

1	Title: Reduced dispersal of native plant species as a consequence of the reduced
2	abundance of frugivore species in fragmented rainforest
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### 18 Abstract

19 Frugivorous animals disperse the seeds of the majority of rainforest plant species and 20 hence play a key role in the trajectory of rainforest regeneration. This study 21 investigated whether changes in the species composition of the frugivore community 22 in fragmented rainforest in subtropical Australia is likely to impact the dispersal of 23 native plant species. The potential of frugivorous bird and bat species to disperse the 24 seeds of plant species in fragmented rainforest was assessed using published dietary 25 information together with field surveys of their abundance within intact forest, forest 26 fragments and patches of regrowth. Frugivore species with reduced abundance in 27 fragmented rainforest were the only known dispersers of 27 of the 221 native plant 28 species in the data set (12% of species). These frugivore species were also major 29 dispersers of plant species producing fruits wider than 10 mm and species from the 30 families Rubiaceae, Lauraceae, Myrtaceae, Meliaceae, Lamiaceae and Vitaceae. 31 Except for Rubiaceae, these plant taxa are also potentially dispersed by two of the 32 frugivore species that were widespread in fragmented rainforest, Lopholaimus 33 antarcticus and Ptilonorhynchus violaceus, although dispersal rates are likely to be lower in fragmented than in extensive rainforest. Consistent with other regions, large-34 35 seeded plants are susceptible to reduced dispersal in fragmented rainforest in 36 subtropical Australia. However, we predict a smaller deficit in seed dispersal in 37 fragmented forests than has been reported from other regions, due to factors such as 38 functional overlap among frugivore species, the ability of many Australian rainforest 39 vertebrates to persist in fragmented rainforest, and a lack of hunting in these forests. 40 Nevertheless, rainforest fragmentation has reduced the abundance of a suite of 41 frugivorous rainforest fauna, which in turn is likely to reduce the dispersal of a certain

- 42 plant taxa and may alter patterns of plant regeneration in subtropical Australian
- 43 rainforest fragments.
- 44
- 45 **Keywords:** forest regeneration, restoration, seed dispersal, frugivory, ecosystem
- 46 function, secondary effect

47 Introduction

48 Throughout the world, rainforest clearing and fragmentation have resulted in 49 decreased populations of many frugivore species (Corlett, 1998; Renjifo, 1999; 50 Castelletta et al., 2000; da Silva and Tabarelli 2000; Cordeiro and Howe, 2001, 2003). 51 This may lead to reduced or failed dispersal of many plant species, because over 70%52 of tree, shrub and vine species in tropical and subtropical rainforests produce seeds 53 enclosed in fleshy fruit that are dispersed by frugivorous vertebrates (Howe and 54 Smallwood, 1982; Willson et al., 1989). In particular, it has been predicted that large-55 seeded plant species are unlikely to be dispersed in many fragmented tropical 56 rainforest regions as a result of widespread declines in the suite of frugivore species 57 that are capable of dispersing large seeds (Corlett, 1998, 2002; da Silva and Tabarelli, 58 2000; Kitamura et al., 2002; McConkey and Drake, 2002). In turn, reduced seed 59 dispersal may lead to lower rates of plant recruitment (Bleher and Böhning-Gaese, 60 2001; Cordeiro and Howe, 2003), increased vulnerability of plant populations to 61 localised extinction (Fahrig and Merriam, 1994), and limited potential for plant 62 colonisation of regrowth and restoration sites on previously- cleared land (Duncan 63 and Chapman, 2002; Kanowski et al., 2008).

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However, there may be cases where the dispersal of plant species are resilient to
changes in the composition of the frugivore assemblage in fragmented rainforest.
First, most fleshy-fruited plant species appear to be dispersed by multiple frugivore
species (Wheelwright and Orians, 1982; Brown and Hopkins, 2002; Silva et al.,
2002). Second, some frugivore species usually persist in fragmented landscapes or
colonise these landscapes from other habitat types (Corlett, 1998; Renjifo, 1999;

Moran et al., 2004a). Hence, the decline of any particular frugivore species could
potentially be offset by other, functionally similar frugivore species.

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74 Frugivorous birds and bats are the main seed dispersers in Australian subtropical 75 rainforests (Green, 1995), where 42 bird species and five bat species are at least partly frugivorous (Moran et al., 2004a; Moran, 2007). Moran et al. (2004a) identified a 76 77 suite of frugivorous bird species, predominantly *Ptilinopus* spp., that was much less 78 abundant in fragmented than extensive rainforest in this region. Moran (2007) showed 79 that among frugivorous bats, one species (Nyctimene robinsonii) was less frequent in 80 rainforest regrowth than in remnant or extensive rainforest, whereas *Pteropus* spp. 81 were found in extensive, remnant and regrowth rainforest in the region. 82 83 This study aims to evaluate whether the low abundance of some frugivorous bird and 84 bat species in fragmented rainforest is likely to lead to the reduced dispersal of certain 85 plant taxa or whether these plants could potentially be dispersed by the frugivore 86 species that persist in fragmented rainforest. This work uses quantitative information 87 on the diets of frugivorous bird and bat species, together with data on their abundance 88 in fragmented rainforest, to assess the potential for reduced seed dispersal in 89 fragmented rainforest in subtropical Australia. A frugivore species' potential to 90 disperse seeds is assessed in terms of plant species, genus and family and fruit size. 91 Comparisons are made among individual frugivore species and among groups of 92 frugivores that showed different responses to fragmentation. We assert that the initial 93 difference between frugivore species in terms of their roles in seed dispersal is

whether or not they consume and potentially disperse viable seeds from a plant

95	species. This study is focused on whether a frugivore consumes and passes intact
96	seed, and does not consider subsequent variation in frugivore behaviour, which
97	determines the timing of dispersal, volume of seeds dispersed and spatial patterns of
98	seed deposition (Schupp, 1993). Following seed dispersal, factors that influence seed
99	germination, seedling survival and growth become important in terms of patterns of
100	plant recruitment away from parent plants (Wang and Smith, 2002; Clark et al.,
101	2007), but are not relevant if seed dispersal has failed.
102	
103	The community-level approach used in this study is novel; previous studies of
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111 The study region and site network

112 The study was conducted in a 4 000 km<sup>2</sup> subtropical rainforest landscape in the region

113 known as the Sunshine Coast, approximately 100 km north of the city of Brisbane in

114 southeast Queensland, Australia (approximately 26° - 27° S 152° - 153° E).

