

Research



Cite this article: Viswanathan A, Ghazoul J, Honwad G, Kumar NA, Bagchi R. 2019 The effects of rainforest fragment area on the strength of plant–pathogen interactions. *Biol. Lett.* **15**: 20180493. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1098/rsbl.2018.0493>

Received: 8 July 2018

Accepted: 3 December 2019

Subject Areas:

ecology, environmental science, plant science

Keywords:

species interactions, plant–soil feedbacks, soil fungi

Author for correspondence:

Ashwin Viswanathan

e-mail: ashwinv2005@gmail.com

Electronic supplementary material is available online at <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.c.4332674>.

The effects of rainforest fragment area on the strength of plant–pathogen interactions

Ashwin Viswanathan¹, Jaboury Ghazoul¹, Ganesh Honwad², N. Arun Kumar³ and Robert Bagchi⁴

¹Chair of Ecosystem Management, Department of Environmental Systems Science, ETH Zurich, Zurich 8092, Switzerland

²Center for Innovation Research and Consultancy, Pune, Maharashtra, India

³Forest Research Institute, Dehradun, Uttarakhand 248006, India

⁴Department of Ecology and Evolutionary Biology, University of Connecticut, Storrs, CT 06269, USA

AV, 0000-0002-1605-0614; RB, 0000-0003-4035-4105

Pathogenic interactions between fungi and plants facilitate plant species coexistence and tropical rainforest diversity. Such interactions, however, may be affected by forest fragmentation as fungi are susceptible to anthropogenic disturbance. To examine how fragmentation affects fungus-induced seed and seedling mortality, we sowed seeds of six plant species in soils collected from 21 forest fragments. We compared seedling establishment in unmanipulated soils to soils treated with fungicides. Fungicides increased germination of *Toona ciliata* seeds and decreased mortality of *Syzygium rubicundum* and *Olea dioica* seedlings. The fungus-induced mortality of one of these species, *S. rubicundum*, decreased with decreasing fragment size, indicating that its interactions with pathogenic fungi may weaken as fragments become smaller. We provide evidence that a potential diversity-maintaining plant–fungus interaction weakens in small forest fragments and suggest that such disruptions may have important long-term consequences for plant diversity. However, we emphasize the need for further research across rainforest plant communities to better understand the future of diversity in fragmented rainforest landscapes.

1. Introduction

Plant–pathogen interactions play crucial roles in tropical forests [1]. In particular, recent studies [2,3] suggest that fungal pathogens may be especially important for the maintenance of plant diversity in rainforests by mediating negative density-dependence [4–6] and plant–soil feedbacks [7]. We know little, however, about how anthropogenic perturbations, like forest fragmentation, affect interactions between plants and their fungal pathogens [8,9], and consequently plant diversity. Such understanding is particularly relevant given the large proportion of tropical rainforests threatened by fragmentation [10,11]. Fragmented forests contain fewer species than similar areas of contiguous forest [10,11], but provide important reservoirs of biological diversity in the absence of contiguous forest [12]. The long-term future of this biodiversity may depend on the resilience of processes that maintain plant diversity, like those mediated by pathogenic fungi, to environmental changes like forest fragmentation. Fragmentation can lead to lighter, warmer and drier microclimates [10,11,13], which may reduce soil fungal biomass [14], weaken plant–soil feedbacks [7] and inhibit fungal pathogen transmission and infection [7,9,15,16]. Fragmentation may also alter fungal species composition and lower fungal diversity, although the effects on fungal

Table 1. Results of mixed effects Cox proportional hazards models examining the effects of fungicide and fragment size on germination. Significant effects ($p < 0.05$) in italics.

