

1 Diversity and co-occurrence patterns of wood inhabiting insects along a
2 tropical forest regeneration gradient

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18 **ABSTRACT**

19 More than 90% of global carbon released during dead wood decomposition comes from the
20 tropics, where insects contribute significantly to this process, especially in lowland rainforests.
21 Understanding community assembly of dead wood-inhabiting insects is therefore important.
22 We investigated diversity patterns between habitats and host trees, and co-occurrence of
23 wood-inhabiting ants, termites, and beetles in the Chocó of northeastern Ecuador along a
24 forest regeneration gradient spanning from agricultural land through regenerating forests (1–
25 37 years) to old-growth forests. Using experimentally exposed dead wood from five locally
26 occurring tree species, we quantified assemblages after six months of decomposition by
27 rearing.

28 We found 174 insect species across 62 plots. Diversity was lowest in agricultural land and
29 higher in regenerating and old-growth forests, indicating substantial recovery following tree
30 regeneration. Differences among succession stages were strongest for rare species, whereas
31 communities of dominant species were more similar across stages. Host tree identity further
32 structured assemblages: *Trema micrantha*, *Theobroma cacao*, and *Inga spp.* supported higher
33 diversity than *Triplaris cumingiana* and *Hieronyma alchorneoides*. These patterns could not be
34 explained by wood density alone, and a comparison with tree availability suggests tree species
35 abundance as a major driver. Co-occurrence analysis revealed predominantly neutral
36 associations among insect species. A small number of positive associations occurred mainly
37 among ambrosia beetles, suggesting facilitation, whereas negative associations including
38 those between ants and termites were rare.

39 Our results demonstrate that diversity of wood-inhabiting insect communities is primarily
40 shaped by coarse habitat filtering along the regeneration gradient and secondarily by fine scale
41 filtering via the host tree, while biotic interactions leave only a limited signature in co-
42 occurrence patterns. Our finding underlines that with return of trees in abandoned agriculture
43 areas even the saproxylic insects, a cryptic but important functional group in the global carbon
44 cycle from wood, rapidly recolonize, determined by local habitat conditions and resource
45 availability, underscoring their conservation value alongside old growth forests.

46

47 **1. INTRODUCTION**

48 Dead wood is an important habitat for about 1/3 of forest arthropod species (Graf et al, 2022)
49 and a critical carbon store in forest ecosystems, with tropical forests holding the largest share
50 of global dead wood carbon (Pan et al., 2011). As dead wood decomposes, it releases
51 nutrients back into the ecosystem and supports a diverse community of organisms dominated
52 by insects and fungi. Among decomposers, the insects play a particularly important role,
53 accounting for 10 to 20% of wood mass loss (Ulyshen, 2016), with termites being especially
54 significant drivers of decomposition in the tropics (Griffiths et al., 2019; Njoroge et al., 2025;
55 Seibold et al., 2021; Zanne et al., 2022). Organisms that depend on dead wood at any stage

56 of their lifecycle are termed saproxylic (Speight, 1989; Stokland et al., 2012; Ulyshen, 2018),
57 and understanding which species inhabit which dead wood, and why, is fundamental for
58 understanding how these communities are assembled (Müller et al., 2020).

59 Community assembly theory provides a useful framework for understanding how species
60 colonize dead wood. Species assembly is governed by processes operating across multiple
61 spatial and ecological scales. The regional species pool determines which species are
62 available for colonization (Cornell & Harrison, 2014), dispersal determines which of those
63 species can reach a given habitat (Komonen & Müller, 2018; Leibold et al., 2004; Grella et al.,
64 2026), and environmental filters determine whether arriving species can establish and persist
65 based on their functional traits (Kraft et al., 2015; Mitesser et al., 2026). Within dead wood,
66 these filters act sequentially and interactively together in shaping community composition.

67 Broad environmental conditions set the regional context in which saproxylic communities
68 assemble (Seibold et al., 2016). As deforestation and land-use change are major threats to
69 biodiversity in tropical forests (FAO, 2020), saproxylic insects are particularly sensitive to these
70 changes because they depend on a continuous supply of dead wood. Studies of ants (Bihn et
71 al., 2008; Karolak & Fiedler, 2024; Grella et al., 2026), termites (Luke et al., 2014; Castro et
72 al., 2021; Duran-Bautista et al., 2024; Grella et al., 2026), and saproxylic beetles (Grove, 2002;
73 Lachat et al., 2006) have shown that assemblages typically exhibit reduced diversity in
74 anthropogenically disturbed habitats. Forest regeneration following agricultural abandonment
75 can partially reverse these losses, but the speed and completeness of recovery remain poorly
76 understood, especially for multiple saproxylic taxa within the same system. Along regeneration
77 gradients, canopy closure increases with forest age and buffers temperature and humidity
78 extremes (Newell et al., 2026), which may allow a greater diversity of thermally sensitive
79 species to persist in older forests. At the same time, the availability and diversity of dead wood
80 rise with succession, providing greater niche space for saproxylic communities (Seibold et al.,
81 2016; Falconí-López et al., 2024).

82 Within a given habitat, the identity of the host tree species represents a second, finer-scale
83 filter that shapes which saproxylic insects colonize and persist. Wood traits such as density
84 and the relative proportions of carbon, nitrogen, phosphorus, lignin, and cellulose differ
85 substantially among tree species, influencing the quality of dead wood as a resource (Guo et
86 al., 2024). Among insects, three taxa are particularly prominent in tropical dead wood: termites,
87 beetles, and ants, each using dead wood in distinct ways. Termites use dead wood both as
88 food and nesting habitat, aided by symbiotic gut microbiota, and show strong trait-based
89 preferences for wood of particular quality (Bignell, 2018; Guo et al., 2024). Beetles also use
90 wood for food and shelter, with ambrosia beetles cultivating wood-decomposing fungi in their
91 tunnels (Hulcr & Stelinski, 2017; Biedermann & Vega, 2020). Ants, in contrast, use dead wood
92 primarily as nesting habitat rather than a food source, and their colonization preferences
93 among tree species are less well understood. Despite its importance, few studies have
94 examined how host tree identity mediates multi-taxon saproxylic assemblages in tropical
95 forests (Jomura et al., 2022; Law et al., 2023; Ci et al., 2025).

