SHORT COMMUNICATION



Plant architectural traits influence residence time of a specialist jumping spider

Paula M. de Omena¹ · Tiago N. Bernabé^{1,3} · Mônica F. Kersch-Becker¹ · Fátima C. Recalde^{1,2} · Pablo A. P. Antiqueira^{1,2} · Camila Vieira⁴ · Gustavo H. Migliorini^{1,3} · Sandra Benavides-Gordillo^{1,2} · Gustavo Q. Romero¹

Received: 26 February 2017/Accepted: 18 May 2017/Published online: 27 May 2017 © Japan Ethological Society and Springer Japan 2017

Abstract The patch residence time of spiders has long been attributed to prey availability. We provide empirical evidence that plant architecture determines the residence time of a bromeliad-living spider. The residence time of spiders was longer on rosette-shaped plants. Males left their host plant faster than females, likely due to their mate-searching activity. We demonstrate that plant architectural traits mediate the patch-leaving tendency of specialist spiders.

Keywords Salticidae · Mutualism · Plant selection · Spider–plant interaction · Bromeliad

Introduction

Habitat selection and patch residence time of spiders have been consistently attributed to food availability or predation risk (Morse 2007). Several spider species, however,

Electronic supplementary material The online version of this article (doi:10.1007/s10164-017-0520-1) contains supplementary material, which is available to authorized users.

- Paula M. de Omena paulaomena@gmail.com
- Laboratório de Interações Multitróficas e Biodiversidade, Departamento de Biologia Animal, Universidade Estadual de Campinas, Campinas, SP, Brazil
- Programa de Pós-Graduação em Ecologia, Universidade Estadual de Campinas, Campinas, SP, Brazil
- ³ Programa de Pós-Graduação em Biologia Animal, Universidade Estadual Paulista "Júlio de Mesquita Filho", São José Do Rio Preto, SP, Brazil
- Programa de Pós-Graduação em Ecologia e Conservação de Recursos Naturais, Departamento de Ecologia, Universidade Federal de Uberlândia, Uberlândia, Brazil

live exclusively associated with plants, using them not only as foraging sites, but also for breeding, as nurseries, and shelter (Dias and Brescovit 2004; Romero and Vasconcellos-Neto 2004, 2005). Spiders that live closely associated with plants may strongly rely on plant traits to select microhabitat and foraging sites, and not only prey-availability cues (Morse 2007; de Omena and Romero 2010; Tedore and Johnsen 2015, 2016). The role of host plant traits in the residence time of specialist spiders, however, still remains unclear.

While several species of jumping spiders (Salticidae) live associated with many bromeliad species, the spider *Psecas chapoda* lives almost exclusively on a single rosette-shaped host plant species, *Bromelia balansae* Mez. (Romero 2006). *P. chapoda*—host plant specialization is linked to microhabitat structure and not to plant species per se (de Omena and Romero 2008). The selective forces that shaped *P. chapoda* specialization have yet to be determined, but it is likely that the large availability of plants with a specific architecture played a critical role in its host plant specialization (Romero 2006).

This spider–plant association is widely distributed over a large area of savanna-like vegetation and margins of semi-deciduous forests (Romero 2006). *P. chapoda* inhabits sun-exposed areas within patches of a mix of shrubs, grasses, and bromeliads (especially *B. balansae*). When spiders disperse from one bromeliad to another, they unavoidably move across plants with distinct architectures. Therefore, a fast and accurate microhabitat selection is particularly important to increase the reproductive success and survival rate of *P. chapoda*, especially because spiders are more vulnerable to predators and harsh climatic conditions when not on their host plants (Romero and Vasconcellos-Neto 2005; Romero 2006). Age and sex of spiders are known to influence substrate selection (Persons



J Ethol (2017) 35:313–316

1999). Adult male are often more active due to mate-searching activity, which may influence both site selection and host plant residence time (HPRT) (Cady 1984; Framenau 2005). Here we evaluate *P. chapoda* HPRT of males and females when placed on plants with distinct architectural traits. We predict that HPRT of both adult males and females will be longer on rosette-shaped plants (like *B. balansae*). We also expect that males of *P. chapoda* will leave the host plants faster due to their mating behavior.

Materials and methods

We collected 54 adult males and 54 females of *P. chapoda* spiders on *B. balansae* in a cerrado fragment (20°48S, 49°19W) in São José do Rio Preto, São Paulo, Brazil. In the laboratory, we stored individual spiders in dram vials for 2 days (12 h light at 24–34 °C) with unlimited prey resources (*Drosophila melanogaster*) and a piece of moist cotton.

