

1 Article

2 High morphological differentiation in crown 3 architecture is weakly reflected in the population 4 genetic structure of German Norway spruce stands

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22 **Abstract:** High elevation sites in the low mountain ranges in Germany are naturally covered by
23 Norway spruce (*Picea abies* [Karst.] L.) stands. Historically, large scale anthropogenic range
24 expansion starting in the mid to late 18th century had a huge impact on the forest composition
25 throughout Germany. Utilisation and exploitation often led to artificial regeneration, mostly carried
26 out using seeds from allochthonous provenances. Usually autochthonous high elevation Norway
27 spruce trees have narrow crown phenotypes, whereas lowland trees have broader crowns. Narrow
28 crown phenotypes are likely due to the adaptation to heavy snow loads combined with high wind
29 speeds. In the present study, neighbouring stand pairs of putative autochthonous and
30 allochthonous origin with contrasting phenotypes in high elevation sites were investigated with 200
31 samples each. These stands are located in the Ore Mountains, the Thuringian Forest, and the Harz
32 Mountains. Additionally, a relict population with the typical narrow high elevation phenotypes was
33 sampled in Thuringia, known as “Schlossbergfichte”. The objective of the study was to quantify
34 supposedly adaptive phenotypic differences in crown architecture and the genetic differentiation at
35 eleven putatively neutral nuclear microsatellite markers or simple sequence repeats (nSSRs). The
36 high differentiation at morphological traits ($P_{ST} = 0.952\text{--}0.989$) between the neighbouring
37 autochthonous and allochthonous stands of similar age contrasts with the very low neutral genetic
38 differentiation ($F_{ST} = 0.002\text{--}0.007$; $G'_{ST} = 0.002\text{--}0.030$), suggesting that directional selection at adaptive
39 gene loci was involved in phenotypic differentiation. Comparing the regions, a small isolation by
40 distance effect for the Harz mountains was detected, suggesting landscape resistance restricting
41 gene flow. Finally, the differentiation of the very old autochthonous (up to 250 years) stand
42 “Schlossbergfichte” with typical high elevation phenotypes could cohere with the sampling of a
43 relict genepool.

44 **Keywords:** *Picea abies*, microsatellites, crown architecture, morphology, phenotypic adaptation,
45 genetic differentiation

46

47 1. Introduction

48 Genetic variation at neutral genetic markers across the distribution range of Norway Spruce
49 (*Picea abies* [Karst.] L.) is very high, but genetic differentiation is usually relatively low [1,2] and
50 contrasts with the high phenotypic differentiation of crown architecture between low and high
51 elevation varieties [3–5]. Autochthonous high elevation stands are characterised by narrow crowned
52 individuals as a result of potential adaptation to heavy snow loads, while in allochthonous stands of
53 the same region broad crown shapes are prevailing. High differentiation at phenotypic traits between
54 neighbouring stands in the same environment but low differentiation at randomly selected
55 selectively neutral markers would suggest directional selection on genes related to these phenotypic
56 traits [6], which are crown architecture traits in our study.

57 Norway spruce is one of the economically most important tree species in Germany and has been
58 widely planted since the late 18th century [7]. However, some autochthonous stands are still present
59 in the low mountain ranges at higher elevations. One of these rare stands is located in Thuringia
60 known as “Schlossbergfichte”. This stand is characterised by very old native trees (up to 250 years)
61 with typical narrow crown phenotypes, whereas trees of neighbouring allochthonous stands mostly
62 show the broad low elevation phenotypes.

63 Before extensive translocation of seeding material occurred [8], variation in crown phenotypes
64 and typical narrow crown phenotypes were described in natural spruce stands from northern
65 latitudes [9,10]. Crown characteristics are crucial for the resistance to snow breakage and high wind
66 speeds [11]. Hence, trees with a narrow crown shape are considered to be more adapted to climatic
67 conditions in high elevations or regions with high snow loads [7,12–14]. This assumption is also
68 supported by the finding of higher frequencies of narrow crowned trees in areas with high snow
69 break hazard [15]. Additionally, crown architecture is associated with temperature, altitude and
70 precipitation [13], and a relation to temperature and elevation gradient had previously been reported
71 [4,7]. Finally, trees with high elevation phenotypes showed a higher frost hardiness than low
72 elevation phenotypes, while both “morphotypes” had sufficient frost tolerance to prevent late frost
73 damage [16].

74 Sylvén [17] was one of the first who suggested that variation in crown shapes is heritable. The
75 occurrence of neighbouring autochthonous and allochthonous stands with different crown shapes is
76 a further indication of heritability of crown shapes. However, heritability estimates are not available
77 from experimental trials. Kiellander [18] refers to a crossing experiment in Sweden 1942 and points
78 to the heritability of crown architecture. In a formal way, inheritance of crown architecture was only
79 assessed for the pendulous variety of Norway spruce (*Picea abies* f. *pendula*). Segregation ratios in open
80 pollinated progenies suggested the control by a single or by a few dominant genes [19] and linkage
81 to a RAPD (random amplified polymorphic DNA) marker [20].

82 Even though genetic differentiation across the species range is low, historical migration patterns
83 can be reconstructed using neutral genetic markers and other evidence such as pollen data. Pollen
84 data suggest that the first larger populations in the Holocene occurred within present day Germany
85 in the Alps around 9-8 Ka BP [21]. Macrofossils and pollen give evidence for several potential refugia
86 during the last glacial maximum, some of which had no contribution to the recolonization history,
87 such as the Massif Central (France) or the Moldavian lowlands refugia [22]. Concurrently, different
88 refugia are proposed as source of re-immigration, as *P. abies* can be divided in two main (Baltico
89 Nordic and Alpine Central Europe) and one minor (Carpathian) domain [2,23–27]. Combined
90 analysis from mtDNA (mitochondrial DNA) and pollen data reveal a more detailed view that suggest
91 at least seven refugia from which recolonization occurred [28]. Despite this distinction even on larger
92 geographical scales of several hundred kilometres the level of inter-population differentiation at
93 nuclear markers remains relatively low, which is likely caused by high rates of pollen mediated gene
94 flow [29–32].

95 Genetic and morphological analyses of neighbouring Norway Spruce populations which are
96 morphologically differentiated in their crown architecture at the same altitudinal level are rare. The
97 study by Greger [33] is the only example for an investigation of a possible link between crown
98 morphology and genetic variation. More common are studies comparing stands or individuals along

99 altitudinal transects, characterising them, if at all, only on the stand level. Results from different
100 sources showed no consistent pattern of genetic variation between low and high elevation stands.
101 For example, Maghuly et al. [34] found a higher genetic diversity in high elevation type populations
102 than in allochthonous middle and low elevation populations at nuclear microsatellites and
103 mitochondrial markers. The authors further found higher expected heterozygosity in older stands
104 than in younger stands at the nuclear simple sequence repeats (nSSR). However, other studies
105 indicate no relationship between altitude and diversity [30] or the highest diversity in populations
106 from intermediate elevations [35].

107 For the first time we identified neighboring populations with different crown architectures in
108 the same high elevation environment located in three regions of the low mountain range in Germany.

109 Our objectives were to quantify phenotypic differences in crown architecture and genetic
110 differentiation at nSSR markers between these neighbouring populations.

111 We addressed the following hypotheses:

112 1. High phenotypic differentiation (P_{ST}) between neighbouring autochthonous and
113 allochthonous stands contrasts with low genetic differentiation at random neutral markers as
114 signature of local adaptation.

