

See discussions, stats, and author profiles for this publication at: <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/311667612>

A global map of roadless areas and their conservation status

Article in *Science* · December 2016

DOI: 10.1126/science.aaf7166

CITATIONS

262

READS

4,342

10 authors, including:



Pierre L. Ibisch

Hochschule für nachhaltige Entwicklung Eberswalde

201 PUBLICATIONS 3,023 CITATIONS

SEE PROFILE



Monika T. Hoffmann

Hochschule für nachhaltige Entwicklung Eberswalde

12 PUBLICATIONS 273 CITATIONS

SEE PROFILE



Stefan Kreft

Hochschule für nachhaltige Entwicklung Eberswalde

37 PUBLICATIONS 661 CITATIONS

SEE PROFILE



Vassiliki I. Kati

University of Ioannina

148 PUBLICATIONS 2,481 CITATIONS

SEE PROFILE

Some of the authors of this publication are also working on these related projects:



Valuing primary forests: <http://primaryforest.org/> [View project](#)



Artificial feeding of wildlife [View project](#)

3. H. E. Brooks, G. W. Carbin, P. T. Marsh, *Science* **346**, 349–352 (2014).
4. J. Sander, J. F. Eichner, E. Faust, M. Steuer, *Weather Clim. Soc.* **5**, 317–331 (2013).
5. J. B. Elsner, S. C. Elsner, T. H. Jagger, *Clim. Dyn.* **45**, 651–659 (2015).
6. M. K. Tippett, J. E. Cohen, *Nat. Commun.* **7**, 10668 (2016).
7. J. B. Elsner, T. H. Jagger, H. M. Widen, D. R. Chavas, *Environ. Res. Lett.* **9**, 024018 (2014).
8. S. M. Verbout, H. E. Brooks, L. M. Leslie, D. M. Schultz, *Weather Forecast.* **21**, 86–93 (2006).
9. H. E. Brooks, N. Dotzek, in *Climate Extremes and Society*, H. F. Diaz, R. Murnane, Eds. (Cambridge Univ. Press, New York, 2007), pp. 35–54.
10. E. D. Robinson, R. J. Trapp, M. E. Baldwin, *J. Appl. Meteorol. Climatol.* **52**, 2147–2161 (2013).
11. M. K. Tippett, *Geophys. Res. Lett.* **41**, 6956–6961 (2014).
12. J. T. Allen, M. K. Tippett, A. H. Sobel, *Nat. Geosci.* **8**, 278–283 (2015).
13. M. Lu, M. Tippett, U. Lall, *Geophys. Res. Lett.* **42**, 4224–4231 (2015).
14. R. J. Trapp, N. S. Diffenbaugh, A. Gluhovsky, *Geophys. Res. Lett.* **36**, L01703 (2009).
15. N. S. Diffenbaugh, M. Scherer, R. J. Trapp, *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **110**, 16361–16366 (2013).
16. S. J. Weaver, S. Baxter, A. Kumar, *J. Clim.* **25**, 6666–6683 (2012).
17. D. B. Enfield, A. M. Mestas-Nuñez, P. J. Trimble, *Geophys. Res. Lett.* **28**, 2077–2080 (2001).
18. A. Clement *et al.*, *Science* **350**, 320–324 (2015).
19. N. J. Mantua, S. R. Hare, Y. Zhang, J. M. Wallace, R. C. Francis, *Bull. Am. Meteorol. Soc.* **78**, 1069–1079 (1997).
20. E. Agee, J. Larson, S. Childs, A. Marmo, *J. Appl. Meteorol. Climatol.* **55**, 1681–1697 (2016).
21. R. J. Trapp, K. A. Hoogewind, *J. Clim.* **29**, 5251–5265 (2016).

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors thank A. Rhimes and K. McKinnon for suggestions on the use of quantile regression with count data. We thank two reviewers who provided constructive and helpful comments. M.K.T. and C.L. were partially supported by a Columbia University Research Initiatives for Science and Engineering (RISE) award; Office of Naval Research awards N00014-12-1-0911 and N00014-16-1-2073; NOAA's Climate Program Office's Modeling, Analysis, Predictions, and Projections program award NA140AR4310185; and the Willis Research Network. J.E.C. was partially supported by U.S. National Science Foundation grant DMS-1225529 and thanks P. K. Rogerson for assistance during this work. The views expressed herein are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the views of any of the sponsoring agencies. The study was led by M.K.T.; calculations were carried out and the manuscript was drafted by M.K.T. C.L. prepared the environmental data. All authors were involved with designing the research, analyzing the results, and revising and editing the manuscript. All the authors declare no competing interests. Correspondence and material requests should be addressed to M.K.T. U.S. tornado report data come from NOAA's Storm Prediction Center www.spc.noaa.gov/wcm. North American Regional Reanalysis data are provided by the NOAA/Office of Oceanic and Atmospheric Research/Earth System Research Laboratory Physical Sciences Division, Boulder, Colorado, USA, from their website at www.esrl.noaa.gov/psd and the Data Support Section of the Computational and Information Systems Laboratory at the National Center for Atmospheric Research (NCAR). NCAR is supported by grants from the National Science Foundation.