To evaluate whether P. chapoda adult male and female spiders can distinguish among preferred and non-preferred host plant architectural traits we performed a no-choice experiment. We placed one spider on each plant. We then compared the HPRT of P. chapoda among plants with distinct architectural traits. We used six plant species arranged in a circle per block; four rosette-shaped plants (B. balansae, Aechmea distichantha, Aechmea blanchetiana, and Aechmea fasciata-all Bromeliaceae) and two eudicotyledons [Croton floribundus (Euphorbiaceae) and Delonix regia (Fabaceae)]. B. balansae and A. distichantha have long and narrow leaves with margins covered by spines. A. blanchetiana and A. fasciata present broad leaves; however, A. blanchetiana has medium leaf length, and A. fasciata has short leaves. Regarding the nonrosette-shaped plants, C. floribundus shows long and wide leaves, while D. regia has large compound leaves with minute leaflets. For more details on the plants' architecture, see supporting information (S1).

One day before beginning the experiment, we transplanted all the plants (n=108) previously maintained in a greenhouse to an old field at the experimental station of the Universidade Estadual Paulista Júlio de Mesquita Filho. We started the experiment on 25 November 2007. We placed all the plants in open areas with free prey colonization. However, it is important to highlight that none of the experimental plants had structures to attract insects such as flowers and extrafloral nectaries, so we assumed that prey availability was the same among plants. We arranged all plants within a block in a circle; all plants were 1 m apart from the nearest neighbor and blocks were at least 3 m from each other. We set up nine blocks for each spider sex (18 blocks total). We randomly assigned each

block to receive either male or female spiders, and each plant received only one spider. To quantify the HPRT of spiders we checked the experimental blocks daily between 7:30 a.m. to 8:00 p.m. At the beginning of the experiment, we checked the experimental blocks continuously for 4 h, then checked them every 30 min until the end of the experiment. Since Salticidae spiders are most active during the day (Foelix 2011), we did not perform nocturnal observations. At the beginning of each observational day (7:30 a.m.), we inspected all plants to record whether spiders were on them. If a plant did not have a spider on it, we considered the end of HPRT as 8 p.m. of the previous day. This was a conservative approach to account for the spiders that left the plants between 8 p.m. and 7:30 a.m. We removed all spiders that left their plants from the experimental area.

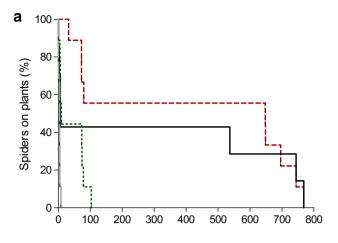
To compare the HPRT of the different treatments, we used survival-reliability analyses. We tested the effects of host plants, spider sex and host plant-by-spider sex interaction using Cox's proportional hazard model. This model has been consistently used to examine patch-leaving tendency (Haccou and Meelis 1994). The cumulative hazard rate, which is the probability per unit of time that an individual leaves the host plant, is calculated by the combination of the baseline residence time (no effect of any factors) and the effects of explanatory variables (host plant, sex, and host plant-by-sex interaction) (Haccou and Meelis 1994). We performed all analyses in JMP Pro version 11 (SAS 2015).

Results

HPRT was influenced by the host plant-by-spider sex interaction ($\chi^2 = 16.27$, df = 5, P = 0.006; Fig. 1). HPRT of females was longer on B. balansae and A. distichantha, whereas males showed longer HPRT only on B. balansae. HPRT of females on B. balansae and A. distichantha did not differ (B. balansae vs. A. distichantha $\gamma^2 = 0.04$, df = 1, P = 0.842), but they remained on B. balansae and A. distichantha longer than on other plants ($\chi^2 = 71.37$, df = 5, P < 0.001; Fig. 1a). HPRT of males on A. distichantha was similar to that on A. blanchetiana (A. distichantha vs. A. blanchetiana $\chi^2 = 1.1$, df = 1, P = 0.295; Fig. 1), but higher than that on A. fasciata ($\chi^2 = 9.17$, df = 5, P = 0.003; Fig. 1b). When placed on non-rosetteshaped plants, both males and females promptly left the plants; they remained less than 3.5 min (mean) on C. floribundus and on D. regia. HPRT was strongly influenced by host plant species ($\chi^2 = 141.39$, df = 5, P < 0.001; Fig. 1). Mean (\pm SE) HPRT of females (141 \pm 37 h) was 23 times longer than that of males (6 \pm 2 h; χ^2 = 31.19, df = 1, P < 0.001; Fig. 1).



