Factors related to diversity of decomposer fungi in tropical forests

D. JEAN LODGE

Center for Forest Mycology Research, Forest Products Lab, USDA Forest Service, PO Box 1377, Luquillo, PR 00773 USA^{*}

Received 18 June 1996; accepted 26 September 1996

Recent studies suggest that host-preferences are common among certain groups of tropical fungal decomposers but rare in others, and sometimes occur where we least expect them. Host preferences among microfungi and ascomycetes that decompose leaf litter are common but usually involve differences in relative frequencies more than presence/absence, so their diversity may be loosely correlated with species richness of host trees. Strong host-specificity appears to be rare among wood decomposer fungi, whereas characteristics of their substrata and habitat are very important for this group. Anthropogenic disturbance predisposed a tropical forest to subsequent hurricane damage, and the resulting direct and indirect effects on host diversity and habitat heterogeneity were reflected in the decomposer fungal community more than sixty years after the original disturbance. While species richness of dictyostelid slime molds and functional diversity of their bacterial prey increased with disturbance, the more diverse microfungi and ascomycetes were apparently negatively affected by disturbance.

Keywords: fungal diversity; tropical forests; decomposers; anthropogenic disturbance; natural disturbance.

Introduction

Fungal diversity has received increasing attention during the last decade in part because fungi are used for production of antibiotics, enzymes, and food, and as agents for biopulping of paper and bioremediation of chemical spills (Hawksworth, 1991, 1993; Hawksworth and Colwell, 1992; Nisbet and Fox, 1991). Although temperate mycotas are relatively better known than tropical ones, fungal diversity is generally thought to be greater in the tropics and subtropics than at higher latitudes, especially among taxonomic groups dominated by decomposers (Lodge *et al.*, 1995). The reasons for higher diversity at low latitudes are not always clear, but the consensus of mycologists with experience in more than one hemisphere is that host diversity, resource abundance and habitat diversity are important contributing factors (Lodge *et al.*, 1995). Although decomposers might be expected to exhibit less host-specificity or host-preference than pathogens and beneficial symbionts, the survey suggested that diversity in certain groups of decomposer fungi is strongly related to host diversity (Lodge *et al.*, 1995).

The methods used to inventory fungi are inherently labour-intensive and many years of collecting are required to encounter the numerous larger species that only rarely produce

^{*}The Forest Products Laboratory is maintained in cooperation with the University of Wisconsin. This article was written and prepared by a U.S. Government employee on official time, and it is therefore in the public domain and not subject to copyright.

fruiting structures (Watling, 1995; Ammirati, O'Dell and Lodge, unpublished). Therefore, understanding the causal and correlative factors that are related to fungal diversity may be especially helpful in suggesting which threatened areas are likely to support a high diversity or a unique group of fungal species, and are therefore of greater value in conservation efforts (Lodge *et al.*, 1995). In addition, knowledge of which factors are important in organizing fungal communities is essential for designing more efficient sampling strategies, whether it is for the purpose of bioprospecting or for inventory, monitoring and conservation. Attempts to inventory highly diverse taxa in which samples from different habitats have been combined often result in species discovery curves that do not or only slowly reach an asymptote, and distributions that are not lognormally distributed and are therefore difficult to analyse (Coddington *et al.*, 1991). Finally, understanding how natural and anthropogenic disturbances influence fungal diversity may help us to better manage and protect these economically valuable resources.

The purpose of this paper is to summarize results from some recent research that advance our understanding of the factors related to diversity of decomposer fungi in tropical forests. The following questions are specifically addressed. To what degree do tropical decomposer fungi have preferences for particular hosts or groups of hosts, types and diameter classes of their substrata, position of their substratum relative to the ground, and states of substratum decay? Secondly, for how long do natural and anthropogenic disturbances leave their impressions on fungal decomposer communities?

