

The use of spiders (Araneae) as ecological indicators*

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Introduction

This paper deals with the use of spiders in biological monitoring, focusing on the general description of biotopes and on monitoring of pollutants.

Spiders can be found almost everywhere and usually in abundance. Being mobile and relatively short-lived they may adjust more rapidly to changes in the environment than, for example, higher plants and lichens. As they are predaceous, there is a potential for biological concentration of toxic matter such as heavy metals.

Description of biotopes

In the terrestrial environment it has long been routine to characterise and describe biotopes by means of the flora, especially vascular plants; analysis of the flora is widely accepted as a measure of the "general ecological state" of the biotope. Is it possible to use spiders in a similar way?

Numerous workers have shown that different biotopes have specific spider faunas, and in gradient analyses the species are not evenly or randomly distributed; the general impression is that spider faunas give a pattern similar to that of vascular plants (e.g. Barnes & Barnes, 1955; Duffey, 1966, 1968; Schaefer, 1970; Allred, 1975; Curtis, 1978; Heublein, 1982). This is not the same as saying that the number of spider species simply fluctuates closely with the number of plant species. In fact, the number of spider species is not well correlated with the number of plant species, but depends to a much greater extent on the spatial structure and microclimate of the environment (e.g. Duffey, 1966, 1968; Robinson, 1981; Greenstone, 1984; Clausen, 1984b). Thus, in a synecological study (Børgesen *et al.*, 1984) it was found that the correlation between the number of spider species (S) and the number of plant species (vascular plants) was insignificant (Spearman's rank correlation coefficient = $r_s = 0.049$, $p > 0.25$, $n = 10$), while the correlation between S and the percentage cover of vascular plants was significant ($r_s = 0.685$, $p < 0.025$, $n = 10$).

Like plants, different spider species have different requirements. For example, consider the following species list from a habitat in Denmark: *Clubiona subtilis* L. Koch, *Tibellus maritimus* (Menge), *Hycitia nivoyi* (Lucas), *Attulus saltator* (Simon), *Aelurillus v-insignitus* (Cl.), *Phlegra fasciata* (Hahn), *Pardosa agricola* forma *arenicola* (O. P.-C.), *Alopecosa fabrilis*

(Cl.), *Arctosa perita* (Latr.), *Theridion impressum* L. Koch, *Tapinopa longidens* (Wider), *Metopobactrus prominulus* (O. P.-C.), *Erigone arctica* (White). From their knowledge of the requirements of the different species, most northern European arachnologists would readily deduce that the collector had visited a coastal dune habitat. In fact, it might even be possible to tell which sampling method had been used, or which vegetation layer had been sampled.

In Børgesen *et al.* (1984) cluster analysis based on Sørensen's similarity index, QS (Southwood, 1976), gave the same main groupings with spider data as when floristic data were used. Moreover, there was a very significant correlation between QS_{spiders} and QS_{plants} ($r = 0.657$, $p < 0.0005$, $n = 45$).

Therefore, theoretically, it seems that the spider fauna may be as suitable for the characterisation of biotopes as are vascular plants. What drawbacks might there be? First, it may be quite difficult for non-arachnologists to identify spiders, so in any case the use of spiders would be restricted to more thorough investigations. Second, there would also be a need for standardisation of sampling methods, as different methods collect very different parts of the spider fauna. In Børgesen *et al.* (1984) two sampling methods, pooter (Southwood, 1976) and handsorting of vegetation from a quadrat, both of which were supposed to collect from the vegetation, gave completely different catches with respect to species. One must also be aware of temporal variations; although the species composition may vary at specific sites, the similarity between sites might vary much less. Barnes & Barnes (1955), MacMahon & Trigg (1972), Norberg (1978), and Jansson & Brömsson (1981) indicate that the species composition varies rather little within the two main seasons of the year. However, in Curtis (1978) the cluster analysis dendrograms show considerable variation throughout the year, but data based on harvestmen (Opiliones) are also included in the analysis.

Monitoring of pollutants

Faunal analysis

The analysis of density, frequency, species richness and indicator species has been used successfully with many kinds of organisms in freshwater pollution studies and with lichens in air pollution work. There has been relatively little investigation of the effect of pollutants on arthropods in the terrestrial environment, and only a few authors have attempted to evaluate whether observed effects could be used as a measure of pollution levels (Freitag & Hastings, 1973; André, 1977; André *et al.*, 1982; Clausen, 1984b).

Spider faunas on trees have been studied in relation to SO₂ pollution by Gilbert (1971), André (1977), and Clausen (1984b). A trend in relation to SO₂ is seen in all three papers. In André (1977) the density of spiders is negatively correlated with the SO₂ burden, while in Gilbert (1971) and Clausen (1984b) the correlation is insignificant, though Clausen (1984b) found significant differences in density of spiders between pollution zones with the lowest values in the most polluted areas.