115 2. The genetic structure of the stands is correlated to their phenotypic variation. This could only
116 be expected if adaptive processes shaped the genetic structures significantly, and our neutral genetic
117 markers are by chance linked to adaptive loci.

118 3. The genetic structure of the stands is correlated to their geographic location. This could be
119 expected, if genetic structures are mainly affected by natural or artificial distribution of genetic
120 information in space. Naturally, for example, such genetic structures can result from isolation by
121 distance (IBD). Artificially, such pattern can result, if material of regionally different seed sources
122 was planted.

123 Our results will be discussed with regard to the human influence on genetic structures and the
124 phenotypic variation of *P. abies*.

125 2. Materials and Methods

126 *Study sites and sampling*

127 A total of 1325 adult trees were sampled in seven stands growing in altitudes from 770 to 1060
128 m a.s.l. Selected stands are located in the low mountain ranges of the Thuringian Forest, the Ore
129 Mountains (Saxony) and the Harz Mountains (Lower-Saxony/Saxony-Anhalt), all being part of the
130 Central German Uplands (Figure S1, a-d). In each region, two neighbouring stands were sampled,
131 which represent two groups with different morphological characteristics of Norway spruce. The first
132 group consists of narrow crowned mountain spruce phenotypes (high elevation type, HE) and the
133 second group comprises lowland phenotypes with typical broad crowns (low elevation type, LE). In
134 each stand terminal branches from 200 individual adult trees were collected between June and
135 August 2016. We sampled all upper layer trees, starting from one edge of the stand, until 200 samples
136 were collected. In addition, as a typical high elevation narrow crowned spruce stand, the relict
137 population “Schlossbergfichte” near Oberhof, Thuringia was included with 75 individuals
138 representing nearly the complete stock of old adult trees in this stand. All stands are growing under
139 similar climatic conditions, namely mean temperature, length of the vegetation period, snow cover
140 days and wind speed (Table 1.) Stands will be abbreviated as LE (low elevation type stand) or HE
141 (high elevation type) for the major phenotypic groups followed with an underscore and the location
142 Thy (Thuringian Forest), S (Ore mountains/ Saxony) or H (Harz).

143 Table 1: Climatological and stand specific data

Stand	N	Age of upper story trees	Mean multi annual air temp 1981-2010 (°C)	Mean vegetation period 1992-2015 (days)	Mean snow cover days 1981-2010 (days)	annual mean precipitation 1981-2010 (mm)	Mean wind in 20m a.g.l. m/s 1981-2000	Elevation range of sampled individuals (m a.s.l)
LE_Harz	200	180	4.7	181.0	141.5	1668.5	56	889-915
HE_Harz	250	300*	3.9	177.0	158.0	1793.0	79	1036-1065
LE_Sa	200	162	5.2	184.0	127.0	1210.0	55.5	972-1009
HE_Sa	200	142	4.9	182.0	136.0	1255.0	58	988-1014
LE_Thy	200	90	5.7	190.0	122.0	1331.0	57	899-912
HE_Thy	200	151	6.3	195.5	100.5	1211.0	39	761-776
Schlossbergfichte	75	250*	5.8	191.0	116.0	1331.0	50	818-840
Mean			5.2	185.8	128.7	1399.9	56.4	921

144 Le: Low elevation type; HE: high elevation type; Sa: Ore Mountains, Saxony; Thy: Thuringia. Values for
 145 climatological parameters were taken from extrapolated 1x1 km grid maps of the long-term average
 146 measurements [36–41]. For individuals falling in different grids the mean of these grid values is given and used
 147 for calculation of the total mean. The mean vegetation period is calculated from the grid values of the mean end-
 148 date minus the mean starting-date of the vegetation period (both are presented in days from New Year).
 149 Elevation data were taken from the GPS data and stand age according to information given by the forestry
 150 officials. *The age of the “Schlossbergfichte” population is based on the oldest trees and the age of the HE_Harz
 151 population is based on the oldest trees of equivalent stands at Mt. Broken [42].

152 *Phenotypic assessment*

153 During the collection of needle material, visual assessment of each tree for crown architectural
 154 characteristics was carried out. The spectrum of possible trait expressions was subdivided in three
 155 categories, representing the high elevation phenotype, an intermediate phenotype and the low
 156 elevation phenotype (Table 2) following Gruber [5]. Additional crown breakage and the occurrence
 157 of forking was noted. Breakage of the main stem was noted irrespective of the number of breakage
 158 points. Forking was diagnosed when more than one secondary stem replaced the lost apical shoot.

159 Table 2: The assessed phenotypic traits and phenotypes associated with elevation.

Trait	Mountainous phenotype	Intermediate phenotype	Lowland phenotype
overall crown architecture; structural appearance	narrow shaped crown	equivocal / intermediate shape	broad shape
angle of the first order branches	clearly downwards facing branches, stem and branches	no clear branch orientation up- or downwards	straight and upwards facing branches, all angles between stem and branches right or obtuse
branching pattern of the second order branches	plate or plate brush like	brush like	comb or comb brush like

160 The traits were scored in three categories which were summarizations of the categories used by various authors
 161 [4,7,12,13].

162

163 *Marker analysis*

164 All individuals were genotyped at 7 genomic SSRs and 4 expressed sequenced tag SSRs or EST-
 165 SSRs (Table 3). Additional information on potential gene functions of the EST-SSRs is provided in
 166 Table 4. A total of 46 unlabelled primer pairs were tested for amplification, including SSRs developed
 167 for *Picea abies* and SSRs adapted from other *Picea* species [43–50]. Further requirements for marker
 168 selection were the absence of null alleles in earlier studies [51,52] and the location in different linkage
 169 groups of *P. abies* [23,53,54]. A total of 24 primer pairs generated distinct amplification products in
 170 the expected size range and were used for PCR with fluorescent labelled forward primers. Eleven
 171 primer pairs that generated single-locus and polymorphic products were finally selected for the
 172 population analysis.

173 Table 3: Details on the SSR markers used for genotyping

SSR	Size min (bp)	Size max (bp)	Dye label and the PCR primer sequences (5'-3')	Repeat motif	Primer reference
<i>EATC1B2</i> ^a	197	219	F: FAM-TGGCATGAGATTTATGTGGTT R: GTGTGCCACTCAACCTCAC	(ATC) ₇ (AT) ₃	[44]
<i>EATC1D2</i> ^a	180	236	F: FAM-TTGTCATCGTCGTCATIGTC R: TTTAGCCTCTGTTTCTAGCG	(ATC) ₃ AT(ATC) ₆	[44]
<i>EATC1E03</i> ^a	130	175	F: FAM-CCCCTTATTCCTAACGTCAAA R: TACCAGTGGTGACAACGATG	(CAT) ₄ CGT(CAT) ₈ CGT- (CAT) ₄ CGT(CT) ₄ CGT(CAT) ₄	[44]
<i>EATC2G05</i> ^a	193	254	F: HEX-TGGAGCATGGGTAAATCG R: TACCTCACACCCGTGAGAAT	(AAT) ₅ (CAT) ₁₆ CAA(CAT) ₄	[44]
<i>PaGB3</i> ^b	109	150	F: FAM-AGTGATTAACCTCTGACCAC R: CACTGAATACACCCATTATCC	(AT) ₁₁	[50]
<i>PaGB8</i> ^b	95	203	F: FAM-AGCATGTACAAAATGAAGATTCTC R: CCCTTTAGTGTCTCTCTTCTAC	(AC) ₁₂	[50]
<i>SpAG2</i> ^a	88	122	F: FAM-GCTCTTCACGTGTACTTGATC R: TTCGAAGATCCTCCAAGATAC	(TC) ₁₆	[47]
<i>SpAGC1</i> ^a	71	121	F: HEX-TTCACCTTAGCCGAGAACC R: CACTGGAGATCTTCGTTCTGA	(TC) ₅ TT(TC) ₁₀	[47]
<i>SpAGG3</i> ^a	109	149	F: HEX-AGCATGTTGTCATATAGACC R: CTCCAACATTCCCATGTAGC	(GA) ₂₄	[47]
<i>WS00016.O09</i> ^b	386	402	F: HEX-CTTTGGGGGCTAGCAAGTTT R: ATTGGGGCTTCATAGCACAA	(AT) ₉	[45]
<i>WS00111.K13</i> ^b	212	272	F: HEX-GACTGAAGATGCCGATATGC R: GGCCATATCATCTCAAAAATAAAGAA	(AT) ₉	[45]

174 ^a gSSRs, ^b EST-SSRs.