115 Continuous subtropical rainforest previously occurred on fertile soil on basalt lava

- 116 flows in the area (e.g., the Maleny plateau), and in areas of less fertile soils that
- 117 receive high rainfall, are locally nutrient-enriched and moist (e.g., along
- 118 watercourses), or are associated with topographic features that provide protection

119	from fire (e.g., gullies) (Webb and Tracey, 1981). Extensive areas of subtropical
120	rainforest have been cleared in Australia, especially from basalt plateaux, in the
121	lowlands and along watercourses, with large forest tracts now mostly restricted to
122	steeper slopes (Webb and Tracey, 1981). Contemporary rainforest landscapes in
123	Australia resemble those in many other regions of the world in comprising a mosaic
124	of remnant forest patches, grazed land, agricultural cropland, tree crops, regrowth and
125	urban development, interspersed with small areas of rainforest restoration.

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127 Study sites were chosen to represent three states of rainforest context and condition in 128 which rainforest remained or had re-established in the Sunshine Coast region. Sixteen 129 replicate sites within each of three different states of rainforest landscape context 130 (fragmented or continuous) and condition (remnant or regrowth) were selected: (i) 131 rainforest within extensive tracts of forest; (ii) remnant rainforest isolated from 132 extensive forest by surrounding cleared and modified land; and (iii) regrowth, also 133 isolated from other rainforest (n = 48). Remnant forest sites were chosen to have 134 similar floristic and structural attributes to extensive forest, although remnant sites 135 tended to have more native pioneer and exotic plant species and a simpler forest 136 structure than extensive forest, especially near edges. The sizes of remnant sites 137 ranged from 2 ha - 100 ha (mean 46.1 (s.e. 9.4) ha). Regrowth sites had been 138 regenerating for at least 10 - 20 years, mostly on former grazing land. Regrowth sites 139 had developed a tree layer, approximately 10–15 m in height, but lacked the 140 abundance and diversity of large diameter trunks that were present in remnant and 141 extensive forest sites. Regrowth sites were 2 - 10 ha in size (mean 3.4 (s.e. 0.5) ha). 142 Sites of the same type were separated by at least 2 km, and most were more than 5 km

apart. Sites of different types were also usually well separated. Most remnant and
regrowth sites were 5-10 km from extensive forest, although some sites were located
further away. Many of the study sites (34 of 48) were located near a watercourse. The
abundance of 42 frugivorous bird species and distribution of three frugivorous bat
species were surveyed in this network of 48 sites.

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149 Frugivorous bird and bat species' abundances and fragmentation response patterns 150 The patterns of abundance of 42 frugivorous bird species were determined from 40 151 minute searches of a 1 ha plot at each site, conducted twice in summer and twice in 152 winter, during 2001 by CM (described in detail in Moran et al., 2004a). Of the 26 bird 153 species that were recorded frequently enough to assign a fragmentation response 154 pattern (i.e., detected in at least five of the 48 sites during either summer or winter 155 surveys), nine are known to destroy seeds (i.e., 'seed crushers'; see Moran et al., 156 2004b) and are not considered further in this paper as they probably disperse few 157 viable seeds compared with non-seed crushing frugivore species. One additional 158 species (Myzomela sanguinolenta) was also excluded from analyses presented here 159 due to the low number of observations of fruit consumption that had been recorded at 160 the level of plant species. Therefore, 16 frugivorous bird species are considered in this 161 study.

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The occurrence of three species of foraging frugivorous bats (*Pteropus poliocephalus*, *P. alecto* and *Nyctimene robinsonii*) was assessed using a single, hour-long nocturnal
search along a 400-500 m trajectory at each site during summer (January-February)
2003 (described in Moran, 2007). Surveys were timed to occur during the period of

maximum fruit abundance in rainforest in subtropical Australia (Innis, 1989; Church,
168 1997). Presence-absence data were used as the quantitative measure of site use for
frugivorous bat species. Because it was often not possible to distinguish between the
two *Pteropus* species, data for were combined in analyses (*Pteropus* spp.). Two
additional frugivorous bat species (*P. scapulatus* and *Syconycteris australis*) were
recorded only once during surveys and are not considered further.

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174 Earlier work has detailed the results of surveys of the abundance and distribution of 175 frugivorous bird and bat species in the site network (Moran et al., 2004a, b; Moran, 176 2007). In summary, based on statistical comparisons of their abundance using 177 Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), frugivore species were classified as showing one of 178 three patterns of abundance in remnants and regrowth, relative to extensive forest: (i) 179 lower numbers in remnant and/or regrowth rainforest patches compared with 180 extensive forest ('decreaser' pattern, four bird species and one bat species); (ii) higher 181 numbers in remnant and/or regrowth rainforest patches compared with extensive 182 forest ('increaser' pattern, five bird species); or (iii), no clear difference in numbers 183 between the three site types ('tolerant' pattern, seven bird species and *Pteropus* spp.) 184 (Moran et al., 2004a; Moran, 2007). Because of their absence or low abundance in 185 fragmented rainforest, frugivore species that showed the decreaser response have a 186 relatively low potential to disperse seeds in these areas. Species showing the tolerant 187 or increaser response patterns potentially disperse seeds in fragmented rainforest. 188 Frugivore species were grouped by their abundance pattern ('fragmentation response 189 groups') for some statistical analyses.

190

## 191 Patterns of fruit consumption by frugivore species

192 Information about the fleshy-fruited plant species consumed was collected for the 16 193 frugivorous bird species, N. robinsonii, P. poliocephalus and P. alecto. Data for the 194 two Pteropus spp. were combined in analyses to be consistent with the treatment of 195 abundance data and because there is substantial overlap in the diets of these species 196 (Eby, 2006). Pteropus spp. are henceforth treated as a single species in analyses and 197 discussion. Dietary data were obtained from 107 published sources (contained in 198 Appendices of Moran, 2007) and several unpublished data sets (see 199 Acknowledgements). Most of the feeding records were based on direct field 200 observation although a small number were obtained from gut contents, scats, or 201 regurgitated seeds. For a given frugivore species, the data potentially included 202 foraging records from multiple years, seasons and geographic locations. There was 203 large variation among frugivore species in the amount of foraging information 204 available. Because of the wide geographical range of many of the frugivore species 205 that occur in subtropical Australia, feeding records may have been collected from an 206 area extending from temperate southern Australia to tropical Papua New Guinea. 207 Plant species that are introduced to Australia from other countries, or that are native to 208 other regions of Australia but do not naturally occur in subtropical Australia, were 209 considered to be exotic plant species (native and exotic plant taxa are shown in the 210 Appendices of Moran (2007)). Three data sets were compiled from this information: 211 i) a binary matrix showing whether or not each fleshy-fruited plant species had been 212 recorded in the diet of each of the frugivore species; ii) the number of native plant 213 species from each genus that had been recorded in the diet of each frugivore species; 214 and iii) the number of native plant species from each family that had been recorded in

the diet of each frugivore. This information was considered to reflect the potential ofeach frugivore species to disperse the seeds of each plant taxon.

