#### Herbivoria de dossel e sucessão em uma floresta tropical sazonalmente seca no Brasil

#### Canopy herbivory and succession in a Brazilian tropical seasonally dry forest

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#### **RESUMO**

O padrão geral de herbivoria ao longo da sucessão foi descrito principalmente a partir de estudos em florestas temperadas e, principalmente, no sub-bosque. Este é um dos poucos estudos a documentar a herbivoria do dossel em relação aos estágios sucessionais de uma floresta tropical sazonalmente seca. A diversidade de herbívoros de vida livre (mastigadores e sugadores de seiva) e danos nas folhas causados por guildas de insetos (folívoros, minadores e galhadores) foram quantificados na copa de 117 árvores distribuídas em três áreas de estágios intermediário e três de estágio tardio de sucessão de uma floresta tropical sazonalmente seca, na Serra do Cipó, Minas Gerais. A riqueza de mastigadores e sugadores foi maior no estágio de sucessão tardia. A abundância de herbívoros sugadores de seiva também foi maior no estágio tardio, enquanto os insetos mastigadores foram mais abundantes na sucessão intermediária. O dano global das folhas foi maior no estágio intermediário de sucessão. Folivoria foi o tipo mais frequente de dano foliar em ambos os estágios de sucessão, sendo observada em 92,33% das folhas, seguido de mina foliar em 14,58% das folhas e galhas em 5,27% das folhas. Folivoria não mostrou diferença entre os estágios de sucessão, enquanto os minadores de folhas e as galhas

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apresentaram frequências mais altas no estágio intermediário. Esses resultados corroboram em grande parte o padrão anteriormente documentado para as florestas temperadas, de crescente diversidade de herbívoros e de diminuição do dano das folhas ao longo da sucessão. Estudos mais específicos em florestas tropicais, no entanto, não corroboraram o padrão encontrado em regiões temperadas. O presente estudo enfatiza a importância da amostragem através do dossel de múltiplas espécies de plantas e analisando as guildas de herbívoros individualmente para melhor compreensão da herbivoria de dossel em estágios sucessionais de florestas tropicais sazonalmente secas.

**PALAVRAS-CHAVE:** Estratificação da floresta, floresta decídua, folivoria, guildas herbívoras, regeneração natural.

#### ABSTRACT

The general pattern of herbivory throughout succession has been drawn chiefly from temperate forest studies and mainly at the understorey. This is one of the very few studies to document canopy herbivory in relation to successional stages of tropical seasonally dry forests. Diversity of free-feeding herbivores (chewing and sap-sucking) and leaf damage caused by insect guilds (folivores, leaf miners and galling insects) were quantified in the canopy of 117 trees distributed in three areas of intermediate stages and three of late stage of succession of a tropical seasonally dry forest, in Serra do Cipó, Minas Gerais, Brazil. The richness of the chewing and sap-sucking guilds of herbivores was higher in late succession stages. The abundance of sap-sucking herbivores was also higher in the late stage, whereas chewing insects were more abundant in the intermediate succession. Overall leaf damage was higher in the earlier stage of succession. Folivory was the most frequent type of leaf damage in both succession stages and was present in 92.33% of the leaves, followed by leaf mining in 14.58% of the leaves, and galls in 5.27% of the leaves. Folivory showed no difference between successional stages, while leaf miners and gallers showed higher frequencies in the intermediate stage. These results largely corroborate the pattern earlier documented for temperate forests, of increasing diversity of herbivores and decreasing leaf damage across succession. More specific studies in tropical forests, however, did not corroborate the pattern found in temperate regions. The present study emphasises the importance of sampling across canopy of multiple plant species and analysing herbivore guilds individually for better understanding herbivory in tropical dry forests.

