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## Mite community composition across a European transect and its relationships to variation in other components of soil biodiversity

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*Published in:*  
Applied Soil Ecology

*DOI:*  
[10.1016/j.apsoil.2015.06.008](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apsoil.2015.06.008)

First published: 01/01/2016

*Document Version*  
Peer reviewed version

[Link to publication](#)

### *Citation for published version (APA):*

Dirilgen, T., Arroyo, J., Dimmer, WJ., Faber, J., Stone, D., Martins da Silva, P., ... Bolger, T. (2016). Mite community composition across a European transect and its relationships to variation in other components of soil biodiversity. *Applied Soil Ecology*, 97, 86 - 97. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apsoil.2015.06.008>

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Elsevier Editorial System(tm) for Applied Soil Ecology  
Manuscript Draft

Manuscript Number: APSOIL-D-15-00159R2

Title: Mite community composition across a European transect and its relationships to variation in other components of soil biodiversity.

Article Type: SI: Soil Biodiversity

Section/Category: Invertebrate-related Submissions

Keywords: mites, soil biodiversity assessment, cross-taxon congruence

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**Abstract:** The sustainable use of soils requires the protection of soil biodiversity because of its importance in the delivery of ecosystems services. However, no effective indicator exists which would allow assessment of the current state of biodiversity and is sensitive to change. This study, which is a component of the EcoFINDERS project, examines the use of mites (Acari) as a possible biological indicator of soil community composition. Thirty-six sites were sampled across 10 European countries spanning four bio-climatic zones (Alpine, Atlantic, Continental and Mediterranean) and 3 land uses (arable, grassland and forestry) for both biotic and abiotic variables. Results show a significant effect of bio-climatic zone on mite communities; in particular, the Mediterranean region had a rather distinct composition. Land use type significantly affected mite community composition and there was a distinct association with forestry. Cross-taxon congruence among soil taxa was variable and generally weak. Procrustes analysis showed that there was little similarity between the patterns of variation in mite community composition and those of other taxonomic groups (Collembola, Enchytraeidae, Nematoda and microbes). Mite and Collembola communities had the strongest correlation ( $r=0.4316$ ,  $p<0.001$ ). There was also variation in the indicator values of individual mite groups. Mesostigmata were correlated with soil microbial activity, as assessed using Multiple Substrate Induced Respiration, and Prostigmata with Collembola.

## Highlights

Used extensive transect on which multiple aspects of soil biodiversity were measured.

Composition of mite community varied with bio-climatic zone, land-use type.

Mite community primarily related to extent of fungal dominance of microbial biomass.

Composition of Mesostigmata community correlated with microbial activity (MSIR).

At this spatial scale mites do not appear to be a good indicator of overall soil biodiversity.

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2 Mite community composition across a European transect and its relationships  
3 to variation in other components of soil biodiversity.

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18

19 **Abstract**

20 The sustainable use of soils requires the protection of soil biodiversity because of its  
21 importance in the delivery of ecosystems services. However, no effective indicator exists  
22 which would allow assessment of the current state of biodiversity and is sensitive to change.  
23 This study, which is a component of the EcoFINDERS project, examines the use of mites  
24 (Acari) as a possible biological indicator of soil community composition. Thirty-six sites were  
25 sampled across 10 European countries spanning four bio-climatic zones (Alpine, Atlantic,  
26 Continental and Mediterranean) and 3 land uses (arable, grassland and forestry) for both  
27 biotic and abiotic variables. Results show a significant effect of bio-climatic zone on mite  
28 communities; in particular, the Mediterranean region had a rather distinct composition.  
29 Land use type significantly affected mite community composition and there was a distinct  
30 association with forestry. Cross-taxon congruence among soil taxa was variable and  
31 generally weak. Procrustes analysis showed that there was little similarity between the  
32 patterns of variation in mite community composition and those of other taxonomic groups  
33 (Collembola, Enchytraeidae, Nematoda and microbes). Mite and Collembola communities  
34 had the strongest correlation ( $r=0.4316$ ,  $p<0.001$ ). There was also variation in the indicator  
35 values of individual mite groups. Mesostigmata were correlated with soil microbial activity,  
36 as assessed using Multiple Substrate Induced Respiration, and Prostigmata with Collembola.

37

38 **Keywords:** mites, soil biodiversity assessment, cross-taxon congruence

39

40 **1. Introduction**

41 The sustainable use of soils in a world where, at the current rate of human impact, demand  
42 for their services will inevitably outweigh the supply, is of major concern. Given the  
43 importance of soil biodiversity in maintaining the provision of ecosystem services (Decaëns  
44 et al., 2006; Mulder et al., 2011) and the fact that human activities are amongst the main  
45 current threats to this biodiversity through soil degradation, land use management, climate  
46 change, chemical pollution and invasive species (Lavelle et al., 1997; Bohlen et al., 2004;  
47 Decaëns et al., 2006; Feld et al., 2009; Gardi et al., 2009; Straube et al., 2009; Bran Nogueira  
48 Cardoso et al., 2013 ) there has been an increased awareness of the need to protect soil  
49 biodiversity.

50 In order to set a baseline and to monitor changes in this biodiversity there is a need to have  
51 accurate indicators of the current state of soil biodiversity (Turbé et al., 2010) and to assess  
52 the main trends over time rather than simply have a snapshot of its current state (Noss,  
53 1990). Such indicators should present complex information in a simple and clear manner  
54 (Parisi et al., 2005; Turbé et al., 2010) thus enhancing communication and transparency. The  
55 criteria for a good indicator will vary depending on the purpose it hopes to serve. The  
56 selection of such indicators and the development of an appropriate monitoring scheme are  
57 challenging with the present state of our knowledge as the relationship between  
58 biodiversity, ecosystem services and function has yet to be fully disentangled. To date, there  
59 has been no single method or indicator which reflects all the different aspects of soil  
60 complexity (Turbé et al., 2010).

61 There is a long history of chemical, physical or biological indicators being used in soil science  
62 to indicate various aspects of soil health, responses to inputs and management (Bongers,

63 1990; Schoenholtz et al., 2000; Gulvik, 2007; Bastida et al., 2008; Bran Nogueira Cardoso et  
64 al., 2013). However, while there may have been an implicit assumption that some of these  
65 indicated broader changes in the composition of the soil biota there is still not a universally  
66 accepted indicator of soil community assemblage *per se*. Soil biodiversity encompasses a  
67 broad range of organisms ranging in size from micrometre to centimetre scale.  
68 Microorganisms such as bacteria, fungi, protozoa and algae are thought to be responsible  
69 for 60-80% of biological activity within the soil (Petersen and Luxton, 1982). Microfauna  
70 such as nematodes, mesofauna such as mites, Collembola, Enchytraeidae and other  
71 arthropods are considered to be important for microbial population regulation and nutrient  
72 cycling. Lastly, macrofauna including earthworms, isopods, centipedes, millipedes, larger  
73 enchytraeids, insects at varying developmental stages, fragment and mix soil components  
74 and nutrients and affect overall soil structure (Petersen and Luxton, 1982; Edwards &  
75 Bohlen, 1996; McInerney and Bolger, 2000; Sheehan et al., 2006).

76 Many invertebrate taxa such as Nematoda, Enchytraeidae, and Collembola have been  
77 proposed as and are being used as indicators (Bongers, 1990; Parisi et al., 2005) and  
78 increasingly, attempts are being made to monitor soil biodiversity and/or its loss. Projects  
79 such as the Environmental Assessment of Soil for Monitoring (ENVASSO) attempted to  
80 identify indicators for monitoring biodiversity loss for example, and the Ecological Function  
81 and Biodiversity Indicators in European Soils (EcoFINDERS) project, of which this study is  
82 part, aims to identify bioindicators reflective of biodiversity and ecosystem function at a  
83 European scale.

84 In order to narrow down the wide diversity of soil biota to a list of potential indicators of soil  
85 biodiversity a logical-sieve method (Ritz et al., 2009) was used (see Faber et al., 2013 for

86 summary). Despite the 'taxonomic dilemma of mites' (Gulvik, 2007), Acarina (i.e. mites)  
87 were amongst those shortlisted for investigation.

88 Mites (Arachnida, Acari) are a large and functionally important part of the soil mesofauna  
89 (Gulvik, 2007). They are one of the most species rich arthropod taxa. Approximately 45,000  
90 species have been described to date, but current estimates of the number of extant species  
91 range from 500,000 to a million and they are perceived by many to be a hyperdiverse (or  
92 "megadiverse") group (Hammond, 1992; Walter and Behan-Pelletier, 1999; Ødegaard,  
93 2000). Mites contribute directly and/or indirectly to the provision of ecosystem goods and  
94 services through their intricate relationship with their surrounding biotic and abiotic  
95 environment (Lavelle et al., 2006) and in particular through their dietary interactions with  
96 the microflora and their predatory interactions with other components of the soil fauna  
97 (Laakso et al., 2000).

98 It has been suggested that soil mite communities hold good promise as bioindicators of soil  
99 biodiversity because of their stability of community composition, interaction with ecological  
100 niches (van Straalen, 1998) as well as their high abundance, diversity and wide spread  
101 distribution (Gulvik, 2007). For example, they have been proposed as indicators for  
102 assessing soil quality (Behan-Pelletier, 1999; Parisi et al., 2005) and have been used in some  
103 monitoring programmes in conjunction with other indicator taxa (such as; BISQ 'Biological  
104 Indicator System for Soil Quality' in the Netherlands, BBSK 'Biological Soil Classification  
105 Scheme' in Germany and BSQ 'Biological Soil Quality' in Italy).

106 This study explores the hypothesis that mite community composition is correlated with  
107 those of other taxonomic groups within the soil. To do this, data on mites, microbes,  
108 Collembola, Enchytraeidae, Nematoda, and environmental parameters from thirty-six sites



109 spanning four bio-climatic zones (Mediterranean, Continental, Atlantic, Alpine) across ten  
110 European countries were analysed.

111 The study assessed the value of mite community composition as an indicator of changes in  
112 the structure of other components of the soil biota. This was achieved by assessing the  
113 turnover in mite communities over large spatial scales and testing whether such changes  
114 reflected those of other components of soil biodiversity. Changes in several sub-groups of  
115 mites, often separated in studies of soil fauna (Oribatida, Mesostigmata, Astigmata or  
116 Prostigmata), were also examined independently and the effect of taxonomic resolution of  
117 mite identification on these relationships was assessed.

118

## 119 **2. Methods**

### 120 **2.1 Sampling**

121 A total of 36 sites, representing a subset of the sites described in Stone et al. (2015, this  
122 issue) were sampled in spring 2013 across 10 EU countries. These sites encompassed four  
123 bio-climatic zones (Mediterranean, Continental, Atlantic and Alpine) and three land use  
124 types (grassland, arable and forestry) (Fig. 1). Detailed descriptions of site selection, the  
125 sampling strategy and list of the abiotic and biotic variables measured at each site are  
126 provided in Stone et al. (2015, this issue). A suite of 22 abiotic measurements (Table 1) were  
127 taken at each site in autumn 2012 and pH and SOC (Soil Organic Carbon) were re-sampled in  
128 Spring 2013 to check consistency and were found to be the same. A standardised protocol  
129 was used to sample various elements of the soil fauna and microflora.

