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3	Postembryonic development and population parameters of Alpaida veniliae
4	(Araneae, Araneidae), reared in the laboratory.
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17	Running head: BENAMU ET AL. DEVELOPMENT AND DEMOGRAPHY OF
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21	Abstract. We studied postembryonic development from hatching to adult stage and determined
22	life history traits and population parameters of Alpaida veniliae. It is one of the most
23	abundant species of the orb weaving guild of the spider community of soybean crops in
24	Buenos Aires province, Argentina. The first three instars occurred inside the egg sac, and
25	nymph IV (spiderlings) started the dispersion from it. Alpaida veniliae female achieved greater
26	adult size and larger adult longevity than the male. Mean fecundity, mean number of egg sacs
27	per female, mean number of eggs per egg sac, as well as the net reproductive rate, the
28	intrinsic rate of increase (r), the generation time (T), and the reproductive values $(V_x)$ of
29	three cohorts, were determined under laboratory conditions, indicating a relatively high
30	capacity for growth. Their biological and ecological attributes indicate the importance
31	of conservation this predator as a natural enemy of soybean crop pests.
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34	Keywords: spiders; generalist predators; soybean; life history traits; population growth rates.
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#### 47 Introduction

48 Arthropod predators can be very effective in reducing the density of phytophagous 49 arthropods in agroecosystems as well as in unmanaged habitats (Nyffeler et al. 1994; 50 Wyss et al. 1995; Barbosa and Wratten 1998; Rypstra et al. 1999). Currently, there is a 51 growing interest in the potential of generalist predators as biological control agents of 52 pests (Riechert and Lockley 1984; Riechert and Bishop 1990; Symondson et al. 2002). 53 The reappraisal of conservation of natural enemies as biological control agents 54 has started to change the current dogma and creating new management perspectives for 55 pests (Nyrop et al. 1998). Accordingly, management practices to preserve predaceous 56 arthropods in agro-ecosystems seem to be a sound alternative to pesticides (Ehler 1998). 57 Spiders are relevant components of the natural assemblages of predatory 58 arthropods of most agroecosystems (Turnbull 1973; Young & Edwards 1990; Wise 59 1993; Sunderland et al., 1997; Sunderland & Greenstone 1999). Field and laboratory 60 studies of spider predation rates indicate that the impact of the spider assemblages may 61 contribute significantly to decrease pest population abundance in many crops (Wise 62 1993; Sunderland & Greenstone 1999; Nyffeler 1999; Maloney et al. 2003; Danişman et 63 al. 2007). Normally, spider communities have high abundance, richness and diversity in 64 agroecosystems throughout the crop growing season, (Riechert and Lockley 1984; 65 Benamú and Aguilar 2001; Maloney et al. 2003; Beltramo et al. 2006). Another 66 important feature of their life history, pointed out by Harwood and Obrycki (2005), is 67 the advantage of spiders over specialist natural enemies due to their sit-and-wait 68 strategy that allow them attack pests once they arrive, by surviving on alternative preys. 69 In transgenic soybean crops of Buenos Aires province, Argentina, the spider 70 Alpaida veniliae (Keyserling 1865) (Araneae, Araneidae), is one of the most abundant 71 species of the orb weaving guild of the spider community. Saavedra et al. (2007)

72	reported the importance of A. veniliae predation on herbivore insect populations on rice
73	crops. However, to date, there is little information on the biology and the ecology of this
74	species. In view of A. veniliae might be a potential natural enemy of some soybean pests
75	that could be integrated in future pest management programs, basic studies of its
76	biology and ecology are needed.
77	The objectives of this work were to study the postembryonic development and
78	the population parameters of Alpaida veniliae, in laboratory.
79	
80	Material and methods
81	A laboratory colony was reared, starting with 30 juvenile females, 10 adult gravid
82	females and 10 adult males of A. veniliae, collected from two transgenic soybean crops
83	located at Chivilcoy (35° 01' S, 60° 06' W) (Buenos Aires, Argentina). Spiderlings
84	emerging from the egg-sacs were followed to obtain a mass-rearing population. In the
85	laboratory, we individually reared juveniles and adult couples, to allow mating, in 500
86	ml glass jars. Juveniles and adults were provided with an ad libitum supply of
87	Drosophila melanogaster and Musca domestica adults. Laboratory conditions were 25 ±
88	2 ° C, 75 $\pm$ 5% RH, and a photoperiod of 16:8 (L: D) h. This colony provided the
89	necessary individuals to study the different life traits and the population parameters.
90	
91	Postembryonic development
92	To determine postembryonic development, 16 egg masses were individually reared in 6
93	cm diameter plastic Petri <sup>®</sup> dishes. Dishes were disposed on trays of expanded
94	polystyrene with pieces of moistened cotton to prevent the eggs from drying, and
95	covered with plastic film to avoid contamination by fungi and mites. They were kept in