175

176 Table 4: Annotation of the four EST-sequences with SSRs (EST-SSRs) used in this study [45,50]

EST-SSR	GenBank accession no.	Annotation	Location of SSR in the EST
<i>PaGB3</i>	AJ133748	<i>P. abies</i> mRNA for major intrinsic protein (aquaporin)	3' UTR
<i>PaGB8</i>	AF100429	<i>P. abies</i> clone PA12H2 repetitive DNA sequence	
WS00016.O09*	CN480894	NP 197764—expressed protein (<i>A. thaliana</i>)	3'UTR
WS00111.K13*	CN480897	BAB86071—putative beta-glucosidase (<i>O. sativa</i> [japonica cultivar-group])	3'UTR

177 *Based on BLAST [55] search.

178 *DNA extraction*

179 From each sample tree approximately 50 mg fresh needle tissue was cut into small pieces, frozen
 180 in liquid nitrogen and ground in a MM300 ball mill (Retsch, Haan, Germany) for 2 min at 30 Hz. For
 181 the extraction of total DNA we used the DNeasy™ 96 Plant Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) according
 182 to the manufacturer's protocol with the minor modification of adding 5 ml of 26 %
 183 polyphenylpyrovat solution to the 90.5 ml lysis buffer. Initial DNA concentration was measured
 184 using a NanoDrop™ 2000 spectrophotometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Madison, USA.).

185 All PCR reactions were performed in 14 µl total volume, containing 1 µl of 1:10 diluted DNA
 186 (ca. 20ng). The PCR mix contained 1X reaction buffer B (Solis BioDyne, Tartu, Estonia), 2.68 mM
 187 MgCl₂, 178.57 µM for each dNTP and one unit of HOT FIREPol® (Solis BioDyne, Tartu, Estonia) *Taq*
 188 polymerase. Each forward and reverse primer was added in a concentration given in Table S1.

189 The reaction started with an initial incubation for 15 min at 95°C, 10 touch-down cycles of
 190 denaturation at 94°C followed by annealing at 60°C (Δ-1°C) and extension at 72°C each for 1 min, 25
 191 cycles at 94°C, 50°C and 72°C with each temperature level kept for 1 min, final extension at 72°C for
 192 20 min. All reactions were run in a Biometra TProfessional Basic thermocycler (Analytic Jena AG,
 193 Jena, Germany). Microsatellite fragments were separated on an ABI™ 3130xl Genetic Analyzer
 194 (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, USA) with the size standard GeneScan™500 ROX™ as reference
 195 (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, USA). Peak calling was done in the GeneMapper™ v4.1 software
 196 (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, USA).

197 *Statistical analysis*

198 To assess differentiation and structuring at phenotypic traits and to compare the results with the
 199 genetic data we used comparable multivariate analyses.

200 *Phenotypic variation*

201 The commonly used genetic differentiation measure G_{ST} has its analogy in Q_{ST} to characterize
 202 the among population genetic variance exhibited by quantitative traits [56]. In case the among
 203 population additive genetic component of variance is unknown, Q_{ST} can be estimated based on the
 204 phenotypic data. This estimate of phenotypic differentiation among populations (P_{ST}) is reliant on the
 205 scaling parameters c (the proportion of total variance explained by the additive effect) and h^2 (narrow
 206 sense heritability) [57,58]. Usually, no prior knowledge of c/h^2 exists, and since this ratio can also vary
 207 across population pairs, robustness of the estimated P_{ST} on this ratio should be evaluated [58]. We
 208 calculated P_{ST} on the phenotypic data and evaluated its robustness with the Pstat-package [59] in R
 209 [60].

210 Additionally, we used discriminant analysis (DA) of principal components (PCs) to analyse the
211 phenotypic dataset. In contrast to principal component analysis (PCA), where the PCs are optimised
212 for the maximal represented total variance, DAPC (Discriminate Analysis of Principal Components)
213 maximises the between group variance while minimizing within group variance [61]. To choose the
214 number of retained PCs we ran a stratified cross-validation step with 5000 replications, and the
215 number of used discriminant functions (DFs) was fixed to 2, as these always had much higher
216 eigenvalues (EVs) than the remaining DFs. Two PCs were chosen as these had the lowest mean
217 squared error, the highest number of correctly assigned individuals of the subsample and explained
218 58.1% of the variance. To test for significance of group separation a multivariate analysis of variance
219 (MANOVA) on the retained PCs was performed, where the independent variables, contrary to DA,
220 are the population groups. Finally, a classical PCA and a spatial principal component analysis
221 (sPCA), as described below, were calculated.

222 Genetic variation - Microsatellite analyses

223 Allele binning was done using a custom R [60] script. Histograms of raw peak size data per locus
224 were plotted with fine scale breakpoints and the binning limits of each allele per locus were manually
225 defined. Then, we double checked the allele sizing further, and, if necessary, corrected allele sizes to
226 make them consistent and reliable.

227 The Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium (HWE) was tested using the exact test proposed by Engels
228 [62] and implemented in the R package “HWxtest” [63].

229 Linkage disequilibrium (LD) was assessed as the standardized index of association \bar{r}_d [64] in a
230 pairwise loci comparison for each stand. Occurrence of significance of the LD values in each stand
231 was evaluated by 10000 permutations using the “poppr” program [65] in the R package.

232 Null allele frequencies were estimated by the expectation maximisation (EM) algorithm [66] in
233 the joint maximum likelihood (ML) estimation implementation in genepop [67]. Additionally, the ML
234 method in ML-Nullfreq [68] was used. Averaging these results should improve the estimate, and
235 applying a frequency threshold of $\geq 5\%$ for reporting can further reduce false positives [69].
236 Nevertheless, occurrence of null alleles does not hinder usage of affected markers, as conclusions
237 drawn from assignment analyses or F_{ST} based estimates are unlikely to be influenced by the presence
238 of null alleles [70].

239 Expected (H_e) and observed (H_o) heterozygosity, fixation index (F_{IS}) and its p -values were
240 calculated using Arlequin 3.5.2.2 [71]. Pairwise F_{ST} , G'_{ST} and corresponding p -values based on 10000
241 permutations were calculated using GenAlEx 6.5 [72]. For mean number of alleles per locus (A), mean
242 allelic richness after rarefaction (A_r) and the number of private allelic states within populations were
243 calculated using the “hierfstat” [73] and “poppr” [65] R-packages. In order to test for differences in
244 diversity between stands, regions and between high and low elevation stands linear mixed models
245 accounting for differences in diversity between loci based on the refracted allelic richness were
246 calculated with the R-package “lme4” [74].

