

Article

Mites associated to chile piquín (*Capsicum annuum* L. var. *glabriuscum*) in two Protect Natural Areas in Northeastern México

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Abstract

The conservation status of an ecosystem is checked by studying the composition and diversity of the organisms that interact in trophic chains. The aim of this study was to evaluate the biodiversity of mites associated to *Capsicum annuum* L. var *glabriuscum* (Solanaceae) at three sampling sites corresponding to two Protected Natural Areas (PNA) in Tamaulipas state, Mexico. Samplings were carried out in "Cañón de la Peregrina" and "Altas Cumbres" situated in the PNA "Altas Cumbres" and "Ojo de Agua", located in the "El Cielo" Biosphere Reserve. Mite diversity was $H = 1.09 \pm 0.14$ in Ojo de Agua, and it was $H = 1.08 \pm 0.08$ and $H = 1.11 \pm 0.06$ in Altas Cumbres and Cañón de la Peregrina, respectively. A total of 47 species were identified belonging to 35 genera of 18 families associated to *C. annuum* L. var *glabriuscum* in Mexico. Predatory mite richness was higher than that of generalist and phytophagous mites (31, 11 and 5 species, respectively) for the two ANP. The similarity index of Jaccard between OA-AC ($I_j = 0.257$; $P < 0.05$), CP-AC ($I_j = 0.293$; $P < 0.05$) and AC-CP ($I_j = 0.324$; $P < 0.05$) was low. *Pseudopronematalus* sp. 4 (Iolinidae) was predatory mite most abundant in both ANP ($P_i = 9.311$); followed by *Metaseiulus* (*Metaseiulus*) *negundinis* (Denmark) (Phytoseiidae) only for ANP "Altas Cumbres" ($P_i = 1.004$). While for phytophagous mite, *Aculops lycopersici* (Tryon) (Eriophyidae) and *Tetranychus merganser* Boudreaux (Tetranychidae) presented the highest abundances in all sites ($P_i = 79.919$ and 5.142, respectively). The high number of mites species associated to chile piquín suggests stability in the PNA despite anthropogenic activities, and that the PNA works as a mite reservoir.

Key words: Acari; biodiversity, Protected Natural Area, Altas Cumbres, El Cielo Biosphere Reserve

Introduction

The biogeographic composition of Mexico allows a mixture and co-occurrence of typical biota of Neotropical and Nearctic regions, which overlap to give origin to the components of the Mexican Transition Zone (MTZ) (Morrone 2005; Ferro & Morrone 2014). This provides physical and

environmental characteristics, as well as ecological factors that provides Mexico with one of the highest biodiversity in the world and endemism levels that is extensive in several taxa (Dirzo 1992; Llorente-Bousquets & Morrone 2002). For this reason, Protected Natural Areas (PNA) implement strategies for the conservation of biodiversity and the adequate use of natural resources (Villalobos 2000; Ifíguez *et al.* 2014).

Mexico includes 176 PNA with different conservation statuses, distributed in 41 Biosphere Reserves, 5 Monuments, 67 National Parks, 8 Protected Areas of Natural Resources, 37 Protected Areas of Flora and Fauna, and 18 Sanctuaries (González-Ocampo *et al.* 2015). The PNA "Altas Cumbres" and the "El Cielo" Biosphere Reserve are located in Tamaulipas state, within the MTZ, with diversity of fauna and flora (Morrone 2005; Herrera-Izaguirre *et al.* 2014). Hernández *et al.* (1991) recorded 610 species of plants useful to humans, 30% of which are edible, e.g. chile piquín (*Capsicum annuum* L. var. *glabriusculum*) (Solanaceae). Chile piquín is important both from the social and economic viewpoints, since 65% of inhabitants of rural localities, including PNA, depend on its sale and self-consumption (Kraft *et al.* 2013; Aguirre-Hernández *et al.* 2017).