96 an environmental chamber at 25  $\pm$  0.5  $^{\circ}$  C, 75  $\pm$  5% R.H. and 16:8 L: D, h. Different

postembryonic stages, from hatching to adult stage, were determined according to
Galiano (1991), which considers that development begins with the rupture of the
chorion (hatching), remaining the first instar inside it. The second instar appears after
detaching the embryonic cuticle, which is considered the first molt, and the subsequent
instars are numbered sequentially. At instar IV, individuals (spiderlings) abandon the
egg-sac and start a free life.

103 As it was impossible to separate individual eggs from the egg mass, we 104 determined the intrachorionic development by daily examination under binocular 105 microscope of 978 eggs from different egg masses, but not separated from them. 106 Spiderlings coming out the egg-sac, were individually kept in Petri dishes, and daily 107 checked until reaching the adult stage. We measured the length and width of 108 cephalothorax of 50 individuals of each instar, 50 adult males, and 50 adult females, 109 immediately after the molt. To measure instar I and II we previously submerged some 110 egg masses in liquid glycerin to transparent membranes, and randomly selected 50 111 individuals of each. Differences in development times and morphological measurements 112 among juveniles, and in adult longevity, total life span, and in cephalothorax size 113 between adult sexes were tested with ANOVA or Kruskal Wallis test. Means or 114 medians were separated by the least significant differences (LSD) multiple range test or 115 Box and Wisker plot method, respectively. A 0.05 significance level was chosen for all 116 statistical analysis.

117

118 Life history traits

To assess male and female longevity, we followed the surviving individuals, used to study postembryonic development, until the end of their lives as adults. Additionally, 22 newly emerged male and female adults, randomly selected, were paired and placed in

122 500 ml plastic vials to determine the mean number of days from mating to the first

123 oviposition (pre-reproductive period), the mean fecundity (mean number of eggs per

124 female), the mean number of eggs per egg sac, and the mean percentage of egg

125 hatching.

126

127 Population parameters

128 Three cohorts (i.e. a group of individuals born within the same short interval of time) 129 selected from the laboratory colony were used to construct three age specific life tables 130 and estimate the population parameters. Spiderlings of each cohort were placed individually in 6cm diameter Petri<sup>®</sup> dishes with a piece of moistened cotton on the 131 132 bottom, and fed *ad libitum Drosophila melanogaster* up to the IV instar, and then fed 133 *Musca domestica* to the adults. From a group of 100 eggs we measured the percentage 134 of hatching and corrected the initial number of spiderlings of each cohort to perform the 135 calculations of the population parameters starting from the eggs.

136 Thus, the initial number of eggs of each cohort was of 897, 429 and 483 eggs, 137 respectively. Once a week we checked survival of each cohort until death of all 138 individuals. Spiders were sexed in the fifth nymph. Cohort survival (proportion of the 139 initial female cohort alive at age x) and fecundity (mean number of female offspring 140 produced per female of age x) were estimated. From fifth instar to adult stage we 141 calculated the mean sex ratio [(male / (male + female)] and used this value to correct 142 age-stage specific survival values from birth, assuming that the sex ratio was similar 143 from birth to fifth. Three of the surviving females of each cohort, chosen at random, 144 were paired with males coming from the colony, and housed individually in 500 ml 145 plastic vials to estimate age specific fecundity. We constructed age-specific survival  $(l_x)$  146 and fecundity (m<sub>x</sub>) curves at weekly intervals, and calculated the following

147 demographic parameters:

149 per female per generation

150 
$$R_o = \sum_{x=0}^n l_x m_x$$
[1]

151

152 Intrinsic rate of increase (r), that is the mean number of female offspring

153 produced per female per time unit.

