S04-3 Birds as pollinators and dispersers: a case study from New Zealand

Sandra H. ANDERSON1, Dave KELLY2, Alastair W. ROBERTSON3, Jenny J. LADLEY2, John G. INNES4
1. School of Geography and Environmental Sciences, University of Auckland, Private Bag 92019, Auckland, New Zealand; sh.anderson@auckland.ac.nz
2. Plant and Microbial Sciences Dept., University of Canterbury, Private Bag 4800, Christchurch, New Zealand; d.kelly@botn.canterbury.ac.nz
3. Ecology Dept., Massey University, Private Bag 11222, Palmerston North, New Zealand; A.W.Robertson@massey.ac.nz
4. Landcare Research, Private Bag 3127, Hamilton, New Zealand; InnesJ@LandcareResearch.co.nz

Abstract One special legacy of New Zealand’s long biogeographic isolation is a distinctive flora and fauna. The flora is characterized by a high percentage of trees (33% of species), a high percentage of bird-dispersed species (72% of trees), and a low incidence of ornithophily (4% of genera). In the prehuman avifauna, twelve species dispersed seed, and five were pollinators. Native ecosystems have since suffered clearance of 71% of forests, extensive hunting, and the introduction of 14 now-widespread predatory or browsing mammals. As a result, pollinating and seed dispersing birds are either regionally or nationally rare (7 species), or extinct on the New Zealand mainland (6 species). Six of seven bird-pollinated plant species examined so far are pollen-limited, to some extent, at mainland sites. Three of eight fruiting species studied are suffering reduced dispersal on the mainland, where large (>1.4 cm) diameter fruits now depend on a single disperser, the New Zealand pigeon, Hemiphaga novaeseelandiae. Conservation of these plants requires management of native bird populations, especially the tui (Prosthemadera novaeseelandiae), bellbird (Anthornis melanura), and the pigeon to avert long-term shifts in vegetation composition. Intensive predator control has been shown to increase the densities of mutualist bird species, suggesting that New Zealand conservation managers can assist bird-serviced plant populations by controlling predators, a third-order ecological manipulation.

Key words Bird pollination, Bird dispersal, Mutualisms, New Zealand

1 Introduction

New Zealand provides an interesting test for the importance of birds as pollinating and seed-dispersing mutualists. The woody flora is overwhelmingly fleshy-fruited, and ornithophilous flowers (large, red, copious, unscented, with dilute nectar) are a small but important botanical element. Aside from one nectarivorous bat (Arkins et al., 1999) and several lizards (Whitaker, 1987), birds are the only vertebrates filling the two roles. Human influence has greatly reduced the density and diversity of native birds throughout the two main islands, hereafter the “mainland” (Brockie, 1992). Thirty-nine exotic birds have established themselves but few are important dispersers or pollinators. Therefore, if native birds are important to ecosystem function, there should be evidence in New Zealand of floristic change resulting from the decline of native birds.

Clout and Hay (1989) reviewed the relative importance of avian dispersal and pollination mutualisms in New Zealand. They stressed the negative effect of avian extinctions and range reductions on dispersal mutualisms, particularly for large-seeded trees which now rely on a single, possibly keystone, disperser, the New Zealand pigeon (Hemiphaga novaeseelandiae). Here we show that reduction in bird densities is also causing widespread pollination failure on the mainland. We argue that pollination has been affected as much as dispersal, and that two honeyeater species, the tui (Prosthemadera novaeseelandiae) and bellbird (Anthornis melanura), are probably also keystone species as the predominant pollination and dispersal mutualists on the mainland.

