

1 Edge effects on ground-dwelling beetles (Carabidae and
2 Staphylinidae) in oak forest – forest edge - grassland habitats in
3 Hungary

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22 Running title: edge effect on ground-dwelling beetles

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Abstract

Forest edges are essential to the maintenance of biodiversity at the landscape level. According to the edge effect hypothesis, diversity is higher in an edge than in adjacent areas. We tested the edge effect hypothesis for carabids and staphylinids in an oak forest – forest edge - grassland complex in the Hajdúság Landscape Protection Area (Hungary). The habitat types were as follows: (1) a closed oak forest with shrubs and herbaceous plants, (2) a forest edge with extensive ground vegetation and shrub cover and (3) grassland with dense herbaceous vegetation. We collected data from 60 pitfall traps (2 spatial replicates × 3 habitats × 10 traps). The GLM results showed that the species richness of carabids was higher at the edge of the forest than in the grassland and forest interior; the number of carabid individuals was highest in the grassland. The number of staphylinids and their species richness were significantly lower in the grassland than in the forest edge and interior. The results of principal coordinates analysis showed that the assemblages of both taxa in the forest edge and interior were separated from the assemblage in the grassland area. There were significant characteristic species for the edge habitat, as revealed by the IndVal (indicator species analysis) method. Our findings suggest that forest edges play a vital role in the maintenance of the diversity of carabid and staphylinid assemblages.

Keywords: edge-associated species, diversity, forest edge, ground beetles, indicator species, rove beetles

1 **Introduction**

2

3 Habitat fragmentation and alteration are the major drivers of biodiversity loss in natural
4 habitats (Magura, 2002; Fahrig, 2003; Rösch et al., 2013). These processes modify the
5 structure of landscapes and create complex ecotones and homogenous adjacent habitats
6 (Fahrig, 2003; Ries et al., 2004). For example, the increasing destruction and fragmentation of
7 habitats has led to an increase in forest edges, while forest interiors become smaller in many
8 areas (Magura, 2002). In other areas, the original forest edges have disappeared due to recent
9 plantations or abandonment of farmland (Saunders et al., 1991). These alterations change the
10 abiotic and biotic conditions of the natural habitats, which can influence the composition of
11 assemblages of ground-dwelling invertebrates (Magura et al., 2001).

12 Forest edges are transitional zones between forest and adjacent open habitats (Matlack,
13 1993). These zones allow or prevent migration between populations and are unique habitats
14 favoured by certain species and inhospitable to others (Holland et al., 1991). Thus, forest
15 edges have vital effects on adjacent biotas: certain native forest species may decline or go
16 extinct due to the reduction in the interior areas of forests and changes in environmental
17 conditions (light regime, substrates, soil moisture) (Murcia, 1995). In addition, the forest edge
18 can serve as a source habitat or stepping-stone for species from both adjoining habitats (den
19 Boer, 1981; Pulliam, 1988). Moreover, the edge may act as an ecological trap for some insects
20 (Ries & Fagan, 2003) or a shelter, leading to species that are characteristic to the forest edges,
21 i.e., edge-associated species (Molnár et al., 2001; Horváth et al., 2002; Magura, 2002). These
22 edge-associated species are adapted to forest edges with a distinct structure and/or
23 microclimate and are not present in adjacent habitats, which thereby increases the biodiversity
24 within forest edges (Odum, 1971; Magura et al., 2001).

25 The effect of forest edges on epigeic arthropods is documented in many previous studies
26 (Molnár et al., 2001; Magura, 2002; Ries & Sisk, 2008; Antonović et al., 2012). Nonetheless,
27 the majority of these studies have focused on ground beetles or spiders (Magura &
28 Tóthmérész, 1997; Horváth et al., 2002; Pohl et al., 2007). Other taxa can also respond
29 quickly and distinctly to the effects of environmental and human disturbances. Thus, it is
30 necessary to determine the effect of these influences on other arthropods. In this study, we
31 examined the edge effect on carabid and staphylinid beetles (Coleoptera: Carabidae,
32 Staphylinidae). These species are ecologically important insect components of the soil fauna;
33 they are diverse and abundant taxa and are good indicators of abiotic (physical and chemical)

1 and biotic (interactions among plant and animal species) changes, as well as environmental
2 and human disturbances (Lövei & Sunderland, 1996; Boháč, 1999; Magura et al., 2013).
3 These properties indicate that these taxa are particularly useful for monitoring changes in
4 diversity and/or in ecological studies (Niemelä et al., 1993; Boháč, 1999; Rainio & Niemelä,
5 2003).