154 
$$r \approx \frac{\ln R_0}{T}$$
 [2]

155

Generation time (T) that is the mean age of the parents of all the offspringproduced by a single cohort.

$$T = \frac{\sum_{x=0}^{n} x l_x m_x}{R_0}$$
[3]

159

160 Reproductive values  $(V_x)$ , that is the contribution to the future population that 161 one female of age x will make. It is measured relative to that of the first age, which is 162 considered equal to 1.

163 
$$V_{x} = \frac{e^{rx}}{l_{x}} \sum_{y=x+1}^{n} e^{-ry} l_{y} m_{y}$$
[4]

165

Where *x* is the age class and *n* the oldest age class.

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### 167 Results

# 168 Postembryonic development

169 The egg sac of A. *veniliae* is yellow and shaped like a dome. It has three layers of fibers 170 surrounding the mass of eggs, which is pink, darkening as it develops and it measures 171  $3.82 \pm 1.1 \text{ mm}$  (mean  $\pm$  SD; n=16) in length, and  $3.23 \pm 0.7 \text{ mm}$  (mean  $\pm$  SD; n=16) in 172 width. Hatching occurred in two steps within the egg sac. During the first, the individual 173 broke the chorionic membrane. This is considered the instar I, which is intrachorionic, 174 still wrapped in the embryonic cuticle, the body bent at right angle with the legs folded 175 under the cephalothorax and no visible segmentation of the legs. The rupture of 176 chorionic membrane took place  $6.33 \pm 0.5$  days after oviposition (Table 1). During the 177 second step, at approximately 24 h from breaking the chorionic membrane, the 178 embryonic cuticle is detached, dragging the egg membranes, resulting in the freeing of 179 the legs from the cephalothorax and the emergence of instar II. The instar III had the 180 cephalothorax and legs free and extended parallel to each side of the body, with little 181 sketches of segmentation at the level of the trochanter-femoral joint. They had no hair 182 nor pigmentation, only a slight red pigmentation in their eyes, and fed on the chorion, 183 which dries and become increasingly crumpled inside the ootheca. Instar IV 184 (spiderlings) had hair, tarsal nails and eyes, and started the dispersion from the egg sac. 185 At this point, spiderlings were also able to spin a simple type of silk for capture prey. 186 Cannibalism was not observed inside the egg sac. It was possible to discriminate sex in 187 instar V, because it was easy to see the palp of the male. Females had nine instars, while 188 males had only eight.

Developmental time of juveniles and adults and cephalothorax size of *A. veniliae* is shown in Table 1 and 2, respectively. Earlier instars, particularly from the first to the third, had shorter developmental time than later ones (Kruskal-Wallis, H = 5212.62; P =0.001, n= 3164). Adult male longevity was much shorter than that of female, as well as the total male life span.

194 Cephalothorax length was similar until instar VI, and then successively

increased to adult (H= 475.90; P = 0.001). Cephalothorax width differed between instar

196 II to III and remained similar until instar VII when it increased with age (H= 466.84; P

197 = 0.001). Adult females had a longer and wider cephalothorax than adult males (length:

198 H = 24.75; P = 0.001; width: H = 78.24; P = 0.001).

199

200 Life history traits

201 Females had a longer total life span than males, living approximately 62 days longer

202 (F= 105; df =1, 78; P< 0.001). Adult female longevity was approximately 42 d longer

203 than that of the male (H= 57.43; P= 0.001) (Table 1). After  $6.7 \pm 2.6$  (mean  $\pm$  SD) d

from copulation, females laid the first egg sac. Mean ( $\pm$  SD) female fecundity was

205 740.91  $\pm$  329.16 eggs. The mean ( $\pm$  SD) number of egg sacs deposited by a female was

 $4.59 \pm 2.04$ , and the mean ( $\pm$  SD) number of eggs per egg sac was  $161.39 \pm 32.17$ . The

207 percentage of egg hatching was 95.02%.

208

209 Population parameters

210 The age-specific survival curves showed some variations at initial ages between cohorts

211 (Fig. 1). In cohort 1 survival sharply decreased during the first four weeks of life,

212 indicating a high mortality at the first instars. Survival in cohorts 2 and 3 remained very

213 high during the first six weeks, after which it suffered a pronounced reduction. From

this moment on, patterns of survival were rather similar, declining gradually to reach
zero between the 28<sup>th</sup> and 29<sup>th</sup> week of cohort life span. Cohort survival had values
ranging from 10 to 15 % when females started oviposition. Fecundity curves exhibited
two or three peaks, reaching the maximum fecundity from week 21 to week 23.