247 We assumed that all SSR loci are selectively neutral and checked this assumption with Lositan
248 [75], Arlequin 3.5.2.2 [71] and BayeScan 2.1 [76]. We used the recommended workflow in Lositan by
249 first estimating the neutral F_{ST} value (0.003674) using the random nuclear SSRs, and then running the
250 analysis including the EST-SSRs with the stepwise mutation model and 50,000 replications. In
251 Arlequin 50,000 simulations of 100 demes per group were run with the finite island model also based
252 on F_{ST} . The default parameters were used to run the Markov chain Monte Carlo simulations
253 implemented in BayeScan 2.1.

254 Hierarchical Analysis of Molecular Variance (AMOVA) [77] was performed in Arlequin 3.5.2.2
255 [71] to partition variance between regions, stands and stand types. The hierarchical structure of the

256 dataset was described as the region in which the stands grow, the population/stand itself and the
257 single individuals. Alternatively, the stand classification as HE or LE stand was used as highest
258 hierarchical level, to compare if this grouping explains more variation than the grouping by regions.
259 The within and between group variance was tested for significance using 5000 permutations.

260 To study relatedness of the populations in the light of hypothetical gene flow we applied the
261 approach of Sundqvist et al. [78] that projects the populations on a relative migration network. This
262 method estimates direction and rate of migration based on either G_{ST} [79], D [80,81] or Nm_{Alcala} [82].
263 We used G_{ST} , as it was shown to perform best in most scenarios [78], and further tested for significant
264 directional migration by 10000 permutations in the “diveRsity”- R-package [83].

265 To study structuring of individuals at the SSR markers accounting for spatial autocorrelation we
266 used sPCA [84] that optimizes the product of the variance and the spatial autocorrelation measured
267 by Moran’s I [85,86]. Global or local structures with positive or negative autocorrelation are indicated
268 by positive or negative EVs. To test whether global or local structures are significantly different from
269 the null hypothesis of alleles being randomly distributed across space, the estimated distribution of
270 the EVs via Monte Carlo (MC) sampling was used. This test has higher statistical power than the
271 previously suggested method based on R^2 [84,87]. We calculated the sPCA and the test procedure as
272 implemented in the R-package “adegenet” [88,89]. Spatial distribution was described by spatial
273 weights that are directly proportional to the inverse of the geographic distance matrix. The EV-MC
274 test for local and global structure was run 10^3 times. As with the phenotypic traits we calculated the
275 alternatives PCA and DAPC.

276 Finally, to determine if the sampled individuals can be grouped into different genetic clusters
277 (K) the program STRUCTURE [90] was used. Admixture proportions were estimated for $K = 1$ to 12
278 clusters with 15 replicated iterations for each cluster run with 10000 burn-in and 50000 following
279 iterations. The ancestry model considering admixed individuals was chosen. Sample location
280 information was considered as prior known for the model and both the degree of admixture α
281 and the parameter λ for the distribution of allele frequencies were set to be estimated from the
282 data. Further, the model considers allele frequencies between populations to be correlated, as the
283 result may give more accurate estimates of admixture, produces more detailed clustering results and
284 gives the same results as independent models in the absence of correlation [91,92]. Averaging
285 different runs for the same K was done in CLUMPAK [93] with the default settings. The runs for each
286 K were summarised according to a similarity score. If different runs pass a certain threshold value in
287 the comparison, they are included in the major model, which is a summary of the majority of the
288 runs, or in one or more minor models depending on their similarity. Methods based on DeltaK [94]
289 and on the log-likelihood probability of K [90] were used to help choosing the most likely number of
290 clusters (K).

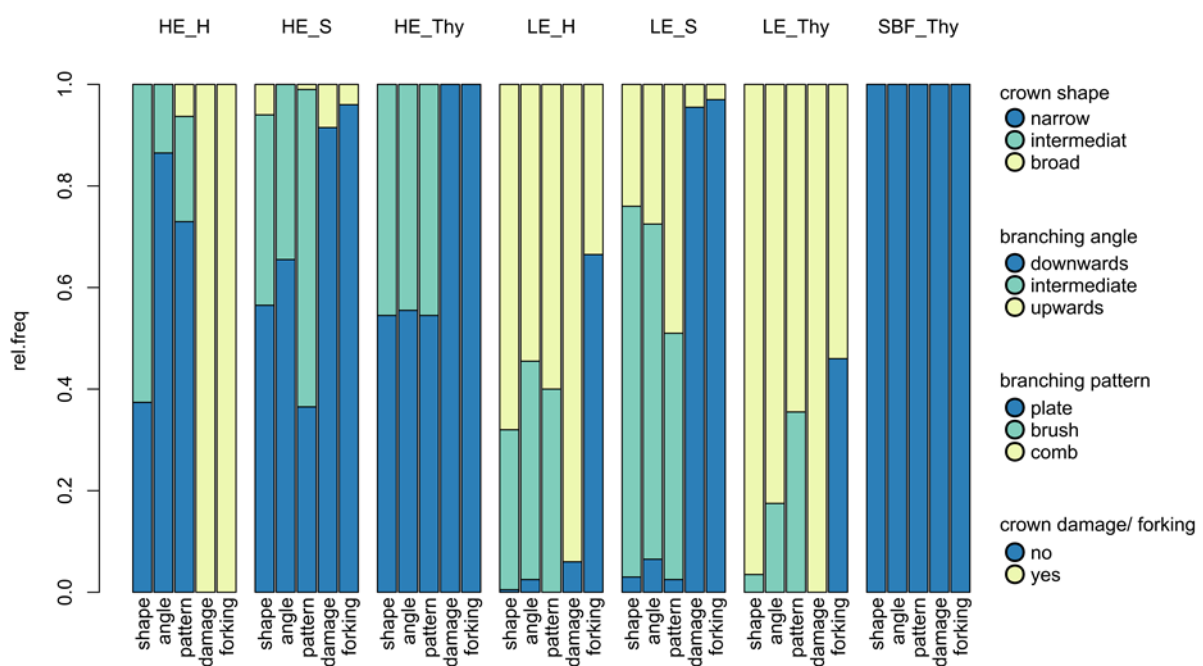
291 3. Results

292 *Phenotypic differentiation between low and high elevation types*

293 A clear difference in the phenotypic traits was found between the selected high and low
294 elevation type stands. The overall crown shape, angle and the branching pattern are strongly
295 correlated (Pearson correlation 0.64-0.76), due to the dependence of the crown appearance on the
296 angle and pattern of the branches. The relative frequencies of the traits in each stand are presented in
297 Figure 1 (values are also provided in Table S2). In the relict stand “Schlossbergfichte” from Thuringia
298 all trees expressed the high elevation type according to the assessed traits, and no crown damage and
299 forking were detected. High elevation characteristics were also found in more than half of the
300 observed trees (~55%) in the potential autochthonous HE-Thy stand, and no damage and forking
301 occurred. The neighbouring low elevation type stand was predominantly comprised of lowland
302 crown shapes (96.5%) with all trees being damaged. In the Harz Mountains the high elevation stand
303 was comprised of 37% narrow crowned individuals, but most trees showed intermediate (62.6%)