96 Finally, interactions between co-occurring species represent a third level of filtering that can
97 further influence dead wood dwelling insect assemblages. Such interactions can take the form
98 of facilitation, competition, or predation. Facilitation may occur when the activity of one species
99 modifies the wood in ways that benefit others, for example through tunnel creation, frass
100 deposition, or fungal inoculation (Brin & Bouget, 2018). Competition is often pronounced
101 among social insects such as ants and termites, which live in large colonies and can
102 monopolize entire wood pieces (Tuma et al., 2020). Predation is also relevant, as ants are
103 major predators of termites (Tuma et al., 2020), suggesting that their presence could exclude
104 termite colonization through priority effects. Whether such interactions leave a detectable
105 signature in species co-occurrence patterns remains an open question that we address here.

106 To disentangle these three successive filters for saproxylic insect communities in different
107 recovery stages of tropical forests we conducted an experiment in the highly threatened Chocó
108 rainforest region of Ecuador, one of the top 25 global biodiversity hotspots (Myers et al., 2000),

109 but under severe anthropogenic pressure from deforestation and land-use change (Fagua et
110 al., 2019). Along a regeneration chronosequence spanning agricultural land, regenerating
111 forests of 1 to 37 years old, and old-growth forests, we reared beetles, ants and termites from
112 five locally occurring tree species.

113 Specifically, we investigate three key aspects of insect assembly in dead wood, namely habitat
114 and host filtering, as well as species interactions: First, we assessed how dead wood dwelling
115 insect diversity (ants, termites, and beetles) varies along the forest regeneration gradient,
116 expecting diversity to increase from agricultural land through regenerating forests to old-growth
117 forest due to recovery of forest complexity and integrity. Second, we examined whether host
118 tree species identity influences the diversity of insect assemblages, expecting differences
119 among tree species of different plant families to be mediated by wood density. Third, we
120 investigated co-occurrence patterns among the three taxa within individual wood pieces,
121 expecting predominantly neutral interactions with some negative associations between ants
122 and termites given their predator-prey relationship, and possible positive associations among
123 beetle species through facilitation.

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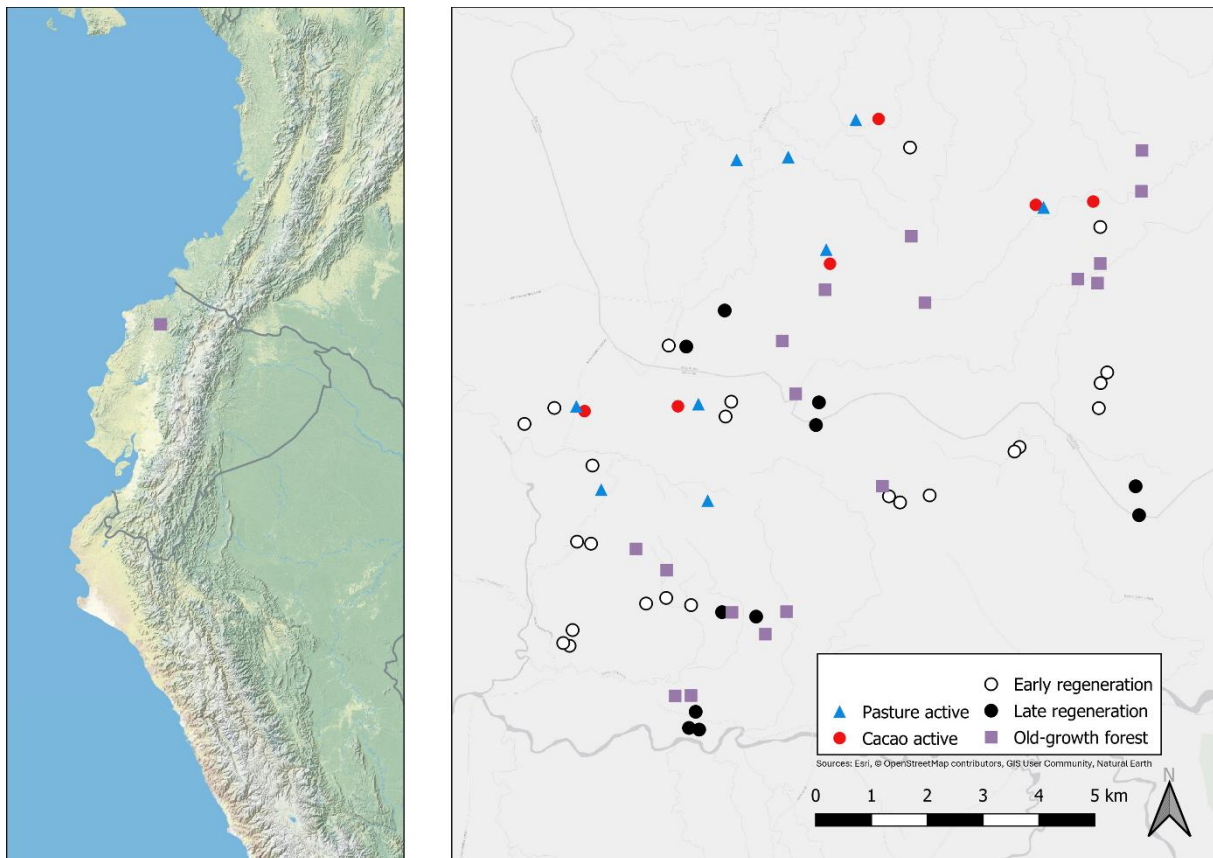
125 **2. METHODS**