6 In the present study we tested the edge effect hypothesis, which states that species richness
7 is higher in an edge between habitats than in the adjoining habitats and/or that there are edge-
8 associated characteristic species (Samways, 1994). We expected that the edge-associated
9 species and species from adjoining habitats cause the increase in species richness in the forest
10 edge. We also studied the distribution of carabid and staphylinid assemblages in a grassland
11 habitat, forest edge and forest interior and identified the characteristic species of each habitat
12 type using IndVal (indicator species analysis) method (Niemelä & Spence, 1994; Dufrêne &
13 Legendre, 1997; Magura et al., 2000; Elek et al., 2001).

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15 **Materials and Methods**

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17 **Site description and sampling**

18

19 The research area was located in the Hajdúság Landscape Protection Area (Hungary) in a
20 lowland oak forest - grassland complex (47° 32' 58.27" N and 21° 56' 12.25" E). We studied
21 three habitat types: (1) forest interior - a closed oak forest with thick litter and an herbaceous
22 and shrub layer and 85-95% canopy cover; (2) forest edge - a shrubby forest edge with more
23 ground vegetation and a shrub layer; and (3) grassland area - mesophilous grassland with
24 dense herbaceous vegetation.

25 We collected beetles using pitfall traps (diameter 65 mm) containing 100 ml of 70%
26 ethylene glycol as a killing-preserving solution. The traps were covered with a square (20 x
27 20 cm) of fiberboard for protection from litter and rain (Spence & Niemelä, 1994). The study
28 sites in the grassland and forest interior were 25 m from the forest edge, which was 6-14 m
29 wide. Ten traps were placed in each habitat type. We followed Niemelä et al. (2000), who
30 developed a standardized sampling protocol and proposed that pitfall traps should be installed
31 in a random arrangement at least 10 m apart to ensure independent sampling. Therefore, traps
32 were placed at least 10 m apart from each other. There were two spatial replicates of the
33 sampling sites, separated by a distance of more than 100 m. There were thus 60 traps

1 altogether (2 spatial replicates \times 3 habitat types \times 10 traps). The traps were emptied every
2 fourth week from the beginning of May to the end of October 2009, i.e. 6 times. All carabid
3 and staphylinid beetles in the samples were identified to species using standard keys (Lohse,
4 1974; Hürka, 1996; Assing & Schülke, 2011).

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6 Data analyses

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8 Prior to the analyses, we pooled the catches per trap for the entire year. We used factorial
9 GLMs to test for differences in the number of individuals and the species richness of carabids
10 and staphylinids among the three habitat types (forest interior, forest edge and grassland). We
11 used quasi-Poisson log link function to account for over dispersion in the data (Zuur et al.,
12 2009). When the overall GLMs revealed a significant difference between the means, an LSD
13 test was performed for multiple comparisons among means. Analyses were performed using
14 STATISTICA 8.0. The composition of carabid and staphylinid assemblages at the trap level
15 was displayed using principal coordinates analysis (PCoA) based on a Bray-Curtis index of
16 dissimilarity, which is sensitive to changes in the relative abundances of the species (Pielou
17 1984).

18 We used the IndVal (indicator species analysis) method to explore the characteristic
19 species in the forest, forest edge, and grassland habitats (Dufrêne & Legendre, 1997). The
20 indicator value (IndVal) of a species is expressed as a product of the specificity and fidelity
21 measure. The specificity measure (A_{ij}) is defined as follows:

$$22 \quad A_{ij} = \frac{N_{ij}}{N_i},$$

23 where N_{ij} is the mean number of individuals of species i across sites of group j , whereas N_i is
24 the sum of the mean numbers of individuals of species i across all groups. The fidelity of the
25 species is measured by B_{ij} :

$$26 \quad B_{ij} = \frac{S_{ij}}{S_j},$$

27 where S_{ij} is the number of sites in cluster j at which species i is present, whereas S_j is the total
28 number of sites in that cluster. Therefore, the Indicator Value ($IndVal_{ij}$) is as follows:

$$29 \quad IndVal_{ij} = A_{ij} \times B_{ij} \times 100.$$

30 The indicator value of species i is the largest value of $IndVal_{ij}$ recorded over all site groups j .

1 The indicator value is at a maximum (100) when all individuals of a species are found in a
2 single group of sites (high specificity) and when the species occurs in all sites of that group
3 (high fidelity). The IndVal method uses a Monte Carlo permutation test to estimate the
4 statistical significance of the species indicator value, i.e a random reallocation procedure of
5 sites among site groups is used during the estimation of the significance of a characteristic
6 species. The significance is evaluated by the difference between the observed value and the
7 mean of those obtained from random permutations (999 permutations were used) (Dufrêne &
8 Legendre, 1997).

