

1 **Title: Higher internal stem damage in dry compared to wet tropics: where**
2 **are we overestimating forest biomass?**

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24
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26 precipitation, decay, termites

29 **Summary**

- 30 • Woody biomass is a large carbon store in terrestrial ecosystems. In calculating
31 biomass, tree stems are assumed to be solid structures; however, decomposer agents
32 such as microbes and insects target heartwood in stems, causing internal wood decay
33 which is poorly quantified.
- 34 • We investigated internal stem damage across five sites in tropical Australia along a
35 precipitation gradient. We estimated the amount of internal aboveground biomass
36 damaged in living trees and measured four potential stem damage predictors: density
37 and diameter of the stem, and precipitation and relative damage by termites of
38 downed deadwood at the site.
- 39 • Stem damage increased with increasing diameter, wood density, and termite damage
40 in downed deadwood, and decreased with increasing precipitation. A strong
41 interaction occurred between site-level predictors and wood density, likely a result of
42 shifting decomposer communities and their differing responses to changes in tree
43 species and wood traits across sites.
- 44 • Aboveground biomass estimates are considerably reduced when stem damage is
45 incorporated, especially in Australian savannas where damage exceeded 30%.
46 Accurate estimates of carbon storage across woody plant communities are critical for
47 understanding the global carbon budget. Future biomass estimates should consider
48 stem damage in concert with effects of changes in decomposer communities and
49 abiotic conditions.

50

51 **Introduction**

52 Living plant biomass represents 42% of terrestrial carbon (C) storage (Pan et al., 2011). In
53 estimating these stores, trees are typically assumed to be solid structures with biomass often
54 estimated using their height and diameter in relation to regional or global allometric
55 relationships (Zuleta et al., 2023). Yet living tree stems are susceptible to biomass loss via
56 microbial heart rot and insect damage (Romero and Bolker, 2008, Heineman et al., 2015a).
57 External stem damage is easily observable, but internal stem damage (i.e., damage to biomass
58 underneath the bark) while long noted (Janzen, 1976, Brown et al., 1995) is typically
59 unaccounted for in estimates of woody aboveground biomass; it is more difficult to quantify
60 (Heineman et al., 2015b). The assumption that tree stems are internally solid structures with
61 no damage can potentially lead to overestimates of the amount of C that forests hold.

62 Tropical trees represent ~70% of the global forest C sink (Le Quéré et al., 2016,
63 Mitchard, 2018, Pan et al., 2011). A handful of studies in the tropics demonstrated microbial
64 heart rot and termite hollowing of tree trunks in rainforests (Apolinário and Martius, 2004,
65 Eleuterio et al., 2020, Heineman et al., 2015a), savannas (N'Dri et al., 2011, Werner and
66 Prior, 2007) and peat swamps (Monda et al., 2015). In tropical rainforests, Eleuterio et al.
67 (2020) and Heineman et al. (2015a) provide estimates of the extent of internal stem damage
68 in the Amazon and Borneo, respectively. Additionally, Monda et al. (2015) offered revised
69 allometric models that incorporate stem damage for tropical peat swamp forests in Sarawak;
70 they estimate that stem volume is reduced by 42% from hollowing. Studies in other tropical
71 rainforests, as well as arid and semi-arid forests, have yet to scale up observations of internal
72 stem damage to the ecosystem level. Further, comparative biomass loss from internal stem
73 damage across forest types has not been quantified. Given differences in tree and decomposer
74 species composition and biomass, there is a need to better estimate the extent of internal stem
75 damage and its consequences for aboveground biomass across tropical forests, for example
76 wet to dry, to accurately determine forest biomass and carbon storage in the tropics.

77 To scale biomass estimates from trees to ecosystems, it is additionally important to
78 understand correlates of internal stem damage. Given that heartwood in living stems is dead,
79 the extent of internal stem damage in living trees may be related to factors that similarly
80 affect rates of deadwood decomposition on the forest floor. Wood decomposition is impacted
81 by wood traits (Kirk and Cowling, 1984, Zanne et al., 2015), moisture availability (Boddy
82 and Rayner, 1983, Chambers et al., 2000), and decomposer activity (Bani et al., 2018,
83 Griffiths et al., 2019). For stem-level wood traits, large diameters may carry more damage
84 because they have more tissue at risk to decay agents. In fact, large trees had more frequent

85 heart rot in tropical rainforests (Eleuterio et al., 2020, Heineman et al., 2015a) and more
86 hollowing by termites in savannas (Werner and Prior, 2007). Trees with high wood density
87 may be slow to decompose (Chambers et al., 2000), mediated by microbial and termite
88 (major biotic decay agents in the tropics, Cornwell et al., 2009) decay capacities. Dense wood
89 can be inaccessible due to its greater structural integrity (Chambers et al., 2000 but see ,
90 Harmon et al., 2020, Weedon et al., 2009) and smaller pore spaces, decreasing water
91 permeability and slowing pathogen attack and decomposition (Augsburger and Kelly, 1984,
92 Chave et al., 2009, Mori et al., 2014). Nevertheless, studies in tropical rainforests failed to
93 find links between wood density and internal stem damage (Heineman et al., 2015a).

94 Across sites, moisture variation directly affects the decay process by determining the
95 composition and activity of the decomposer community in wood (Cheesman et al., 2018,
96 Clement et al., 2021, consortium et al., 2019). For downed deadwood, decomposition by
97 microbes decreases and by termites increases with increasing aridity (Cheesman et al., 2018,
98 Clement et al., 2021, Veldhuis et al., 2017, Zanne et al., 2022). We know less about living
99 tree decomposers, but microbial heart rot (Gilbert et al., 2016, Highley and Kirk, 1979) and
100 termite hollowing have been documented (Eleuterio et al., 2020, N'dri et al., 2014, Werner
101 and Prior, 2007). Based on this past work, we would predict that internal stem damage tips
102 toward microbial decay at wet sites and termite driven decay at dry sites. Precipitation can
103 also indirectly affect decay as it determines the tree species composition and wood
104 construction of those species. Trees are often small in size in dry sites likely in part due to
105 slower growth (Pretzsch et al., 2018) and resource limitations. Additionally, wood density is
106 typically high in dry sites (Chave et al., 2014, Zanne et al., 2015) perhaps mediated through
107 selection for resistance to cavitation (Greenwood et al., 2017) and slow growth. Both
108 maximum plant size and wood density vary across the plant phylogeny, with some clades
109 having particularly dense wood or large stems; these traits will have shaped the
110 biogeographic distribution of tree species. It is therefore likely that clades with more internal
111 stem damage in dry sites are different from those in wet sites, with damage driven by
112 different biotic factors.

113 Given the interactive ways that wood traits, decay agents and moisture availability
114 change across sites, we examined their effects on internal stem damage individually and in
115 combination. Specifically, we investigated the amount of internal stem damage in living trees
116 across a tropical rainfall gradient in Queensland, Australia. Our sites span a range of biomes
117 (savanna to rainforest) along a precipitation gradient from $\sim 800\text{mm yr}^{-1}$ to $\sim 4,500\text{mm yr}^{-1}$.
118 We measured four internal stem damage predictors at the stem- and site- level: wood density

119 (stem), stem diameter (stem), precipitation (site), and the relative damage by termites of
120 downed deadwood (site). To understand the within- and across-site patterns in stem damage
121 across the tree-of-life, we compared the distribution of trait values, biomass, and internal
122 stem damage among the different branches of the plant phylogeny present at our sites. To
123 place these findings in a broader context, we used allometric equations to compare
124 aboveground biomass estimates of our sites before and after accounting for internal stem
125 damage, as modeled by our four predictors. Given that internal stem damage may or may not
126 accumulate randomly across the width and height of the tree, we explored the sensitivity of
127 biomass estimates to different assumptions about the extent of internal stem damage. Here we
128 asked the following questions:

- 129 1. Do sites differ in internal stem damage and potential predictors? Following, is greater
130 internal stem damage associated with A. lower wood density, B. smaller stem
131 diameters, C. wetter sites, and D. higher termite activity in downed deadwood?
- 132 2. With a shift in the dominant decay agent (between microbes and termites), is there a
133 shift in the effect of wood density on internal stem damage?
- 134 3. Are there particular plant clades that are more susceptible to internal stem damage and
135 do these susceptible clades differ across the precipitation gradient?
- 136 4. Does accounting for internal stem damage strongly alter aboveground biomass
137 estimates, and does the degree of this alteration vary across the precipitation gradient?