In México, it is estimated that occur 2,680 species of mites (Hoffman & López-Campos 2002; Pérez *et al.* 2014; Acuña-Soto *et al.* 2015; Vázquez & Klompen 2015; Vázquez-Rojas *et al.* 2015; Ojeda *et al.* 2016; Paredes-León *et al.* 2016; Acuña-Soto *et al.* 2017; Mejía-Recamier & Palacios-Vargas 2018; Páez *et al.* 2019; Trejo-Palacios *et al.* 2019). However, there are few studies on mite diversity and arthropods in PNA of Tamaulipas and Mexico (Ruiz-Cancino & Coronado 2002). Although little is known about phytophagous mites on commercial varieties of *C. annuum* in Mexico (Estebanes-Gonzales & Rodriguez-Navarro 1991; Migeon & Dorkeld 2019). *C. annuum* L. var. *glabriusculum* is not a commercial crop despite its wide distribution in the American Continent (Mireles-Rodríguez *et al.* 2015; Hayano-Kanashiro *et al.* 2016), and their associated mites are unknown. Therefore, knowledge of mite diversity and its importance for the conservation of natural enemies is limited (Bucio-Soto *et al.* 2016; Landis *et al.* 2000; Çobanoğlu & Kumral 2016). The aim of this study was to assess the biodiversity of mites associated to *Capsicum annuum* L. var. *glabriusculum* in two Protected Naturals Areas in Tamaulipas, Mexico.

Materials and methods

Study areas

Sampling sites were situated in "Cañón de la Peregrina" (CP) (23°46'41"N, 99°12'12"W) and "Altas Cumbres" (AC) (23°41'52"N, 99°11'04"W), located in the PNA "Altas Cumbres" in Victoria municipality, and "Ojo de Agua" (OA) (23 ° 01'7" N, 99 ° 08'54" W), which is located in the "El Cielo" Biosphere Reserve in Gómez Farias municipality (Fig. 1). AC and CP are comprised of mountains with numerous reliefs; hillside (415 m.a.s.l.) and canyons (365 m.a.s.l.), respectively. With submontane scrub vegetation, the arboreal stratum has an average height of 5 m. Vegetation in OA is low sub-deciduous jungle (175 m.a.s.l.), with a mixture of deciduous and perennial species with an average height of 25 m.

For design of sampling for each site, was used a one-hectare quadrant considered the orography and natural distribution of wild plants of *C. annuum* L. var. *glabriusculum*. Therefore, for CP and OA a "W"-shaped transect was used. In AC it was a linear transect of 100 m long was used, due to "W"-shaped transect is interrupted by San Marcos stream and makes it impossible to carry out this type of transect. In both cases, transect width was 10 m sampling all plants of *C. annuum* L. var. *glabriusculum* that were inside it (Bautista *et al.* 2011). According to the data obtained from meteorological stations of Comisión Nacional del Agua (CONAGUA) from Victoria and Gómez Farias during the sampling period, maximum, minimum, and ambient temperature, as well as

evaporation were, respectibely for Victoria $33.54 \pm 3.24^\circ\text{C}$, $18.83 \pm 3.87^\circ\text{C}$, $20.22 \pm 3.65^\circ\text{C}$ and 5.32 ± 1.49 , and Gómez Farias $31.04 \pm 2.65^\circ\text{C}$, $20.54 \pm 2.58^\circ\text{C}$, $21.27 \pm 2.39^\circ\text{C}$ and 3.75 ± 4.00 .