**KEYWORDS:** Deciduous forest, folivory, forest layers, herbivore guilds, natural regeneration.

## **INTRODUCTION**

Tropical dry forests (TDFs) are the major and most threatened of all tropical forests (Janzen, 1988; Sánchez-Azofeifa *et al.*, 2005), and are recognized as biodiversity "hotspots" (Miles *et al.*, 2006). Yet, they remain the least studied ecosystem at the tropics (Quesada *et al.*, 2009). TDFs present fertile soils and are valuable source of timber (Espírito-Santo *et al.*, 2009), therefore, these ecosystems have been historically preferred areas for agriculture and human settlement in Mesoamerica, the Caribbean, and South America (Murphy & Lugo, 1986; Maass, 1995; González, 2003).

In Latin America nearly 66% of TDFs have already been lost (Miles *et al.*, 2006; Quesada *et al.*, 2009), and mosaics of forests at different successional stages are the most frequent scenarios (Sanchez-Azofeifa *et al.*, 2005; Quesada *et al.*, 2009). Therefore, there is an urgent need for understanding the regeneration processes of TDFs (Quesada *et al.*, 2009). However, current knowledge on secondary succession of tropical forests regards mostly to plant diversity and composition (Corbet, 1995; Quesada *et al.*, 2009). Least understood remain the changes in insect composition and diversity throughout successional stages (Edwards-Jones & Brown, 1993; Siemann *et al.*, 1999). Most previous works claim that insect diversity increases throughout succession following increments in plant diversity, habitat structural succession following increments in plant diversity, habitat structural succession following increments in plant diversity, habitat structural succession following increments in plant diversity.

complexity and resource availability (Southwood *et al.*, 1979; Strong *et al.*, 1984; Corbet, 1995; Siemann *et al.*, 1999; Lewinsohn *et al.*, 2005). In the same way, herbivore population density and leaf damage decreases with succession due to increasing quantitative plant defenses and natural enemies (Feeny, 1976; Godfray, 1985; Edwards-Jones & Brown, 1993; Lewinsohn *et al.*, 2005), and decreasing leaf nitrogen content (Coley *et al.*, 1985). Three aspects concerning this general

pattern call for further investigation, and they were the motivation for the present study. The first one is that current knowledge on herbivore distribution and herbivory patterns throughout succession derives mostly from temperate forest studies, and may not apply to TDFs (Quesada et al., 2009; Silva et al., 2011). The second is that a general pattern may be unrealistic as different insect guilds can exhibit different responses to the successional process according to specialization on their host plants and responsiveness to habitat changes (Golden & Crist, 1999; Godfray & Lawton, 2001; Crist et al., 2006; Martinko et al., 2006; Neves et al., 2010a; Silva et al., 2011, Neves et al. 2014). The third aspect is that the pattern discussed here was mainly drawn from understorey surveys. Yet, the canopy-understorey gradient affects herbivores distribution (Parker, 1995; Basset, 2001; Basset et al., 2003; Novotny et al., 2003, Neves et al. 2014) and, as it is less intense in earlier stages of succession, comparisons of herbivory between successional stages based on understorey data may be biased.

The aim of the present study was to analyse, in a TDF, canopy herbivory by different guilds (chewing, sap-sucking, leaf miners and galls) and distribution of herbivore insects in trees of different successional stages. Specifically, (i) determine how the richness and abundance of different insect guilds (chewing, sap-sucking) are affected by succession; (ii) determine how the levels of herbivory by different insect guilds (folivores, leaf miners and gallers) are affected by succession.

#### Methods

**Study site**: Fieldwork was carried out in April 2009, at the end of the wet season, in Serra do Cipó, Minas Gerais, Brazil. This region is located at the southern portion of the Espinhaço Mountain Range, which is dominated by Cerrado (Savannah-like vegetation) and rupestrian grasslands, a rocky outcrop vegetation (Eiten, 1978; Giulietti *et al.*, 1987). The climate is marked by dry winters and rainy

