *S*.

tragus cuttings began to deteriorate due to dense mite populations by 5 weeks, no measurements
 were taken at 7 weeks.

175 2.1.2 Host plant suitability experiment.

The purpose of this experiment was to measure the persistence and/or population growth of *A. salsolae* on *S. tragus*, the biological control target, and on the nontarget species *A. coronata*,

A. truncata, B. hyssopifolia, B. prostrata (L.) A.J. Scott, K. scoparia and S. calceoliformis. The

two *Bassia* species were tested because Berner et al. (2009) showed that they were closely

180 related to Salsola (in the sister tribe). Atriplex coronata had not been tested for the petition

181 (Smith, 2005), and this species has an endangered variety: A. coronata var. notatior. Suaeda

182 calceoliformis had been tested in a field experiment with the result that dead mites were found on

183 the plants which had senesced during the course of the experiment (Smith et al., 2009). In the

184 same field experiment, mites were also found on K. scoparia, but the authors did not distinguish

185 between live and dead mites. Thus, there was some uncertainty about suitability of these plants

186 $\,$ for the mite. Five weeks was chosen for the test duration based on the previous observations that

187 S. tragus cuttings began to deteriorate after 5 weeks, and that the maximum mite population

188 observed on *K. scoparia* occurred at that time. The number of replicates was 9 for each

nontarget plant species, except 12 for *B. prostrata*, which has been released as a forage species
(Waldron et al., 2010; Clements et al., 2020). Two *S. tragus* cuttings were used as a positive

191 control for each nontarget test, resulting in a total of 12 replicates for *S. tragus* for this

experiment. Each plant was inoculated with 15 adult *A. salsolae*, and experiments were run

193 between 14 October 2010 and 14 December 2012.

194 2.2 Field test

195 2.2.1 Plants and field plots.

196 The experiment was conducted at BBCA (Biotechnology and Biological Control Agency 197 onlus) near Rome, Italy, in 2018. We tested four nontarget plant species on which A. salsolae 198 had persisted and/or increased in the laboratory no-choice experiments: A. coronata, A. truncata, 199 B. hyssopifolia and S. calceoliformis. All plants were grown from seed, starting in mid-April 200 2018. At the end of May, potted plants were set in holes at two field garden plots: one for 201 nontarget plants to be inoculated with A. salsolae (test) and the other not (negative control). The 202 two plots were located at the same site, to provide the same environmental conditions for the test 203 and negative control plants, but were separated from each other by ~ 5 m with the intention to 204 minimize unintentional infestation of the negative control plants. Since eriophyid mites generally 205 disperse by wind (Nault and Styer, 1969; Lindquist and Oldfield, 1996; Bergh, 2001), inoculated 206 S. tragus plants (positive control) were placed in a field plot located ~ 2 km away from the 207 nontarget plants in order to reduce the risk of contamination of the nontarget plants by mites 208 dispersing from heavily infested S. tragus plants following the strategy used by Gandolfo et al. 209 (2007). All plants were arranged ~ 1.5 m apart. In particular, S. tragus was organized in 2 210 columns \times 5 rows (10 replicates), whereas nontarget plants were in 4 columns \times 7 or 10 rows 211 (one species per column; 7, 10, 7 and 10 replicates for A. coronata, B. hyssopifolia, A. truncata

and *S. calceoliformis*, respectively; Fig. 1). The ground of all field plots was covered with green

213 plastic, to prevent growth of weeds, and the plants were watered as needed. By 21 June, 4 + 4

214 (test and negative control) A. coronata plants and 1 + 1 (test and negative control) A. truncata

215 plants were added to their respective field plots, and 1 S. tragus (positive control) that had died

216 was replaced. By 25 June, 5 test B. hyssopifolia plants were replaced, because of damage caused

217 by ants and aphids. All plants introduced in the experiment after 7 June had been kept near the

218 field plots until they were used.

219 2.2.2 Eriophyid mite inoculation.

On 5 June, cuttings of *S. tragus* naturally infested with *A. salsolae* were collected from
 Kozani area, Greece (Smith et al. 2009). The material was kept at a cool temperature (4°C) until
 it was used. Each cutting was checked under stereo-microscope at 20x magnification and only

those with at least 10 living adult mites were selected to infest *S. tragus* and test nontarget plants.
 On 7 June, an infested cutting, kept fresh by insertion in a water vial, was gently attached to

each potted plant to allow the voluntary and active movement of mites from infested cuttings to
plants (Smith et al., 2009; Schaffner et al., 2018). After the inoculation, water was no longer
added to the vials holding the infested cuttings, to allow their desiccation. Finally, the same

228 inoculation procedure was repeated on 21 and 25 June, when some plants were added or

replaced, as described above. Mites used to perform these other two inoculations came from a colony originated from *A. salsolae* remaining from the material collected in Kozani, Greece and maintained on young *S. tragus* plants kept outside at natural conditions. On the inoculation day,

nontarget plants, A. coronata, A. truncata, B. hyssopifolia and S. calceoliformis, were on average
3.6, 6.1, 13.3, 12.2 cm tall, respectively, whereas S. tragus plants were 16.7 cm. All plants were
in the vegetative stage (no flowers or fruits), except for three A. truncata test plants, which
already had a few flowers.