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS

www.sciencemag.org/content/354/6318/1419/suppl/DC1
Materials and Methods
Figs. S1 to S5
Tables S1 and S2
References (22–29)

4 August 2016; accepted 17 November 2016
Published online 1 December 2016
10.1126/science.aah7393

CONSERVATION

A global map of roadless areas and their conservation status

Pierre L. Ibisch,^{1,2*} Monika T. Hoffmann,¹ Stefan Kreft,^{1,2} Guy Pe'er,^{2,3,4} Vassiliki Kati,^{2,5} Lisa Biber-Freudenberger,^{1,6} Dominick A. DellaSala,^{7,8} Mariana M. Vale,^{9,10} Peter R. Hobson,^{1,2,11} Nuria Selva^{12*}

Roads fragment landscapes and trigger human colonization and degradation of ecosystems, to the detriment of biodiversity and ecosystem functions. The planet's remaining large and ecologically important tracts of roadless areas sustain key refugia for biodiversity and provide globally relevant ecosystem services. Applying a 1-kilometer buffer to all roads, we present a global map of roadless areas and an assessment of their status, quality, and extent of coverage by protected areas. About 80% of Earth's terrestrial surface remains roadless, but this area is fragmented into ~600,000 patches, more than half of which are <1 square kilometer and only 7% of which are larger than 100 square kilometers. Global protection of ecologically valuable roadless areas is inadequate. International recognition and protection of roadless areas is urgently needed to halt their continued loss.

The impact of roads on the surrounding landscape extends far beyond the roads themselves. Direct and indirect environmental impacts include deforestation and fragmentation, chemical pollution, noise disturbance, increased wildlife mortality due to car collisions, changes in population gene flow, and facilitation of biological invasions (1–4). In addition, roads facilitate “contagious development,” in that they provide access to previously remote areas, thus opening them up for more roads, land-use changes, associated resource extraction, and human-caused disturbances of biodiversity (3, 4). With the length of roads projected to increase by >60% globally from 2010 to 2050 (5), there is an urgent need for the development of a comprehensive global strategy for road development if continued biodiversity loss is to be abated (6). To help mitigate the detrimental effects of roads, their construction should be concentrated as much as possible in areas of relatively low “environmental values” (7). Likewise, prioritizing the protection of remaining roadless areas that are regarded as important for biodiversity and ecosystem functionality requires an assessment of their extent, distribution, and ecological quality.

Such global assessments have been constrained by deficient spatial data on global road networks. Importantly, recent publicly available and rapidly improving data sets have been generated by crowd-sourcing and citizen science. We demonstrate their potential through OpenStreetMap, a project with an open-access, grassroots approach to mapping and updating free global geographic data, with a focus on roads. The available global road data sets, OpenStreetMap and gROADS, vary in length, location, and type of roads; the former is the data set with the largest length of roads (36 million km in 2013) that is not restricted to specific road types (table S1). OpenStreetMap is more complete than gROADS, which has been used for other global assessments (7), but in certain regions, it contains fewer roads than sub-

global or local road data sets [see the example of Center for International Forestry Research data for Sabah, Malaysia (8); table S1]. Given the pace of road construction and data limitations, our results overestimate the actual extent of global roadless areas.

The spatial extent of road impacts is specific to the impact in question and to each particular road and its traffic volume, as well as to taxa, habitat, landscape, and terrain features. Moreover, for a given road impact, its area of ecological influence is asymmetrical along the road and can vary among seasons, between night and day, according to weather conditions, and over longer time periods. We conducted a comprehensive literature review of 282 publications dealing with “road-effects zones” or including the distance to roads as a covariate, of which 58 assessed the spatial influence of the road (table S2). All investigated road impacts were documented within a distance of

¹Centre for Ecnics and Ecosystem Management, Eberswalde University for Sustainable Development, Alfred-Moeller-Straße 1, 16225 Eberswalde, Germany. ²Society for Conservation Biology—Europe Section, 1133 15th Street Northwest, Suite 300, Washington, DC 20005, USA. ³Department of Conservation Biology, UFZ—Centre for Environmental Research, Permoserstraße 15, 04318 Leipzig, Germany. ⁴German Centre for Integrative Biodiversity Research (iDiv) Halle-Jena-Leipzig, Deutscher Platz 5e, 04103 Leipzig, Germany. ⁵Department of Environmental and Natural Resources Management, University of Patras, Seferi 2, 30100 Agrinio, Greece. ⁶Department of Ecology and Natural Resources Management, Center for Development Research, University of Bonn, Walter-Flex-Straße 3, 53113 Bonn, Germany. ⁷Geos Institute, 84 4th Street, Ashland, OR 97520, USA. ⁸Society for Conservation Biology—North America Section, 1133 15th Street Northwest, Suite 300, Washington, DC 20005, USA. ⁹Department of Ecology, Federal University of Rio de Janeiro, Av. Brg. Trompowski s/n, 21044-020 Rio de Janeiro, Brazil. ¹⁰Society for Conservation Biology—Latin America and Caribbean Section, 1133 15th Street Northwest, Suite 300, Washington, DC 20005, USA. ¹¹Writtle College, Lordship Road, Writtle, Chelmsford, Essex CM1 3RR, 01245 42420, UK. ¹²Institute of Nature Conservation, Polish Academy of Sciences, Mickiewicza 33, 31-120 Kraków, Poland.
*Corresponding author. Email: pierre.ibisch@hnee.de (P.L.I.); nuriselva@gmail.com (N.S.)