9 De Cáceres et al. (2010) suggest that all possible combinations of groups of sites should be
10 considered during the indicator species analysis (IndVal method). Therefore, we considered
11 all spatially meaningful combinations of habitats in the analysis. We used the IndVal 2.0
12 package (Dufrêne & Legendre, 1997).

13

14 **Results**

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16 We collected 57 carabid species (3006 individuals) and 87 staphylinid species (1458
17 individuals). *Staphylinus caesareus* (11.2% of staphylinids) and *Carabus cancellatus* (21% of
18 carabids) were the most frequent species overall and in the grassland habitat. At the edge,
19 *Omalius caesum* (staphylinid) and *Platyderus rufus* (carabid) were the most numerous,
20 whereas *Oxypoda acuminata* (staphylinid) and *Pterostichus niger* (carabid) were the most
21 numerous in the forest interior (Table 1).

22 The GLMs revealed significant differences in the number of individuals and species
23 richness among the habitats. Total number of carabid individuals was significantly higher in
24 the grassland than in the edge and forest interior ($\chi^2 = 150.0$; $df = 2$; $p < 0.0001$, Fig. 1a).
25 Species richness of carabids was significantly higher in the edge than in the grassland and
26 forest interior ($\chi^2 = 21.4$; $df = 2$; $p < 0.0001$, Fig. 1b). Total number of staphylinid individuals
27 was significantly lower in the grassland than in the edge and forest interior ($\chi^2 = 25.0$; $df = 2$;
28 $p < 0.0001$, Fig. 2a). The overall species richness of staphylinids was highest in the edge
29 habitat; the lowest species number was recorded in the grassland ($\chi^2 = 62.1$; $df = 2$; $p <$
30 0.0001 , Fig. 2b).

31 The composition of both carabid and staphylinid assemblages changed slightly from the
32 forest interior to the edge and then drastically in the grassland (Fig. 3a, b). PCoA ordination
33 for both taxa revealed that the grassland assemblage separated from the forest interior and

1 edge assemblages along the first axis. The carabid assemblages of the forest interior and the
2 forest edge were separated along the second axis. Thus, the compositions of the assemblages
3 in the forest interior and edge were more similar to each other than to that in the grassland.

4 Five groups of characteristic species were identified by the IndVal method: (1) habitat
5 generalists that were present in all habitats; (2) forest specialists that were found mostly in the
6 forest interior (two significant characteristic species of carabids and three of staphylinids); (3)
7 forest generalists that occurred exclusively or mostly in the forest interior and forest edge and
8 were not present or rare in the grassland habitat (eight significant characteristic species and 12
9 of staphylinids); (4) edge-associated species that were recorded exclusively in the edge or
10 were common in the edge and sparse or missing in the adjacent habitats (four significant
11 characteristic species of carabids and eight of staphylinids); and (5) grassland-associated
12 species that were found exclusively or in high numbers in the grassland (eight significant
13 characteristic species of carabids and eight of staphylinids, Table 1).

14 15 **Discussion**

16
17 Several previous studies demonstrated an edge effect in the distribution of carabids (Magura
18 & Tóthmérész, 1998; Elek & Tóthmérész, 2010). However, only few studies have
19 investigated this effect in staphylinids (Golden & Crist, 2000; Pohl et al., 2007; 2008). Pohl et
20 al. (2007) show that the species richness is slightly higher in an open habitat than in a forest
21 and there are no other clear trends. A forest area within at least 10 m of the edge may be
22 colonized by open habitat species but is not a suitable habitat for all the forest species (Pohl et
23 al., 2008). Thus, the staphylinid assemblage in the forest edge is more closely related to the
24 open habitat assemblage than the deep forest assemblage (Pohl et al., 2007). Our results
25 support the edge effect hypothesis in carabids because the species richness of carabids was
26 significantly higher in the forest edge than in the grassland and forest interior. In contrast to
27 Pohl et al. (2007), we found that the staphylinid assemblage in the edge was more similar to
28 the forest assemblage than the grassland assemblage. Similar to our results, several studies
29 also show that the carabid assemblage in the edge is similar to the assemblage in the forest
30 interior (Magura et al., 2001; Molnár et al., 2001).