217

218 Dietary data were also used to examine frugivore species' patterns of fruit size 219 consumption. The measure of fruit size used in this work was the width of the 220 minimum dispersal unit ('the diaspore', van der Pijl, 1982). For most plant species, 221 this was the shorter axis (usually diameter) of the whole fruit. However, because 222 piecemeal consumption of soft fruits with small seeds (e.g., many species in the 223 Moraceae or Solanaceae) and dehiscent arillate fruits (e.g., many species in the family 224 Sapindaceae), may result in the dispersal of viable seed (Corlett, 1998; Kitamura et 225 al., 2002), the size of the diaspore for these plant species was taken as the width of the 226 seed or the width of the seed plus the fleshy aril, respectively. Diaspore size data were 227 collected from literature (Williams et al., 1984; Floyd, 1989; Cooper and Cooper, 228 1994; Hauser and Blok, 1998; Butler, 2003), supplemented with data from field 229 collections (S. McKenna, C. Moran) and biological web sites. In most cases, a range 230 of diaspore size values was reported and the median of these was used in analyses. 231 232 Diaspore size information was also used to exclude likely instances of fruit theft by 233 birds (i.e., consumption of the fruit flesh without dispersal of the seed (Howe and 234 Estabrook, 1977)) from reported feeding records. Because the size of fruit that a bird

can swallow is constrained by its gape width (Herrera, 1981; Wheelwright, 1985),

- records were excluded from the data set if the median diaspore size was more than
- twice the gape width of the bird species (Moran et al., 2004b). A small percentage

(approximately 5%) of records were excluded on this basis. This approach accounts
for the potential for substantial intraspecific variation in fruit size (Edwards, 2005).

241 Data analyses

242 Comparison of dietary composition among frugivore species and fragmentation
243 response groups

244 The number of native plant species, genera and families, the proportion of plant 245 species with a median diaspore size  $\geq 10$  mm, and the average diaspore size of plant 246 species consumed were calculated for each frugivore species. To examine similarities among the frugivore species in terms of their dietary composition, a classification tree 247 248 was generated using the UPGMA algorithm (Manly, 1994) in PRIMER (5.2.9) 249 (Clarke and Warwick, 2001), with the Bray-Curtis similarity metric. Exotic plant 250 species and species that had been recorded in the diet of less than two frugivore 251 species were excluded from multivariate analyses. For analyses at higher taxonomic 252 levels, genera or families with only one plant species in the data set were excluded. 253 The bird species Scythrops novaehollandiae, Gymnorhina tibicen and Anthochaera 254 chrysoptera were not included in multivariate analyses because of the low number of 255 native plant species that had been recorded in their diets. Data for N. robinsonii were 256 not included in any statistical analyses of dietary patterns because of the small amount 257 of dietary information available for this species.

258

The statistical significance of overall dietary differences between frugivore species that showed decreaser, tolerant and increaser patterns was tested using Analysis of Similarity, with 9 999 iterations (ANOSIM; Clarke and Green, 1988), also in

262	PRIMER. ANOSIM tests for statistical differences among sampling units (e.g.,
263	fragmentation response groups) using Monte Carla randomisation to determine
264	whether the rank similarities within groups are greater than those between groups.
265	Spearman rank correlations were used to test for associations between the
266	susceptibility of a frugivore species to decline in fragmented forest (scored as
267	increaser (low) = 1, tolerant = 2, decreaser (high) = 3) and the total number of native
268	plant species, genera and families that each consumed, as well as for the number of
269	native plant species consumed from each of the 13 plant families with at least five
270	species in the data set. The dietary proportions of exotic plant species and of native
271	plant species with large ( $\geq 10$ mm diameter) diaspores were compared among
272	decreaser, tolerant and increaser frugivore species, also using Spearman's rank
273	correlations. The statistical test included a correction for multiple tied ranks.
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276	The potential for functional substitution in fragmented rainforest by frugivore species
277	was quantified as the percentage of plant species in the diet of each decreaser
278	frugivore that was also consumed by each other frugivore species. The potential for
279	substitution for individual decreaser species by particular groupings of other frugivore
280	species was also quantified in this way.
281	

The number of native plant species that would be without a known disperser if each individual frugivore species was absent was calculated as the number of plant species recorded solely in the diet of that frugivore species. The attributes of the plant species that were recorded only in the diet of decreaser frugivores were identified in terms of

taxonomic affiliation at the family and genus levels, growth form and diaspore size.
The occurrence of these attributes among the plants only consumed by decreaser
frugivores was compared with their frequency among remaining plant species in the
data set using chi-squared tests on cross-tabulations of plant species' frequencies
within attribute classes in SPSS (2001).

291

292 **Results** 

293 Dietary comparisons among frugivore species

294 The diet data matrix comprised information for 221 native plant species from 146 295 genera and 62 families. An additional 33 plant species had been introduced to 296 subtropical eastern Australia from other continents, and three had been introduced 297 from tropical Australia (collectively referred to as "exotic species"). The data on the 298 occurrence of these plant species' in the diets of the 18 frugivore species yielded 299 records of 978 unique combinations of plant and frugivore species. Most of the native 300 (71%) and exotic (75%) plant species had been recorded in the diet of more than one 301 frugivore species.

302

303 There was considerable variation among frugivore species in the numbers of native

304 plant species they were known to consume, ranging from one (G. tibicen) to 106 (both

305 *Meliphaga lewinii* and *Ptilonorhynchus violaceus*; Table 1). This variation may

306 reflect differences among frugivore species in their diet breadth or level of frugivory,

307 as well as differences in sampling effort.

