Eresus kollari (Araneae: Eresidae) calls for heathland management

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Abstract. Northwest Europe’s largest heather-dominated sandy habitats are located in the nature reserve Lüneburger Heide, Germany. Yet, even these appear to be losing their ability to support some of their stenotopic species such as the ladybird spider, Eresus kollari Rossi 1846, and are thus becoming increasingly important for the preservation of these species. The habitat requirements of this endangered spider species were investigated in order to obtain data that will help stabilize the last remnants of the species’ population in northwest Germany. Several heathland habitats were surveyed by pitfall trapping during the mate-search period of the males. Two statistical methods were applied: logistic regression and boosted regression trees (BRT). Both methods showed that three habitat variables are of prime relevance in predicting the occurrence of E. kollari: a) thickness of the organic layer (a negative effect), b) soil temperature at a depth of 10 cm, and c) Calluna cover in the herb layer (both have positive effect). Our results show that choppering (removing above-ground biomass and most of O-layer) and burning are likely appropriate heathland management measures for the conservation of E. kollari. Such measures improve the species’ habitat quality by creating a heterogenic (small-scaled) heathland structure with suitable microhabitats. As Calluna heathlands show a clear senescence of the dominant heather, it is essential that those habitat patches be conserved. Further measures, such as transfer experiments, are recommended.

Keywords: Conservation management, habitat modeling, action plan, choppering, burning

The decline of European heathland, semi-natural habitats dominated by the heather species Calluna vulgaris, over the last two centuries due to changes in agricultural use and forestation (Webb 1998) has resulted in serious threats for the given habitat types, especially due to fragmentation and reduced habitat quality. Heathlands have thus been designated one of the most endangered habitat types on a European and regional scale (The Council of the European Communities 2004; Webb 1998; Keienburg et al. 2004). Sandy heathlands do not provide a homogeneous habitat in time and space, because they are largely influenced by the developmental cycle of the dominant plant species Calluna vulgaris (Gimingham 1972). The largest remnants of heather-dominated sandy habitats in northwest Europe have been preserved in the Lüneburger Heide and are now part of a large nature reserve. Between 1850 and 1960, the proportion of heathland declined from 77% to 21% and today represents less than 5% of the nature reserve (Völksen 1993; Assmann 1999; Keienburg & Prüter 2004). These heathland remnants have enabled the survival of a stenotopic invertebrate fauna. However, a striking decrease in the numbers of certain stenotopic arthropod species has been observed, whereas other stenotopic heathland species still seem to be widespread (Desender et al. 1994; Assmann et al. 2003; Maes & Van Dyck 2005) or relatively stable (Gajdos & Toft 2000).

Effective conservation of the heathland-specific arthropod species that are declining in the Lüneburger Heide can only be successful if their habitat requirements are understood and appropriate heathland management measures are implemented (Assmann & Janssen 1999). This requires detailed knowledge of the specific microhabitat in which they occur. Assessment of distribution modeling is an important approach to obtain scientific evidence regarding the habitat preferences of selected species. Several recent studies have demonstrated the use of such models to obtain predictors for the occurrence of endangered arthropod species, including potential conservation activities (Binzenhöfer et al. 2005, 2008; Buse et al. 2007; Hein et al. 2007; Matern et al. 2007; Heisswolf et al. 2009).

Here, we report the habitat requirements of the ladybird spider E. kollari Rossi 1846 as an example of a stenotopic heathland species declining in number. The males’ conspicuousness has made this spider a well-known species, not only among zoologists. Although its taxonomy and systematics have only recently been clarified by Režač et al. (2008), the decrease in numbers of E. kollari is well documented (Johannesen & Veith 2001). It is placed on red lists throughout Germany (Platen et al. 1996; Finch 2004).

Eresus kollari and its sibling species E. sandaliatus are both well known across northern Europe. A large-scale governmental conservation project in England involving a comprehensive action plan for E. sandaliatus over nearly two decades has proved successful (Hughes et al. 2009).