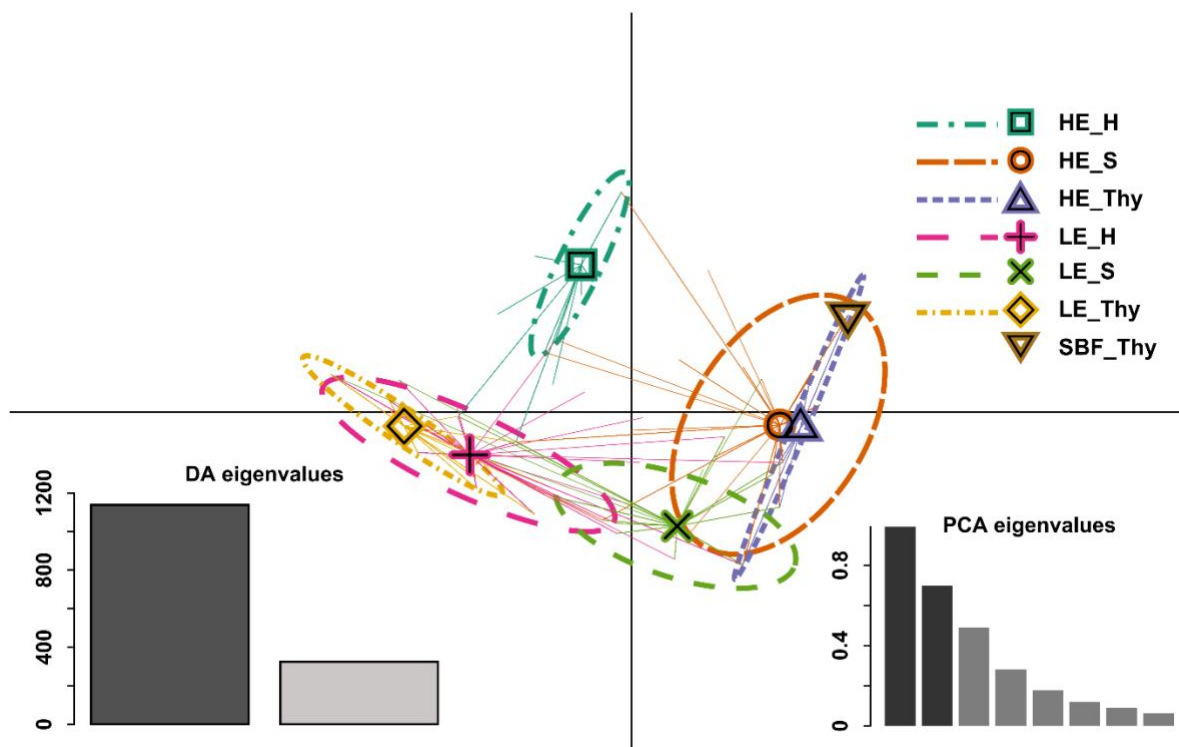
304 crown shape. Varying branching patterns were also observed there, and all trees were damaged. In
 305 the neighbouring low elevation type stand most trees had broad (68%) or intermediate (31.5%)
 306 crowns, and most of them showed crown breakage (94%). In Saxony the trees in the high elevation
 307 type stand were of narrow crowned (56.5%) or intermediate (37.5%) character with few trees showing
 308 sights of breakage (8.5%). Intermediate crown type (73%) and branching pattern (66%) were typical
 309 for the low elevation type stand in Saxony, where also only few trees were damaged (4.5%).
 310 Accordingly, the divergence for phenotypic traits (P_{ST}) showed high between group variance
 311 compared to within group variance, as the crown shape traits as well as the damage traits had P_{ST}
 312 value of 0.952 to 0.989 for $c/h^2 = 1$. Only a weak effect of varying ratios of c/h^2 could be noted. Even
 313 for low $c/h^2 \geq 0.1$ ratios the P_{ST} value was above or near 0.95 (forking occurrence and branching pattern
 314 with P_{ST} values of 0.945 and 0.936 for $c/h^2 = 0.1$, Figure S2).

315



316 Figure 1: Relative frequencies of the assessed phenotypic traits (overall crown shape, angel of the first
 317 order branches, second order branching pattern, occurrence of crown damage and occurrence of
 318 forking) in the studied stands. Categories for the traits are given in the right-hand legend.

319 The DAPC results demonstrated that the between group structure of the phenotypic data was
 320 mainly explained by the first two DFs as reflected in the corresponding high EVs. The low elevation
 321 stands were separated from the high elevation stands with the LE_S stand as a transition, as its 95%
 322 distribution density on the first DF overlaps with all but the SBF-Thy and HE_H distributions. The
 323 second DF mostly separates the HE_H and LE_S stands from the other stands (Figure 2). Further
 324 testing the prior group membership of the individuals by MANOVA yielded a high significance ($P \approx$
 325 0).
 326



327 Figure 2: Discriminant analysis of principal component (DAPC) [61] on multivariate phenotypic data.
 328 Data points are displayed on the first and second discriminate axes (x- and y-axes, respectively) of the
 329 DAPC indicated by the stars originating from the corresponding distribution centre. Groups are
 330 depicted by 95% inertia ellipses with corresponding barycentre as symbol. Note that, for the stand
 331 SBF_Thy no ellipse is displayed as all data points are identical. In the bottom left corner, the DA
 332 eigenvalues are displayed, where the first and second DA are highlighted in dark grey and grey,
 333 respectively. The PCA eigenvalues are displayed in the lower right corner, where the retained PC's
 334 eigenvalues are highlighted in dark grey.

335 PCA gave a similar data distribution on the first two axes, nevertheless separation of the single
 336 stands was weaker compared to DAPC, as the DA step is not performed. Centres for each stand
 337 distribution were more separated in DAPC as well as the 95% inertia ellipses. In the sPCA strong and
 338 highly significant global structure (positive autocorrelation), attributed to inter- and intra-regional
 339 separation of the stands with contrasting phenotypes was observed. No local structure (negative
 340 autocorrelation) could be detected, which reflects the absence of clustering of similar types within the
 341 stands.

342 Summarizing these results, it is evident that a high phenotypic differentiation between high and
 343 low elevation stands was observed at the assessed traits.

344 Genetic variation and differentiation

345 No significant differences in diversity between populations, regions and stand-types could be
 346 detected based on linear mixed effect models accounting for between loci diversity divergences. In
 347 total 9 (*EATC1E03* & *WS00016-O09*) to 41 (*PaGB8(a)*) alleles per locus were observed and only small
 348 differences in H_o , H_e and A_r values between the stands were found. The H_o values ranged from 0.630
 349 to 0.702, with the highest values found in the HE_Thy (0.702) and SBF_Thy (0.692) stands and lowest
 350 in the LE_H (0.640) and HE_S (0.630) stands. Values for H_e were similar among stands (0.730-0.757).
 351 The rarefied allelic richness of the relict stand SBF_Thy had a value (16.79) comparable to the other
 352 stands (16.13-16.83). HE_H (16.51) had a slightly reduced A_r compared to other HE stands (16.51-
 353 16.83). All but one (LE_H: 0.041) F_{is} value were significant, ranging from 0.079 in SBF_Thy to 0.142 in
 354 HE_H (Table 5).
 355

356

Table 5: Summary of basic population genetic parameters.