308

309 The plant species composition of the diets of three decreaser frugivore species 310 (Ptilinopus magnificus, P. regina and Ailurioedus crassirostris) were similar to one 311 another and were also similar to two tolerant bird species: Lopholaimus antarcticus 312 (which closely resembled the *Ptilinopus* species) and *P. violaceus* (similar to A. 313 crassirostris). The tolerant M. lewinii, Strepera graculina, Pteropus spp. and 314 increaser Sphecotheres viridis had the next most similar dietary composition to the 315 group containing these decreaser species (Figure 1). The superb fruit-dove's diet 316 comprised a subset of the other decreaser bird species, probably a reflection of it 317 being an uncommon summer migrant to the study region (Innes, 1989; Date et al., 318 1996). ANOSIM showed that the overall native plant composition of the diets of four 319 decreaser frugivore species was statistically different from that of the four increaser 320 frugivores at the level of plant species (global R = 0.264, p = 0.03; pairwise 321 comparison between decreasers and increasers p = 0.03), genus (global R = 0.188, p =322 0.06; pairwise p = 0.03) and family (global R = 0.242, p = 0.04; pairwise p = 0.06). 323 324 There was a positive association between a frugivore species' susceptibility to decline 325 in fragmented forest and the number of native plant species ( $R_s = 0.45$ , p = 0.04), genera ( $R_s = 0.46$ , p = 0.03) and families ( $R_s = 0.46$ , p = 0.03) that they consumed 326 327 (Table 1) and the average dietary proportion of native plant species with large 328 diaspores ( $\geq 10$  mm diameter) (R<sub>s</sub> = 0.67, p = 0.003, Figure 2). There was substantial 329 variation among individual frugivore species within the tolerant response group, with 330 only two bird species (L. antarcticus, P. violaceus) and Pteropus spp. consuming 331 dietary proportions of native plants with large diaspores within the range shown by 332 decreaser birds (Figure 2). There was a negative association between a frugivore

333 species' susceptibility to decline in fragmented forest and the percentage of exotic 334 plant species in the diet, with exotic plant species comprising an average of 41% of 335 species in the diets of increaser frugivores, 17% of tolerant species' diets and only 8% 336 of decreasers' diets ( $R_s = -0.72$ , p = 0.001). 337

Among the 13 plant families that had more than five species represented in the data

339 set, there was a positive association between a frugivore species' susceptibility to 340 decline in fragmented forest and the number of plant species consumed from 341 Lauraceae, Meliaceae, Myrtaceae, Rubiaceae, Lamiaceae and Vitaceae (Table 2, 342 Figure 3). One or more of several tolerant frugivores (L. antarcticus, P. violaceus, M. 343 *lewinii*, S. graculina and Pteropus spp.) consumed numbers of plant species from all 344 of these families within the range shown by decreaser species. The only increaser 345 frugivore known to consume comparable numbers of native plant species from any of 346 these families was S. viridis, which consumed numbers of species from Lauraceae and 347 Meliaceae within the range of decreaser bird species (Figure 3).

348

338

349 Specific substitution potential among frugivore species

350 Among tolerant and increaser frugivores, two tolerant species, *L. antarcticus* and *P.* 

351 violaceus, consumed the greatest percentage of plant species that were consumed by

individual decreaser species (Table 3; 56-73% and 52-66% respectively). A moderate

353 percentage of the plant species recorded in the diets of individual decreaser frugivore

354 species was consumed by the tolerant *M. lewinii* (38-49%), *S. graculina* (35-48%),

355 *Pteropus* spp. (27-36%) and increaser *S. viridis* (40-53%), while other non-decreaser

356 frugivore species consumed only a small percentage of the plant species that had been

358 violaceus consumed 72-81% of the plants recorded in the diets of individual decreaser 359 frugivore species. The cumulative effect of remaining tolerant frugivores increased 360 the percentage of shared plant species to 80-86%, while the addition of increaser 361 species did not increase this further (80-88%) (Table 3). 362 Twenty-seven native plant species were recorded only in the diet of decreaser bird 363 species. These plants varied widely in their taxonomy, growth form and diaspore size, 364 365 although plant species from the Rubiaceae comprised a much greater percentage of the 27 species (26%), than they did in the remainder of the data set (2%) ( $\chi^2 = 27.1$ , 366 p < 0.0001). Tree species comprised a smaller percentage of plants consumed only by 367 368 decreaser frugivores (29%), compared with the percentage of trees among the remaining species in the data set (52%) ( $\chi^2 = 4.02$ , p = 0.045). Among the plant 369 370 species that were only known to be consumed by decreasers, there was no significant 371 difference in the number of species that were shrubs (41% of the plants only consumed by decreasers, 33% of plants in the remainder of the dataset,  $\chi^2 = 0.32$ , p =372 0.57), vines (29%, 15%,  $\chi^2 = 2.93$ , p = 0.086) had large ( $\geq 10$  mm) diaspores (48%, 373 40%;  $\gamma^2 = 0.37$ , p = 0.54). Eight of the 27 plant species that were only known to be 374 375 consumed by decreaser frugivores belong to genera that were consumed by other (i.e., 376 non-decreaser) frugivore species, and all but one of the plant species (Elaeagnus 377 triflora, the only Australian representative of the family Elaeagnaceae) were from families that were known to be consumed by non-decreaser species. 378 379

recorded in the diets of decreasers (Table 3). In combination, L. antarcticus and P.

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Among non-decreaser birds, *M. lewinii*, *P. violaceus* and *S. viridis* were the unique consumers of a relatively high number of native plant species (20, 12 and 8, respectively, Table 1). Most other non-decreaser frugivore species had few native plant species for which they were the only recorded consumer (Table 1). All of the plant species that had been recorded in the diets of *Pteropus* spp. were known to be consumed by at least one frugivorous bird species.

386

387 Discussion

388 Reduced dispersal of native rainforest plants as a consequence of rainforest

389 fragmentation

390 The reduced abundance of a small number of frugivore species in fragmented 391 rainforest in subtropical Australia is likely to have reduced the dispersal of a number 392 of native plant species in these parts of the landscape. Assessment of the functional 393 roles of frugivorous bird and bat species in seed dispersal indicates that 12% of native 394 rainforest plant species may lack a dispersal agent in fragmented rainforest. The 395 ecological process of seed dispersal appears to be more intact in fragmented 396 rainforests of subtropical Australia than in other heavily cleared regions of the world, 397 where it has been predicted that approximately one-third of native rainforest plants 398 may suffer failed dispersal as a consequence of frugivore declines (e.g., da Silva and 399 Tabarelli, 2000). The persistence of most frugivore species in fragmented rainforest in 400 subtropical Australia means that there is the potential for maintained seed dispersal of 401 many plant taxa. It has been proposed that Australian rainforest fauna may have a 402 relatively high resilience to anthropogenic fragmentation of rainforest, given that 403 extant species have persisted through the 'natural fragmentation' of rainforest

resulting from contractions to refugial sites during the Pleistocene (Corlett and
Primack, 2006). Furthermore, frugivores are rarely hunted in subtropical Australia,
whereas hunting is a ubiquitous feature of rainforests in other regions (Corlett, 1998,
2002; Hamman and Curio, 1999; McConkey and Drake, 2002; Terborgh and NuñezIturri, 2006).