2 Prehuman situation

Before the arrival of man, almost all of New Zealand was forested. This is reflected in the flora, with a high percentage of trees (33% of species) compared to a mean of 9% for the temperate zone worldwide (Atkinson and Cameron, 1993; Begon et al., 1996, p 34). Unusually for a temperate area, the woody flora is overwhelmingly fleshy-fruited: 72% of trees cf. 17%–47% at comparable northern latitudes (Burrows, 1994). Plants with typically ornithophilous flowers are relatively few (4% of genera) but nonetheless prominent (Castro and Robertson, 1997, Webb et al., 1999). However, birds also visit and pollinate many flowers with non-ornithophilous syndromes, especially those of canopy trees and winter-flowering plants (Castro and Robertson, 1997; Anderson, 2003).
Famously, New Zealand lacked terrestrial mammals apart from several ground-foraging bats; and the 67 species of native forest birds filled many of the roles that mammals do elsewhere (Atkinson and Millener, 1991). Although Clout and Hay (1989) list 31 species which ate fruit, many were opportunistich insectivores or acted primarily as seed predators (moa, parrots). Holdaway (1989) and Atkinson and Millener (1991) record twelve bird species as responsible for most seed dispersal: piopio (Turnagra capensis), two moas with small gizzard stones (Euryapteryx spp.), huia (Heteralocha acutirostris), saddleback (Philoeusturnus carunculatus), New Zealand pigeon, tui, bellbird, hihi (Notiomystis cincta), kokako (Callaeas cinerea), whitehead (Mohoua albicilla) and the flightless weka (Gallirallus australis). Of eight flower-visiting species, the three putative Meliphasidae (tui, bellbird and hihi) were the most important pollinators (Craig et al., 1981; Angehr, 1986). The kaka (Nestor meridionalis) and saddleback also pollinated some flowers, while whiteheads and two parakeets (Cyanoramphus spp.) did so incidentally. This is in contrast to Australia, which has about 100 species of flower-visiting birds including nearly 70 species of Meliphasidae (Ford et al., 1979; Pyke, 1980).

3 Human impacts

Since human arrival some 700 years ago, forest cover has fallen to 23% of land area (Taylor and Smith, 1997: 8.27), and the remaining forests have been affected by introduced mammalian herbivores (Veblen and Stewart, 1982). Over the same time, there have been massive extinctions and range reductions in the avifauna, with 45% of native bird species eliminated from the mainland and 29% going extinct globally, largely due to introduced mammalian predators (Holdaway, 1989; King, 1990; Holdaway et al., 2001).

Of the avian pollinators, the hihi and saddleback are now extinct on the mainland, while the kaka, tui and bellbird are in lower numbers in smaller ranges there (Bull et al., 1985). None of the exotic birds introduced since are significant pollinators, although the European starling (Sturnus vulgaris) and recently self-introduced silvereye (Zosterops lateralis) pollinate some flowers (Delph and Lively, 1985; O’Donnell and Dilks, 1994).

Four avian dispersers of seed are now extinct. Of those remaining, the hihi and saddleback are confined to predator-free offshore islands, the kokako and weka have restricted distributions, the New Zealand pigeon is widespread but reduced in numbers, and the tui, bellbird and whitehead are absent from parts of the mainland as well. Of the introduced species, all widespread, the silvereye, European starling, Eurasian blackbird (Turdus merula), song thrush (Turdus philomelos), and common myna (Acridotheres tristis) also disperse seed (O’Donnell and Dilks, 1994).

4 Current status of pollination mutualisms

Work on current pollinator service to flowering plants shows that inadequate visitation by birds is resulting in a fall in seed set. This is apparent from data for the bird-pollinated forest shrub, Rhabdothamnus solandri (Gesneriaceae), which we studied at two mainland sites near Auckland, where only the tui is present, and at one offshore bird sanctuary (Little Barrier Island), where all extant native bird pollinators are abundant. We performed three pollination treatments: un-manipulated flowers accessible to birds, bagged flowers from which all pollinators were excluded, and hand-pollinated flowers. Fruit set in un-manipulated flowers (67%) on the bird sanctuary was almost as high as for hand-pollinated flowers (70%), showing that pollen servicing by birds was very thorough.

In contrast, un-manipulated fruit set (mean 16%) at both mainland sites was far lower than that for hand-pollinated flowers (83%). Birds visiting Rhabdothamnus flowers leave marks on the anther disk, and examination of flowers showed that 83% of flowers had been visited on the bird sanctuary, compared to 20% on the mainland. Evidently, inadequate visitation by avian pollinators is a primary contributor to low fruit set on the mainland. Moreover, ripening fruits contained more seed on the bird sanctuary (395 seeds per fruit) than on the mainland (168). The combined effect of lower fruit set and fewer seeds per fruit on the mainland produces a seed crop in Rhabdothamnus that is only 10% of production at sites where prehuman bird densities still exist.

Pollination failure is not restricted to Rhabdothamnus. Of seven bird-pollinated plants that were tested, only one, the self-compatible Alepis flavidus, was found still pollinated adequately at all sampling sites (Table 1). We defined inadequate pollination as a “pollination index” of < 50%, i.e. un-manipulated fruit set was less than halfway between that for pollinator-excluded flowers (the worst-case scenario) and hand-pollinated flowers (the best case). Overall, pollination was inadequate at about half the sites; and in most cases there is evidence that low bird densities are the primary cause.

