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## Age-dependent colonization of urban habitats: a diachronic approach using carabid beetles and spiders

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### Abstract

Urbanization creates human disturbance that plays an important role in ecosystem dynamics. Most of the time, there is a time lag between disturbance and colonization. Opportunistic species with high dispersal power colonize first, while habitat specialist species with a lower power of dispersal colonize later; the communities change with time after disturbance. We hypothesize that, following the establishment of a new neighbourhood, arthropod communities will change from habitat generalists to specialists, and will be more similar to those of the adjacent countryside. We selected two groups of invertebrates often used as bioindicators, spiders and carabid beetles. The following parameters were estimated: assemblage composition, species richness, activity-density total and per life history trait (broad habitat preference). The field data were collected in 2010 within 3 towns located in France. Neighbourhoods of 10 and 30 years old were pair-matched in these towns and sampled using pitfall traps set randomly in hedgerows (120 traps in total). 2101 adult spiders belonging to 89 species were collected, whereas the 643 captured carabid beetles belonged to 24 species. We found no evidence of any significant change in carabid beetle and spider communities according to neighbourhood age. The assemblages were mainly composed of habitat generalist species. These results suggest that urban areas can be seen to be in continual state of disruption, and colonization of these areas is assumed to be relatively rapid (i.e., less than 10 years in our case study), although incomplete.

### Keywords

Araneae; Carabidae; Coleoptera; human disturbance; succession; urban ecology

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## Introduction

The urbanization process is increasing in response to population growth and changes in lifestyle (Fenger, 1999; Weber, 2003). Urbanization can be defined as an implementation of anthropogenic structures (e.g., buildings, roads, etc.) to satisfy human population requirements at the expense of agricultural or natural areas (Germaine & Wakeling, 2001; McKinney, 2002). Thus, these modifications induce important changes in the long and short terms. In the long term, urbanization leads to landscape and physicochemical changes (Breuste et al., 1998; Baker et al., 2002): the creation of urban heat islands, concentrations of pollution (Fenger, 1999), fragmentation of natural areas (Antrop, 2004; Alberti, 2005) and the creation of new habitat types. In the short term, urbanization leads to habitat alteration by destruction and degradation (Davis & Glick, 1978; Niemelä, 1999; Tratalos et al., 2007). This important land-use change has a strong impact on biodiversity (e.g. Sanford et al., 2008; Fattorini, 2011). Most studies investigated the effects of urbanization by comparing urban and rural areas (Alaruikka et al., 2002; Sadler et al., 2006; Clark et al., 2007; Gaublomme et al., 2008; Niemelä, 2009), but in these studies, the age of the different neighbourhoods was usually not taken into account. However, the response of diversity is dynamic over time, often with a time lag between environmental change and biodiversity change (Forman, 1995; Foster et al., 1998; Łaska, 2001). Disturbance (whether associated with urbanization or not) plays an important role in ecosystem dynamics (White, 1979; Mooney & Godron, 1983; Łaska, 2001) and may lead to the dispersal or local extinction of plants and animals, thus drastically reducing diversity. Later, following the principles of ecological succession, the colonization of the area by new species is expected (Tilman, 1983; Pickett et al., 1989) if suitable habitats are available. Communities will then change during the colonization process. Recovery time varies according to target species and landscape connectivity (e.g. Connell & Slatyer, 1977).

In this study, we compared the response of two groups of invertebrate species, carabid beetles and spiders, which are known to react strongly to changes in microhabitat conditions and are often used as bioindicators (for spiders see Marc et al., 1999; Bell et al., 2001; for carabid beetles see Luff et al., 1992; Rainio & Niemelä, 2003; for both groups see Pearce & Venier, 2006). Following the principle of colonization (e.g. White, 1979), we hypothesized that habitat generalist species (often having high dispersal power) are the first to colonize urban areas, while habitat specialist species (generally having low dispersal power) colonize later (see, e.g., Southwood, 1962). To test for such a colonization process, we compared assemblages from sites differing in building age, i.e., 10 vs. 30 years. These ages were chosen because, in a previous study (Varet et al., 2011), we found that 10-year neighbourhoods were ‘still’ dominated by pioneer species, with a lot of forest and/or low-disperser species missing (i.e., present in the surroundings but not in the town), although the habitat quality was apparently sufficient.