Results from recent research

Substratum preference

Tropical decomposer fungi are frequently restricted to particular size classes and types of substrata (Hedger, 1985; Lodge, 1996). For example, an analysis of the data presented in Lodge (1996) shows that almost all decomposer fungi were restricted to one or at most two similar types of substrata at El Verde in the Luquillo Mountains of Puerto Rico. Substrata were divided into the following classes: $\log (> 10 \text{ cm diameter})$, branches (> 1 cm to 10 cm), twigs (< 1 cm), leaves (including petioles), roots, and soil (Lodge, 1996). Some of these fungi might have appeared to be restricted to particular substrata because they were only collected once or a few times, but they often had opportunities to colonize other types of substrata that were in contact with their own. Of the 705 decomposer fungi, 493 spp. (70%) were restricted to one substratum (246 spp. were only on leaves, 43 in soil, 13 on roots, 27 on twigs, 84 on branches and 80 on logs). A further 173 species (25%) were found only on two similar substrata (84 on logs and branches, 34 on branches and twigs, 28 on twigs and leaves, 21 on roots and wood, and 16 in soil and one other substratum). In contrast, only 39 species (5%) were found on three or more substrata (12 on logs, branches and twigs, 15 on branches, twigs and leaves, and 12 on soil and two other substrata). These results are consistent with the level of substratum specificity found by Holler and Cowley (1970) at El Verde in which 53 of the 77 species cultured from soil were not found in either roots or surface litter.

Microhabitat preference

A recent survey by S.M. Huhndorf at El Verde in Puerto Rico (Huhndorf and Lodge, unpubl. data) showed that many wood-inhabiting ascomycetes had distinct preferences for the state of substratum decay and position relative to the ground, in addition to sub-

Tropical decomposer fungi

stratum type and diameter class. Such preferences have also been noted for tropical wood decomposer fungi in Africa (Ryvarden and Nuñez, 1992; Laessøe *et al.*, 1996). Similarly, Hedger (1985) showed that, in Ecuador, leaf decomposer basidiomycete fungi from the lower litter required partially decomposed leaves, in contrast to agarics of the upper layer that required freshly fallen leaves. Thus the availability of different microhabitats and substrata in different states of decay are likely to influence the diversity of decomposer fungi in tropical forests. Such factors have been discussed in greater detail in Hedger (1985), Lodge and Cantrell (1995) and Laessøe *et al.*, (1996).

Host preference

Agarics that decompose fallen leaves only rarely show strong host-specificity, and then it is usually for broad classes of hosts such as monocotyledonous versus dicotyledonous plants in the tropics, or gymnosperms versus angiosperms in temperate forests (Hedger, 1985; Lodge, 1993; Watling, 1995). Specificity occurs slightly more commonly among fruitinhabiting agarics, such as those that are specialized on cones of conifers or infructescences of Magnolia spp. In contrast, larger ascomycetous fungi in the Xylariaceae (e.g. dead man's fingers) are very frequently restricted to fruiting on leaves and fruits of particular host plant genera or families in the tropics. For example, in Puerto Rico, Laessøe and Lodge (1994) and Laessøe, Lodge and Rogers (unpublished results) found that over half of the thirteen species of Xylaria on leaves and fruits were restricted to a single host plant genus or family (i.e. X. aristata, X. axifera, X. meliacearum, X. phyllocharis and X. stromatica on leaves; X. warburgii and X. palmicola on fruits were host-specific, whereas X. apiculata, X. appendiculata, X. clusiae, X. ianthinovelutina on leaves and, X. mellisii and X. multiplex on fruits showed no strong preferences). Gonzalez and Rogers (1989) have similarly found that a high proportion of the *Xylaria* species growing on fruits in Mexico are host-specific.

Microfungi growing in decomposing plant debris are mostly vegetative or asexually reproducing states of ascomycetes. In a study of specificity among leaf decomposers in Puerto Rico, microfungi were cultured from decomposing leaves of two tree species, *Manilkara bidentata* (Sapotaceae) and *Guarea guidonia* (Meliaceae), that occurred together on the forest floor at two widely separated sites (Polishook *et al.*, 1996). As in the xylariaceous ascomycetes, which represented ca. 6% of the 338 + species of microfungi isolated from the leaf litter by Polishook *et al.* (1996), slightly more than half of the 172 microfungal species that were cultured at least twice were restricted to one of the two leaf species (58%). Such host preferences among leaf decomposer fungi have previously been found by Cowley (1970) in Puerto Rico and Cornejo *et al.* (1994) in Panama. Cowley (1970) placed leaves of six tree species at two sites, and found a greater similarity in fungal assemblages between leaf litter of the same species located at different sites than between leaves of different species located at the same site. Cornejo *et al.* (1994) compared fungi isolated from decomposing leaves of five tree species and also found host preferences.