The aim of our research was to 1) determine the specific habitat requirements of E. kollari and 2) suggest specific habitat management measures aimed at conserving the last populations of the ladybird spider in northwest Germany. Bell et al. (2001) states that management based on only one species is exceptionally justifiable, and he mentions E. cinnaberinus (Olivier 1789; a former partial synonym of E. kollari) as such an exception in this sense. All in all, our study aims to preserve the last remaining populations of the ladybird spider in northwest Germany.
METHODS

Study species. — *Eresus kollari* belongs to the cribellate spider family Eresidae (Platnick 2011). Male and female spiders of this species spend most of their lives underground in their well-camouflaged tube webs. The adults live in a burrow of about 1 cm diameter and a maximum depth of 10 cm. The spider weaves parts of leaves from the surrounding plants into the burrow’s roof directly above the ground, making the web almost invisible throughout most of the year. It can only be found during 2 wk in May when the females strengthen the threads of the webs to catch prey for their offspring (Baumann 1997).

Males mature at the age of 2.5 yr, whereas females mature at 3–4 yr (Baumann 1997). Only males leave the burrow to mate at the end of their lives for a period of ~ 2 wk between August and October. In their nuptial dress, they search for females within a diameter of ~ 10–12 m. Males and females share precisely the same habitat, and both show a very low dispersal potential (Baumann 1997).

Study area. — The study area (Fig. 1) is situated in the nature reserve Lüneburger Heide about 6 km east of Schneverdingen (53° 7' 43" N, 09° 52' 45" E). The nature reserve includes the most extensive heathlands of northwest Germany, covering an area of ~ 5,000 ha. Niemeyer et al. (2007) characterize the climate of the nature reserve as a humid suboceanic type with a mean annual precipitation of 811 mm and a mean annual temperature of 8.4° C. They describe the soil as Pleistocene sandy deposits and nutrient-poor podzols or podzolic soils, pH range 3.2–3.6. Old, high heather shrubs covered the whole study site at least from the 1960s to the 1980s (Lütkepohl 1993). Since 2002, the last year in which the heather was mown, management practices have halted (Mertens pers. comm.).

Our study was carried out in 2007. The study area was subdivided into three parts in which we placed 100 pitfall traps. Part A (100 by 130 m, 60 traps) appeared fairly homogenous and consisted mainly of young, low heather plants with open patches, lichens, and moss. Part B (140 by 200 m, 30 traps), directly adjoining Part A, consisted of older heather, mainly 50–100 cm height, and interspersed with birch trees. Part C (10 traps, 5 in the forest and 5 in the grassland area), 400 m distant from part B, was an area of coniferous forest and forest edge with high grass scattered with young trees. All pitfalls were placed in rows, each holding 10 traps.

Sampling and predictor variables. — We applied a stratified random sampling approach to sample species occurrence and environmental data (cf. Hirzel & Guisan 2002). Direct observation of individuals or webs would be the best method to record species occurrence in the field. However, as the webs are difficult to find, we used pitfall trapping instead.

As female and male spiders share exactly the same habitat and stay in their webs during their whole life spans, our data can be applied to both sexes, although our information is only based on capture of males. They only leave their burrows at the end of their lives to search for females in close vicinity of their burrows (Bellmann 1997; Baumann 1997).

From 14 August 2007 to 16 October 2007, during the mate-searching period of the males, we used 100 pitfall traps. Plastic, 10 cm diam. cups were used, covered with a piece of netting wire to prevent larger animals from falling in. The

Figure 1.—The study area in the nature reserve Lüneburger Heide, northwest Germany. In the foreground: heather with small open patches and a pitfall trap (marked by a flag).
traps were filled with a mixture of 50% ethanol, 20% glycerine, and 30% water (modified after Renner 1982) as a preservative. The traps were emptied fortnightly. Nineteen environmental variables were recorded from each trap location. Habitat structure strongly influences the occurrence of spider species (cf. Schwab et al. 2002; Ziesche & Roth, 2008), so we thus selected and analyzed the variables that describe the habitat in terms of temperature, moisture, and structure. The vegetation cover of the dominant vascular plant species in different vegetation layers was estimated within a diameter of 1 m around each trap.