## Material and methods

### *Study sites and sampling design*

The study sites were located within the conurbation of Rennes, Brittany, France, in three towns: Acigné (N48°08'05", W01°32'07") (coded A), Vezin-le-Coquet (N48°7'7", W1°45'0") (coded B) and Pacé (N48°8'52, W1°46'0") (coded C). In each town, two zones (neighbourhoods) were selected depending on the date when they were built: one neighbourhood was 10 years old and the other one was 30 years old. All sites (A10, A30, B10, B30, C10 and C30) had at least one side adjacent to the rural (agricultural) area, so that colonization from source habitats could not be seen as limited (Varet et al., 2011). All selected neighbourhoods were built with a "traditional design" (i.e., single houses with private gardens), and had similar population density (around 16 inhabitants/ha), percentage of impervious area (ranging from 27 to 33%) and total surface (between 10 and 14.5 hectares for the six neighbourhoods).

At each site, 20 randomly located sample points were set up (Arcview, Geo Wizards) in public shrubby areas previously mapped by GIS. Two criteria, however, were applied to the location of sampling points; first, for security reasons, no traps were placed in sparsely vegetated hedgerows near playgrounds for children and second, the points had to be at least 10 metres apart so that the data were independent from one trap to another (Topping & Sunderland, 1992). We limited the sampling to hedgerows because they were dominant in the green spaces of new neighbourhoods. Hedgerows were planted at the creation of the neighborhood. Each sample point consisted of one pitfall trap (cylinder height: 100 mm, diameter: 85 mm) covered with a plastic roof. The pitfall traps were filled with about 75 ml of a preservation solution composed of 50% monopropylene glycol and 50% salt solution of 100 g/l (the best collecting fluid for spiders: Schmidt et al., 2006). The traps were monitored every two weeks for eight weeks between mid April 2010 and mid June 2010. This sampling period corresponds to the period when 75% of the total number species present in urban hedgerows during one year are found (Varet, 2011).

Carabid beetles and spiders were preserved in 70% ethanol, identified and stored in the laboratory (Rennes, France). Adult carabid beetles were identified using Jeannel (1941–1942) and Trautner & Geigenmüller (1987), and adult spiders using Roberts (1987, 1995) and Heimer & Nentwig (1991). The nomenclature follows Lindroth (1992) for carabid beetles and Canard (2005) for spiders.

Catches in pitfall traps actually estimate the 'activity-trappability-density' of species (number of individuals dependant of trap duration and perimeter Sunderland et al., 1995), further abbreviated as 'activity-density'. The life history trait considered in this study is habitat preference. Carabid beetles and spiders were classified into two classes of habitat preference (see Hänggi et al., 1995 for spiders; Luff, 1998 and Bouget, 2004 for carabid beetles): generalist species and specialist species, e.g., species of wet habitats, forest species and open habitat species.

### Statistical analysis

To detect differences in activity-density (per species, per life history trait and total) and species richness between ages (fixed factor) and towns (random factors), we used a generalised linear mixed model (GLMM). Poisson distribution was applied to data from individual traps because counts of activity-density are assumed to conform to such a distribution (Vincent & Haworth, 1983; O'Hara & Kotze, 2010). A first complete model was created (catches  $\sim$  age + town + age  $\times$  town) and, when the interaction between the two discrete factors was not significant, a second model with only fixed factors (i.e., without interactions) was made (catches  $\sim$  age + town).

Data were analysed with R software (R Development Core Team, 2009), using the lmer() function of the lme4 package (e.g., Bates et al., 2012). The analyses on activity-densities were done species by species, only for the species with an activity-density higher than 1% of the total activity-density (i.e., non-rare species). Moreover, to analyse similarity in species composition, Bray-Curtis distances between individual traps were calculated using activity-density data transformed by double square-root to downweight the effects of dominant species as recommended by Legendre & Legendre (1983). Bray-Curtis distances were then subjected to hierarchical cluster analyses using Ward's method, and statistically analysed by some Analyses of Similarity (ANOSIM; dissimilarity ranks between classes by age and town factors; 999 permutations), on both carabid and spider catches.