126 **2.1 Study site and plot design**

127 The study site is located in Esmeraldas province in northwest Ecuador in the two reserves
128 Reserva Río Canandé and Reserva Tesoro Escondido (Figure 1). Research was carried out
129 in a tropical lowland Chocó rainforest on 62 plots that were selected in the framework of the
130 REASSEMBLY research unit (www.reassembly.de). The plots comprise a size of 50 x 50 m in
131 forests (old-growth and regenerating forests) and 16 x 16 m in agricultural land. The study area
132 encompasses a heterogeneous small-scale landscape of old-growth forests, regenerating
133 forests of various successional stages, human settlements and agricultural land in close
134 proximity to one another. The forest cover is generally high with an average of 74% (SD \pm 2.8)

135 within a 1-km radius of each plot (Escobar et al., 2025) and distances to the nearest old-growth
136 forest are short with an average of 59 m (SD \pm 46), which is typical for many tropical regions
137 nowadays. The REASSEMBLY plots were selected to represent a spatially independent
138 regeneration gradient (chronosequence) of naturally regrowing forest ranging from agriculture
139 (pastures and cacao plantations) to regenerating forests (former pastures and cacao
140 plantations) to old growth forests. The selection includes 12 plots on agricultural land (6
141 pastures and 6 cacao plantations), 22 in an early regeneration stage (1-20 years), 11 in a later
142 regeneration stage (21-37 years) and 17 in old-growth forest. Detailed information on plot
143 design and climatic conditions in the study area is described in Escobar et al. (2025) and
144 Newell et al. (2026).

145



147 **Figure 1:** Distribution of the study plots in the Chocó rainforest in north-western Ecuador.
148 Symbols indicate different forest regeneration categories of the study plots.

149

150 **2.2 Insect sampling**

151 The collected data consisted of the ants, termites and beetles emerging from dead wood from
152 five different tree species that was experimentally exposed on the ground in all 62 plots. On
153 each plot one wood piece each of the locally occurring tree species *Trema micrantha*
154 (Sapanillo, Cannabaceae), *Theobroma cacao* (Cacao, Malvaceae), *Inga spp.* (Guaba,
155 Fabaceae), *Triplaris cumingiana* (Fernán Sánchez, Polygonaceae) and *Hieronyma*
156 *alchorneoides* (Mascarey, Phyllanthaceae) was placed. The wood pieces had a length of 50
157 cm and a diameter ranging from 7-10 cm and were laid out in August to October 2022. After
158 six months on the plots, they were retrieved in February-March 2023 and placed into
159 emergence chambers. These consisted of mesh tubes made of white fabric used for insect
160 nets (1 mm double-thread netting, bioform.de; Model A110e) and a 50 ml sampling tube filled
161 with ethanol attached at the bottom. In the following six months (February-August 2023) insects
162 emerging from the woods were frequently collected from the ethanol (see also Grella et al.
163 2026 and Falconí-López et al. 2025 for a detailed description of the experimental setup).

164

165 **2.3 Species identification**

166 The collected insects were identified with a combination of a morphological and a DNA
167 barcoding approach as described in Grella et al. (2026) and Falconí-López et al. (2025). In
168 short, ants, termites and beetles were identified to genus or family level using taxonomic
169 literature (Bolton, 1994; Constantino, 2002; Pérez-Silva et al., 2021; Wood, 2007) and
170 separated into morphospecies. Subsequently, one specimen per morphospecies and wood
171 piece was prepared for DNA barcoding of the cytochrome c oxidase I (COI) gene (658 bp).
172 Insect tissues were sent to the Canadian Centre for DNA Barcoding (University of Guelph,
173 Canada) for DNA isolation and sequencing. The resulting DNA sequences were uploaded to
174 the BOLD (Barcode of Life Data System, www.boldsystems.org) database. For species
175 identification we used the classification into BINs (Barcode Index Numbers) and phylogenetic
176 trees (Neighbour-Joining trees with Kimura Two-Parameter distances) from BOLD. BOLD

177 groups sequences into BIN clusters which are in high concordance with species
178 (Ratnasingham & Hebert, 2013). Many ant, beetle and termite species in the tropics are not
179 described yet. Hence, when reference species names of the BINs were missing, we used a
180 provisional name consisting of the family or genus name together with the BIN for some
181 specimens. In addition to the species identification, we also counted the individuals of each
182 species in each wood for abundance-based sampling standardizations.

183

184 **2.4 Statistical analyses**

185 We conducted statistical analyses in R version 4.5.1 (R Core Team, 2025). All analyses are
186 based on species incidences per log. For comparing species diversity along the forest
187 regeneration gradient and in the five different host tree species, we analysed the species
188 incidences via rarefaction-extrapolation functions of the *iNEXT* package (Chao et al., 2014).
189 *iNEXT* estimates diversity indices along the three Hill numbers $q = 0$, $q = 1$ and $q = 2$ (Hill,
190 1973), which give different weight to infrequent to highly frequent species. The Hill number q
191 $= 0$ is the species richness, which gives equal weight to all species. The Hill number $q = 1$
192 represents the effective number of species with focus on frequent species, calculated as the
193 exponential function of Shannon's entropy index ($\exp(\text{Shannon})$), which focus on common
194 species. The Hill number $q = 2$ is calculated as the inverse of Simpson's concentration index,
195 which focus on highly frequent, dominant species.

196 For the analysis of diversity along the forest regeneration gradient, we grouped the plots into
197 four categories: agricultural land, early regenerating forests (1-20 years), late regenerating
198 forests (21-38 years), and old-growth forest.

199 For exploring co-occurrence patterns in single dead wood pieces, we used the 'cooccur'
200 function of the *cooccur* package (Griffith et al., 2016). This method compares the observed
201 with expected co-occurrences of species pair combinations and estimates if they are neutral,
202 positive, or negative associated in the dead wood pieces. We set the option to filter out species

203 pairs that are expected to have fewer than one co-occurrence from the analyses, which
204 resulted in an exclusion of 15111 pairs from 15225 pairs.