130 Each site was sampled in autumn 2012 for microbial populations, Enchytraeidae and  
131 Nematoda following the methods described in Creamer et al. (2015a, this issue). The data  
132 for most of the components of biodiversity are derived from that sampling. An additional  
133 sampling for microarthropods was carried out in spring 2013. This was necessary because  
134 the microarthropod extraction for the 2012 sampling was unsuccessful. Within each site  
135 microarthropods (including mites) were sampled using three 5cm diameter plastic cores to a  
136 depth of 5cm. These cores were driven into the soil using a rubber mallet and dug out using  
137 a spade in a manner which minimised the compaction of the soil in the core (Stone et al.  
138 2015, this issue). The samples were transferred by courier mail to the laboratory of the  
139 partner institute responsible for microarthropod extraction (IMAR, University of Coimbra,  
140 Portugal). Upon arrival samples were stored at 20°C for a couple of days until they were  
141 placed in a High-Gradient Macfadyen extractor for 7 days to extract soil microarthropods.  
142 After extraction and sorting, mites were stored in 80% ethanol and sent to laboratories at  
143 either; University College Dublin, Ireland, or Alterra, The Netherlands, for identification.

144 Mites, Collembola (Martins da Silva et al. 2015, this issue) and Enchytraeidae were identified  
145 to species level, the nematodes to functional group (Stone et al. 2015, this issue) and  
146 microbial populations were measured using phospholipid-derived fatty acids (PLFA)  
147 (Francisco et al., 2015, this issue) and Multiple Substrate Induced Respiration via  
148 MicroResp™ (MSIR) (Creamer et al., 2015b, this issue). All mites were slide-mounted in  
149 Hoyers medium (Krantz 1978) and identified to species level where possible using the keys  
150 of Weigmann (2006), Balogh & Balogh (1992), for oribatids; Karg (1993, 1989), Evans (1977),  
151 Evans & Till (1979) and Bhattacharyya (1963) for mesostigmatids; Dindal (1990) for  
152 astigmatids; Sig Thor (1933), Gilyarov (1978) and Mahunka (1965) for prostigmatids.

153 **2.2 Statistical analysis**

154 The average abundance in the three samples from each site was used throughout the  
155 analyses. Mite data were  $\log(Y + 1)$  transformed prior to analysis.

156 Constrained Canonical Correspondence Analysis (CCA) was used to assess the relationships  
157 between environmental variables (explanatory variables) and mite community composition  
158 (response variable). Bio-climatic zone and land use type were introduced as factors while  
159 microbial and environmental parameters were considered to be continuous variables. In the  
160 analysis of the abiotic parameters a stepwise variable selection was used based on the  
161 Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) to select the five most significant variables and which  
162 contributed most to describing the inertia in community composition. At each step, only  
163 variables explaining a significant ( $P < 0.05$ , Monte Carlo test with 999 permutations)  
164 proportion of the remaining variation were included.

165 Procrustes analysis was used to investigate the degree of concordance among the variation  
166 in mite and the other biotic data sets thus providing an indication of the value of mite  
167 community data in predicting biodiversity of community composition of other soil taxa. The  
168 first four ordination axes were used as input. These were derived from Detrended  
169 Correspondence Analysis (DCA) for mites (species, family and sub-groups), Collembola,  
170 Enchytraeidae and from Principle Components Analysis (PCA) for the nematode functional  
171 groups and the microbial assessments of community structure. The mite, nematode and  
172 enchytraeid data were log transformed and the PLFA was transformed using  $\log(1000y+1)$   
173 transformation. CCA, DCA and PCA analyses were carried out using Canoco for Windows  
174 (version 5) (ter Braak and Šmilauer 2012) and Procrustes analysis was performed using the

175 Protest function in the 'Vegan' package (Oksanen et al., 2012) of the R software v.2.15.0  
176 (2012) (R Development Core Team, 2012).

177

### 178 **3. Results**

#### 179 **3.1 Variation between Bio-climatic Zones and between Land Use Types**

180 One hundred and eighty six mite taxa were recovered from the 36 sites (Appendix 1). There  
181 were 101 Oribatida, 56 Mesostigmata, 26 Prostigmata and 3 Astigmata taxa with an overall  
182  $\beta$ -diversity of 7.3 S.D. units as represented by species turnover in Detrended  
183 Correspondence Analysis (DCA). The composition of the mite community varied  
184 significantly amongst the bio-climatic zones and land uses. The fauna of the Mediterranean  
185 region was most distinct with many Prostigmata and Oribatida taxa occurring most  
186 frequently in those sites ( $F=1.4$ ,  $p= 0.002$ ) (Fig. 2) and abundances of over  $30 \times 10^3 \text{ m}^{-2}$ . A  
187 similar pattern was seen when only Oribatida were included in the analysis ( $F=1.6$ ,  $p=0.004$ ).  
188 Several species such as *Adelphacarus sellnicki*, *Allogalumna alamellae* and *Passalozetes*  
189 *africanus* appear to be highly associated with the Mediterranean, while *Ceratozetes*  
190 *laticuspidatus*, *Lucoppia burrowsi* and *Malaconothrus monodactylus* are amongst those  
191 associated with the Alpine region and *Dissorhina ornata* and *Phthiracarus compressus*  
192 occurred most frequently in the Atlantic Region (Fig. 3a). Although the vast majority of the  
193 Mesostigmata did not occur as frequently in the Mediterranean region the effect of bio-  
194 climatic zone was not significant ( $F=1.2$ ,  $p=0.064$ ) (Fig. 3b). However, one species,  
195 *Dendroseius reticulatus*, did occur exclusively in one of the Mediterranean sites.

196 The fauna also varied significantly between land use types ( $F = 1.3$ ,  $P = 0.002$ ) (Fig. 4) with  
197 average abundances in the arable sites of  $4.2 \times 10^3 \text{ m}^{-2}$  and of  $26 \times 10^3 \text{ m}^{-2}$  in the forest sites.  
198 The first and second axes of the ordination show that the communities occurring in forestry  
199 were most distinct from those occurring in arable and grassland sites. A large number of  
200 oribatid species occurred most regularly in forestry (Fig 5a) while the preferences of the  
201 mesostigmatid taxa were more evenly spread across all three land use types (Fig 5b).

### 202 **3.2 Relationships between mites and microbial populations**

203 The relationship between mites and microflora was analysed by using the microbial  
204 parameters as “environmental variables”, these included molecular microbial biomass and  
205 summary data from PLFA. This analysis indicated that the oribatid fauna were particularly  
206 influenced by fungal to bacterial ratio (F:B) and 16:1  $\omega 5c$ , which is an indicator of the  
207 abundance of Arbuscular Mycorrhizal Fungi ( $p=0.004$ ), which accounted for 27.93% of the  
208 inertia in mite species abundance (Fig. 6a). The other microbial parameters associated with  
209 the second axis accounted for a further 22% of the inertia. These microbial parameters are,  
210 however, also associated with land use type and therefore it is not clear whether it is land  
211 use, or the microbial populations *per se*, which are the drivers of the mite community  
212 composition.

213 Mesostigmata, which are predominantly predatory, were not significantly associated with  
214 fungal communities ( $F=1.2$ ,  $p=0.084$ ). However, the majority of the species occurred in sites  
215 with lower microbial biomass while *Prozercon* sp., *Lysigamasus vagabundus* and *Veigaia*  
216 *cerva* do appear to be associated with increased microbial biomass and an increased  
217 predominance of fungi but these are also the species which were identified as favouring

218 forest habitats. There are some species such as *Dinychus* sp., *Arctoseius cetratus* and  
219 *Lysigamasus parrunciger*, which appear not to be related to microbial biomass (Fig 6b).

### 220 **3.3 Effects of abiotic variables**

221 Twenty two abiotic variables were measured at each site (Table 1) and the relationship  
222 between these and mite community composition was assessed by the forward selection of  
223 the variables in CCA (Fig. 7). The factors which explained most of the variation in mite  
224 community composition were base saturation (Bsa) (4.5%), exchangeable K (KE) (4.4%),  
225 Moisture content of non-sieved sample (MC1) (4.1%), soil Nitrogen content determined by  
226 combustion (N) (4.1%) and soil texture as expressed by loamy soils (3.9%). These suggest  
227 that pH, bulk density/porosity, water content and quantity and quality of organic matter are  
228 critical in determining the mite community structures but it is not clear how exchangeable K  
229 might affect the animals.

### 230 **3.4 Congruence between variations in mite community composition and those of other soil** 231 **taxa**

232 Procrustes analysis shows that there was little similarity between the patterns of variation in  
233 mite community composition and those of other taxonomic groups. At the species level  
234 there was a significant correlation with Collembola ( $r=0.4316$ ,  $p<.001$ ) (Table 2). The  
235 weakest relationship was between mites and Enchytraeidae ( $r= 0.2436$ ) and neither of the  
236 microbial community measures (MSIR and PLFA) or the nematode functional group  
237 composition were significantly associated with mites (Table 2).

238 The level of taxonomic resolution used for the mite classification (species versus family  
239 versus sub- group level identification) had an effect on the levels of congruence (Table 2).

240 The significant relationship with collembolan community composition was lost at family  
241 level but at sub-group resolution there was a significant correlation with Collembola,  
242 Enchytraeidae and Multiple Substrate Induced Respiration (MSIR).

243 Investigation into whether the use of a single sub-group of mites (Oribatida, Mesostigmata,  
244 Astigmata or Prostigmata) would indicate the same congruence as studying mite community  
245 as a whole was quite variable (Table 2). The variation in Mesostigmata was correlated with  
246 MSIR and Prostigmata were correlated with Collembola.

247

#### 248 **4. Discussion**

249 The data from these transects show that mites are responsive to large scale environmental  
250 conditions and that there is a significant turnover in mite community composition between  
251 different bio-climatic zones and between land use types. These changes appear to reflect  
252 changes in the availability of food sources, such as fungi and soil organic materials, and the  
253 physical nature of the soils, such as pH, porosity and water availability. However, in a large  
254 scale survey such as this one, they do not appear to respond to environmental variation in  
255 the same way as many other taxa which occur in the soil.

256 While mite community composition was not related to the latitude of the sampling sites  
257 (results not shown), there were significant differences amongst bio-climatic zones. The  
258 Mediterranean fauna were particularly distinct and separated on the first axis of all the  
259 ordinations. The separation of this fauna from the others is most likely related to the  
260 moisture conditions of these soils which would be exposed to prolonged periods of dryness  
261 in the summer months.

262 While many mite species have relatively cosmopolitan distributions there is also significant  
263 turnover in species composition between major bio-climatic zones. For example,  
264 approximately 50% of the oribatid mites that occur in Europe are confined to this region  
265 (Schatz 2004). Similarly, within North America, Behan-Pelletier and Schatz (2010) found a  
266 turnover of approximately 50% of the species of Ceratozetoidea between one region and  
267 another. Amongst the Mesostigmata the rate of endemism in the major global  
268 biogeographic zones is approximately 60% for the Phytoseiidae (Tixier et al., 2008) all of  
269 which suggest that such a turnover between bio-climatic zones is to be expected. Indeed,  
270 Erdmann et al. (2012) have emphasised the importance of regional differences in  
271 determining the mite fauna of forests.