236 Eriophyid mite sampling. From 17 to 20 July, about 42-days post-inoculation, three cuttings 237 10 cm long were collected from 9 S. tragus positive control plants, to evaluate the success of the 238 inoculation procedure. The tenth target plant, which was added on 21 June, was sampled on 1 239 August (= 41 d <u>post-inoculation</u>). Cuttings were cut above and as close to the inoculation point 240 as possible. All mites were extracted from cutting samples as describe above, but transferred to a 241 4.7 cm diameter cellulose nitrate filter with 20 µm mesh openings (Sartorius), instead of a Petri 242 dish (Monfreda et al., 2007). Mites were counted under stereo-microscope at 20x magnification 243 and then stored in 70% ethanol for subsequent morphological identification, separating live and dead mites, *i.e.* motile and sessile, and subsequently identified based on morphology by B. 244 245 Vidović.

On 27 August and 6 September, *i.e.* 81- and 91-days post-inoculation, two surveys using pan traps were carried out at the nontarget field plot area, to identify the mite species present and moving at the site. In particular, 18 pan traps, consist of small trays (17.5x10.5x3.5 cm) filled with 500 ml of a soapy solution (Zhao and Amrine, 1997), were placed between nontarget plants, as shown in Figure 1. The traps were exposed for 24 hours, during each survey. At the end of each exposure, the soapy solution of each trap was collected and stored in a bottle and processed 252 using the same procedure describe above. Mites extracted were counted and stored in 70% 253 ethanol for subsequent morphological identification.

254 As soon as plants reached the mature growth stage (*i.e.* fruits), three 10-cm-long apical 255 branch cuttings were collected from each plant. All mites were extracted from cutting samples,

256 counted, collected and identified as describe above. If plants started to senesce earlier, the

257 sampling was performed in advance. Before collecting the cuttings, the number of secondary

258 branches, plant height and diameters (largest and smallest) were recorded, and any sign of

259 damage by mites or other organisms was noted. After the samplings, all plants were harvested,

260 and the aerial portion was stored in paper bags in dry place, out of direct light. Once the dry plant

- 261 weight stabilized, weight of plants and of 3 10-cm-long cuttings was measured, using a precision 262 balance.
- 263 2.3 Statistical analyses

264 2.3.1 Laboratory tests

The numbers of mites in the elapsed time experiment were fit to an exponential growth model 265

 $(y = a \times e^{b \times x})$, where a represents the initial population size, b the growth rate, and x the week) 266

using nonlinear regression in JMP v. 14.0.0 (© 2018 SAS Institute Inc). The number of mites on 267 268 plants in the host plant suitability experiment was tested using ANOVA followed by Tukey HSD

269 comparisons of means. The effect of the number of live mites on change in plant height (final

270 height/initial height) was tested by linear regression.

271 2.3.2 Field test

272 Statistical analyses were carried out using the RStudio software Version 1.2.5042 (© 2009-2020

273 RStudio, Inc.; R Core Team 2020). All parameters were tested for normality and homogeneity of 274

error variances, and the data were analyzed with a parametric or non-parametric test according to 275 the results. The differences between the number of live and dead mites on 10 cm of cutting were

276 tested by the Welch test or Mann-Whitney test. The same approach was applied for testing the

277 differences between the number of secondary branches, plant height, diameters (largest and

smallest) and volume for inoculated vs. not inoculated plants for each species. Plant "volume" 278

279

was calculated by the formula for an ellipsoid solid (*volume* = $\frac{4}{3} \times \Pi \times \frac{height}{2} \times \frac{largest \ diameter}{2} \times \frac{smallest \ diameter}{2}$). A rough estimate of the number of live mites per plant was calculated by the formula: $\left(\frac{number \ of \ live \ mites \ collected}{dry \ weight \ of \ 3 \ 10-cm-long \ cuttings} \times \right)$ 280

281

dry weight of the plant). Differences between the proportion of live juvenile, female and 282

283 male A. salsolae collected from each plant species were tested using the Chi-squared test (χ^2).

284 The effect of the plant species on the density of live mites was determined by a regression model

285 for count data. In particular, a negative binomial GLM with a log link function was used

286 $[log(y) = intercept + b_1(x)]$, which considers the expected number of live mites on 10 cm of

287 cutting (y) depending on the species (x). Both plant weight and the interactive term for species

288 by plant weight were excluded because neither were statistically significant. The log link

289 function ensures positive fitted values, and the negative binomial distribution is typically used

- 290 for count data with over-dispersion of the dependent variable. Since the model uses a categorial
- 291 variable (*i.e.* the plant species), *S. tragus* was selected as the control (*i.e. intercept*), against
- which the data from A. coronata test plants were compared.

293 3. Results

294 3.1 Laboratory tests

All mites examined by E. de Lillo were determined to be *A. salsolae*.