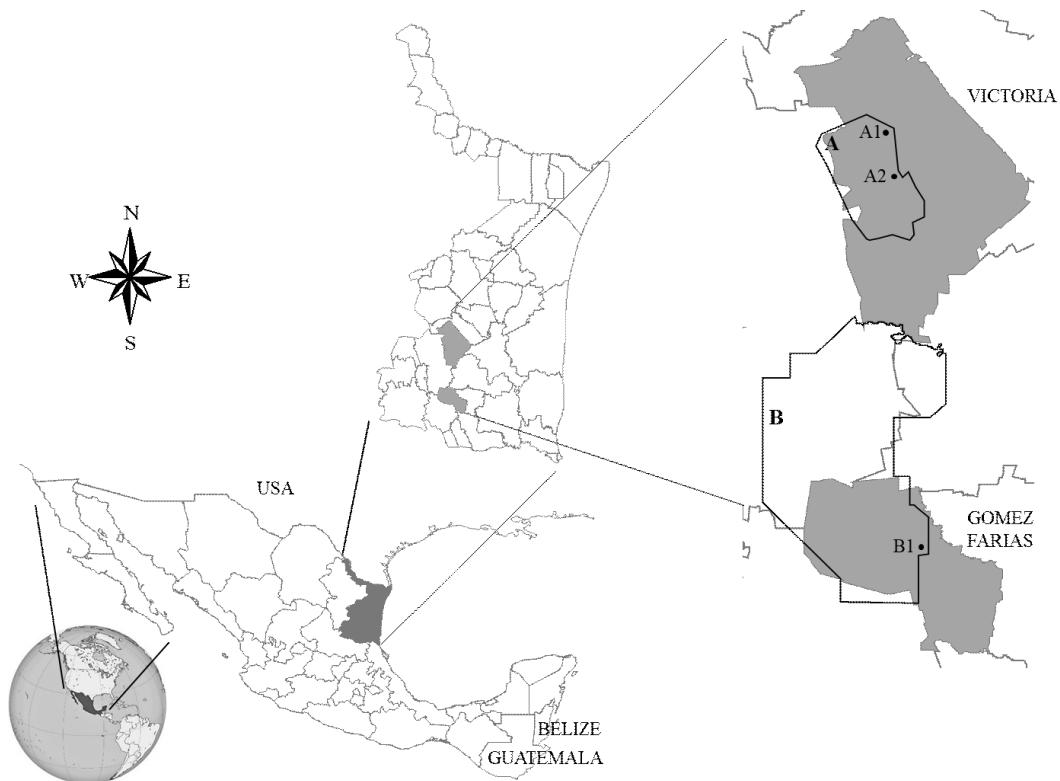


FIGURE 1. Sampling sites in Protected Natural Areas (PNA) in Tamaulipas. (A) PNA “Altas Cumbres”: (A1) Altas Cumbres and (A2) Cañón de la Peregrina; (B) “El Cielo” Biosphere Reserve: (B1) Ojo de Agua.

Sampling and mite extraction

The wild plants of chile piquín in natural conditions not present high densities of leaves (Ramírez-Novoa *et al.* 2018). On the other hand, at the time of the collect of the fruit of chile piquín by local inhabitants, they cut vegetative parts or the complete plant decreasing the amount of leaves (Villalón-Mendoza *et al.* 2016). Therefore, the number of wild plants of *C. annuum* var. *glabriuscum* was 22 ± 1 (average \pm SD) per site. Twenty-one random samples were carried out during ten months (February to November 2017) with intervals of 14 days between sampling, collecting 50 leaves per site per sampling. The samples were transported in “Ziploc” bags inside a dry ice cooler and submerged in a cooling gel at a temperature of $2 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$ to the Laboratory of Population Ecology of the Institute of Applied Ecology of Autonomous University of Tamaulipas. All mites were counted directly from the leaves using a digital counter and a stereomicroscope. All mites, except for the 10% of females of Tetranychidae, were mounted directly on Hoyer’s medium (Dhooria, 2016). The identification of specimens was performed to the species level using a phase contrast light microscope and the following identifications keys: André (1980), Baker & Tuttle (1987), Baker & Tuttle (1994), Chant & McMurtry (2007), Fan & Li (1992), Fan *et al.* (2016), Gerson *et al.* (1999), Hernandes *et al.* (2016), Krantz & Walter (2009), Meyer & Ueckermann (1987), Moraes *et al.* (2016), Rehman *et al.* (2018), Silva *et al.* (2016), Skvarla *et al.* (2014) and Ueckermann & Grout (2007). The identification was carried out at Laboratório de Acarologia of the Universidade do Vale do Taquari - Univates, Lajeado, Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil.