We analyzed vegetation cover in 3 different layers a) 0–10 cm, b) 10–50 cm, c) > 50 cm, estimating the percentage cover of the main vegetation components like Calluna vulgaris and/or Erica tetralix as well as grasses, lichens, bare soil, moss, and trees. Additionally, we measured the thickness of the organic layer (cm). We also collected the data of the temperature of the top soil and the soil at 10 cm depth (°C). Insolation (Lux) and temperature (°C) data were taken separately on 5 September, a sunny day, over midday by means of a photometer and a digital thermometer with a 10-cm-long metal rod. We took a spadeful of soil sample of every trap to measure the pH-value (pH_{H2O}), organic matter content (%), and water content (%) of the A-horizon.

**Statistical analysis.**—To estimate the occurrence probabilities of E. kollari depending on environmental predictor variables, we used two different approaches: logistic regression as a standard parametric approach and boosted regression trees (BRT), a promising, non-parametric ensemble forecasting technique (cf. Elith et al. 2008). To achieve the best balanced predictive model, we used $P_{\text{fair}}$ as the appropriate classification threshold (according to Schröder & Richter 1999). The threshold $P_{\text{fair}}$ ensures that sensitivity (= percentage of correctly predicted presences) and specificity (= percentage of correctly predicted absences) of the model have the same magnitude.

For our logistic regression analysis, we first performed univariate logistic regressions for each of the predictor variables, following the approach of Hosmer & Lemeshow (2000). Only predictors with $P < 0.25$ in the univariate logistic regression were considered as potential candidates for multiple regression analysis. Significance in the logistic regression model was assessed using the likelihood ratio test. To assess correlation between predictors, we analyzed their bivariate correlation structure. None of the potential candidates showed a bivariate correlation stronger than $r_s = 0.553$ (Spearman rank-correlation test). Within the multiple regression model, we also tested the significance of two-way interaction terms and quadratic terms for each of the previously selected predictors. None of the interaction terms and only one of the quadratic terms (moss layer in herbage cover) was significant ($P < 0.05$), but this is not considered in the final model. From the resulting set of predictors, we deleted those with a significance level of $P > 0.1$ from this model. In a further step, backwards stepwise selection (‘fastbw’: Harrell 2001) was used to prove the importance of the predictors left in the final model. This method uses the fitted complete model and computes approximate Wald statistics by computing conditional (restricted) maximum likelihood estimates, assuming multivariate normality of estimates.

Nagelkerke’s $R^2$ was used for evaluating model calibration. To assess model discrimination and performance, we used the program ROC_AUC provided by Schröder (2006) to calculate the AUC (area under a receiver operating characteristic curve: Swets 1988) and some threshold-dependent criteria such as the correct classification rate and Cohen’s kappa. To quantify the total independent contribution of the single predictors considered in the logistic regression, we ran a hierarchical partitioning procedure (MacNally 2000; Heikkinen et al. 2005; Müller et al. 2009; Schröder et al. 2009).

Habitat models run the risk of being overfitted to the training data (Harrell 2001; Steyerberg et al. 2001; von dem Bussche et al. 2008). As independent data were not available to correct for this optimism, we used bootstrapping with 100 replicates to correct the measures of model performance (e.g., Peppler-Lisbach & Schröder 2004; Oppel et al. 2004). This method allows almost unbiased estimates of model performance and was found to provide the best estimate of internal validity of predictive logistic regression models (Reineking and Schröder 2003; Schröder 2008).

To compare these results with a more flexible non-parametric approach, we also built boosted regression trees (BRT; see Elith et al. 2008 for details). This approach combines the boosting algorithm (Schapire & Singer 1999) with classification and regression trees (De’ath & Fabricius 2000), leading to a set of several hundreds or thousands of trees in the final model (De’ath 2007). It has the advantage that it allows for an implicit modeling of thresholds as well as interactions between predictors. BRTs were estimated with a tree complexity of 5 and a learning rate of 0.001. Variable selection was performed in a forward stepwise manner, so that only important predictors are considered in the final model. The approach makes it possible to calculate the contributions of all predictors in explaining the variability of the response variable. Model performance in terms of AUC and Nagelkerke’s $R^2_{N}$ was evaluated based on tenfold cross-validation. For both methods, residuals were checked for spatial autocorrelation by calculating global Moran’s I (Dormann et al. 2007) and spline correlograms (Björnstad & Falck 2001; Schröder 2008).