*This paper was presented at a symposium on spider ecology and behaviour held at Furzebrook Research Station in June 1985.

It is possible that the density of spiders on trees is predominantly related to the supply of prey, which is related to the primary productivity on the trees and the mass of "tourists"; this results in great variance and a semi-bell-shaped density/SO₂ curve (Clausen, 1984b). It may thus be significant that the relative density of spiders (compared with total arthropods) is better correlated with SO₂ levels than absolute density, as shown by André (1977) ($r_s^* = -0.811$, $p < 0.0025$; and $r_s^* = -0.762$, $p < 0.005$ respectively (one-sided); $n = 12$ in both cases).

The number of spider species might be a more promising indication of the SO₂ burden, the correlation between the two factors being $r_s = -0.975$, $p < 0.05$ (one-sided), $n = 5$ (Clausen, 1984b), and $r_s^* = -0.733$, $p < 0.005$ (one-sided), $n = 12$ (data from H. M. André, pers. comm.). Gilbert (1971) did not find the number of spider species to be significantly correlated with SO₂ levels, but the number of individuals as well as species was surprisingly small, probably because of the sampling method, viz., "invertebrates seen". Much of the correlation between the number of species and SO₂ level can probably be explained by the marked changes in structural diversity associated with the epiphytic flora, especially the lichens. Also, there may be a more direct toxic effect, but how great this is it is difficult to say.

Apart from SO₂, spider faunas have been analysed in relation to heavy metals, notably lead (Pb). Only in extreme cases of high environmental concentrations has there been noted an effect on the spider fauna which could most reasonably be explained by heavy metal pollution (Strojan, 1978; Bengtsson & Rundgren, 1984; Clausen, 1984b), and it must be concluded that spiders in general are not very sensitive to heavy metals. However, Clausen (1984b) found a significant positive correlation between the relative frequency of *Clubiona* spp. (compared with total spider fauna) and lead burden, and a similar correlation was also found between *Clubionidae* spp. (compared with total spiders) and heavy metal (Pb, Cu and Zn) pollution by Bengtsson & Rundgren (1984) for their sampling period in August 1979 (in the two other periods n is only 5): $r_s^* = 0.676$, $p = 0.05$ (one-sided), $n = 8$. In addition it has been found that *Clubiona* spp. have a lower lead content than other spiders with a two-year cycle, especially in high pollution zones (Clausen, 1984a, b), which may favour the genus in competition with other spiders.

There is still a long way to go in the study of spider faunas in relation to specific pollutants. Leblanc & DeSloover (1970), working with lichens, introduced an "Index of Atmospheric Purity", IAP (in French IPA). André (1977) constructed an IAP based on the total

fauna:
$$\text{IAP}_f = \sum_{i=1}^s \frac{q_i f_i}{100}$$

where q_i = the mean number of other species with which species i co-occurs, and f_i = frequency of i . André (1977) found a significant and relatively high correlation between IAP/lichens and

IAP_f ($r_s = 0.74$, $p < 0.01$, $n = 12$). In freshwater biology, the so-called level of saprobity (X) has been much used (Sladeczek, 1973). X is weighted with respect to the frequencies of species in different pollution zones (x), and with respect to the values of species as indicators of specific pollution zones (g).

$$X = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^s h_i g_i x_i}{\sum_{i=1}^s h_i g_i}$$

where h_i is the abundance of the individual species. Such an index, of course, may also be developed for terrestrial organisms with respect to specific pollutants.

The drawbacks of the IAP and X are especially that they require very large samples in different areas of pollution to establish the values of q , g and x , and these values must be calibrated for each major geographic area because of climatic and genetic differences. These indices, however, do have an advantage over diversity indices like Shannon-Wiener's (H) and Simpson's (D), as they are based on actual biological observations of the organisms involved, while the diversity indices are based mainly on mathematical considerations (Goodman, 1975; May, 1981). H and D calculated from data in Clausen (1984b) showed no trend in relation to air pollution, and the difference between the extreme values of H was insignificant: $t = 0.009$, $d.f. = 32$, $p > 0.25$ (Zar, 1974), the ranges of H and D being 1.41-1.83 and 0.64-0.74, respectively. H has been used in the air pollution studies of Lebrun (1976) and André (1977), but their results are contradictory as they found a positive and a negative correlation, respectively, between H and pollution levels. H and D should certainly be used with caution, if at all.

Measurement of heavy metals

Lichens have been used successfully as metal collectors in studies of atmospheric heavy metal pollution, i.e., lichens are collected and their metal concentration is used as a measure of the atmospheric burden (Hawksworth & Rose, 1976; Andersen *et al.*, 1978; Pilegård, 1978; Moseholm, 1981).

