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RESEARCH ARTICLE

Spatial and Temporal Variation of Spiders in Northwest Libya

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INTRODUCTION

Beta diversity, crucial for understanding biodiversity patterns, has been understudied in arboreal spiders, despite their ecological importance (Socolar et al., 2016; Hossain et al., 2024). This study investigates how environmental factors, spatial distance, and ballooning propensity influence the beta diversity of arboreal spider communities. Niche theory suggests habitat variation drives species turnover, with tree structure being a key factor for arboreal spiders (Gilbert & Lechowicz, 2004; Halaj et al., 2000; Jam et al., 2018). We aim to explore the link between specific tree architecture and spider diversity.

Spatial distance also influences beta diversity, potentially reflecting dispersal limitations (Jiménez‐ Valverde et al., 2010). Ballooning behaviour, a form of aerial dispersal using silk, varies among spider species (Richardson et al., 2006). We hypothesize that ballooning propensity has a stronger impact than spatial distance alone. Highly mobile species can select favourable habitats, while less mobile ones are more restricted by distance (Araújo et al., 2005). This suggests that spatial variation in environmental conditions might be a stronger determinant of beta diversity for highly mobile species.

This study evaluates the relative contributions of spatial and temporal variables, including environmental features and ballooning propensity, to the beta diversity patterns of arboreal spider communities across three habitats over four seasons. We use beta (β) and Harrison (βh) diversity measures to quantify species turnover. We hypothesize that both spatial and temporal variables, along with species turnover, will significantly shape arboreal spider beta diversity patterns.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Study site

Historically, Libya was divided into three main provinces: Tripolitania (Northwest), Cyrenaica (East and Southeast), and Fezzan (South and Southwest). Tripolitania is the most populated province, with an area of 263,960 square kilometers. The study area is located between Tripoli in the west and Khoms in the east, reaching Masallātah in the north. It extends approximately 92 km along the coast, between 32° 34` 49.02`` N, 14° 02` 19.02`` E and 32° 47` 08.62`` N, 12° 47` 44.62`` E (Figure 1). Sampling sites were selected from three different habitats: city, farmland, and wild habitat. Samples were collected from nineteen sites (n= 19). The city area covers, between Tajura region (east of Tripoli) and Janzur sector (west of Tripoli), approximately 49 km long. Six sites (C1, C2, C3, C4, C5, and C6) were selected from houses' gardens and a public park. The farmland study area is located between Qasr al-Akhyyar area from the east and Tajara from the west; it is approximately 51 km long. Six sites (F1, F2, F3, F4, F5, and F6). The wild area in this study extends about 102 km (Al Qarabulli Qasr Khiyar, Al-Allus, Ganimah, Alkomus, Masallātah, and Ash Shi'āfīyūn near Masallātah). It is described as a transitional zone between steppe and mountain regions. Samples were collected from seven sites (W1, W2, W3, W4, W5, W6, and W7), one of these sites is inside Masallātah Nature Reserve and National Park (MNRNP).

Data collection

Monthly samplings were carried out for one year (between December 2016 and November 2017) at 19 selected sampling sites (n= 19), to cover four seasons of that locality. At each study area, the sampling was conducted using pitfall traps on a transect line of 100 meters. The pitfall traps were separated from each other by 10 meters. Spiders were collected using pitfall traps. In each of the 19 selected sites, 10 pitfall traps were placed in a transect line, with 10 meters between each trap. In case of loss, an additional trap was added. Traps are made of two plastic cup containers with a 500 ml capacity. Each trap was filled with 200 ml Ethylene-glycol (anti-freeze fluid) as a preservative (Cardoso et al., 2008). Sample collection sites were visited every 50 days. The samples were collected from pitfall traps; all the caught spiders from the pitfall traps at a single site were pooled together. Then, the samples were separated so that the spiders were caught and kept in alcohol. Visual searching, sweeping, and beating samples were taken within each transect at a distance of 50 m on each side of the transect line, avoiding repetition of a previously sampled area.

Data analysis

Beta diversity, or diversity between habitats, is the degree of species replacement or biotic change through environmental gradients (Whittaker, 1972). Unlike the alpha and gamma diversities that can be easily measured based on the number of species, the measurement of beta diversity has different

dimensions because it is based on proportions or differences (Magurran, 1988). These proportions can be evaluated based on indices or coefficients of similarity, dissimilarity, or distance between samples from qualitative data (presence of species absence) or quantitative (proportional abundance of each species measured as number of individuals, biomass, density, and coverage) or with beta diversity indices themselves (Magurran, 1988; Wilson & Shmida, 1984).