409

While many plant species do regenerate despite reduced or even failed seed dispersal
(Janzen and Martin, 1982; Corlett and Turner, 1997), their recruits are likely to be less
abundant and more spatially aggregated, and populations are more vulnerable to
extinction, than in forest with an intact disperser assemblage (Bleher and BöhningGaese, 2001; Cordeiro and Howe, 2003). These plant species would also have limited
potential to colonise secondary regrowth or restoration sites on previously cleared
land (Duncan and Chapman, 2002; Kanowski et al., 2008).

417

418 The plant family Rubiaceae appears to be particularly vulnerable to reduced dispersal 419 in fragmented rainforest landscapes of subtropical Australia. Low recruitment of 420 plants in the Rubiaceae has been shown in remnant rainforest patches in both Brazil 421 (Tabarelli et al., 1999) and Singapore (Turner et al., 1996), although this has been 422 attributed to unsuitable germination conditions for these plants in fragments. While 423 germination conditions play an important role in plant regeneration patterns, low 424 recruitment of plants from the Rubiaceae in fragments may also be a consequence of 425 reduced seed dispersal in fragmented forest. The pattern we document of only a small 426 number of potential dispersers of plants from the Rubiaceae in subtropical Australia 427 may also be a general pattern in other regions. Izhaki et al. (2002) found that

428	anthraquinone, which deter consumption by some bird species, were common in
429	species of Rubiaceae in Israel, indicating that fruit chemistry may play a role in
430	limiting the consumption of Rubiaceae to a small subset of frugivores.
431	
432	Other plants that are likely to have suffered reduced dispersal in fragmented rainforest
433	in subtropical Australia include species that produce diaspores wider than 10 mm, or
434	from the families Lauraceae, Meliaceae, Myrtaceae, Lamiaceae and Vitaceae. A
435	susceptibility of Lauraceae, Myrtaceae and Meliaceae to reduced recruitment in
436	rainforest fragments has been identified other regions (Turner et al., 1996; Tabarelli et
437	al., 1999), where they are also only consumed by a subset of the frugivore assemblage
438	(Snow, 1981; da Silva and Tabarelli, 2000).
439	
439 440	We predict that reduced seed dispersal of certain plant families will lead to reduced
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440 441	recruitment of some plant taxa and ultimately to changed patterns of forest
440 441 442	recruitment of some plant taxa and ultimately to changed patterns of forest regeneration in fragmented rainforest. These predictions depend on the assumption
<ul><li>440</li><li>441</li><li>442</li><li>443</li></ul>	recruitment of some plant taxa and ultimately to changed patterns of forest regeneration in fragmented rainforest. These predictions depend on the assumption that changes in factors that affect seedling establishment, such as microclimatic
440 441 442 443 444	recruitment of some plant taxa and ultimately to changed patterns of forest regeneration in fragmented rainforest. These predictions depend on the assumption that changes in factors that affect seedling establishment, such as microclimatic conditions or the abundance and behaviour of seed and seedling predators, do not
<ul> <li>440</li> <li>441</li> <li>442</li> <li>443</li> <li>444</li> <li>445</li> </ul>	recruitment of some plant taxa and ultimately to changed patterns of forest regeneration in fragmented rainforest. These predictions depend on the assumption that changes in factors that affect seedling establishment, such as microclimatic conditions or the abundance and behaviour of seed and seedling predators, do not overwhelm the influence of altered seed dispersal patterns (Clark et al., 2007).
<ul> <li>440</li> <li>441</li> <li>442</li> <li>443</li> <li>444</li> <li>445</li> <li>446</li> </ul>	recruitment of some plant taxa and ultimately to changed patterns of forest regeneration in fragmented rainforest. These predictions depend on the assumption that changes in factors that affect seedling establishment, such as microclimatic conditions or the abundance and behaviour of seed and seedling predators, do not overwhelm the influence of altered seed dispersal patterns (Clark et al., 2007). Empirical data on plant recruitment could be used to test the predictions that there will
<ul> <li>440</li> <li>441</li> <li>442</li> <li>443</li> <li>444</li> <li>445</li> <li>446</li> <li>447</li> </ul>	recruitment of some plant taxa and ultimately to changed patterns of forest regeneration in fragmented rainforest. These predictions depend on the assumption that changes in factors that affect seedling establishment, such as microclimatic conditions or the abundance and behaviour of seed and seedling predators, do not overwhelm the influence of altered seed dispersal patterns (Clark et al., 2007). Empirical data on plant recruitment could be used to test the predictions that there will be reduced rates and increased spatial aggregation of recruitment of plants in

20

### 451 *Key substitute seed dispersers in fragmented forest*

452 Many native plant species are likely to retain the potential for seed dispersal in 453 fragmented rainforest of subtropical Australia. Although the frugivore species with 454 reduced abundance in fragmented parts of the landscape disperse a large number and 455 diversity of plant species, most of these are also probably dispersed by at least one 456 non-decreaser frugivore. However, dispersal rates of these plant species may still be 457 lower in fragmented rainforest, since substitute dispersers may not compensate for the 458 absence of decreaser frugivores by consuming higher quantities of fruits (Kirika et al., 459 2008). Quantitative differences in the contributions of different plant species to 460 frugivores' diets (e.g., Poulsen et. al 2002) may increase the impacts of losing some 461 frugivores beyond any expectations based on the simple presence of plant species in 462 their diets. Furthermore, because different frugivore species may vary in their small-463 scale patterns of habitat use, the absence or reduced abundance of one species may 464 have consequences for dispersal of seeds to certain microsites or over certain 465 distances (Spiegel and Nathan, 2007). 466 467 The two non-decreaser species with the greatest potential to substitute for decreasers

as seed dispersers in fragmented parts of the landscape are *L. antarcticus* and *P.* 

469 *violaceus*. Other frugivore species that potentially substitute for decreaser frugivore

470 species as dispersers of some of the plant taxa identified in this work as being

471 susceptible to reduced dispersal in fragmented rainforest are *M. lewinii*, *S. graculina*,

472 *Pteropus* spp. and *S. viridis*. Among the frugivorous bird species whose diets were not

analysed in this study because they were very uncommon in field surveys, only

474 Sericulus chrysocephalus had a diet that was similar in terms of plant species

475 composition to decreaser species (Moran, 2007). In particular, S. chrysocephalus may 476 contribute to the dispersal of plants with large diaspores and from the families 477 Rubiaceae, Meliaceae, Myrtaceae, and Vitaceae, although it is uncertain whether or 478 not this species is likely to disperse seeds among fragmented rainforest patches. 479 Although frugivory and seed dispersal by possums (e.g., *Trichosurus vulpecular*) and 480 small rodents (e.g., *Rattus fuscipes*) are likely to be uncommon, they may disperse the 481 seeds of some native plant species at a local scale, although would probably destroy 482 most seeds.