Heavy metals in spiders have been measured by Williamson & Evans (1972: Pb), Price *et al.* (1974: Pb), Wade *et al.* (1980: Pb, Zn), Bengtsson & Rundgren (1984: Pb, Cu) and Clausen (1984a: Pb), and they all note elevated values of lead in the animals close to pollution sources. Clausen (1984a) showed that the lead concentration in *Araneus (Nuctenea) umbraticus* Clerck in northeastern Zealand, Denmark, was as good a measure of the atmospheric burden as was the concentration in the lichen *Lecanora conizaeoides* Nylander ex Crombie. It is certain that part of the lead "in" *A. umbraticus* reflects atmospheric levels directly, as about 25% of the lead can be washed off. Added to this that *A. umbraticus* eats the old web prior to producing a new one, and that some of the lead ingested with prey animals is from surface deposits, it seems likely that a significant part of the lead within the spiders originates directly from the air. Also, a behaviour like grooming may be important in the transfer of metals from the surface into the body. If,

* indicates that the calculation was made by Clausen.

from Wade *et al.* (1980), one calculates the correlations between lead concentrations in Arachnida (spiders and harvestmen) and distance from road or ppm lead in vegetation, it is seen that ppm lead in arachnids is more closely correlated with ppm lead in the plants than with distance from the road: $r_s^* = -0.679$ ($0.05 < p < 0.1$) and $r_s^* = 0.893$ ($p = 0.01$), in both cases one-sided and $n = 7$. It may be noted that the first r_s is insignificant while the latter is highly significant. Such a result is in good agreement with the hypothesis that a large part of the lead in spiders originates from the air, as almost all of the lead in non-root parts of the vegetation is associated with or derived from particles deposited on the surface, lead not being very mobile within plants (Little & Wiffen, 1977, 1978; Hughes *et al.*, 1980). The lead in the vegetation thus probably reflects sedimentation conditions as well as concentration. Finally, if a significant part of the internal lead in spiders originates from atmospheric particles, one would expect the regression line for internal lead in *Araneus* as a function of lead in *Lecanora* to be parallel with the regression line for lead washed off *Araneus* as a function of lead in *Lecanora*, and this was in fact found by Clausen (1984a).

A major difference between the *Araneus*- and *Lecanora* measurements is probably that the lead concentration in *Araneus* reflects atmospheric levels from not more than 2 years prior to sampling, while that in the lichen reflects a period of 4 to 5 years or more. The lichen is, in most cases, easier to collect, but it is impossible to distinguish individuals, and all age groups are mixed together. With *Araneus*, measurements can be made on single individuals irrespective of size, which makes it easier to collect sufficient numbers, and makes it possible to compare the lead content of different age groups. The negative correlation between body size and lead concentration noted in other invertebrates (Schulz-Baldes, 1973; Boyden, 1974, 1977; Williamson, 1979, 1980) has also been found in spiders, but it is so weak that it can hardly be detected at any one locality, and will not influence conclusions about lead levels. The difficulties with the use of spiders in heavy metal measurements are mainly the contamination of samples in the laboratory and, in some cases, the problem of finding enough specimens.

Perhaps in future work tests should be made for differences between species of *Araneus* with respect to (1) heavy metal content, and (2) differences in the relations between metals in spiders and metals in the air. Another point of concern is the possibility of antagonistic/synergistic effects between different pollutants. Also, chemical speciation may be important (Hughes *et al.*, 1980). Thus, when one speaks of lead in the atmosphere one actually refers to all sorts of lead compounds with different qualities. Unfortunately, the chemical speciation processes are very hard to study.

Conclusions

Description of the spider fauna gives the same general picture of the biotope as does description of the

vascular plant flora.

As yet, the number of spider species seems to be the only clear trend in relation to SO₂ levels.

Clubionids are probably less sensitive to lead than most other spiders, resulting in an increased relative frequency of these spiders with increased lead pollution.

The distribution of spider species in relation to pollutants, especially SO₂, should be studied in order to calculate q-values and g- and x-values in the Index of Atmospheric Purity and "saprobity" index respectively.

The Shannon-Wiener and Simpson indices of diversity do not seem to show any trend in relation to air pollution.

In North Zealand, lead concentration in the spider *Araneus umbraticus* is as good a measure of the atmospheric lead level as lead in the lichen *Lecanora conizaeoides*. Most probably a significant part of the lead in spiders originates directly from the atmosphere.

Acknowledgements

I should like to thank Lisbeth W. Børgesen and Ole Chr. Hansen, Institute of Population Biology, Copenhagen, and Mary Petersen, Zoological Museum, Copenhagen for reading through this paper; H. M. André, Laboratoire d'Écologie Générale et Expérimentale, Université Catholique de Louvain, Belgium, for kindly sending me his data; and "Dr. Phil. Axel Hemmingsens legat" for financial support.

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