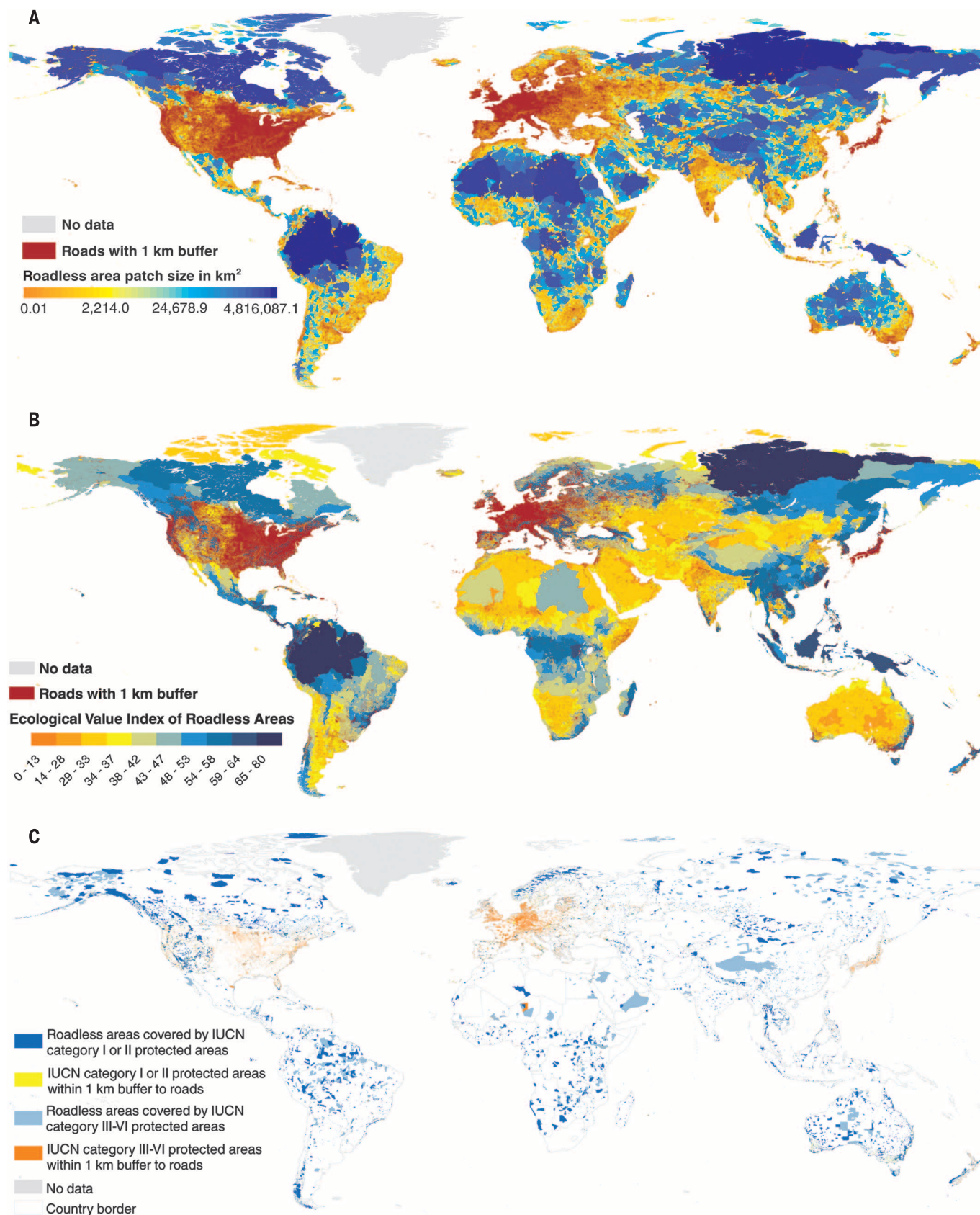


Fig. 1. The global distribution of roadless areas, based on a 1-km buffer around all roads. The distribution is depicted according to (A) size classes, (B) the ecological value index of roadless areas (EVIRA; based on patch size, connectivity, and ecosystem functionality), and (C) representation in protected areas (8).