Measuring beta diversity (β diversity) at a spatial-temporal scale

The variations in Araneae fauna composition between sites in different habitats during different seasons in the study area were calculated using beta diversity measurement. Two common beta diversity measurements were used: (1) $\beta = \gamma/\alpha$ (Whittaker, 1972), where β is beta diversity, γ is gamma diversity (within the landscape), and α is alpha diversity (within the habitat). The beta diversity values (dissimilarity values) were obtained via 1 – Bray – Curtis, while the similarity values were obtained via Bray – Curtis. The beta diversity value ranges between zero and one; zero indicates similarity, while one indicates dissimilarity. Beta diversity was calculated as global beta-diversity (Whittaker's measure βW) in each site by Paleontological Statistics (PAST) software (Hammer & Harper, 2001). Resemblance measures used in this study were Bray-Curtis similarity, cluster, and nMDS (non-metric multidimensional scaling). They were calculated by Primer 6 software.

Measuring turnover species

Harrison (βh) is represented by the following equation (it is a modification of Whittaker's measure (βw) :

$$
\beta = \left\{ \frac{\left[\left(\frac{S}{\sqrt{\alpha}} - 1\right)\right]}{(N-1)} \right\} \times 100
$$

Where α is the average species richness of the samples. This measure ranges between 0 and 100, the value of the scale is zero when there is no turnover, while the value of 100 indicates that each sample includes a distinct group of species. It makes it possible to compare transects of various sizes.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This study delved into the intricate relationship between habitat type (city, farmland, wild) and season (spring, summer, autumn, winter) on the distribution, abundance, and diversity of spider communities in northwestern Libya. A total of 11,224 individuals, representing 90 species, were meticulously collected across the study area (Table 1).

The investigation revealed a fascinating interplay between habitat type and season in shaping spider diversity. The wild habitat emerged as a haven for spider richness, particularly during the summer months, boasting an impressive 88 species (Table 2). Conversely, the city environment proved to be the least hospitable, harbouring only 61 species during the harsh winter. This aligns with the findings of Rosenzweig (1995) and Mobaied et al. (2016), who emphasize the profound impact of environmental characteristics on biodiversity patterns.

The analysis of species composition further unveiled a captivating mosaic. Notably, several medically important species, such as *Loxosceles rufescens* (264 individuals), *Latrodectus geometricus* (227 individuals), and *Latrodectus tredecimguttatus* (112 individuals), were documented across all habitats and seasons. This highlights the adaptability of these species to diverse environmental conditions. However, a distinct pattern emerged for other species. Some exhibited a remarkable degree of habitat fidelity, with *Uroctea compactilis* and *Segestria florentina* being exclusive residents of the wild habitat during the summer (Table 2). This observation underscores the importance of habitat heterogeneity in supporting a diverse array of spider species.

By employing beta diversity and turnover analyses, the study sheds light on the spatial and temporal dynamics of spider communities. The generally positive beta diversity values (greater than zero) indicated a clear differentiation in species composition across habitats and seasons (Table 3). While the global beta-diversity was low, suggesting a degree of overall similarity, pairwise comparisons revealed significant differences between specific seasons and habitats. This finding aligns with the observations of Pitta et al. (2019), who reported a marked influence of seasonal and spatial variations on spider communities.

Furthermore, the analysis of species turnover revealed a fascinating trend. The turnover rate, reflecting the degree of species replacement between sites, remained relatively low across the study area (Table 3). Interestingly, the highest turnover values were observed between the city during winter and the wild habitat during summer and autumn. This suggests a more substantial shift in species composition between these contrasting environments and seasons.

A closer examination of seasonal variations revealed a noteworthy pattern. Both species richness and abundance exhibited a marked increase during the summer months compared to the colder seasons (Figures 3 and 4). This observation aligns with the findings of Pitta et al. (2019) and suggests that climatic factors, particularly temperature, play a pivotal role in shaping the seasonal composition of spider communities. Valladares et al. (2002) emphasize the importance of such temporal variability in Mediterranean landscapes, highlighting the need for species to be genetically adapted to these fluctuations in resource availability.

While the study demonstrated the undeniable influence of climate, particularly temperature, on spider diversity, the role of habitat heterogeneity (vegetation complexity) cannot be overlooked. The analysis revealed a significant correlation between vegetation complexity and species composition similarity (Figures 3 and 4). This finding aligns with the observations of Jiménez‐Valverde and Lobo (2007) who emphasize the role of habitat complexity in determining the number of species a locality can harbor. However, the influence of vegetation complexity in this study appeared to be less pronounced compared to temperature.

Interestingly, the study did not reveal a significant effect of geographic distance between sampling sites on species composition. This suggests that the spider community in this region possesses a relatively good dispersal ability, potentially facilitated by ballooning behavior (using silk threads for aerial dispersal). This finding stands in contrast to the previous observations (Samu et al., 2018; Walker et al., 2020; Wu et al., 2021) that reported a clear influence of geographic distance on spider dispersal.

CONCLUSION

This study sheds light on the factors shaping spider diversity in northwestern Libya. We investigated how habitat type (city, farmland, or wild) and seasonal variations influence spider communities. While the overall species composition showed similarity (low beta diversity), some key differences emerged. City winters harboured distinct spider communities compared to summer and autumn in other habitats. Temperature, closely tied to the season, emerged as the primary driver of spider diversity. This aligns with the idea that spiders adapt to seasonal fluctuations in resource availability. Interestingly, the complexity of vegetation played a less prominent role than temperature in shaping spider assemblages. Furthermore, the study revealed a surprising finding: good dispersal ability among spider species. This explains the low species turnover observed across the study area. In simpler terms, spiders seem adept at moving between habitats, leading to a relatively even distribution throughout the seasons. Understanding these factors, habitat, seasonality, climate, and dispersal ability, is crucial for developing effective conservation strategies for these ecologically important predators. As climate change continues to alter our environment, this knowledge is vital for ensuring the survival of Libya's diverse spider communities.

