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# Distribution of leaf litter spider (Araneae) in treefall gaps and on adjacent forest in an atlantic rainforest remnant in Bahia State, Brazil

Distribuição de aranhas cursoriais (Araneae) em clareiras naturais e floresta adjacente num remanescente de Floresta Atlântica da Bahia, Brasil

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## ABSTRACT

*We compared the species distribution of leaf litter spider between adjacent forests and treefall gaps in an Atlantic Forest urban remnant in the Brazilian State of Bahia. The spiders were extracted from the leaf litter using a Berlese funnel from January to December, 2004. Each site was evaluated throughout the sampling period by measuring or estimating the microhabitat and microclimate variables of the treefall gaps and adjacent forest. The variables measured obtained a statistical difference ( $T = -2.4742605$ ;  $P = 0.020855$ ). A total of 550 spiders were collected, distributed among 15 families. A hundred and twenty one adult specimens were collected, 60 being in adjacent forest and 61 in treefall gaps. According to analysis, significant differences cannot be observed among sites with regard to abundance and number of spider species. However, there was a large number of exclusive species in both environments, 31.67% of all the species collected in adjacent forest and 26.53% of all species collected in treefall gaps, suggesting that the gaps created environmental differentiated structures that increase the diversity of spiders in Neotropical forest.*

**Key words:** *natural disturbance, Metropolitan Park of Pituvaçu, habitat selection.*

## RESUMO

*Comparou-se a distribuição das espécies de aranhas que habitam a serrapilheira entre clareira natural e floresta adjacente em um remanescente de Mata Atlântica urbano no Estado da Bahia (Brasil). As aranhas foram extraídas da serrapilheira, utilizando-se o funil de Berlese, de janeiro a dezembro de 2004. Concomitantemente, durante todo o período de amostragem, todos os pontos de coleta foram avaliados, mensalmente, por mensuração ou estimativa das variáveis de micro-habitat e microclima das clareiras naturais e trechos de florestas adjacentes. Houve diferença significativa das variáveis de micro-habitat e microclima entre os pontos de clareira e floresta adjacente ( $T = -2,4742605$ ,  $p = 0,020855$ ). Foram coletadas 550 aranhas, distribuídas em 15 famílias, sendo 121 indivíduos adultos, 60 na floresta adjacente e 61 em clareiras. Não foram encontradas diferenças significativas em relação à abundância e, à riqueza em espécies de aranhas. Entretanto, houve um grande número de espécies exclusivas em ambos os ambientes, 31,67% espécies exclusivas coletadas na floresta adjacente e 26,53%, nas clareiras naturais, sugerindo que clareiras naturais promovem estruturas ambientais diferenciadas que aumentam a diversidade de aranhas em florestais neotropicais.*

**Palavras-chave:** *distúrbios naturais, Parque Metropolitano de Pituvaçu, seleção de habitat.*

## I. Introduction

The most common form of disturbance in forest environments is the formation of treefall gaps (Green 1996; Richard 1996). These treefall gaps cause a shifting mosaic of habitat patches, which form a continuum from "mature phase" sites with intact canopy to "gap phase" sites with little or no canopy (Brokaw 1985). Because the physical environment differs dramatically between gaps and the adjacent forest (Chazdon & Fetcher 1984), many types of organisms may distinguish between these two habitats (Stiles 1975; Thompson 1980). However, studies comparing species assemblages found in treefall gaps with those of adjacent forest sites have focused on trees (Vandermeer *et al.* 1974; Denslow 1980), bamboo species (Tabarelli & Mantovani 2000), birds (Blake & Hoppes 1986; Wunderle *et al.* 1987; Levey 1988) and only one paper relating to spiders (Peres *et al.* 2007). In all of these groups of organisms, important differences were observed between species assemblages inhabiting treefall gaps and adjacent forest, indicating that treefall gaps may be more important in structuring tropical assemblages than is generally appreciated (Gilbert 1980; Levey 1988).