31 The ordination and the IndVal method demonstrated that distinct species assemblages
32 occurred in each of the three habitats (Fig. 3 and Table 1). Similar to our results, Koch (1989)
33 and Stan (2008) report that the carabid species *Pterostichus niger* and *Pterostichus*

1 *oblongopunctatus* and staphylinid species *Oxygona acuminata* and *Othius punctulatus* are
2 forest specialists. Magura et al. (2000, 2001) show that *Pterostichus niger* prefers a forest
3 edge, whereas *Pterostichus oblongopunctatus* is present in both forest interiors and forest
4 edges. Several edge-associated species (e.g., *Amara convexior*, *Tasgius winkleri*, *Falagrioma*
5 *thoracica* and *Tasgius melanarius*) were present in both the grassland and/or forest areas.
6 Previous studies also show that these species occur in all three habitats (Koch, 1989; Hürka,
7 1996) but may disperse to adjacent habitats during the period when they are active. Magura et
8 al. (2001) also report seasonal dispersal between adjacent habitats associated with annual
9 changes in habitat structure and environmental conditions. Moreover, our results support the
10 findings of Koch (1989) that the staphylinid species *Staphylinus caesareus*, *Tasgius pedator*,
11 *Philonthus concinnus* and *Philonthus corruscus* prefer open habitats. Similar to our findings
12 Magura et al. (2000, 2001) also report that the carabids *Calathus fuscipes*, *Pterostichus*
13 *melanarius* and *Poecilus cupreus* are significant characteristic species of grassland.

14 Niemelä (1988) reports that small-scale dispersal between habitat patches influences the
15 composition and structure of carabid assemblages. Thus, dispersal may result in an increase in
16 the diversity in the edge as ground-dwelling beetles may cover long distances searching for
17 food and/or habitats (reproduction and hibernation) and exhibit density-dependent migration
18 and aggregation in habitats where prey is abundant (Magura et al., 2001). *Pterostichus niger*
19 and *Pterostichus oblongopunctatus* were significant characteristic species of the forest interior
20 (Table 1). However, they were also recorded in the forest edge. Several open-habitat species
21 apparently migrated into the forest edge from the surrounding grassland (*Carabus*
22 *cancellatus*, *Pterostichus melas*). A similar pattern was recorded for staphylinids: certain
23 characteristic species of the adjacent habitats were also present in the forest edge (*Oxygona*
24 *acuminata*, *Othius punctulatus*, *Tasgius pedator* and *Drusilla canaliculata*) (Table 1). It is
25 known that changes in habitat structure and microclimate enable open-habitat species of both
26 families to colonize forest edges (Murcia, 1995; Spence et al., 1996; Pohl et al., 2007). Spence
27 et al. (1996) also show that forest specialist species have an important role in maintaining
28 carabid populations in forest edges by recolonization. Pohl et al. (2007) show that edges may
29 not be suitable habitats for forest specialist staphylinid species. We found that three
30 characteristic staphylinid species of the forest interior (*Oxygona acuminata*, *Othius*
31 *punctulatus* and *Sepedophilus marshami*) were also present in the forest edge.

32 The edge-associated species (*Amara convexior*, *Leistus ferrugineus*, *Tasgius winkleri* and
33 *Falagrioma thoracica*) and immigration of species from other habitats contributed to the

1 increased diversity of ground-dwelling beetles in the forest edge. Thus, the species
2 characteristic of adjacent habitats (forest and grassland) and those inhabiting the edge resulted
3 in higher diversity in the forest edge. There was no significant difference in the species
4 richness of staphylinids in the forest interior and edge. However, based on the results of the
5 IndVal analysis, several species were significantly associated with the forest edge, which
6 indicates an edge effect.