Biodiversity parameters

Abundance was determined using the sum of mites per leaf (50 leaves) per sample (21 samplings) and the following equation was used to calculate the proportion of mites on chile piquín peppers (Çobanoğlu & Kumral 2016):

$$P_i = \frac{S_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n S_i} \times 100$$

Where P_i is the proportion of the i^{th} species, n is the total species number, and S_i is the numbers of individuals of the i^{th} species.

To explain the proportion of mite species per feeding habits mites, the P_i values of all the species by feeding habit were summed. The feeding habits for phytophagous, generalist (fungivores, scavenger or feeders on plant exudates and pollen) and predatory (selective, generalist and specialist; see McMurtry *et al.* 2013) mite were established according to literature: Aguilar & Murillo 2012, Badii *et al.* 2001, Baker *et al.* 1987, Castro & Den Heyer 2009, Ehara & Ueckermann 2006, Estebanes-Gonzales & Rodriguez-Navarro 1991, Gerson *et al.* 1999, Hernandes *et al.* 2016, Kamran & Alatawi 2014, Leiva *et al.* 2013, Meyer & Ueckermann 1987, Moraes *et al.* 2004, Moraes *et al.* 2016, Silva *et al.* 2014 and Silva *et al.* 2017.

Mite biodiversity level on chile piquín per site and feeding habit was estimated using the Shannon index (H') (Magurran 2004):

$$H' = - \sum_{i=1}^S (p_i \ln p_i)$$

Where S is the total number of species in the community (richness), p_i is the proportion of S represented by the i^{th} species, and $\ln p_i$ is the natural logarithm of this proportion (Magurran 2004; Çobanoğlu & Kumral 2016).

The Jaccard index (I_j) was used to measure the degree of similarity between sites:

$$I_j = \frac{c}{a + b - c}$$

Where a is the number of species present at site A, b is the number of species at site B, and c is the number of species in both sites, A and B.

Data analysis

The *Jackknife* method was used to compare the Shannon index among sites and mite feeding habits (Friedl & Stampfer, 2014). First, H' was calculated for the original data, H'_{all} using equation 2. Second, one of the n samples (i^{th} sample, $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$; $n = 21$) was removed from the original dataset and the Shannon index (\hat{H}_i) was recalculated using the data from the remaining $n-1$ samples. The *Jackknife* pseudo-value (\tilde{H}_i) was calculated for this data subset using the following equation: $\tilde{H}_i = n \cdot H_{all} - (n - 1) \cdot \hat{H}_i$. This process was repeated until the pseudo-values were calculated for all n possible omissions of samples. The pseudo-values (\tilde{H}_i) were submitted to the *Kruskal-Wallis* test. Significant differences were analyzed using *Nemenyi* multiple comparison tests ($P < 0.05$). Significant for each Jaccard index was analyzed using *Chi-square* (X^2) tests ($P < 0.05$) (Zar 2010). Environmental variables and mite abundance were correlated using the Spearman method. The R Core Team software (2018) was used for all analysis.

Results

Biodiversity

A total of 47 mites species were identified associated with *C. annuum* L. var. *glabriusculum* (Table 1). The species with the highest proportion at the three sites were: *Aculops lycopersici* (Tryon), *Pseudopronematus sp.* 4 and *Tetranychus merganser* Boudreux, with 79.919%, 9.311%, and 5.142%, respectively (Table 1). Regarding feeding habits at the three sites (OA, AC, and CP), the highest abundances were observed for the phytophagous *A. lycopersici*, the predator *Pseudopronematus* sp. 4, and for the generalists *Tydeus munsteri* Meyer & Ryke (0.228%), *Tyrophagus* sp. (0.419%) and *Rhizoglyphus* sp. (0.560%).

TABLE 1. Abundance and feeding habit of mites associated to *Capsicum annuum* L. var *glabrisuculum* in two Protected Natural Areas of Tamaulipas, Mexico.