	<i>Syzygium rubicundum</i>		<i>Olea dioica</i>		<i>Symplocos racemosa</i>	
family	Myrtaceae		Oleaceae		Symplocaceae	
<i>N</i>	events total: 357 570		events total: 333 550		events total: 390 555	
random effects:	<i>N</i>	var	<i>N</i>	var	<i>N</i>	var
site	21	0.02058	21	0.10294	21	0.01920
fixed effects:	est.	s.e.	est.	s.e.	est.	s.e.
fungicide	0.002	0.32	−0.274	0.50	−0.128	0.31
fragsize	0.122	0.16	0.163	0.33	0.011	0.23
fragsize: fungicide	−0.019	0.13	−0.002	0.13	−0.060	0.14
	<i>Syzygium cumini</i>		<i>Syzygium gardneri</i>		<i>Toona ciliata</i>	
family	Myrtaceae		Myrtaceae		Meliaceae	
<i>N</i>	events total: 353 504		events total: 313 440		events total: 175 436	
random effects:	<i>N</i>	var	<i>N</i>	var	<i>N</i>	var
site	21	0.00008	21	0.00002	21	0.00008
fixed effects:	est.	s.e.	est.	s.e.	est.	s.e.
fungicide	−0.633	0.43	−0.398	0.48	<i>0.537</i>	<i>0.19</i>
fragsize	−0.180	0.25	−0.382	0.29	0.117	0.17
fragsize: fungicide	0.257	0.17	0.173	0.16	−0.252	0.21

pathogens vary widely [17]. Consequently, ecological processes dependent on fungi, like plant–soil feedbacks, may be disrupted in fragmented landscapes.

To understand how fragmentation modifies plant–pathogen interactions, we investigated whether fragment size influences the effects of soil-borne fungal pathogens on seedlings of six rainforest tree species. We focused on soil-borne fungi because their ability to influence plant populations through plant–soil feedbacks has been previously highlighted [3]. As drier microclimates typical of smaller fragments [13] are less conducive for soil-borne fungi [14], we hypothesized that fungus-mediated seedling mortality would decrease as fragments become smaller. We tested our hypothesis in a shadehouse experiment by comparing plant performance in rainforest soils collected from a gradient of fragment sizes under two treatments (fungicide-treated and control).

2. Material and methods

This study was conducted in Kadamane Tea Estate (12.8639°–12.5620° N and 75.6361°–75.6833° E) in the Western Ghats, Karnataka, India. This 30 km² private estate is a mosaic of fragmented rainforest, high elevation grassland and cultivated tea.

We collected soil samples (approx. 0.06 m³ each, approx. 0–30 cm deep including leaf litter) from 21 fragments 1–149 ha in area, with small and large fragments interspersed through the site (electronic supplementary material, figure S1, mean fragment area 27.8 ha, elevation 918–1071 m). Samples were collected from 30 random locations within a comparable area (more than 40 m from any edge) within each fragment and pooled and homogenized to obtain a single representative source of soil-borne fungi for each forest fragment. Soil from each fragment was placed in twelve 20 × 10 × 10 cm trays after equal and random distribution between ‘control’ and ‘fungicide’ treatments. All trays were kept in

a 75% shaded greenhouse constructed of mesh that allowed continuous homogeneous percolation of rainwater but excluded large insects. Soils from small and large fragments were well interspersed in the shadehouse. No insect herbivory was observed inside the greenhouse.

We collected seeds of six tree species (electronic supplementary material, table S1), discarding those that showed evidence of pre-dispersal predation by insects or that floated in the water. We sowed 4–5 seeds (depending on availability) of each species in each of 126 trays (3 replicates of 4–5 seeds/treatment/fragment). We monitored germination and seedling mortality at five censuses 15–30 days apart between 23 May and 9 October 2017, or until most seedlings of a species grew four open leaves and lost their cotyledons (electronic supplementary material, table S1).

We combined a systemic fungicide *Azoxystrobin* (Product name: Amistar[®], Syngenta, Basel, Switzerland; 0.4 ml l^{−1} water), a contact fungicide *Mancozeb* and an oomycicide *Metalxyl* (Product name: Ridomil Gold[®] Syngenta; 6 g l^{−1} water) to exclude fungi and oomycetes. We sprayed approximately 8 ml of diluted Amistar[®] and 8 ml of diluted Ridomil Gold[®] on the trays in the fungicide treatment every eight days (dry season), and every 4 days (wet season), to account for immediate runoff in heavy rain). To control for effects of supplemental water, we sprayed trays in the control treatment with a volume of water equal to that used to dissolve the fungicides.