483

484 Despite the potential for tolerant and increaser frugivores to disperse native plant 485 species, a large proportion of the seeds dispersed in fragmented rainforest may 486 actually be exotic plant species. Exotic plant species are ubiquitous in fragmented 487 parts of the landscape (Buckley et al., 2006) and the frugivore species that use 488 fragmented rainforest in subtropical Australia, particularly increaser bird species, 489 consume fruits from large numbers of exotic plant species.

490

491 This study assessed the potential of frugivore species to substitute for one another as 492 seed dispersers based on their dietary composition. The actual capacity of a frugivore 493 to disperse seeds within and between fragmented rainforest habitats is also influenced 494 by the spatial scale of its foraging and ranging behaviour, combined with its gut 495 passage rate (Schupp, 1993; Dennis and Westcott, 2006). Among the frugivore 496 species identified as key substitute seed dispersers in fragmented rainforest, L. 497 antarcticus and S. viridis regularly travel rapidly over many kilometres across cleared 498 land and consequently may disperse seeds among widely spaced rainforest patches

499 (Frith, 1957; Price et al., 1999; Dennis and Westcott, 2006; Neilan et al., 2006). The 500 short gut passage rate of S. viridis (Dennis and Westcott, 2006) may limit its potential 501 to transport seeds over long distances (e.g., kilometres). On the contrary, the slow 502 transit of seeds through the gut of *L. antarcticus* may mean that it disperses few seeds 503 over short distances (e.g., within a remnant patch). Pteropus spp. travel tens of 504 kilometres in a night and may disperse very small seeds (e.g., 1-4 mm diameter) over 505 long distances (Eby, 1991; Shilton et al., 1999). Pteropus spp. may disperse 506 moderately-sized diaspores over tens of metres in their cheek pouches, whereas large 507 diaspores may only be transported a short distance away from parent plants in claws (Eby, 1991, 1995). Of the remaining key substitute dispersers, both P. violaceus and 508 509 *M. lewinii* move slowly over short distances (Dennis and Westcott, 2006), and hence 510 may disperse relatively few seeds between isolated rainforest fragments. 511 512 In subtropical Australian rainforest, frugivorous bats have the potential to disperse

513 seeds from many of the plants that are dispersed by birds. Consistent with Eby (1998),

the present study has shown high dietary similarity among birds and bats in this

515 region. There is no suggestion of a 'bat fruit syndrome' (van der Pijl, 1982),

516 previously proposed on the basis of limited overlap between the diets of frugivorous

517 birds and certain pteropid (e.g., Hamann and Curio, 1999; Bollen et al., 2004;

518 Richards, 1990) or phyllostomid (e.g., Gorchov et al., 1995) bat species. Although

519 frugivorous bats do not disperse a different suite of plant species to frugivorous birds

520 in Australia, they may play an important role in the transport of seeds to treeless

areas, because they can defecate in flight, whereas birds tend to eliminate seeds whileperched.

524	Implications fo	r rainforest	conservation and ecol	ogical restoration
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525	Because of changes in the composition of the frugivore assemblage, the regenerative
526	potential of a substantial proportion of native rainforest plant species is likely to have
527	been reduced in fragmented parts of subtropical Australia. Continued rainforest
528	clearing would probably exacerbate the situation for frugivore species whose numbers
529	are already low in fragmented rainforest, and may lead to population declines of
530	additional frugivore species, with ensuing reductions in the dispersal and regeneration
531	of native plant species.
532	
533	Rainforest restoration that meets the needs of fragmentation-sensitive frugivore
534	species should also eventually restore the seed dispersal potential of plant species that
535	have suffered reduced dispersal as a consequence of frugivore declines. In the short-
536	term, the reduced regenerative capacity of these plant species means that forest
537	regeneration in rainforest remnants, regrowth or replanting sites will not proceed
538	along successional trajectories observed in intact forest systems (Kanowski et al.,
539	2008). Changes in the abundance of seed predators or herbivores in fragmented
540	rainforest will also affect the process of forest regeneration because of their influence
541	on patterns of seed survival and germination, and seedling growth (Clark et al., 2007).
542	It is recommended that rainforest restoration programs incorporate the direct
543	introduction, via planting or direct-seeding, of native plant species with diaspores
544	10mm and wider, and from the Rubiaceae, as well as Lauraceae, Meliaceae,
545	Myrtaceae, Lamiaceae to enhance the resilience of populations of these species in
546	fragmented forests and to enable their representation among regenerating forest on

previously-cleared land. Because of their potential to smother young plants, it is not
recommended that vines from the family Vitaceae be included in early stages of
restoration.

550

551 Developing our understanding of the factors that influence distribution patterns in 552 fragmented rainforest of key potential substitute dispersers is required because the 553 loss of these species would have a disproportionate effect over seed dispersal. For 554 example, L. antarcticus is widespread throughout fragmented subtropical rainforest in 555 some landscapes (Date et al., 1996; Gosper and Holmes, 2002; Neilan et al., 2006; 556 this study), but this species has previously undergone dramatic population declines 557 (Frith, 1952, 1957; Date et al., 1996), and has a restricted distribution in small 558 subtropical rainforest fragments (Howe et al., 1981). Similarly, numbers of Pteropus 559 spp. (especially P. policephalus) have declined drastically in subtropical Australia 560 (Eby and Lunney, 2002), as have pteropid populations throughout the Old World 561 tropics (Fujita and Tuttle, 1991). The abundance of Ptilonorhynchus violaceus may be 562 limited in certain parts of fragmented rainforest landscapes, for example in areas 563 dominated by weedy regrowth (Neilan et al., 2006). The distribution of this species 564 may also be related to the location of display sites ('bowers'), which may in turn be 565 associated with landscape topography (Crome and Moore, 1989). Populations of M. 566 lewinii appear to be stable (Blakers et al., 1984; Higgins et al., 2001), although 567 interspecific interactions in fragmented rainforest (e.g., with the aggressive noisy 568 miner Manorina melanocephala (Piper and Catterall, 2003)) may affect the 569 distribution of closely related M. lewinii. S. viridis appears to be ubiquitous in 570 fragmented rainforest throughout its range, including in weedy regrowth and

571	replanted rainforest (Crome et al., 1994; Neilan et al., 2006; this study), and
572	populations of S. graculina also appear to be increasing (Higgins et al., 2006).
573	
574	This study has developed an approach to understanding the consequences of changes
575	in the species composition of a frugivore assemblage for the important ecosystem
576	function of seed dispersal. Despite a relatively high level of resilience to rainforest
577	fragmentation among the frugivore species in subtropical Australia, the dispersal of
578	12 % of native plant species may have been substantially reduced in fragmented
579	rainforest in this region. As a consequence, the plant species composition of
580	fragmented rainforest may diverge from that in extensive tracts of forest over time,
581	with follow-on effects for other rainforest biota and ecological processes.