Family	Species	Mites abundance (%)				
		ANP		El Cielo		Altas Cumbres
		FH	OA	AC	CP	Total
Bdellidae	<i>Spinibdella</i> sp.	Pr	0.006		0.006	0.012
Cunaxidae	<i>Pulaeus</i> sp.	Pr	0.006			0.006
Triophydeidae	<i>Triophydeus immanis</i>	Pr	0.037	0.031	0.025	0.092
	<i>Brachytydeus formosa</i>	Ge		0.296	0.283	0.579
	<i>Brachytydeus tuttlei</i>	Ge		0.006	0.012	0.018
	<i>Neolorrya boycei</i>	Ge	0.012	0.086		0.099
Tydeidae	<i>Pseudolorrya nicaraguensis</i>	Ge		0.006	0.012	0.018
	<i>Tydeus kochi</i>	Ge		0.006		0.006
	<i>Tydeus mali</i>	Ge	0.006			0.006
	<i>Tydeus munsteri</i>	Ge	0.228	0.099		0.326
	<i>Pseudopronematus</i> sp. 1	Pr			0.018	0.018
	<i>Pseudopronematus</i> sp. 2	Pr	0.160	0.037	0.043	0.240
Iolinidae	<i>Pseudopronematus</i> sp. 3	Pr	0.018	0.086	0.043	0.148
	<i>Pseudopronematus</i> sp. 4	Pr	2.063	2.389	4.859	9.311
	<i>Pseudopronematus</i> sp. 5	Pr			0.018	0.018
Eriophyidae	<i>Aculops lycopersici</i>	Ph	21.467	29.829	28.622	79.919
Anystidae	<i>Walzia</i> sp.	Pr	0.031		0.006	0.037
	<i>Balaustioides</i> sp.	Pr		0.006		0.006
Erythraeidae	<i>Erythraeus</i> sp.	Pr			0.018	0.018
	<i>Leptus (Leptus)</i> sp.	Pr			0.012	0.012
Microtrombidiidae	sp.	Pr	0.012			0.012
	<i>Cheletogene waitei</i>	Pr		0.006		0.006
Cheyletidae	<i>Chiapacheylus</i> sp.	Pr			0.006	0.006
	<i>Cheletomimus dousetosus</i>	Pr	0.012		0.006	0.018

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TABLE 1.(Continued)

Family	Species	Mites abundance (%)			
		ANP FH	El Cielo OA	Altas Cumbres AC	Total CP
Stigmaeidae	<i>Agistemus</i> sp. nov. 1	Pr	0.080		0.080
	<i>Agistemus</i> sp. nov. 2	Pr		0.080	0.080
	<i>Gymnostigmaeus</i> sp.	Pr	0.006		0.006
Tenuipalpidae	<i>Brevipalpus physalis</i>	Ph		0.018	0.018
	<i>Brevipalpus aepi</i>	Ph		0.006	0.006
Tetranychidae	<i>Tetranychus merganser</i>	Ph	0.228	3.473	1.441
Tarsonemidae	<i>Hemitarsonemus</i> sp.	Ph		0.006	0.006
	<i>Tarsonemus (Tarsonomus)</i> sp.	Ge	0.012	0.117	0.333
	<i>Phytoseius mexicanus</i>	Pr		0.031	0.031
Phytoseiidae	<i>Phytoseius palidus</i>	Pr		0.012	0.012
	<i>Amblyseius similooides</i>	Pr	0.536		0.277
	<i>Amblyseius coffeeae</i>	Pr		0.018	0.018
	<i>Euseius mesembrinus</i>	Pr		0.055	0.068
	<i>Euseius</i> sp.	Pr		0.012	0.012
	<i>Metaseiulus (Metaseiulus) negundinuis</i>	Pr		0.985	0.018
	<i>Galendromus (Galendromus) annectens</i>	Pr			0.012
	<i>Typhlodromalus aripo</i>	Pr			0.006
	<i>Proprioseiopsis revertens</i>	Pr		0.006	0.006
Ascidae	<i>Asca quinta</i>	Pr	0.037		0.037
Blattisociidae	<i>Blattisocius</i> sp.	Pr		0.006	0.006
	<i>Rhizoglyphus</i> sp.	Ge	0.197		0.560
Acaridae	<i>Tyrophagus</i> sp.	Ge		0.419	0.419
	sp.	Ge		0.006	0.006

*Pr = predator; Ph = phytophagous and Ge = generalist (fungivores, scavengers or feeders on plant exudates and pollens) mites.