205 For the visualization of the species occurrences in the five host tree species of taxa with non-
206 random co-occurrences we used the 'bipartite' package (Dormann et al., 2008).

207

208 **3. RESULTS**

209 **3.1 Species diversity along the forest regeneration gradient**

210 We obtained a total of 174 saproxylic insect species across all plots and host tree species,
211 comprising 73 ant, 10 termite, and 91 beetle species (Table 1). Of the 310 pieces of dead
212 wood, 248 were colonized by insects. In total we counted 22260 specimens that emerged from
213 the wood pieces (4234 ants, 7510 termites, 10516 beetles). When ants were encountered in
214 single dead wood pieces their mean number of individuals (\pm SD) was 18.57 (\pm 2.32), termites
215 had an average number of individuals of 96.28 (\pm 2.76), and beetles of 25.1 (\pm 16.12).

216 The overall diversity of all three insect groups differed with regeneration categories (Figure 1)
217 and between Hill numbers (Figure 2). The analysis of diversity by sampling units (Figure 2a)
218 showed that the number of observed species ($q = 0$) was highest in late regenerating forests
219 (Regeneration II) and in old-growth forest followed by early regenerating forests (Regeneration
220 I) and was lowest in agriculture (Figure 2a). With increasing emphasis on dominant species (q
221 = 1 and $q = 2$), the diversity in the forest habitats (regenerating forests and old-growth forest)
222 becomes more similar, while agriculture remains lowest in diversity. The coverage-based
223 analysis (Figure 2b) followed a similar pattern but with greater overlap among categories.
224 Notably, agriculture showed lower sample coverage at equivalent sample sizes compared to
225 forest habitats, meaning part of the steeper diversity decline observed in the size-based
226 analysis reflects incomplete sampling.

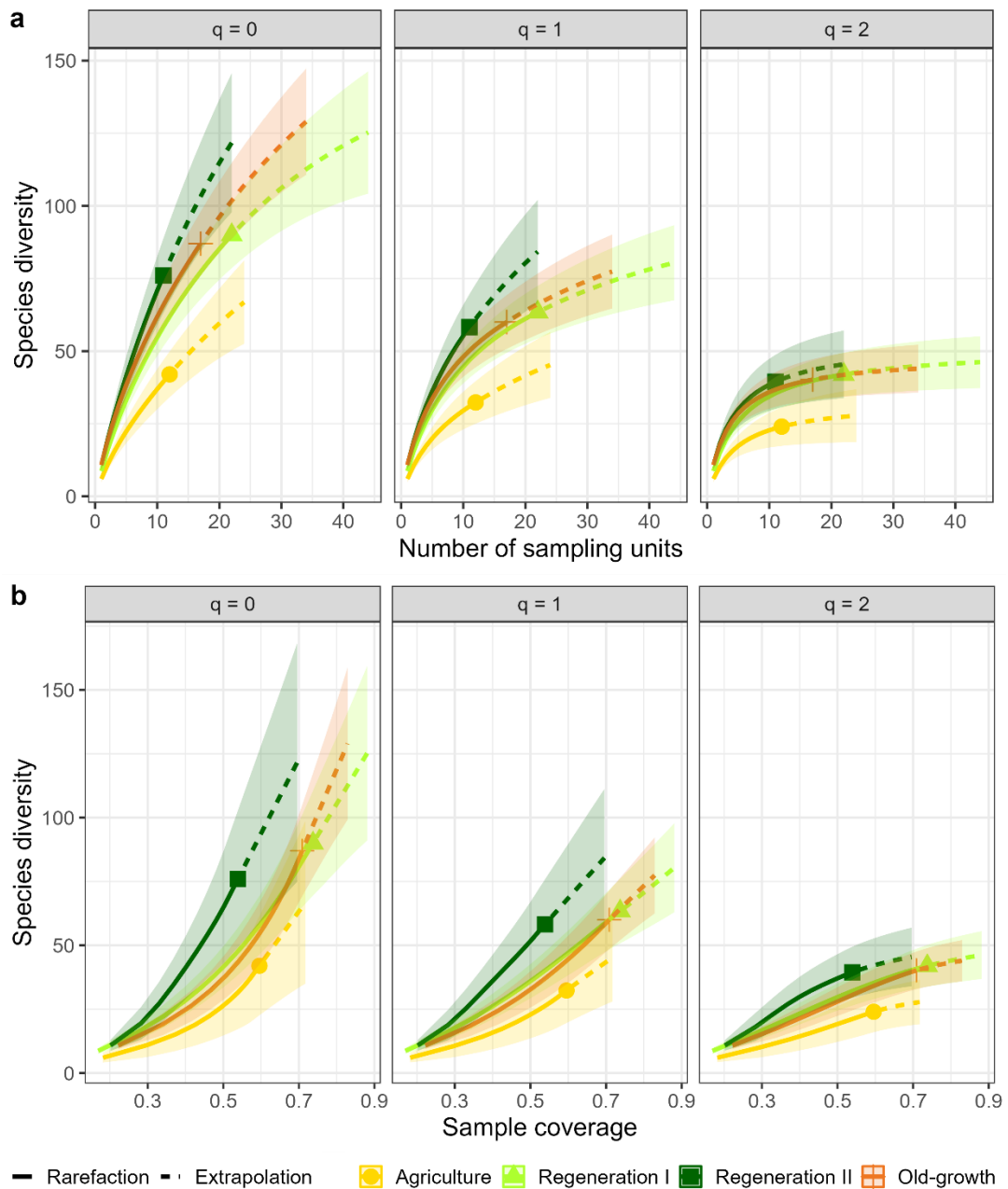
227

228 **Table 1:** Number of ant, termite, and beetle species in different habitat categories along the
 229 recovery gradient and in different host tree species. Early regenerating forests (Regeneration
 230 I) range from 0 to 20 years, while late regenerating forests (Regeneration II) range from 21 to
 231 37 years.