7 Natural and human disturbances (burning, grazing, and mowing) affect natural habitats
8 (Odum, 1971). These processes can change the abiotic and biotic environmental conditions,
9 which may in turn influence arthropod communities. Even if adjacent habitats are altered,
10 forest edges can still provide food resources and protection for carabid and staphylinid species
11 that are characteristic of grassland and forest interior habitats (Magura et al., 2001). Thus,
12 forest edges support viable populations from adjacent habitats and can serve as a source
13 habitat or stepping-stone for dispersal (den Boer, 1981; Pulliam, 1988). Furthermore, after the
14 restoration of degraded habitats, forest edges can contribute to the recolonization by carabid
15 and staphylinid species. A high diversity of plants and ground-dwelling beetles can be
16 maintained and encouraged by suitable management practices and controlled habitat
17 treatments (Anderson & Carter, 1987; Ingham & Samways, 1996; Golden & Crist, 2000;
18 Magura et al., 2001). Our results suggest that forest edges may play a vital role in the
19 maintenance and preservation of the diversity of carabids and staphylinids. Thus, poorly
20 developed forest edges (e.g., plantations and managed forests) should be augmented by
21 sowing or planting herbaceous plants and shrubs (Magura et al., 2001).

22

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1 **Tables**

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3 **Table 1.** Indicator power of the carabid and staphylinid species that are significantly
 4 ($p < 0.05$) characteristic of the three habitats. The IndVal column shows the species indicator
 5 value for the corresponding clustering level. Grassland, Edge and Forest columns: numbers
 6 given are the number of specimens trapped / number of traps in which the species was
 7 present.

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<i>Carabidae</i>	IndVal	Grassland	Edge	Forest
Forest				
<i>Pterostichus niger</i>	73.69	9/3	24/13	215/17
<i>Pterostichus oblongopunctatus</i>	44.05	0/0	5/4	37/10
Forest and edge				
<i>Platyderus rufus</i>	85.84	4/4	116/19	49/17
<i>Badister lacertosus</i>	52.50	0/0	22/12	13/9
<i>Pterostichus strenuus</i>	47.50	0/0	14/8	25/11
<i>Oxypselaphus obscurus</i>	40.00	0/0	25/10	8/6
<i>Stomis pumicatus</i>	40.00	0/0	5/5	13/11
<i>Harpalus tardus</i>	38.18	1/1	29/10	13/6
<i>Dyschirius globosus</i>	35.61	3/3	22/10	9/7
<i>Bembidion guttula</i>	22.50	0/0	8/5	14/4
Edge				
<i>Amara convexior</i>	68.99	5/3	56/17	8/7
<i>Leistus ferrugineus</i>	35.00	0/0	8/7	0/0
<i>Badister bullatus</i>	21.54	2/2	8/7	3/3
<i>Amara anthobia</i>	20.00	0/0	5/4	0/0
Grassland				
<i>Carabus cancellatus</i>	89.80	515/20	97/18	20/10
<i>Calathus fuscipes</i>	89.54	390/18	0/0	4/1
<i>Pterostichus melas</i>	87.76	398/20	59/14	52/9

<i>Pterostichus melanarius</i>	79.42	275/16	3/2	1/1
<i>Poecilus versicolor</i>	67.50	27/14	0/0	2/1
<i>Poecilus cupreus</i>	65.00	129/13	0/0	0/0
<i>Bembidion properans</i>	60.00	29/12	0/0	0/0
<i>Harpalus rubripes</i>	14.12	8/3	1/1	0/0

Staphylinidae

Forest

<i>Oxypoda acuminata</i>	77.48	3/3	13/7	99/18
<i>Othius punctulatus</i>	47.50	0/0	3/2	19/11
<i>Sepedophilus marshami</i>	30.59	0/0	4/4	13/8

Forest and edge

<i>Xantholinus tricolor</i>	88.36	5/4	47/18	86/20
<i>Omalius caesum</i>	75.92	4/3	89/16	60/16
<i>Gabrius osseticus</i>	65.00	2/2	31/14	21/14
<i>Anthobium atrocephalum</i>	63.09	1/1	29/12	37/14
<i>Omalius rivulare</i>	60.00	0/0	25/10	51/14
<i>Ilyobates nigricollis</i>	59.95	1/1	25/12	22/13
<i>Rugilus rufipes</i>	58.14	3/1	25/11	55/14
<i>Quedius curtipennis</i>	45.00	0/0	9/8	11/10
<i>Liogluta longiuscula</i>	40.20	1/1	17/8	18/9
<i>Lathrobium geminum</i>	39.46	1/1	8/6	18/11
<i>Oxypoda abdominalis</i>	30.00	0/0	7/5	14/7
<i>Tasgius morsitans</i>	22.50	0/0	10/5	4/4

