

1 **Quality not quantity; conserving species of low**
2 **mobility and dispersal capacity in south-western**
3 **Australian urban remnants**

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9

10 **Abstract:** *Urban remnant vegetation is subject to varying degrees of disturbance that may or*
11 *may not be proportional to the size of the patch. The impact of disturbance within patches on*
12 *species with low mobility and dispersal capabilities was investigated in a survey targeting*
13 *nemesiid species of the mygalomorph spider clade in the Perth metropolitan area, south-western*
14 *Australia. Nemesiid presence was not influenced by patch size, but presence did negatively*
15 *correlate with higher degrees of invasive grass and rabbit disturbance. Further, patch size was*
16 *significantly positively correlated with degree of disturbance caused by rabbits. Compared to*
17 *quadrats, patches were not as effective as sample units in determining the impact of disturbance*
18 *on nemesiid presence.*

19

20 **Additional keywords:** urbanisation, conservation planning, mygalomorph spider,
21 fragmented landscapes

22

23 **Introduction**

24 Conservation biology focuses on identifying factors or patterns that pertain to biodiversity
25 persistence and survival (Gilpin and Soulé 1986, Schulze and Mooney 1994); with higher quality
26 environments increasing chances of survival (Thomas *et al.* 2001). Size of suitable habitat is
27 important to support viable populations (Shaffer 1981, Gilpin and Soulé 1986). Measuring quality
28 and size of habitats is especially important for conservation practises as it allows appropriate
29 population or species management to be implemented (Shaffer 1981). Disturbance within patches
30 can be influenced by surrounding land-use, patch size and patch shape (Pickett and White 1985).
31 Maintenance of at least the minimum required size and quality of habitats will increase probability
32 of persistence for viable populations (Shaffer 1981, Gilpin and Soulé 1986). Required habitat of
33 native species within an urban matrix is usually confined to remnant patches, depending on species
34 and degree of specialisation. Urbanisation is a relatively recent process in Australia. Therefore
35 associated threats are novel for native species persisting in urban areas. Identifying factors or
36 patterns important for conservation purposes allows implementation of more informed
37 management practices (Olson *et al.* 2001).

38

39 Informed conservation management is especially important in the South-west Australian Global
40 Biodiversity Hotspot (SWA). The biota of SWA is therefore globally significant (Hopper and
41 Gioia 2004, Rix *et al.* 2014), but also threatened (Klausmeyer and Shaw 2009, Wardell-Johnson
42 *et al.* 2011). Though invertebrates were not included in Myers *et al.* (2000) criteria, evidence

43 supports invertebrate biodiversity as also being proportionally high within SWA (Main 2001,
44 Harvey *et al.* 2011). Many clades of invertebrates are locally endemic to the region (Rix *et al.*
45 2014), likely attributable to shared life history characteristics. A species or clade may be
46 considered a short-range endemic (SRE) if they have a distribution range of less than 10 000 km²,
47 low fecundity, low dispersal and low mobility. Recently, recognising short-range endemism has
48 allowed rapid synthesis of conservation protocols for a large group of previously unprotected
49 species in SWA (Harvey 2002, EPA 2009, Harvey *et al.* 2011).

50

51 Many species of mygalomorph spider are considered SREs. However, taxonomic impediment,
52 taxonomic resolution and insufficient information means SRE status cannot be assigned for the
53 entire mygalomorph clade, hindering conservation outcomes (Mace 2004). Population counts of
54 mygalomorphs may be misleading as to the viability of some populations, due to slow maturation,
55 cryptic mating systems and long lifespans (Main 1987, Abensperg-Traun *et al.* 2000). For
56 example; *Gaius villosus* mature at approximately 5 years for females and 3 years for males (Main
57 1984). Males die after their mating season. However, some females can live up to 30 years (Main
58 1987, Abensperg-Traun *et al.* 2000). Persistence despite small population size has occurred after
59 genetic bottlenecks (Main 1987, Abensperg-Traun *et al.* 2000). This implies that limited dispersal
60 and longevity could enable mygalomorphs to persist in small, isolated populations indefinitely.
61 This may also apply to other long-lived SRE taxa such as cossid moths (*Cossidae*) and some
62 Coleoptera (e.g. *Curculionidae*)(Abensperg-Traun *et al.* 2000, Harvey 2002). Unfortunately, being
63 long-lived also increases the likelihood of ghost populations; aging populations that can no longer
64 recruit and are therefore not viable.

65

66 Thomas (2000) concluded that species either with high or low mobility, are less impacted by
67 habitat fragmentation than those with intermediate mobility. Mygalomorph spiders are generally
68 sedentary, with the exception of roaming males. Their poor dispersal ability may mean they require
69 less area in which to persist indefinitely (Main 1987, Abensperg-Traun *et al.* 2000). Thus
70 persistence of mygalomorphs in urban areas may be more dependent on the quality rather than
71 absolute size of the remaining habitat. This claim is further substantiated by work on mygalomorph
72 populations persisting in remnant vegetation of less than 20 hectares in ‘the wheatbelt’, agricultural
73 land near Tammin, WA (Main 1987). As low as twenty *Gaius villosus* matriarchs (females that
74 have reproduced at least once) are thought to be capable of sustaining a viable population
75 indefinitely, if they are in close proximity to one another (Main 1987). More than twenty
76 matriarchs can occur in less than 10 000 m² in these wheatbelt populations {Main, 1987 #233}.

77

78 The overall aim of this study was to determine the likelihood of persistence of mygalomorph
79 populations in urban remnant vegetation of the SWA. We examined the effects of urbanisation on
80 mygalomorph spiders, using nemesiids as indicator species, in remnant patches of native
81 vegetation of the Perth Metropolitan Area, Swan Coastal Plain. Nemesiidae is a family of
82 mygalomorphs, with ten genera and one hundred and four described species occurring in Australia
83 {W Framenau, 2014 #338}. Nemesiids generally have an open (no lid) and conspicuous burrow.
84 If size of remaining habitat was not a threat, then it becomes important to identify other threatening
85 processes within remaining habitat. In particular:

- 86 i) *Does change of surrounding land-use correlate with disturbance variables in urban*
87 *remnant vegetation patches?* Based on low mobility, we expected surrounding land-
88 use to not correlate strongly with nemesiid presence or with disturbance variables.