A total of 18 families of mites were found associated to *C. annuum* L. var. *glabriuscum*, distributed according to your feeding habits in 12 predators, 4 phytophagous and 3 generalists. The family Tarsonemidae presented two feeding habits: phytophagous (*Hemitarsonemus* sp.) and generalist (*Tarsonemus (Tarsonomus)* sp.). The highest richness related to feeding habits belong to the Phytoseiidae family (predators), with 10 species (2%), Tydeidae family (generalists), with 7 species (1%), and Tenuipalpidae family, with 2 species (phytophagous <1%). CP had the highest species richness, with 15% (29 species), as well as predators (20 species). On the other hand, the highest proportion of phytophagous mites was observed in AC, with 4 species (88%) and 8 generalists (3%).

Mite diversity did not differ among the three sites ($X^2 = 1.626$, gl = 2, P = 0.443) (Table 2). Regarding predators, phytophagous and generalist diversity was significantly different among sites ($X^2 = 52.862$, gl = 2, P = 3.319e⁻¹²; $X^2 = 8.671$, gl = 2, P = 0.013; $X^2 = 42.322$, gl = 2, P = 6.457e⁻¹⁰, respectively). Higher diversity of predatory mites ($H' = 0.65$) was observed in OA. Phytophagous diversity in OA, on the other hand, was significantly different from AC; however, mite diversity in the CP did not differ from the other sites. Generalist mite diversity was statistically equal (P > 0.05)

in AC and CP belonging to the same PNA "Altas Cumbres" and different in the "El Cielo" Biosphere Reserve.

Jaccard similarity indices between OA-AC, CP-AC and CP-OA were 0.257 ($X^2=0.568$, gl = 1, $P < 0.05$), 0.293 ($X^2=0.301$, gl = 1, $P < 0.05$) and 0.324 ($X^2=1.306$, gl = 1, $P < 0.05$), respectively. These findings indicate that there are no sites with zero similarity, which means that they share at least one species. (Table 2).

TABLE 2. Mite diversity on *Capsicum annuum* var. *glabriusculum* in Ojo de Agua, Altas Cumbres and Cañón de la Peregrina, Tamaulipas, Mexico.

Shannon Index (H')									
Feeding habit	Pr	Ph		Ge		Total			
Site		$H'^{\$}$	$H'^{\#} \pm SD$	$H'^{\$}$	$H'^{\#} \pm SD$	$H'^{\$}$	$H'^{\#} \pm SD$	$H'^{\$}$	$H'^{\#} \pm SD$
Ojo de Agua (OA)	0.38	0.65±0.08 ^A	0.18	0.58±0.21 ^a	0.09	1.69±0.02 ^X	0.65	1.09±0.14 ^x	
Altas Cumbres (AC)	0.32	0.54±0.04 ^C	0.41	0.63±0.12 ^b	0.14	0.25±0.03 ^Y	0.88	1.08±0.08 ^x	
Cañón de la Peregrina (CP)	0.38	0.61±0.04 ^B	0.32	0.47±0.15 ^{ab}	0.15	0.27±0.02 ^Y	0.86	1.11±0.06 ^x	
All Sites	0.39	0.64±0.03 ^H	0.33	0.50±0.16 ^I	0.15	0.25±0.04 ^I	0.86		
Jaccard Index (I_j)		OA-AC	χ^2_i	CP-OA	χ^2_i	AC-CP	χ^2_i		
			0.26	0.568*	0.32	1.306*	0.29	0.301*	

[§] Shannon index with complete data; [#] Shannon index and standard deviation using the Jackknife method. Indices with the same letter are not significantly different (Nemenyi test, $P \leq 0.05$); NS = not significant; significance code: * < 0.05 (Chi-square test, $P < 0.05$).

Mite abundance was correlated with environmental variables in CP ($P < 0.05$), but not in AC and OA. Regarding feeding habit, predator abundance showed a significant correlation with maximum, minimum and average temperatures. Evaporation was only correlated with phytophagous abundance. Generalist mites did not show any significant correlation with environmental variables (Table 3).