We carried out the statistical analyses with R 2.7.1 (R Development Core Team 2008). Hierarchical partitioning was conducted using the ‘hier.part’-library (version 1.0, MacNally & Walsh 2004), and the ‘Hmisc’ (version 3.0-12) and ‘Design’ library (version 2.0-12) (Harrell 2001) were used for the logistic regression procedure. The library ‘gbm’ (provided by G. Ridgeway, supported by some functions provided by J. Elith and J. Leathwick) was used for boosted regression tree modeling. Response curves of logistic regressions were plotted using the program LR-mesh provided by Rudner (2004). Spatial autocorrelation was checked by applying the library ‘spdep’ (Bivand 2006).

**RESULTS**

In total, 95 E. kollari specimens, all of which were males, were found in 48 of the 100 pitfalls. In 26 traps, we found only one individual of the studied species, with a maximum of six found in two of the traps. In part A of the study site, spiders fell into 41 of 60 traps. We observed positive spatial autocorrelation in the raw presence-absence data within a
50 m distance from each trap (partial Moran’s I statistic standard deviate = 9.119, \( P < 0.001 \)).

**Habitat variables related to species presence.**—The final logistic regression model considers three predictors with a strong effect on occurrence probability (Table 1). ‘Thickness of organic layer’ \( (R^2_N = 0.28 \text{ in a univariate regression, } P < 0.001) \) had a negative effect on the occurrence probability of *E. kollari*. In contrast, ‘soil temperature at 10 cm depth’ \( (R^2_N = 0.22, \ P < 0.001) \), and ‘Calluna cover in herb layer’ \( (R^2_N = 0.15, \ P < 0.01) \) both had a positive effect (Fig. 2). At our study site, these variables covered a large gradient, range of 12.4–17.3°C in soil temperature and range of 0–12 cm in the thickness of the organic layer, whereas the height of *Calluna* reached 8–50 cm and its soil coverage was 3–100%.

Occurrence probabilities of 50% are explained by a minimum soil temperature of 15°C and a maximum organic layer of 3 cm (Figs. 2, 3).

The final logistic regression model explained a considerable proportion of the overall variance in our dataset \( (R^2_N = 0.38) \). A first model containing predictors that were associated with the outcome of the final model \( (P < 0.25, \text{ according to Hosmer & Lemeshow 2000}) \) explained slightly more variance in our dataset \( (R^2_N = 0.44) \), but some predictors were removed (‘heather in herb layer,’ the cover of ‘herbage in moss and herb layer,’ ‘soil temperature on surface,’ ‘intensity of light on surface’) in the stepwise model selection process for the final model.

In order to quantify the independent contribution of the predictor variables considered in both the logistic regression and the BRT model, we conducted a hierarchical partitioning analysis. The results for the logistic regression model show the relatively high influence of the organic layer (44.0%). The independent effect of soil temperature at 10 cm depth was also quite high (35.5%), whereas the cover of heather in the herb layer had an independent effect of 20.5%.

Soil temperature at 10 cm depth (27.6%) and thickness of the organic layer (22.6%) best explained the variability of the response variable in the BRT model. Other variables such as soil water content, insolation, heather cover in the herb layer, and proportion of organic matter in the soil contributed

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Regression coefficient</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>Wald Z</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( \beta_1 ) Soil temperature at 10 cm depth</td>
<td>0.591</td>
<td>0.226</td>
<td>2.61</td>
<td>0.009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \beta_2 ) Thickness of organic layer</td>
<td>–0.360</td>
<td>0.159</td>
<td>–2.27</td>
<td>0.023</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \beta_3 ) Calluna/Erca cover in herb layer</td>
<td>0.015</td>
<td>0.009</td>
<td>1.71</td>
<td>0.087</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \beta_0 ) Intercept</td>
<td>–8.420</td>
<td>3.556</td>
<td>–2.37</td>
<td>0.018</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 2.—Bivariate response surface of the two most important predictors in the final logistic regression model (see Table). The estimated occurrence probability (P) of *E. kollari* is plotted against the two continuous predictors.
between 10.3 and 13.7% to the variability in the response variable (Fig. 3).

