

1 Article

2 **Context matters: contrasting ladybird beetle**
3 **responses to urban environments across two US**
4 **regions**

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15 **Abstract:** Urban agroecosystems offer an opportunity to investigate the diversity and distribution
16 of organisms that are conserved in city landscapes. This information is not only important for
17 conservation efforts, but also has important implications for sustainable agricultural practices.
18 Associated biodiversity can provide ecosystem services like pollination and pest control, but
19 because organisms may respond differently to the unique environmental filters of specific urban
20 landscapes, it is valuable to compare regions that have different abiotic conditions and urbanization
21 histories. In this study, we compared the abundance and diversity of ladybird beetles within urban
22 gardens in California and Michigan, USA. We asked what species are shared, and what species are
23 unique between urban regions. Moreover, we asked how beetle diversity is influenced by the
24 amount and rate of urbanization surrounding sampled urban gardens. We found that the
25 abundance and diversity of beetles, particularly of unique species, respond in opposite directions to
26 urbanization: ladybirds increased with urbanization in California, but decreased with urbanization
27 in Michigan. We propose that in California water availability in gardens and the urbanization
28 history of the landscape could explain the divergent pattern. Thus, urban context is likely a key
29 contributor to biodiversity within habitats and an important consideration for sustainable
30 agricultural practices in urban agroecosystems.

31 **Keywords:** urban gardens, biological control, impervious surface, urbanization rate, Michigan,
32 California

33 **Introduction**

34 Urbanization is changing biodiversity patterns and population distributions in cities across the
35 world [1,2]. Urban environments are characterized by changes in abiotic [3] as well as biotic
36 conditions [4]. For example, greater amounts of impervious surface in cities causes urban heat
37 island effects, which increases the temperatures of cities [5] and within urban green spaces [6]. Light
38 pollution from buildings and car traffic extends the duration and intensity of light availability,
39 affecting the circadian rhythms of biotic elements [7]. Irrigation of lawns, parks and gardens adds
40 water resources and maintains the presence of vegetation for organisms to exploit [8,9]. Moreover,
41 the abundance and distribution of species and resources (habitat/food/shelter) in urban areas are
42 often supplemented or altered across time and space [1,10].

43 Changes in environmental conditions and resource availability have different effects on
44 different taxa and species [1,11]. Some species are able to persist and thrive in altered urban
45 environments, while environmental filters and competition can cause other species to decline [12].
46 The species that thrive, what some consider “urban exploiters”, are often habitat generalists that are
47 able to live, exploit resources and reproduce in diverse, resource poor environmental conditions [2].
48 On the other hand, specialist species with particular habitat (food, shelter) requirements may be
49 more sensitive to -- and decline with -- increasing urbanization because cities do not have the
50 vegetation or resources to support these species [13]. The negative effect(s) of urbanization on
51 species life history and functional traits may lead to biotic homogenization and declines in species
52 richness within urban habitats [14].

53 The rate at which urbanization occurs (i.e., the speed at which land is converted to impervious
54 surface) could further affect the diversity and distribution of species abundance and richness within
55 urban habitats, and their ability to adapt to certain urban conditions. The percent impervious
56 surface is forecasted to increase by 1.5 million km² by 2030 [15,16]. Moreover, because cities have
57 distinct development histories, socio-cultural and demographic trends [17], it is important to
58 understand whether and how biodiversity will respond to increasing urbanization (and associated
59 qualitative and quantitative aspects) across multiple urban environmental contexts [16,18].
60 Elucidating whether certain organisms respond differently or not between unique regions can
61 inform conservation agendas and urban sustainability broadly for various cities across the world
62 [1,19].