272 Mite communities are known to be influenced by land use and management practices  
273 (Behan-Pelletier, 1999) and this was also seen in this study. The preferential occurrence of  
274 oribatids in forestry is to be expected as oribatids are a dominant component of the  
275 microarthropods in most forest soils (Petersen and Luxton, 1982). The observed difference  
276 between the two groups is likely to be reflective of the feeding strategies. Mesostigmata are  
277 pre-dominantly predatory; (many Uropodina are nematode feeders (Klarner et al. 2013) but  
278 some are omnivores and also feed on detritus and fungi (Gulvik, 2007)) compared to  
279 Oribatida which, although they contain a broad range of feeding types (Schneider et al.,  
280 2004) are mainly fungal and bacterial feeders (Laakso et al., 2000, Maraun et al., 2011).

281 The use of any single taxon as an indicator of biodiversity assumes that there is cross-taxon  
282 congruence in the patterns of variation between different taxa. Such congruence can arise  
283 because there is (i) similar responses of different taxonomic groups to the same  
284 environmental gradient(s), (ii) responses to different but correlated environmental



285 gradients, (iii) biotic interactions (iv) a random draw of species from regional species pool,  
286 and (v) inconsistent sampling effort (where some sites may be sampled more efficiently for  
287 multiple taxa) (Gaston, 1996). The variation in the composition of the mite and Collembola  
288 communities was correlated which would imply that these taxa either respond to  
289 environmental factors in a similar manner or respond to correlated environmental  
290 parameters (Table 2). Despite the fact that mites and Collembola may have differing life-  
291 history strategies, both groups are arthropods which live within the soil pore space, use  
292 organic matter and microbial tissue as sources of food or feed on each other, and respond in  
293 similar fashions to factors such as soil moisture content. Therefore it is not unexpected that  
294 their community compositions would be correlated.

295 At low levels of taxonomic resolution there is a significant relationship between mites and  
296 some properties of the microfloral community (Fig. 6, Table 2). This is presumably related to  
297 the biotic interactions between these groups, as many of the mites are microbivores.  
298 However, the fact that this is seen only at low levels of taxonomic resolution may reflect a  
299 prevalence of non-selective feeding and significant dietary niche overlap amongst the mites.  
300 There is also considerable evidence for some degree of dietary specialisation (Shaw, 1988;  
301 Walsh and Bolger, 1990; Maraun et al., 2011;) which would appear to contradict this idea;  
302 however, it is also known that soil food webs are characterised by the presence of many  
303 omnivorous species (Digel et al., 2014). The significant relationship between Mesostigmata  
304 and MSIR may be a reflection of a trophic cascade as the presence of Mesostigmata affects  
305 the abundance of microbivores which would in turn affect the microbial biomass (Hendrix et  
306 al., 1986).

307 The relationship with Enchytraeids is perhaps also to be expected as enchytraeid  
308 distribution is largely determined by soil water content, pH and organic matter content  
309 (Didden, 1993) all of which also affect the abundance of mites. The fact that the relationship  
310 was only seen at sub-group level again suggests that the relationship exists because of  
311 related effects of environmental conditions rather than interspecific interactions.

312 Although several comparisons showed significant correlations it should be noted that  
313 randomization tests can lead to elevated levels of significance and that therefore the value  
314 of the correlations should also be taken into account (Heino, 2010). In this study, the highest  
315 correlation achieved was 0.4316 which would indicate disagreement value of greater than  
316 80%. Thus even where there is significant correlation, the value of any single taxon in  
317 predicting the response of another is very weak.

318 It is obvious from this study that it is highly unlikely that a single taxon indicator of soil  
319 biodiversity is going to be found which is applicable across a large spatial scale. This study  
320 was carried out to test whether variations in mite community composition could be used as  
321 an indicator of change in other components of soil biodiversity. The results suggest that, at  
322 this large scale, limited relationships exist and that therefore they may not be good  
323 indicators. This is in contrast to the many studies which suggest that mites are useful  
324 indicators. Two aspects of the methods used here may explain this. Firstly, the spatial extent  
325 of this study is greater than most studies from the past which concentrated on either single  
326 experimental setups or single geographical areas. The larger scale means that altered  
327 variations in relationships between taxa in different climatic and bio-climatic zones and land  
328 uses are likely to affect potential relationships. This scaling effect can be seen in  
329 comparisons of several studies. For example, in the case of oribatid mites, Zaitsev et al.

330 (2013) have shown that at large spatial scales post-glacial age is important in determining  
331 the community composition while at a smaller scale regional factors become important  
332 (Erdmann et al., 2012) but at a more local scale relationships with vegetation type and  
333 management become important (Bolger et al., 2014). Shevtsov et al. (2013) found that even  
334 within a relatively local gradient, the only guild pairs that exhibited higher than expected  
335 similarities in species turnover were plants–fungi, fungi–Collembola and Collembola–  
336 Mesostigmata all of which are adjacent in the food chain and would be expected to interact  
337 directly. Indeed, even within a site that the effect of management can vary between the  
338 litter layer and bulk soil and interacts with litter chemistry and climate during  
339 decomposition to determine the composition of arthropod communities (Wickings and  
340 Grandy, 2013). Secondly, the mites were sampled at a different time to some of the other  
341 biota used. This may affect the relationships because the abundance and activity patterns of  
342 virtually all components of the soil biota are seasonal (Petersen and Luxton, 1982 *inter alia*).  
343 However, on a large scale such as used in this study, such differences would have to be  
344 overcome by any method employed. Seasonality and climatic features are always going to  
345 vary across the area of the study.

346 In conclusion, strong correlations between mites and other soil taxa would have facilitated  
347 the use of a single taxonomic group for predictive purposes. However, as frequently  
348 emphasised in the literature, for better resolution, we still need information on the entire  
349 soil biological community (van Straalen, 1998) as well as alpha, beta and gamma diversity  
350 (Whittaker, 1960). It therefore appears that with our current knowledge, the search for one  
351 bioindicator of soil biological diversity is some way away as no single taxon can be expected

352 to adequately indicate patterns for all other taxa at the spatial scale examined in this study  
353 (Pearson, 1994).

354

### 355 **Acknowledgements**

356 This work was supported by the European Commission within the EcoFINDERS project (FP7-  
357 264465)

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531 **Tables**

532 **Table 1.** Soil chemical/physical variables measured at each site

533

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Moisture Content of non-sieved sample ( $\text{ml g}^{-1}$ )  
Moisture Content of 2 mm sieved sample ( $\text{ml g}^{-1}$ )  
Average mass of soil in  $98 \text{ cm}^3$  core Fresh Weight (g)  
WHC ( $\text{ml } 100 \text{ g fresh soil}^{-1}$ )  
Total N by combustion (%)  
Total C by combustion (%)  
Organic C by combustion (%)  
pH  
Clay %  
Silt %  
Sand %  
Texture  
CEC ( $\text{cmol } +\text{charge kg}^{-1}$ )  
Exchangable Ca ( $\text{cmol kg soil}^{-1}$ )  
Exchangable Mg ( $\text{cmol kg soil}^{-1}$ )  
Exchangable Na ( $\text{cmol kg soil}^{-1}$ )  
Exchangable K ( $\text{cmol kg soil}^{-1}$ )  
Base saturation (%)  
Average Fresh Weight (g) in core SPRING (g)  
Moisture Content of non-sieved sample SPRING ( $\text{ml g}^{-1}$ )  
Amount of  $\text{NO}_2\text{-N}$  released ( $\text{ng/g soil dm/h}$ )  
% moisture

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534

535

536 **Table 2.** Procrustes analyses of congruence in community composition among mites at varying levels  
 537 of taxonomic resolution and other taxonomic groups (where 'MSIR', Multiple Substrate Induced  
 538 Respiration measured using MicroResp™ and 'PLFA', phospholipid-derived fatty acids represent  
 539 differing microbial population measurement techniques). The values presented are the correlations  
 540 in a symmetric Procrustes rotation.

541

Component	<u>MSIR</u>	<u>PLFA</u>	<u>Collembola</u>	<u>Enchytraeidae</u>	<u>Nematoda</u>
<b>mite species</b>	0.3434	0.2872	0.4316***	0.2436	0.3475
<b>mite family</b>	0.2532	0.2658	0.2616	0.3325	0.322
<b>mite sub-group</b>	0.3883*	0.2213	0.369*	0.4018**	0.2863
Oribatida	0.3203	0.3136	0.1922	0.2799	0.2855
Mesostigmata	0.3944**	0.211	0.2293	0.2171	0.2743
Prostigmata	0.3127	0.2482	0.3871*	0.3056	0.2593

542

543

\*Significant at the 0.05 probability level.

\*\*Significant at the 0.01 probability level. 544

\*\*\*Significant at the 0.001 probability level.

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## Figures

550 **Fig. 1** Map of Europe showing locations of sites across the different bio-climatic zones

551

552 **Fig. 2** Canonical correspondence analysis (CCA) of log transformed mite taxa across four bio-climatic  
553 zones. The first two axes account for 11.7% of the taxa bio-climatic region relationship and the first  
554 and trace are significant ( $F=1.4$ ,  $p= 0.002$ ). Only the twenty species whose best fit the model are  
555 illustrated and labels were adjusted to improve the graph. (Species abbreviations as in Appendix 1)

556

557 **Fig.3** Canonical correspondence analysis (CCA) of mite taxa **(a)** Oribatida and **(b)** Mesostigmata  
558 across four bio-climatic zones. The first two axes account for 14.2% and 12.7% respectively of the  
559 taxa bio-climatic zone relationship ( $F= 1.6$ ,  $p=0.004$ ;  $F= 1.2$ ,  $p= 0.064$  respectively). Only the thirty  
560 species whose best fit the model are illustrated and labels were adjusted to improve the graph.  
561 (Species abbreviations as in Appendix 1)

562

563 **Fig. 4** Canonical correspondence analysis (CCA) of mite taxa across land use type. The first two axes  
564 account for 7.4% of the species land use relationship and the first axis and trace are significant  
565 ( $F=1.3$ ,  $p=0.002$ ). Only the thirty species whose best fit the model are illustrated and labels were  
566 adjusted to improve the graph. (Species abbreviations as in Appendix 1)

567

568 **Fig. 5** Canonical correspondence analysis (CCA) of mite taxa **(a)** Oribatida and **(b)** Mesostigmata  
569 across land use type. The first two axes account for 9.2% and 8.3% respectively of the species land  
570 use relationship and the first axis and trace are significant ( $F=1.5$ ,  $p=0.002$ ;  $F=1.2$ ,  $p=0.034$ )



571 respectively). Only the thirty species whose best fit the model are illustrated and labels were  
572 adjusted to improve the graph. (Species abbreviations as in Appendix 1)