Bills (in Polishook *et al.*, 1996) hypothesized that much of the host preference exhibited by microfungal decomposers may be related to physical and chemical characteristics of leaves rather than host-specificity in the taxonomic sense (i.e., for a single host species, genus or family). A total inventory of microfungi in litter therefore might be obtained without having to culture fungi from leaves of every tree species in the forest – a daunting task in lowland tropical forests that have a high diversity of trees. Host preference in leaf decomposers is often quantitative rather than qualitative; in all of the studies cited above,

differences in relative abundances between fungal assemblages were greater than differences in fungal species composition among leaf litter species. The diffuse nature of host preferences make the relationship of species richness between trees and decomposer fungi difficult to analyse. Nevertheless, knowledge of the importance of host-preference in structuring fungal decomposer communities is useful for optimizing sampling strategies for both bioprospecting and for obtaining complete inventories (Polishook *et al.*, 1996). For example, Bills and Polishook (1994) had previously used random grab samples of decomposing leaves in a rain forest in Costa Rica, but the overlap in fungal species composition among their samples was so small that the only conclusion which could be drawn was that total species richness could not be estimated because the community had been undersampled (Bills and Polishook, 1994; Lodge and Cantrell, 1995).

Although it is reasonable to hypothesize that much of the host preferences expressed by leaf decomposer fungi are attributable to species that start out as pathogenic or nonpathogenic inhabitants (i.e. endophytes) of living leaves, there is little evidence to support this view. Endophytic fungi were cultured by Lodge et al. (1996) from young, healthy leaves of Manilkara bidentata trees located directly above one of the decomposition plots used by Polishook et al. (1996), but only five of the 23 fungal endophyte species were also found among the 204 + fungi in decomposing Manilkara leaves. In other words, only 22 % of the endophytes remained in the decomposing leaves, and these represented ca 1 % of the fungal decomposers. Furthermore, three of the five species found in live and decomposing leaves were *Xylaria* species that are known to have broad host ranges (Laessøe and Lodge, 1994), and only the two remaining species are likely to be host-specific (i.e. *Phyllosticta* sapotae and Phomopsis manilkarae; Lodge et al., 1996). Possibly more species common to living and decomposing leaves would have been found if older leaves had been used in the endophyte study, but it is unlikely that these represent a large fraction of the decomposer community. The results of Polishook et al. (1996) and Lodge et al. (1996) are consistent with those of Laessøe and Lodge (1994), who found that species of Xylaria that were hostspecific on decomposing leaf petioles were not in live petioles, but that xylariaceous endophytes that were recovered from live petioles had broad host ranges.

In contrast to the pattern of strong host-preference among tropical ascomycetes and microfungi that decompose leaf litter, there is a low frequency of host preferences among tropical wood decomposer fungi. Huhndorf (unpubl. data) found that only one of the 350 + species of non-xylariaceous ascomycetes on wood at El Verde in the Luquillo Mountains was host-specific, i.e., Schizoparme botrididis on Buchenavia capitata (Combretaceae). Similarly, only three to seven of the ca 120 species of xylariaceous ascomycetes that occurred on wood in Puerto Rico had restricted host ranges (Laessøe, Lodge, Rogers, and Huhndorf, unpubl. data). The species known to be host-restricted were Camillea veruculospora on Miconia spp (Melastomataceae) Lodge and Laessøe, 1995), Xvlaria guareae on Guarea guidonia (Laessøe and Lodge, 1994) and Rosellinia bunodes, pathogen, on Coffea arabica and Psychotria berteriana (Rubiaceae) and Hibiscus (Malvaceae) (Lodge, 1996). In addition, five undescribed Anthostomella spp (a group that is often host- specific) were found only once by Huhndorf (unpubl. data) at El Verde in Puerto Rico, and these might eventually prove to have host preferences. Although the frequency of host-specificity in polypore (basidiomycete) wood decomposers is also likely to be low, the role of host diversity in contributing to the diversity of this group cannot be discounted (Lodge et al., 1995).