	Ants	Termites	Beetles	All
Habitat category				
Agriculture	20	1	21	42
Regeneration I	40	6	44	90
Regeneration II	29	4	43	76
Old-growth forest	26	5	51	82
All habitats	73	10	91	174
Host tree species				
<i>Trema micrantha</i>	30	9	36	75
<i>Theobroma cacao</i>	31	4	42	77
<i>Triplaris cumingiana</i>	29	4	40	73
<i>Inga spp.</i>	28	4	24	56
<i>Hieronyma alchorneoides</i>	23	3	31	57
All host trees	73	10	91	174

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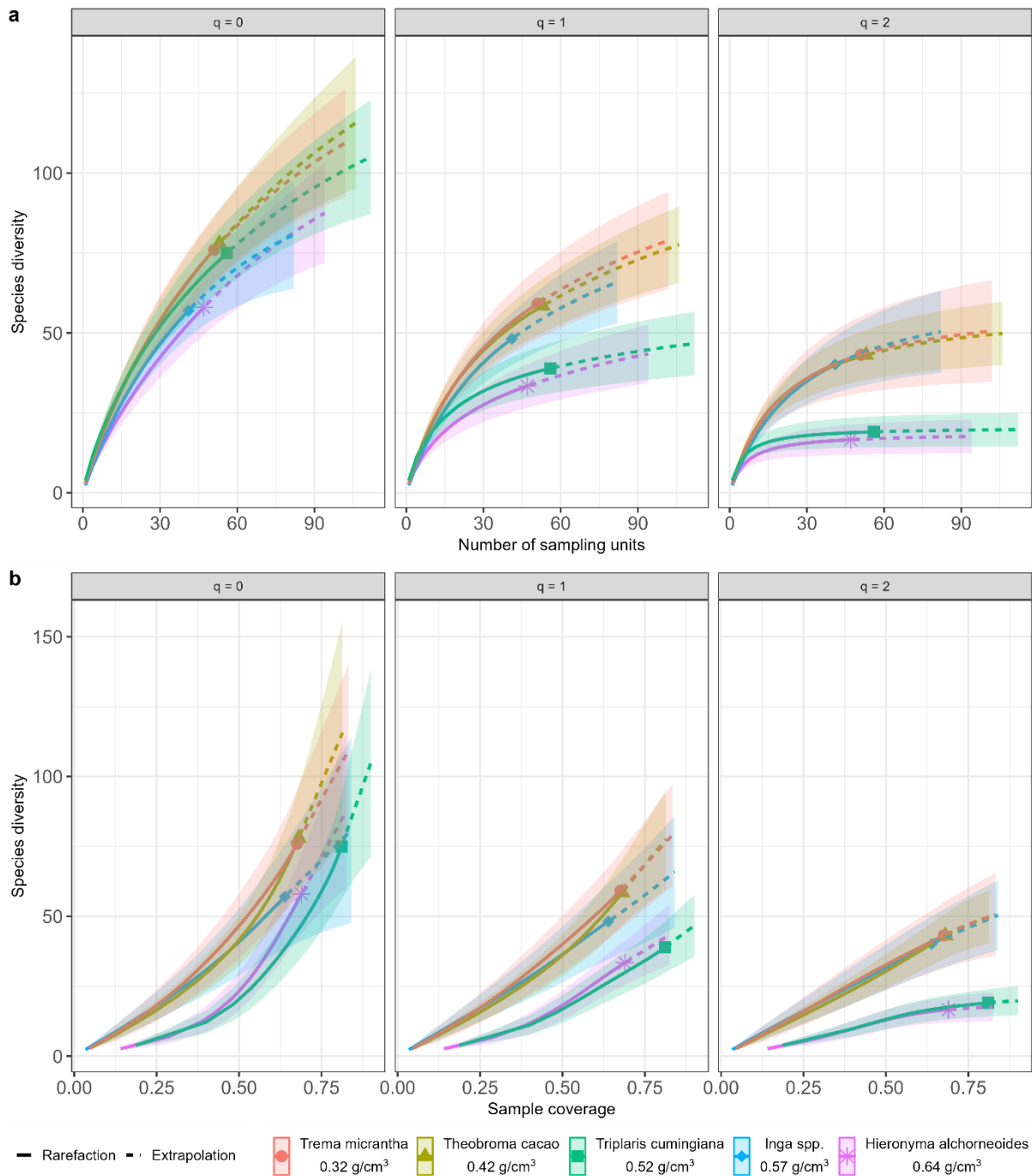
236 **Fig 2:** Rarefaction (solid lines) and extrapolation (dashed lines) curves of observed species (q
 237 = 0), the effective species number ($q = 1$) and the inverse of Simpson concentration ($q = 2$) of
 238 dead wood-dwelling insect diversity (ants, termites, beetles). Different colours represent the
 239 different forest regeneration categories ranging from agriculture, early and late regenerating
 240 forest (Regeneration I, Regeneration II) and old-growth forest. Shaded bands depict 95%
 241 confidence intervals. Differences in species diversity are significant when confidence intervals
 242 do not overlap.

243

244 **3.2 Diversity in host tree species**

245 The diversity of all three taxa also showed differences depending on host tree species (Figure
246 3). The sample-based and the coverage-based analysis show two clusters of host tree species.
247 *T. cacao*, *T. micrantha* and *Inga spp.* host a higher species diversity while *H. alchorneoides*
248 and *T. cumingiana* host less species. This pattern becomes more pronounced with increasing
249 weight on dominant species ($q = 1$ and $q = 2$).