summers (Schulz & Machado, 2000). Fragments of secondary dry forests are usually found surrounded by pasturelands or, at the highest elevations, mixed with rupestrian grasslands. We compared two natural fragments of TDFs (2.5 ha per site) of different successional stages (elevation c. 900m asl, 19°20'S, 43°36'W; 19°19'S, 43°36'W). The fragments formerly comprised a single unit that was separated by anthropogenic activities. These forests were primarily used for logging and mining in the past, and currently are in processes of natural regeneration. Successional stages were identified based on land use history (see Nassar et al., 2008) and confirmed by floristic composition and structure (Coelho et al., 2012). The earlier succession fragment is about 15 years old, comprised 23 tree species (11 families) with average height of  $6.30 (\pm 1.62 \text{ SD})$  and basal area of 17.8 m<sup>2</sup>·ha<sup>-1</sup> forming a single forest layer. The fragment in late stage of succession has been under protection for nearly 30 years, presented 38 tree species (18 families) with average height of 7.77 (±2.93 SD) and basal area of 29.3 m<sup>2</sup>·ha<sup>-1</sup> (Coelho et al., 2012). In the older fragment, the canopy and understory layers are fairly well distinguishable and emergent trees of up to 20 meters were frequently found, in opposition to the fragment of earlier succession.

**Sampling of free-feeding herbivores**: To compare the richness and abundance of the free-feeding herbivores between the successional stages, chewing and sap-sucking insects were sampled through the beating method (see Basset *et al.*, 1997; Neves *et al.*, 2010b), at the upper forest canopy, combining single-rope and free climbing techniques to access the treetops (Perry, 1978; Lowman & Wittman, 1996). The beating method consists of vigorously beating with a wooden stick 10 times on each of three branches haphazardly chosen around the crown of each tree, totaling 30 hits per individual plant. In each of the two successional stages, three plots of 20 x 50 m (0.1 ha each) were established (for details see Nassar *et al.*, 2008). Plots of the same successional stage were located 0.2-0.5 km apart from each other. Based on the plant-insect interactions literature, this distance is considered long enough to avoid pseudo-replication

between plots (see Silva et al., 2011). Each successional plot of the same age was located under similar topographic, microclimatic and soil characteristics (See Madeira et al., 2009), thus reducing variation in physical conditions that could affect succession. In each plot, 17 to 20 trees (>15 cm dbh) of different heights were arbitrarily chosen for sampling regardless of species. In total, 117 trees were sampled, 57 at the earlier stage (10 species) and 60 at the late stage (17 species). The collected herbivorous insects were sorted into sap-sucking and chewing guilds (see Weis & Berenbaum, 1989) and identified to family level (Borror et al., 2002). The sap-feeding guild comprised all adults and juveniles of the Hemiptera herbivore families (Auchenorryncha, Sternorryncha and Heteroptera; see Moran & Southwood, 1982). Juveniles of Lepidoptera and adults and juveniles of Coleoptera and Orthoptera composed the chewing guild of herbivores (see Moran & Southwood, 1982). Herbivores were separated into morphospecies using external morphological characters. All collected insects were submitted to the thematic zoological collection of the Laboratório de Biologia da Conservação, at the Universidade Estadual de Montes Claros. Insect species richness per tree was estimated by counting the number of morphospecies, while abundance was estimated through the accumulated number of individuals per tree

**Leaf damage assessment**: To quantify leaf damage caused by different insect guilds (i.e. folivores, leaf miners and galls), 30 mature leaves were randomly collected from three branches around the crown of each tree (10 leaves per branch). The frequency of damaged leaves was quantified by counting the number of leaves "substantially damaged" (>10% of leaf area lost; following Coley & Aide, 1991), leaves presenting galls, and leaves with mines.

Logistic regression analyses using GENMOD were performed to test the effect of successional stages (independent variable) on the richness and abundance of sap-sucking and chewing herbivores and on the frequency of leaf damage (dependent variables). Because the distribution of these variables did not follow a normal distribution, we used a Poisson or Binomial distribution for the dependent variables, with a logarithmic link function using the GENMOD procedure from SAS (Stokes *et al.*, 2000). A LSMeans test was used for a posteriori comparisons (SAS, 2000).