Spiders are one of the most diverse groups among animals. In the total, 40.719 species have been described and grouped in 3,802 genera and 109 families (Platnick 2010). Spiders are generalist predators in terrestrial ecosystems (Riechert & Bishop 1990; Breene *et al.* 1993; Wise 1993) that feed mostly on insects (Riechert & Bishop 1990; Wise 1993; Foelix 1996). Spider distribution and population density vary in response to several environmental factors, such as temperature, air relative humidity, wind, and light (Dondale & Binns 1977; Rypstra 1986; Foelix 1996). However, it has been argued that other environmental factors, such as vegetation structure, food availability, competitors and enemies influence spider assemblages more than climatic factors (Uetz 1991; Gibson *et al.* 1992; Wise 1993; Foelix 1996). Because of their high species diversity as well as their sensitivity to several environmental factors, spiders are an appropriate taxonomic group to use in assessing if the environmental differences between adjacent forests and treefall gaps may influence the structure and composition of assemblages of tropical forest invertebrates. This paper quantifies distribution of leaf litter spider species in treefall gaps and adjacent forest in an Atlantic Forest urban remnant in the Brazilian state of Bahia.

## II. Methods

**Study area.** - The study was conducted year round in 2004 in the Parque Metropolitano de Pituçu (12° 56'S, 38° 24'W), a reserve with 425 ha of secondary stage Atlantic Forest, surrounded by a predominantly urban matrix within the city of Salvador, Brasil (Benati *et al.* 2005). Rainfall averages 1840 mm annually (Batista 1998) with dominant vegetation being tropical evergreen forest that predominates the Brazilian Atlantic coast.

**Sampling** - We used the 12 sites (7 X 3 m each, totalizing 252 m<sup>2</sup>) to sample spider (six in treefall gaps and six in adjacent forest). The sites were selected based on Tabarelli & Mantovani (1999) and Armelin & Mantovani (2001). Each leaf litter site sampling (50 x 50 cm) was used to collect spiders, totaling 3 m<sup>2</sup> (12 plots) monthly and 36 m<sup>2</sup> during the year. The spiders were extracted from the leaf litter using a Berlese funnel. Each site was evaluated throughout the sampling period by measuring or estimating the microhabitat and microclimate variables of the treefall gaps and adjacent forest. The variables were sampled in same sites where the spiders were collected. The thermal variation during a 24 hour period, leaf litter depth, frequency, and decomposition degree (initial, intermediate and advanced) of the fallen trunk diameter at breast height (DBH) ≥ 10 cm were quantified with many ordinals. The leaf litter and herbaceous coverage was measured using the adapted Fournier Intensity Percent (Fournier 1974).

Only adult specimens were identified to genera, species, or morphospecies level. The specimens were deposited in Instituto Butantan of São Paulo (IBSP, curator: I. Knysak). The collected (authorized by IBAMA 02006.002568/02-21 Case of 17/07/2002)

**Statistical.** - We used the Mann Whitney test to compare spider abundance and richness collected in adjacent forest and treefall gaps between these two habitat types. We used Graphpad Instat 2.0 software. To compare microhabitat and microclimate variables between adjacent forest and treefall gaps, Multi-Response Permutation Procedures (Euclidean distance) were used by PC-Ord 4.25 software (McCune & Mefford 1999).

## III. Results and Discussion

The variables measured showed differences between adjacent forest areas and treefall gaps (T = 2.4742605; p = 0.020855; Table 1), corroborating with the hypothesis that the treefall gaps promote an environment different from the structure of forest adjacent environments (Chazdon & Fetcher 1984; Brokaw 1985; Richard 1996).

**Table 1:** Average values of the microhabitat and microclimate variables in treefall gaps and adjacent forest in the Parque Metropolitan de Pituáçu (Salvador – Bahia - Brazil).