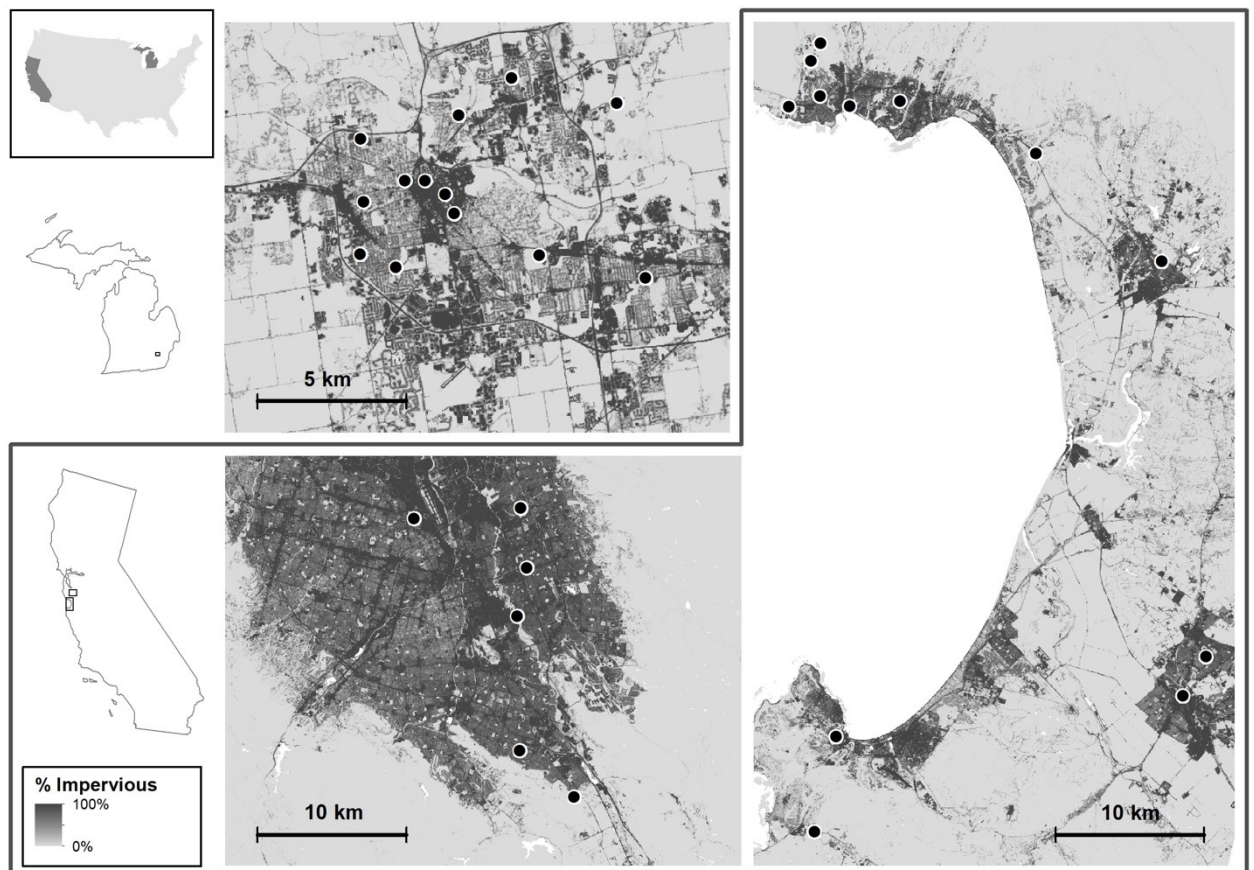
63 Urban agroecosystems such as community and home gardens are high quality habitats that
64 conserve considerable amounts of biodiversity in cities [20]. These systems are heavily managed by
65 people predominantly for the purpose of cultivating fresh vegetables, fruits, flowers and herbs for
66 self consumption [21–23]. Because urban agroecosystems are usually vegetated and irrigated [24],
67 they provide food and shelter for many arthropods. Certain arthropod groups, for example
68 pollinators and natural enemies, are in turn important for providing ecosystem services like crop
69 pollination and pest control. Previous studies have shown that these arthropod groups are less
70 abundant in gardens where surrounding levels of urbanization are high [25,26]. However, groups
71 respond differentially to urbanization and at different spatial scales [27,28]. Some arthropod groups
72 and species in urban environments including urban agroecosystems may actually increase with
73 urbanization [29,30]. For example, insect pollinator species diversity is greater in some urban
74 regions compared to surrounding suburban and agricultural areas [30–32]. Currently, it is unclear
75 whether these patterns are regional phenomenon or if these trends are generalizable to other urban
76 regional contexts. We argue that this question warrants further investigation, requiring research
77 that draws comparisons of arthropod biodiversity across spatially distinct regions. Yet studies in
78 urban agroecosystems that compare and synthesize findings across regions with different
79 environmental conditions are rare [33].

80 Here, we combine data on ladybird beetle abundance and species richness collected from
81 comparable urban agroecosystems in two distinct geographical regions to test whether the response
82 of ladybird beetles to urbanization differs by the environmental context and urbanization history.
83 Ladybird beetles are charismatic arthropods in agroecosystems that provide key natural pest
84 control services, particularly of herbivorous aphids, mites and scale insects [34–36]. Because urban
85 agroecosystems are situated amongst dense human populations, they tend towards organic,
86 environmentally-friendly, and human-health conscious forms of management [37]. Thus, natural
87 pest control is particularly important for these agroecosystems. In this study, we asked: 1) Does the
88 relationship between urbanization (percent impervious surface, rate of development) and predator
89 (ladybird beetle) systems in urban agroecosystems change with environmental context (region)? 2)
90 Which species are shared by, and which are unique to urban agroecosystems of different regions? 3)
91 Do shared species respond differently to urbanization measures in the region than unique species?

92 **Methods**

93 *Study Regions*

94 We worked in two regions in the USA – California and Michigan – to collect ladybird beetle data in
 95 urban community gardens in these regions (Figure 1). In California, we collected ladybird beetle
 96 data from 18 urban gardens in the California central coast in Santa Clara, Santa Cruz, and Monterey
 97 counties, which have estimated population densities of 274, 232, and 50 people/sq. km, respectively
 98 (2010–2014 U.S. census period) [38]. In Michigan, we collected ladybird beetle data from 13 urban
 99 gardens in Washtenaw county, which have an estimated population density of 192 people/sq. km
 100 [38]. The gardens in both regions are surrounded by different amounts of impervious surface.
 101 Moreover, the gardens differ in vegetation and groundcover composition and structure, but
 102 because they are all community gardens, differences in composition and structure are assumed
 103 relatively similar between regions. The gardens range in size from 444 to 15,525 m² in California
 104 and from 54 to 8,778 m² in Michigan, and are separated by approximately >2 km in California and
 105 >0.5 km in Michigan. All of the gardens have been cultivated for 1 to 47 years and do not use
 106 chemical pesticides and insecticides.
 107



108
 109 **Figure 1.** Study regions in Michigan (a) and in California (b) where community gardens
 110 (black circles) were sampled. Increasing percent impervious surface (NLCD 2011) shown with
 111 increasing shaded color.