## Results

**Richness and abundance of free-feeding herbivores**: In total, 356 free-feeding herbivore insects (276 chewers and 80 sap-sucking), belonging to 16 families, were collected, on an average of  $3.86 (\pm 0.37)$ 

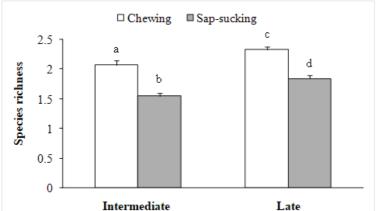


Figure 1 - Average richness of the chewing (white bars) and sap-sucking (grey bars) guilds of free-feeding insect herbivores in trees from intermediate and late successional stages of a tropical dry forest, in Minas Gerais, Brazil. Different letters indicate statistically significant *post hoc* differences (P < 0.05). SE) insects per tree. The most abundant families were Cicadelidae and Curculionidae, for sap-suckings and chewing respectively. There was a significant increase in richness of both chewing and sap-sucking herbivores with succession ( $x^2 = 4.5$ ; d.f. = 1, P < 0.03; Figure 1). Chewing insects were more abundant in the earlier stage of succession ( $x^2 = 7.6$ ; d.f. = 1, P < 0.005; Figure 2). On the other hand, the abundance of the sap-sucking guild was higher in the later stage ( $x^2 = 7.6$ ; d.f. = 1, P < 0.005; Figure 2).

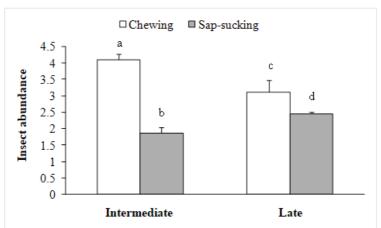


Figure 2 - Average abundance of the chewing (white bars) and sap-sucking (grey bars) guilds of free-feeding insect herbivores in trees of intermediate and late successional stages of a tropical dry forest, in Minas Gerais, Brazil. Different letters indicate statistically significant *post hoc* differences (P < 0.05).

**Leaf damage**: Very few leaves (5.64%) were completely free from damage by insect. Folivory was the most frequent type of leaf damage in both succession stages ( $x^2 = 243.5$ ; d.f. = 2, P < 0.0001; Figure 3), and it was observed on 92.33% of the sampled leaves, followed by miners (14.58%) and galls (5.27%). There was a higher frequency of the overall leaf damage (folivory, galls, and miners combined) in the earlier stage of succession ( $x^2 = 5.2$ ; d.f. = 1, P = 0.02; Figure 3), and higher frequencies of leaf miners and galls in this stage than in the later successional stage ( $x^2 = 243.5$ ; d.f. = 2, P < 0.0001; Figure 3). Folivory did not differ between successional stages (Figure 3).

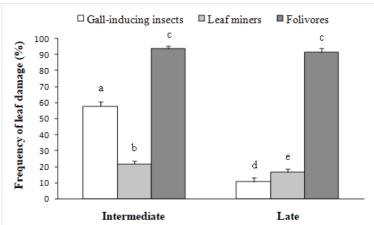


Figure 3 - Average percentage of leaves damaged by gall inducing insects (white bars), leaf miners (light grey bars) and folivores (grey bars) in trees of intermediate and late successional stages of a tropical dry forest in Minas Gerais, Brazil. Different letters indicate statistically significant *post hoc* differences (P < 0.05).

#### Discussion

The increase in richness of both chewing and sap-sucking herbivores with succession corroborates the general trend identified for temperate forests (Southwood *et al.*, 1979; Strong *et al.*, 1984; Corbet, 1995; Siemann *et al.*, 1999; Lewinsohn *et al.*, 2005). Because each plant species potentially represents a different resource for herbivores, insect richness is expected to track changes in plant-species richness (Southwood *et al.*, 1979; Strong *et al.*, 1984; Corbet, 1995; Denno & Perfect 1994; Siemann *et al.*, 1999; Cuevas-Reyes *et al.*, 2004). However, factors correlated to plant species diversity, such as structural complexity and vertical stratification, are likely be the underlying causes of the observed pattern (Southwood *et al.*, 1979; Corbet, 1995; Siemann *et al.*, 1999; Basset *et al.*, 2003; Madeira *et al.*, 2009). Forest vertical stratification increases with succession as canopy is shaped (Guariguata & Ostertag, 2001; Basset *et al.*, 2003; Lewinsohn *et al.*, 2005; Madeira *et al.*, 2009). Differences in illumination,