Tropical decomposer fungi

Estimates of fungal diversity

Our estimates of global fungal diversity are often based on extrapolations from better known temperate ecosystems to poorly known tropical ones. For example, because the fungi and plants in the British Isles were more thoroughly known, (Hawksworth, 1991) used the highest ratio of fungi to phanerogamic plant species (6:1) from a variety of comparisons to predict the number of all fungi in the British Isles and then to estimate that there were at least 1.5 million species of fungi in the world. The robustness of such extrapolations depends on consistency of ratios of phanerogams to fungi among different ecosystems, and the average distribution ranges of phanerogams versus fungi (Hammond, 1992). Both of these assumptions are sensitive to regional differences in the degree of host-specificity in fungi.

May (1980, 1988) hypothesized that, among insects and other organisms that depend on plants, host-specificity is more frequent in temperate forests that have high tree species dominance and low diversity as compared to many tropical forests in which tree dominance is low and diversity is high. For example, species richness can exceed 400 tree species per hectare in some lowland tropical forests (Valencia et al., 1994), and consequently host-specific fungi and insects may have difficulties in successful dispersal and colonization of their widely dispersed hosts. Despite the logic of May's (1988) hypothesis, several mycologists working in the tropics believe that Hawksworth's (1991) global estimate of 1.5 million fungal species is too low. For example, Smith and Waller (1992) estimated that there were at least one million fungal species on tropical plants alone based on their work in Brazil. Similarly, Pascoe (1990) estimated that there were at least ten times as many fungi as vascular plants based on work in Australia. The data summarized in this paper suggest that host-specificity and preferences sometimes occur where we would least expect it in tropical forests, such as among ascomycetes and microfungi that decompose leaf litter. Such host preferences can be so diffuse, however, that it will be difficult to establish the ratio of obligate fungi per plant host species in tropical forest.

Effects of natural and anthropogenic disturbances on microbial diversity

Biological legacies of anthropogenic and natural disturbances in tropical forests are being studied intensively at the Luquillo Long Term Ecological Research site in Puerto Rico. A16-ha gridded forest plot in subtropical wet forest at El Verde in the Luquillo Mountains has different land use histories, of which the most recent human disturbance occurred more than 60 years ago (Zimmerman *et al.*, 1994). Previous anthropogenic disturbance favoured colonization by secondary tree species that were differentially more susceptible to damage from Hurricane Hugo in 1989 (Zimmerman *et al.*, 1994; Willig *et al.*, 1996). Leaf litter of the secondary tree species was also found to decompose more rapidly than the late secondary and primary forest species (Zou *et al.*, 1995). Willig *et al.*, (1996) studied the entire grid, including areas that had previously been clearcut, and found that the activity and functional diversity of bacteria (in terms of enzymatic diversity and their abilities to degrade different substrates) increased significantly with increasing disturbance. Because anthropogenic disturbance had predisposed those forest areas to the effects of a subsequent natural hurricane disturbance, these disturbance factors were so tightly correlated that their effects could not be separated (Willig *et al.*, 1996).

Other efforts to study microbial diversity in the forest grid at El Verde have contrasted one area that had 80–100 % forest cover (light charcoal cutting) with another that had 50–80 % forest cover (former shade coffee plantation) in the aerial photographs of 1936. In