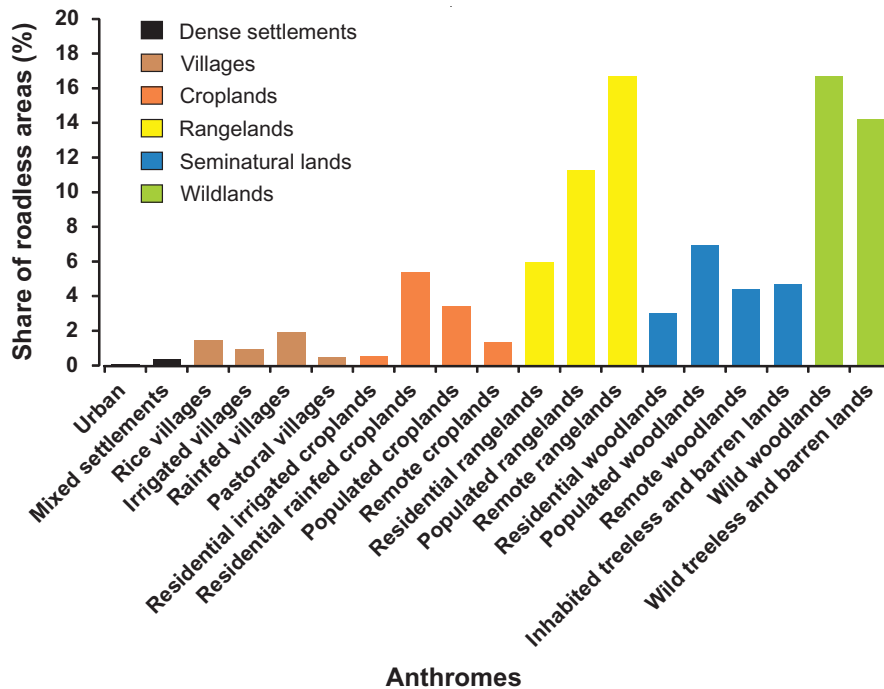


Fig. 2. Extent of roadless areas (1-km buffer) across anthromes. The majority of the world's roadless areas are in remote and unmodified landscapes, but they also occur in anthropogenically modified landscapes. The so-called anthromes were mapped according to (10).

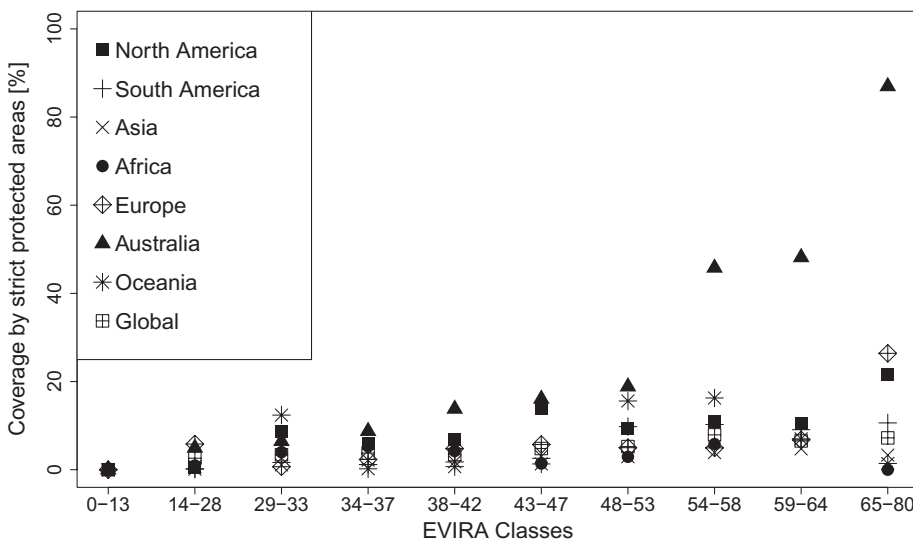


Fig. 3. Coverage of roadless areas by strictly protected areas (IUCN categories I and II) compared with global and continental EVIRA values. If priority were given to protecting roadless areas with high ecological functionality, we should see a positive correlation, with higher coverage associated with higher EVIRA values.

1 km from the road, 39% reached out to 2 km from the road, and only 14% extended out to 5 km from the road (fig. S1). Because the 1-km buffer along each side of the road represents the zone with the highest level and variety of road impacts, we defined roadless areas as those land units that are at least 1 km away from all roads and, therefore, less influenced by road effects. We com-

pared results from using this criterion with the outcomes from using an alternative 5-km buffer (see fig. S2 and table S3). We excluded all large water bodies, as well as Greenland and Antarctica, which are mostly covered by ice, from the analyses.