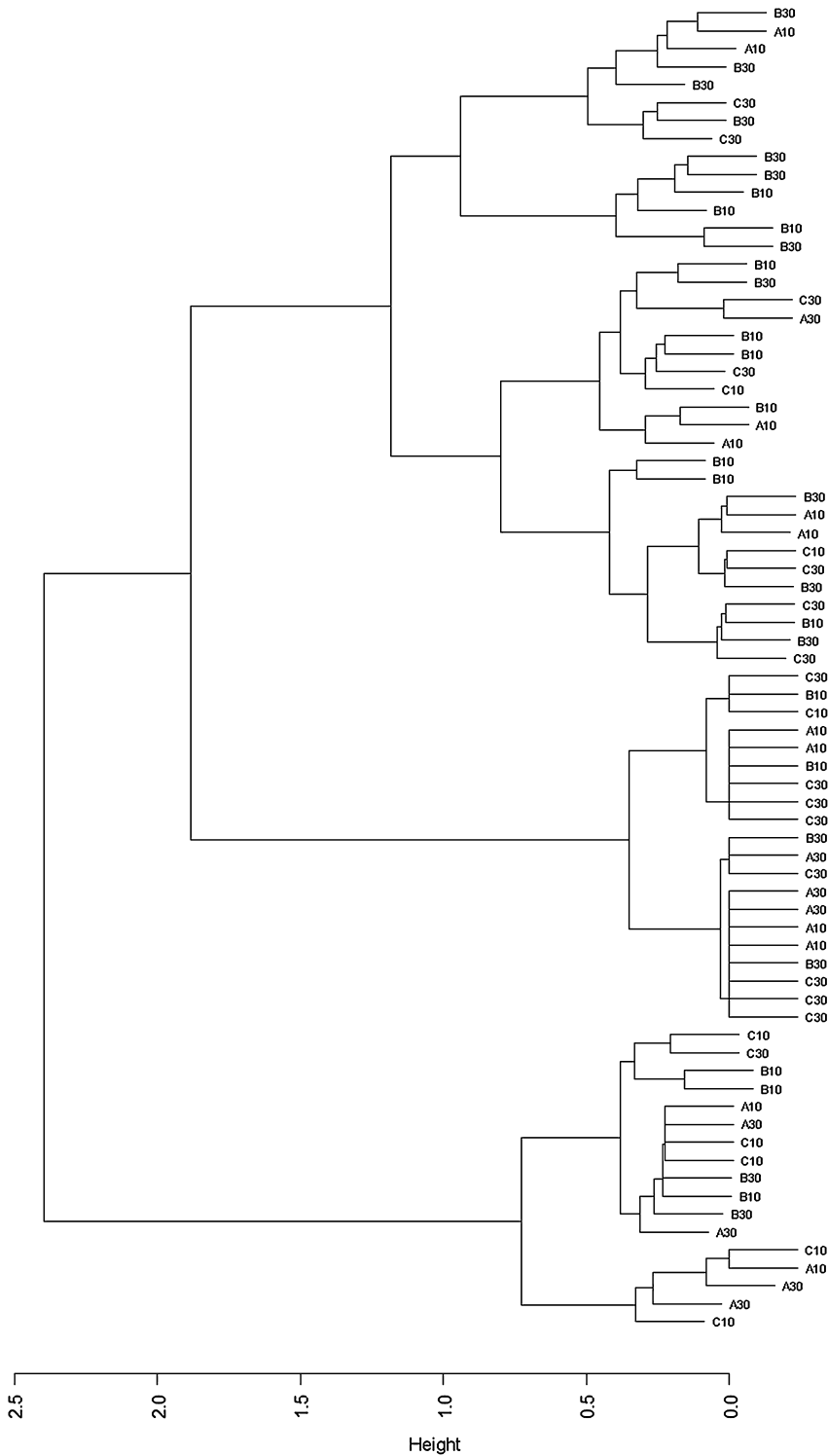
## Results

### General description

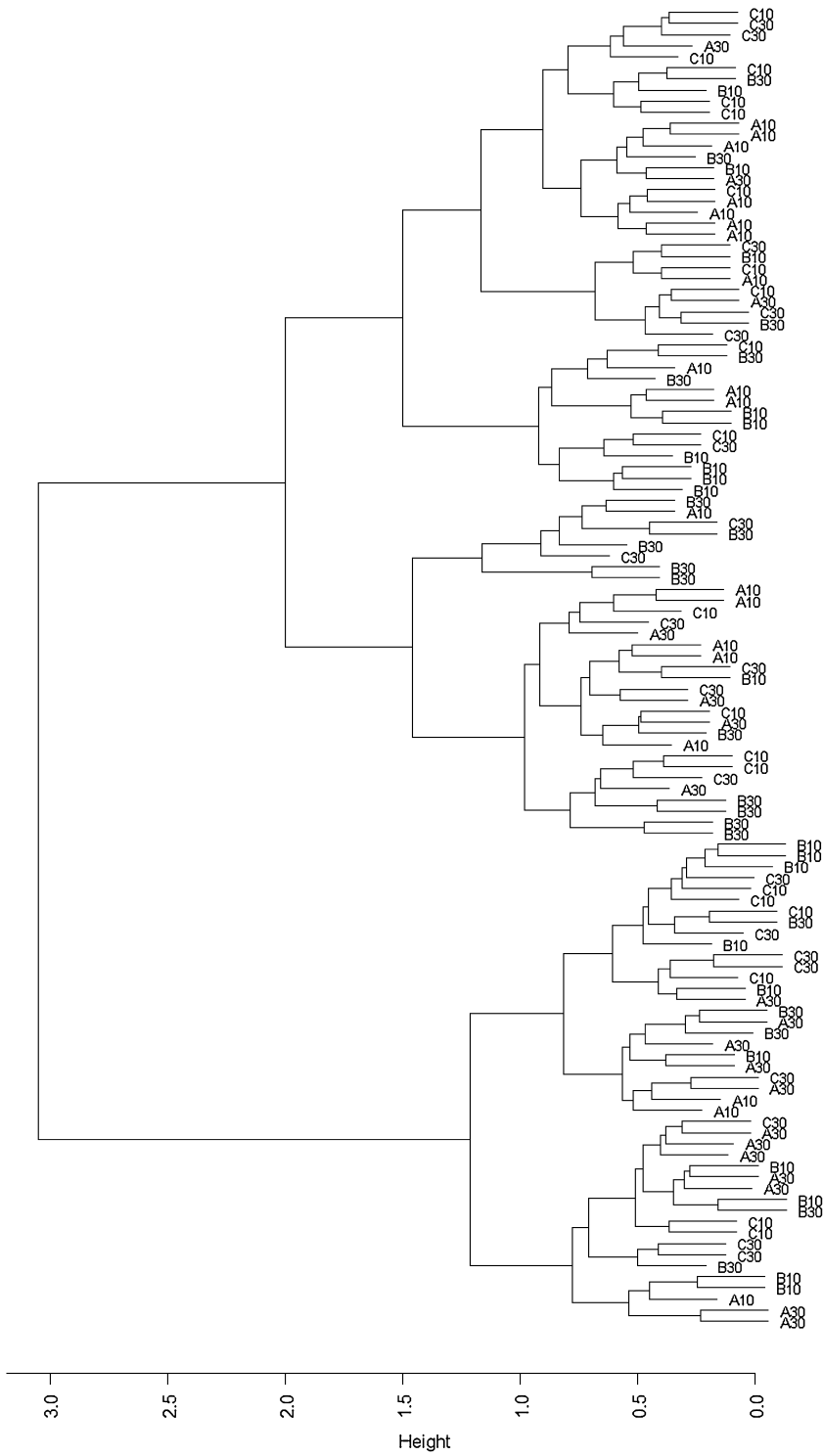
In total, 643 individual carabid beetles belonging to 24 species were collected (see complete list in supplementary table S1). Individuals of *Nebria brevicollis* accounted for more than 80% and *Notiophilus quadripunctatus*, *Notiophilus biguttatus* and *Pterostichus madidus* accounted for more than 10% of the total catch. In total, 2101 individual spiders belonging to 89 species were collected (see complete list in supplementary table S2). Individuals of *Pardosa hortensis* accounted for more than 35% and *Pardosa prativaga*, *Alopecosa pulverulenta* and *Ozyptila praticola* accounted for more than 15% of the total catch. Beetle and spider assemblages were mainly composed of large individuals, generally considered having a low dispersal power. Moreover, these individuals were also predominantly generalist (more than 75% of individuals belonged to generalist species for both spiders and carabids).

### Changes in species assemblages

The ascending hierarchical clustering of carabid beetle and spider communities (figs. 1 and 2) did not segregate assemblages according to neighbourhood age, or by site. Young and old sites were represented by similar percentages (around



**Figure 1.** Ascending hierarchical clustering of carabid beetle assemblages based on 78 individual traps (traps with no carabid beetles were removed from the analysis). The cluster dendrogram was constructed using the Ward method based on distances calculated by the Bray-Curtis on square root double data activity-density. Sites are given by letters (A, B, C; see text for details) and age by numbers (10 vs. 30 years old).