Stand	H_o	H_e	A	A_r	Private alleles	F_{IS}	P
HE_H	0.655	0.733	17.09	16.51	0	0.142	0.000
HE_S	0.640	0.751	16.90	16.83	2	0.124	0.000
HE_Thy	0.702	0.757	17.00	16.67	4	0.129	0.006
LE_H	0.630	0.730	16.46	16.13	4	0.041	0.099
LE_S	0.673	0.746	16.64	16.64	0	0.108	0.000
LE_Thy	0.668	0.734	16.73	16.46	5	0.137	0.000
SBF_Thy	0.692	0.749	14.55	16.79	0	0.079	0.007

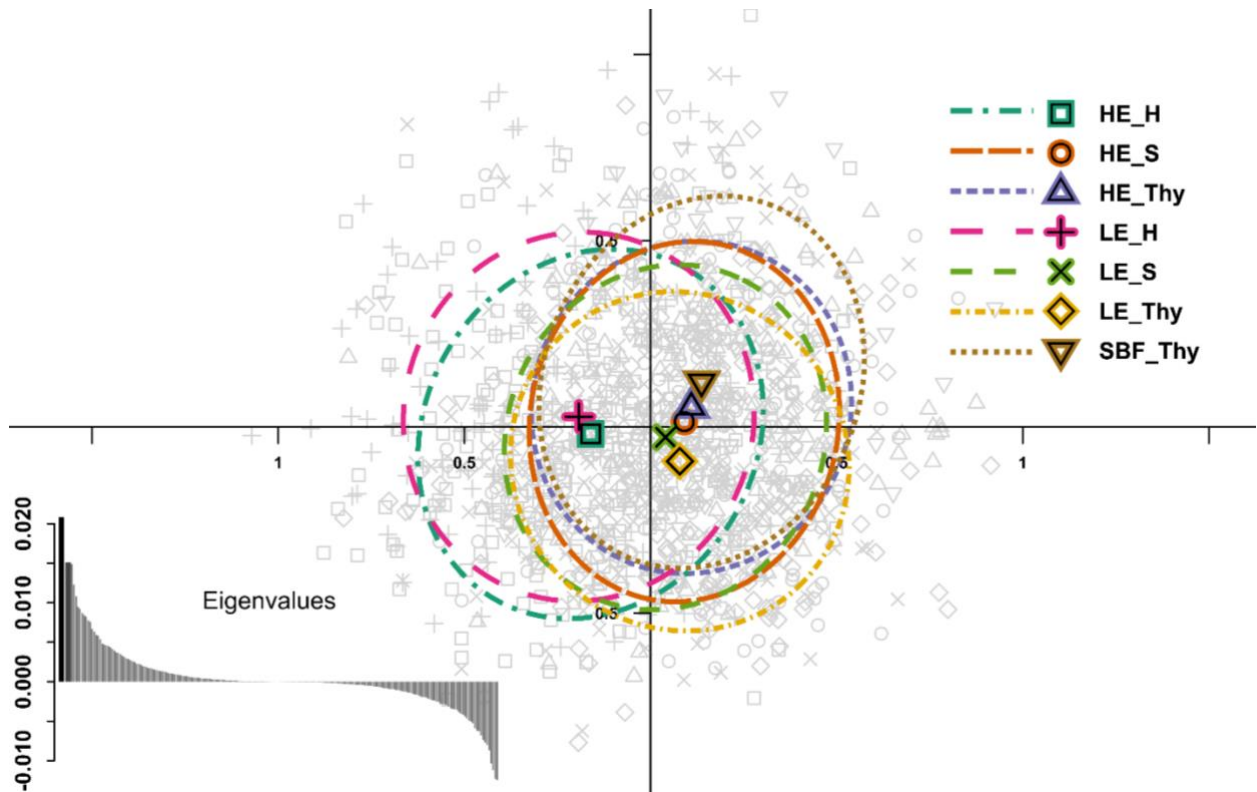
357 H_o and H_e - expected and observed heterozygosity, respectively; A - mean number of alleles per locus; A_r - allelic
 358 richness adjusted for different sample size by rarefaction; F_{IS} - index of fixation with corresponding P -values
 359 based on permutation. Parameters were calculated using Arlequin 3.5.2.2 [71], except A , A_r and private alleles
 360 that were calculated using the “hierfstat” [73] and “poppr” [65] R-packages.

361 Deviation from HWE was found for five loci in several stands. Locus *WS0016-009* deviated in
 362 all stands from HWE, *PaGB3* in all stands but *SBF_Thy*, *EATCG05* in all stands but *LE_Thy* and
 363 *SBF_Thy*. Furthermore, in four stands significant deviation from HWE was found for the loci *SpAGC1*
 364 and *SpAGG3* and in one or two stands for *EATC1B2*, *EATC1E03* and *SpAG2*, *WS0011-K13*, respectively
 365 (Figure S3). The estimated null allele frequencies per locus were mostly similar in the stands, thus
 366 underestimation of genetic diversities as result of null alleles would have affected all stands equally.
 367 Loci surpassing null allele frequencies of 5% were mostly in the more complex trinucleotide repeats,
 368 namely the *EATC*-loci. The dinucleotide repeats expressed much lower values, which narrowly
 369 exceeded 5% (Figure S4). Insignificant LD values (\bar{r}_d) were found for all locus pairs based on
 370 population wise permutation test (Figure S5). In the applied F_{ST} outlier test none of the loci exceeded
 371 the lower or upper 95% confidence intervals of the simulation run in Lositan (Figure S6). In
 372 accordance, no directional selection was found by the Bayesian method used as well.

373 The high phenotypic differences between high and low elevation type populations were not
 374 reflected in genetic variation patterns at the screened supposedly selectively neutral SSRs. Overall,
 375 very low genetic differentiation was observed among populations and regions based on the 11
 376 supposedly neutral polymorphic SSR markers. Partitioning the molecular variance indicated that
 377 variation was mostly attributed to variability of the individuals, as 90.21 % of the variance is
 378 contained within the individuals, only 0.16 % of the variance was attributed to among population
 379 variation within regions, and 0.24 % was distributed between geographical regions. The remaining
 380 9.39 % were attributed to the variance of individuals within the populations (Table S3). When the
 381 phenotypic stand characteristics (high or low elevation type stand) were used as the highest
 382 hierarchical level no variance was partitioned between these two groups (the actual value of the
 383 percentage of variation among groups was -0.09 %; negative values may arise due to the geometric
 384 distance calculation and can be considered as approximately zero).

385 In the pairwise comparison low and non-significant F_{ST} values of 0.002 were observed between
 386 low elevation stands in Saxony and Thuringia and in both stands in the Harz Mountains. Slightly
 387 higher values of 0.004-0.007 were detected between the relict stand “Schlossbergfichte” and all but
 388 the *HE_Thy* stand (Table S4). Comparison based on G'_{ST} yield a similar picture. Further, most of the
 389 highest G'_{ST} values (0.016-0.030) were found between the Harz Mountains and both the regions
 390 Thuringia and Saxony (Table S5). Compared to the estimated P_{ST} values, even for low c/h^2 ratios, all
 391 F_{ST} and G'_{ST} values were much lower. Estimated rates of gene flow between stands of the same region
 392 were relatively high (0.58-1), but lower between stand *SBF_Thy* and the other Thuringian stands. For
 393 this stand a high gene flow rate (0.5) was only estimated towards the *HE_Thy* stand. Between Saxon
 394 and Thuringian stands (also excluding *SBF*) high bidirectional gene flow rates were estimated. As a
 395 general pattern across all regions a stronger gene flow from the low to the high elevation stand was
 396 detected. Nevertheless, no significant asymmetric migration was found at $\alpha = 0.05$ (Figure S7).