89 ii) *Do disturbance variables correlate with patch size and/or nemesiid species presence?*

90 We expected disturbance variables to negatively correlate with presence of nemesiids
91 and patch size. However, patch size was not expected to correlate with nemesiid
92 presence.

93

94 **Methods**

95

96 **Study site**

97

98 Perth experiences a Mediterranean climate, with a mean annual rainfall of 740 mm (Australian
99 Bureau of Meteorology, 2011), although this has been trending lower since 1970 (Bates *et al.*
100 2008). Approximately 80% of rainfall occurs in the winter months with only 4% occurring in
101 summer (Australian Bureau of Meteorology, 2011). The soil of the Spearwood dune system is
102 well-drained and highly leached pale yellow quartz sand, formed in the mid- to late Pleistocene
103 (Kendrick *et al.* 1991). Major soil types were found to correlate with significant change in spider
104 assemblages on the Swan Coastal Plain (Lacey 2012), so sites for this survey were selected to the
105 west of the Bassendean dune system.

106

107 **Field survey**

108

109 Comprehensive surveying was required to confidently determine the distribution of nemesiid
110 spider species. Earlier studies used pitfall traps (Harvey *et al.* 1997) that capture specimens not
111 necessarily directly associated with a specific location. Typically, it is only the males that are

112 trapped as they roam to find a mate once sexually mature, and perish shortly thereafter (Main
113 1984). Due to the potentially high mobility of males, they may be trapped a considerable distance
114 from where they left their burrow. We used a targeted survey approach to determine the number
115 of known locations where nemesiids occur (Olson *et al.* 2007). This was considered the most
116 effective method given the primarily sedentary lifestyle and poor dispersal of mygalomorph
117 species (Harvey *et al.* 2011). Using a targeted approach by locating burrows, enabled more precise
118 information on the distribution of nemesiid species and potential urbanisation threats to be
119 gathered.

120

121 A stratified random approach was used whereby a mosaic of habitats was targeted and surveyed,
122 but the transect grid is otherwise random. Sampling was designed by nesting one hundred and
123 thirty-six 100 x 100 meter quadrats divided into ten 100 m transects spaced 10 m apart (Figure 1)
124 within forty-one patches of remnant native vegetation (Figure 2). Randomisation was achieved
125 using the 'Random points' function in the program QGIS v2.8.1 Wein, where each point was the
126 centre of the quadrat. If the point was too close to the boundary, it was shifted in until the quadrat
127 fit within remnant vegetation. Similarly, if points were so close that quadrats overlapped, they
128 were moved apart to the shortest distance to where they would no longer be overlapping. Quadrats
129 were uploaded onto a Garmin handheld GPS and surveyors recorded burrows within 5 m either
130 side of the transect line they were traversing. Due to health and safety risk, surveying was always
131 completed with at least one other person. Quadrats in dense, impenetrable vegetation (e.g. stands
132 of prickly moses; *Acacia pulchella*) were replaced by alternative random sites in the interests of
133 volunteer safety.

134

Figure 1
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Figure 2
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137

138 **Nemesiid observations**

139

140 Nemesiid spider (Figure 3a) burrows (Figure 3b) were directly observed, identified, and measured
141 (diameter, diagnostic features; silk lines, number entrances, sand mounds). Burrow locations were
142 recorded using a GPS, accurate to within 5 m. Although other mygalomorph burrows were
143 recorded, statistical analysis was restricted to nemesiids, due to potential for bias arising from the
144 unobserved highly camouflaged burrows in other families. Surveying was also not undertaken
145 during heavy rains. This was because we found that some species of nemesiid pull their burrow
146 opening in on itself during heavy rain. No doubt this enables avoidance of flooding to open-holed
147 burrows but also make burrows more difficult to observe after heavy rain.

148

149 Past records from the Western Australian Museum (WAM) indicate a previously uniform
150 distribution of nemesiids throughout the Perth urban area. They have also been recorded
151 throughout the study area since 1922. Museum records were not used for analysis as very few
152 included locations that were specific enough to compare to present distributions. All sites in a
153 bushland survey conducted by WAM during 1996-1997 where mygalomorphs were found
154 contained nemesiids as the dominant group collected (Harvey *et al.* 1997). We concluded that
155 nemesiids were appropriate indicator species for a group subject to taxonomic impediment
156 (Harvey *et al.* 2011). It is apparent that more nemesiid species were observed in this survey than

157 have been recorded by the Museum. As such, analysis was here limited to presence and absence
158 until species can be verified by subsequent study.

159

160 **Variables**

161

162 Disturbance factors such as; invasive grass cover, rubbish and rabbit presence were recorded for
163 each quadrat. Invasive grass (Figure 3c, d) was estimated as a proportion of quadrat covered where
164 number of 100 m² (n) covered was estimated over the 10000 m² quadrat (see equation below).

$$165 \quad \text{Invasive grass} = \left(\frac{n(100)}{10000} \right)$$

166 Rabbit presence was calculated as a proportion (< 1) equal to the number of evidence (n), such as
167 droppings or diggings found per 10 m over 100 m transects (t) and warrens (w) adding 0.5 final
168 score (see equation below).

$$169 \quad \text{Rabbit presence} = \left(\frac{n(10)}{t100} \right) + (0.5w)$$

170 Rubbish was used as a proxy for human activity within patches. Rubbish proportion (< 1) was
171 calculated in a similar fashion, with evidence of active bunkers (b, +0.5) and dumping of industrial
172 waste (i, +0.3) heavily influencing calculations (see equation below).

$$173 \quad \text{Rubbish presence} = \left(\frac{n(10)}{t100} \right) + (0.5b) + (0.3i)$$

174

175 To account for the possibility of ghost populations in an area of rapid urban expansion (Figure 2),
176 change of surrounding land-use was incorporated over a timeframe of fifty years between 1965
177 and 2015. Surrounding land-use area was measured by generating shapefile layers (buildings [B],
178 roads [R], parkland [PL] and other remnant vegetation [RV]) within 250 m, 150 m and 50 m

179 buffers. Buffers were measured for both patch and quadrats in the open source program Quantum
180 Geographic Information System (QGIS 2014). The Nearmap plugin was used to determine the
181 proportion of different land-use within each buffer area. The same methodology was performed
182 for surrounding land-use in 1965 using maps available through SLIP (Shared Land Information
183 Platform) Interrogator+.