Roadless areas with a 1-km buffer to the nearest road cover about 80% of Earth's terrestrial surface (~105 million km²). However, these roadless areas

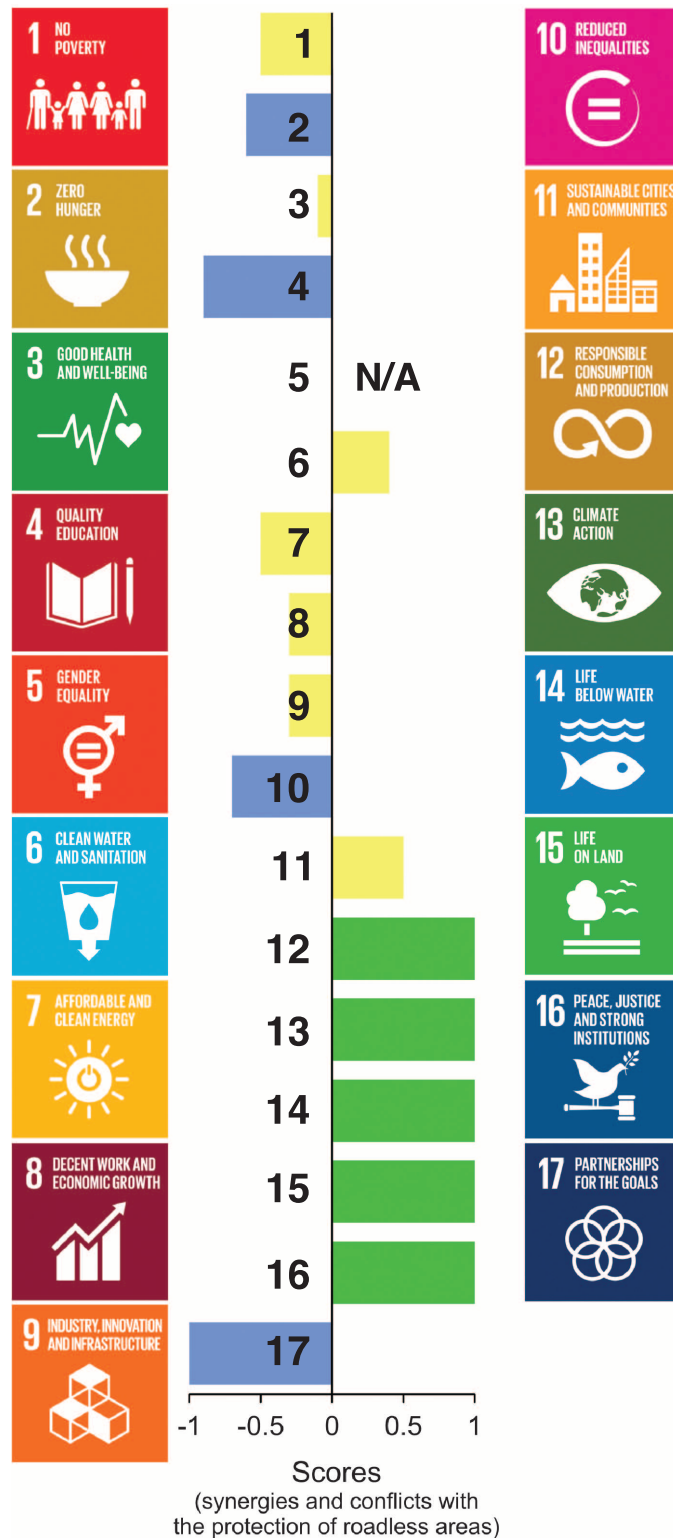
are dissected into almost 600,000 patches. More than half of the patches are <1 km²; 80% are <5 km²; and only 7% are >100 km² (table S4 and fig. S3). If the buffer is extended to 5 km, there is a substantial reduction in roadless areas to about 57% of the world's terrestrial surface (~75 million km²), dissected into 50,000 patches (fig. S2 and table S3). The occurrence, distribution, and size of roadless areas differ considerably among continents (Fig. 1A and fig. S4). For instance, the mean size of roadless patches (1-km buffer) is 48 km² in Europe, compared with >500 km² in Africa. Because of comparatively large gaps in available spatial data on roads in many segments of the tropics, the number and size of roadless areas are over-estimated and should be treated with caution (e.g., Borneo; table S1).

All identified roadless areas were assessed for a set of ecological properties that were selected to reflect their relative importance to biodiversity, ecological functions, and ecosystem resilience: patch size, connectivity, and ecosystem functionality (9) (table S5). We normalized these three indicators to between 0 and 100 to calculate an additive and unitless index of the ecological value of each roadless area identified (termed the ecological value index of roadless areas, or EVIRA) [Fig. 1B and fig. S5; the specific rationale and technicalities of the chosen indicators are described in table S5 (8)]. The EVIRA values range from 0 to 80. A sensitivity analysis shows that ecosystem functionality and patch size are the best single indicators for the final index values (table S6 and figs. S6 to S8). Areas with relatively high index values tend to have a lower coefficient of variation (fig. S9).