573

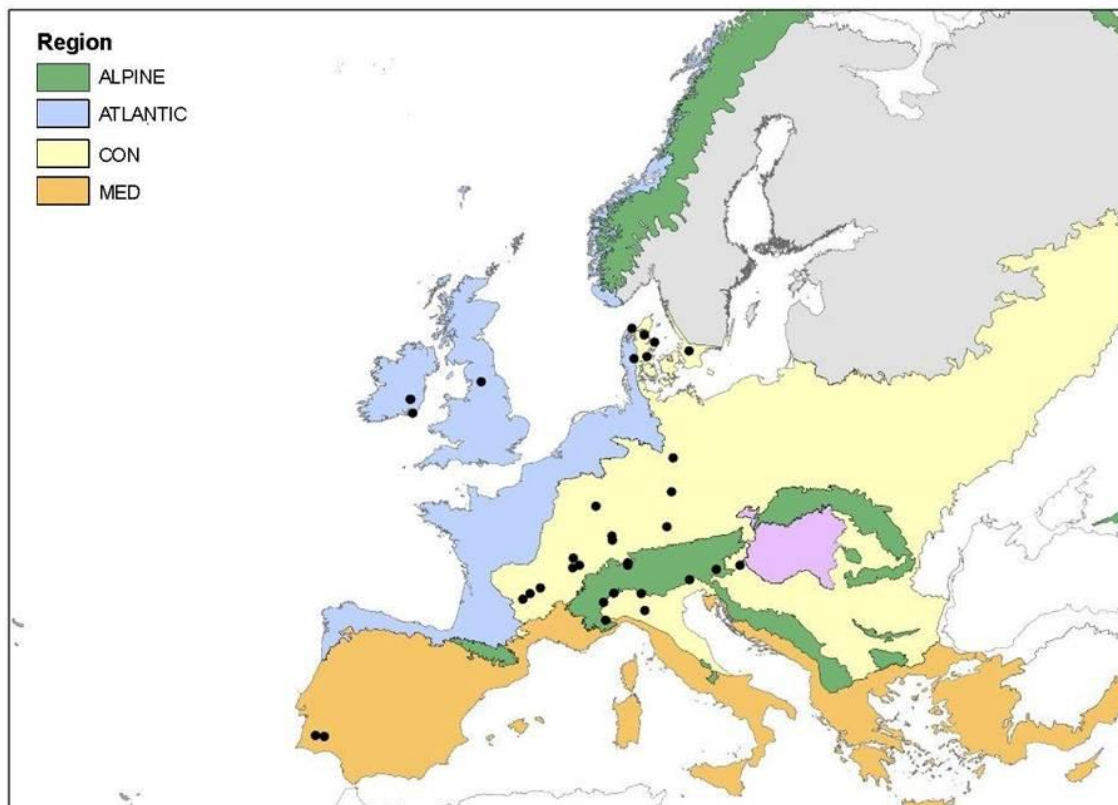
574 **Fig. 6** Canonical correspondence analysis (CCA) of mite taxa **(a)** Oribatida and **(b)** Mesostigmata with  
575 microbial parameters. The first two axes account for 22.5% and 20.6% respectively of the mite taxa –  
576 microbial relationship ( $F=1.6$ ,  $p=0.002$ ;  $F=1.2$ ,  $p=0.084$ ). Only the fifty and thirty species respectively  
577 whose best fit the model are illustrated and labels were adjusted to improve the graph. (Species  
578 abbreviations as in Appendix 1)

579

580 **Fig. 7** Canonical correspondence analysis (CCA) of log transformed mite taxa against abiotic  
581 characteristics of site. The environmental parameters listed were forward selected and the first five  
582 are illustrated. Only the forty species whose best fit the model are illustrated and labels were  
583 adjusted to improve the graph. (Species abbreviations as in Appendix 1, Environmental parameters  
584 are Bsa -base saturation, KE- exchangeable K, MC1 – Moisture content of non-sieved sample, N – soil  
585 Nitrogen content determined by combustion and soil texture as expressed by loamy soils).

586

587 **Figure 1**

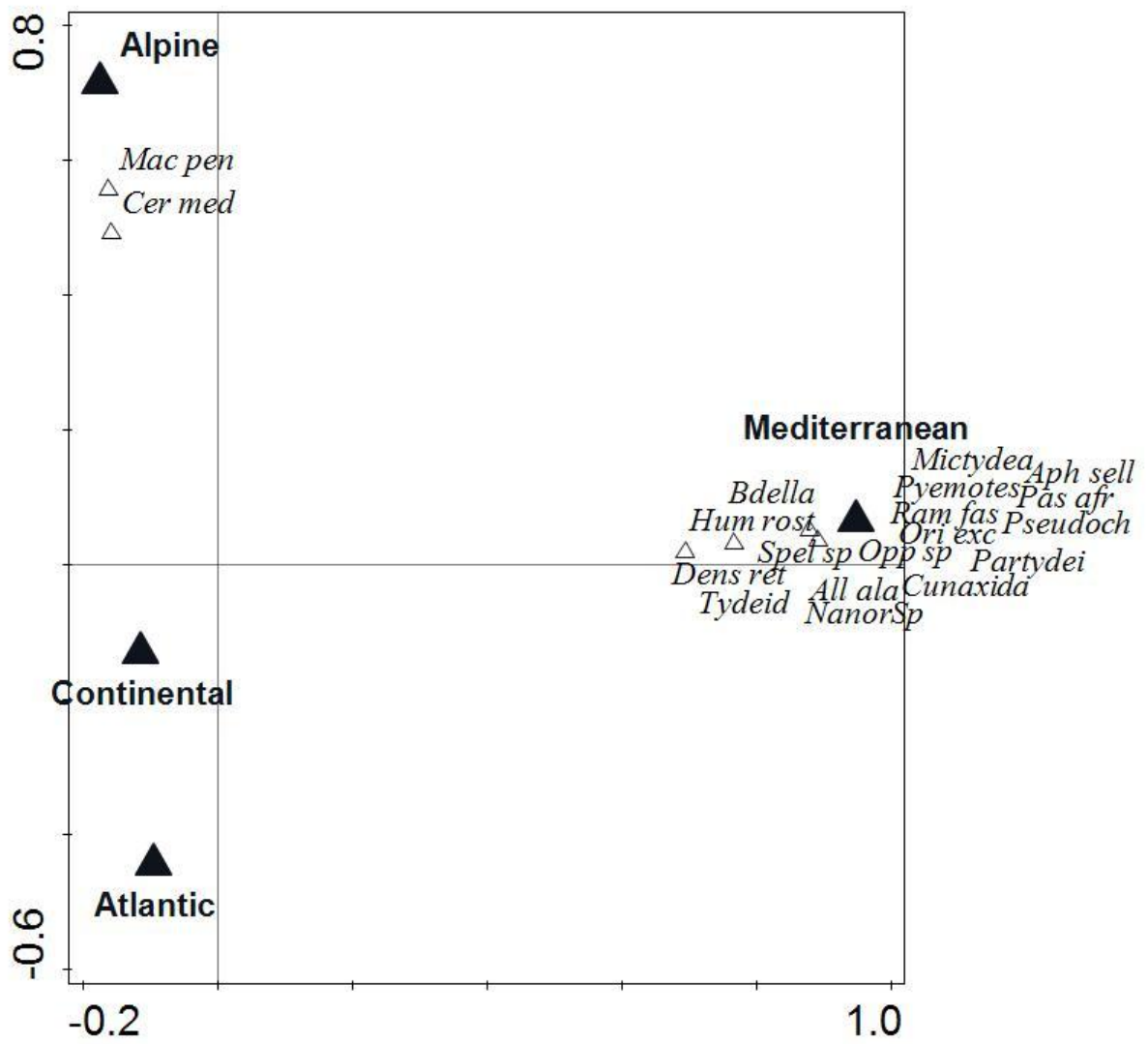


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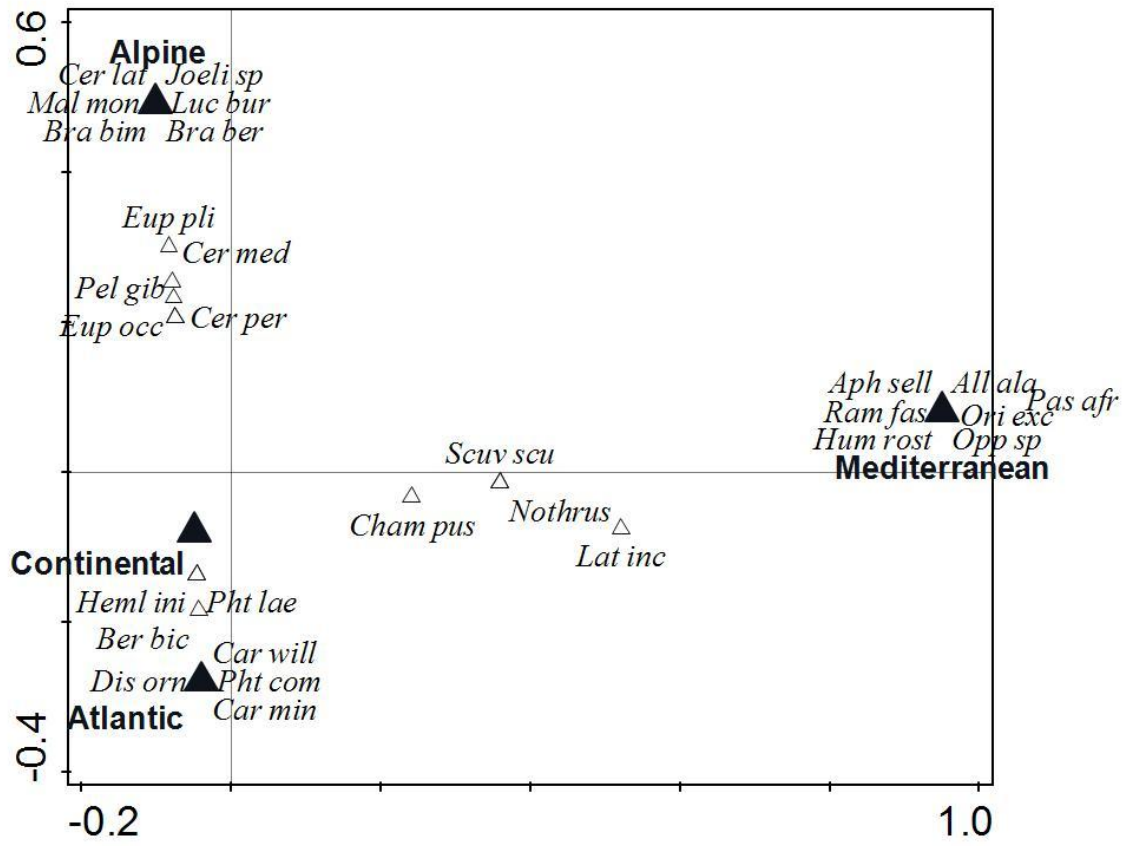
591 **Figure 2**