The reproduction of non-ornithophilous flowering plants pollinated by birds may also be compromised. Due to the decline in the avifauna, there is a widespread failure

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Species</th>
<th>Sites with PI &lt; 50% (n sites)</th>
<th>Source*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Peraxilla tetraptera</td>
<td>69% (29)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peraxilla colensoi</td>
<td>30% (10)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rhabdothamnus solandri</td>
<td>100% (2)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fuchsia perscandens</td>
<td>100% (2)</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sophora microphylla</td>
<td>55% (11)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fuchsia excorticata</td>
<td>22% (18)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alepis flavidus</td>
<td>0% (1)</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Sources: Robertson et al., 1999; this paper; Montgomery et al., 2001; Ladley et al., 1997.
of bird-pollination mutualisms on the New Zealand mainland. Some species, in particular the mistletoes (Peraxilla spp.), are entirely reliant on reproduction by seed (Robertson et al., 1999). It needs to be stressed that the effects of falls in seed production from such causes are not immediately obvious because most woody plants are long-lived; but ultimately they can lead to serious shifts in vegetation composition.

5 Current status of dispersal mutualisms

In several ways, seed dispersal seems to be less at risk than pollination. There are more widespread species of seed-dispersing birds on the mainland (New Zealand pigeon, tui, bellbird, whitehead, silvereye, European starling, Eurasian blackbird, song thrush, common myna) than pollinating birds (tui, bellbird, silvereye, European starling). Although the dispersal of seeds (> 1.4 cm diameter) of large-seeded trees may be limited to the New Zealand pigeon, which only it can swallow, only six tree species are so affected (Clout and Hay, 1989). Introduced mammals such as brush-tailed possums (Trichosurus vulpecula) may also disperse some large-seeded fruits (Williams et al., 2000).

Work on seed-disperser services to plants on the mainland shows that while dispersal of some fruiting plants (Peraxilla spp., Alepis flavidula, Topeia antarctica, and Ileostylys micranthus) is adequate in most seasons (Ladley and Kelly, 1996), it has been limited by others in the decline in the numbers of native birds. Comparisons for Pittosporum crassifolium between mainland sites near Auckland where only the tui is present and an offshore bird sanctuary (Tiritiri Matangi Island) where all extant native bird dispersers are abundant shows that, despite an equivalent visitation rate by birds, seed dispersal is significantly lower on the mainland (20%) than on the sanctuary (94%). This reflects the inability of introduced bird species at the mainland site to effectively disperse the seed. Similar studies of Fuchsia excorticata and Rhopalosylys sapida near Wellington also show that a larger proportion of fruits fall undispersed from plants on the mainland than on a neighboring bird sanctuary, Kapiti Island (McNutt, 1998).

Some plants appear to regenerate from undispersed fruit in the vicinity of the parent (Burrows, 1994; Bell, 1996), while others may not (Ladley and Kelly, 1996; Trass, 2000). Without knowing its frequency, we cannot fully evaluate the consequences of poor dispersal service.

6 Restoring mutualism service

Pollination and dispersal services may be restored on the New Zealand mainland if the representation and numbers of key bird species can be raised. In the last decade, intensive control of introduced mammal pests, especially brush-tailed possums, stoats (Mustela erminea) and ship rats (Rattus rattus), has frequently increased native bird numbers, including the tui, bellbird and New Zealand pigeon (James and Clout, 1996; Innes et al., 1999). Sustained control of mammal pests is difficult and expensive, and currently confined to areas under 6000 ha (King, 1984; Saunders and Norton, 2001); but options are widening rapidly, including the use of mammal-proof fences (Clapperton and Day, 2001).

7 Conclusions: birds as keystones in New Zealand?

Although Clout and Hay (1989) have argued that pollination failure was likely to have a much less serious effect on the New Zealand flora than seed dispersal failure, it is now clear that pollination failure is a widespread problem for many native plants. The New Zealand temperate flora was unusually reliant on avian mutualists, and severe reductions in the avifauna are having downstream effects on plants. That both pollination and dispersal are continuing to function on the mainland is largely due to three surviving endemic species: tui, bellbird and New Zealand pigeon. Of these, the first two act as both pollinators and dispersers, and despite their low biomass per hectare, are crucial for continued ecosystem function. They could justifiably be called keystone species, and their continued protection is probably necessary to prevent large-scale, long-term changes in the surviving native forests of New Zealand.

Acknowledgements We thank Merily Merrett and Paul Petersen for help with field work, Richard Holdaway for comments on the draft, and the Public Good Science Fund for funding.

References