184
185

Figure 3
here

186 **Statistical analysis**

187

188 PATN v. 3.0 (Belbin 2013) was used to analyse patches based on the twenty-four surrounding
189 land-use variables as intrinsic in multivariate analysis. We derived groups of patches with similar
190 measures of surrounding land-use proportions using the range standardized values of the 10
191 measures described earlier (called ‘intrinsic variables’, following Belbin (2013)) in numerical
192 taxonomic or pattern analysis approaches (Belbin 2013). The key steps were (1) use cluster
193 analysis to identify groups of patches (row groups) that, on the basis of the twenty-four intrinsic
194 variables, are more similar to other members of their groups than to members of other groups, (2)
195 superimpose groups based on the variables (column groups) over the patch groups to identify
196 which variable groups are strongly or weakly represented in different patch groups, and (3) validate
197 the patch groupings by applying different methodologies (MDS ordination and network analysis),
198 to assess congruence between the ordination (for trends), network analysis (for nearest neighbours)
199 and the cluster analysis (for groups). All analyses described below used PATN (Belbin 2013).

200

201 The Gower metric was used to determine degree of association between different patches based
202 on surrounding land-use composition to generate groups using unweighted pair group arithmetic
203 averaging (UPGMA) with Beta set at -0.1 (see Belbin 2013). To determine the influence of
204 particular intrinsic variables on patch groupings, we classified the intrinsic variables using the
205 Two-Step association measure with Beta set at -0.1. A two-way table was used to visualise the
206 influence of particular variable groups on the different patch groups, where each cell corresponds
207 to a particular patch score on a particular land-use variable. Shading in the two-way table indicates
208 strength of association between patch and land-use variable. Dark shaded blocks indicate strong
209 associations between groups of patches (sites) and groups of variables, and light or clear blocks
210 indicate weak association.

211

212 We presented our original distance matrix visually through semi-strong hybrid multi-dimensional
213 scaling ordination (SSH MDS with dissimilarity cut level at 0.6) (Belbin 2013). MDS ordination
214 seeks to provide, in few dimensions, an accurate representation of the similarity between samples,
215 in this case patches, on the basis of the surrounding land-use variables. Stress (the difference
216 between the input distances and the output distances) determined in how many dimensions the
217 ordination can be reliably assessed. Here, low stress enabled assessment in two dimensions. The
218 Minimum Spanning Tree (MST, Belbin 2013) was used together with SSH MDS to assess
219 congruence between ordination (trends), cluster analysis (groups) and network analysis (nearest
220 neighbour). The three approaches were inspected visually in one diagram. The greater the
221 congruence between them (i.e., all approaches giving similar results), the greater the validity of
222 the derived patterns.

223

224 Mygalomorph presence and the disturbance variables; rabbit, weed and rubbish were used as
225 extrinsic factors. Relationships of extrinsic variables to the ordination axes were explored using
226 principal axis correlation (PCC procedure in PATN, Belbin 2013). Significance of the correlation
227 of variables to the axes of the two-dimensional ordination derived from the matrix was assessed
228 using randomization tests (with 1000 permutations) and the MCAO procedure of PATN (Belbin
229 2013). Vectors of variables correlated significantly with the ordination axes were plotted. Extrinsic
230 factors were superimposed on a two dimensional semi-strong hybrid multidimensional scaling
231 ordination (2D; stress 0.16, SSH MDS; dissimilarity cut off level 0.6) to visualise influence of
232 groups on those factors.

233

234 ANOVA were used to determine correlations between disturbance variables and presence of
235 nemesiids for both quadrat and patch scale in the Microsoft Excel plugin StatistiXL 1.8 (Withers
236 and Roberts 2007). As multiple quadrats were in many of the patches surveyed, the factors
237 gathered for each quadrat were averaged for each patch. Quadrat and patch factors were analysed
238 separately and then compared to determine which may be the more useful unit of measurement.

239

240 **Limitations**

241

242 The number of burrows located within a quadrat varied markedly depending on species. Species
243 naturally vary in population density and abundance. Using total number of burrows was not logical
244 when species status is not yet verified; this was another reason to limit analysis to presence and
245 absence of all nemesiid species. Vegetation type and structure is likely to have an effect on
246 nemesiid presence (Schut et al. 2014) and visibility. Degree of vegetation heterogeneity, even

247 within quadrats, was too high to account for in this study. Degree of heterogeneity between patches
248 may be similar, as has been found in agricultural landscapes (Thorbeck and Topping 2005), and
249 thus not impact on the findings. As noted by Stenhouse (2004), the management of remnant
250 vegetation is difficult to analyse due to the many different authorities responsible for land
251 management in the Perth metropolitan area. We therefore excluded from analysis the potential
252 impact of different management authorities on disturbance variables.

253
254 Quadrat data was not useful in analysis of surrounding land-use as groups were too ill-defined.
255 This may be explained by many of the quadrats, in larger patches especially, having high
256 proportions of remnant vegetation within the buffer zone. Sampling bias for nemesiid species in
257 patch scale analysis meant that this could not be used as an extrinsic factor. As such, surrounding
258 land-use analysis was limited to using disturbance variables as extrinsic factors.

259

260 **Results**

261

262 Presence of nemesiid burrows was recorded in nineteen of the forty-one patches, and sixty of one-
263 hundred and thirty-five quadrats. Density of adults (as determined by size of burrow) greatly varied
264 between quadrats, from one to 42 burrows. Recruitment was apparent in the smallest patches
265 examined (Figure 2: #4, < 2 ha) with spiderlings and varying age groups present in all but one of
266 the patches (Figure 2: #21) where nemesiids were found. Change of surrounding land-use since
267 1965 did not correlate with nemesiid presence (Table 1). Hence, patches that were previously
268 surrounded by intact vegetation did not correlate with nemesiid presence, as would be expected if
269 species were occurring as ghost populations.