Using mixed-effects Cox proportional hazards models, we modelled time to germination or mortality as functions of fungicide treatment, fragment size and their interaction and included seedling tray as a random effect. We analysed the germination of all six species individually but analysed the seedling mortality of only three species, with sufficient dead seedlings, individually. In a separate model, we combined data from the remaining three species. We ‘censored’ seeds that did not germinate in the germination analysis and seedlings that survived in the mortality analysis. Models were fitted using the *coxme* package [18] from R 3.4.0 [19]. Statistical assumptions were confirmed using model

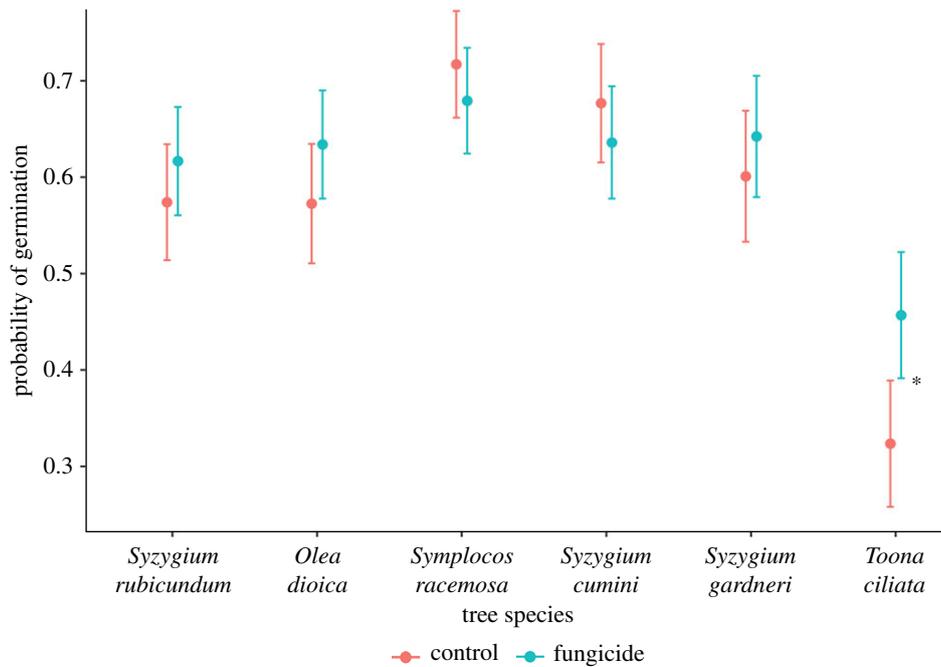


Figure 1. Effects of fungicide on the seed germination probabilities of six rainforest tree species. Observed values are plotted with 95% confidence intervals. The asterisk represents a significant effect ($p < 0.05$).

Table 2. Results of mixed effects Cox proportional hazards models examining the effects of fungicide and fragment size on seedling mortality. Significant effects ($p < 0.05$) in *italics*.

	<i>Syzygium rubicundum</i>		<i>Olea dioica</i>		<i>Symplocos racemosa</i>		other three species	
<i>N</i>	events total: 40 322		events total: 64 313		events total: 53 357		events total: 35 744	
random effects:	<i>N</i>	<i>var</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>var</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>var</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>var</i>
site	21	0.0004	21	0.0771	21	0.2553	21	0.7418
fixed effects:	<i>est.</i>	<i>s.e.</i>	<i>est.</i>	<i>s.e.</i>	<i>est.</i>	<i>s.e.</i>	<i>est.</i>	<i>s.e.</i>
fungicide	-0.30	0.43	-0.69	0.32	0.21	0.36	0.15	0.41
fragsize	0.46	0.16	-0.05	0.19	0.41	0.28	0.21	0.44
fragsize: fungicide	-1.18	0.57	-0.28	0.36	-0.25	0.34	-0.40	0.49

diagnostics and consistency with alternative models (electronic supplementary material, table S2 and figure S2).

3. Results

Of the 3483 seeds of six species, 2171 germinated, of which 258 subsequently died. Fungicide treatment increased germination for *Toona ciliata* (table 1 and figure 1) and decreased seedling mortality for *Syzygium rubicundum* and *Olea dioica*. (table 2 and figure 2). Germination and survival of the other three species were unaffected by fungicide.