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593

594 **Figure 3a**

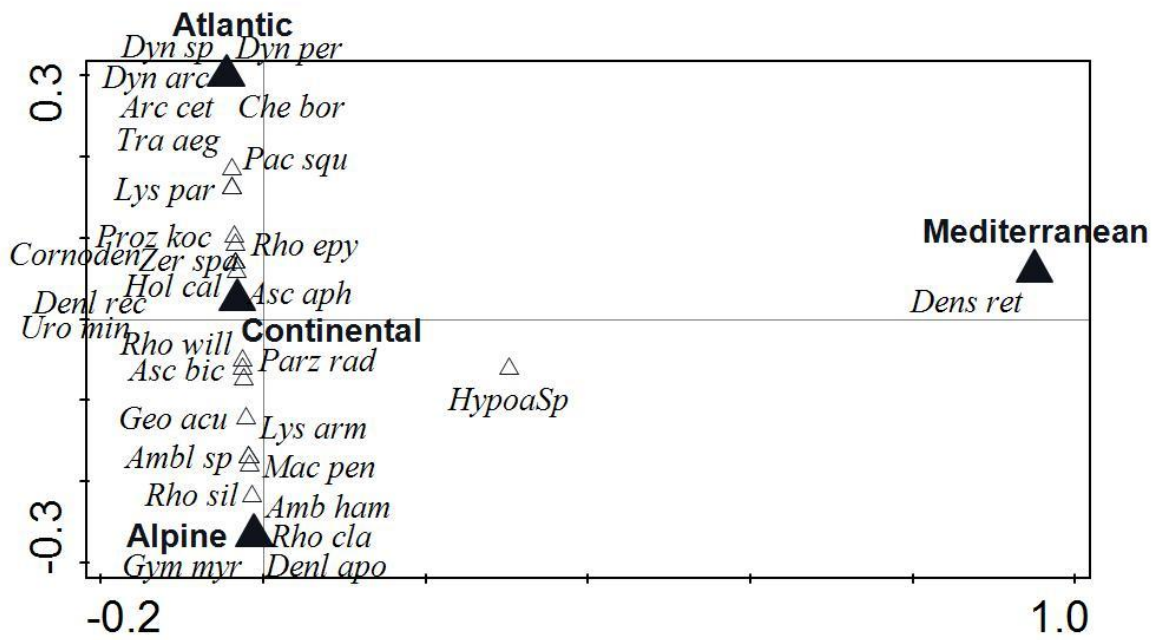


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597 **Figure 3b**

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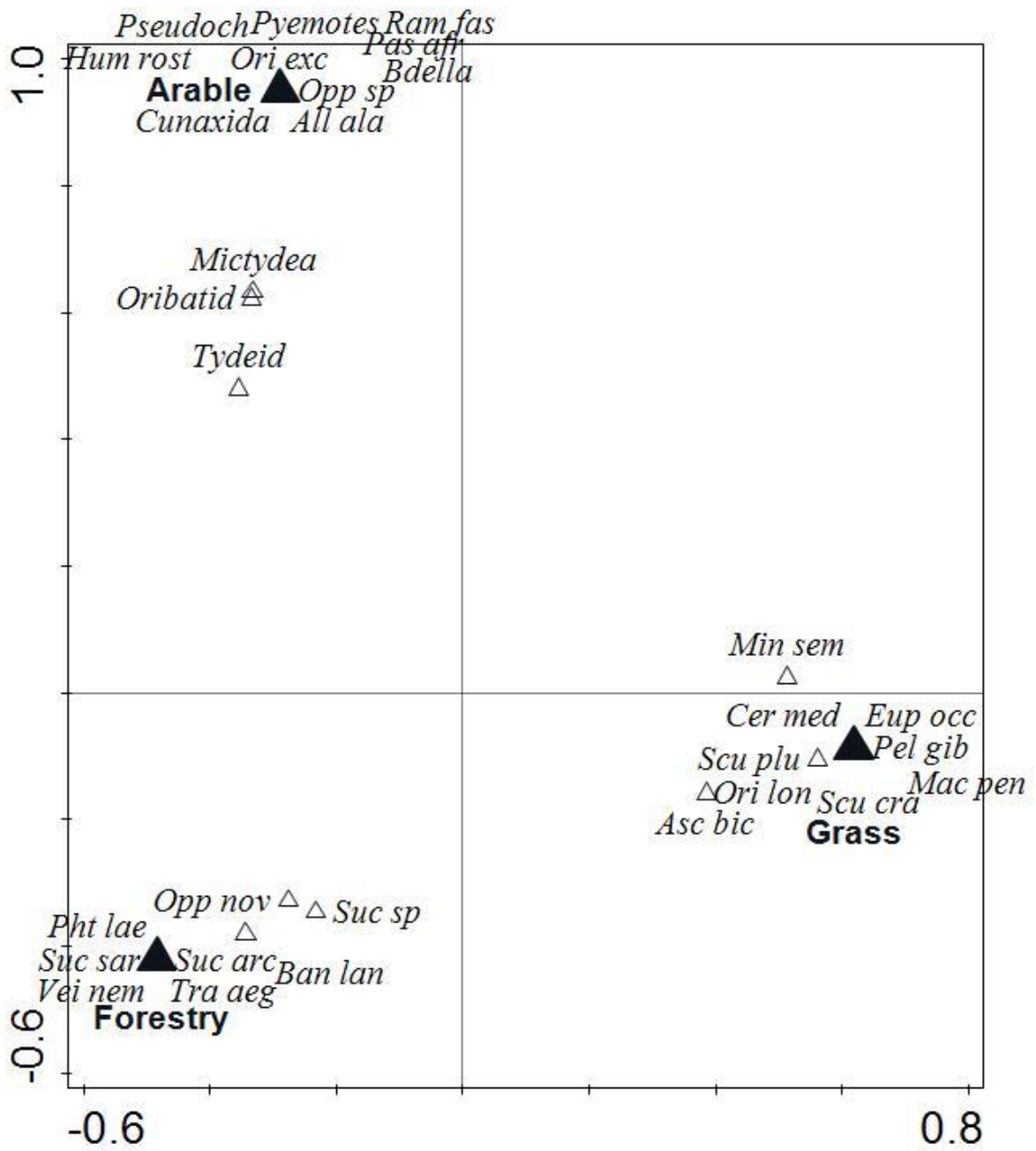


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601 **Figure 4**

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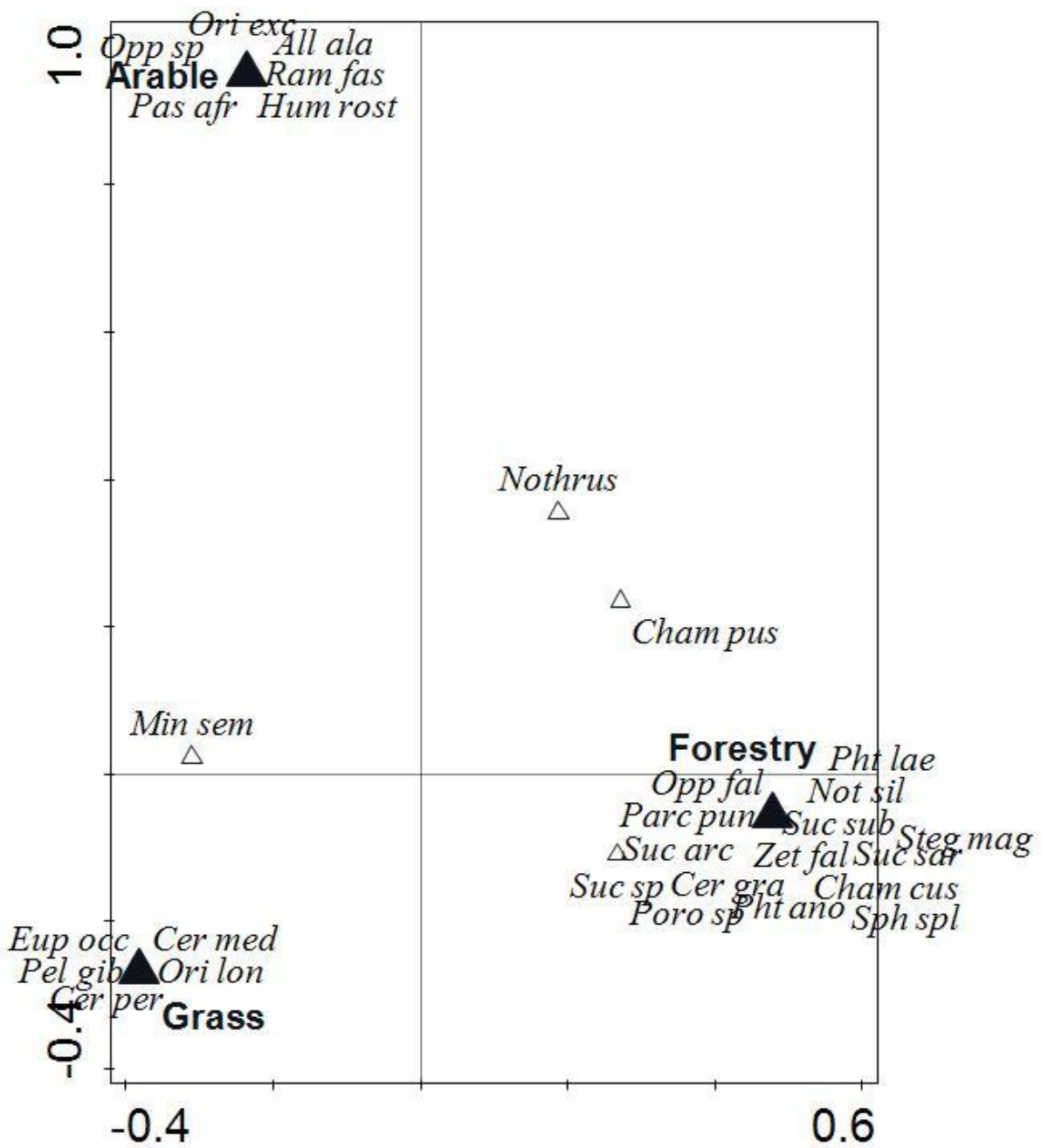