TABLE 3. Correlation between mite abundance and environmental variables.

Correlation		Ojo de Agua	Altas Cumbres	Cañón de la Peregrina	Predatory	Phytophagous	Generalists
Maximum temperature	x Abundance	-0.12 ^{NS}	0.21 ^{NS}	0.72*	0.57*	0.23 ^{NS}	0.09 ^{NS}
Minimum temperature	x Abundance	-0.20 ^{NS}	0.13 ^{NS}	0.74*	0.48*	0.20 ^{NS}	0.20 ^{NS}
Average temperature	x Abundance	-0.19 ^{NS}	0.20 ^{NS}	0.76*	0.54*	0.24 ^{NS}	0.14 ^{NS}
Ambient temperature	x Abundance	-0.18 ^{NS}	0.078 ^{NS}	0.68*	0.41 ^{NS}	0.13 ^{NS}	0.15 ^{NS}
Evaporation	x Abundance	-0.31 ^{NS}	0.35 ^{NS}	0.75*	0.41 ^{NS}	0.45*	-0.14 ^{NS}

NS = not significant; significance code: * < 0.05

Discussion

Mite density and diversity on wild populations of *C. annuum* var. *glabriusculum* were observed to be higher than in different varieties cultivated under greenhouse conditions (Çobanoğlu & Kumral,

2016) and diversity loss and species abundance were closely related to change in and use of ecosystems (Teodoro *et al.* 2009). Regarding feeding habits, *A. lycopersici* (phytophagous) and *Pseudupronemtulus* sp.4 (predator) had the highest abundance. These densities in phytophagous and predatory mites are mainly due to some iolinid mites on plants, which play an important role in trophic chains. This allows the regulation of *A. lycopersici* populations, and provides supplementary food to phytoseiid mites (Carmona 1970; Hessein & Perring 1986; Abou-Awad *et al.* 1999). The low proportion of mite species indicates they are possibly associated as alternative or occasional hosts (Castro & Moraes 2007; Nicholls 2008).

Among the most important factors that determine maximum diversity is elevation, geographical position and mountain orientation (Fischner *et al.* 2011). According to the general pattern of richness and abundance of mites, the number of species tends to decrease to a greater altitudinal gradient (Fischer & Schatz 2013; Hugo-Coetzee & Roux 2018). However, in this study the greatest diversity and abundance was obtained at the highest altitudes included in AC and CP belonging to the ANP "Altas Cumbres", also observed in oribatid mites (Oribatida), springtail (Artropoda: Collembola) and craneflies larvae (Insecta: Diptera: Tipulidae) (Coulson & Whittaker 1978; Hashemi *et al.* 2014; Hugo-Coetzee & Roux 2018). The high richness and abundance of species depends on a series of biotic and abiotic factors, where the adaptability to climate change and biology of the species makes it possible that the species of higher altitudes have the same representativeness the low altitudes (Hugo-Coetzee & Roux 2018). Observing how the environmental variables and the geography of the sites affect the abundance of predators, since they directly depend on the presence or absence of host plants that offer refuge, food and the ability to reproduce (Hodkinson 2005).

Abundance and species richness of the predatory families Bdellidae, Cheyletidae and Cunaxidae on chile piquín were not as high as in Phytoseiidae, which corroborates other studies on diversity in different ecosystems (land use types, agroforestry and semideciduous seasonal forest) (Teodoro *et al.* 2009; Maribie *et al.* 2011; Demite *et al.* 2013). This difference is believed to be due to the fact that these species are less active and are ambush predators in some cases (Muma 1975). Similar to our findings, Cruz *et al.* (2013) and Singh & Chauhan (2014) found that generalist predators of the Phytoseiidae family are more abundant in stable ecosystems and have higher diversity compared to other Mesostigmata groups. Eight generalist predatory species and two specialists were recorded. PNA provide a wide variety of food, such as phytophagous mites, pollen and insects, reflecting the level of ecosystem conservation and their stability in face of anthropogenic disturbance (McMurtry 1992; McMurtry & Croft 1997; Maleque *et al.* 2006), and each species has specific climatic adaptations, which allows them to better adapt to their habitats (Knop & Hoy 1983; James & Taylor 1992).