270

271 **Change of surrounding land-use affect disturbance and nemesiids**

272

273 Intrinsic factors formed distinct groups, and two extrinsic factors were found to be significant: size
274 of patch and rubbish (Figure 4 and 5).

Table 1 here

275

276

277

278

Figure 4here

Figure 5here

279 Six groups emerged in cluster analysis based on surrounding land use (Figure 4). Groups one and
280 three are characterised by patches that were previously surrounded by remnant vegetation in 1965
281 that has since been cleared. Group two had higher proportion of parklands as surrounding land-
282 use in 1965 than groups one and three. Groups four, five and six represent patches in long
283 established areas, that is, much of the remnant vegetation was cleared prior to 1965. Group four
284 had a higher proportion of parklands in 2015 than five and six, whereas group six had a higher
285 proportion of parklands in 1965 than groups four and five.

286

287 **Disturbance variables affect patch size and nemesiids**

288

289 There was only one significant result when using patch as a unit of measurement. Thus, rubbish
290 intensity was negatively correlated with patch size ($p = 0.029$, F stat: 5.126). Using quadrats as a
291 unit of measurement, there was a highly significant negative correlation between rubbish and patch
292 size ($p < 0.0001$) (Table 2). However, rubbish had no significant impact on mygalomorph presence
293 or absence (Table 2).

294

Table 2 here

295 The presence of rabbits was found to be negatively correlated with presence of mygalomorphs (p
296 = 0.008) and positively correlated with size of patch ($p < 0.001$). Invasive grass was significantly
297 negatively correlated with nemesiid presence ($p = 0.004$), but was not significantly correlated with
298 patch size (Table 2).

299

300 **Discussion**

301

302 Urbanisation is a relatively recent process in the region with Perth being established in 1829, but
303 with rapid and extensive clearing after the 1950s (Figure 2). Long-term effects of clearing,
304 changing land-use, disturbances and conservation practises may not yet be apparent due to the
305 relatively short time frame. However, attempting to identify threatening processes at early stages
306 is imperative for effective conservation management, especially in terms of mitigating cost both
307 to the environment and to the economy.

308

309 **Change of surrounding land-use affect disturbance and nemesiids**

310

311 Correlation between size of patch and surrounding land use groups is reflective of recent
312 developments in urban planning, as smaller patches are more common in more recently established
313 areas. Commonly, patches of remnant vegetation are adjacent to or surrounded by parkland.
314 Rubbish was also more common in more recently established areas. Rubbish, penetrates smaller
315 patches more readily in a form of edge effect. Since rubbish was not found to influence nemesiid
316 presence, this was an inconsequential finding for this study but was included as potentially
317 important in future studies.

318

319 Surrounding land-use may be a major driver of disturbance factors. One of the initial reasons
320 change in land-use was incorporated in this study was the speculated high mobility of male
321 mygalomorphs. There have been many incidences where males were collected that had been
322 caught walking against fences and walls, presumably attempting to traverse between patches. If
323 reproductive rates were subsequently reduced due to higher male mortalities since 1965, then ghost
324 populations could have occurred. Although ghost populations were not found in this study, the
325 effects of change in surrounding land use are an important parameter to be incorporated in future
326 studies of mobility relating to threatening processes. This may be especially important for species
327 with medium to high dispersal and/or mobility capabilities that are long-lived, for example Red-
328 tailed and Carnaby Cockatoos (Saunders 1990, Joseph *et al.* 1991) or pollinators (Kremen *et al.*
329 2007). For more mobile species, visitation or nesting could be mapped within or between patches
330 then compared to cluster analysis of change in land-use variables, for example comparing Figure
331 2 with Figure 4 and 5. We suggest that distribution mapping, in conjunction with cluster analysis,
332 be implemented in future studies to assess if change of land-use impacts on long lived species.

333

334 **Disturbance variables affect patch size and nemesiid presence**

335

336 Disturbance of habitat due to invasive species (rabbits and invasive grass) has a significant impact
337 on nemesiid species. However, patch size does correlate with some disturbance variables (rubbish
338 and rabbits, but not invasive grass) with greater impact being seen in smaller patches than larger
339 patches. Greater disturbance in smaller patches has been noted in other studies in Perth remnants
340 (Stenhouse 2004) and may be attributed to edge effect (Saunders *et al.* 1991). Nevertheless the

341 direct impact of these phenomena on arthropods remains unclear (Bolger *et al.* 2000). Intuitively
342 any impact would be applicable to other mygalomorphs in the Perth metropolitan area.

343

344 Invasive grass may be more concerning as a threatening process for all mygalomorph species as it
345 considerably alters ground-level strata. It may seem that high degree of invasive grass may obscure
346 visibility of burrows. However, those that were persisting in areas of high weed invasion tended
347 to be highly visible as they were exhibiting mounding behaviour; a bare, raised area mound of
348 sand that surrounded approximately 20 cm around the burrow entrance. It was concluded that
349 visibility was not compromised and is not considered a limitation.

350

351 Invasive grass would impact not only on the foraging behaviour of other mygalomorph species,
352 but the presence of invertebrate species that serve as prey. Invasive grass is cause for concern for
353 not only the choking effect it may have on mygalomorphs and native vegetation (Stenhouse 2004)
354 but also adding to fuel loads during summer die-off, and increasing the likelihood of damaging
355 fire{Anderson, 1982 #339}{Rossiter, 2003 #340}. Invasive weed management through regular
356 herbicide regimes and community involvement is highly recommended.