296 3.1.1 Elapsed time experiment

297 The mite population increased exponentially on S. tragus cuttings in both experiments 298 attaining means of 912.3 (+ 461.6 SE) and 726.3 (+ 90.2) live mites by week 5 (Fig. 2). An exponential growth model ($y = a \times e^{b \times x}$) fit mite populations on S. tragus for both sets of data 299 (parameters for the *B. hyssopifolia* expt.: a = 13.14 + 0.33 [SE], p < 0.0001, b = 0.849 + 0.005, p300 301 < 0.0001; for the K. scoparia expt.: $a = 3.34 \pm 0.66$, p < 0.0001, $b = 1.076 \pm 0.040$, p < 0.0001). The live mite population gradually decreased on B. hyssopifolia as indicated by the significantly 302 303 negative value for parameter b (growth rate) (a = 12.95 + 1.43, p < 0.0001; b = -0.240 + 0.085, p = 0.0045). A maximum of 27 live mites on an individual *B. hyssopifolia* plant was observed at 304 305 week 3, and on week 7 only one plant had live mites (9 individuals). The mite population did not 306 significantly change on K. scoparia (b was not significantly different from 0) ($a = 9.65 \pm 4.59$, p 307 = 0.036; $b = -0.064 \pm 0.163$, p = 0.69). Live mites were found on K. scoparia only once, with 308 100 mites on a plant at week 5.

309 3.1.2 Host plant suitability experiment

The sizes of test plants are presented in Table 1. The mean numbers of live mites on week 5 for the 6 nontarget species and *S. tragus* are presented in Figure 3. The number of live mites on *S. tragus* (961.6 \pm 184.0 SE) was significantly higher than that on any of the nontarget plants

- 313 (ANOVA, $F_{(6,61)} = 19.53$, p < 0.0001, Tukey HSD, p < 0.0001). The number of mites on the
- various nontarget plants did not differ significantly (A. coronata 20.5 ± 3.1 , A. truncata $0.1 \pm$
- 315 0.1, *B. hyssopifolia* 81.0 ± 27.5 , *B. prostrata* 6.4 ± 2.6 , *K. scoparia* 0.0 ± 0.0 , and

316 S. calceoliformis 54.4 ± 7.3). Mite numbers increased on 75% (6 of 8) of the A. coronata plants

- 317 (maximum of 35 mites on one plant), on 78% (7 of 9) of the B. hyssopifolia (max. 247), on 17%
- 318 (2 of 12) of *B. prostrata* (max. 24), and on 100% (9 of 9) of the *S. calceoliformis* (max. 79).
- 319 There was no correlation between the number of mites and the change in plant size for any
- 320 nontarget species (linear regression, $\alpha = 0.05$). Impact on S. tragus was not tested because only
- 321 cut branches were tested, which do not grow.

322 3.2 Field test

- The two surveys using pan traps, performed 81 and 91 days post-inoculation at the site where the nontarget plants were located, did not show the presence of any *A. salsolae*. Only some other *Aceria* sp., *Tetra* sp. and some eriophyoid mites belonging to the subfamily Rhyncaphytoptinae were recorded.
- 327 At the end of the experiment, cuttings from test plants and positive and negative control 328 plants were collected when the plants reached the seed production stage, which occurred at

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Commented [A6]: The section includes the 2 laboratory experiments. The alternative is to promote 3.1.1 to 3.1 and 3.1.2 to 3.2, and change all subsequent sections. The sentence is a result, indicating that there had been no contamination or misidentification of the mites used, which was one possible hypothesis for why we saw mites persisting on some plants. de Lillo is mentioned in the Methods section, so this could be omitted with the unstated assumption that there was no contamination.

329 different times for the various species. Duration of the experiment and percentage of plants

infested for each species tested are presented in Table 2. <u>No mites were found on *A. truncata*.</u>

B. hyssopifolia or S. calceoliformis at 78 to 117 days post-inoculation. However, an average
 of 0.9 live mites per 10 cm cutting was found on A. coronata plants after about 55 days.

333 A total (live and dead) of 59 and 804 A. salsolae were collected from S. tragus cuttings at 334 42- and 114-days from inoculation, respectively. Whereas, only 18 (live and dead) A. salsolae 335 were collected from nontarget plants, and all of them were found on only 5 (of 7) A. coronata test plants, despite having been infested with at least 10 adult mites per plant. The estimated 336 337 number of live mites per plant ranged from 113,961 to 831,327 (mean 394,078 \pm 90,254 [SE]) 338 on S. tragus and from 0 to 8 on A. coronata (2.0 ± 1.1) . Juveniles were found only on S. tragus, 339 but and none were found on A. coronata (Table 2), even among the dead specimens. No 340 eriophyid mites were found on any uninoculated negative control plants, and A. salsolae was the 341 only eriophyid mite species collected from the infested plants.