112 *Ladybird beetle sampling*

113 To assess ladybird beetle communities in the gardens, we used visual and trapping methods in
 114 both regions. In California, we sampled for adult beetles with visual surveys and sticky traps within
 115 20 m² plots at the center of each of the 18 gardens six times during summer 2014 (17–20 June, 7–10
 116 July, 27–30 July, 19–21 August, 8–10 September, 29 September–1 October). Within the 20 m², we
 117 visually surveyed vegetation and ground cover for adult beetles in eight randomly placed 0.5 x 0.5
 118 m sub-plots. We collected all individuals observed and stored them in vials with ethyl alcohol. At
 119 four random locations within the plots, we also placed a 3" x 5" yellow sticky trap card (BioQuip

120 Products Inc) on a galvanized wire stake for 24 h. In Michigan, we sampled for adult beetles by
121 visually surveying five sentinel potted pea plants (*Pisum sativum* var. Dwarf grey) placed at each of
122 the 13 gardens in Washtenaw County. Any ladybird beetle adults on plants were counted and
123 identified to species. In addition, we swept surrounding vegetation in gardens for adult ladybird
124 beetles using 10 full sweeps of a 0.2 m diameter net. All Michigan gardens were surveyed twice a
125 week from May 14 to July 20, 2012. Sampling effort was consistent in all sites in each region
126 throughout the sampling periods: in Michigan, the same two researchers conducted the sampling
127 within the respective area for 30 min; in California, the same researcher conducted the sampling
128 within the respective area for 60 min. The slight differences in sampling methods and years
129 sampled between regions introduces some limitations discussed later in our conclusions.

130 We identified all ladybird beetles on traps and in vials to species using identification guides
131 [39] and online resources [40,41]. Total abundance for each site for each species, total species
132 richness, and total species diversity (Shannon's Diversity Index H) was tabulated across the
133 months. Species diversity includes the relative distribution of species' abundances and was
134 calculated using the vegan package in R [42]. For the analysis, we categorized species present in
135 both California and Michigan as "shared species," and categorized species that were not both
136 present in California and Michigan as "unique species."

137 *Urban landscape analysis*

138 To measure current levels of urbanization and to assess urbanization history, we summarized
139 1) the mean percent impervious surface surrounding gardens, and 2) the rate at which percent
140 impervious surface has increased over time. For both regions (California, Michigan), we used the
141 package "raster" in R (v 3.4.1) [43,44] to calculate the mean percent impervious surface within
142 buffers of 10, 100, 500, 1000, 2000, 3000 m spatial scales surrounding each garden site based on land
143 cover data from the US Geological Survey's National Land Cover Database (NLCD) 2011 Percent
144 Developed Imperviousness dataset [45]. Here, a high total percent impervious surface indicates
145 higher degrees of urbanization, and a low percent impervious surface indicates low degrees of
146 urbanization. To calculate the rate of percent impervious surface change over time (henceforth
147 "urbanization rate"), we collected this data at three time periods, as provided by the NLCD: 2001,
148 2006, 2011. Urbanization rate was calculated as the slope of the regression across these three time
149 periods.

150 *Statistical analysis*

151 We ran species accumulation curves to test whether species richness had been sufficiently
152 sampled in both California and Michigan. The expected number of species in each geographic
153 region was calculated using a sample-based rarefaction method known as the Mao Tau estimator
154 [46]. Both regions show evidence that richness was sufficiently sampled, exhibiting saturation in
155 their species accumulation curves (Supplementary Figure 1).

156 We first modeled abundance and richness for each region at multiple spatial scales to
157 determine the best scale at which ladybird beetles respond to urbanization. We built seven
158 generalized linear models (GLM) at 0, 10, 100, 500, 1000, 2000, 3000 m spatial scales assuming
159 Poisson error distributions for count data. The model with the lowest Akaike Information Criterion
160 (AIC) was selected as the best spatial scale for each each region [47].

161 Urbanization rate was calculated by taking the slopes of linear regressions between time and
162 impervious surface (NLCD: 2001, 2006, 2011) for each garden at a scale of 500 m. This was the buffer
163 scale determined earlier to be significant for Michigan. California beetles best responded to
164 impervious cover at 100 m, but at this scale urbanization rate did not vary by garden. Thus we only
165 analyzed effects of urbanization rate on ladybird beetle abundance, species richness and species
166 diversity at 500 m for both regions. We also ran Pearson's r tests between values of urbanization
167 rate and impervious surface at both 100 and 500m to test for correlations between explanatory
168 variables. Urbanization rate and impervious surface were not significantly correlated
169 (Supplementary Table 2).

170 To determine whether ladybird beetles significantly responded to percent impervious surface
 171 or urbanization rates, we constructed GLMs at the spatial scale appropriate for the region and
 172 predictor variable as described above. Abundance and species richness GLMs assumed Poisson
 173 error distributions, and diversity GLMs assumed Gaussian. All GLMs were then fit by Laplace
 174 approximation and goodness of fit determined by Wald Z tests [47]. This is what we refer to in text
 175 as Poisson and linear regressions.

176 Results

177 We found 16 ladybird beetle species in California and eight species in Michigan over the
 178 sampling periods across the regions (Table 1). Species diversity index values were higher in
 179 California (ranging from 1.3 to 2.5 for all species) than in Michigan (ranging from 0 to 1.5). Only
 180 four species were shared by California and Michigan, including: *C. septempunctata*, *C. Sanguinea*, *H.*
 181 *axyridis* and *O. v-nigrum*. Thus, 12 species in California and four species in Michigan were unique to
 182 that region.