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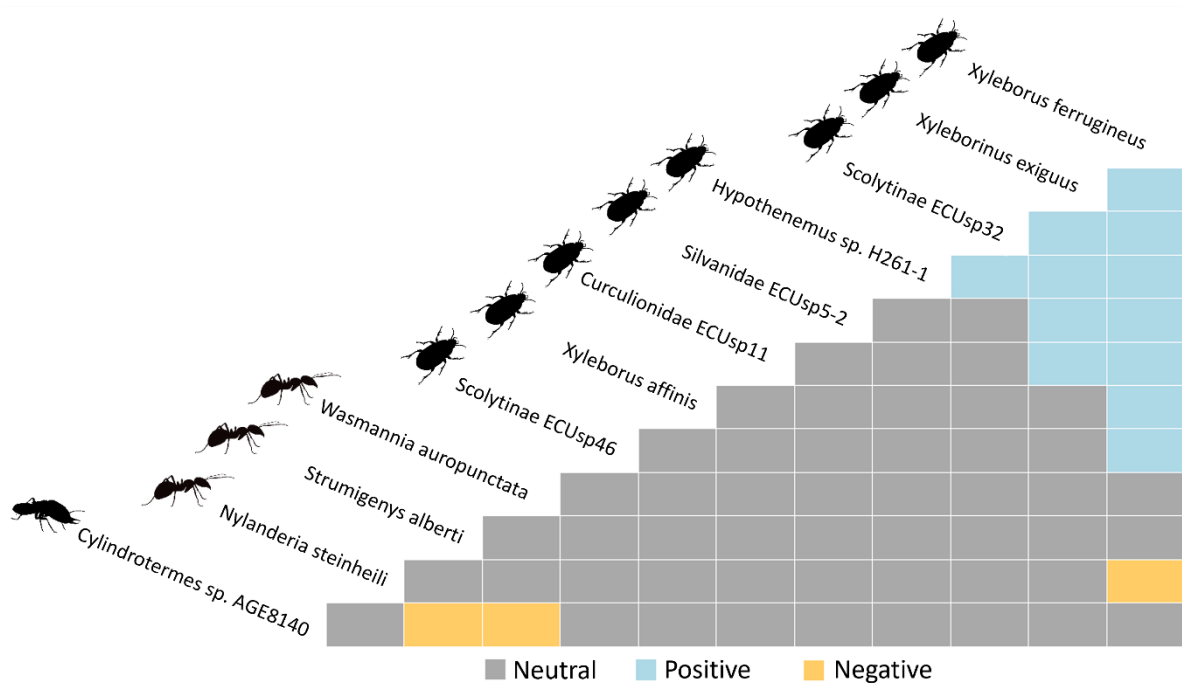
253 **Figure 3:** Rarefaction (solid lines) and extrapolation (dashed lines) curves of observed species
 254 ($q = 0$), the effective species number ($q = 1$) and the inverse of Simpson concentration ($q = 2$)
 255 of wood-dwelling insect diversity (ants, termites, beetles). Different colours represent different
 256 host tree species. Wood densities are given after the tree species. Differences in species
 257 diversity are significant when confidence intervals do not overlap.

258

259 **3.3 Co-occurrence analysis**

260 The co-occurrence analysis determined whether species co-occur randomly in the wood
261 pieces, or whether they co-occurred significantly more frequently (positive association) or less
262 frequently (negative association) than predicted by a null model. The analyses revealed that
263 most species pair combinations (99.25%) from the possible total number of 15225
264 combinations have an expected co-occurrence below 1. When removing these 15111
265 combinations, our results showed that from the remaining 114 species pairings 21 (13.2%)
266 were non-random with 12 positive and 3 negative pairings. These non-random co-occurrences
267 were distributed among 12 of the 174 identified insect species (Figure 4). Positive co-
268 occurrences were found exclusively among beetles. Beetles that could be determined to genus
269 level (*Xyleborus*, *Xyleborinus*, *Hypothenemus*) belonged to the subfamily Scolytinae which are
270 commonly called ambrosia beetles. *Xyleborus ferrugineus* showed the highest number of
271 positive associations (n = 7) and also a negative co-occurrence with the ant *Nylanderia*
272 *steinheili*, followed by *Xyleborinus exiguus* with the second most positive co-occurrences (n =
273 4).

274 From the ten termite species in our study area, only a *Cylindrotermes* species showed non-
275 random co-occurrences with other species. It was negatively associated with the ants
276 *Strumigenys alberti* and *Wasmannia auropunctata*. It was also the most encountered species
277 with 40 encounters and a total of 4051 individuals.



278

279 **Figure 4:** Co-occurrence patterns of ant, termite, and beetle species with non-random
 280 associations. The taxa were identified as positively associated when intersecting boxes are
 281 blue, negatively when boxes are yellow, and neutral when boxes are grey.

282

283 **4. DISCUSSION**

284 Our results demonstrate that diversity of dead wood dwelling insect communities in the Chocó
 285 rain forest is shaped by different filters, with forests hosting a high diversity compared to
 286 agriculture, followed by host tree identity as a driver of diversity, while biotic interactions
 287 between taxa played a comparatively minor role. Below we discuss each filter and consider
 288 their relative importance in this threatened tropical forest system.

289

290 **Diversity of saproxylic insects along the forest regeneration gradient**

291 Insect diversity in dead wood was higher in regenerating and old-growth forest, demonstrating
 292 the importance of forest habitats for dead wood dwelling insect diversity. We propose that this

293 pattern results from the combined effects of climate and increasing dead wood diversity with
294 forest age, which together promote niche differentiation and species diversity.

295 Our study plots experienced different microclimatic conditions depending on forest age.
296 Canopy cover increased with forest age, leading to climatic conditions with lower daily
297 extremes of temperatures and humidity as well as lower daily fluctuations of these (Newell et
298 al., 2026). Therefore, older regenerating forests and old-growth forests might offer more stable
299 and less extreme climatic conditions that can harbour more diverse assemblages of dead wood
300 dwelling insects.

