

1 **Why are trees hollow? Termites, microbes, and tree internal stem damage in a**
2 **tropical savanna**

3

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13

14 **Abstract**

- 15 1. Wood plays a vital role in the terrestrial carbon cycle, serving as a significant carbon store that is
16 then released back to the atmosphere during decomposition. Decomposition has largely been
17 studied in fallen and standing deadwood; however, decomposition can occur within living trees
18 via hollowing by wood-feeding termites and microbial heart rot. Internal stem damage is difficult
19 to measure, leaving many unresolved knowledge gaps, such as the location and total amount of
20 damage done by termites and microbes, as well as whether these decomposers act in concert or
21 separately. Furthermore, tree species, wood density, and stem size can influence fallen deadwood
22 decomposition, but their role in living tree internal damage is largely unknown.
- 23 2. We destructively harvested 39 trees to investigate the relative contributions of microbes and
24 termites to internal stem damage in a tropical savanna in Queensland, Australia. We tested if
25 damage changed at different heights in the tree, quantified tree-level termite and microbial
26 damage, and examined if termite and microbial damage co-occurred. We also tested the influence
27 of tree species, wood specific gravity and size on internal stem damage across four tree species.
- 28 3. Termite and microbial damage was present in 45% and 33% of all trees, respectively. On average,
29 termite damage reduced total tree biomass by 3.3% (maximum 28%, SD = 4.7%) and microbial
30 damage by 1.8% (maximum 26%, SD = 5.3%). The amount of damage from both decomposers
31 decreased with increasing heights up the tree. Termite and microbial damage co-occurrence was
32 greater within trees than within cross sections, suggesting local competitive exclusion or niche

33 partitioning. Species was a better predictor of damage than either wood specific gravity or tree
34 size.

35 4. Half of the trees in our study had substantial internal stem damage, highlighting the considerable
36 role that termites and microbes play in decomposing wood within living trees. Our findings
37 unveil the concealed wood decomposition dynamics occurring inside trees, with implications for
38 accurate carbon estimation across savanna ecosystems.

39

40 **Keywords:** Carbon storage, internal stem damage, microbial wood decomposers, tree biomass, wood
41 decomposition, wood-feeding termites

42

43 **Introduction**

44 Wood serves as both a carbon (C) sink and source in terrestrial ecosystems. Living tree biomass
45 constitutes a large C pool globally, containing an estimated 363 ± 28 Pg C in stems, branches, and roots
46 (Pan et al., 2011). Trees transition into deadwood biomass upon death, which is estimated to store an
47 additional 73 ± 6 Pg C in forest systems (Pan et al., 2011). However, deadwood biomass pools are highly
48 dynamic and are decomposed down by biotic agents (e.g., invertebrates or microbes) and abiotic forces
49 (e.g., fire or UV), cycling C back to soils and the atmosphere (Cornwell et al., 2009; Wijas, Allison et al.,
50 2024). With substantial C stocks present in both living and trees, decomposition of this woody biomass is
51 critical for forest C cycling (Zhou et al., 2007).

52

53 Our understanding of C cycling in deadwood primarily focuses on fallen and standing deadwood
54 (Harmon et al., 2020; Bradford et al., 2021). However, a third category in living trees, internal tree stem
55 damage (e.g., heart rot, cracks, or hollows), has been acknowledged for some time (Janzen 1976; Highley
56 & Kirk 1979) but remains less understood in how it affects aboveground biomass (AGB) and C cycling.
57 Internal damage has been estimated to impact 3% to 42% of tree AGB (Heineman et al., 2015; Monda et
58 al., 2015; Flores-Moreno et al., 2024), largely affecting tree heartwood (the non-functional wood at the
59 trees center; Hillis 1987). Therefore, internal stem damage remains concealed and often overlooked
60 during biomass assessments (Calvert et al., 2023) and represents wood C loss that takes place during part
61 of the tree life cycle associated with active C sequestration. Wood inside living stems faces little abiotic
62 decomposition (Kataoka et al., 2007; Zhou et al., 2007), therefore an understanding of internal stem
63 damage rests on measuring the role of biotic decomposers.

64

65 Microbes are important biotic wood decomposers in ecosystems around the globe (Cornwell et al., 2009;
66 Ulyshen 2016), while termites are especially important in dry tropical ecosystems, both in living trees

67 which they frequently hollow (Werner & Prior 2007) and in fallen deadwood (Zanne et al., 2022; Wijas,
68 Flores-Moreno et al., 2024). However, microbes and termites differ in wood decomposition strategies,
69 which impacts wood C storage and release. Microbes release extracellular enzymes that degrade
70 cellulose, hemicellulose, and, in some cases lignin, in situ (Blanchette 1991), decreasing wood density
71 throughout the decay process (Harmon et al., 2011). In contrast, termites relocate decomposition away
72 from the original wood source: they consume wood pieces that are moved to the nest/mound and
73 chemically digested via microbes and/or endogenous cellulases in their guts (Brune & Dietrich 2015).
74 Some termites live within the deadwood they consume, and, in this case, wood decomposition occurs in
75 situ albeit away from its original placement in the tree (Eggleton & Tayasu 2001). Termites process labile
76 C compounds, such as cellulose, but cannot digest lignin, which becomes concentrated in their excretions
77 (Myer et al., 2021). These distinct pathways of microbial and termite decomposition therefore impact the
78 quantity of wood consumed, the components decomposed, and the location of decomposition.