342 The proportion of live and dead A. salsolae collected from the species tested (test and 343 positive control) and the proportion of juveniles, females and males among the live individuals 344 collected are presented in Table 2. The proportion of live and dead mites on S. tragus did not 345 change from 42 to 114 days after the inoculation. However, among live individuals collected, the 346 proportion of adult females increased (from 78 to 91%) and the proportion of juveniles decreased 347 (from 16 to 6%) between the two sample dates (female proportion: $\chi^2 = 9.70$, df = 1, p = 0.0018; juvenile proportion: $\chi^2 = 7.06$, df = 1, p = 0.0039), whereas the proportion of males did not 348 change (6 and 2%, respectively). On A. coronata, which was harvested at about 55 days after the 349 350 inoculation, the proportion of live A. salsolae was lower (33%) than on S. tragus, after both 42 351 days (85%, $\chi^2 = 15.9$, df = 1, p < 0.0001) and 114 days (87%, $\chi^2 = 35.86$, df = 1, p < 0.0001) post-inoculation. The proportion of females among live individuals on A. coronata (67%) did not 352 353 differ from S. tragus at 42 days post-inoculation (78%), but it was significantly lower compared with S. tragus at the end of the experiment (91%, $\chi^2 = 4.51$, df = 1, p = 0.034). On the other 354 355 hand, the proportion of males was higher than on S. tragus, both 42 and 114 days postinoculation (A. coronata vs. S. tragus at 42 days: 33% vs. 6%, $\chi^2 = 4.92$, df = 1, p = 0.026; A. 356 357 *coronata vs. S. tragus* at 114 days: 33% *vs.* 2%, $\chi^2 = 21.56$, df = 1, p < 0.0001).

358 Average numbers of live and dead A. salsolae per 10 cm of cutting of infested plant species 359 are presented in Figure 4. In particular, the average number of live A. salsolae per 10 cm of cutting of S. tragus at 42 days from the inoculation was 5.6 times higher than for the dead ones 360 361 $(1.7 \pm 0.5 \text{ SE } vs. 0.3 \pm 0.1; W = 82, p = 0.015)$. The same pattern was observed at the end of the experiment, when this difference increased, i.e. the average number of live A. salsolae per 10 cm 362 363 of cutting was 6.4 times higher than for the dead ones $(23.2 \pm 4.4 \text{ SE } vs. 3.6 \pm 0.7; t = 4.42, df =$ 364 9.49, p = 0.0014). Moreover, both parameters were higher than what was recorded 42 days after 365 inoculation (live at 42 vs. 114 days: t = -4.90, df = 9.20, p = 0.00079; dead at 42 vs. 114 days 366 post-inoculation: W = 2, p = 0.00029). On A. coronata the number of live and dead eriophyid mites per 10 cm of cutting did not differ significantly (0.3 ± 0.1 SE and 0.6 ± 0.3), but the 367 368 average number of live A. salsolae per 10 cm of cutting was lower than that on S. tragus, both at

369 42 and 114 days post-inoculation (at 42 days: W = 12, p = 0.025; at 114 days: W = 70, p =370 0.00071), whereas the average number of dead A. salsolae per 10 cm of cutting differed from S. 371 *tragus* only at the end of experiment (t = -3.93, df = 11.18, p = 0.0023), and it was lower. The 372 negative binomial regression analysis ($[log(y) = intercept + b_1(x)]$, where y = no. of live 373 mites on 10-cm-long cuttings, and x = plant species [i.e. S. tragus vs. A. coronata]; Table 3) 374 revealed that the density of live mites was affected by the plant species. The incidence of live A. 375 salsolae on A. coronata was 1% of that on S. tragus (IRR = 0.01). 376 Evaluation of the impact of the possible presence of A. salsolae on plants was performed by 377 comparison of different parameters (i.e. volume, height, largest and smallest diameter, and 378 number of secondary branches) of inoculated and uninoculated test-nontarget plants (Table 4). 379 None of the parameters differed for any of the four nontarget species tested, except for the height 380 of S. calceoliformis, for which the inoculated test-plants were taller than uninoculated controls 381 (58.8 vs. 40.9 cm, t = -3.20, df = 11.97, p = 0.0076). Notably, there were no significant

382 differences in plant size for A. coronata despite the presence of mites on 5 of the 7 test plants. 383 Moreover, no damage by mites was noted on any of the nontarget plants. However, by early 384 August (~ 60 days post-inoculation) extensive galling was apparent on the positive control S. 385 tragus plants (Fig. 5).

386 In order to directly compare the laboratory and field experiment results, the number of live 387 mites per 10 cm of plant branch was estimated (Table 5). Mite densities were 99 to 100% lower 388 in the field on the nontarget plants and 97% lower on S. tragus.