Edge

<i>Tasgius winkleri</i>	43.75	1/1	14/10	1/1
<i>Falagrioma thoracica</i>	42.65	0/0	29/10	5/4
<i>Tasgius melanarius</i>	38.70	3/3	19/11	5/3
<i>Olophrum assimile</i>	37.65	1/1	16/8	0/0
<i>Platydracus fulvipes</i>	33.75	0/0	12/9	4/4
<i>Pella limbatus</i>	30.00	0/0	17/6	0/0

<i>Quedius limbatus</i>	20.00	0/0	5/4	0/0
<i>Oxypoda longipes</i>	19.44	0/0	7/5	2/2

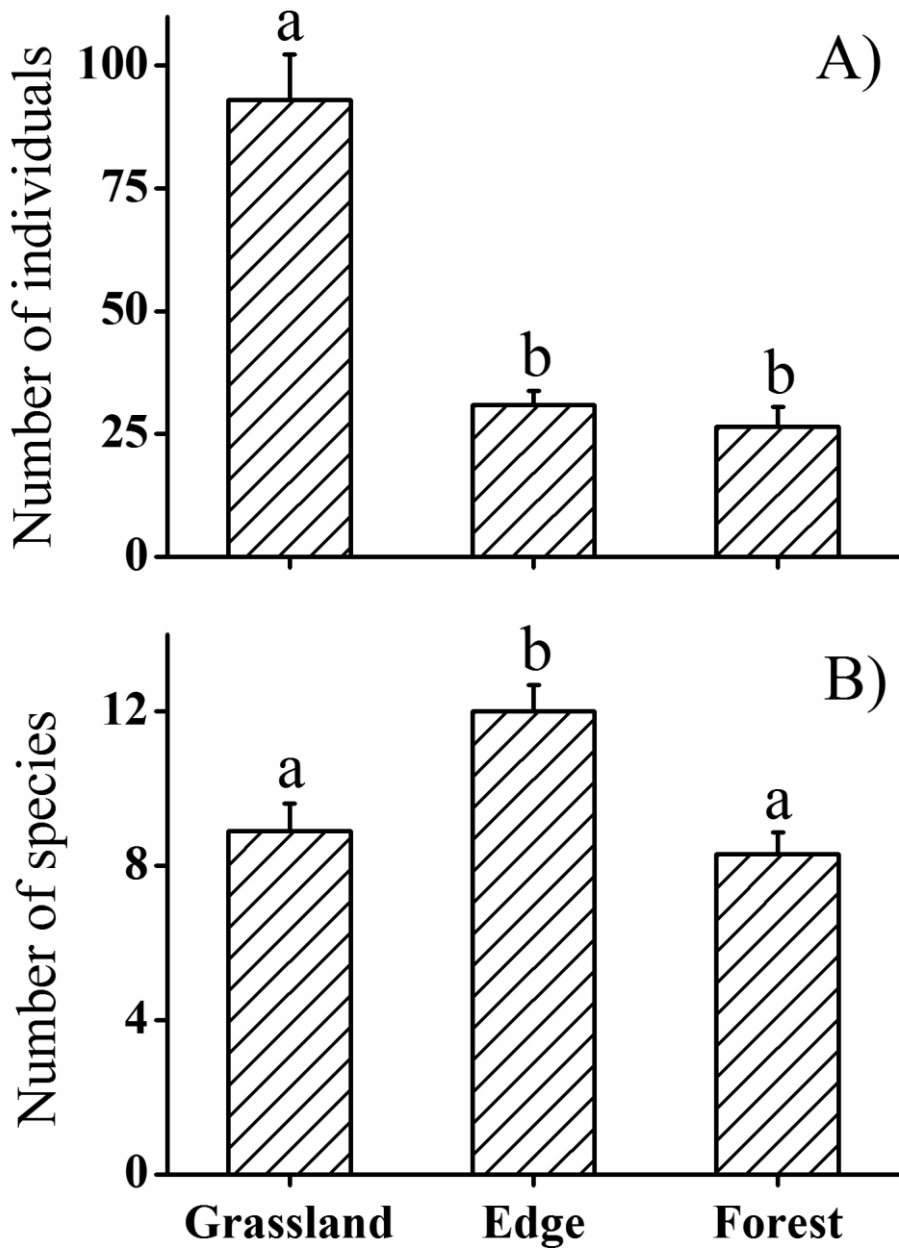
Grassland

<i>Staphylinus caesareus</i>	94.71	163/19	0/0	1/1
<i>Tasgius pedator</i>	47.37	18/10	2/2	0/0
<i>Drusilla canaliculata</i>	41.62	28/11	15/8	3/2
<i>Dinaraea angustula</i>	25.00	7/5	0/0	0/0
<i>Quedius molochinus</i>	24.50	7/7	6/5	0/0
<i>Philonthus concinnus</i>	20.00	4/4	0/0	0/0
<i>Falagria sulcatula</i>	16.67	5/4	2/2	0/0
<i>Philonthus corruscus</i>	15.00	3/3	0/0	0/0