The three sites did not share the same species number; therefore, the similarity *Jaccard* index among sites was low. This is mainly because each site has a different mite species richness, which in turn is associated with the type of vegetation and climate. However, a higher predatory mite diversity was observed than phytophagous and generalist mite diversity at all sites. The highest number of mites was recorded in the group of generalist predators, since they are not directly associated with the host plant, and depend on resources that the plant can provide to a greater extent, such as the variety of prey and supplementary food "pollen" (Gardiner *et al.* 2009; Cruz *et al.* 2013; McMurtry *et al.* 2013; Araújo & Daus 2018). As opposed to phytophagous mites, they are usually highly specific (Saito 2010), e.g. *A. lycopersici* and *T. merganser*. The latter and *T. hydrangea* Pritchard & Baker have been reported in cultivated varieties of *C. annuum* at México (Estebanes-Gonzales & Rodriguez-Navarro 1991). Mite behavior and richness at three sites suggest that flora diversity in PNA directly affect mite community structure (Root 1973; Welti *et al.* 2017).

Environmental variables were correlated with mite abundance in CP and with predatory mites. Among environmental factors, temperature directly and crucially affects vital processes for mite

survival, development and movement (Skirvin & Fenlon 2003; Mirhosseini *et al.* 2017). The threshold between maximum, minimum temperatures and optimal temperature should be considered in the biological performance of predators, since, any change in temperature within a specific range results in a proportional increase or decrease in rate of any life process (Roy *et al.* 2002; Al-Shammary 2011). On the other hand, ambient temperature was not correlated with mite abundance in OA and AC, possibly because leaf temperature can vary considerably according to temperature in the environment and is slightly cooler due to evapotranspiration. Therefore, temperature should not be considered due to the effect of moisture on small arthropods such as mites (Ferro & Southwick 1984; Weintraub *et al.* 2007). Spearman's method indicated that evaporation plays an important role in the abundance of phytophagous mites. Evaporation increases phytophagous mite populations when plants undergo water stress (Van Leeuwen *et al.* 2010).

The presence of domatia and trichomes was observed in leaves of *C. annuum* var. *glabriusculum* in the axillary bud of the midrib on the abaxial side of the leaf, which provides shelter and suitable microhabitats (Walter 1996; Situngu & Barker 2017) for families Cheyletidae, Cunaxidae, Tydeidae, Iolinidae, Triophydeidae, Stigmacidae, Phytoseiidae, Ascidae and Acaridae. Leaf structure possibly helps to increase mite species richness in chile piquín, unlike species abundance of *Phytoseius mexicanus* De Leon and *P. paludis* De Leon, which was low. These two species are mainly confined to pubescent leaves, a characteristic that does not occur on leaves of chile piquín (Walter 1996). Plant morphology, as well as its phenotypic variability among populations, serves as hosts for predators in management strategies and conservation of natural enemies (Halaj *et al.* 2000; Schmidt 2014).

In this study, 14 new records are reported in Mexico: *Balaustoides* sp., Microtrombidiidae, *Brachytydeus mali* Oudemans, *B. tuttlei* Baker, *Pseudolorrya nicaraguensis* Baker, *Tydeus kochi* Oudemans, *T. munsteri* Meyer & Ryke, *Cheletogenes waitei* Gerson, *Gymnostigmaeus* sp., *Hemitarsonemus* sp., *Pseudopronematulus* spp., *Triophydeus immanis* Kuznetzov, *Walzia* sp. and *Proprioseiopsis revertens* Zack. Our results recognize the importance of preserving plant species that serve as a reservoir and directly affect mite fauna hosts, allowing for a large network of trophic interactions. The large number of mite species associated to chile piquín suggests stability in PNA despite anthropogenic activities. Therefore, Protected Natural Areas shelter a high predatory mite diversity and the use of natural resources such as chile piquín and other species of ecological importance can be considered in conservation programs.

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