Germination was statistically independent of fragment size for all species (table 1). Seedling mortality of *S. rubicundum* increased with increasing fragment size in the control treatment, but fungicide treatment removed that relationship (table 2 and figure 2). Mortalities of the remaining species were unaffected by fragment size in both control and fungicide treatments.

4. Discussion

Suppressing soil-borne fungi influenced the survival of three plant species, but fragment size only influenced the effects

of fungi on *Syzygium rubicundum*. Seedling mortality of *S. rubicundum* increased strongly with fragment size in the control treatment, but this effect was removed completely when fungi were suppressed. Our results for this one species, therefore, support the hypothesis that mortality owing to fungi may be affected by perturbations from forest fragmentation.

Given that the performance of species other than *S. rubicundum* was independent of fragment size, the wider implications of our results for how soil-borne fungal pathogens shape tree-communities in forest fragments remain unclear. Although fungi negatively influenced *T. ciliata* and *O. dioica* (consistent with [20]) in addition to *S. rubicundum*, interactions between fungicide and fragment size were limited to *S. rubicundum*. Positing a general mechanism for attenuation of phytopathogen infections in small forest fragments would, therefore, be speculative. Soils collected from under adult conspecifics may have inhibited the survival of more species or led to stronger relationships with fragment size. The most probable explanation for the variation among plant species is that responses of pathogenic fungi to fragmentation are very variable [17]. Such variability might mean that the community-wide implications of altered plant–pathogen interactions require