138

139 **Materials and methods**

140 We sampled the woody plants in 50 x 50 m survey plots at five sites along a 100-km rainfall
141 gradient in northeast Queensland, with mean annual rainfall ranging from 812 to 4458 mm.
142 Mean annual rainfall over 30 years was obtained at 90m resolution from the Bureau of
143 Meteorology for each site (Australian Bureau of Meteorology, 2021). Our wettest site is
144 located in the Daintree Rainforest (Rft2; -16.10 S, 145.44 E) part of James Cook University's
145 Daintree Rainforest Observatory next to the Coral Sea. Our driest site, Pennyweight (Sav1; -
146 16.57 S, 144.92 E), is a dry savanna 58 km inland from the Coral Sea coast and located on the
147 western side of the Great Dividing Range of northeast Queensland. Three intermediate
148 precipitation sites are found on Mt. Lewis, located to the southeast of site Sav1. Station Creek
149 (Sav2; -16.61 S, 145.24 E) averages 1728 mm of rainfall annually and is a wet savanna
150 located at the western slope of Mt. Lewis. A wet sclerophyll forest (Scl1; 2189 mm of rain
151 annually; -16.58 S, 145.26 E) and a high elevation rainforest (Rft1; 2630 mm of rain annually;
152 -16.59 S, 145.28 E) are located on Mt. Lewis. All sites experience a distinct wet and dry

153 season, with 77% of rainfall occurring between November and April (Cheesman et al., 2018).
154 Sav1, Sav2, Scl1, and Rft1 are located within the Australian Wildlife Conservancy's
155 Brooklyn Sanctuary, Rft2 is located in James Cook University Daintree Research
156 Observatory.

157

158 We measured the diameter at breast height (DBH) of all trees ≥ 10 cm in each plot at our five
159 sites. Wood density data were extracted from the Tree Functional Attributes and Ecological
160 Database (Harja et al., 2019). Wherever possible we used species-level data. If no species
161 data existed, we used genus- or family-mean values, in that order of preference. Percentage
162 termite damage in downed deadwood was taken from Clement et al. (2021), in which they
163 established 50 m deadwood survey transects within 50 m x 50 m termite survey plots
164 adjacent to the woody plant survey plots studied here. In total, four transects were sampled in
165 each plot, two during the wet season and two during the dry season. Each piece of wood >2
166 cm diameter intersecting the transect was assessed for termite damage (additional details in
167 Clement et al., 2021).

168

169 *Internal stem damage identification*

170 To measure internal stem damage at each of our five sites, we selected trees with varying
171 DBH stratified by species. In total, we sampled 258 unique stems (average 51.6 stems per
172 site) from 87 species. We used an IML-RESI power drill (Residrill; PD-500, IML, Germany)
173 to determine the presence of stem damage in living trees. All trees were drilled at breast
174 height (130 cm) across the longest diameter. Because we were measuring damage based on
175 changes in resistance, damaged wood could not be attributed to microbe versus termite
176 activity. The source of damage was inferred via evidence of termite activity following
177 (Clement et al., 2021).

178 Internal stem damage was quantified as the percentage change from sound wood (Fig
179 S1). We used a dynamic programming algorithm to detect discontinuities (i.e. change points)
180 in the wood resistance to drilling. This approach assumes that the resistance to drilling
181 fluctuates around some underlying signal (otherwise known as 'sound wood'), "f", associated
182 with properties of the stem. Here, $f(t)$ represents the response at depth $z(t)$, and e_j represents a
183 sequence of residual errors. Then, if t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n are the sampling radius, we can decompose
184 resistance to drilling y_j as:

$$185 \quad (1) \quad y_j = f(t_j) + e_j; 1 \leq j \leq n$$

186 Assuming the wood properties of the stem do not change within each section means
187 that f is a piecewise constant. We expect that there exist discontinuities $\tau_1, \tau_2, \dots, \tau_{K-1}$ and wood
188 segments values $\mu_1, \mu_2, \dots, \mu_K$ such that:

189 (2) $f(t) = \mu_k$ if $\tau_{k-1} < t \leq \tau_k$

190 where K is the number of wood segments, and where $\tau_0=0$ and $\tau_K=n$. Thus, for any $\tau_{k-1} < j \leq \tau_k$,

191 (3) $y_j = \mu_k + e_j$

192 To select the number of segments, we examined the relationship between the residual
193 sum of squares (RSS) from the piecewise function (above) and the number of segments K
194 ($K_{\max} = 50$) with the goal of minimizing RSS with respect to the number of segments in the
195 wood. For each stem, we looked for the value of K at which the total RSS of the piecewise
196 regression (above) abruptly changed, that is the inflection or knee point of the curve between
197 RSS and K ; this provided an estimate \hat{K} (i.e., optimal number of segments for the piecewise
198 regression). To diagnose whether the segments of wood identified in the previous step were
199 sound or damaged, we ran a lower-tailed z-test ($\alpha = 0.05$). For each stem, we compared
200 the segments derived on the piecewise regression (above) to the mean of sound wood,
201 represented by 10-50% of the stem. Damage may accumulate unevenly across the diameter of
202 the stem; for each stem we split the internal stem damage trace in half prior to detecting
203 discontinuities in the wood resistance to drilling trace as described above.

204

205 *Analyses*

206 *Random vs. nonrandom stem damage*

207 Internal stem damage in trees may accumulate randomly or nonrandomly. Detected
208 internal damage at a given height may be representative of the entire length and diameter of
209 the tree or damage may differ at different heights or parts of the diameter within the tree. We
210 were unable to account for all possible nonrandom patterns, but here we assess one random
211 and three nonrandom assumptions of estimating damage (Table S1). If damage accumulates
212 randomly then a linear transect of the tree stem will be representative of the damage in the
213 tree. On the other hand, damage could accumulate nonrandomly. For example, internal stem
214 damage may be more prevalent near the pith or further out near the sapwood. Damage closer
215 to the pith of the tree will contribute less to the proportion of cross-sectional area damaged
216 than damage closer to the sapwood (due to the nature of radial scaling). Further, damage
217 could change with height in the stem (Li et al., 2016, Roisin et al., 2006) or third, it could
218 affect the amount of biomass in the crown. The consequences of such nonrandom damage
219 could be significant given two of the biggest damage agents, microbes and termites, cause

220 heart rot and stem hollowing in our systems; they are both expected to target the oldest
221 heartwood closest to the pith.

222 First, to test the sensitivity of our damage estimates to random and nonrandom
223 damage across the radius of the stem, we estimated the proportion of internal stem damage on
224 a linear- and area-basis, with the area-basis allowing us to estimate nonrandom effects of
225 distance from pith. Then we ran a standard major axis analysis to compare the relationship
226 between the linear- and area-based methods to estimate internal stem damage. This analysis
227 revealed a relationship that is not significantly different from isometric (i.e., slope overlaps 1)
228 between these two methods to estimate damage (slope = 0.99 CI 0.92-1.06, $P < 0.0001$, Fig
229 S2), leading us to continue with the linear assumption to estimate how internal stem damage
230 reduces biomass estimates.

231 Second, the internal stem damage measured at DBH may extend throughout the stem
232 or it may only occur locally. As it extends, the amount of damage may increase, decrease or
233 stay constant across the height of the tree. Third, internal stem damage may lead to crown
234 loss. Consequently, the proportion of internal damage measured at DBH may under or
235 overestimate damage across the tree. To bracket the potential effect of internal stem damage
236 variation on biomass calculations, we compared aboveground (i.e., including canopy) and
237 only stem biomass (i.e., excluding canopy) estimates, as well as aboveground biomass and
238 only stem biomass estimates assuming constant (i.e., excluding the crown), 50% increase and
239 50% decrease in internal stem damage (see below in section for aboveground biomass
240 calculation; Table S1). We estimated the relationship between stem biomass and AGB using
241 the BAAD dataset (Falster et al., 2015) of individual trees (log-transformed) and applied this
242 regression model to predict stem biomass using our AGB estimates (Table S2).