389 4. Discussion

390 In some field experiments on host specificity of eriophyid mites there was some suspicion 391 that mites found on nontarget plants may have recently dispersed from nearby heavily-infested 392 target plants (Stoeva et al., 2008, 2012; Smith et al., 2009; Weyl et al., 2019). In a previous field 393 experiment with A. salsolae, all the uninoculated negative control S. tragus plants became 394 infested by mites dispersing from nearby inoculated plants (Smith et al., 2009). The dispersal 395 behavior of eriophyid mites is not well known, but mites presumably have little or no control 396 over regarding where they land, so any behavioral selectivity would involve assessing the plant 397 and then either staying to feed and multiply or dispersing on the next available wind (Kiedrowicz 398 et al., 2017. It is important to not mistake 'transitory' live mites found on a nontarget plant as a 399 sign of attack (see discussion below), so we designed the field experiment to minimize this 400 possibility. Positive control plants were placed far from the test plot, so that dispersing mites 401 would not contaminate the test plants. The number of mites dispersing aerially is usually 402 positively correlated to the density of mites on plants (Berg, 2001). So, pan traps to monitor the 403 presence of aerially dispersing mites were exposed late in the summer (27 Aug. and 6 Sept.), 404 when mite populations are normally peak very high on S. tragus. Absence of A. salsolae in the 405 pan traps confirmed that few if any mites were dispersing during the experiment, which is not 406 surprising given the extremely low numbers present on the inoculated test plants.

407 In the elapsed time laboratory experiment, the A. salsolae population grew exponentially on 408 S. tragus, increasing roughly 80 fold in 5 weeks. In contrast, mite numbers generally decreased

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409 on *B. hyssopifolia* and *K. scoparia*, with mites on only 1 of 4 remaining *B. hyssopifolia* plants

- 410 and on none of the K. scoparia on week 7. However, mite numbers did increase on two plants of
- 411 B. hyssopifolia to 14 and 27 mites on week 3, and on one K. scoparia plant to 100 mites on week
- 412 5. Thus, this <u>A</u>. salsolae populations generally decreased on <u>B</u>. hyssopifolia and <u>K</u>. scoparia, but
- 413 the mite is was sometimes able to reproduce on each of these species these two plants under

414 laboratory conditions. Seven weeks may not be long enough to show that this mite goes to 415 extinction on these two nontarget plants under our laboratory conditions. However, 5 weeks was 416 long enough to reveal a possible increase in the mite population <u>(80 fold on *S. tragus*)</u>, and it was 417 chosen for the laboratory host plant suitability experiment as a compromise between a duration 418 long enough to show mite extinction and short enough so that test plants would not get too big 419 and touch their neighbors, which could cause possible cross-contamination.

420 In the 5-week-long host plant suitability laboratory experiment there was some reproduction 421 on at least some plants of A. coronata, B. hyssopifolia, B. prostrata and S. calceoliformis, but 422 final numbers were only 0.7 to 8.4% of those on S. tragus. There was only one live mite on one 423 A. truncata plant and none on K. scoparia, indicating that these plants could not support this 424 mite. Persistence of live mites on nontarget plants in the two laboratory tests was not completely 425 consistent. Live mites were found on 1 of 10 K. scoparia plants (sampled at weeks 5 and 7) in 426 the elapsed time experiment, but on none of the 9 plants in the host plant suitability experiment. 427 However, there were 100 mites on that one plant, which was an increase from the inoculated 428 number of 10 mites. Live mites were found on 5 of 9 B. hyssopifolia plants sampled at 5 or 7 429 weeks in the elapsed time experiment, but they were found on all 9 plants at 5 weeks in the host 430 plant suitability experiment. It is not clear why the results of the two experiments differed, but 431 the variability suggests the importance of doing enough replication.

432 In the field experiment, the only nontarget plant that had mites was no mites were found on 433 A. truncata, B. hyssopifolia or S. calceoliformis at 78 to 117 days post inoculation. However, an 434 average of 0.3 live mites per 10 cm cutting was found on A. coronata plants after about 55 days, 435 but no juveniles were present. This suggests that this miteA. salsolae can persist for a long time 436 on this plant under natural field conditions, but there was no evidence of reproduction. The A. 437 coronata plants were harvested earlier (at 50-64 days) than the other nontarget plants (78-117 438 days) because they naturally senesced earlier, and it is not known if similar numbers of A. 439 salsolae occurred on the other nontarget plants at this time. The decrease in the proportion of 440 mite juveniles on S. tragus from 16% on day 42 (17 July) to 6% on day 114 (27 Sept.) and increase in females (from 78 to 91%) may indicate an increasing proportion of diapausing 441 442 females late in the growing season (Valenzano et al., 2020).

The densities of live *A. salsolae* were much lower in the field experiment than in the
laboratory experiments for all plants tested (Table 5). In the field, mites are exposed to
additional causes of mortality, such as predators, pathogens, rain, extreme temperatures and
relative humidity, and possibly ultraviolet radiation (e.g., Goolsby et al., 2005; Oldfield, 2005;
Ozman and Goolsby, 2005; Moran et al., 2017), which would reduce population growth rate

448 compared to that under laboratory conditions. Plants grown outdoors are usually physically