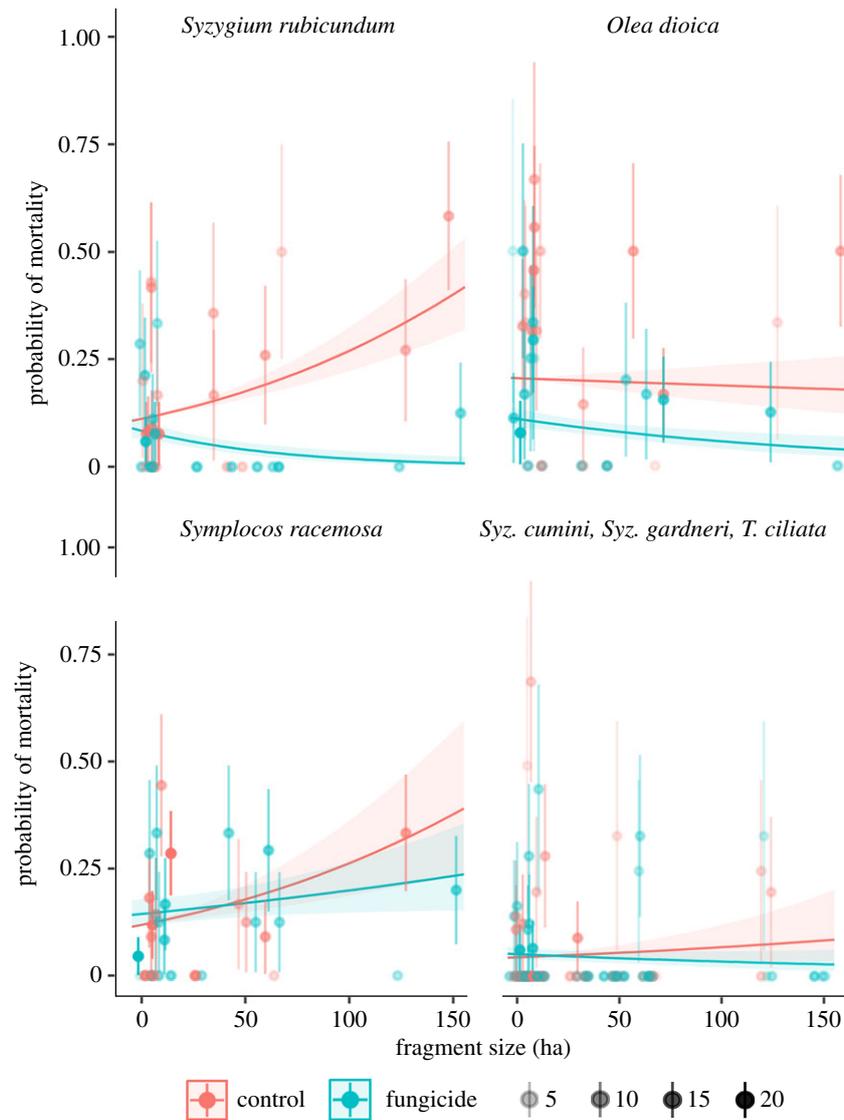


Figure 2. Effects of fungicide and fragment size on the seedling mortality probabilities of six rainforest tree species. Observed values are plotted with standard errors. Lines and standard errors are predicted from the models in table 2. Degree of shading represents the number of seedlings in a sample.

integration over large numbers of species, perhaps combined using simulation-based approaches.

An alternative explanation for the observed relationship between fragment size and survival in *S. rubicundum* is a positive correlation between *S. rubicundum* density and fragment size. We found that fragment size was uncorrelated with *S. rubicundum* density as seeds, seedlings and fruiting adults (see electronic supplementary material), and consequently infer that this explanation is unlikely. It is important to note that *S. rubicundum* was the most abundant species in the seedling assemblage at the site. That the mortality of this dominant tree species was reduced in soils from smaller fragments presents a critical question—to what extent can the responses of abundant species to fragmentation have cascading effects on the rest of the plant community? If *S. rubicundum* and other abundant species are released from fungal control, their dominance of the community may increase within small fragments, potentially decreasing plant biodiversity over time.

Our results join a growing body of literature indicating that fungal–plant interactions are sensitive to various forms of anthropogenic disturbance including fragmentation [9,17], edge effects [8,20] and simulated drought [16,21]. These results

may represent early warnings that fungal–plant interactions are disrupted in human-modified tropical forests. Given the importance of such interactions especially for the maintenance of plant diversity [2,3,22], such disruption could have profound implications for the future of remnant tropical forest communities. The consequences of these altered interactions at the wider community and ecosystem scales, however, have been largely unexplored, but present an important direction for future research.

Data accessibility. Data available from the Dryad Digital Repository: <https://dx.doi.org/10.5061/dryad.6nc5572> [23].

Authors' contributions. A.V., R.B. and J.G. conceived the study, which was designed by A.V., G.H. and N.A.K.; A.V., G.H. and N.A.K. collected data. A.V. performed statistical analyses with input from R.B. A.V. drafted the manuscript with input from J.G. and R.B. All authors contributed to manuscript editing, gave final approval for publication and agree to be held accountable for the work performed therein.

Competing interests. We declare we have no competing interests.

Funding. ETH Grant 42 13-1.

Acknowledgements. We thank Kadamane Estate Company and K.M. Cariappa, Senior Manager. We are grateful to Praveen, Vijay, Ansil, Vikrant, Suresh and Netra for their help.