addition to the increased functional diversity of bacteria in the more disturbed part of the grid (Willig et al., 1996), there was an increase in species richness of dictyostelid slime molds, which primarily consume bacteria and are best described as predators of decomposers (Stevenson and Landolt, unpubl. data). Stevenson and Landolt (unpubl. data) cultured dictyostelids from leaf litter and found eight species in the area that had 50-80 % forest cover versus one species in the area that had over 80 % forest cover 60 years ago. It is not known how much the increase in habitat heterogeneity resulting from hurricane damage in the previously disturbed part of the grid contributed to dictyostelid diversity versus the correlated increased diversity of bacteria. Huhndorf (unpubl. data) found that some wood-inhabiting ascomycetes (e.g. two species of Cercophora) were restricted to the more disturbed part of the grid, and that these were generally 'weedy' widespread species that are commonly found in disturbed habitats. However, in contrast to bacteria and dictyostelid slime molds that were more speciose in the more disturbed part of the forest, Huhndorf also found more species of wood-inhabiting ascomycetes per sample in the least disturbed part of the grid. Although one might hypothesize that the higher diversity of tree species in the less disturbed forest contributed to greater ascomycete diversity, very few wood-inhabiting ascomycetes were strictly host-specific as discussed above. It is possible that subtle undetected preferences among wood-decomposer ascomycetes for groups of hosts could contribute to higher fungal diversity in more species-rich forest, as suggested for leaf decomposer fungi. Regardless of the controlling factors, preservation of some areas that have relatively undisturbed forest appears to be important for maintaining diversity of both wood and leaf decomposer fungi in the tropics.

Acknowledgements

The International Institute of Tropical Forestry, USDA Forest Service, provided travel support to present this paper at the meeting of the British Mycological Society. Research was partly supported by National Science Foundation grants BSR-9015961 to the University of Puerto Rico, and BSR-8811902 from the University of Puerto Rico and the International Institute of Tropical Forestry as part of the Long-Term Ecological Research Program in the Luquillo Experimental Forest.

References

- Bills, G.F. and Polishook, J.D. (1994) Abundance and diversity of microfungi in leaf litter of a lowland rain forest in Costa Rica. *Mycologia* **86**, 187–98.
- Coddington, J.A., Griswold, C.E., Davila, D.S., Penaranda, E. and Larcher, S.F. (1991) Designing and testing sampling protocols to estimate biodiversity in tropical ecosystems. In *The Unity of Evolutionary Biology: Proceedings of the Fourth International Congress of Systematic and Evolutionary Biology* (E.C. Dudley, ed.) Portland, OR: Dioscorides Press.
- Cornejo, F.J., Varela, A. and Wright, S.J. (1994) Tropical forest litter decomposition under seasonal drought: nutrient release, fungi and bacteria. *Oikos* **70**, 183–90.
- Cowley, G.T. (1970) Effect of radiation on the microfungal populations of six litter species in the Luquillo Experimental Forest. In A Tropical Rain Forest: a Study of Irradiation and Ecology at El Verde, Puerto Rico (H.T. Odum and R.F. Pigeon, eds) pp. F-25–8. US Atomic Energy Commission. Available from NTIS, U.S. Dept. of Commerce, Springfield, Virginia, USA.
- Hammond, P.M. (1992) Species inventory. In *Global Biodiversity: status of the Earth's living resources* (G. Groombridge, ed.) pp. 17–39. London: Chapman & Hall.