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605 Figure 5a

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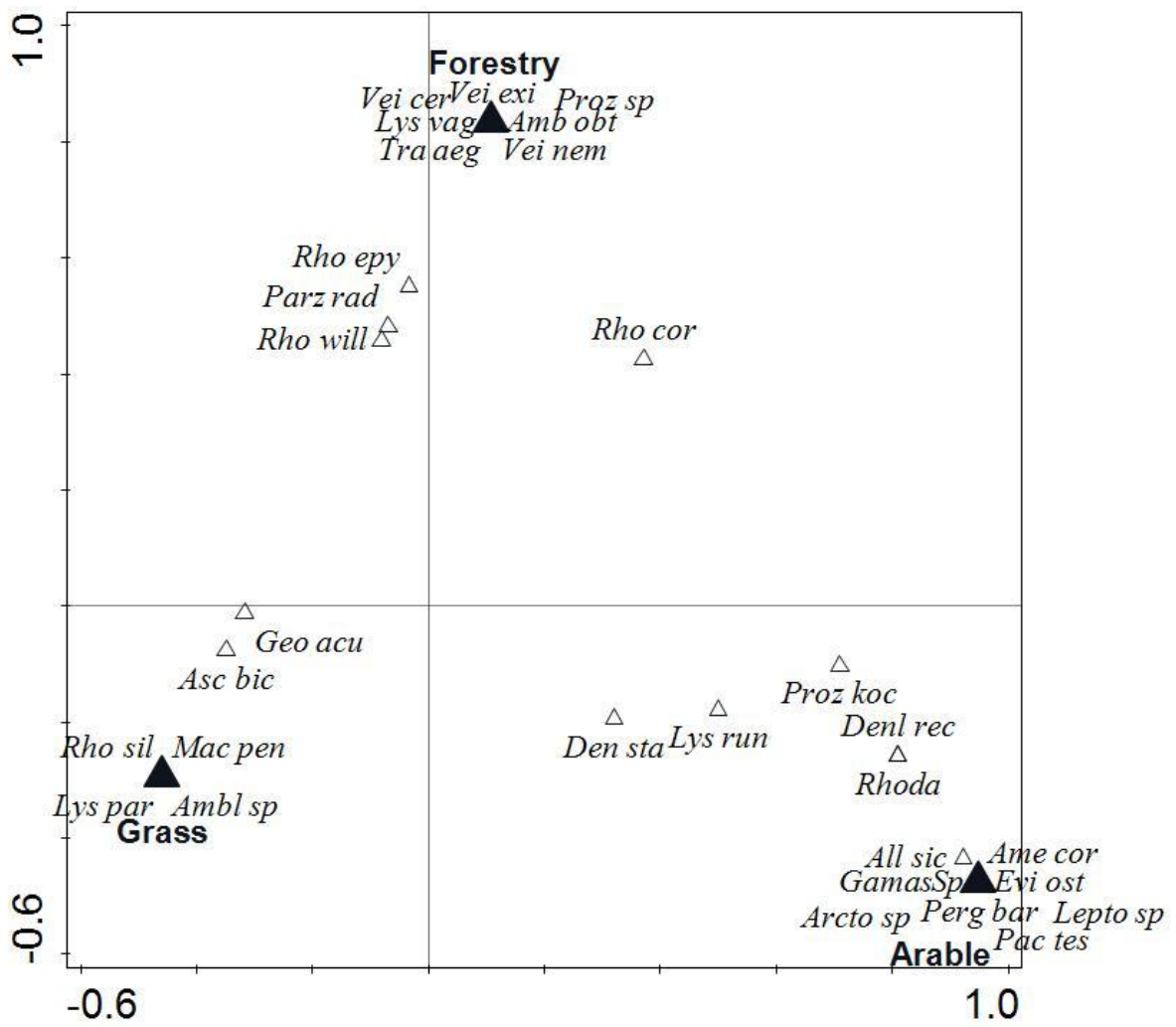


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609 **Figure 5b**

610



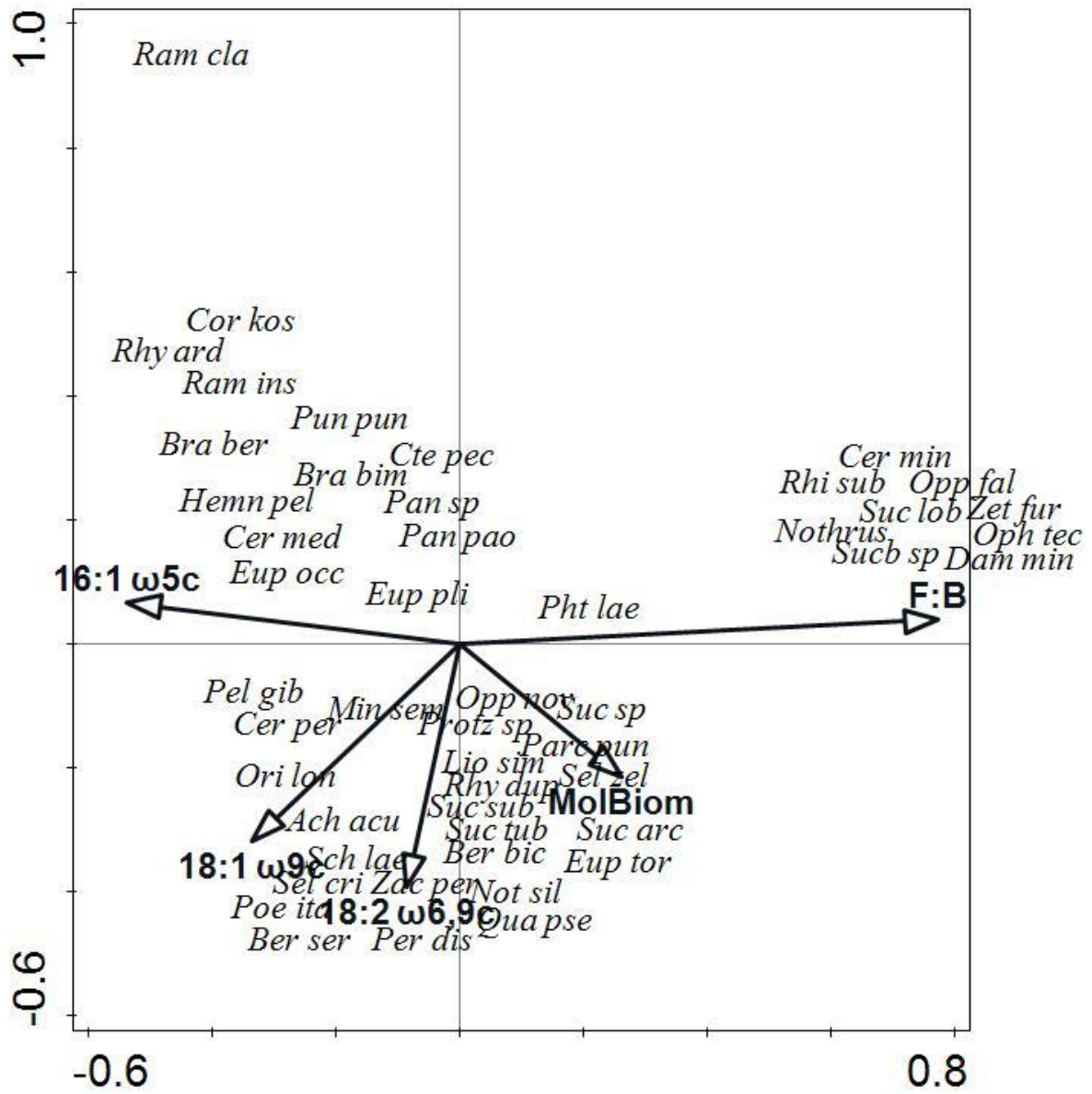
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613 Figure 6a

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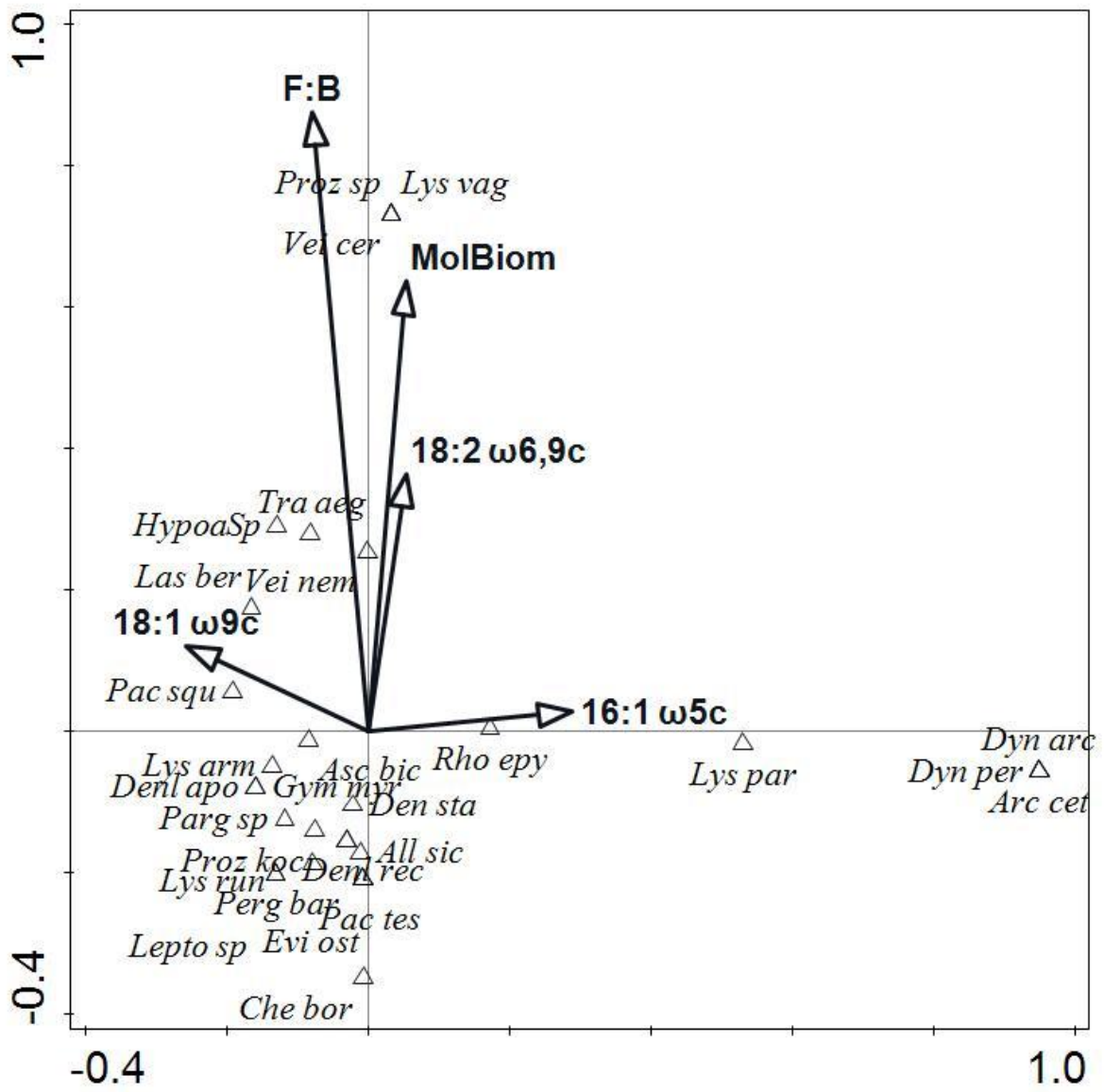