**Figure 2.** Ascending hierarchical clustering of spider assemblages based on 120 individual traps. The cluster dendrogram was constructed using the Ward method based on distances calculated by the Bray-Curtis on square root double data activity-density. Sites are given by letters (A, B, C; see text for details) and age by numbers (10 vs. 30 years old).

50%) of individual traps, both within and between the three main clusters. However, one cluster contained more individual traps from site B for carabid beetles (more than 56% of traps from site B in the left cluster: fig. 1) and another regrouped slightly more young sites for spiders (68% of old sites in the left cluster: fig. 2). ANOSIMs confirmed these results, with traps significantly grouped by the town (carabids:  $R = 0.13$ ,  $P = 0.002$ ; spiders:  $R = 0.03$ ,  $P = 0.014$ ), but not by the age of construction (carabids:  $R = 0.03$ ,  $P = 0.053$ ; spiders:  $R < 0.01$ ,  $P = 0.214$ ).

### *Change in species activity-density and richness*

Activity-densities of both spiders and carabid beetles, either total, per habitat preference and for most species, were independent of the age of the sites (tables 1 and 2), except for the spiders *Diplocephalus picipinus*, *Pardosa pullata* and *P. saltans* which were more densely active in recently created neighbourhoods. Other species also reacted to the age of the sites, but with an interaction with the town studied (*Nebria brevicollis*: table 1; *Harpactea hombergi*: table 2). The species richness was also independent of site age (tables 1 and 2), for both carabid beetles and spiders.

## **Discussion**

Contrary to our initial hypothesis, spider and carabid beetle assemblages did not change with time between 10 and 30 years. Species richness and most of the activity-densities did not significantly differ according to the age of the neighbourhoods, and the assemblage composition remained similar for the six studied sites. Two hypotheses could help explain these results.

The first is that 30 years might not be a long enough period to allow the colonization of urban green spaces from the adjacent countryside by habitat specialist species with a low dispersal power. The second hypothesis is that 10 years are sufficient to reach an optimal colonization of urban green spaces. We reject the first hypothesis because this period is ecologically long for the model groups used here, carabid beetles (see also Verschoor & Krebs, 1995) and spiders (Thomas et al., 1992; Buddle et al., 2003). As an example, Cristofoli & Mah (2010) have shown that spiders only need 15 years to recolonize a peat bog. Besides, the urban areas are adjacent to rural areas, so that the limiting effect of “habitat islands” is highly reduced (Clergeau et al., 2006); a relatively fast colonization of new environments – much inferior to 30 years – is consequently expected. Finally, the assemblages observed are mostly made up of opportunistic generalist species, mainly large individuals with rather low long-distance dispersal capacities. Thus, the first hypothesis can be dismissed in favour of the second one.

Despite the age difference between neighbourhoods, arthropod assemblages were all made up of mainly generalist species. This could be due to the general environment of the urban area. Urban green spaces (potential habitats) are often maintained by man (cutting, litter input, weeding, etc.) and are considered a regular



**Table 1.**  
Influence of town and age factors on species richness and activity-density (total, per non-rare species and per life history trait) on carabid beetles (GLMM with quasi-Poisson error distribution). In case of significant interaction, effects of town and age factors are those from the full model.

	Town × age		Town		Age	
	Wald $\chi^2$	P-value	Wald $\chi^2$	P-value	Wald $\chi^2$	P-value
Mean species richness	7.00	0.030	8.92	0.012	0.37	0.542
Mean activity density	84.19	<0.001	150.37	<0.001	1.71	0.190
Mean activity-density per habitat preference						
generalists	86.25	<0.001	124.91	<0.001	1.81	0.179
specialists	0.34	0.846	23.12	<0.001	1.78	0.183
Mean activity-density per species						
<i>Nebria brevicollis</i>	87.41	<0.001	96.98	<0.001	6.97	0.008
<i>Notiophilus biguttatus</i>	0.20	0.903	5.31	0.070	1.11	0.292
<i>Notiophilus quadripunctatus</i>	5.82	0.055	1.69	0.430	2.7	0.100
<i>Notiophilus rufipes</i>	0.00	1.000	2.19	0.334	<0.01	0.996
<i>Pterostichus madidus</i>	0.00	1.000	2.12	0.347	0.01	0.920

**Table 2.**

Influence of town and age factors on species richness and activity-density (total, per non-rare species and per life history trait) in spiders (GLMM with quasi-Poisson error distribution). In case of significant interaction, effects of town and age factors are those from the full model.