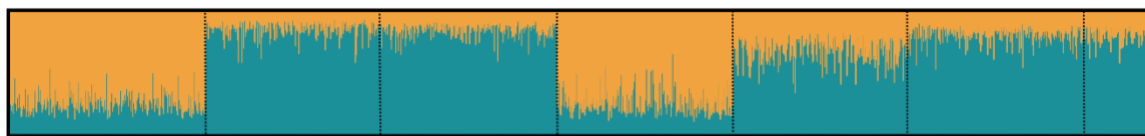
397 We applied sPCA, which also incorporates spatial relationships among stands, to detect
 398 potential genetic structuring correlated with the geographic distances. The results reveal weak
 399 isolation by distance between the Harz Mountains and the two other regions. In Figure 3 the
 400 distribution of data on the first two sPCAs shows separation of the Harz population on the first axis,
 401 whereas the second axis slightly separates the HE_Thy and SBF_Thy populations from the LE_Thy
 402 population. The MC-EV test showed the absence of local structuring but revealed highly significant
 403 global structuring ($P < 0.001$), which is attributed to the first four PCs. When only the between group
 404 variation is used, the DAPC analysis yields similar separation on the first DF, but a slightly stronger
 405 difference for SBF_Thy and HE_S stands. Both the regional and population differentiation were
 406 supported by MANOVA ($P < 0.001$). Weak geographical differentiation between Harz populations
 407 and the others was also confirmed by STRUCTURE. Evaluation of the cluster number K suggested
 408 two distinct clusters supported both by delta K and the log-likelihood probability of K (Figure S8).
 409 Summarizing all runs for $K = 2$ presented in Figure 4, individuals of the Harz populations formed
 410 one cluster, and individuals of all other populations were assigned to the second cluster, with a
 411 considerable amount of estimated admixture in all individuals. The analysis of the 15 runs in
 412 CLUMPAK gave one major and one minor models, which are very similar and consistent in their
 413 interpretation.



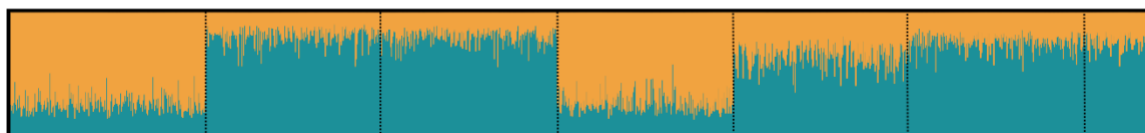
414 Figure 3: Spatial principal component analysis [84] based on the allele data, reflecting low spatial
 415 genetic differentiation for the SSR loci. Data points (grey) are displayed on the first and second
 416 principal components (x- and y-axes, respectively), where the symbols represent the different stands
 417 in the upper right legend. Groups are depicted by 95% inertia ellipses with corresponding barycentre
 418 as symbol. In the bottom left corner, the eigenvalues are displayed, where the first and second
 419 eigenvalues are displayed with wider bars and highlights in darker grey

420

a) Major model, 8/15, Mean(Ln Prob) = -57021.988, Mean(similarity score) = 0.972



b) Minor model, 7/15, Mean(Ln Prob) = -56956.214, Mean(similarity score) = 0.976



HE_H HE_S HE_Thy LE_H LE_S LE_Thy SBF_Thy

421 Figure 4: Clustering result from STRUCTURE (Pritchard et al. 2000), displayed as average over the 15
 422 runs obtained from CLUMPAK [93]. In the major model (a) 8 of the 15 runs were summarized and an
 423 additional minor model of 7 runs was obtained. The average logarithmic probability of the data for
 424 the given mode and the average similarity of the runs summarized is also given.

425 4. Discussion

426 Norway spruce is still one of the economically most important tree species for forestry in Europe,
 427 but the species' range is assumed to decline due to the predicted climate change [95]. Forestry in
 428 Germany also heavily relies on Norway spruce [7], but the projected future area will be more limited
 429 to the low mountain ranges [96]. Thus, the sampled locations represent important regions of today's
 430 and future spruce stands, also in terms of genetic variation of this species. With a complete inventory
 431 of stands we tried to minimise random sampling effects.

432 *Phenotypic differentiation*

433 Our comparison of stand pairs of potentially autochthonous and allochthonous spruce stands,
 434 respectively, showed a high phenotypic differentiation between stands of natural (autochthonous)
 435 and artificial (allochthonous) origin. The phenotypic differentiation can further be interpreted as an
 436 adaptational mechanism that is genetically controlled, but not reflected by the supposedly neutral
 437 markers used in this study. The differentiation was revealed by both the high P_{ST} values (> 0.9) and
 438 the stand separation in the DAPC analysis with further confirmation by the significant MANOVA
 439 results. Comparison between the estimated P_{ST} and F_{ST} values at neutral loci can point to the control
 440 of the phenotypical differences. As in the present case with $P_{ST} \gg F_{ST}$ directional selection is likely
 441 involved in the divergence at the trait level between different populations [6]. Also, comparing G''_{ST}
 442 to P_{ST} this observation holds true. While the discussion on which measure to use is extensive [e.g.
 443 72,90,91], it is in the reported case likely irrelevant which common measure of genetic differentiation
 444 (X) is used, as it will supposedly not change the observation $X \gg F_{ST}$. Additionally, as our estimated
 445 P_{ST} values remained high (> 0.85) on the complete range of the c/h^2 ratios examined, and $P_{ST} \gg F_{ST}$
 446 holds, the draw conclusions can be considered as very robust [58].

447 Morphological differences could also be attributed to phenotypic plasticity. For instance, Gruber
 448 [5] assumed that the low elevation phenotype has a relative high plasticity and could resemble the
 449 high elevation phenotype under certain conditions. In the past, however, allochthonous Norway
 450 stands were planted with about 10000 plants/ha, and after decades the artificial stands, especially in
 451 Thuringia and the Harz Mountains still show a strong phenotypic differentiation from the natural
 452 stands. The expected lower frequencies or absence of crown damage in narrow crowned trees were
 453 confirmed in the Thuringian and Saxony stands, but not in the high elevation stand of the Harz
 454 Mountains. This stand is located just below the natural tree-line at Mount Broken with around 1100
 455 m a.s.l. [99] and subjected to the highest average wind speeds and the most average snow cover days
 456 in this study, which may explain that even the narrow crowned trees may not withstand these
 457 conditions.

458 Hence, our results support the assumption that Norway spruce trees of natural origin in high
459 elevation stands have morphologically adapted to extreme weather conditions by alteration of crown
460 architecture [12,13,100]. Moreover, these results are in agreement with the hypothesis that crown
461 morphology is at least partially genetically controlled [12] as all stands or stand pairs were subjected
462 to similar events of snow and wind (Table 1) but still showed considerable phenotypical differences.
463 In stands with both high and low elevation types, trees with different crown types were randomly
464 distributed suggesting that micro-environmental differences within the stand have a minor effect on
465 crown architecture.

466 *Genetic differentiation*

467 The relatively weak genetic structure and differentiation were in contrast to the morphological
468 differentiation. However, both Harz populations, as well as the “Schlossbergfichte” population, were
469 slightly differentiated from all other populations. As the genotyped SSR loci showed no sign of
470 directional selection, these markers likely reflect neutral genetic variation patterns. Our estimates of
471 F_{ST} between the populations ranged from 0.002 to 0.007 ($G'_{ST} = 0.002 - 0.030$) and are comparable to
472 the overall very low differentiation found for nSSRs on similar or even greater geographical scales,
473 such as for Austrian ($F_{ST} = 0.0004-0.0035$ [101]), Swedish ($F_{ST} = 0.000-0.0206$ [31]), Italian Alpine
474 ($F_{ST} = 0.00-0.04$ [102]) and Scandinavian, Baltic and Russian populations ($F_{ST} = 0.087$ [1]). These results
475 of low differentiation between stands were mostly attributed to the high gene flow through pollen.
476 Even between populations from putative different refugial lineages, and thus different gene pools,
477 estimates remain low ($F_{ST} = 0.12$ based on isozymes [103]; $F_{ST} = 0.0585$ based on EST-SSRs [104]).