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460 The ability of A. salsolae populations to persist for up to 49 days in the laboratory and up to 461 64 days in the field on at least some nontarget plants poses a challenge to assessing risk to 462 nontarget plant species. In a laboratory no-choice experiment Aceria solstitialis de Lillo, 463 Cristofaro and Kashefi, a prospective agent of yellow starthistle (Centaurea solstitialis L.), 464 appeared to reproduce and persisted up to 60 days on some nontarget plants, including safflower 465 (Carthamus tinctorius L.) and artichoke (Cynara scolymus L.), on which it did not persist in a 466 field experiment (Stoeva et al., 2012). Thus, T there are at least two well-documented examples 467 of eriophyid mites persisting and reproducing on plants in the laboratory but not in the field (Smith et al., 2010; Stoeva et al., 2012). Relatively little is known about the life expectancy 468 469 ability of eriophyid mites to survive, although 4 to 5 weeks has been reported considered by 470 some to be the range for protogynes (= nondiapausing females); (Channabasavanna and Nangia, 471 1984). In a study of five eriophyid species in water droplets, mites survived for up to 1 to 11 472 days at 25°C, depending on species and morph, and up to 1 to 7 weeks at 5°C (Valenzano et al., 473 2019). Aceria tulipae (Keifer) survived at least 80 days on potato dextrose agar (being tested as 474 an artificial diet), but they did not start to oviposit until after they were transferred to wheat 475 plants (del Rosario and Sill, 1964). Thus, it appears that Eeriophyid mites have been shown to 476 survive for longer under cool conditions, at cold than warm temperature, and even longer if they 477 can avoid desiccation, either due to high humidity or availability of water to imbibe, and even 478 longer and if they can obtain some nutrition (del Rosario and Sill, 1964; Valenzano et al., 479 2019refs). However, reproduction may occur only on the most suitable plants. Furthermore, 480 induction of galls is not necessarily a sign of successful reproduction (Craemer, 1995; McClay 481 and De Clerck-Floate, 2002). For example, Aceria malherbae Nuzzaci, which was introduced to 482 the USA and South Africa to control field bindweed, Convolvulus arvensis L. (Convolvulaceae), 483 eaused galling on 3 Convolvulus and 12 Calystegia species in laboratory and screen house 484 studies (Clement et al., 1984; Rosenthal and Platts, 1990; Craemer, 1995). However, Craemer 485 (1995) observed that although galling occurred on two nontarget species of Convolvulus, mites 486 reproduced only on C. arvensis, suggesting that requirements for reproduction are more restrictive selective than for gall induction. Induction of galling without evidence of mite 487

488 reproduction was also observed on *Calystegia sepium* (L.) R. Br. (McClay and De Clerck Floate,

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489 2002). In a field experiment, galling was observed on some nontarget *Convolvulus* and

490 *Calystegia* species in the summer that they were inoculated with *A. malherbae*; however, no

491 galling was observed on these plants the following year, suggesting failure of the mites to either

reproduce or to survive on them through the winter (which normally occurs underground on the
 roots), whereas they could on *C. arvensis* (R.W. Hansen pers. comm. in Smith et al., 2010).

494 Assessment of the risk of a hazard involves estimating the amount of injury per attack and 495 multiplying it by the probability of attack (Lonsdale et al., 2001). However, for an arthropod 496 attacking a plant, the level of injury generally depends on the density of individuals (McClay and 497 Balciunas, 2005), unless a plant pathogen is also involved. So, in the case of assessing the risk 498 of a prospective biological control agent to harm a nontarget plant, it is important to determine if 499 the agent can multiply on the nontarget plant, because this is necessary in order to achieve 500 populations high enough to impact the plant on a sustained basis (Hinz et al., 2019). Although 501 A. salsolae could persist for up to 9 weeks on a nontarget plant (A. coronata) under field 502 conditions, and even reproduce slightly during 3 to 5 weeks under laboratory no-choice 503 conditions, it never attained populations anywhere close to those on S. tragus. The positive 504 control S. tragus plants in the field experiment had extensive galling. Although we did not 505 measure impact of the mite on S. tragus in the field experiment, a previous study measured a 506 reduction of 80% in aerial biomass and a reduction in seed production from 34.1 to 0 seeds per 507 10-cm branch tip (Smith et al., 2009) even though the final mite densities were 1/15th those of 508 the current field experiment. However, none of the nontarget plants showed any impact of the 509 mite in either the laboratory or field experiments. So, multiplying the low probability of 510 infestation by the low density on infested plants by the insignificant impact indicates negligible 511 risk to these nontarget plants.

512 Two eriophyid mites that could develop on and/or damage some nontarget plants in pre-513 release studies have been previously released as biological control agents. Aceria malherbaes 514 mentioned above, was released in the USA in 1989 to control field bindweed weed, Convolvulus 515 arvensis L. (Convolvulaceae), and there have not been any reports of it attacking nontarget 516 species in the field under natural conditions (Smith et al., 2010). Aculus hyperici (Liro) was 517 introduced to Australia in 1991 to help control the weed St Johnswort, Hypericum perforatum L. 518 (Clusiaceae), despite indications from pre-release trials that this eriophyid mite could survive and 519 reproduce on at least four non-target species, including the Australian native Hypericum 520 gramineum Forst. (Cullen and Briese, 2001). Although A. hyperici subsequently infested H. 521 gramineum in the field, the mite had negligible impacts on all measured indices of growth and 522 reproduction, and it is not considered to harm the nontarget plant's population (Willis et al., 523 2003). In both these examples, the mites have not produced significant impacts in the field on 524 nontarget plant species that are known to be within their physiological host range. 525 We conclude that A. salsolae is capable of very low reproduction on some nontarget plant

525 we conclude that A. satsolae is capable of very fow reproduction on some nontarget plant species, including A. coronata, B. hyssopifolia, B. prostrata, K. scoparia and S. calceoliformis under some laboratory conditions, but that the mite is not likely to multiply on any of these plants under field conditions. Furthermore, the mite does not appear to cause any significant **Commented [A18]:** Again this is all review style and should be condensed for a research article. The point is that galling can occur without reproduction and that is needed here along with references to the original findings.