243

244 *Stem damage, DBH and wood density across sites*

245 We ran Analysis of Variance (ANOVAs) to test whether stem damage, DBH and wood
246 density varied across our sites, and, for significant ANOVA's, we ran Tukey's HSD tests to
247 determine which sites were significantly different from one another (Q1). To determine if
248 internal stem damage varied with each of the site and species level predictors, we ran
249 bivariate models with each of the individual stem-level (stem diameter, wood density) and
250 site-level (rainfall, percentage of termite damage in downed woody debris) variables as
251 predictors and proportion of internal stem damage as the response variable. Given the
252 expected shift in decomposer activity (between microbes and termites) across sites from
253 rainforest to savanna, we explored how the interaction of wood density and site variables

254 predicted internal stem damage (Q2). For all models, we fit a logistic binomial regression
255 with a weight for the proportion of the stem sampled and random intercept for site. The
256 weight in such models represents the completeness of the internal stem sampled. We used the
257 likelihood ratio to compare the explanatory power of the interaction against the bivariate
258 models.

259 *Stem damage mapped across phylogeny*

260 Additionally, we visualized how species across the phylogeny changed across sites in
261 their susceptibility to internal stem damage (Q3). Finally, we examined the possible impacts
262 of interspecific susceptibility to internal stem damage on species (Q3) and site (Q4) level
263 aboveground biomass estimates. For Q3 and Q4, we first estimated the amount of
264 aboveground biomass contributed by each species at each site in our woody plant survey
265 plots by estimating the aboveground biomass for each individual tree > 10 cm in DBH in our
266 communities following (Chave et al., 2014) and second we added up the individual tree
267 estimates (n = 679) at each site. Briefly, the Chave et al. (2014) pantropical model estimates
268 tree aboveground biomass (AGB) as follows:

$$269 \quad (4) \text{ AGB} = 0.0673 \cdot (WD \cdot H \cdot D^2)^{0.976}$$

270 Where WD is wood density in g cm^{-3} , H is height in m, D is diameter in cm and AGB is in
271 Mg (metric tonnes). When height data were not available, we used the Chave et al. (2014)
272 AGB model based on diameter, wood density and environmental stress:

$$273 \quad (5) \text{ AGB} = \exp [-1.803 - 0.976E + 0.976\ln(WD) + 2.673\ln(D) - 0.0299[\ln(D)^2]]$$

274 In this allometric model of AGB, E is a measurement of environmental stress based on the
275 effect of temperature seasonality, climatic water deficit and precipitation seasonality (Chave
276 et al., 2014). To visualize differences among lineages across the plant phylogeny (Q3), we
277 mapped the average species wood density, as well as species average internal stem damage
278 and total aboveground biomass for species at each site subsetting the Smith and Brown
279 (2018) phylogeny to those species in our study. We use phyndr to maximize the overlap
280 between the phylogenetic tree and the diameter and internal stem damage data (Pennell et al.,
281 2016).

282

283 *Stem damage and carbon accounting*

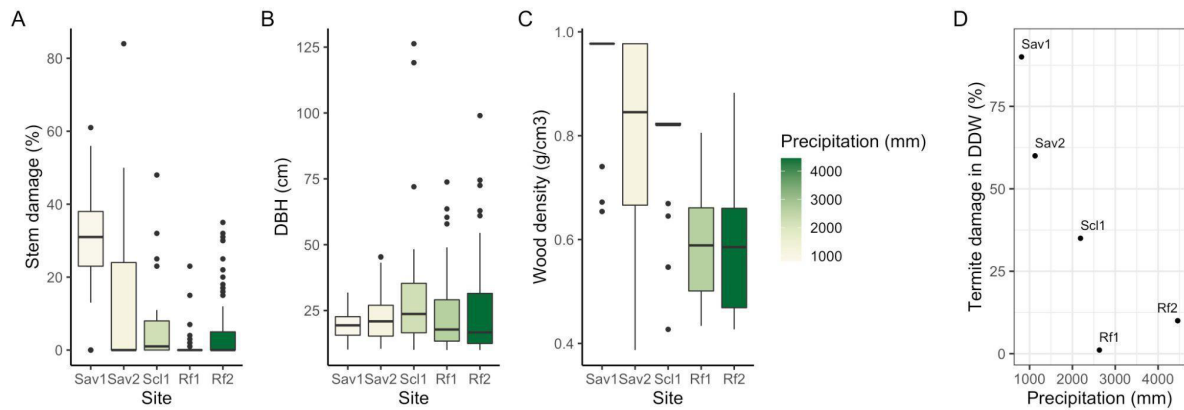
284 To understand the consequences of internal stem damage on carbon accounting (Q4),
285 we calculated aboveground biomass with and without damage for every site following the
286 Chave et al. (2014) equation above. First, we used the AGB for every individual tree > 10 cm

287 in DBH in our communities ($n = 679$). Once we estimated the aboveground biomass at the
288 tree level, we determined area-based estimates at each site by summing all stems and dividing
289 by the plot area. We compared the stem biomass and AGB estimates at the plot level, with
290 and without the damage prediction across our five sites using a paired t -test. We use the wood
291 density and precipitation interaction model to predict damage, as few studies quantify termite
292 damaged in downed deadwood (DDW), while precipitation is readily available for most
293 locations. We ran all the analyses above for both linear- and area-based internal stem damage
294 estimates. Area-based estimates allowed us to examine non-random changes in damage with
295 radius, although we only present linear-based estimates in the main text. Area based estimates
296 are presented in Supplementary information (Tables S5 and S6). We performed all analyses
297 using R 4.2.2 (R Core Team, 2022)

298

299 **Results**

300 Counter to our expectation that stem damage would be greater in forest sites, internal stem
301 damage (proportion of trace with damage) was instead greater in savanna sites ($P < 0.0001$,
302 Fig 1A, Table S3), as precipitation decreased ($P < 0.0001$, $R^2 = 0.20$, $n = 226$; Fig S3C).
303 Larger stems accumulated more internal damage ($P < 0.0001$, $R^2 = 0.03$, $n = 226$; Fig S3A),
304 whereas stem diameter distributions showed little variation among sites ($P = 0.18$, Fig 1B,
305 Table S3). Wood density was higher at dry sites ($P < 0.0001$, Fig 1C, Table S3). Denser
306 stems also accumulated more internal damage ($P < 0.0001$, $R^2 = 0.03$, $n = 226$; Fig 1A, S3).
307 Dry sites were previously shown to have greater termite damage in downed deadwood (Fig
308 1D, Clement et al 2021); internal stem damage increased at these sites where termite damage
309 in downed deadwood was high ($P < 0.0001$, $R^2 = 0.25$, $n = 226$; Fig S3). The explanatory
310 power of each of the single predictor models of internal stem damage was low to moderate,
311 with stem level predictors explaining 0.8-3% and site level predictors explaining 20-25% of
312 the variation in damage (Table S4).

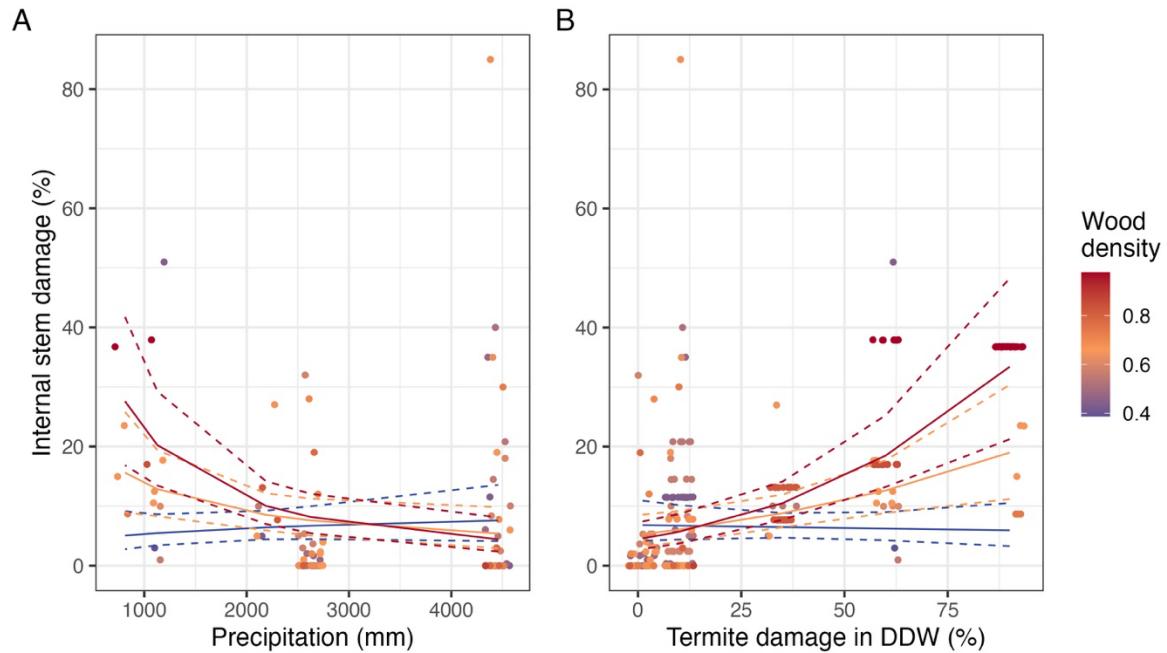


313
 314 **Figure 1.** Variation in A. percentage internal stem damage, B. tree diameter at breast height
 315 (DBH, in cm), C. wood density (g m^{-3}) across the study sites and D. termite decomposition
 316 activity expressed as a percentage of downed deadwood (DDW) across the study sites and
 317 precipitation gradient (from Clement et al. 2021 for panel D). Sites are from driest at Sav1 to
 318 increasingly wetter moving from Sav2, Scl1, Rf1 to Rf2.