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616

617 Figure 6b

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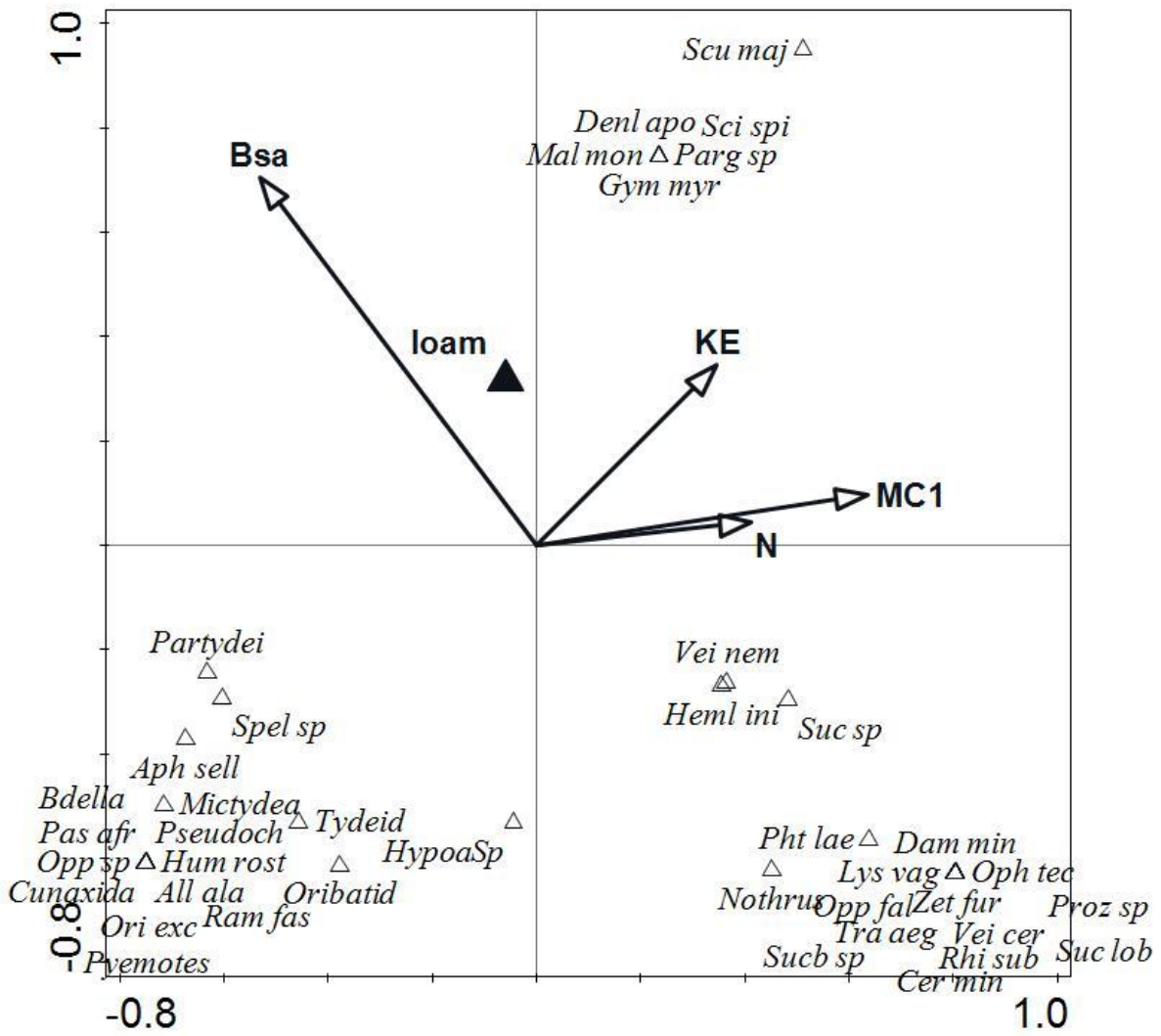


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621 Figure 7

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**Appendix 1**

Species found in each of the bio-climatic zones and land use types.

Abbreviations; Al: Alpine, Con: Continental, Med: Mediterranean, At: Atlantic, Gr: Grassland, For: Forestry, Ara: Arable

<b>Taxon</b>	<b>Abbreviation</b>	Al Gr	Con For	Con Ara	Con Gr	Med For	Med Ara	At For	At Ara	At Gr
<b>Oribatida</b>										
Oribatida	Oribatid		+				+			
<b>Achipteriidae</b>										
<i>Achipteria acuta</i> Berlese, 1908	Ach acu		+		+				+	
<i>Achipteria coleoprata</i> Linnaeus, 1758	Ach col	+	+		+					+
<i>Parachipteria punctata</i> Nicolet, 1855	Parc pun		+					+		
<b>Brachychthoniidae</b>										
<i>Brachychthonius berlesei</i> Willmann, 1928	Bra ber	+								
<i>Brachychthonius bimaculatus</i> Willmann, 1936	Bra bim	+								
<i>Liochthonius brevis</i> (Michael, 1888)	Lio bre				+			+		
<i>Liochthonius sellnicki</i> (Thor, 1930)	Lio sel				+			+		
<i>Liochthonius simplex</i> (Forsslund, 1942)	Lio sim		+		+					
<i>Poecilochthonius italicus</i> Berlese, 1910	Poe ita				+					
<i>Sellnickochthonius cricoides</i> (Weis-Fogh, 1948)	Sel cri				+					
<i>Sellnickochthonius zelawaiensis</i> (Sellnick, 1928)	Sel zel		+							
<b>Camisiidae</b>										
<i>Heminothrus (P.) peltifer</i> (C. L. Koch, 1839)	Hemn pel		+							+
<b>Carabodidae</b>										
<i>Carabodes minusculus</i> Berlese, 1923 (C.)	Car min							+		
<i>Carabodes willmanni</i> Bernini, 1975 (C.)	Car will							+		
<b>Ceratozetidae</b>										
<i>Ceratozetes gracilis</i> (Michael, 1884)	Cer gra		+							

<i>Ceratozetes laticuspidatus</i> Menke, 1964	Cer lat	+						
<i>Ceratozetes mediocris</i> Berlese, 1908	Cer med	+				+		
<i>Ceratozetes minimus</i> Sellnick, 1928	Cer min			+				
<i>Ceratozetes peritus</i> Grandjean, 1951	Cer per	+					+	
<i>Protozetomimus</i> sp. Pérez- Íñigo, 1990	Protz sp			+			+	
<i>Latilamellobates incisellus</i> (Kramer, 1897)	Lat inc							+
<i>Trichoribates novus</i> (Sellnick, 1928)	Tri nov			+	+	+		+
<b>Chamobatidae</b>								
<i>Chamobates cuspidatus</i> (Michael, 1884)	Cham cus			+				
<i>Chamobates pusillus</i> (Berlese, 1895)	Cham pus			+				+
<b>Ctenacaridae</b>								
<i>Adelphacarus sellnicki</i> Grandjean, 1952	Aph sell					+		+
<b>Ctenobelbidae</b>								
<i>Ctenobelba pectinigera</i> (Berlese, 1908)	Cte pec						+	
<b>Damaeidae</b>								
<i>Damaeobelba minutissima</i> (Sellnick, 1929)	Dam min			+				
<i>Porobelba</i> sp. Grandjean, 1936	Poro sp			+				
<b>Galumnidae</b>								
<i>Allogalumna alamellae</i> (Jacot, 1935)	All ala							+
<i>Galumna lanceata</i> Oudemans, 1900	Gal lan			+			+	+
<b>Hemileiidae</b>								
<i>Hemileius initialis</i> (Berlese, 1908)	Heml ini			+			+	+
<b>Humerobatidae</b>								
<i>Humerobates rostromellatus</i> Grandjean, 1936	Hum rost							+
<b>Liebstadiidae</b>								
<i>Liebstadia similis</i> (Michael, 1888) ( <i>Notaspis</i> )	Lie sim					+	+	
<b>Malacostridae</b>								
<i>Malacostrus monodactylus</i> (Michael, 1888)	Mal mon	+						
<b>Nanhermanniidae</b>								

<i>Nanhermannia dorsalis</i> (Banks, 1896)	Nna dor	+					
<i>Nanhermannia nana</i> Nicolet, 1855	Nan nan	+	+				
<b>Nothridae</b>							
<i>Nothrus</i> sp.Koch, 1836	Nothrus			+		+	
<i>Nothrus silvestris</i> Nicolet, 1855	Not sil			+			+
<b>Oppiidae</b>							
<i>Berniniella bicarinata</i> (Paoli, 1908)	Ber bic				+		+
<i>Berniniella nr serratirostris</i> (Golosoova, 1970) ( <i>Oppia</i> )	Ber ser				+		
<i>Corynoppia kosarovi</i> Jeleva, 1962	Cor kos	+			+		
<i>Dissorhina ornata</i> (Oudemans, 1900)	Dis orn						+
<i>Lauroppia(Oppiella) falcata</i> (Paoli, 1908)	Opp fal			+			+
<i>Medioppia subpectinata</i> (Oudemans, 1900)	Med sub			+	+	+	
<i>Microppia minus</i> Paoli, 1908	Mic min	+	+	+	+		
<i>Oppiella</i> sp.Jacot, 1937	Opp sp						+
<i>Oppiella (Rhinoppia) subpectinata</i> (Oudemans, 1900)	Rhi sub			+			+
<i>Oppiella falcata</i> (Paoli, 1908)	Opp fal			+			
<i>Oppiella nova</i> (Oudemans, 1902)	Opp nov	+	+	+	+		+
<i>Ramusella (I.) elliptica</i> (Berlese, 1908)	Ram ell				+		
<i>Ramusella (I.) insculpta</i> (Paoli, 1908)	Ram ins	+				+	
<i>Ramusella (R.) clavipectinata</i> (Michael, 1885)	Ram cla					+	
<i>Ramusella fasciata</i> (Paoli, 1908)	Ram fas						+
<b>Oribatellidae</b>							
<i>Joelia</i> sp.Oudemans, 1906	Joeli sp	+					
<i>Ophidiotrichus tectus</i> (Michael, 1884)	Oph tec			+			
<b>Oribatulidae</b>							
<i>Lucoppia burrowsi</i> (Michael, 1890)	Luc bur	+					
<i>Oribatula cognata</i> (Oudemans, 1902)	Ori cog				+	+	
<i>Oribatula connexa</i> Berlese, 1904	Ori con				+	+	
<i>Oribatula<sup>i</sup> excavata</i> Berlese, 1916	Ori exc						+

<i>Oribatula longelamellata</i> Schweizer, 1956	Ori lon	+			+			
<i>Oribatula undulata</i> (Berlese, 1916)	Ori und			+		+		
<b>Oribotritiidae</b>								
<i>Rhysotritia ardua</i> (C. L. Koch, 1841)	Rhy ard	+				+		
<i>Rhysotritia duplicata</i> (Grandjean, 1953)	Rhy dup			+				
<b>Passalozetidae</b>								
<i>Passalozetes africanus</i> (Grandjean, 1939)	Pas afr							+
<b>Perlohmanniidae</b>								
<i>Perlohmannia dissimilis</i> (Hewitt, 1908)	Per dis						+	
<b>Phenopelopidae</b>								
<i>Eupelops occultus</i> (Koch, 1835)	Eup occ	+					+	
<i>Eupelops plicatus</i> (Koch, 1836)	Eup pli	+		+				
<i>Eupelops torulosus</i> (Koch, 1840)	Eup tor			+				
<i>Peloptulus gibbus</i> Mihelčič, 1957	Pel gib	+						+
<b>Phthiracaridae</b>								
<i>Phthiracarusc f. anonymus</i> Grandjean, 1934	Pht ano			+				
<i>Phthiracarusc compressus</i> Jacot, 1930	Pht com							+
<i>Phthiracarusc f. laevigatus</i> Koch, 1844	Pht lae			+				+
<i>Steganacarus magnus</i> (Nicolet, 1855)	Steg mag			+				
<i>Atropacarus striculus</i> (Koch, 1835)	Atr str	+		+				+
<b>Haplozetidae</b>								
<i>Protoribates capucinus</i> Berlese, 1908	Protb ca	+			+			
<b>Mycobatidae</b>								
<i>Minunthozetes semirufus</i> (Koch, 1841)	Min sem	+			+	+		+
<i>Punctoribates n. hexagonus</i> Berlese, 1908	Pun hex				+			
<i>Punctoribates punctum</i> (Koch, 1839)	Pun pun	+			+	+		
<i>Zachvatkinibates perlongus</i> (Balogh, 1959)	Zac per						+	
<b>Quadropiidae</b>								
<i>Quadropia pseudocircumita</i> Minguez et al., 1985	Qua pse			+				