184 **Table 1. Ladybird beetle species sampled in California and in Michigan.** We present: the
 185 respective region the species was found in, their feeding habits, the ecological role that they play in
 186 agroecosystems, their nativity in their respective region [39,48,49], and their current geographic
 187 distribution in the USA [39–41]. (CA = California; MI = Michigan; NA = North America)
 188

Species	Region observed	Feeds on	Ecological function in agroecosystems	Origin	Distribution in US
<i>Adalia bipunctata</i>	CA	aphids and mites	predator / pest control	native	West coast, Northeast, few Midwest records (historically most of US and Canada)
<i>Coccinella californica</i>	CA	mostly aphids	predator / pest control	native	West coast CA
<i>Cycloneda polita</i>	CA	mostly aphids	predator / pest control	native	West coast US and British Columbia
<i>Hippodamia convergens</i>	CA	mostly aphids	predator / pest control	native	Throughout US and western Canada
<i>Hyperaspis quadrioculata</i>	CA	aphids and scale insects	predator / pest control	native	Central to south CA
<i>Nephus binaevatus</i>	CA	aphids and scale insects	predator / pest control	non-native	Central to south CA
<i>Psyllobora vigintimaculata</i>	CA	fungus	fungus and mildew control	native	Throughout US and Canada
<i>Scymnus cervicalis</i>	CA	mites and scale insects	predator / pest and mite control	native	East US to south CA
<i>Scymnus coniferarum</i>	CA	mites and scale insects	predator / pest and mite control	native	CA and scattered west NA records
<i>Scymnus marginicollis</i>	CA	mites and scale insects	predator / pest and mite control	native	CA to British Columbia; scattered NA records

<i>Scymnus nebulosus</i>	CA	mites and scale insects	predator / pest and mite control	native	South CA to Canada
<i>Stethorus punctum</i>	CA	mites and scale insects	predator / pest and mite control	native	West coast US; Northeast, west to north Great Plains
<i>Coleomegilla maculata</i>	MI	mostly aphids	predator / pest control	native	East NA to southwest US
<i>Cryptolaemus montrouzieri</i>	MI	mites and scale insects	predator / pest and mite control	non-native	Throughout US
<i>Hippodamia variegata</i>	MI	mostly aphids	predator / pest control	native	Northeastern to middle US and Canada
<i>Propylea quatuordecimpunctata</i>	MI	mostly aphids	predator / pest control	non-native	Throughout NA (native to the Palearctic)
<i>Coccinella septempunctata</i>	MI, CA	mostly aphids	predator / pest control	non-native	Throughout NA (native to the Old World)
<i>Cycloneda sanguinea</i>	MI, CA	mostly aphids	predator / pest control	native	West to south CA; NC and FL
<i>Harmonia axyridis</i>	MI, CA	mostly aphids	predator / pest control	non-native	Throughout US and southern Canada, except northern Rockies
<i>Olla v-nigrum</i>	MI, CA	mostly aphids	predator / pest control	native	Throughout US, except ME and Pacific Northwest

189

190 Total ladybird beetle species abundance, richness and diversity (shared and unique species)
 191 were best explained by percent impervious surface at a 100 m spatial scale in California, but was
 192 best explained at a 500 m spatial scale in Michigan (Supplementary Table 1). Total ladybird beetle
 193 species abundance and species diversity significantly increased with percent impervious surface in
 194 California, but significantly declined with percent impervious surface in Michigan (Table 2; Figure
 195 2). Total species richness also generally increased in California and decreased in Michigan with
 196 percent impervious surface (Table 2). The divergent trend between regions was similar for shared
 197 species: shared species abundance, richness and diversity significantly increased in California with
 198 greater impervious surface, but was not significant in Michigan (Table 2). Unique species
 199 abundance also significantly increased with impervious cover in California, while unique species
 200 abundance significantly decreased in Michigan (Table 2; Figure 2). Of note, impervious surface
 201 cover gradients were comparable between California and Michigan.

202

In response to the rate of urbanization surrounding gardens, ladybird beetle abundance and
 203 species diversity increased with faster urbanization rates in California (Table 2; Figure 3). Whereas,
 204 in Michigan it was not significant for all response measures (Table 2; Figure 3). Species diversity of
 205 shared ladybird species significantly increased with faster urbanization rates for both regions (Table
 206 2; Figure 3). The abundance of unique species significantly increased in California and decreased in
 207 Michigan with faster urbanization rates (Table 2; Figure 3).