We used the International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) and UN Environment Programme-World Conservation Monitoring Centre data set of global protected areas to determine the extent of roadless areas that are protected (8) (Fig. 1C). The roadless areas distribution across human-dominated landscapes was determined following the classification of so-called anthromes, defined as biomes shaped by human land use and infrastructure (10) (Fig. 2 and table S7).

When examining the density of roads within different biomes, large discrepancies in distribution are apparent. The tundra and rock and ice-covered biomes are nearly entirely roadless, whereas temperate broadleaf and mixed forests have the lowest share of roadless areas (41%; figs. S9 and S10). Boreal forests of North America and Eurasia still retain large tracts of roadless areas (figs. S10 and S11). In the tropics, large roadless landscapes (>1000 km²) remain in Africa, South America, and Southeast Asia, with the Amazon having the single largest roadless segment. In relation to the anthromes (10), about two-thirds of the world's roadless areas can be described as remote and unmodified landscapes [26% uninhabited or sparsely inhabited treeless and barren lands; 21% natural and remote seminal woodlands, with 17% wild woodlands therein (8); Fig. 2 and table S7]. The remaining one-third consists of rangelands, indicating that roadless areas can also occur in anthropogenically modified landscapes.

Fig. 4. Synergies and conflicts between conservation of roadless areas and the United Nations' Sustainable Development Goals. Scores <-0.5 (blue bars) indicate that conflicts with the goal prevail; scores between -0.5 and 0.5 (yellow) indicate a mixture of synergies and conflicts with the goal; and scores >0.5 (green) indicate prevailing synergies with the goal [for details, see table S11 (8)]. The scores reflect substantial imminent conflicts between various Sustainable Development Goals and conservation of roadless areas (table S11).



About one-third of the world's roadless areas have low EVIRA values. Patches with relatively low EVIRA values (ranging from 0 to 37; namely, <50% of the maximum value) account for 35% of the overall roadless area distribution, because most are small, fragmented, isolated, or otherwise heavily disturbed by humans. Some large tracts of roadless areas,

such as arid lands in northern Africa or central Asia, occur in areas of sparse vegetation and low biodiversity and, thus, have low index values for ecosystem functionality (9) (Fig. 1B). High EVIRA values occur both in tropical and boreal forests. The relative conservation value of roadless areas is context-dependent. Comparatively small or

moderately disturbed roadless areas have higher conservation importance in heavily roaded environments, such as most of Europe, the conterminous United States, and southern Canada.

Although the world's protected areas cover 14.2% of the terrestrial surface, only 9.3% of the overall expanse of roadless areas is within protected areas (all IUCN categories; Fig. 1C and table S8). There is no major difference in the coverage of roadless areas by strictly protected areas (IUCN categories I and II) versus the coverage of the overall landscape by strictly protected areas (3.8% roadless versus 4.2% overall). Only in North America, Australia, and Oceania are more than 6% of roadless areas under strict protection (table S8). If conservation efforts were to prioritize functional, ecologically important roadless areas, we would find a positive relation between strict protection coverage and EVIRA values of roadless areas. However, with the exception of Australia, this is not the case (Fig. 3 and table S9). Asia and Africa have particularly low protection coverage for roadless areas with high EVIRA values. For instance, we found gaps in the Asian tropical southeast, as well as in boreal biomes.

The recent Global Biodiversity Outlook (11) gives a bleak account of the progress made toward reaching the United Nations' biodiversity agenda as specified in the 20 Aichi Targets of the Convention on Biological Diversity (12). Governments have failed on several accounts to keep their use of natural resources well within safe ecological limits (target 4); to halt or at least halve the rate of habitat loss and substantially reduce the degradation and fragmentation of natural habitats (target 5); and to appropriately protect areas of particular importance for biodiversity and ecosystem services (target 11). To achieve global biodiversity targets, policies must explicitly acknowledge the factors underlying prior failures (13). Despite increasing scientific evidence for the negative impacts of roads on ecosystems, the current global conservation policy framework has largely ignored road impacts and road expansion. Furthermore, key policies on road infrastructure and development, such as the Cohesion Policy of the European Union, fail to take into account biodiversity.

In the much wider context of the United Nations' Sustainable Development Goals, conflicting interests can be seen between goals intended to safeguard biodiversity and those promoting economic development (14). We analyzed how roadless areas relate to the global conservation and sustainability agendas. As a transparent synthesis, we calculated simple scores of conflicts versus synergies of Sustainable Development Goals and Aichi Targets with the conservation of roadless areas (tables S10 and S11). Roads are explicitly mentioned in the Sustainable Development Goals only for their contribution to economic growth (goal 8), promoting further expansion into remote rural areas, and consideration is given neither to the environmental nor the social costs of road development. The resulting scores reflect substantial imminent conflicts (Fig. 4 and table S10); only in five Sustainable Development Goals do synergies with conservation of roadless

areas prevail, and four Sustainable Development Goals are predominantly in conflict with conservation of roadless areas. Maybe even more surprisingly, several of the Aichi Targets are ambivalent with respect to conserving roadless areas, rather than being in synergy entirely [six conflicting versus 11 synergistic targets (8); table S11].