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805 Table legends

807	Table 1 For each frugivore species, their frequency in field surveys, the number of
808	native and exotic plant species, and the number of species that bear diaspores with a
809	median width $< 10$ mm and $\ge 10$ mm, consumed. The number of genera and families
810	represented among the native plant species consumed by each frugivore species are
811	shown. 'Only known consumer' shows the number of plant species for which there
812	was no other known consumer.
813	
814	Table 2 The average number of native plant species from selected families consumed
815	by decreaser $(n = 4)$ , tolerant $(n = 8)$ and increaser $(n = 5)$ species. The total number
816	of native plant species in the data set from each of these families is shown. Significant
817	(p < 0.05) results are shown in bold.
818	
819	<b>Table 3</b> The percentages of native plant species that were recorded in the diets of
820	each decreaser bird species (column head) and also consumed by each other frugivore
821	(bird or bat) species (row head) <sup>1</sup> , and by particular groups of species ('Frugivore
822	groups'). The number of native plant species consumed by each frugivore species, and
823	the species codes used in this table are shown in Table 1.
824 825	

### Table 1

				_					Numb		πιαλά			Only
Response	$C_{2}$		Femilie		ency in			0				0		known
pattern <sup>1</sup>	Common name <sup>2</sup>	Genus and species	Family		veys⁴		Mative	Spe	ecies	Evetie		Genera	Families	consumer
				Total	number	<10	Native ≥10		<10	Exotic ≥10				
				Sites	Indivs	mm	≥10 mm	Total	mm	≥10 mm	Total			
Decreaser														
	wompoo fruit-dove	Ptilinopus magnificus	Columbidae	25	120	34	47	81	4	0	4	50	31	6
	superb fruit-dove	P. superbus	Columbidae	13	15	13	13	26	3	1	4	19	14	1
	rose-crowned fruit-dove	P. regina	Columbidae	36	101	41	33	74	6	1	7	50	28	5
	green catbird	Ailurioedus crassirostris	Ptilonorhynchidae	35	148	60	44	104	7	0	7	75	38	8
	eastern tube-nosed bat	Nyctimene robinsonii	Pteropidae	13	13	1	3	4	1	0	1	4	4	0
Tolerant		-												
	topknot pigeon	Lopholaimus antarcticus	Columbidae	6	28	31	42	73	3	1	4	46	28	1
	common koel	Eudynamys scolopacea	Cuculidae	17	22	19	6	25	5	3	8	18	14	0
	channel-billed cuckoo	Scythrops novaehollandiae	Cuculidae	7	8	6	0	6	0	0	0	2	2	0
	little wattlebird *	Anthochaera chrysoptera	Meliphagidae	6	6	3	0	3	3	0	3	3	3	0
	Lewin's honeyeater	Meliphaga lewinii	Meliphagidae	48	398	82	24	106	19	3	22	78	43	20
	pied currawong	Strepera graculina	Artamidae	38	161	32	18	50	9	1	10	30	20	1
	satin bowerbird	Ptilonorhynchus violaceus	Ptilonorhynchidae	7	10	58	48	106	9	3	12	79	48	12
	flying-foxes <sup>3</sup>	Pteropus spp.	Pteropidae	39	201	26	22	48	6	2	8	30	23	0
Increaser														
	black-faced cuckoo-shrike	Coracina novaehollandiae	Campephagidae	10	33	10	0	10	5	0	5	6	5	1
	figbird	Sphecotheres viridis	Oriolidae	41	465	49	25	74	13	4	17	48	27	8
	Australian magpie	Gymnorhina tibicen	Artamidae	26	121	1	0	1	4	1	5	1	1	0
	Torresian crow	Corvus orru	Corvidae	35	144	9	1	10	5	1	6	6	5	0
	silvereye *	Zosterops lateralis	Zosteropidae	20	144	35	1	37	15	2	17	27	19	3
					Mean	28.6	17.9	46.5	6.7	1.1	7.8	31.8	19.6	-
					SE	5.5	4.3	9.0	1.2	0.3	1.4	6.4	3.5	-
					Total	134	87	221	25	11	36	146	62	-

Number of plant taxa

<sup>1</sup> From Moran et al. (2004a) (birds) or Moran (2007) (bats); comparisons of abundance in extensive forest (E), remnants (M) and regrowth (G); Decreasers' abundance pattern is E>M>G except for *A. crassirostris* (E=M>G); Tolerant pattern is E=M=G; Increasers' pattern is E=M<G except for *G. tibicen* (E<M<G).

<sup>2</sup> Bird species' nomenclature follows Christidis and Boles (1994). \* species have small (<10 mm) gapes.

<sup>3</sup> data for grey-headed (*Pteropus poliocephalus*) and black flying-foxes (*P. alecto*) were combined.

<sup>4</sup> The total number of sites in which each frugivore species was present during surveys (max. possible = 48) and total number of individuals (Indivs) recorded during all surveys (four bird surveys, one bat survey in each site).

# Table 2

	No. in data set	Average number consumed			Spearman rank correlation	
Plant family		Decreasers	Tolerant	Increasers	R <sub>s</sub>	Р
Arecaceae	5	1.8	1.3	0.6	0.40	0.05
Elaeocarpaceae	6	3.3	2.5	1.4	0.35	0.08
Euphorbiaceae	8	0.8	2.0	1.8	-0.20	0.22
Lamiaceae	5	1.3	0.6	0.0	0.50	0.02
Lauraceae	21	12.8	4.9	2.0	0.61	0.005
Meliaceae	7	2.8	2.0	0.6	0.44	0.04
Moraceae	13	8.0	7.8	5.8	0.23	0.19
Myrtaceae	19	6.5	5.1	1.0	0.53	0.02
Oleaceae	5	1.5	0.8	0.4	0.36	0.08
Rubiaceae	10	3.0	0.6	0.2	0.64	0.003
Rutaceae	10	2.8	1.4	0.8	0.43	0.04
Sapindaceae	15	2.5	30	3.0	-0.07	0.39
Vitaceae	6	4.3	2.3	0.2	0.69	0.001