Figure 1. Map of Libya (inset) showing the approximate locations of the study the area (red rectangle); data on spiders was collected. The red pins of U, F, and W indicate the urban (U), farmland (F), and wilderness (W) areas and the small pins of blue (urban), green (farmland), and yellow (wilderness) show the sampling sites around the three major landscapes surveyed in this study.

Figure 2. Venn diagram showing the number of species and species overlapping according to (a) habitats and (b) seasons.

Figure 3. Venn diagram showing the number of species and species overlapping according to the habitats in different seasons for (a) city, (b) farmland, and (c) wild (n = number of species).

Figure 4. Venn diagram showing the number of species and species overlapping according to season at different habitats: (a) winter, (b) spring, (c) summer, and (d) autumn (n = number of species).

Figure 5. A dendrogram showing the similarity of the spider's community, (a) Cluster analyses (Bray-Curtis) showed three groups: I group red box (winter), II group blue box (summer), and III group green box (spring and autumn). (b) nMDS formatted at 60% (green line), 70% (dark blue line), and 75% (light blue line) of similarity are superimposed on the 2-dimensional nMDS obtained from the similarity matrixes. City winter (CWi), City spring (CSp), City summer (CSu), City autumn (CAu), Farm winter (FWi), Farm spring (FSp), Farm summer (FSu), Farm autumn (FCAu), Wild winter (WWi), Wild spring (WSp), Wild summer (WSu), and Wild autumn (WAu).

Table 1. The temporal and spatial distribution of the collected spider species from the area of study

Latrodectus	38	63	63	63	83	65	79	
geometricus								
Latrodectus	16	32	32	32	30	35	47	
tredecinguttatus								
Steatoda latifasciata	8	19	24	14	$\mathbf{1}$	29	35	
Steatoda paykulliana	6	6	12	7	θ	14	17	
Steatoda ephippiata	5	6	6	7	θ	3	21	
Theridion	19	29	41	24	27	42	44	
melanostictum								
Theridion pinicola	18	25	38	19	16	40	44	
Theridion varians	21	49	77	39	63	45	78	
Thomisidae								
Ozyptila perplexa	$\overline{4}$	$\overline{4}$	10	5	3	3	17	
Thomisus onustus	27	47	62	20	48	46	62	
Tmarus staintoni	14	29	46	14	29	33	41	
Xysticus sabulosus	17	40	53	33	54	50	39	
Titanoecidae								
Titanoeca sp	$0-$	$\boldsymbol{0}$	$\overline{2}$	$\mathbf{1}$	θ	$\boldsymbol{0}$	3	
Uloboridae								
Uloborus plumipes	21	43	57	25	48	61	37	
Zodariidae								
Zodarion nitidum	18	37	45	19	18	45	56	

Table 2. The spider species richness and individuals in habitats and seasons.

Note: 1. An underlined value indicates the lowest species richness and individuals. 2. Values in bold indicate the highest species richness and individuals. Indi. = Number of individuals

Table 3. Similarity values (Bray-Curtis, lower diagonal) and beta diversity (dis) similarity values (upper diagonal), city winter (CWi), city spring (CSp), city summer (CSu), city autumn (CAu), farm winter (FWi), farm spring (FSp), farm summer (FSu), farm autumn (FCAu), wild winter (WWi), wild spring (WSp), wild summer (WSu), and wild autumn (WAu).

	CWi	CSp	CSu	CAu	FWi	FSp	FSu	FAu	WWi	WSp	WSu	WAu	
CWi		8	8	8	10	10	11	11	16	17	19.0	19.0 ÷.	diversity
CSp	0.6		$1.0*$	$1.0*$	6	6	5	6	11	11	13	12	
CSu	0.4	0.7		2	6	7	$\overline{4}$	5	10	10	13	12	
CAu	0.6	0.8	0.7		6	6	6	6	12	12	15	14	Beta
FWi	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.6		2	3	2	7	8	0.1	0.09	
FSp	0.5	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.6		4	3	9	8	0.11	0.1	
FSu	0.4	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.4	0.8		3	6	6	9	8	species 100)
FAu	0.6	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.6	0.8	0.7		7	7	0.1	9	\Join කි
WW	0.7	0.7	0.5	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.5	0.7		4	7	$\overline{4}$	
WS p	0.4	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.5	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.6		3	3	(Harrison Turnover

Note: 1. Values in underlined values indicate the lowest values of similarity. 2. Values in bold indicates the highest values of similarity. 3. * Values in bold indicate the lowest values of species turnover, and † Values indicate the highest values of species turnover.

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