There is an urgent need for a global strategy for the effective conservation, restoration, and monitoring of roadless areas and the ecosystems that they encompass. Governments should be encouraged to incorporate the protection of extensive roadless areas into relevant policies and other legal mechanisms, reexamine where road development conflicts with the protection of roadless areas, and avoid unnecessary and ecologically disastrous roads entirely. In addition, governments should consider road closure where doing so can promote the restoration of wildlife habitats and ecosystem functionality (4). Our global map of roadless areas represents a first step in this direction. During planning and evaluation of road projects, financial institutions, transport agencies, environmental nongovernmental organizations, and the engaged public should consider the identified roadless areas.

The conservation of roadless areas can be a key element in accomplishing the United Nations' Sustainable Development Goals. The extent and protection status of valuable roadless areas can serve as effective indicators to address several Sustainable Development Goals, particularly goal 15 ("Protect, restore and promote sustainable use of terrestrial ecosystems, sustainably manage forests, combat desertification, and halt and reverse land degradation and halt biodiversity loss") and goal 9 ("Build resilient infrastructure, promote inclusive and sustainable industrialization and foster innovation"). Enshrined in the protection of roadless areas should be the objective to seek and develop alternative socioeconomic models that do not rely so heavily on road infrastructure. Similarly, governments should consider how roadless areas can support the Aichi Targets (see tables S10 and S11). For instance, the target of expanding protected areas to cover 17% of the world's terrestrial surface could include a representative proportion of roadless areas.

Although we acknowledge that access to transportation is a fundamental element of human well-being, impacts of road infrastructure require a fully integrated environmental and social cost-benefits approach (15). Still, under current conditions and policies, limiting road expansion into roadless areas may prove to be the most cost-effective and straightforward way of achieving strategically important global biodiversity and sustainability goals.

REFERENCES AND NOTES

1. S. C. Trombulak, C. A. Frissell, *Conserv. Biol.* **14**, 18–30 (2000).
2. N. Selva et al., *Environ. Manage.* **48**, 865–877 (2011).
3. W. F. Laurance, A. Balmford, *Nature* **495**, 308–309 (2013).
4. N. Selva, A. Switalski, S. Kreft, P. L. Ibsch, in *Handbook of Road Ecology*, R. van der Ree, D. J. Smith, C. Grilo, Eds. (Wiley Chichester, 2015), pp. 16–26.

5. J. Dulac, "Global land transport infrastructure requirements. Estimating road and railway infrastructure capacity and costs to 2050" (International Energy Agency, 2013).
6. W. F. Laurance et al., *Curr. Biol.* **25**, R259–R262 (2015).
7. W. F. Laurance et al., *Nature* **513**, 229–232 (2014).
8. Materials and methods are available as supplementary materials on Science Online.
9. L. Freudenberger, P. R. Hobson, M. Schluck, P. L. Ibsch, *Ecol. Complex.* **12**, 13–22 (2012).
10. E. C. Ellis, K. Klein Goldewijk, S. Siebert, D. Lightman, N. Ramankutty, *Glob. Ecol. Biogeogr.* **19**, 589–606 (2010).
11. P. W. Leadley, et al., "Progress towards the Aichi Biodiversity Targets: An assessment of biodiversity trends, policy scenarios and key actions, Global Biodiversity Outlook 4 (GBO-4)" (Technical Report, Secretariat of the Convention on Biological Diversity, 2013); www.cbd.int/doc/publications/cbd-ts-78-en.pdf.
12. Convention on Biological Diversity, "Decision adopted by the Conference of the Parties to the Convention on Biological Diversity at its Tenth Meeting, X/2. The Strategic Plan for Biodiversity 2011–2020 and the Aichi Biodiversity Targets" (UN Environment Programme/Conference on Biological Diversity/Conference of the Parties, 2010); www.cbd.int/decision/cop/?id=12268.
13. D. P. Tittensor et al., *Science* **346**, 241–244 (2014).
14. United Nations, "Transforming our world: The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. Resolution adopted by the General Assembly (A/70/L.1)" (2015); www.un.org/ga/search/view_doc.asp?symbol=A/RES/70/1&Lang=E.
15. L. Mandle et al., *Conserv. Lett.* **9**, 221–227 (2015).