Microhabitat and microclimate variables	Treefall gaps	Adjacent Forest
Thermal largeness (°C)	5.6	5.0
Deep leaf litter (cm)	4.5	5.3
Diameter at breast height (cm)	20.5	31.1
Coverage herbaceous (*)	2.5	3.6
Coverage leaf litter (*)	2.2	1.8
Frequency of fallen trunk (absolute frequency)	10.5	5.9

\* Measured using the adapted Fournier Intensity Percent (Fournier 1974).

A total of 550 spiders were collected, distributed among 14 families. Among these, 121 were adult, 60 were collected in adjacent forests and 61 in tree fall gaps (Table 2). This difference is not significant ( $U=685.50$ ,  $p=0.6752$ ). A total of 36 species was collected. More species were collected in adjacent forest than in treefall gaps, but this difference is not significant (26 versus 22, respectively;  $U'=21.500$ ,  $p=0.5887$ ). The three most common species in adjacent forest include Salticidae sp. 1 (Salticidae) with 13.33% of all specimens, *Coleosoma floridanus* Banks 1900 (Theridiidae) with 10% and *Tenedos* sp. (Zodariidae) with 8.33%. Altogether, they represent 31.6% of all specimens collected. The three most common species in treefall gaps are Salticidae sp. 1 (Salticidae) with 18.03% of all specimens, *Tanybelus aeneiceps* Simon 1902 (Salticidae) with 14.75%, and *Tenedos* sp. (Zodariidae) with 11.47%. Altogether, these species represent 44.25% of all collected specimens.

**Table 2:** Number of individuals by species collected by litter sifting in treefall gaps and adjacent forest in the Parque Metropolitan de Pituáçu (Salvador – Bahia - Brazil).

Family	Species	Treefall gaps		Adjacent forest		Total	
		n	%	n	%	n	%
Anyphaenidae							
	Anyphaeninae sp.1	1	1.67	0	0.00	1	0.83
Araneidae							
	<i>Alpaida negro</i> (Levi 1988)	1	1.67	0	0.00	1	0.83
	<i>Alpaida</i> sp.1	0	0.00	1	1.64	1	0.83
	<i>Araneus tijuca</i> (Levi 1988)	1	1.67	0	0.00	1	0.83
	<i>Eustala</i> sp.1	0	0.00	1	1.64	1	0.83
	<i>Mangora</i> sp.1	0	0.00	1	1.64	1	0.83
Caponiidae							
	<i>Nops</i> sp.1	1	1.67	1	1.64	2	1.65
Clubionidae							
	<i>Elaver</i> sp.1	0	0.00	1	1.64	1	0.83
Coriniidae							
	<i>Castianeira</i> sp.1	1	1.67	0	0.00	1	0.83
	<i>Creugas</i> sp.1	3	5.00	2	3.28	5	4.13
	<i>Parachemmis</i> sp.1	3	5.00	0	0.00	3	2.48
Ctenidae							
	<i>Isoctenus</i> sp.1	1	1.67	3	4.92	4	3.31
Gnaphosidae							
	<i>Zimiromus</i> sp.1	0	0.00	5	8.20	5	4.13
Oonopidae							
	Oonopidae sp.1	1	1.67	0	0.00	1	0.83
Palpimanidae							
	<i>Otiothops atlanticus</i> (Platnick,	2	3.33	0	0.00	2	1.65