478 However, detailed assessment based on the pairwise F_{ST} , G'_{ST} and sPCA showed a differentiation
479 of the Harz region and the “Schlossbergfichte” population from the other populations, even though
480 differences were small and accounted for a very small fraction of the overall variation based on the
481 AMOVA results. From the perspective of recolonization history the regions in focus should belong
482 to the same lineage from the Carpathian refugium, covering both the Harz and the Bohemian Massif
483 [28]. Nevertheless, a more recent recolonization history of the Harz Mountains than for the Bohemian
484 Massif is presumed from pollen records [22]. This could suggest a still noticeable founder effect in
485 the Harz typical for the found pattern. Historically the Harz Mountains were a centre of forest
486 reproductive material export [8]. Plantations within the region are more likely to be of local origin,
487 and thus may have retained the broad spatial structure and the genetic similarity at neutral markers
488 between LE and HE stands. In the Bayesian clustering analysis, we found one cluster to be comprised
489 of the Harz stands and the second cluster comprising all stands from Saxony and Thuringia. The
490 small IBD found here is also in accordance to previous studies between Austrian montane and
491 subalpine [105] and high elevation populations [101], such as it is expected for more geographically
492 scattered populations [104].

493 The relict population “Schlossbergfichte” comprised > 250 year old and younger adult trees
494 (approximately 180), which originated from natural regeneration. As seed dispersal in spruce is
495 limited compared to pollen dispersal [106], at least the maternal part is retained within the stand.
496 Thus, the initial genetic composition of the typical Thuringian Forest high elevation provenance may
497 have been retained in this remnant population through the oldest trees, and a temporal isolation
498 effect could be the reason for the found small genetic divergence to the other stands. This genetic
499 divergence was also reflected in the migration network, as the rates towards the “Schlossbergfichte”
500 population were overall lower than between other stands, and only higher migration from this stand
501 towards the HE_Thy population was found.

502 From the investigations of Meyer et al. [42] the age of single individuals in the HE stand at Mount
503 Broken, Harz, was estimated with up to 300 years, whereas the stand is supposedly highly age
504 structured. In comparison to the population “Schlossbergfichte” the relict character of this stand is
505 represented by the oldest trees, as with decreasing age the influence from the allochthonous gene
506 pool rises, as discussed below.

507 Regarding the differentiation between low and high elevation type stands, we could not detect
508 any differences in allelic richness or diversity between high and low elevation type stands or stands

509 in general. Such differences in diversity between natural and artificial stands were suggested by
510 Gömöry [35] and Finkeldey and Ziehe [107]. Comparing artificial stands with high altitude stands
511 [34] or with stands characterised as mountainous ecotypes [108] of Norway spruce confirmed the
512 occurrence of these differences. Recently, Máchová et al. [109] characterised eight Czech populations
513 and nine subpopulations of a gene conservation unit at eight EST-SSRs and one nSSR. These stands
514 were classified as either alpine, mountainous or lowland ecotypes, and the authors found the
515 sampling units of identical ecotypes clustered together based on Nei's genetic distance. In contrast to
516 our results, no separation among geographic regions was observed. Also, Jeandroz et al. [110]
517 compared autochthonous mountainous spruce stands from the Vogues mountains to allochthonous
518 stands and distinguished these groups based on RAPD markers. Nevertheless, no detailed
519 assessment of crown types was reported in either study. In the upper Harz mountains, Greger [33]
520 studied the relationship between morphological traits and the isozyme locus *PGI* (phosphoglucose
521 isomerase) and identified a higher proportion of *PGI-B 22* genotypes in the autochthonous stands
522 with high elevation crown types.

523 Our results exemplify the presence of pollen mediated gene flow in combination with human
524 aided translocation of material that may have homogenized genetic structures and diluted adaptive
525 genetic variation over generations. Human impact strongly altered the composition of forests in
526 Central Europe especially in Germany [111,112], and may have had a strong impact on the neutral
527 and adaptive genetic variation [107,113]. In Norway spruce translocation and planting of non-local
528 material started in the 18th century throughout Europe, also with the organised expansion of its
529 natural range. In general, anthropogenic gene flow through extensive translocation of regeneration
530 material had major effects on the genetic diversity of forest trees [8].

531 In our study high rates of gene flow were estimated between HE and LE stands. Even though,
532 no significant directional migration was found, a strong influence of pollen mediated gene flow from
533 the majority of artificial to the few natural stands can be assumed. Over generations this process can
534 lead to lower genetic differentiation in general and specifically to a dilution of adaptive genetic
535 variation.

536 Hence, we suggest that the partially unsuited morphological characteristics in the younger
537 autochthonous stands reflect the influence of gene flow from artificially introduced plant material. In
538 our study the oldest stand SBF_Thy showed pure high elevation ecotypes, whereas the younger
539 autochthonous HE stands showed higher morphological variability with a mixture of intermediate,
540 sometimes even low, and high elevation ecotypes. Thus, our results are related to the stand age and
541 history. The older the stands the smaller the anthropogenic influence should be, especially in terms
542 of translocation of material and subsequent gene flow between artificial and autochthonous stands
543 [8,33]. Accordingly, the > 250-year-old trees of the "Schlossberfichte" stand should be comprised of
544 the original genepool of the local ecotype. The other potential autochthonous "younger" stands
545 experienced gene flow from neighbouring stands. As such, the dilution of the original genepool by
546 immigrant pollen and seeds could have altered the frequency of genes coding for the high elevation
547 morphological characteristics.

548 5. Conclusions

- 549 1. High phenotypic variation contrasting with low genetic variation measured by the nSSR
550 markers reflects different local adaptations. The occurrence of high elevation and low elevation
551 crown types in neighbouring stands, and the random distribution of trees with different crown
552 types in mixed stand suggested that crown architecture is under strong genetic control. Common
553 garden experiments are needed to derive heritability estimates for this trait.
- 554 2. High and low elevation stands were not differentiated at neutral markers. Candidate gene
555 approaches or genome scans could reveal adaptive genes associated with crown architecture.
- 556 3. A weak geographic structure was detected based on the nSSR markers. However, the Harz
557 region and the relict population showed a weak, but significant differentiation from the
558 remaining stands. Gene flow by pollen and seeds likely resulted in decreased phenotypic

559 differentiation in younger autochthonous stands, while all trees in the relict population
560 “Schlossbergfichte” were characterized by typical high elevation crown types.

561 **Supplementary Materials:** The following are available online at www.mdpi.com/xxx/s1, Document (pdf; 13pp)
562 including Tables S1–S5 and Figures S1–S8.

563 **Author Contributions:** Conceptualization, O.C., M.M, B.V., K.Ka., K.Kr., O.G. and L.L.; Methodology, O.C.,
564 M.M., B.V., O.G. and L.L.; Software, O.C.; Validation, O.C., M.M, B.V., K.Kr., O.G. and L.L.; Formal Analysis,
565 O.C.; Investigation, O.C.; Resources, K.Ka and A.H.; Data Curation, O.C.; Writing-Original Draft Preparation,
566 O.C.; Writing-Review & Editing, O.C., M.M, B.V., A.H., K.Ka., K.Kr., O.G. and L.L.; Visualization, O.C.;
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