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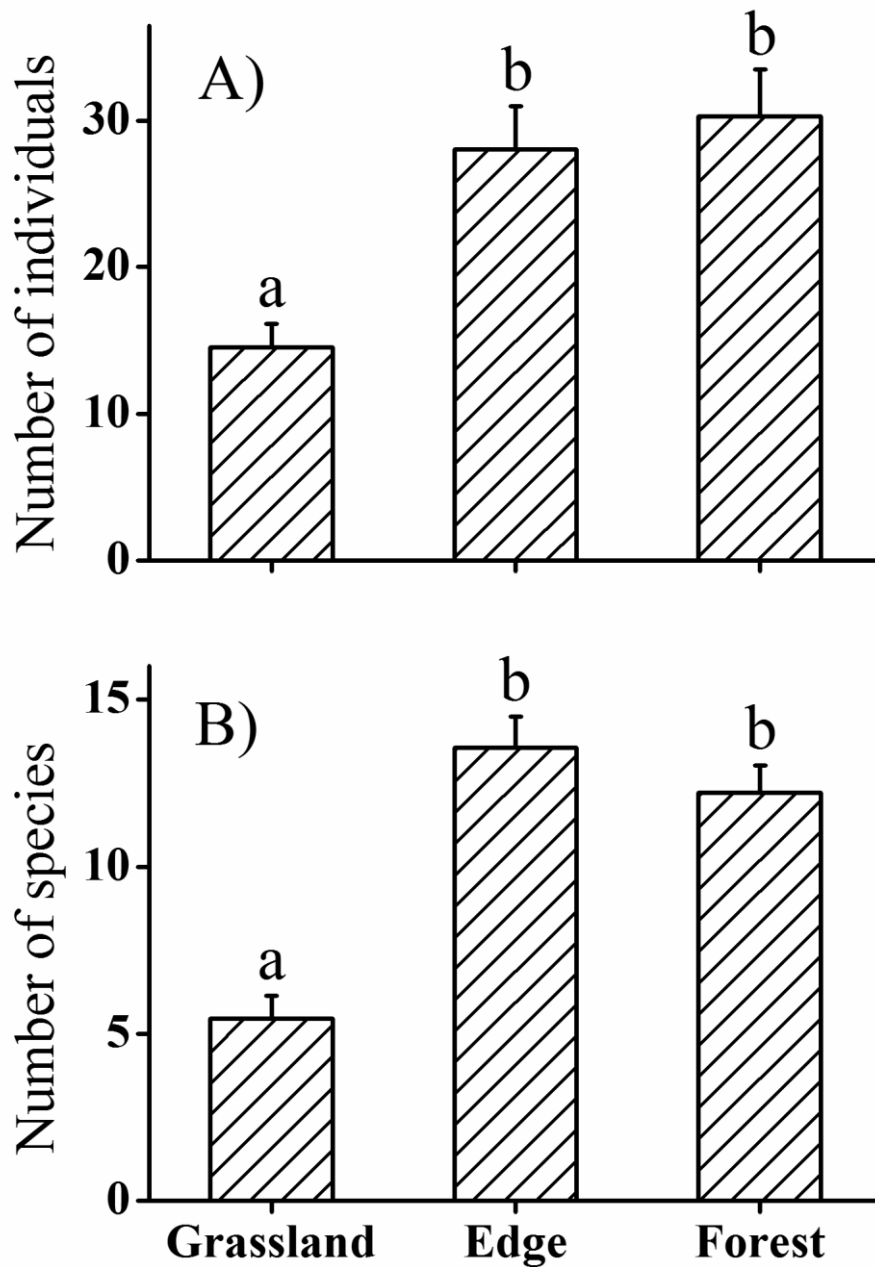
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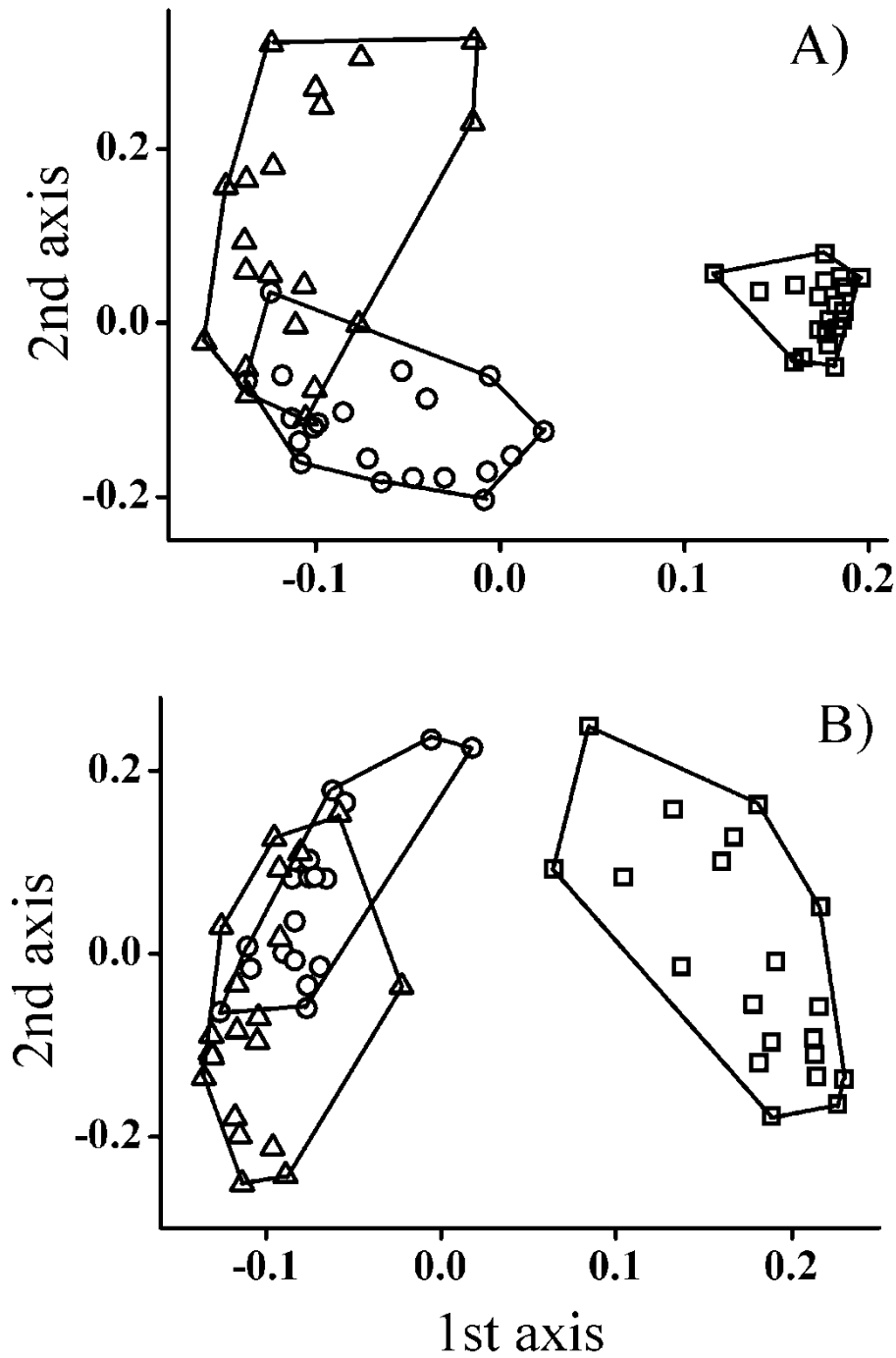


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3 **Figure 1.** Mean (\pm SE) number of individuals (A) and species richness (B) of carabids per trap
4 recorded in each habitat. Means with different letters indicate a significant ($p < 0.05$)
5 difference.



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2 **Figure 2.** Mean (\pm SE) number of individuals (A) and species richness (B) of staphylinids per
3 trap recorded in each habitat. Means with different letters indicate a significant ($p < 0.05$)
4 difference.



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Figure 3. Ordination of the pitfall trap catches of carabids (A) and staphylinids (B). Principal coordinate analysis (PCoA) with a Bray-Curtis dissimilarity was used to assess similarities in carabid and staphylinid assemblages among the traps. Notations: *empty squares* – grassland traps; *empty circles* – edge traps; and *empty triangles* – forest traps.