temperature, relative humidity and water condensation between upper canopy and lower layers of a forest create different vertical strata. This leads to increased niche diversity and influences vertical distribution of herbivore insects (Parker, 1995; Basset, 2001; Basset *et al.*, 2003; Novotny *et al.*, 2003, Neves *et al.* 2014). Consequently, sampling only in understory underestimates richness and abundance of late succession forests. Comparisons of herbivory between successional stages of tropical forests ought to include canopy data.

The higher abundance of chewing insects in the earlier stage of succession is in accordance with the "resource availability hypothesis" (Coley et al., 1985): plants in earlier succession stages would have greater growth rates and lower levels of defence compared to later stages, allowing specialist herbivores to have greater intrinsic rate of increase (Lawton & McNeill, 1979; Godfray, 1985; Edwards-Jones & Brown, 1993). Also, the increase in abundance of natural enemies throughout succession intensifies top-down limitation to herbivore population size (Lewinsohn et al., 2005). On the other hand, higher abundance of sap-sucking guild in the later stage is most likely because sap-sucking insects are not much affected by chemical defences as they feed directly on sap assimilates (Strong et al., 1984). Apparently, different guilds can exhibit different responses to succession (Neves et al., 2010b; Silva et al., 2011, Neves et al. 2014). Some herbivore insects are especially responsive to ontogenetic alterations in nutritional and defensive traits of their hosts across succession (Campos et al., 2006; Fonseca et al., 2006; Costa et al., 2011), while others respond mainly to changes in plant size, phenology and architecture (Strong et al., 1984; Espírito-Santo et al., 2007).

Folivory rates were very high in both succession stages. TDFs usually suffer greater folivory than wetter forests, apparently as a result of a lower investment in chemical defences in their short-lived leaves (Dirzo & Boege, 2008). In spite of the greater abundance of chewers in the earlier stage of succession, folivory did not differ between stages. The higher frequency of the overall leaf damage (folivory, galls, and miners combined) in the earlier stage of succession is therefore due to higher frequencies of leaf miners and galls in this successional stage.

Discrete measurements can lead to a considerable underestimation of the leaf damage levels (Lowman, 1984). Nevertheless, for TDFs, this could possibly be less problematic than for other tropical forest types since that most plant species flush the new leaves simultaneously at the beginning of the wet season, with virtually no posterior production, and tend to retain them until the next dry season (Ackerly, 1996; Kikuzawa, 1983; Morellato *et al.*, 2000). As a result, most leaf damage occurs in synchrony at the beginning of the season, when the soft young leaves are launched (Janzen & Waterman, 1984; Filip *et al.*, 1995; Boege, 2005). Thus, a discrete measurement of the accumulated damage at the end of the season should account for most of the herbivory.

In general, the results reported here largely corroborate earlier studies carried out in temperate forests, reporting greater diversity (Southwood *et al.*, 1979; Strong *et al.*, 1984; Corbet, 1995; Siemann *et al.*, 1999) but lower frequency of leaf damage and lower density of herbivore insects (Godfray, 1985; Edwards-Jones & Brown, 1993) in the later stages of succession. Conversely, more specific studies on herbivory across tropical forest succession found different trends (Brown & Ewel, 1987; Lepš *et al.*, 2001; Poorter *et al.*, 2004; Silva *et al.*, 2011, Neves *et al.* 2014). This disparity may be an outcome of differences in the methods applied: samples here were taken at the canopy of multiple host plant species and the herbivore insect guilds were approached separately.

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