319

320 In multivariate models of stem damage, wood density was retained in both site level
 321 models, as well as a significant interaction term between wood density and site level
 322 predictors (Fig 2, Table S4). Stems with high wood density experienced less internal damage
 323 in wet sites and more internal damage in dry sites. Similarly, stems with high wood density
 324 experienced more internal stem damage in sites with high termite damage in downed
 325 deadwood than those with low termite damage. However, stems with low wood density
 326 showed little change in internal stem damage across changes in either precipitation or termite
 327 damage in downed deadwood. Although these models with an interaction term between wood
 328 density and site level predictors only explained $\sim 3\%$ more variation than the single site-level
 329 predictor models, both models had highly significant interaction terms and represented a
 330 better explanation of the data (LRT $P < 0.001$) than the single variable models (Fig 2; Table
 331 S4).

332



333

334 **Figure 2.** Marginal effects plots of probability of internal stem damage of individual trees
 335 (dots) adjusted for low (blue), intermediate (orange) and high (bright red) wood density (g m^{-3}) across A. precipitation (mm) and B. percent termite damage in downed deadwood (DDW).
 336 ³) across A. precipitation (mm) and B. percent termite damage in downed deadwood (DDW).
 337 Dashed lines represent a 95% CI.

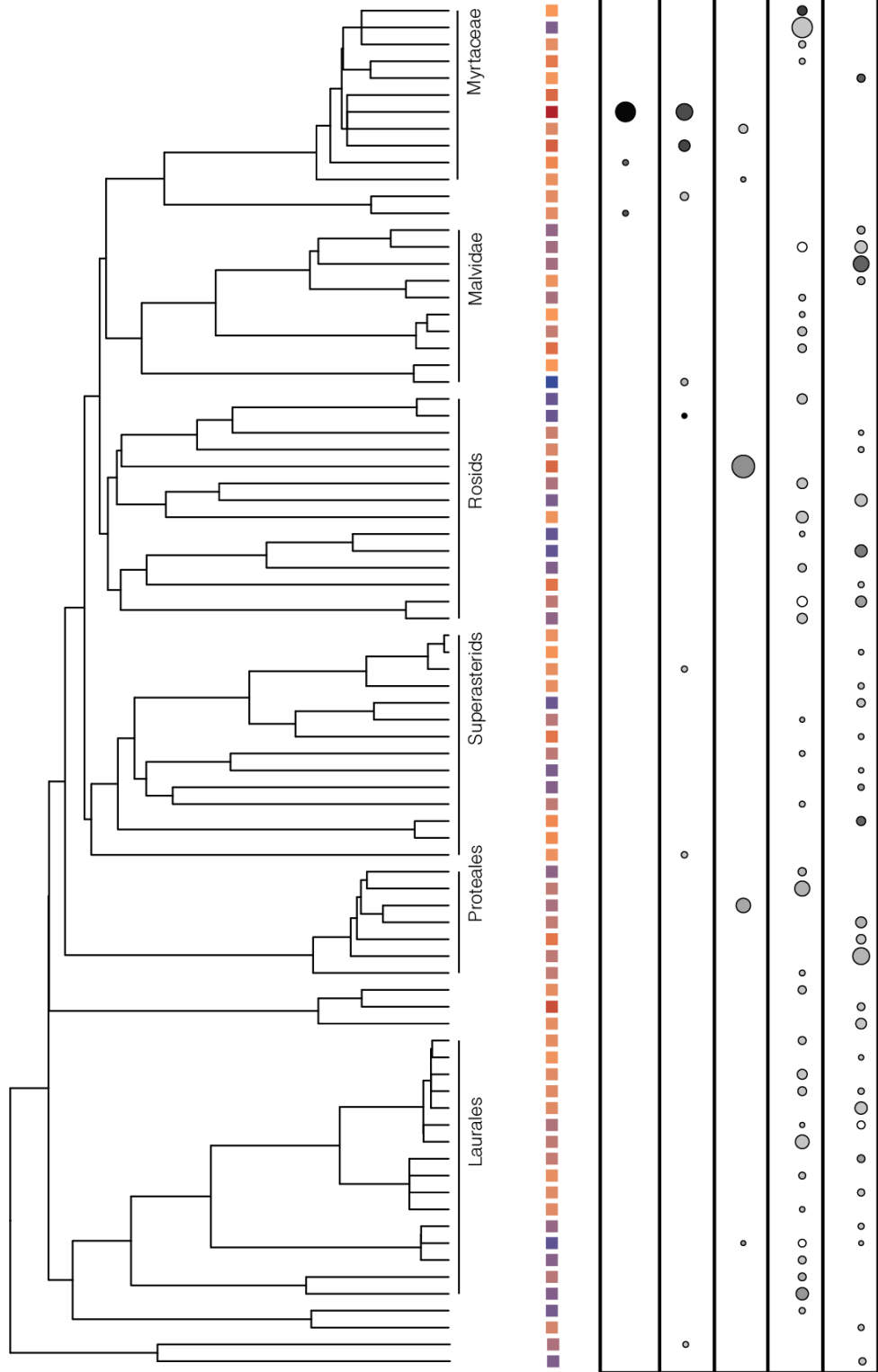
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339 While across-site differences in internal stem damage appeared at least in part driven
 340 by the internal stem damage response of denser wooded species (Fig 2, Table S4), large
 341 variation in both internal stem damage and wood density occurred within sites (Fig 1D, Fig 3,
 342 Table 1). Aboveground biomass in drier sites was dominated by Myrtaceae which had dense
 343 wood and high internal stem damage (Fig 3, Table 1), with internal stem damage also high (\geq
 344 0.1) in members of the Combretaceae, Fabaceae, Moraceae, Rubiaceae and Santalaceae.

345 Wet sites had species broadly distributed across seed plants with Fabaceae, Lauraceae,
 346 Myrtaceae, Proteaceae and Rutaceae contributing considerable aboveground biomass ≥ 20
 347 Mg ha^{-1}). Species with the most damage (≥ 0.1) were in the Annonaceae, Cardiopteridaceae,
 348 Euphorbiaceae, Fabaceae, Lauraceae, Myrtaceae, Podocarpaceae, Rutaceae and Sapotaceae.

349 Overall, wet site species were more variable in wood density, aboveground biomass, and
 350 internal stem damage. The intermediate site aboveground biomass was dominated by
 351 Casuarinaceae and Proteaceae (≥ 0.5), followed by Myrtaceae (≥ 0.1); interestingly, species in
 352 the Lauraceae had the lowest wood density and some of the lowest internal stem damage.

353



355 **Figure 4.** Phylogeny of sampled tree stems with squares indicating species wood density (g
 356 m⁻³, low in blue, high in red), and circles indicating both average species internal stem
 357 damage (in grayscale) and species contributions to 50x50 m plot level aboveground biomass
 358 (by size) across a 5-site precipitation gradient (from left to right, wettest to driest).

359

360 **Table 1.** Mean and SD of internal stem damage for species with more than three individuals
 361 per site. Species by site are ranked in order of most damaged to least damaged.