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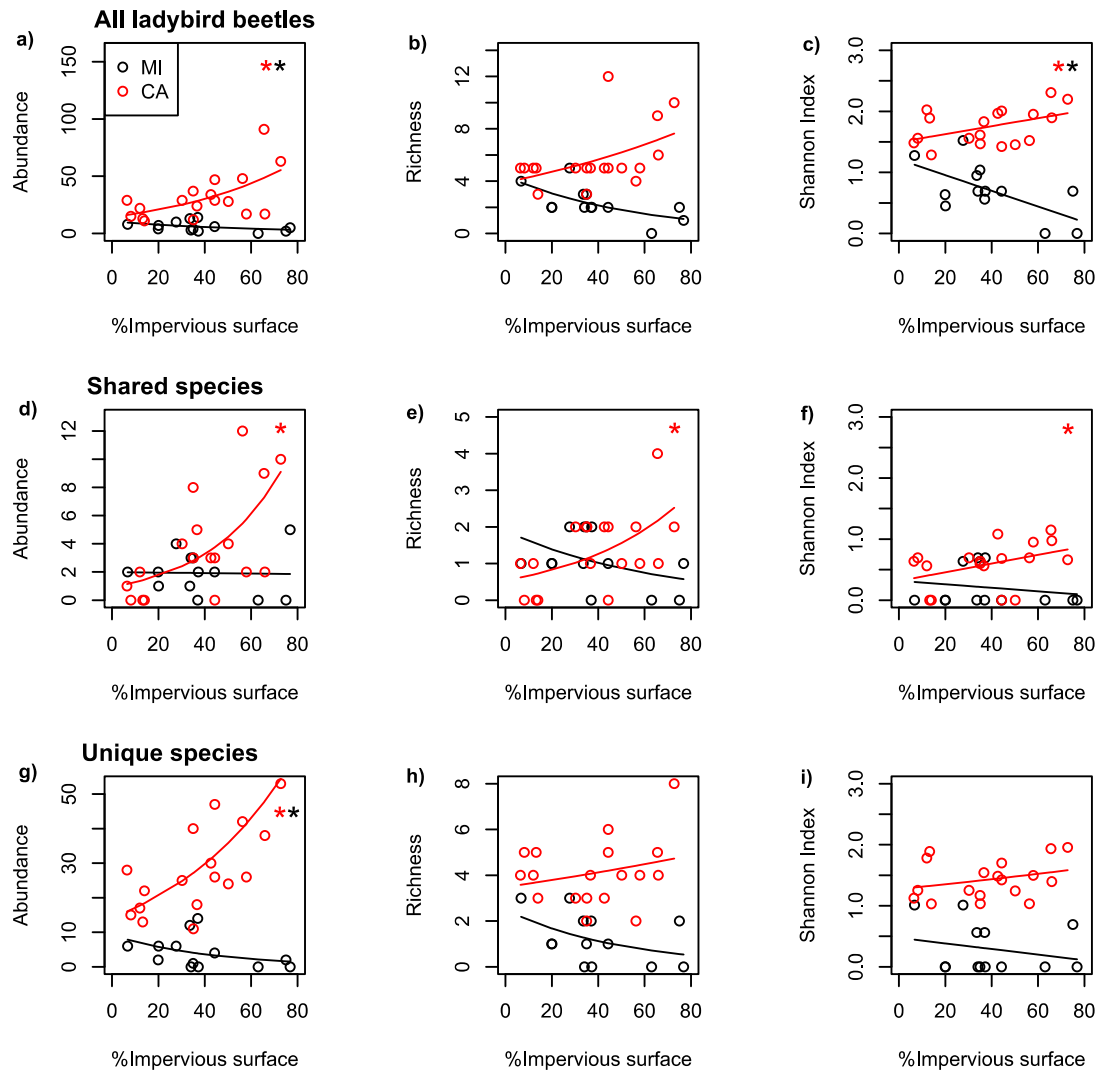
209 **Table 2. Results of regressions predicting ladybird beetle abundance (AB), richness (RI) and**
 210 **Shannon's Diversity Index (SH) as a function of percent impervious surface (IS) and**
 211 **urbanization rate (UR).** Scale indicates the spatial scale in meters used to calculate predictor
 212 variables IS and UR. Coefficients and P values are derived from Wald Z tests, which assess

213 goodness of fit of generalized linear models to data assuming Poisson error distributions (AB, RI) or
 214 Gaussian error distribution (SH).

Dataset	Region	Scale	Predicted	Predictor	Coefficient	P value
All	MI	500	AB	IS	-0.015	0.01
All	CA	100	AB	IS	0.019	<0.001
All	MI	500	RI	IS	-0.018	0.08
All	CA	100	RI	IS	0.009	0.06
All	MI	500	SH	IS	-0.013	0.02
All	CA	100	SH	IS	0.006	0.05
Shared	MI	500	AB	IS	-0.001	0.92
Shared	CA	100	AB	IS	0.031	<0.001
Shared	MI	500	RI	IS	-0.016	0.29
Shared	CA	100	RI	IS	0.021	0.05
Shared	MI	500	SH	IS	-0.003	0.54
Shared	CA	100	SH	IS	0.007	0.09
Unique	MI	500	AB	IS	-0.023	0.004
Unique	CA	100	AB	IS	0.018	<0.001
Unique	MI	500	RI	IS	-0.020	0.16
Unique	CA	100	RI	IS	0.004	0.46
Unique	MI	500	SH	IS	-0.005	0.44
Unique	CA	100	SH	IS	0.003	0.76
All	MI	500	AB	UR	-3.524	0.15
All	CA	500	AB	UR	2.231	<0.001
All	MI	500	RI	UR	0.932	0.77
All	CA	500	RI	UR	2.292	0.11
All	MI	500	SH	UR	1.372	0.55
All	CA	500	SH	UR	2.331	0.04
Shared	MI	500	AB	UR	3.710	0.22
Shared	CA	500	AB	UR	1.925	0.29
Shared	MI	500	RI	UR	4.665	0.23
Shared	CA	500	RI	UR	2.024	0.50
Shared	MI	500	SH	UR	2.698	0.09
Shared	CA	500	SH	UR	3.110	0.02
Unique	MI	500	AB	UR	-10.88	0.01
Unique	CA	500	AB	UR	3.376	<0.001
Unique	MI	500	RI	UR	-4.020	0.47
Unique	CA	500	RI	UR	1.705	0.33

Unique	MI	500	SH	UR	-1.506	0.48
Unique	CA	500	SH	UR	1.473	0.24

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Figure 2. Effect of impervious surface on abundance, richness and diversity of ladybird beetles.