Model performance and validation.—The logistic regression model showed a relatively good discriminative power with an AUC-value of 0.80 ($CI_{95}\%: 0.72–0.89$). Using $P_{fair}$ in the model, we reached a correct classification rate of 75%. The evaluation of Cohen's kappa indicates good predictive power for our final model. Internal validation by bootstrapping revealed only slight overfitting of the final model. Corrected values were $R^2_N = 0.34$ and AUC-value = 0.78, which indicates acceptable discriminative performance. This shows that our model is robust within the study site.

Accordingly, the BRT model reached an AUC = 0.80 and $R^2_N = 0.253$ after tenfold cross-validation and an apparent model performance of AUC = 0.91 ($CI_{95}\%: 0.85–0.96$) and $R^2_N = 0.53$, CCR = 0.81 and kappa = 0.62. Neither the logistic regression (Moran’s I statistic standard deviate = 0.068, $P = 0.473$) nor the BRT approach (Moran’s I statistic standard deviate = 0.929, $P = 0.176$) showed any residual spatial autocorrelation.

DISCUSSION

Our study describes the ecological demands of this spider species in the last remaining heathland areas in Germany. Our logistic regression model indicates that the occurrence of *E. kollari* in the large heathland complex of northwest Germany is influenced primarily by the three habitat variables. Here we discuss the effect of each variable.

1) There was a negative effect of the thickness of the organic layer. The layer functions as an obstacle to the male's locomotory behavior in the sense of spatial resistance (Duffey 1962). This means that the management measures should strive to maintain a rather thin organic layer of maximum 3 to 4 cm. This is of great importance not only for males, since both sexes have to penetrate the organic layer in order to dig their burrows (Baumann 1997).

2) The models showed a positive effect of temperature at 10 cm depth, but not at the surface. This is likely due to the fact that the males, like the females, spend nearly all their lives in burrows dug in soil. This variable may affect the occurrence of females rather than males, since females prefer higher temperature places for quick development of brood (cf. Klein et al. 2005). The soil surface temperature fluctuated from trap to trap. This variable was excluded by the automatic model selection procedure for the logistic regression model, but had an explanatory power of 12.4% in the boosted regression trees (Fig. 3). Hence, the occurrence of the males during the vagrant period (Baumann 1997) is less influenced by the surface temperature than by the soil temperature deeper in the ground.
3) Both models demonstrated that ‘Calluna cover in the herb layer’ also has a fairly strong influence (with 13.3% in the BRT-model) on the occurrence of the species. However, our models cannot distinguish between the influence of Calluna cover in the herb layer and the importance of the moss layer. Other authors have pointed out that Eresus prefers wind-protected sites (Wiehle 1953; Bellmann 1997; Baumann 1997). This may explain why E. kollari prefers sites in which heather is higher than 10 cm but lower than 50 cm, since this vegetation height allows enough wind-shelter, but also provides sufficient insolation to reach the required temperature at a depth of 10 cm. Hence, E. kollari can be considered as a stenotopic thermophilic species of dry heathlands.

Our statistical models revealed habitat variables that can be used to predict the occurrence of E. kollari with a correct classification rate ranging from 75 up to 83% and with considerable discriminative power. Since we built a predictive distribution model based on presence and absence data from trapping in the field, the circumstances under which AUC could be a misleading performance measure do not apply to our study (Lobo et al. 2008). Higher AUC scores can likely be obtained by increasing the geographical extent of models (Lobo et al. 2008) because of the larger environmental distances of the absences. Nevertheless, the results of the distribution model presented here are limited to the predictors used and, to some extent, to the location from which the data were obtained. Internal validation revealed only slight over-fitting, but further analysis is necessary to determine whether the model is generally applicable to other regions. In general, both the BRT and the logistic regression model seem to be robust (bootstrapping) within the investigated study site.

As E. kollari was not found in 19 of the 60 pitfall traps in the most suitable part of our study site (part A), we assume that it could follow the metapopulation dynamics reported from other arthropod stenotopic heathland species (Habel et al. 2007; Assmann & Janssen 1999; Drees et al. 2011). This may also be the reason why our statistical models do not explain more than 38% of the occurrence of E. kollari on our study site.