Damage rank	Site	Species	Family	Mean damage	SD damage
1	Sav2	<i>Eucalyptus cullenii</i>	Myrtaceae	37.9	20.05
2	Sav1	<i>Eucalyptus cullenii</i>	Myrtaceae	36.78	25.32
3	Rf2	<i>Flindersia bourjotiana</i>	Rutaceae	20.8	19.52
4	Sav2	<i>Larsenaikia ochreatea</i>	Rubiaceae	17.67	15.37
5	Sav2	<i>Corymbia clarksoniana</i>	Myrtaceae	17	22.16
6	Rf2	<i>Brombya platynema</i>	Rutaceae	14.5	10.85
7	Sc11	<i>Eucalyptus resinifera</i> subsp. <i>resinifera</i>	Myrtaceae	13.15	11.22
8	Rf2	<i>Macaranga subdentata</i>	Euphorbiaceae	11.5	15.15
9	Sc11	<i>Banksia aquilonia</i>	Proteaceae	10	12.49
10	Sav2	<i>Acacia disparrima</i> subsp. <i>calidestris</i>	Fabaceae	10	17.32
11	Sav1	<i>Melaleuca stenostachya</i>	Myrtaceae	8.67	10.26
12	Rf2	<i>Austromuelleria trinervia</i>	Proteaceae	8.33	7.37

13	Rf2	<i>Medicosma fareana</i>	Rutaceae	7.8	13.01
14	Sc11	<i>Allocasuarina torulosa</i>	Casuarinaceae	7.69	8.6
15	Rf1	<i>Castanospora alphandii</i>	Sapindaceae	5.33	5.51
16	Rf1	<i>Daphnandra repandula</i>	Atherospermataceae	3.67	4.04
17	Rf2	<i>Carnarvonia araliifolia</i>	Proteaceae	1.67	4.08
18	Rf1	<i>Syzygium trachyphloium</i>	Myrtaceae	1.67	2.89
19	Rf2	<i>Ormosia ormondii</i>	Fabaceae	0.33	0.58
20	Rf2	<i>Licuala ramsayi</i>	Areaceae	0	0

362

363

364

365 density and precipitation (see Precipitation model in Table S4). Our modified model

366 estimated that across our sites 608 Mg ha⁻¹ of cumulative biomass may be damaged, or

367 between 2.9-36.2% of aboveground biomass per site, with some of this biomass entirely

368 missing. Percentage above ground biomass damage was variable across our sites with the

369 drier savanna sites (with the highest termite activity; Fig 1D) estimated to have much higher

370 damage than other sites (Figure 4A), with >30% damaged at our driest and <30% damaged at

371 our wettest sites. This result is despite the lower total biomass found in savannas than

372 rainforests (Fig 4 B and C). When we tested sensitivity of these differences to variation

373 within the tree, our bracketed internal stem damage estimate (with a $\pm 50\%$ increase and

374 decrease in damage across the height of the tree) suggests that the damaged biomass across

375 our sites could be as low as 38 Mg and as high as 114 Mg. Meanwhile, in our sensitivity

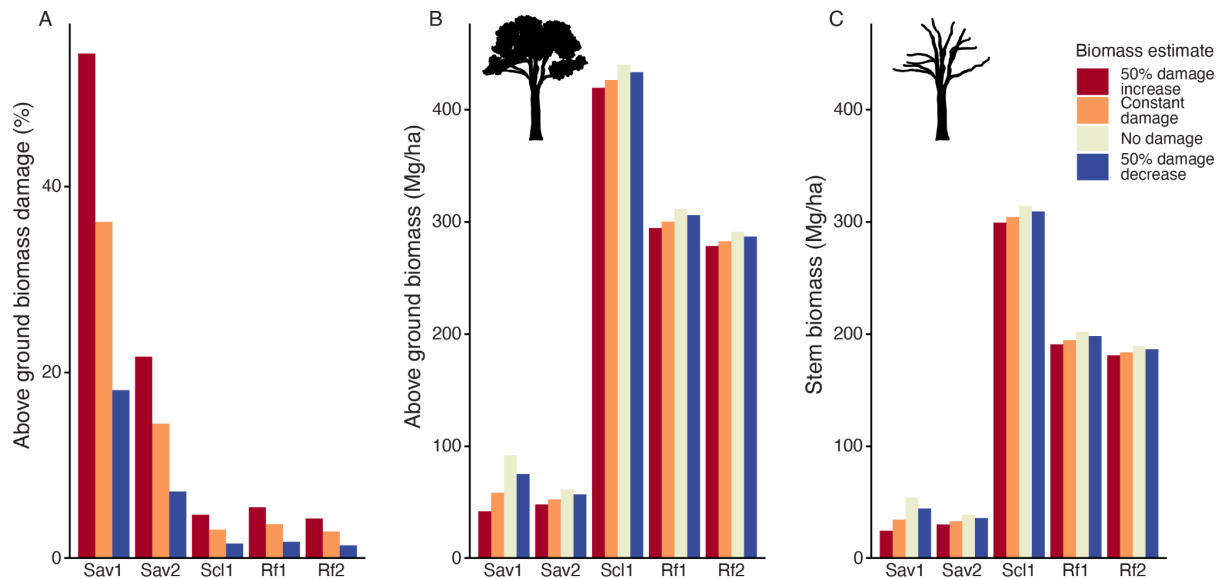
376 analyses in which we assume internal stem damage only impacts stem but not canopy

377 biomass, we estimated internal stem damage to be ~ 48 Mg when assuming constant damage

378 across the stem, or as high as 72 Mg or as low as 24 Mg when assuming a 50% increase or

379 decrease in damage across the stem height, respectively. All scenarios predicted a significant

380 difference in aboveground biomass estimates when comparing modified estimates of
 381 aboveground biomass (red, orange and blue bars) from our internal stem damage model to
 382 estimates without incorporating internal stem damage (light green bars) with ($P = 0.02$; Fig
 383 4B) or without the canopy ($P = 0.01$; Fig 4C).



384
 385 **Figure 5.** Aboveground biomass estimates per site (Mg ha⁻¹). Panel A shows percentage
 386 above ground biomass damage assuming: constant damage (orange), 50% increase in internal
 387 stem damage (red), or 50% decrease in internal stem damage (blue). Aboveground biomass
 388 estimates (Panel B) and only stem biomass estimates (Panel C) using traditional allometric
 389 equations to estimate biomass for each site (i.e. no damage, light green), constant damage
 390 (orange), 50% increase in internal stem damage (red), or 50% decrease in internal stem
 391 damage (blue).

392
 393 **Discussion**

394 Here we show that internal stem damage can significantly reduce the carbon stores of living
 395 trees across ecosystems over a 5-fold change in precipitation. This finding has implications
 396 for the mapping and accounting of living tree biomass across our study sites and in tropical
 397 and subtropical ecosystems in general. The relationship that we detected between internal
 398 stem damage and wood density does not fit expectations based on microbial decomposition
 399 studies of coarse woody debris. Internal stem damage did not decrease with increasing wood
 400 density, as would be expected if wood density always has a defensive effect against predators
 401 and pathogens. In fact, the shape of the relationship between internal stem damage and wood

402 density varied across our sites. Higher wood density was associated with higher internal stem
403 damage in arid and semiarid ecosystems, where termites are abundant, and lower internal
404 stem damage in wet ecosystems where fungal damage is more prevalent. Deadwood in arid
405 and semiarid ecosystems may therefore be more dynamic experiencing shorter residence
406 times than expected, with decomposition beginning even before trees die. Our observations
407 suggest internal stem damage is likely defined by the composition and activity of the
408 decomposer community. Understanding the evolution and interactions of trees and their
409 decomposers will be important in estimating internal stem damage and ultimately key in
410 measuring the residence time of wood in ecosystems.

411

412 **The role of wood density in internal stem damage**

413

414 The interaction between wood density and decomposer activity (measured as damage in
415 downed deadwood) or, to a lesser extent, precipitation, revealed a complex relationship
416 between wood density and internal stem damage. Dense wood confers mechanical strength
417 (Chave et al., 2014, Van Gelder et al., 2006), is more common in arid sites (Chave et al.,
418 2009), and is generally thought to protect against herbivores, pests and pathogens (Larjavaara
419 and Muller-Landau, 2010, Scheffer and Morrell, 1998). Local studies however have reported
420 weak or inconsistent relationships between wood density and pathogen protection
421 (Augsburger and Kelly, 1984, Eleuterio et al., 2020, Heineman et al., 2015a). Our sites
422 encompassed a large range in precipitation, plant composition and decomposer communities.
423 Across them, we found an overall weak negative relationship between wood density and
424 internal stem damage.