- Gilbert GS. 2005 Dimensions of plant disease in tropical forests. In *Biotic interactions in the tropics: their role in the maintenance of species diversity* (eds D Burslem, M Pinard, S Hartley), pp. 141–164. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Bagchi R, Gallery RE, Gripenberg S, Gurr SJ, Narayan L, Addis CE, Freckleton RP, Lewis OT. 2014 Pathogens and insect herbivores drive rainforest plant diversity and composition. *Nature* **506**, 85–88. (doi:10.1038/nature12911)
- Mangan SA, Schnitzer SA, Herre EA, Mack KML, Valencia MC, Sanchez EI, Bever JD. 2010 Negative plant–soil feedback predicts tree-species relative abundance in a tropical forest. *Nature* **466**, 752–755. (doi:10.1038/nature09273)
- Gillett J. 1962 Pest pressure, an underestimated factor in evolution. *Syst. Assoc. Publication* **4**, 37–46.
- Connell JH. 1971 On the role of natural enemies in preventing competitive exclusion in some marine animals and in rain forest trees. In *Dynamics of populations* (eds PJ den Boer, G Gradwell), pp. 298–312. Wageningen, The Netherlands: PUDOC.
- Janzen DH. 1970 Herbivores and the number of tree species in tropical forests. *Am. Nat.* **104**, 501–528. (doi:10.1086/282687)
- Bever JD, Mangan SA, Alexander HM. 2015 Maintenance of plant species diversity by pathogens. *Annu. Rev. Ecol. Evol. Syst.* **46**, 305–325. (doi:10.1146/annurev-ecolsys-112414-054306)
- Benítez-Malvido J, Lemus-Albor A. 2005 The seedling community of tropical rain forest edges and its interaction with herbivores and pathogens. *Biotropica* **37**, 301–313. (doi:10.1111/j.1744-7429.2005.00031.x)
- Benítez-Malvido J, García-Guzmán G, Kossmann-Ferraz ID. 1999 Leaf-fungal incidence and herbivory on tree seedlings in tropical rainforest fragments: an experimental study. *Biol. Conserv.* **91**, 143–150. (doi:10.1016/S0006-3207(99)00090-7)
- Haddad NM *et al.* 2015 Habitat fragmentation and its lasting impact on Earth's ecosystems. *Science Adv.* **1**, e1500052. (doi:10.1126/sciadv.1500052)
- Laurance WF *et al.* 2011 The fate of Amazonian forest fragments: a 32-year investigation. *Biol. Conserv.* **144**, 56–67. (doi:10.1016/j.biocon.2010.09.021)
- Dent DH, Wright SJ. 2009 The future of tropical species in secondary forests: a quantitative review. *Biol. Conserv.* **142**, 2833–2843. (doi:10.1016/j.biocon.2009.05.035)
- Ewers RM, Banks-Leite C. 2013 Fragmentation impairs the microclimate buffering effect of tropical forests. *PLoS ONE* **8**, e58093. (doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0058093)
- Blankinship JC, Niklaus PA, Hungate BA. 2011 A meta-analysis of responses of soil biota to global change. *Oecologia* **165**, 553–565. (doi:10.1007/s00442-011-1909-0)
- Smith-Ramesh LM, Reynolds HL. 2017 The next frontier of plant–soil feedback research: unraveling context dependence across biotic and abiotic gradients. *J. Vegetation Sci.* **28**, 484–494. (doi:10.1111/jvs.12519)
- Swinfield T, Lewis OT, Bagchi R, Freckleton RP. 2012 Consequences of changing rainfall for fungal pathogen-induced mortality in tropical tree seedlings. *Ecol. Evol.* **2**, 1408–1413. (doi:10.1002/ece3.252)
- Grilli G, Longo S, Huais PY, Pereyra M, Verga EG, Urcelay C, Galetto L. 2017 Fungal diversity at fragmented landscapes: synthesis and future perspectives. *Curr. Opin Microbiol.* **37**, 161–165. (doi:10.1016/j.mib.2017.09.003)
- Therneau TM. 2015 Package 'coxme' Mixed Effects Cox Models. R package version 2.2-5.
- R Core Team. 2017 *R: A language and environment for statistical computing*. Vienna, Austria: R Foundation for Statistical Computing. See <http://www.R-project.org/>.
- Krishnadas M, Comita LS. 2018 Influence of soil pathogens on early regeneration success of tropical trees varies between forest edge and interior. *Oecologia* **186**, 259–268. (doi:10.1007/s00442-017-4006-1)
- Thompson S, Alvarez-Loayza P, Terborgh J, Katul G. 2010 The effects of plant pathogens on tree recruitment in the Western Amazon under a projected future climate: a dynamical systems analysis. *J. Ecol.* **98**, 1434–1446. (doi:10.1111/j.1365-2745.2010.01726.x)
- Wright JS. 2002 Plant diversity in tropical forests: a review of mechanisms of species coexistence. *Oecologia* **130**, 1–14. (doi:10.1007/s004420100809)
- Viswanathan A, Ghazoul J, Honwad G, Kumar NA, Bagchi R. 2018 Data from: The effects of rainforest fragment area on the strength of plant–pathogen interactions. Dryad Digital Repository. (doi:10.5061/dryad.6nc5572)