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Regressions of abundance and richness of Michigan (black lines and points) and California ladybird

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beetles (red lines and points) as a function of % impervious surface at 500 m for MI and 100 m for

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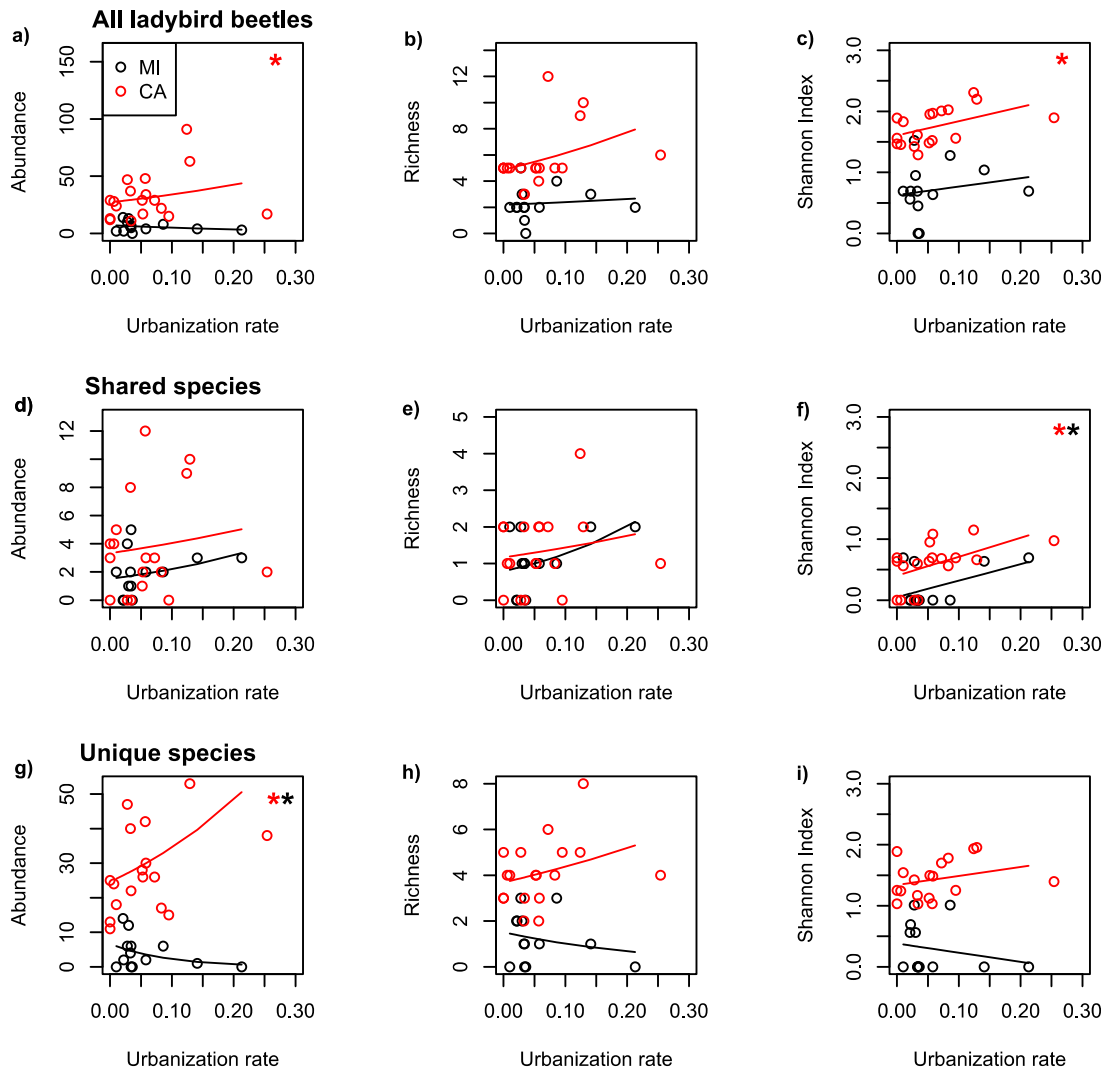
CA. All species combined (a-c, top row), species that are shared by both CA and MI (d-f, middle

221

row) and species unique to each region (g-i, bottom row). * indicate significant regressions ($P < 0.05$). In (b) Poisson regressions for MI and CA are partially significant ($P < 0.10$).

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Figure 3. Effect of urbanization rate on abundance, richness and diversity of ladybird beetles.

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Regressions of abundance and richness of Michigan (black lines and points) and California

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beetles (red lines and points) as a function of urbanization rate at 500 m. All species combined (a-c,

228

top row), species that are shared by both California and Michigan (d-f, middle row) and species

229

unique to each region (g-i, bottom row). * indicate significant regressions ($P < 0.05$)

230

Discussion

231

The influence of urbanization on biodiversity can change with environmental (regional)

232

context. This comparative study between two urban regions in the US – California and Michigan –

233

shows that organisms respond differently to urbanization depending on region. Ladybird beetles

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have a contrasting response to the intensity of urbanization as well as the rate at which

235

urbanization occurs in different regional contexts, and we found only a single unidirectional

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positive relationship between species diversity and urbanization rate between regions. Moreover,

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this trend is most evident for the abundance of all species and unique species. We hypothesize that

238

the effect of urbanization on unique species is driving this divergent pattern.