Population parameters were similar between cohorts and indicated a relatively high capacity for growth (Table 3). Generation time ranged approximately from 19 to 24 weeks, and the maximum reproductive values (Fig. 2) were at the ages of 20, 23 and 24 weeks of the female life span, in cohort one, two, and three, respectively. The sex ratio differed between cohorts and was biased towards females in the three cohorts.

223

#### 224 **Discussion**

The aforementioned research has increased the knowledge of some basic biological and ecological attributes of *A. veniliae*, an abundant species of the orb weaving guild of the spider community in soybean agroecosystem.

The major web types (e.g., scattered, sheet, and orbs) are reported to be specifically adapted to particular habitat structures and to the capture of specific prey, being the orb-web capable of capturing a wider range of taxa than other web types (Turnbull, 1973).

Web-building spiders are, directly or indirectly, important mortality factors of pests. According to Greenstone (1999), pests are an important part of the diet of webbuilding spiders. Moreover, Harwood et al. (2001, 2003) have reported that cereal spiders have a non-random web location strategy, which is directly related to prey density. This strategy allows the spiders to increase the frequency with which the insects fall into his web when prey density is high, although not feed directly on them. Saavedra et al. (2007) studied the predation rate of *A. veniliae* in rice crops, concluding that the predatory behaviour of this spider could have strong implications on the regulation of two phytophagous species inhabiting this crop. Moreover the high prey capture capacity, *A. veniliae* exhibits many attributes that are considered desirable for natural enemies and make them relevant predators of pests MARCO QUIEN DICE ESTO!!!. Among them, temporal synchronization with preys, high fecundity, high population growth potential, predation at juvenile and adult stages, and the orbicular

245 web (Bellows and Fisher, 1999).

Flórez et al. (2002) also reported one more nymphal instar in the female than in the male of the related species *A. variabilis*, under both greenhouse and field conditions, but a smaller female and male longevity than that of *A. veniliae* determined in this study. However, the greater longevity of *A. veniliae* females compared to males registered in the present study is coincident with findings of other authors in phylogenetically unrelated species (Gardner 1965; Bailey 1968; Jackson 1978; Mansour et al. 1980).

Fecundity curves indicated that *A. veniliae* is iteroparous, which means that the female reproduces repeatedly during its lifetime. The mean female fecundity coincided with that found for other spiders (Foelix 1996), but it was considerably higher than that of other *Alpaida* species, such as *A. variabilis* (76.5  $\pm$  34 eggs per female) (Flórez et al. 2002). However, fecundity comparisons are difficult to make because there are not data on female size or biomass, only cephalothorax width, and female size, among other factors, is very related to fecundity.

260 The mean number of days from mating to the first oviposition of *A. veniliae* was 261 much shorter than that of other species of the same genus, e.g. *A. variabilis*  $(15.25 \pm 2.6)$ 

d) (Flórez et al. 2002). A short prereproductive period is an important trait for a natural
enemy of pests, because it contributes to population growth.

Since the three studied cohorts came from the same colony and were reared under identical conditions of food, temperature, humidity and photoperiod, we assumed that variations among survival curves registered at initial ages, revealed the natural inter- population variations.

Seeing as males may copulate several times with different females through their lives, the highest proportion of females found in the studied cohorts (sex ratio biased towards females) would indicate another positive feature that would promote population increase. But, whether this potential would be expressed in field conditions is difficult to predict and deserves more research.

Unfortunately, there is very little information about population parameters from others spiders to compare with this study. Boulton & Polis (1999) have calculated some life history parameters of *Diguetia mojavea* (Diguetidae) under field conditions in southern California. However, results are not easy to compare since that family is not closely related to Araneidae, and conditions like food, temperature and photoperiod that greatly affect development and growth rate were different.

In addition to the high abundance of *A. veniliae* in the soybean spider community, their biological and ecological attributes indicate the importance of conservation this predator as a natural enemy of soybean crop pests. However, more research to elucidate the significance of their predator role in pest suppression of soybean crops is needed.

284

285

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- 292

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