301 Additionally, dead wood diversity and availability may also shift across the regeneration
302 gradient. While coarse woody debris (diameter > 7 cm) remains relatively constant in volume
303 and features (wood position, diameter class, and decay stages) across the gradient, fine woody
304 debris (< 7 cm) increases substantially in amount with forest age in our study area (Falconí-
305 López et al., 2024). This pattern parallels increases in tree species richness, forest structural
306 complexity (Escobar et al., 2025), and tree related microhabitats such as tree rot-holes and
307 dead lianas (Hausmann et al., 2026). This increased availability and diversity of dead wood
308 structures should provide greater niche space and resource heterogeneity, promoting overall
309 saproxylic species diversity and functional differentiation (Seibold et al., 2016; Heidrich et al.,
310 2020). These results align with previous research in the study area showing that forest
311 regeneration drives diversity increases across multiple taxa (Metz et al. 2026), including trees
312 (Escobar et al., 2025) and vertebrates (Grella et al., 2025) and insects (Grella et al., 2026).

313 Our results meet our expectations and are in line with many other studies demonstrating that
314 ant (Bihn et al., 2008; Rocha-Ortega et al, 2018; Karolak & Fiedler, 2024; Grella et al., 2026),
315 termite (Ackerman et al., 2009; Luke et al., 2014, de Paula et al., 2016; Duran-Bautista et al.,
316 2020; Castro et al., 2021; Duran-Bautista et al., 2024, Grella et al., 2026) and saproxylic beetle
317 (Grove, 2002; Lachat et al., 2006; Lachat & Müller, 2008) assemblages can react sensitively
318 to land-use change.

319 The low numbers of dead wood dwelling insect species in agricultural land underline the threat
320 of deforestation and land conversion to biodiversity. However, we showed that after
321 abandonment diversity has the potential to recover naturally. Hence, we argue that recovering
322 forests can also be valuable habitat for harbouring saproxylic species diversity, when given
323 enough time to recover. This conservation value of naturally regenerating forests has also
324 been proposed in other studies (Chazdon et al., 2009; Chazdon & Guariguata., 2016; Poorter
325 et al., 2021; Chazdon et al., 2025).

326

327 **Diversity of saproxylic insects in host tree species**

328 The host-tree diversity analysis revealed that host-tree identity acts as an additional filter on
329 saproxylic insect diversity. The highest diversity of common and dominant species ($q = 1$ and
330 $q = 2$) was found in *Trema micrantha*, *Theobroma cacao*, and *Inga spp.*

331 Contrary to our expectations, wood density did not explain differences in insect diversity among
332 host trees. Instead, the pattern appears to reflect the local abundance of each tree species
333 across the plots. A tree inventory by Escobar et al. (2025) showed that among all plots
334 *Theobroma cacao* was the most frequent tree ($n = 590$), followed by *Inga sp.* ($n = 327$), and
335 by *Trema micrantha* ($n = 239$). The host tree species with the lowest diversity of dead wood
336 dwelling species were also rarely found on the plots (*Hieronyma alchorneoides*: $n = 43$,
337 *Triplaris cumingiana*: $n = 1$). The genus *Inga* represented 37 different species/morphotypes
338 while there was only one tree of another *Trema* species (*T. integerrima*), two trees of another
339 and *Hieronyma* species (*H. macrocarpa*), 20 trees of other *Theobroma* species (*Th.*
340 *chocoensis*, *Th. gileri*) and no other *Triplaris* species.

341 These results suggest that the insect communities are adapted to the local abundances of tree
342 species, with higher insect species richness found in host trees that are also more abundant
343 in the landscape. This is consistent with studies in European forests where the diversity of
344 scolytid beetles in a host tree correlated with the resource availability of the tree species

345 (Bussler et al., 2011) and where phytophagous insect and mite diversity correlated with tree
346 abundance (Brändle & Brandl, 2001). However, a key limitation of studies such as Brändle &
347 Brandl (2001) is that they rely on compiled literature data, making it impossible to disentangle
348 whether certain tree species harbour high insect diversity because they are frequently
349 sampled, or because they are genuinely abundant and thereby promote insect diversity. Our
350 study overcomes this limitation through a standardized design in which insects could actively
351 choose from wood among co-occurring host tree species, and in which the occurrence of each
352 tree species was recorded from the same plots. This allows for direct, unconfounded
353 comparisons between insect diversity in host trees and the local availability of those trees.
354 Crucially, to our knowledge, this is one of the first studies that demonstrates this relationship
355 under such controlled conditions in a tropical forest, showing that tree species which are more
356 abundant in a tropical forest also support higher insect diversity.

357 Other studies have shown ambiguous results concerning the specialization of saproxylic
358 insects on host tree species. For instance, Hulcr et al. (2007) showed that most bark and
359 ambrosia beetles in a New Guinean rainforest were broad generalists in their selection of host
360 trees. In contrast, Müller et al. (2015) showed that saproxylic beetles prefer certain host tree
361 species while avoiding others in temperate forests in Germany. A further study in Germany
362 found no effect of host tree species on community composition (Vogelfänger et al., 2025).

363

364 **Species co-occurrences**

365 After initial habitat filtering by the surrounding habitat and by the host tree species, interactions
366 between species colonizing the dead wood can also play a role during dead wood assembly.
367 The results of our co-occurrence analysis, which identified positive, negative, or neutral
368 species-pair combinations, have shown that most species combinations have a very low
369 likelihood of co-occurrence in the dead wood pieces due to the low frequency of co-occurrence
370 of most species pair combinations. Nonetheless, the analysis identified some positive and
371 negative co-occurrences.