J Ethol (2017) 35:313–316



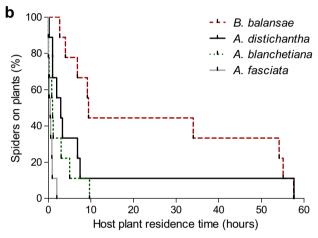


Fig. 1 Host plant residence time of *Psecas chapoda* **a** females and **b** males in response to different host plant species (*Bromelia balansae*, *Aechmea distichantha*, *Aechmea blanchetiana*, and *Aechmea fasciata*). Because of lower host plant residence time (less than 3.5 min), data for *Croton floribundus* and *Delonix regia* are not shown

Discussion

P. chapoda lives almost exclusively on B. balansae in a mutualism (Romero et al. 2006), but it can also inhabit other plant species with similar architectural traits (de Omena and Romero 2008). Once on a plant, Psecas is able to distinguish rosette-shaped from non-rosette-shaped plants; as a result, the residence time of P. chapoda on rosette-shaped bromeliads was longer. A previous study of this system showed that P. chapoda, guided by visual stimuli, have a strong preference for rosette-shaped plants bearing long and narrow leaves (i.e., B. balansae and A. distichantha) (de Omena and Romero 2010). Our findings complement these results showing that the residence time of spiders on bromeliads with narrow and long leaves is longer than that on bromeliads with different leaf traits and non-rosette-shaped plants.

Most theoretical and empirical studies on patch residence time of arthropods have considered prey availability as a primary influence on the patch-leaving tendency (Cassini et al. 1990; Persons and Uetz 1996; Miyashita 2005; Morse 2007). The residence time of two Nephila species (Nephila maculata and Nephila clavata) on different habitats varies according to life history traits (Miyashita 2005). N. maculata has a larger body size and shorter residence time than N. clavata. However, under food supplementation, N. maculata dramatically increased its residence time, suggesting that patch residence time is linked to food availability (Miyashita 2005). Additionally, the wolf spider Schizocosa ocreata remained longer in patches with both visual and vibratory cues from prey (Persons and Uetz 1996). Here we showed that habitat traits could also influence the patch residence time of spiders. It is likely that the residence time of spiders that live closely associated with plants is strongly influenced by host plant traits and not only food availability.

We also found that P. chapoda females remained longer on their host bromeliads than males. This result may be related to the reproductive behavior of *P. chapoda*. Adult females display maternal care; they construct their egg sacs on the concave side of the leaves under a plain silk cover and remain there to ensure clutch survival (de Rossa-Feres et al. 2000; Vieira and Romero 2008). This behavior could explain the longer residence time on rosette-shaped plants with long and narrow leaves; traits that enhance nest building. The leaves of B. balansae are also used during courtship; females remain on the base of the rosette, while males occupy the upper side of the leaves and display courtship behavior there (de Rossa-Feres et al. 2000). In this study we observed that males left the plants they were placed on and move towards rosette-shaped bromeliads harboring females (i.e., B. balansae and A. distichantha). Indeed, male spiders become more active after the last molt and tend to leave their habitats to search for females (Foelix 2011). Males of *Phidippus clarus* (Salticidae) walk more than females and show lower site fidelity than them (Hoefler and Jakob 2006). Because we only used adult males of *Psecas*, the lower site fidelity and higher dispersal rates help explain our findings in which males left the plants faster than females.

We conclude that *P. chapoda* spiders can distinguish between preferred host and non-host plants once on plants. Sex strongly influenced residence time; female spiders remained longer (almost 1 month) on rosette-shaped bromeliads than males. It is likely that males readily dispersed to search for females. Although prey availability has been considered the main driver of the residence time of spiders, our findings demonstrated that plant architectural traits play an important role in patch residence time of bromeliad specialist spiders.



J Ethol (2017) 35:313–316

Acknowledgements We thank the Coordenação de Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Nível Superior PNPD-CAPES 2014/04603-4 for financial support.

Compliance with ethical standards

Human and animal rights statement All the applicable international, national, and institutional guidelines for the care and use of animals were followed.