425

426 Resistance to biotic decay agents is dependent on the wood substrate availability, including
427 accessibility of the substrate and a range of wood traits, as any given wood trait may not deter
428 all potential biotic decay agents (Scheffer and Morrell, 1998); what repels a fungal pathogen
429 or saprobe may not repel a termite, and vice versa. For example, high wood density has been
430 shown to be related to higher fungal resistance and both high and low termite resistance
431 (Bultman and Southwell, 1976; see above, Oberst et al., 2018). Aromatic phenolics such as
432 stilbenes have been shown to have antifungal properties (Simonetti et al., 2020, Hart, 1981),
433 while compounds such as obtusoquinanone, guaiacol, and lapachol have been shown to repel
434 termites (Bultman and Southwell, 1976). Our data demonstrate the impact that the
435 decomposer community composition has on the relationship between plant traits and internal

436 stem damage (in particular the differences between termite- and microbial-driven
437 decomposition) and suggest that internal stem damage in drier tropical sites is likely driven
438 by termites. This finding is yet to be tested in other systems; however, there is evidence that
439 hollowing may be important in dry tropical sites in other continents (Jones and Eggleton,
440 2010, N'Dri et al., 2011), as well as broadly across other ecosystems (Eleuterio et al., 2020,
441 Monda et al., 2015). Relative to the rainforest, termites in the savanna sites were higher in
442 abundance, species richness, and activity in downed deadwood compared to fungi (Clement
443 et al., 2021). Importantly, here we show that: 1) wood decomposition starts earlier than
444 expected, while trees are still alive and standing already accessible to biotic decay agents and
445 2) different decomposers respond to wood density in different ways, and these individualistic
446 responses cannot be extrapolated from previous microbial-focused wood decomposition
447 work.

448

449 **Internal stem damage selective filters**

450 The variation we observed in internal stem damage reflects changes in the abiotic and biotic
451 filters faced by the relevant players. Differences in wood density and other traits of plants
452 across our communities are mediated at least in part through variation in abiotic conditions
453 (Chave et al., 2009, Reich, 2014). Dry sites had lower biomass, had higher and less variable
454 wood density and were largely composed of Myrtaceae species, especially *Eucalyptus*. Wet
455 sites had more total living tree biomass, as well as tree species distributed broadly across seed
456 plants, with variable wood density. The climate sensitivities of pests, pathogens and
457 decomposers will also mediate variation in internal stem damage. Microbial decay of downed
458 deadwood increases with increasing humidity and temperature, while termite wood decay is
459 highly sensitive to temperature but not humidity (Zanne et al., 2022). As decay occurs in the
460 dead heartwood in living trees, there is potential for selection of different wood densities
461 (Cornelissen et al., 2022) by the co-occurring decay agents. Particularly key are the
462 interactions between the abiotic and biotic components, including how variation in plant traits
463 in turn also mediates the decomposer community and therefore decay (Weedon et al., 2009,
464 Cornwell et al., 2009, Harmon et al., 2020, Hu et al., 2018). From the evidence here, it is
465 clear that while abiotic factors directly or indirectly mediate the decomposer community and
466 hence internal stem damage. However, the wood trait preferences of termite- vs microbial-
467 dominated systems lead to variation in which plant lineages sustain the greatest internal stem
468 damage across our communities.

469

470 In line with evidence from microbial-driven decay in coarse woody debris, we found that in
471 rainforest, where microbial decomposition is prevalent, plant species with lower wood
472 density sustained higher internal stem damage. Anecdotally, plant species with darker colored
473 brown and red heartwoods (e.g. *Ormosia ormondii*) also sustained less internal stem damage
474 than lighter colored species with yellow or white heartwood (e.g. Euphorbiaceae and
475 Rutaceae; Table 2 and Figure 4). Darker colored woods have been associated with higher
476 resistance to microbial decay as compared to lighter colored heartwoods (Chave et al., 2009,
477 Gierlinger et al., 2004), perhaps as a result of higher deposition of extractives during
478 heartwood formation (Kramer, 2012). Many wood rotting fungi show host preferences; for
479 instance, white rot fungi are often angiosperm specialists, while brown rot fungi are often
480 gymnosperm specialists (Krah et al., 2018), with individual fungal species even showing
481 preferences for specific tree species (Ador et al., 2023, Baxter, 1925). The observed higher
482 variation in internal stem damage across plant families in our wet sites most likely reflects
483 filtering of microbial decomposers (the most active decomposers in these sites) as a result of
484 the differences in wood density and chemistry among plant clades.

485

486 In our savanna sites, Myrtaceae species with denser wood had the most internal stem damage.
487 An important termite in these dry sites is *Coptotermes acinaciformis*, which builds
488 aboveground mounds or subterranean nests at the base of living savanna trees, especially
489 *Eucalyptus* species, and hollows out the inside of these trees (Werner and Prior, 2007). The
490 high wood density of *Eucalyptus* trees reduces wood water (Sperry et al., 2005, Meinzer et
491 al., 2003) and their high stilbene content inhibits delignification of wood (Hart, 1981, Pietsch
492 et al., 2014), which may reduce fungal decomposition. Given the extensive excavation and
493 nest site construction in savanna trees by *C. acinaciformis*, it makes sense that these termites
494 target Myrtaceae species with their dense wood which can maintain strong structures despite
495 hollowing. Similar patterns have been observed in timber species in the Amazon, where
496 termites preferentially damage species with high wood density (Eleuterio et al., 2020).
497 Nevertheless, there is also evidence for the opposite pattern, albeit in downed deadwood, that
498 termite prefer low density wood (Guo et al., 2021, Liu et al., 2015, Tuo et al., 2021), and
499 certain termites species show preference for decayed wood (Cornelius et al., 2002). It seems
500 likely that termite preference for high or low wood density species will depend on their
501 ability to access the wood, whether they are solely sampling the wood for food or also living
502 within the wood, as well as co-occurring saprotrophic microbial community competing for
503 wood as a resource. For example, variation in termite mandible hardness, elasticity, and

504 structure (Cribb et al., 2007) allows for differentiation in wood preference among termite
505 species. Similarly, negative (Kirker et al., 2012) and positive interactions (Hyodo et al., 2003)
506 between termites and their saprotrophic microbial competitors will play a key role in termites'
507 wood preference and consumption.

508

509 **Implications and future directions**

510 At the ecosystem scale, the rate and amount of internal stem damage is important in
511 determining the residence time of carbon in living biomass, with up to ~30% of biomass
512 already damaged or even missing before the stem dies. Globally, living trees in tropical
513 savannas are estimated to contain ~66 Gt C (Giri et al., 2005, Watson et al., 2000). Savannas,
514 dominated by *Eucalyptus* species, represent 77% of Australia's native forested area, totaling
515 ~134 million ha (Committee, 2019), and they are predicted to contain between 6 to 34 Mg ha⁻¹
516 of carbon in biomass of living trees (Chen et al., 2003, Cook et al., 2015). Given that most
517 termites physically remove wood to be digested in their guts within their mounds or nests
518 whereas microbes decay wood *in situ*, termite-driven damage represents a complete removal
519 of carbon from where the wood has been produced. Across Australia, internal hollowing may
520 be a common phenomenon as *C. acinaciformis* is widely distributed (not including Tasmania;
521 GBIF Secretariat, 2023, Lee et al., 2017, Wijas et al., 2022). Such widespread internal stem
522 damage may significantly decrease the stocks of carbon in live trees, well before trees
523 senesce. The effects of these early stages of wood loss, if pervasive, could speed up the rates
524 of carbon loss from wood.

525

526 A central question derived from our analysis is to what extent is internal stem damage, and in
527 particular termite-driven internal stem damage, pervasive at a pantropical/global scale. The
528 processes generating internal stem damage remain largely unknown at these scales. Thus far,
529 the pursuit of this question at local and regional scales (including our study across
530 ecosystems) suggests that the process by which wood is lost in living stems is highly variable
531 but stem hollowing by termites is not solely an Australian phenomenon. Such has been found
532 in sites in the African and New World tropics (Apolinário and Martius, 2004, Eleuterio et al.,
533 2020, N'Dri et al., 2011). Building on existing evidence for both the distribution of wooded
534 vegetation and termites that hollow trees, an approach to better understand the prevalence of
535 internal stem damage around the globe would be to quantify the prevalence of internal stem
536 damage in systems where both conditions are met. Woody vegetation across the Americas,
537 Australasia, Africa, and even southern Europe –where single and intermediate dry wood

538 feeding termites (species that completely or partially feed on their nesting substrate *sensu*
539 Abe, 1987) are distributed -- may experience at least some degree of internal stem damage
540 (Eggleton and Tayasu, 2001). Beyond a pantropical to global focus on the presence of
541 internal stem damage, there is substantial scope for further empirical studies measuring the
542 internal stem damage variation within trees (e.g., at different heights, into the canopy,
543 belowground) or quantifying the relationship between additional wood traits and termite
544 preferences.