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Our first question was whether the relationship between urbanization and ladybird beetles in

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urban agroecosystems changes with environmental context. We found that urban gardens are

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supporting more abundant and diverse ladybird beetle populations in more urban areas in

242

California, while in Michigan, ladybird beetles in urban gardens decline in abundance, species

243

richness and diversity with increasing amounts of impervious cover and faster urbanization rates in

244

some instances. Urbanization is clearly driving the abundance, species richness and behavior of

245 ladybird beetles in California, as we have found in previous studies [29,50]. However, we show that
246 this is not the case in another environmental context (Michigan). Though not specifically sampled in
247 urban gardens, a majority of taxa decline in abundance and species richness with urbanization [2].
248 This is particularly apparent for vertebrates [18], but is also often the case for invertebrates [51–53].
249 In contrast, plant species generally increase with urbanization presumably because non-native
250 species introductions outweigh extinctions in this group and because plants have smaller
251 geographical ranges than mobile organisms [54]. Organisms with larger ranges may be more
252 sensitive to urbanization because urbanization can fragment migratory corridors [55,56]. Given that
253 we observed divergent geographical responses to urbanization most strongly for unique ladybird
254 species but one similar response to urbanization of shared species (in diversity), differences in
255 dispersal ranges could possibly explain our results. If California-specific beetles have larger
256 geographical ranges than Michigan beetles, our results would be consistent with the dispersal
257 hypothesis. However, we did not find strong evidence for this hypothesis in our results, because the
258 reported geographic distribution for these species – often related to species dispersal ability and
259 range size [57] – is relatively narrow for California beetles versus Michigan beetles (Table 1).

260 It is important to note however, that though general trends in taxonomic responses to
261 urbanization exist, all taxa that have been examined at multiple spatial scales or contexts exhibit
262 some degree of divergence in responses to urbanization (6.9 to 33.3% of studies in a given taxon
263 report different responses to urbanization depending on context) [2,28,30,58,59]. At larger spatial
264 scales, urbanization is correlated with dense human populations that also coincide historically with
265 nutrient-rich and biodiverse regions [60,61]. McKinney suggests that this can produce an apparent
266 positive effect of urbanization on species abundance and richness [2]. Moreover, the longer periods
267 of warm temperatures due to urbanization (i.e., urban heat island effects) may increase insect
268 population abundance because of increased reproductive capacity [62], a common physiological
269 response for arthropods [63]. At smaller spatial scales, local effects including management intensity
270 and the destruction of habitat and pollution may impose negative effects of urbanization on species
271 abundance and richness [64]. However, our results do not support this hypothesis given that
272 ladybird beetles responded negatively to urbanization at larger spatial scales in Michigan, and
273 positively at smaller spatial scales in California (Figure 2, Table 1).

274 The rate of urbanization, not only the amount of impervious surface, was important for
275 explaining beetle abundance and diversity but exhibited different patterns depending on the group.
276 Interestingly, while the abundance and diversity of unique species similarly diverged in regional
277 responses to urbanization rate as to amount of impervious surface, shared species all showed
278 positive unidirectional responses to urbanization rate. The predictor variables are not significantly
279 correlated, and thus could theoretically have divergent effects (Supplementary Table 2).
280 Urbanization rates were actually relatively similar in California and in Michigan (at 500 m), which
281 could explain why shared species had similar responses in each region while unique species had
282 opposite responses. The differences in ladybird biodiversity between regions is therefore likely best
283 explained by a species-level response: specifically, the response of unique species to California
284 versus Michigan. Indeed the strongest pattern from our study is the response of unique species to
285 both the percent impervious surface and to the rate of urbanization, with abundance of unique
286 beetles significantly increasing in California but decreasing in Michigan. This suggests that there are
287 environmental filters at regional as well as local scales for species' traits that allow them to thrive in
288 more urban areas and habitats [12,65] in California, and that in Michigan, those species are not
289 present. Only species with traits that allow them to persist in urban environments should similarly
290 increase with increasing rates of urbanization across regions. Indeed traits including habitat, diet
291 breadth and foraging efficiency have explained the global expansion of the ladybird species
292 *Harmonia axyridis* into urban areas [66,67]. The similar unidirectional response of shared species to
293 urbanization rate in our study supports this hypothesis.

294 Thus, our results may be explained by the legacy of land use change in each region and
295 species' life histories/traits. California gardens have more species and more unique species that are
296 not found in Michigan. Michigan gardens have fewer species, and 50% of those species were also

297 found in California gardens. Most of the shared species across regions are aphidophagous (eat
298 aphids), while in California the unique species to the region largely eat mites, scales and fungus
299 (Table 1). For example, the fungus feeder *Psyllobora vigintimaculata* is very abundant in California
300 and has a different life history than other species (Supplementary Figure 2). The presence of species
301 with these feeding preferences could be because of the industrial agricultural crops grown within
302 and near our urban garden sites in California, historically and currently. Some of the region was
303 once an orchard landscape, known as the “Valley of Heart’s Delight”, that has historically grown
304 diverse fruit and nut trees [68]. Generally, fruit trees and landscaped shrubs are often prone to
305 scale, mite and mealybug pest damage along with crops like strawberries and tomatoes [69]. As
306 discussed earlier, human populations preferentially settle in biodiverse areas (or “biodiversity
307 hotspots”) [61,70], and cities can coincide with threatened species distribution [71,72], possibly
308 explaining positive relationships between ladybirds and urbanity. The legacy of agriculture in turn
309 has permanent effects on ecosystems, and the influx of nutrients and irrigation can also create
310 biodiversity hotspots [60]. Natural enemies were historically introduced from e.g. New Zealand
311 and Australia for biological control of pests in the orchards. For example, the Dusky ladybird
312 beetle, *Nephus binaevatus*, was released into California from New Zealand in 1922 to help control
313 mealybugs in orchards [73]. This non-native species is observed only in the California garden sites,
314 particularly in very urban sites in Santa Clara county that were once orchards. Our sampled garden
315 sites in California contain diverse fruit trees such as citrus and stone fruit. Thus some of the unique
316 ladybird beetles like *N. binaevatus* and also *Coccinella septempunctata* are legacies of agricultural
317 industrialization and urbanization unique to California, and/or may be present in gardens due to
318 the availability of their prey/host.