**Schelorbitidae***Schelorbitates laevigatus* (Koch, 1835)

Sch lae + +

**Scutoverticidae***Scutovertex sculptus* Michael, 1879

Scuv scu + +

**Sphaerochthoniidae***Sphaerochthonius splendidus* (Berlese, 1904)

Sph spl +

**Suctobelbidae***Suctobelba* sp.(Paoli, 1908)

Suchb sp +

*Suctobelbellanr arcana* Moritz, 1970

Suc arc + +

*Suctobelbella acutidens* (Forsslund, 1941)

Suc acu + +

*Suctobelbella falcata* (Forsslund, 1941)

Suc fal + + +

*Suctobelbella lobata* (Strenzke, 1951)

Suc lob +

*Suctobelbellanr latirostris* (Strenzke, 1950)

Suc lat +

*Suctobelbellanr tuberculata* (Strenzke, 1950)

Suc tub +

*Suctobelbella sarekensis* (Forsslund, 1941)

Suc sar +

*Suctobelbella similis* (Forsslund, 1941)

Suc sim + + +

*Suctobelbella* sp.Jacot, 1937

Suc sp + + +

*Suctobelbella subtrigona* (Oudemans, 1916)

Suc sub + +

**Tectocepheidae***Tectocepheus velatus* (Michael, 1880)

Tec vel + + + + + + + +

**Thyrisomidae***Banksinoma lanceolata* (Michael, 1885)

Ban lan + + +

*Pantelozetes paolii* (Oudemans, 1913)

Pan pao + +

*Pantelozetes* sp.(Grandjean, 1953)

Pan sp +

**Zetomimidae***Zetomimus furcatus* (Pearce & Warburton, 1906)

Zet fur +

**Zetorchestidae***Zetorchestes falzonii* (Coggi, 1898)

Zet fal +



## Mesostigmata

### Ameroseiidae

*Ameroseius corbiculus* (Sowerby, 1806)

Ame cor +

### Ascidae

*Arctoseius* sp. Sig Thor, 1930

Arc to sp +

*Arctoseius cetratus* (Sellnick, 1940)

Arc cet

*Asca aphidioides* (Linné, 1758)

Asc aph + +

*Asca bicornis* (Canestrini et Fanz., 1887)

Asc bic + + + +

*Cheiroseius borealis* (Berelese, 1904)

Che bor

*Zercoseius spathuliger* (Leonardi, 1899)

Zer spa + +

### Eviphididae

*Alliphis sículus* (G. et R. Canestrini, 1881)

All sic + + +

*Eviphis ostrinus* (Koch, 1836)

Evi ost +

### Hypoaspidae

*Geolaelaps aculeifer* (Canestrini, 1883)

Geo acu + + +

*Gymnolaelaps myrmecophilus* (Berlese, 1892)

Gym myr +

*Hypoaspis* sp. (Canestrini, 1885)

Hypoas sp + + +

### Macrochelidae

*Macrocheles penicilliger* (Berlese, 1904)

Mac pen + +

### Pachylaelapidae

*Pachylaelaps squamifer* Berlese, 1920

Pac squ + + +

*Pachylaelaps tessellatus* Berlese, 1920

Pac tes +

### Parasitidae

*Amblygamasus nr hamatus* (C.L. Koch, 1839)

Amb ham +

*Gamasodes* sp. (Oudemans, 1939)

Gamaso sp +

*Holoparasitus calcaratus* (C. L. Koch, 1839)

Hol cal + +

*Leptogamasus* sp. Trägårdh, 1939

Lepto sp + +

*Lysigamasus misellus* Berlese, 1904

Lys mis +

*Lysigamasus nr armatus* Halbert, 1915

Lys arm + +

<i>Lysigamasus parrunciger</i> Bhattachar., 1963	Lys par								+
<i>Lysigamasus runciger</i> Berlese, 1904	Lys run			+		+			
<i>Lysigamasus vagabundus</i> Karg, 1968	Lys vag			+					
<i>Paragamasus nr diversus</i> (Halbert, 1915)	Parg div								+
<i>Paragamasus</i> sp.Hull, 1918	Parg sp	+				+			+
<i>Pergamasus barbarus</i> Berlese, 1904	Perg bar							+	
<i>Pergamasus crassipes</i> (Linné, 1758)	Perg cra	+				+		+	
<b>Phytoseiidae</b>									
<i>Amblyseius meridionalis</i> Berlese, 1914	Amb mer					+			+
<i>Amblyseius obtusus</i> (C.L. Koch, 1839)	Amb obt					+			
<i>Amblyseius</i> sp.Berlese, 1904	Ambl sp	+							+
<b>Podocinidae</b>									
<i>Lasioseius berlesei</i> (Oudemans, 1938)	Las ber								+
<b>Polyaspididae</b>									
<i>Polyaspinus cylindricus</i> Berlese, 1916	Pol cyl								+
<b>Rhodacaridae</b>									
<i>Dendrolaelaps</i> sp1	Denl apo	+							
<i>Dendrolaelaps</i> sp2	Denl rec							+	+
<i>Dendrolaelaps stammeri</i> Hirschmann, 1960	Den sta	+		+		+		+	+
<i>Dendroseius reticulatus</i> (Sheals, 1956)	Dens ret								+
<i>Rhodacarellus epyginialis</i> Sheals, 1956	Rho epy					+			
<i>Rhodacarellus silesiacus</i> Willmann, 1935	Rho sil	+						+	
Rhodacaridae	Rhodac							+	+
<i>Rhodocarus coronatus</i> Berlese, 1921	Rho cor					+		+	+
<i>Rhodocarus clavulatus</i> Athias-Heiot, 1961	Rho cla	+							
<i>Rhodocarus willmanni</i> (Willmann, 1934)	Rho will	+		+					
<b>Trachytidae</b>									
<i>Trachytes aegrota</i> (C.L. Koch, 1841)	Tra aeg					+			+
<b>Urodinychidae</b>									

<i>Dinychus arcuatus</i> (Trägårdh, 1943)	Dyn arc								
<i>Dinychus perforatus</i> Krammer, 1882	Dyn per								
<i>Dinychus</i> sp. Kramer, 1882	Dyn sp								+
<b>Uropodidae</b>									
<i>Uropoda minima</i> Kramer, 1882	Uro min		+		+			+	
<b>Veigaiaidae</b>									
<i>Veigaia cerva</i> (Kramer, 1876)	Vei cer		+						
<i>Veigaia exigua</i> (Berlese, 1917)	Vei exi		+						
<i>Veigaia nemorensis</i> (C. L. Koch, 1839)	Vei nem		+						
<i>Veigaia planicola</i> (Berlese, 1892)	Vei pla		+		+				
<b>Zerconidae</b>									
<i>Parazercon radiatus</i> (Berlese, 1914)	Parz rad	+	+					+	
<i>Prozerconkochi</i> (Sellnick, 1943)	Proz koc				+			+	
<i>Prozercon</i> sp. (Trägårdh, 1931)	Proz sp		+						
<b>Prostigmata</b>									
Prostigmata (others)	Prostig				+			+	
<b>Bdellidae</b>									
<i>Bdella</i> sp. Latreille, 1795	Bdella							+	
<b>Cunaxidae</b>									
<i>Cunaxa taurus</i> (Kramer, 1881)	Cun tau				+	+		+	+
Cunaxidae Thor, 1902	Cunaxida							+	
<b>Eupodidae</b>									
<i>Cocceupodes nr paradoxus</i> (Weis-Fogh, 1948)	Cocceupo				+				
<i>Eupodes</i> sp. Koch, 1836	Eupo sp	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
<i>Prottereunetes</i> sp. cf Berlese, 1923	Prote sp	+			+				
<b>Eutrombidiidae</b>									
Eutrombidium sp	Eutro sp	+	+						
<b>Nanorchestidae</b>									

<i>Nanorchestes</i> sp. Topsent et Trauessar, 1890	Nanorc sp					+			+
<b>Paratydeidae</b>									
Paratydeidae Baker, 1949	Partydei					+		+	
<b>Pseudocheylidae</b>									
Pseudocheylidae Oudemans, 1909	Pseudoch							+	
<b>Pyemotidae</b>									
<i>Pyemotes</i> sp. Amerling, 1861	Pyemotes							+	
<b>Pygmephoridae</b>									
<i>Bakerdania</i> sp. Sasa, 1961	Bake sp	+	+	+					+
<b>Rhagidiidae</b>									
<i>Poecilophysis</i> sp. Cambridge, 1876	Poe sp	+	+						
<b>Scutacaridae</b>									
<i>Scutacarus brevipes</i> Mahunka, 1963	Scu brev					+	+		+
<i>Scutacarus crassisetus</i> (Paoli, 1911)	Scu cra	+					+		
<i>Scutacarus eucomus</i> (Berlese, 1908)	Scu euc					+			+
<i>Scutacarus lapponicus</i> (Willmann, 1943)	Scu lap					+			+
<i>Scutacarus major</i> (Paoli, 1911)	Scu maj	+							
<i>Scutacarus plumosus</i> (Paoli, 1911)	Scu plu	+					+		+
<i>Scutacarus quadrangularis</i> (Paoli, 1911)	Scu qua	+				+	+		+
<i>Scutacarus spinosus</i> Storkán, 1936	Sci spi	+							
<b>Tarsonemidae</b>									
<i>Steneotarsonemus</i> sp. Beer, 1954	Sten sp								+
<i>Tarsonemus</i> sp. Can. et Fan., 1876	Tar sp	+				+	+		+
<b>Trombidiidae</b>									
<i>Speleorchestes</i> sp. Trägårdh, 1909	Spel sp					+		+	+
<b>Tydeidae</b>									
<i>Microtydeus</i> sp. Sig Thor, 1931	Mictydea					+		+	
Tydeidae P. Kramer, 1877	Tydeid						+	+	

**Astigmata**

Astigmata (others) Astig + + +

**Acaridae**

*Schwiebea* sp. Oudemans, 1916 Schw sp + + +

*Tyrophagus* sp. Oudemans, 1924 Tyro sp + + + + + + + + +

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<sup>i</sup> Some species from this genus are considered to be a separate genus, *Zygoribatula*, in Weigmann (2006)