- Hawksworth, D.L. (1991) The fungal dimension of biodiversity: magnitude, significance and conservation. *Mycol. Res.* **95**, 641–55.
- Hawksworth, D.L. (1993) The tropical fungal biota: census, pertinence, prophylaxis, and prognosis. In Aspects of Tropical Mycology (S. Isaac et al., eds) pp. 265–93. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Hawksworth, D.L. and Colwell, R.R. (1992) Microbial Diversity 21: biodiversity amongst microorganisms and its relevance. *Biodiv. Conserv.* 1, 221–6.
- Hedger, J. (1985) Tropical agarics, resource relations and fruiting periodicity. In *Developmental Biology of Higher Plants* (D. Moore *et al.*, eds) pp. 41–86. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Holler, J.R., and Cowley, G.T. (1970) Response of soil, root, and litter microfungal populations to radiation. In A Tropical Rain Forest: A Study of Irradiation and Ecology at El Verde, Puerto Rico (H.T. Odum and R.F. Pigeon, eds) pp. F-35–9. US Atomic Energy Commission. Available from NTIS, U.S. Dept. of Commerce, Springfield, Virginia 22161, USA.
- Laessøe, T. and Lodge, D.J. (1994) Three host-specific Xylaria species. Mycologia 86, 436-46.
- Laessøe, T., Ryvarden, L., Watling, R. and Whalley, A.J.S. (1996) Saprotrophic fungi of the Guinea Congo Region. *Proc. Roy. Soc. Edinb.* **104B**, 335–47.
- Lodge, D.J. (1993) Nutrient cycling by fungi in wet tropical forests. In Aspects of Tropical Mycology (S. Isaac et al., eds) BMS Symposium Series 19, 37–57. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Lodge, D.J. (1996) Microorganisms. In *The Food Web of a Tropical Forest* (D.P. Reagan *et al.*, eds) pp. 54–108. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Lodge, D.J. and Cantrell, S. (1995) Fungal communities in wet tropical forests: variation in time and space. Can. J. Bot. 73, (suppl.), S 1391–8.
- Lodge, D.J. and Laessøe, T. (1995) Host preference in Camillea verruculospora. Mycologist 9, 146-8.
- Lodge, D.J., Chapela, I., Samuels, G. et al. (1995) A survey of patterns in fungal diversity. Mitteilungen der Eidgenossischen Forschungsanstalt fur Wald, Schnee und Landschaft 70, 157–73.
- Lodge, D.J., Fisher, P.J. and Sutton, B.C. (1996) Endophytic fungi of *Manilkara bidentata* leaves in Puerto Rico. *Mycologia* 88, 733–8.
- May, R.M. (1980) How many species? Phil. Trans. Roy. Soc. B330, 293-304.
- May, R.M. (1988) How many species are there on Earth? Science 241, 1441-9.
- Nisbet, L.J. and Fox, F.M. (1991) The importance of microbial biodiversity to biotechnology. In *The Biodiversity of Microorganisms and Invertebrates: Its Role in Sustainable Agriculture* (D.L. Hawksworth, ed.) pp. 229–44. Wallingford, UK: CAB International.
- Pascoe, I.G. (1990) History of systematic mycology in Australia. In *History of Systematic Botany in Australia* (P.S. Short, ed.) pp. 259–64. South Yarra, Australia: Australian Systematic Botany Society.
- Polishook, J.D., Bills, G.F. and Lodge, D.J. (1996) Microfungi from decaying leaves of two rain forest trees in Puerto Rico. J. Indust. Microbiol. Special Issue on Microbial Diversity 17, 284–94.
- Ryvarden, L. and Nuñez, M. (1992) Basidiomycetes in the canopy of an African rain forest. In *Biologie d'une canopée de fort équatoriale II*. (F. Hallé and O. Pascal, eds) pp. 116–18. Commun., Lyon.
- San Martín Gonzalez, F. and Rogers, J.D. (1989) A preliminary account of *Xylaria* of Mexico. *Mycotaxon* **34**, 283–373.
- Smith, D. and Waller, J.M. (1992) Culture collections of microorganisms: their importance in tropical plant pathology. *Fitopatologia Brasileira*.
- Valencia, R., Balslev, H. and Pax Y Miño, G. (1994) High tree alpha-diversity in Amazonian Ecuador. *Biodiv. Conserv.* **3**, 21–8.
- Watling, R. (1995) Assessment of fungal diversity: macromycetes, the problems. *Can. J. Bot.* **73** (suppl.), S15–24.
- Willig, M.R., Moorhead, D.L., Cox, S.B. and Zak, J.C. (1996) Functional diversity of soil bacterial communities in tabonuco forest: the interaction of anthropogenic and natural disturbance. *Biotropica* (suppl.) 4A, 471–83.

- Zimmerman, J.K., Everham, E.M. III, Waide, R.B., Lodge, D.J., Taylor, C.M. and Brokaw, N.V.L. (1994) Responses of tree species to hurricane winds in subtropical wet forest in Puerto Rico: implications for tropical tree life histories. J. Trop. Ecol. 82, 911–22.
- Zou, X., Zucca, C., Waide, R.B. and McDowell, W.H. (1995) Long-term influence of deforestation on tree species composition and litter dynamics of a tropical rain forest in Puerto Rico. *Forest Ecol. Manage.* **78**, 147–57.