319 The ladybird beetles in California -- particularly those that are unique -- may be more likely
320 able to withstand environmental disturbance because they have been historically used in human-
321 dominated systems for e.g. biological control. Non-native species to a region often have a greater
322 ability to survive in a variety of habitats -- including disturbed habitats -- than native species [74]. In
323 disturbed urban landscapes, more abundant species are habitat generalists and/or non-native to a
324 region [2,75]. These species have ecological traits that allow them to exploit resources and persist
325 [76], and environmental filters of urban habitats have been used to explain taxonomic differences
326 between urban habitats [12,77]. Most (though not all) of the ladybird species that we observed in
327 Michigan sites are native species from the greater Northeast and Midwest region (Table 1). This
328 could explain why abundance and richness of beetles declines with urbanization in Michigan: many
329 of the species are native and are less likely to survive and adapt to environmental disturbances like
330 urbanization as non-native and invasive species [78].

331 Abiotic factors associated with urbanization and different environmental contexts may better
332 explain the contrasts in ladybird diversity patterns in California and Michigan agroecosystems.
333 Ladybirds must avidly consume water (dew, rain) for their survival [79], and water availability
334 often drives their movement ecology and life cycle [80]. Thus climate patterns (temperature,
335 precipitation) can affect ladybird distribution [39,79], and significant climatic contrasts between
336 regions could explain divergent patterns in ladybird abundance and richness in gardens. In
337 comparison to Michigan, which has a temperate climate with four defined seasons, California has
338 on average warmer temperatures throughout the year and two seasons, one dry (summer; April to
339 September) and one wet (winter; October to March). In California, urban gardens in the summer
340 dry months (with <1 cm precipitation per month much in the form of fog) may provide an
341 important irrigated habitat in comparison to the surrounding urban matrix. Indeed supplemental
342 irrigation in cities maintains and supports biodiversity during drought events [9,81,82], as
343 California experienced during the time of this study. Michigan has an opposite precipitation pattern
344 with relatively wet summers, receiving on average 8 to 9 cm/month in the summer [83]. Thus,
345 limited water availability in the urban matrix may not affect arthropod distributions as strongly in
346 Michigan. On the other hand, urban gardens in California may act as critical sources of water, food,
347 and shelter and promote greater ladybird beetle foraging and fecundity rates [79], ultimately
348 increasing their populations. If this is the case, then urban gardens in California may function as

349 sources of populations rather than sinks, as has previously been suggested for biodiversity in urban
350 habitats [1,25,84,85]. To test this hypothesis, we suggest examining habitats outside of gardens in
351 these respective regions and their local conditions (in water availability, prey) to see whether
352 ladybird abundance and diversity conservation is greater within gardens versus outside of gardens
353 in natural habitats [86] and if it is explained by local conditions.

354 The slight differences in sampling methods and years sampled between regions are caveats in
355 our study. Specific sampling methods as well as annual variation within regions may influence
356 differences between regions. Moreover, although we only focused on landscape factors to
357 understand the ecology of urban agroecosystems across regions, local garden attributes including
358 vegetation characteristics could also be important for species distribution [87,88]. Indeed, these
359 caveats are generally the cruxes of comparative studies and synthesis research. Although such
360 studies are critical, comparing biodiversity assessments from multiple regions and research groups
361 are inherently challenging to conduct and to analyze due to inconsistencies among methodological
362 approaches in ecology, and research funding and timing. Given these limitations, this work shows
363 strong relationships between landscape factors and local biodiversity with available comparable
364 data across two regions. This is a first step towards a greater understanding of regional effects on
365 urban biodiversity.

366 Conclusion

367 Ladybird beetles provide important pest control services and understanding their responses to
368 urbanization can inform sustainable agricultural management in urban gardens. In this
369 comparative study using urban agroecosystems as a field system, we show that organisms like
370 ladybirds exhibit opposite responses to urbanization in different regional environmental contexts.
371 Thus we cannot expect universal responses of organism groups to urbanization. Based on previous
372 research, region-specific responses to urbanization appear ubiquitous. Spatial scale is currently
373 presumed to have a positive correlation with species abundance and diversity in increasingly urban
374 environments. Here, we show that at least for ladybird beetles that is not the case. We suggest that
375 region-specific responses are more likely due to the environmental factors (abiotic, biotic),
376 urbanization history of the region, and the natural histories of species specific to each region. The
377 natural history of species that are unique to urban agroecosystems could impart insight into how
378 urban areas may be designed to conserve species that are more sensitive to urban environments.
379 Future urban ecology research should seek to draw more comparisons across distinct regions rather
380 than generalizing responses of biodiversity to urbanization.

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