357

358 Rabbit diggings potentially disturb mygalomorph burrows to the point that they are no longer
359 found in areas of rabbit disturbance. During the survey, many burrows of non-nemesiid
360 mygalomorphs were pulled from the ground by rabbit diggings. Though it was primarily rabbits
361 that seemed to be disturbing mygalomorph burrows, this disturbance was also occurring where
362 bandicoots had been re-introduced (Figure 2, #34). Mygalomorphs may be experiencing less
363 disturbance from digging presently (in areas where rabbits are not present) than in the past. Prior

364 to European settlement in 1829, bandicoots and other small mammals were prevalent throughout
365 the region. Therefore, in areas without rabbits, mygalomorphs may be experiencing fewer
366 disturbances from digging than in the past. This lack of disturbance may explain the especially
367 high density of mygalomorphs in some areas with low rabbit presence. Alternatively, a higher
368 abundance of prey species benefiting from human influence in these patches may allow greater
369 numbers of mygalomorph spiders to be supported, as has been seen in golden-orb spiders (Lowe
370 et al. 2014). Mitigating the intensity of rabbits through practises such as fumigation of active
371 warrens is recommended to all organisations in Perth that assist in management of remnant
372 bushland.

373

374 Rubbish was not an effective variable to gauge human disturbance, as rubbish was accumulating
375 around the edges of patches, paths and fencing. Quadrat results were more predictive of presence
376 and absence than patch data for disturbance variables. Unsurprisingly, this means patches are not
377 exhibiting uniform processes and should not be analysed as such. Patch is likely at too large a scale
378 and may present false negatives (Type 2 error) when analysed.

379

380 **Mobility and dispersal capabilities affects conservation**

381

382 Fahrig (2013) proposed the habitat quantity hypothesis; to challenge the use of habitat patches as
383 natural units of measurement. In support, using quadrats as a unit of measurement was far more
384 insightful into the effects of disturbances; likely due to the low dispersal and mobility of the
385 species. Fragmentation and isolation may have varied effects with species mobility capabilities
386 (Thomas 2000).

387

388 Traditionally, criteria for conservation priorities are based primarily on distribution range. As
389 Runge (2014, 2015) suggests this may be detrimental to mobile species that may be experiencing
390 threatening processes that occur over a large scale. Arguably, protection of ranges could be
391 applicable for some endangered species that receive extensive funding for protection. For most
392 cases though, this is not an economic use of resources to protect most species (Harvey *et al.* 2011).
393 Categorising conservation status based on mobility and dispersion of species and associated threats
394 may be a more effective approach, as has been recently done with ‘nomadic’ (Runge *et al.* 2015)
395 species. Mobility capabilities would also be useful for distinguishing between local and landscape
396 effects, as they would have varying impacts (Melles *et al.* 2003).

397

398 Considering the impact of invasive species demonstrated in this study, threatening processes
399 should be further prioritised in management in SWA. Harvey *et al.* (2007) also concluded that
400 small patches should be conserved for non-passerine bird species and reptiles in Perth, a conclusion
401 likely related to dispersion and mobility capabilities. In the case of mygalomorph spiders,
402 phenology varies between clades (Ferretti *et al.* 2012). Life history events in SWA seem to be
403 triggered by seasonal events of high humidity (perhaps relating to their vulnerability to
404 desiccation; Mason *et al.* 2013).

405

406 Significant gradients of rainfall, temperature and vegetation types occur along in SWA hotspot
407 (Sander and Wardell - Johnson 2011). In mygalomorphs, this may allow for greater genetic
408 diversity through both adaptive variation and natural divergence caused by isolation (Moritz 2002,
409 Main 2003). Exceptionally high biodiversity and endemism in SWA are explained by climate

410 stability, landscape age and fire predictability (Mucina and Wardell-Johnson 2011). In
411 conjunction, poor dispersal and poor mobility capabilities, while speculative, may contribute to
412 speciation (Harvey *et al.* 2011), especially in-situ speciation (Rix *et al.* 2014).

413

414 **Conservation management implications**

415

416 Habitat clearance is the first and foremost threat to mygalomorphs as they will not be able to
417 readily disperse back into rehabilitated areas from adjoining uncleared land {Yen, 1995 #341}.

418 There has been no record of nemesiid burrows occurring outside uncleared remnant vegetation.

419 Continued habitat clearance occurs at an alarming rate in urban areas of Perth due to urban sprawl.

420 The Perth urban area has more than doubled since the 1970s due to large-scale land clearing

421 (WWF-Australia 2010). Thus 6 812 ha of natural bush, (average 851.5 ha per year) was cleared in

422 the Perth metropolitan area from 2001-2009, (WA Local Government Association's Perth

423 Biodiversity Project). To put this sprawl into perspective, Perth population density (310 people

424 /km², is 0.05% that of London (5490 /km²) and 0.03% that of New York City (10756 /km²). Urban

425 sprawl is not only a foremost cost to natural environments, but is also a major economic concern

426 as low density living makes public services less effective and more expensive (Nechyba and Walsh

427 2004).

428

429 Clearing is especially problematic for smaller patches, being allocated less value despite being

430 able to retain high biodiversity over time (Stenhouse 2004, Guénard *et al.* 2014). This study has

431 demonstrated the value of small patches for nemesiids, and most likely other mygalomorphs, with

432 viable populations being confirmed from a 10 000 m² quadrat, within a 2.7 hectare patch (#4,

433 Figure 1). It should also be noted that due to landscape effects there may be some species that
434 remain only in small, isolated patches. As many species are yet to be discovered, described and
435 requirements understood (Harvey *et al.* 1997){Yen, 1995 #341}, the clearance of even small,
436 isolated patches could potentially destroy the last remaining population of a species. The high
437 biodiversity consequences of deforestation in this global biodiversity hotspot suggests a need for
438 a ban on further clearing of remnant vegetation within the Perth Metropolitan Area. This would
439 need to be enforced by the EPA and would have wide significance for urban planning in the region.

440

441 The current guidelines for short-range endemic sampling (EPA 2009) make it very difficult for
442 status and associated protection for potential species to be assigned. It has been established that
443 there are clades with low dispersal, fecundity and mobility capabilities and that this makes them
444 more vulnerable. It would be appropriate to list them as vulnerable immediately rather than wait
445 for distribution maps of species with low taxonomic resolution. Considering the impact of
446 threatening processes outlined in this study, a conservation status of ‘vulnerable’ for all
447 mygalomorph species, and other clades considered potential SREs, occurring in Perth is
448 recommended.