545

546 **Conclusions**

547 We have shown wood loss starts well before a tree dies. Describing the variability in internal
548 stem damage across communities, including the interaction between plants and their
549 decomposers (microbes, termites or otherwise), requires more attention particularly in
550 tropical communities. The proportion of carbon potentially lost through internal stem damage
551 may be high, especially in arid and semi-arid systems where wood is currently assumed to be
552 immobilized until tree senescence. Understanding the prevalence of internal stem damage
553 across woody ecosystems with high wood feeding termite diversity and activity may also
554 shed light on the variable relationship between wood density and mortality (Kraft et al., 2010)
555 or the observed weak relationship between tree aboveground living tree and deadwood
556 biomass (Palace et al., 2012). Our study and those of others (Cornwell et al., 2009, Guo et al.,
557 2023, Hu et al., 2018, Liu et al., 2015) suggest that, while environmental selection may
558 determine wood density and other traits that affect when and how fast woody tissue cycles,
559 there may be other biotic factors (such as the decomposer community) that modify the effect
560 of wood traits on wood cycling, sometimes in unexpected ways, as shown here. As carbon
561 disappears from the living tree pool, this will have direct implications for global carbon
562 modeling, the extent of which remains unseen. Further, insect-driven decomposition impacts
563 the fate of the wood in different ways to predictions based on microbial-driven
564 decomposition (Zanne et al., 2022, Griffiths et al., 2021). It is critical to explore the
565 mechanisms and implications of internal stem damage in ecosystems across the globe.

566

567

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579

580 **Competing interests**

581 The authors declared no competing interests

582

583 **Author contributions**

584 HFM, AEZ, AWC design the study and methodology. HFM, AWC, WC, RJ, MR, RC, AEZ,
585 LC did the investigation. HFM, AY and AEZ wrote the original draft. HFM and RC analyzed
586 the data. All authors reviewed and edited the original draft.

587

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Supporting Information

Article title: Higher internal stem damage in dry compared to wet tropics: where are we overestimating forest biomass?

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Article acceptance date: [Click here to enter a date.](#)

The following Supporting Information is available for this article:

Fig S1 Depiction of internal stem damage measurement, identification, and quantification

Fig S2 Standard major analysis of the area vs. linear biomass scaling estimate of internal stem damage

Fig S3 Percentage internal stem damage correlation with site and stem level variables.

Table S1 Approaches taken to bracket the effect of several random and nonrandom damage accumulation patterns

Table S2 Regression models predicting stem biomass based on aboveground biomass.

Table S3 One-way ANOVAs comparing sites difference in termite damage in downed deadwood, DBH and wood density.

Table S4 Regression coefficients for percentage internal stem damage as a function of the interaction between wood density and site level variables (precipitation and termite damage in downed deadwood).

Table S5 Regression coefficients for area-based percentage internal stem damage correlation with site and stem level variables.

Table S6 Regression coefficients for area-based percentage internal stem damage as a function of the interaction between wood density and site level variables (precipitation and downed deadwood termite damage).

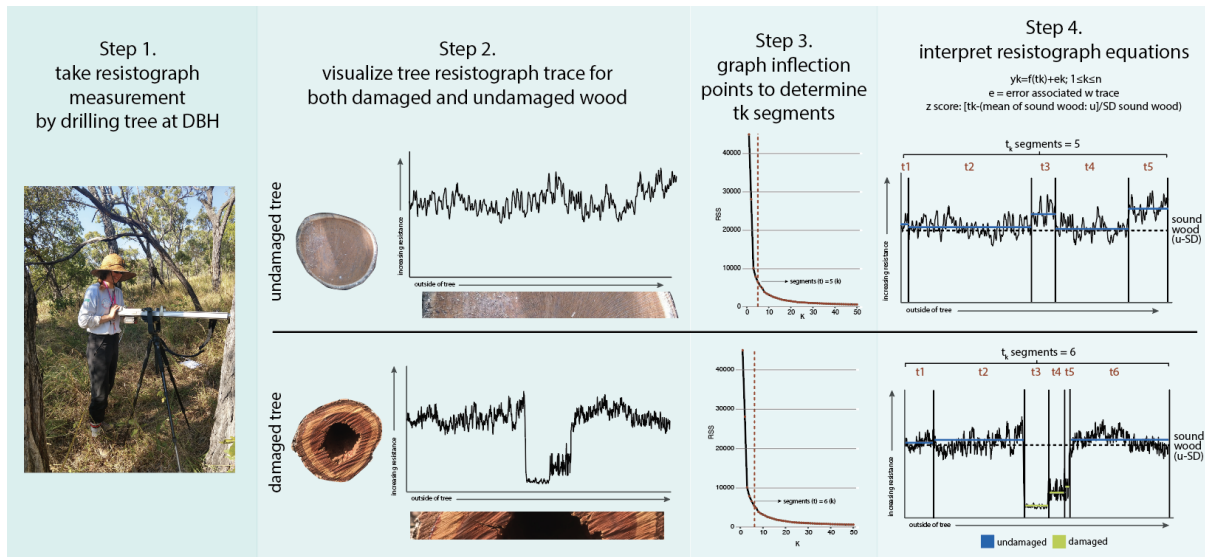


Fig S1 Depiction of internal stem damage measurement, identification, and quantification.. The top row illustrates analysis of an undamaged tree stem, and the bottom row compares measurement of a damaged stem. Step 1 field measurement of damage, Step 2 visualization of damage, Step 3 analyses of resistograph trace and step 4 segment identification and damage calculation.

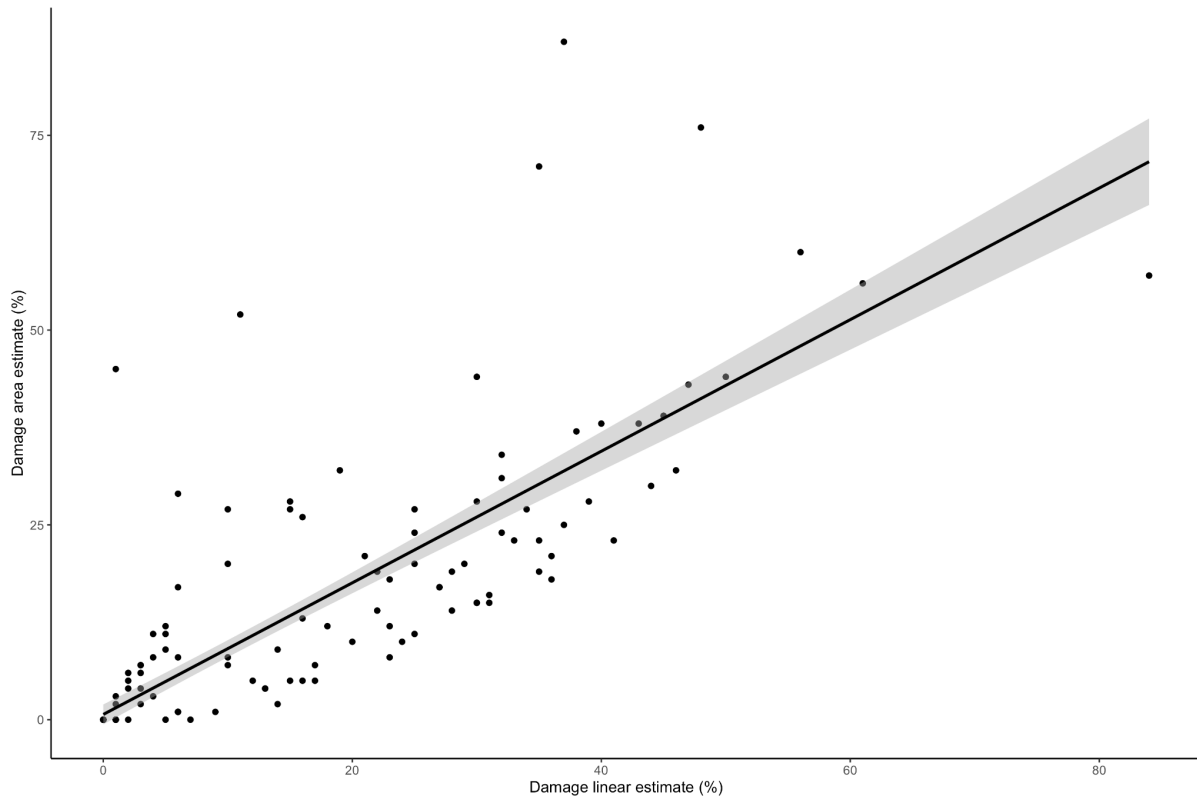


Fig S2 Standard major analysis of the area vs. linear biomass scaling estimate of internal stem damage. Points represent individual stems. As the slope does not differ from 1, the regression indicates a near isometric relationship between the two methods (slope = 0.99 CI 0.92-1.06, $P < 0.0001$; $R^2 = 0.70$) and the shaded region represents a 95% CI .