The dispersal power of E. kollari is too low to colonize or recolonize empty habitat patches, at least under the conditions of the highly fragmented heathland patches in the nature reserve Lüneburger Heide (cf. Eggers et al. 2010). Baumann (1997) proved low dispersal power by marking 1,004 individuals of Eresus. Recaptures showed that this species has a very poor dispersal potential, since the offspring build their new burrows in close proximity to their mother’s web. Baumann’s studies on males have shown that spatial resistance is of great importance to these animals; thus, males do not move farther than 10 to 12 m on average from their own burrows. The farthest distance moved by a single spider was 61 m.

Therefore, both low dispersal power and the spatially structured populations, as indicated by positive spatial autocorrelation within the first 50 m around occurrences, should result in a decline of the species if heathland areas are strongly fragmented. This decline has already been recognized (Platen et al. 1998; Blick et al., in press). Proof of the existence of non-occupied, though suitable patches for an Eresus species has already been given by a successful transfer experiment in England with E. sandaliatus, a sibling species of E. kollari (Hughes et al. 2009). This result can be best explained by a metapopulation structure in E. sandaliatus.

Conclusions for a sound conservation strategy.—Due to both the spatially structured populations and the probable existence of unoccupied habitat patches, we recommend re-introduction experiments with E. kollari to habitat patches that seem to belong to the same type of patches. Monitoring of the re-introduction effort is also strongly recommended.

Three main variables (thickness of the organic layer, soil temperature at 10 cm depth, Calluna cover in the herb layer) have been shown to be decisive for the occurrence of the ladybird spider. Based on these variables, we recommend the implementation of an elaborated management plan that guarantees long-term heathland quality (cf. McFerran et al. 1995; Bell et al. 2001) and can accommodate the habitat requirements of E. kollari:

1) Choppering is a management measure that creates bare soil by removing the above-ground biomass and most parts of the O-layer, with only a thin layer of organic material remaining on the surface (Niemyer et al. 2007). It promotes the heterogeneity of heathland soil by removing the small ridges and maintaining the micro-relief. Thus, after being choppered, the raw-humus layer would offer a huge variety of suitable combinations of the variables ‘organic layer’ and ‘Calluna coverage’ suggested by our habitat model. In part A of our study area, the last heathland management measure, ‘mulch mowing,’ took place in 2002. Mowing, too, seems to be an appropriate measure for conservation of the E. kollari population and probably also for other European Eresus species on different sites (Usher 1992; Bell et al. 2001).

2) We also recommend prescribed burning, since it leaves the temperatures unchanged at a depth of a few centimeters so that it cannot harm the spider in its tube webs; the whole process also leaves the micro-relief untouched (McFerran et al. 1995; Niemeyer et al. 2005). The structure after burning might also provide appropriate habitat. However, the raw humus layer required by E. kollari will only be restored after several years. Grasses (e.g., Molinia careulea) regenerate after prescribed burning, but break down only after the second year (Niemeyer et al. 2005; Härdtle et al. 2009).

Usher (1992) suggests that the habitats of such a rare species as Eresus kollari should be managed throughout Europe. As a basic principle, if management measures are not applied in heathlands, it will not be possible to ensure the long-term preservation of this habitat (Usher 1992; Härdtle et al. 2007). For choppering, we recommend that a pattern of strips or a fishbone-structure should be employed in E. kollari conservation measures, so that the spiders have the chance to move from the untouched colonized habitat patches into the managed areas in order to colonize or recolonize empty habitat patches. The measures should be applied at a distance of a maximum of 50 m as well. We would recommend that the strips should be not broader than the machine used, and the patches chosen for choppering should be narrow enough to allow the spider to move over. It is also very important to leave some time (ca 5 yr) after the measures have been carried out for the development or redevelopment of these sites, and to spread the measures cyclically and periodically in space and time.
Our knowledge of the effects of management measures on arthropod fauna is still poor, and long-term studies are only available for ground beetles in the Netherlands (den Boer & van Dijk 1995). These studies report that some endangered species, typical for heathlands, benefit from burning and choppering (or, in some cases, sod cutting). The only known long-term study of the dynamics of heathland spider species does not refer to the effects of habitat management (Gajdoš & Toft 2000). Only long-term monitoring (over at least 10 years) will be able to show what impact the management measures recommended as a result of our habitat suitability model will have on the endangered spider species E. kollari.

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LITERATURE CITED


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