449

450

451 **Conclusion**

452

453 Very low dispersal and mobility capabilities seem to allow for ongoing persistence in high quality
454 urban remnant native vegetation patches for mygalomorphs over time. However, management
455 practices to limit the impact caused by rabbits and invasive grass should be prioritised in future

456 management. Protection of clades that exhibit any short-range endemism traits should be
457 implemented immediately and enforcement of no further clearing of remnant bushland in this
458 biodiversity hotspot. We predict that if high quality habitats are maintained, there will be ongoing
459 persistence of mygalomorph populations, even in small patches. If management suggestions are
460 adhered to, there seems no reason mygalomorphs, and other species with poor mobility and
461 dispersal, could not persist indefinitely within urban remnants.

462

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464

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470

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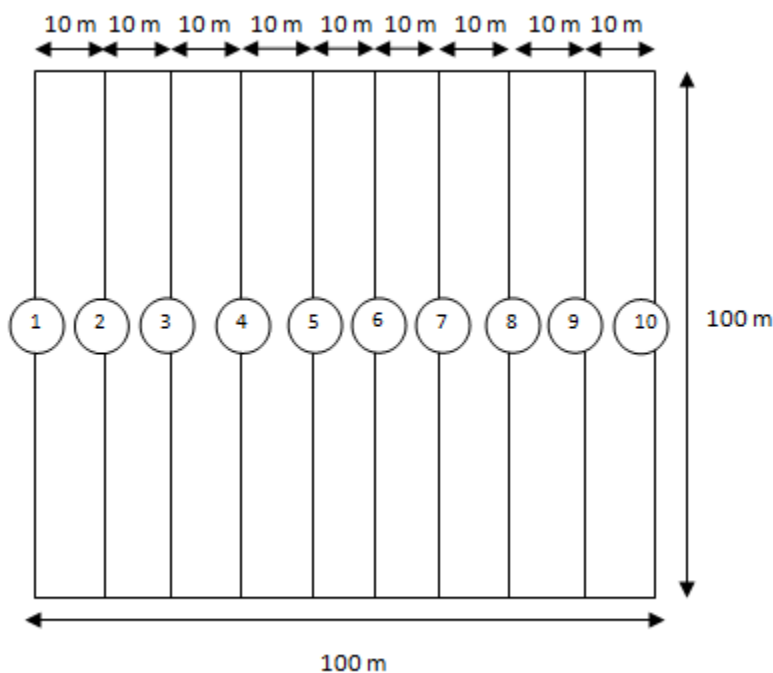
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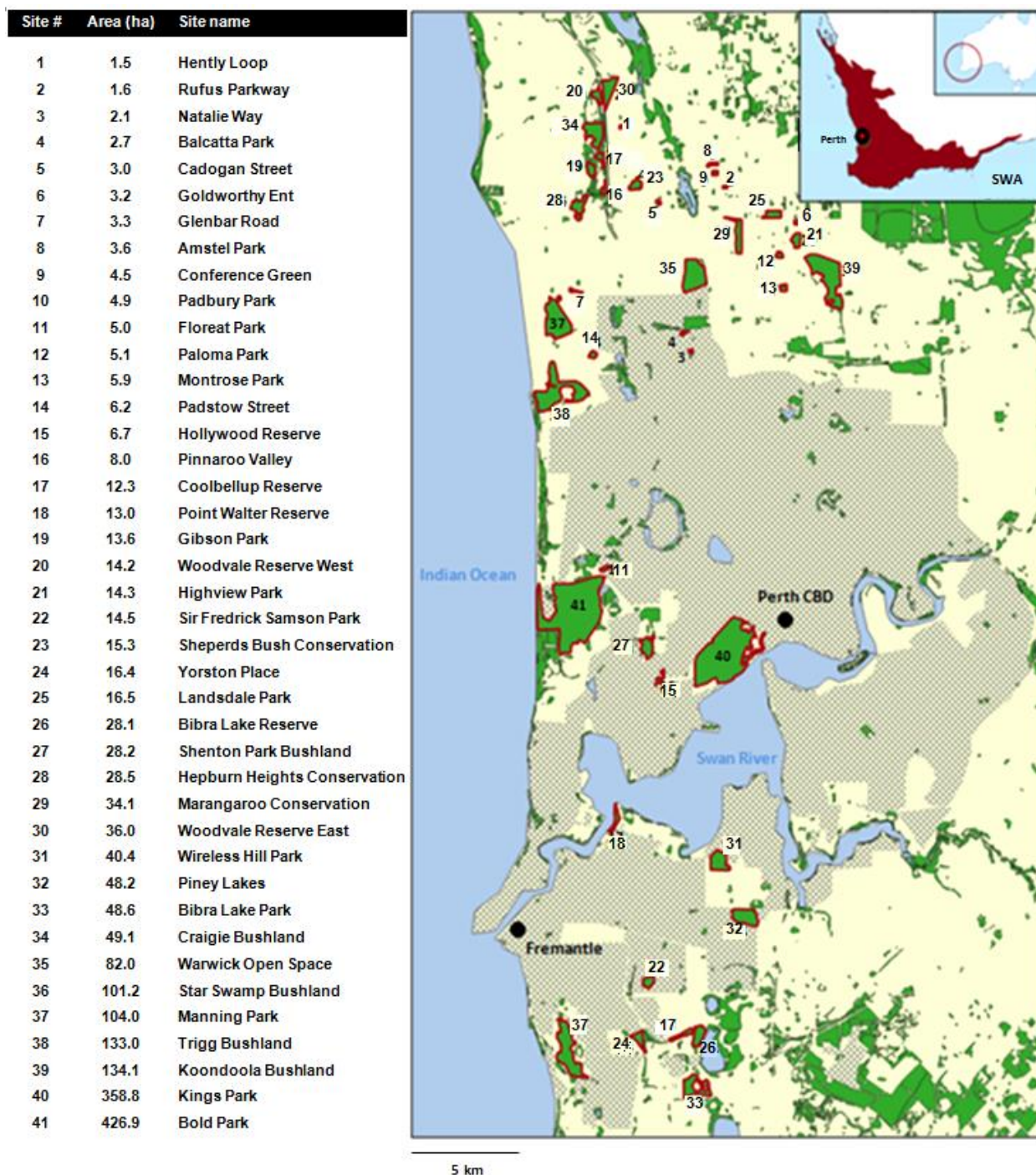
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587
588 Figure 1: Sampling design of mygalomorph targeted survey. Ten transects (1-10, circled),
589 spaced 10 m apart within 100 m x 100 m quadrats. One hundred and thirty-six quadrats were