Grismado & Ramírez 1999)							
Pholcidae	<i>Carapoia</i> sp.1	3	5.00	2	3.28	5	4.13
Salticidae	<i>Akela</i> sp.1	0	0.00	1	1.64	1	0.83
	<i>Breda</i> sp.1	0	0.00	1	1.64	1	0.83
	<i>Corythalia</i> sp.1	0	0.00	2	3.28	2	1.65
	Euophryinae sp.1	1	1.67	0	0.00	1	0.83
	<i>Freya</i> sp.1	4	6.67	3	4.92	7	5.79
	<i>Pachomius</i> sp.1	1	1.67	0	0.00	1	0.83
	<i>Tanybelus aeneiceps</i> (Simon 1902)	5	8.33	9	14.75	14	11.57
	Salticidae sp.1	8	13.33	11	18.03	19	15.70
	Salticidae sp.2	4	6.67	0	0.00	4	3.31
	<i>Scopocira</i> sp.1	1	1.67	0	0.00	1	0.83
Scytodidae	<i>Scytodes fusca</i> (Walckenaer 1837)	2	3.33	1	1.64	3	2.48
Sparassidae	<i>Thomassetia</i> sp.1	1	1.67	0	0.00	1	0.83
Theridiidae	<i>Chyso</i> sp.1	0	0.00	1	1.64	1	0.83
	<i>Coleosoma floridanus</i> (Banks 1900)	6	10.00	2	3.28	8	6.61
	<i>Dipoena granulata</i> (Keyserling 1886)	1	1.67	1	1.64	2	1.65
	<i>Episinus</i> sp.1	1	1.67	2	3.28	3	2.48
	<i>Steatoda diamantina</i> (Levi 1963)	1	1.67	1	1.64	2	1.65
	<i>Thymoites</i> sp.1	0	0.00	2	3.28	2	1.65
	<i>Wamba crispulum</i> (Simon 1895)	1	1.67	0	0.00	1	0.83
Zodariidae	<i>Tenedos</i> sp.1	5	8.33	7	11.48	12	9.92
	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>61</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>121</b>	<b>100</b>
	<b>Richness</b>	<b>26</b>		<b>23</b>		<b>36</b>	<b>100</b>

The high frequency of Salticidae sp.1 may be related to the adaptability of this family, having the ability to migrate to more favorable environments (Turnbull 1966; Huhta 1971; Almqvist 1973; Coyle 1981). Therefore, with the corroborating proposal by Peres *et al.* (2007), we suggest that these spiders can leave treefall gaps and adjacent forests in search of more favorable environmental conditions. In environments such as adjacent forests, spiders may find a microclimate more stable due to greater structural complexity of leaf litter (Uetz 1975, 1976, 1979). In treefall gaps where there is a wider variety of substrates, such as fallen trunks, more common in this environment, these spiders can use these resources as refuge. Additionally, these trunks can promote greater availability of prey for these spiders (Coyle 1981). Since these spiders have good vision (Wise 1993), the highest luminosity in treefall gaps can facilitate the capture of those prey.

The frequency of rare species found in the adjacent forest and the treefall gaps (singletons 16.67% and 11.48%; doubletons 3.33% and 6.56% respectively) was relatively low when compared with other studies (see Coddington 1991; Silva 1996; Silva & Coddington 1996; Sørensen 2003; Peres *et al.* 2007). Moreover, Peres *et al.* (2007) argue that the high frequency of species in rare neotropical forest is related not only to the effects of sub-sampling, but also represents a natural phenomenon in these forests, as has been proposed and studied in other taxonomic groups such as birds and mammals (Wiens 1989; Brown 1995; Gaston & Blackburn 2000).

Therefore, although the spider assemblages of adjacent forests and treefall gaps did not differ significantly in both number of individuals and number of species collected, there was a high number of species specific to both environments; 13 species were exclusive to adjacent forests and 10 species to treefall gaps. Exclusive species represent about 31.67% of all the species collected in adjacent forest and 26.53% of all species collected in tree fall gaps. Therefore, considering the fact that the spiders respond to the changes in the structure of habitats (Uetz 1976, 1979; Wise 1993; Downie *et al.* 1999; Whitmore *et al.* 2002; Peres *et al.* 2007) and that many species exhibit specificity of habitats (Mallis & Hurd 2005), we conclude that the high occurrence of exclusives species in both environments suggests that the treefall gaps increase the diversity of

spiders in neotropical forests. The same result was verified by Peres *et al.* (2007) in an area of forest in the northeastern Brazilian Atlantic. Thus we corroborate the findings proposed by several authors (Connell 1978; Denslow 1980; Souza 1984; Pickett & White 1986), that the treefall gaps promote an increase in the diversity of habitats, allowing more species to coexist, avoiding competition.

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