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The data set is available through www.roadless.online and Dryad at <http://dx.doi.org/10.5061/dryad.q4975>. The study was funded by the Centre for Ecomics and Ecosystem Management at Eberswalde University for Sustainable Development, Germany; the Academy of Sciences and Literature, Mainz, Germany

("Biodiversity in Change," Nees Institute, Bonn University); and the Institute of Nature Conservation, Polish Academy of Sciences. Special thanks go to W. Barthlott for continued inspiration and support. The authors declare that they have no competing interests. P.L.I. acknowledges the research professorships "Biodiversity and natural resource management under global change" (2009–2015) and "Ecosystem-based sustainable development" (2015 onward) awarded by Eberswalde University for Sustainable Development. G.P. acknowledges funding from the European Union Framework Programme 7 project EU BON (ref. 308454). N.S. acknowledges funding from the National Science Center (DEC-2013/08/M/N29/00469) and the National Centre for Research and Development in Poland (Norway grants, POLNOR/198352/85/2013). P.L.I., N.S., and V.K. conceived the study. M.T.H. collected and analyzed all data, with assistance from P.L.I., L.B.-F., and G.P. P.L.I. wrote a first draft of the text and moderated its critical revision with important contributions by M.T.H., S.K., N.S., and D.A.D. All authors contributed to the interpretation of the data and critical revision of further versions. N.S., M.T.H., M.M.V., V.K., S.K., L.B.-F., and P.L.I. elaborated the supplementary materials. We appreciate the extraordinary contribution of D. Biber, who adapted Insensa-GIS to our needs. We acknowledge J. Sauermann's contributions to data processing. J.-P. Mund suggested exploring the OpenStreetMap data set. This study is part of the Roadless Areas Initiative of the Society for Conservation Biology, led by the Policy Committee of the Europe Section.

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS

www.sciencemag.org/content/354/6318/1423/suppl/DC1
Materials and Methods
Figs. S1 to S11
Tables S1 to S11
Data Sources
References (16–180)

18 March 2016; accepted 16 November 2016
10.1126/science.aaf7166

PLANT PATHOLOGY

Regulation of sugar transporter activity for antibacterial defense in *Arabidopsis*

Kohji Yamada,^{1,2*} Yusuke Saijo,^{3,4} Hirofumi Nakagami,^{5†} Yoshitaka Takano^{1*}

Microbial pathogens strategically acquire metabolites from their hosts during infection. Here we show that the host can intervene to prevent such metabolite loss to pathogens. Phosphorylation-dependent regulation of sugar transport protein 13 (STP13) is required for antibacterial defense in the plant *Arabidopsis thaliana*. STP13 physically associates with the flagellin receptor flagellin-sensitive 2 (FLS2) and its co-receptor BRASSINOSTEROID INSENSITIVE 1-associated receptor kinase 1 (BAK1). BAK1 phosphorylates STP13 at threonine 485, which enhances its monosaccharide uptake activity to compete with bacteria for extracellular sugars. Limiting the availability of extracellular sugar deprives bacteria of an energy source and restricts virulence factor delivery. Our results reveal that control of sugar uptake, managed by regulation of a host sugar transporter, is a defense strategy deployed against microbial infection. Competition for sugar thus shapes host-pathogen interactions.

Plants assimilate carbon into sugar by photosynthesis, and a broad spectrum of plant-interacting microbes exploit these host sugars (1, 2). In *Arabidopsis*, pathogenic bacterial infection causes the leakage of sugars to the extracellular spaces (the apoplast) (3), a major site of colonization by plant-infecting bacteria.

Although leakage may be a consequence of membrane disintegration during pathogen infection, some bacterial pathogens promote sugar efflux to the apoplast by manipulating host plant sugar transporters (4, 5). Interference with sugar absorption by bacterial and fungal pathogens reduces their virulence, highlighting a general

EXTENDED PDF FORMAT
SPONSORED BY



A global map of roadless areas and their conservation status
Pierre L. Ibisch, Monika T. Hoffmann, Stefan Kreft, Guy Pe'er,
Vassiliki Kati, Lisa Biber-Freudenberger, Dominick A. DellaSala,
Mariana M. Vale, Peter R. Hobson and Nuria Selva (December 15,
2016)
Science **354** (6318), 1423-1427. [doi: 10.1126/science.aaf7166]

Editor's Summary

Too many roads

Roads have done much to help humanity spread across the planet and maintain global movement and trade. However, roads also damage wild areas and rapidly contribute to habitat degradation and species loss. Ibisch *et al.* cataloged the world's roads. Though most of the world is not covered by roads, it is fragmented by them, with only 7% of land patches created by roads being greater than 100 km². Furthermore, environmental protection of roadless areas is insufficient, which could lead to further degradation of the world's remaining wildernesses.

Science, this issue p. 1423

This copy is for your personal, non-commercial use only.

- Article Tools** Visit the online version of this article to access the personalization and article tools:
<http://science.sciencemag.org/content/354/6318/1423>
- Permissions** Obtain information about reproducing this article:
<http://www.sciencemag.org/about/permissions.dtl>

Science (print ISSN 0036-8075; online ISSN 1095-9203) is published weekly, except the last week in December, by the American Association for the Advancement of Science, 1200 New York Avenue NW, Washington, DC 20005. Copyright 2016 by the American Association for the Advancement of Science; all rights reserved. The title *Science* is a registered trademark of AAAS.