# Table 3

	Decreaser frugivores					
	P. magnificus	P. superbus	P. regina	A. crassirostris		
Decreaser frugivores		_	-			
Ptilinopus magnificus	•	80	70	55		
P. superbus	25	•	23	15		
P. regina	64	68	•	51		
Ailurioedus crassirostris	70	64	72	•		
Tolerant frugivores						
Lopholaimus antarcticus	73	68	68	56		
Eudynamys scolopacea	19	16	22	16		
Scythrops novaehollandiae	7	8	7	5		
Anthochaera chrysoptera	0	0	0	1		
Meliphaga lewinii	38	40	49	46		
Strepera graculina	41	48	42	35		
Ptilonorhynchus violaceus	58	52	61	66		
Pteropus spp.	36	27	31	34		
Increaser frugivores						
Coracina novaehollandiae	6	8	7	8		
Sphecotheres viridis	44	52	53	40		
Ĉorvus orru	9	8	9	9		
Zosterops lateralis	12	24	18	18		
Gymnorhina tibicen	1	0	1	1		
Fruigvore groups						
L. antarcticus & P. violaceus	80	72	78	81		
Tolerant spp. (excluding L.	59	64	66	58		
antarcticus & P. violaceus)						
Tolerant & Increaser spp.	64	68	70	63		
(excluding L. antarcticus & P.						
violaceus)						
all Tolerant spp.	86	80	86	86		
all Increaser spp.	46	56	55	48		
all Tolerant & Increaser spp.	86	80	86	88		

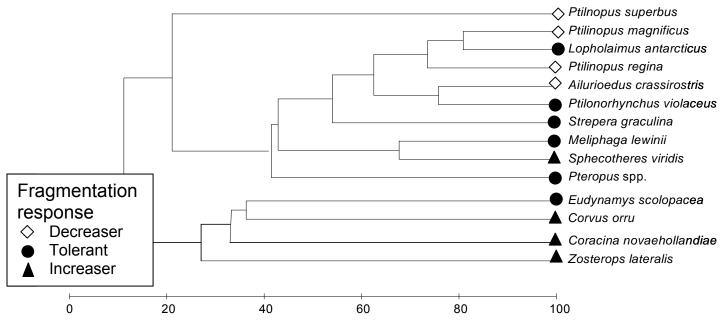
e.g., the top right cell of the table show that *P. magnificus* is known to eat 55% of the plants recorded in the diet of *A. crassirostris*. For non-decreaser species, only the percentage of plant species in each decreaser's diet that they share is shown.

### List of figures

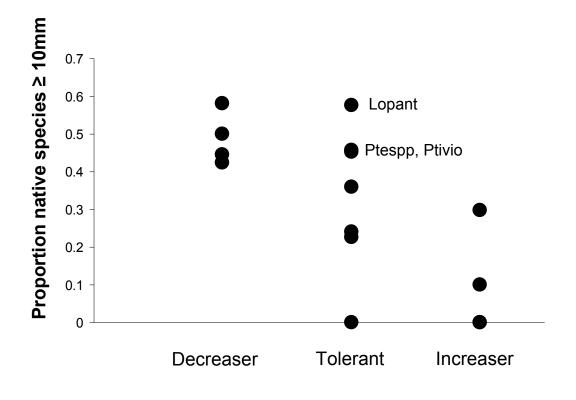
**Figure 1** Classification of frugivore species (based on Bray-Curtis similarity matrix and UPGMA sorting) according to presence / absence of native plant species in the diet. Symbols next to names show the fragmentation response pattern for each frugivorous bird species. *Anthochaera chrysoptera, Gymnorhina tibicen* and *Nyctimene robinsonii* were not included because less than five native plant species had been recorded in their diets.

**Figure 2** The proportion of native plant species with large ( $\geq 10$  mm) diaspores that were consumed by decreaser, tolerant and increaser species. Only species with gape widths >10 mm are included (see Table 1). Among tolerant species, data points for *Lopholaimus antarcticus* (*Lopant*), *Ptilonorhynchus violaceus* (*Ptivio*) and *Pteropus* spp (*Ptespp*) are highlighted.

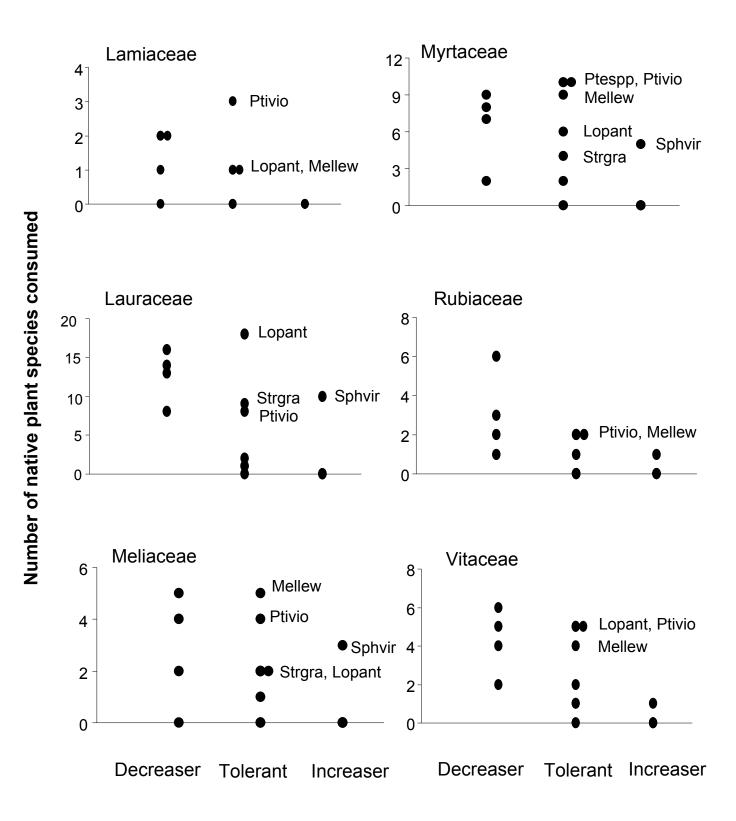
**Figure 3** The number of native plant species consumed by decreaser, tolerant and increaser frugivore species, for plant families where there was a significant (p < 0.05) association between frugivore species' sensitivity to fragmentation and the number of plant species consumed (see Table 2). Among tolerant species, data points for tolerant *Lopholaimus antarcticus* (*Lopant*), *Meliphaga lewinii* (*Mellew*), *Strepera graculina* (*Strgra*), *Ptilonorhynchus violaceus* (*Ptivio*) and *Pteropus* spp (*Ptespp*) and increaser *Sphecotheres viridis* (*Sphvir*) are highlighted where these are within the range shown by decreaser species.



Similarity



Frugivore group



Frugivore group