590 nested, using a randomising mapping function, throughout 41 remnant vegetation patches
 591 within urban areas of Perth, Western Australia.
 592



593
 594 **Figure 2: Perth metropolitan urban extent (light yellow), and extent in 1965 (grey hashing), with native remnant**
 595 **vegetation (green) patches surveyed (red border) ordered (Site #) from smallest area (1) to largest area in**
 596 **hectares (41). Cities of Perth and Fremantle are also marked (black dots).**



597

598

599 **Figure 3: a) Nemesiid mygalomorph spider, 55 mm in body length. b) Nemesiid mygalomorph spider burrow,**
600 **22 mm in diameter. c) Habitat with low weed invasion; understorey predominantly native species. d) Habitat**
601 **with high weed invasion; predominantly veldt grass.**

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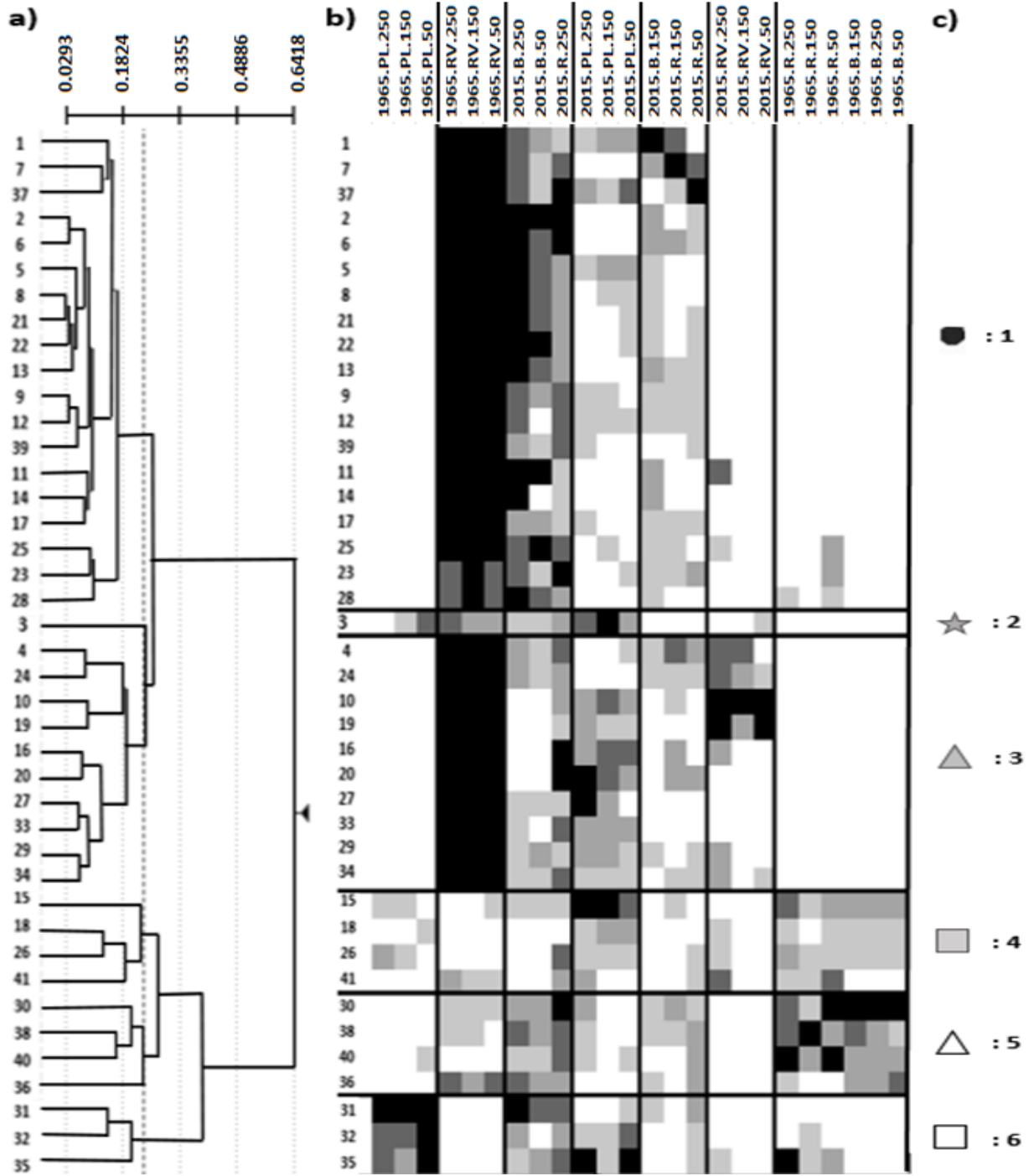
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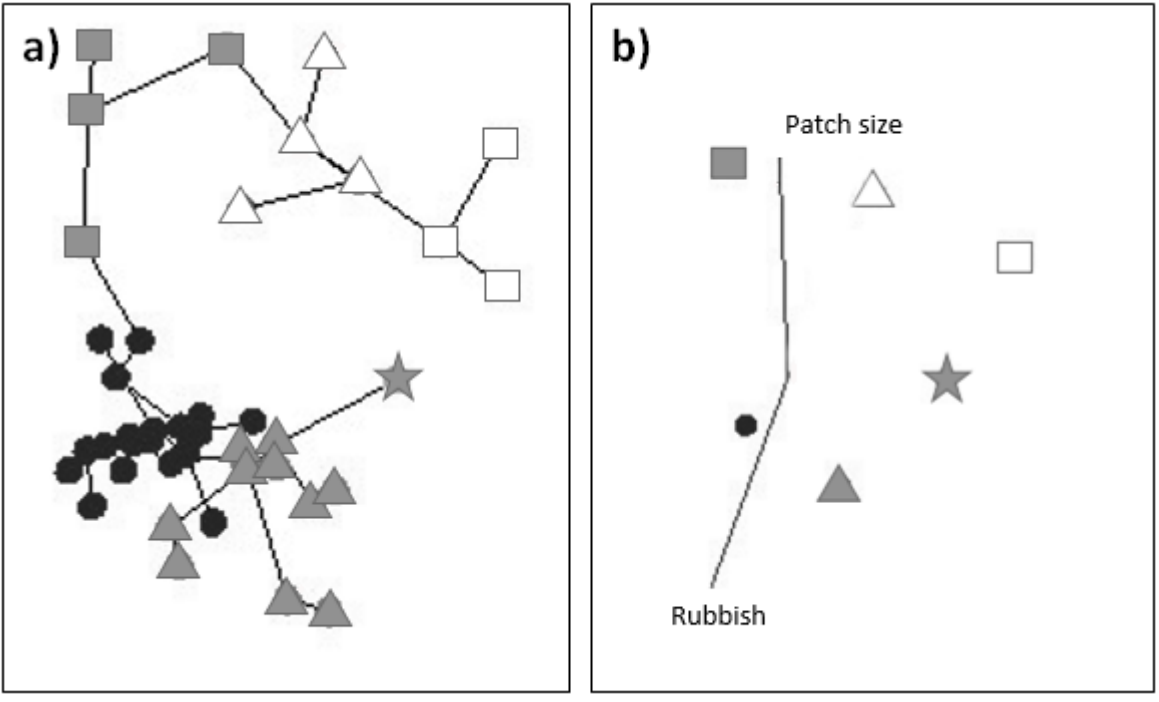
611 **Table 1: Twenty-four land-use variables used as intrinsic factors in PATN (Belbin 2013) analysis. Code used in**
 612 **Figure 3, is described by Year, Land-use and Buffer size. Minimum, maximum, mean and standard error (SE)**
 613 **of proportions surrounding patches are listed for each variable.**
 614