372 The positive co-occurrences occurred mostly among ambrosia beetles (*Xyleborus*,
373 *Xyleborinus*, *Hypothenemus*). These beetles live in facultatively social groups of parents and
374 their offspring in dead wood (Hulcr & Stelinski, 2017). They cultivate an ambrosia fungus in
375 their wood tunnels which they feed on (Hulcr & Stelinski, 2017; Biedermann & Vega., 2020).
376 The positive co-occurrences among these beetles might be explained by facilitation effects
377 among them. Brin & Bouget (2018) suggest several mechanisms how saproxylics can facilitate
378 the colonization of other saproxylic species: aiding in the localization of suitable host substrate
379 by the release of kairomones, increasing habitat quality by enriching wood mold with nutrient
380 rich frass or by creating entering holes, and the swamping of predators by group colonization
381 in high abundances. For example, an experiment conducted in north America has shown that
382 ambrosia species are attracted to volatiles released by their fungal symbionts or the symbiont
383 fungi by other ambrosia species (Hulcr et al., 2011). Thus, the occurrence of one ambrosia
384 species and its fungal symbiont might attract other species to the same wood. Interestingly,
385 many species had positive co-occurrences in *Triplaris cumingiana*. This host tree species
386 shows a low diversity when given more weight on common species ($q = 1$, $q = 2$) but a higher
387 diversity when giving more weight to rare species ($q = 0$). Hence, our results suggest that the
388 high effective number of species ($q = 0$) in *T. cumingiana* might be driven by rare species that
389 also have many co-occurrences in this host tree species. One possible explanation is that *T.*
390 *cumingiana*, which harbours lower diversity of abundant species, may offer a less colonized
391 and therefore more accessible substrate for rare specialists.

392 In contrast to our expectations, we did not detect many negative co-occurrences between ants
393 and termites. Since ants are important predators of termites (Tuma et al., 2020), we expected
394 them to exclude the colonization of termite colonies in the same wood pieces. However, there
395 were only two negative co-occurrences between these two groups. Hence, we suggest that
396 negative interactions between the captured saproxylics play a minor role for dead wood
397 colonization.

398 A study conducted in a subtropical forest in southeastern United States had a similar outcome
399 when comparing co-occurrence patterns of ant, termite and beetles when investigating the
400 impacts of fire on saproxylics in pine trees (Ulyshen et al., 2020). Their results likewise showed
401 that most interactions were neutral, while 6.2% of interactions were positive and 2.4% negative.
402 Similarly, also a high proportion of interactions were excluded from analysis (85.45%) as the
403 expected co-occurrence was smaller than one. Our study yielded a higher proportion of non-
404 random interactions (13.2% of the 114 retained pairs), which may reflect differences in species
405 diversity (and here especially the presence of many rare species), community composition,
406 substrate diversity, or the higher decay rates in tropical forests (Seibold et al., 2021) enforcing
407 the interactions of species within logs. Even in the temperate zone a higher number of species
408 and individuals per unit of wood, increasing the potential of interactions has been shown with
409 increasing temperature (Müller et al., 2015). Despite this difference, the predominance of
410 neutral interactions in both studies supports the conclusion that biotic interactions might not be
411 the primary drivers of saproxylic community assembly in dead wood.

412

413 **Limitations and outlook**

414 While our study provides insights into diversity, host tree specialization and species co-
415 occurrences of three saproxylic taxa in dead wood along a tropical forest regeneration gradient,
416 some open questions and constraints remain. The first affects the understanding of assembly
417 mechanisms in dead wood. As discussed before, our study comprises a snapshot of the
418 diversity and co-occurrences that had been established after six months. However, priority
419 effects taking the assembly history into account could also have influenced the species
420 community and diversity and were only indirectly measured by co-occurrence analysis. In dead
421 wood, decomposers can change wood properties during the different stages of decomposition
422 leading to niche modification and a succession of different decomposer communities adapted
423 to each decomposition stage (Fukami, 2015; Ulyshen, 2016). For understanding priority

424 effects, repeated measurements would be necessary, which are difficult to conduct in dead
425 wood.

426 Additionally, our co-occurrence analysis only compared observed co-occurrences with those
427 expected under a probabilistic null model. This means that our predominantly neutral result
428 may underestimate the role of biotic interactions: aggressive encounters during the initial
429 colonization phase could have excluded certain taxa from a wood piece entirely, leaving no
430 detectable trace in the final assemblage. Future research using staged colonization
431 experiments or direct behavioural observations is needed to assess whether such early
432 exclusion events shape the communities we observe.

433 Furthermore, positive co-occurrences do not necessarily reflect direct facilitation between
434 species. They could equally result from independent specialization on shared wood traits, with
435 multiple species converging on the same wood piece because it offers particular chemical or
436 structural properties rather than because one species facilitates another. This has been
437 demonstrated in a study by Azeria et al. (2012) where significant aggregations in saproxylic
438 beetle species co-occurrences were mainly explained by habitat effects such as tree size,
439 diameter at breast height, tree species and burn severity after fire. However, even after
440 accounting for habitat effects more than a quarter of co-occurrences remained significant
441 indicating the effects of species interactions.

442 Because our study design does not allow us to directly distinguish whether co-occurrences
443 arise from shared habitat requirements or from interspecific interactions, disentangling these
444 mechanisms would require experimental approaches that examine wood chemistry and
445 colonization sequences independently, which would substantially advance our understanding
446 of the processes driving deadwood community assembly and diversity.

447

448 **Conclusion**

449 Our study delivers valuable insights into the ecology of dead wood dwelling insects in
450 regenerating tropical forests. We have shown that insect diversity can recover in regenerating
451 forests which highlights the resilience of dead wood dwelling communities in the tropics to
452 recover in regrowing forests but also the importance of old-growth forests. The low diversity of
453 saproxylic insects in agricultural land underlines the threat that deforestation poses to these
454 communities.

455 Aside from forest age, also host tree species and thus wood traits determine the diversity in
456 dead wood, but with no clear pattern with wood density. The insect diversity in the different
457 host tree species rather corresponded with the tree abundance of the same species in the
458 landscape.

459 The results of our co-occurrence analysis revealed possible facilitation effects among
460 ambrosia beetles and some exclusion effects among ants and termites as well as for a single
461 ambrosia beetle species. However, as most species interactions were neutral, these results
462 suggest that interaction between the observed species might not play a major role during
463 assembly.

464

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