	Town × age		Town		Age	
	Wald $\chi^2$	P-value	Wald $\chi^2$	P-value	Wald $\chi^2$	P-value
Mean species richness	20.08	<0.001	1.26	0.532	0.91	0.339
Mean activity-density	79.71	<0.001	109.43	<0.001	9.38	<0.001
Mean activity-density per habitat preference						
generalists	30.21	<0.001	63.96	<0.001	0.01	0.91
specialists	56.03	<0.001	49.93	<0.001	21.42	<0.001
Mean activity-density per species						
<i>Agroeca inopina</i>	2.72	0.257	5.00	0.082	0.59	0.441
<i>Alopecosa pulverulenta</i>	21.49	<0.001	1.9	0.386	2.78	0.096
<i>Clubiona terrestris</i>	7.64	0.022	4.00	0.135	1.83	0.177
<i>Diplocephalus picinus</i>	<0.01	1.000	19.91	<0.001	10.47	0.001
<i>Drassodes lapidosus</i>	1.33	0.515	9.49	0.009	0.47	0.494
<i>Dysdera erythrina</i>	0.46	0.796	7.98	0.018	0.64	0.425
<i>Harpactea hombergi</i>	<0.01	0.009	4.45	0.108	6.78	0.009
<i>Lepthyphantes tenuis</i>	2.56	0.279	5.85	0.054	1.27	0.261
<i>Microneta viaria</i>	3.32	0.190	3.73	0.155	0.99	0.321
<i>Neriere clathrata</i>	2.53	0.282	0.41	0.815	0.12	0.732
<i>Ozyptila praticola</i>	26.54	<0.001	3.97	0.137	0.43	0.511
<i>Pardosa hortensis</i>	2.89	0.236	87.26	<0.001	3.66	0.056
<i>Pardosa pratavaga</i>	<0.01	1.000	<0.01	1.000	0.32	0.571
<i>Pardosa pullata</i>	<0.01	0.999	6.22	0.045	6.66	0.009
<i>Pardosa saltans</i>	1.24	0.539	27.76	<0.001	24.29	<0.001
<i>Pisaura mirabilis</i>	1.01	0.603	9.13	0.01	1.37	0.241
<i>Scotina celans</i>	<0.01	1.000	<0.01	1.000	<0.01	0.999
<i>Trochosa ruricola</i>	0.61	0.737	8.11	0.017	2.04	0.153
<i>Trochosa terricola</i>	8.83	0.012	0.44	0.803	0.32	0.571
<i>Zodariion italicum</i>	2.75	0.253	0.35	0.839	2.33	0.127

source of disturbance, thereby limiting the colonization by habitat specialists. According to the source-sink model resulting from island theories (here habitat islands: Clergeau et al., 2006), there should still be an input of biodiversity from the rural environment to the urban environment (following the colonization movements that could be expected intuitively). In this study, assemblages (especially for carabids) are composed of relatively few individuals compared to those found in rural areas of the region (Brittany), and their species richness is rather low (24 species here, as compared with 53 species in Burel et al., 1998, despite the same regional species pool and the use of the same sampling technique, pitfall traps, and a comparable effort, 6720 traps/day here vs. 5376 in Burel et al., 1998). Moreover, urban cara-

bid assemblages are dominated by *Nebria brevicollis*, a relatively scarce species in European rural areas (Niemelä et al., 2002; Saska, 2007).

Nevertheless, the urban environment is clearly colonized and many studies have even highlighted a certain degree of diversity in urban habitats (Crocì et al., 2008; Niemelä, 2009). The landscape structure does not seem to be the only determining element for the colonization of urban environments. Habitat quality seems to be crucial too. Urban hedgerows are indeed very different from those in rural areas in terms of the nature, quality and habitat management. Urban hedgerows are often made up of exotic species (which is the case here, although with percentage cover inferior to 20%: Varet, 2011), and the tree and herbaceous strata are frequently low, and may not be suitable for the rural species, thus limiting their role as corridors. Conversely, urban habitats offer rather good quality habitats (Crocì et al., 2008), and can thus be a refuge for grassland species (e.g. Carpaneto et al., 2005).

Finally, other results from the same study sites suggest that the “source-sink” model between rural and urban areas does not always seem to be effective (Varet et al., 2011). Moreover, the urban area can be seen as being continually disrupted and the colonization of urban areas is assumed to be relatively rapid (i.e., less than 10 years), although incomplete.

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