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529 harm to these nontarget plants when it does occur on them. Atriplex coronata and S.

530 calceoliformis are native annual species that overlap geographically with S. tragus sensu lato.

531 Bassia hyssopifolia and B. prostrata are alien to North America, although the latter has been

developed as a potential forage crop (Waldron et al., 2010). Given that these species are among 532

those most closely related to the target weed outside the genus Salsola, and thus should be the 533

534 most likely to be at risk based on the centrifugal phylogenetic hypothesis (Wapshere, 1974;

535 Briese, 2006; Berner et al., 2009.; Simberloff, 2012), and were the only ones that showed

536 persistence of live mites in laboratory studies, including those of previous host testing (Smith,

2005; Smith et al., 2009), this mite is not expected to pose a risk to any nontarget plants in the 537

538 contiguous USA.

539

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709 TABLES

710

Table 1. Size of potted test plants inoculated with *Aceria salsolae* in the laboratory host plant

- suitability experiment (mean \pm SE). Salsola tragus were cuttings held in water vials. Change in
- 713 height is final/initial.

714

Species	Ν	Initial height	Final height	Change in
		(cm)	(cm)	height
Atriplex coronata	9	8.22 <u>+</u> 0.67	15.88 <u>+</u> 3.71	1.84 <u>+</u> 0.34
Atriplex truncata	9	8.72 <u>+</u> 0.51	40.89 <u>+</u> 1.86	4.86 ± 0.44
Bassia hyssopifolia	9	5.89 <u>+</u> 0.37	44.06 <u>+</u> 3.12	7.46 ± 0.18
Bassia prostrata	12	4.92 <u>+</u> 0.50	8.71 <u>+</u> 0.48	2.01 <u>+</u> 0.24
Kochia scoparia	9	3.94 <u>+</u> 0.24	16.83 <u>+</u> 2.00	4.35 <u>+</u> 0.50
Suaeda calceoliformis	9	4.67 <u>+</u> 0.65	15.67 <u>+</u> 2.80	3.71 <u>+</u> 0.63
Salsola tragus	12	11.50 ± 0.56	11.75 <u>+</u> 0.60	1.03 <u>+</u> 0.02

717 Table 2. Number of plants tested for each species (N), duration of the field experiment,

718 percentage of plants infested (inoculated and uninoculated) at the end experiment, total number

719 of Aceria salsolae collected per 10-cm of cutting (mean \pm SE), proportions of live and dead

720 mites collected, and proportions of juvenile, adult female and male among live A. salsolae

721 collected for each plant species tested. 722

	Days post- inoculation	Plants inoculated	Total number of Aceria	Proportion of Aceria sals	solae
Plant species [N]	mean ¹ [<i>min - max</i>]	[<i>uninoculated</i>] infested	<i>salsolae</i> /10 cm of cutting	live [juvenile, female, male]	dead
Atriplex coronata [7]	55 [<i>50-64</i>]	71% [<i>0%</i>]	0.9 ± 0.3	33% [0%, 67%, 33%]	67%
Atriplex truncata [7]	99 [<i>90-110</i>]	0% [<i>0%</i>]	0.0 ± 0.0	0%	0%
Bassia hyssopifolia [10]	103 [78-117]	0% [<i>0%</i>]	0.0 ± 0.0	0%	0%
Suaeda calceoliformis [10]	104 [81-117]	0% [<i>0%</i>]	0.0 ± 0.0	0%	0%
Salsola tragus [10]	42 [<i>40-43</i>]	100%	2.0 ± 0.5	85% [<i>16%, 78%, 6%</i>]	15%
[10]	114 [<i>98-120</i>]	100%	26.8 ± 5.0	87% [<i>6%, 91%, 2%</i>]	13%

Commented [A20]: Commented [A21]: S. tragus was moved from top of table to bottom.

723 ¹Mean was calculated excluding the outliers, which are 25 days post-inoculation for two A. coronata plants, 724 725 inoculated and uninoculated, respectively; 33 days post-inoculation for an A. truncata plant inoculated; 33

and 63 days post-inoculation for two S. calceoliformis plants, both inoculated, and 53 days postinoculation for a S. calceoliformis plant uninoculated.