Code	Year	Land-use	Buffer size	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SE
2015.B.50	2015	Building	50	0	0.58	0.23	± 0.06
2015.B.150	2015	Building	150	0	0.65	0.28	± 0.06
2015.B.250	2015	Building	250	0.06	0.74	0.43	± 0.07
2015.R.50	2015	Road	50	0.04	0.91	0.30	± 0.06
2015.R.150	2015	Road	150	0.05	0.41	0.14	± 0.04
2015.R.250	2015	Road	250	0.08	0.37	0.25	± 0.04
2015.PL.50	2015	Parkland	50	0	0.69	0.19	± 0.06
2015.PL.150	2015	Parkland	150	0	0.45	0.13	± 0.06
2015.PL.250	2015	Parkland	250	0	0.52	0.17	± 0.06
2015.RV.50	2015	Remnant vegetation	50	0	0.61	0.05	± 0.06
2015.RV.150	2015	Remnant vegetation	150	0	0.67	0.07	± 0.06
2015.RV.250	2015	Remnant vegetation	250	0	0.34	0.07	± 0.05
1965.B.50	1965	Building	50	0	0.33	0.03	± 0.04
1965.B.150	1965	Building	150	0	0.48	0.05	± 0.05
1965.B.250	1965	Building	250	0	0.48	0.05	± 0.05
1965.R.50	1965	Road	50	0	0.47	0.07	± 0.05
1965.R.150	1965	Road	150	0	0.48	0.04	± 0.05
1965.R.250	1965	Road	250	0	0.26	0.04	± 0.04
1965.PL.50	1965	Parkland	50	0	1	0.09	± 0.08
1965.PL.150	1965	Parkland	150	0	1	0.08	± 0.05
1965.PL.250	1965	Parkland	250	0	1	0.08	± 0.04
1965.RV.50	1965	Remnant vegetation	50	0	1	0.72	± 0.10
1965.RV.150	1965	Remnant vegetation	150	0	1	0.75	± 0.10
1965.RV.250	1965	Remnant vegetation	250	0	1	0.79	± 0.09



620

621 Figure 4: (a) Dendrogram showing line along which groups are formed as dark dashed line that corresponds
 622 to groups shown in two-way table. (b) Two-way table showing 6 groupings of 41 patches during 2015 and 1965
 623 using proportion of land-use variables (R: Road, PL: Parkland, B: Buildings and RV: Remnant Vegetation) at
 624 buffers of 250, 150 and 50 m. Dark shaded blocks indicate strong associations between groups of patches and
 625 groups of variables, and light or clear indicate weak association. Codes for land-use variables columns in (b)
 626 correspond to Table 1. Gower (rows), Two-step (columns), UPGMA. Group symbols and numbers (c)
 627 correspond to Figure 4 and numbers in text whereas patch numbers (1-41) correspond to patches shown in
 628 Figure 1.



629

630 Figure 5: a) Two dimensional ordination (SSH MDS, Stress = 0.1596, Cut-off value: 0.6, 1000 random starts) of
 631 41 patches of remnant urban bushland, based on 24 surrounding land-use variables. Groupings derived
 632 through cluster analysis (Fig. 4) are also shown. b) Centroids with Monte-Carlos Attributes in Ordination
 633 extrinsic variables rubbish and patch size statistically significantly correlated with ordination axes.

634

635 Table 2: ANOVA output from StatistXL Microsoft Excel plugin package. Analysis at quadrat level to determine
 636 any significant relationships between disturbance variables (Grass, rabbits and litter) and whether this
 637 correlates presences/absences of nemesiids (PR_AB) with patch remnant vegetation (PRV) as a covariate in
 638 urban extent of Swan Coastal Plain, Western Australia. * indicates significant p-values.

Y Variable	Source	Type III SS	Df	Mean Sq.	F	Prob.
RABBIT	PRV	1.782	1	1.782	27.692	0.000*
	PR_AB	0.641	2	0.321	4.982	0.008*
GRASS	PRV	0.011	1	0.011	0.100	0.752
	PR_AB	1.323	2	0.661	5.794	0.004*
LITTER	PRV	1.469	1	1.469	51.402	0.000*
	PR_AB	0.051	2	0.026	0.894	0.411

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