References

- Cady AB (1984) Microhabitat selection and locomotor activity of Schizocosa ocreata (Walckenaer) (Araneae: Lycosidae). J Arachnol 11:297–307
- Cassini MH, Kacelnik A, Segura ET (1990) The tale of screaming hairy armadillo, the guinea pig and the marginal value theorem. Anim Behav 39:1030–1050. doi:10.1016/S0003-3472(05)80776-6
- de Omena PM, Romero GQ (2008) Fine-scale microhabitat selection in a bromeliad-dwelling jumping spider (Salticidae). Biol J Linn Soc 94:653–662. doi:10.1111/j.1095-8312.2008.01039.x
- de Omena PM, Romero GQ (2010) Using visual cues of microhabitat traits to find home: the case study of a bromeliad-living jumping spider (Salticidae). Behav Ecol 21:690–695. doi:10.1093/beheco/arq040
- de Rossa-Feres DC, Romero GQ, Gonçalves-de-Freitas E, Feres RJF (2000) Reproductive behaviour and seasonal occurrence of *Psecas viridipurpureus* (Salticidae, Ananeae). Braz J Biol 60:221–228. doi:10.1590/S0034-71082000000200005
- Dias SC, Brescovit AD (2004) Microhabitat selection and cooccurrence of *Pachistopelma rufonigrum* Pocock (Araneae, Theraphosidae) and *Nothroctenus fuxico* sp. nov. (Araneae, Ctenidae) in tank bromeliads from Serra de Itabaiana, Sergipe, Brazil. Rev Bras de Zool 21:789–796. doi:10.1590/S0101-81752004000400011
- Foelix RF (2011) Biology of spiders. Oxford University Press, New York
- Framenau VW (2005) Gender specific differences in activity and home range reflect morphological dimorphism in wolf spiders (Araneae, Lycosidae). J Arachnol 33:334–346. doi:10.1636/04-57.1

- Haccou P, Meelis E (1994) Statistical analysis of behavioural data. Oxford University Press, New York
- Hoefler CD, Jakob EM (2006) Jumping spiders in space: movement patterns, nest site fidelity and the use of beacons. Anim Behav 71:109–116. doi:10.1016/j.anbehav.2005.03.033
- Miyashita T (2005) Contrasting patch residence strategy in two species of sit-and-wait foragers under the same environment: a constraint by life history? Ethology 111:159–167. doi:10.1111/j. 1439-0310.2004.01048.x
- Morse DH (2007) Predator upon a flower: life history and fitness in a crab spider. Harvard University Press, Cambridge
- Persons MH (1999) Hunger effects on foraging responses to perceptual cues in immature and adult wolf spiders (Lycosidae). Anim Behav 57:81–88. doi:10.1006/anbe.1998.0948
- Persons MH, Uetz GW (1996) The influence of sensory information on patch residence time in wolf spiders (Araneae: Lycosidae). Anim Behav 51:1285–1293. doi:10.1006/anbe.1996.0133
- Romero GQ (2006) Geographic range, habitats and host plants of bromeliad-living jumping spiders (Salticidae). Biotropica 38:522–530. doi:10.1111/j.1744-7429.2006.00173.x
- Romero GQ, Vasconcellos-Neto J (2004) Spatial distribution patterns of jumping spiders associated with terrestrial bromeliads. Biotropica 36:596–601. doi:10.1111/j.1744-7429.2004.tb00353.x
- Romero GQ, Vasconcellos-Neto J (2005) The effects of plant structure on the spatial and microspatial distribution of a bromeliad-living jumping spider (Salticidae). J Anim Ecol 74:12–21. doi:10.1111/j.1365-2656.2004.00893.x
- Romero GQ, Mazzafera P, Vasconcellos-Neto J, Trivelin PCO (2006) Bromeliad-living spiders improve host plant nutrition and growth. Ecology 87:803–808. doi:10.1890/0012-9658(2006) 87[803:BSIHPN]2.0.CO;2
- Tedore C, Johnsen S (2015) Immunological dependence of plant-dwelling animals on the medicinal properties of their plant substrates: a preliminary test of a novel evolutionary hypothesis.

 Arthropod Plant Interact 9:437–446. doi:10.1007/s11829-015-9386-8
- Tedore C, Johnsen S (2016) Disentangling the visual cues used by a jumping spider to locate its microhabitat. J Exp Biol 219:2396–2401. doi:10.1242/jeb.129122
- Vieira C, Romero GQ (2008) Maternal care in a Neotropical jumping spider (Salticidae). J Zool 276:237–241. doi:10.1111/j.1469-7998.2008.00480.x