Table 3. Parametric coefficients of negative binomial model ($[log(y) = intercept + b_1(x)]$,

729 where y = no.of live mites on 10-cm-long cuttings, x = plant species), and the corresponding

730 Incidence Rate Ratio (IRR), examining the effects of plant species on the density of live Aceria

731 *salsolae* in the field experiment.

	2	2
1	э	2

	Estimate	SE	IRR	z-value	<i>p</i> -value
intercept ¹	3.10	0.19	-	15.95	< 2e-16
plant species ²	-5.05	1.04	0.01	-4.85	= 1.25e-06

733 ¹ intercept represents the effect of *Salsola tragus*

² plant species represents the effect of *Atriplex coronata* compared to that of *S. tragus*

735

737	Table 4. Parameters recorded to evaluate the potential impact of the possible presence of Aceria
738	salsolae on plants (TEST = inoculated, CTRL(-) = not inoculated). Bold indicates the only two
739	values which differed from each other within a plant species ($t = -3.21$, df = 11.97, $p = 0.00758$).
- 10	

							Diameter			No. of		
			Volu	me	Heig	ght	Larg	est	Smal	lest	secon	dary
	Treat-		(1000	cm ³)	(cn	1)	(cn	1)	(cn	1)	branc	hes
Plant species	ment	Ν	mean	SE	mean	SE	mean	SE	mean	SE	mean	SE
Atriplex	TEST	7	1.6	0.4	24.6	2.7	12.9	1.3	8.71	1.1	9.1	2.3
coronata	CTRL(-)	7	2.1	0.7	23.1	4.1	12.4	2.0	10.3	1.7	9.3	1.7
Atriplex	TEST	7	505	109	75.7	8.4	109.0	12. 3	98.6	11.2	31.7	3.0
truncata	CTRL(-)	7	317	61	77.9	4.6	87.3	9.1	80.4	8.9	31.4	1.5
Bassia	TEST	10	817	280	96.5	7.4	121.2	22. 4	93.0	19.6	31.3	4.5
hyssopifolia	CTRL(-)	10	950	320	111.6	14.0	113.8	16. 6	100.0	14.9	44.9	5.1
Suaeda calceoliformis	TEST	10	49	11	58.8	5.2	41.5	5.0	32.7	3.4	17.4	1.1
	CTRL(-)	10	25	5	40.9	2.1	36.20	3.3 1	29.20	2.8	15.9	1.0

743	Table 5.	Comparison of	densities of	f live Aceria	<i>salsolae</i> in	laboratory no	-choice and	field
		- r · · · · ·						

744 experiments (mean \pm SE).

745

746		Li	Live mites/10 cm				
	<u>Plant species</u>	Lab	Field	Decrease			
	Atriplex coronata	26.3 <u>+</u> 13.1 *	0.27 + 0.13	99%			
	Atriplex truncata	0.02 <u>+</u> 0.02	0.00 <u>+</u> 0.00	100%			
	Bassia hyssopifolia	18.0 <u>+</u> 5.5 *	0.00 <u>+</u> 0.00	100%			
	Suaeda calceoliformis	48.6 + 11.4 *	0.00 <u>+</u> 0.00	100%			
	Salsola tragus	789.6 + 139.2 *	23.2 + 4.4	97%			

747 748 * Kruskal-Wallis test of Lab vs. Field, p < 0.005



750 FIGURE LEGENDS

751

749

- Figure 1. Maps of the two field garden plots set up for nontarget plants, inoculated with *Aceria salsolae* (test; on the right, grey circles) or not (negative control; on the left, white circles).
 Each letter corresponds to different plant species (a *Atriplex coronata*; b *Bassia hyssopifolia*; c *Atriplex truncata*; d *Suaeda calceoliformis*) and numbers refer to replicate
- for each species († plants added on 21 June; ‡ plants replaced on 25 June). White

rectangles indicate pan traps.

- Figure 2. Number of live *Aceria salsolae* on test plants at 3, 5 and 7 weeks after inoculation with
 10 mites inside a containment laboratory (mean <u>+</u> SE); model is exponential growth fit to *S*. *tragus* data.
- Figure 3. Number of live Aceria salsolae per plant 5 weeks after inoculation with 15 mites inside
 a containment laboratory (mean ± SE)
- Figure 4. Numbers of live (white bar) and dead (gray bar) *Aceria salsolae* per 10 cm of cutting of
 the species tested in the field experiment (mean <u>+</u> SE).
- Figure 5. Galls on inoculated *Salsola tragus* (red arrows) compared to normal growth (whitearrow).











Author statement file

Francesca Marini, planned and conducted the field experiment, analyzed the results of the field experiment, co-wrote the paper.

Biljana Vidović, determined the indentification of mites from the field experiment.

Simone Lonis, conducted the field experiment, extracted and processed mites.

Maria Irene Wibawa, conducted the laboratory experiments, extracted and processed mites.

Enrico de Lillo, determined the indentification of mites from the laboratory experiments.

Javid Kashefi, collected mites for use in the laboratory and field experiments.

Massimo Cristofaro, supervised activities in Italy.

Lincoln Smith, conceptualized the project, designed and analyzed the results of the laboratory experiments, co-wrote the paper.