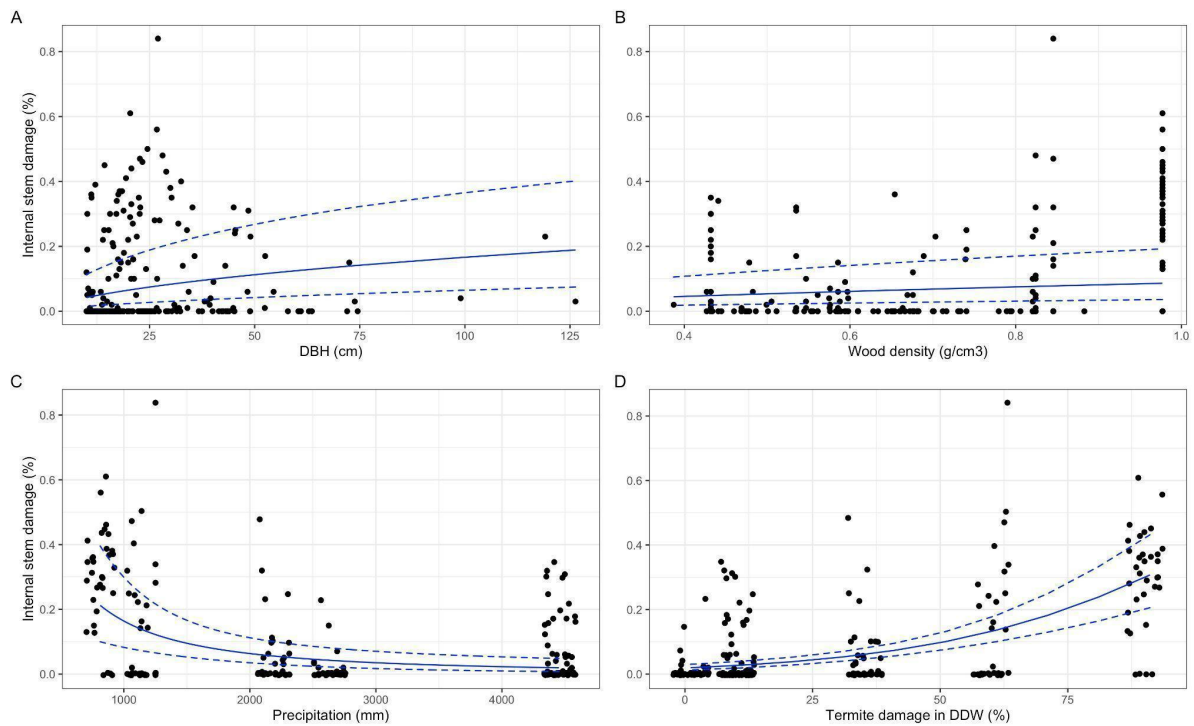


Fig S3 Percentage internal stem damage correlation with site and stem level variables.

Percentage internal stem damage correlation with A. stem diameter at breast height (DBH, in cm), B. wood density (g m^{-3}), C. site precipitation (mm) and D. percentage termite damage in downed deadwood (DDW). Dashed lines represent a 95% CI.

Table S1 Approaches taken to bracket the effect of several random and nonrandom damage accumulation patterns

Type of damage	Damage accumulation pattern	Scale	Approach
radial	random or nonrandom	cross-sectional area	linear and area-basis damage estimation
Vertical	nonrandom	stem-level	+/- 50% change in damage
Tree level	nonrandom	tree-level	Aboveground vs no-canopy

			aboveground biomass calculation
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Table S2 Regression models predicting stem biomass based on aboveground biomass (log-transformed).

Parameter	Coefficient	SE	95% CI	t(8640)	p
Intercept	-0.43	0.01	[-0.45, -0.40]	-35.49	<0.001
Slope	1.07	1.78E-03	[1.07, 1.07]	602.66	<0.001

Table S3 One-way ANOVAs comparing sites difference in termite damage in downed deadwood), DBH and wood density.

Model	Parameter	Sum of Squares	df	Mean square	F	p
Damage	site	21222.77	4	5305.69	19.81	5.81E-14
	residuals	59449.66	222	267.79		
DBH	site	1.85	4	0.46	1.59	0.18
	residuals	64.48	222	0.29		
Wood density	site	8.03	4	2.01	60.16	2.35E-34
	residuals	7.41	222	0.03		

Table S4 Regression coefficients for percentage internal stem damage as a function of the interaction between wood density and site level variables (precipitation and deadwood termite damage in downed deadwood).

Model	Parameter	Log-odds	SE	95% CI	Z	R ²	p
Precipitation	Model					0.23	
	Intercept	-3.53	0.29	(-4.10, -2.95)	-12.08		0.003

	Precipitation	-1.81	0.60	(-2.99, -0.64)	-3.02		<0.001
	Wood density	-0.63	0.01	(-0.65, -0.61)	-53.02		<0.001
	Precipitation* wood density	-3.25	0.02	(-3.29, -3.20)	-146.50		<0.001
Termite damage in DDW	Model					0.25	<0.001
	Intercept	-3.46	0.34	(-4.14, -2.79)	-10.06		<0.001
	Termite damage in DDW	1.42	0.63	(0.17, 2.66)	2.23		0.026
	Wood density	-0.58	0.01	(-0.60, -0.56)	-52.48		<0.001
	Termite damage in DDW*wood density	3.00	0.02	(2.96, 3.05)	136.35		<0.001

Table S5 Regression coefficients for area-based percentage internal stem damage correlation with site and stem level variables.

Model	Parameter	Log-Odds	SE	95% CI	z	p	R ²
DBH	(Intercept)	-4.13	0.48	[-5.07, -3.18]	-8.58	<0.001	0.015
	dbh cm [log10]	1.11	0.01	[1.08, 1.13]	82.75	<0.001	
Wood density	(Intercept)	-2.49	0.44	[-3.36, -1.63]	-5.65	<0.001	0.003
	wood density [log10]	1.06	0.04	[0.99, 1.13]	29.73	<0.001	

Precipitation	(Intercept)	7.69	2.76	[2.27, 13.11]	2.78	0.005	0.17
	prec 90m [log10]	-3.16	0.84	[-4.81, -1.50]	-3.74	<0.001	
termite damage in down deadwood	(Intercept)	-3.86	0.24	[-4.33, -3.38]	-15.97	<0.001	0.21
	termite damage in down deadwood	0.03	4.73E-03	[0.02, 0.04]	6.52	<0.001	

Table S6 Regression coefficients for area-based percentage internal stem damage as a function of the interaction between wood density and site level variables (precipitation and termite damage in downed deadwood).

Model	Parameter	Log-Odds	SE	95% CI	z	p	R ²
Precipitation x wood density	(Intercept)	-3.53	0.29	[-4.10, -2.95]	-12.08	<0.001	0.23
	Precipitation	-1.81	0.6	[-2.99, -0.64]	-3.02	0.003	
	Wood density	-0.63	0.01	[-0.65, -0.61]	-53.02	<0.001	
	Precipitation * wood density	-3.25	0.02	[-3.29, -3.20]	-146.5	<0.001	
termite damage in downed deadwood x wood density	(Intercept)	-3.46	0.34	[-4.14, -2.79]	-10.06	<0.001	0.25
	termite damage in downed deadwood	1.42	0.63	[0.17, 2.66]	2.23	0.026	
	Wood density	-0.58	0.01	[-0.60, -0.56]	-52.48	<0.001	

	Termite damage in downed deadwood * wod density	3	0.02	[2.96, 3.05]	136.35	<0.001	
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