79
80 Internal stem damage is often quantified from a single measurement near the tree base or at diameter at
81 breast height (DBH); this protocol likely overlooks differences in how biotic decomposers colonize and
82 damage trees. Most termites (litter, mound, and soil-dwelling) occur and forage on the ground, and
83 observations of frequent damage and mound-building at tree bases (Eleuterio et al., 2020) suggest this is
84 where internal damage is likely concentrated. However, some drywood termites build colonies in dead
85 branches of living trees, which could concentrate damage in the crown (Abe 1987). Microbes on the other
86 hand colonize wood through various means: spores entering wounds in branches or trunks via wind
87 dispersal (Rayner & Boddy 1988), hyphae entering roots from the soil (Boddy 1999), or by being latently
88 present in wood as endophytes (Boddy 1994). As such, microbial-mediated damage may be less related to
89 position in the tree than termite damage since wounding can occur at different heights, for example from
90 fire scarring at the tree base or branches broken from wind damage in the crown (Perry et al., 1985). This
91 diversity in foraging and dispersal strategies of termites and microbes likely result in varied spatial
92 colonization patterns in living trees, affecting the distribution and extent of internal stem damage.

93
94 It is currently unknown if termites and microbes partition internal tree wood resources or simultaneously
95 damage the same space, as measurement methods are unable to differentiate between termite or microbial
96 damage (Flores-Moreno et al., 2024). While it is clear that the assemblage of deadwood decomposer
97 communities is variable through space and time, interactions between termites and microbes during this
98 process are poorly understood (Ulyshen 2016). For example, as microbes are reliant on moisture, wood
99 ground contact facilitates moisture transfer and thus microbial colonization from the soil, with suspended
100 wood being drier, slower to decompose, and of different microbial composition compared to fallen

101 deadwood (Barrera-Bello et al., 2023). However, Law et al. (2019) found that termite, but not microbial,
102 deadwood decomposition was vertically stratified, as termites decomposed more wood in contact with the
103 ground. Additionally, it has been shown that the presence of some wood-decay fungi is positively
104 associated with termite foraging (Viana-Junior et al., 2018), but some fungi also deter termite feeding
105 (Kamaluddin et al., 2016). Understanding whether termite and microbial damage co-occurs in living tree
106 wood will illuminate how biotic interactions influence internal biomass decomposition.

107
108 Wood decomposition is not solely affected by biotic decomposers; qualities of the decay substrate
109 influence how organisms access and utilize wood resources (Cornwell et al., 2009). Tree traits such as
110 wood specific gravity (defined as wood density relative to water) and tree size have been associated with
111 internal stem damage. In one study, higher wood specific gravity predicted greater internal damage,
112 notably in Myrtaceae savanna trees in sites with high termite activity (Flores-Moreno et al., 2024). Wood
113 specific gravity is often negatively associated with microbial wood decomposition; however, this
114 relationship, though consistent, is typically weak (Weedon et al., 2008). Internal stem damage may also
115 vary based on tree size, as larger trees often have more exposure time to sustain internal damage and offer
116 more biomass for colonization (Werner & Prior 2007). Taken together, determining the interactions
117 among tree species, wood traits, and biotic decomposers is crucial for understanding tree susceptibility to
118 internal stem damage.

119
120 In this study, we destructively harvested savanna trees in Queensland, Australia to evaluate the extent of
121 internal stem damage caused by microbes and termites. Table 1 outlines study questions and hypotheses:
122

Question	Hypothesis
Does the amount of termite versus microbial internal damage change at different heights in trees?	Termite damage will be greatest at the tree base (a typical entry point), and microbial damage will have no association with height (entry points occur through trees).
How much tree-level damage is attributed to termites versus microbes?	Termites will cause more internal stem damage since they have a greater role in fallen deadwood decomposition than microbes in savannas.

Does microbial and termite damage co-occur at the cross section and tree-level? To what degree are they spatially separated? Given limited knowledge of termite and microbe co-occurrence, cross section and tree-level co-occurrence is expected to be equivalent.

How well do tree-level characteristics (species, size, and wood specific gravity) predict microbial or termite damage? Species will vary in internal stem damage amount; Myrtaceae species will be most damaged by termites. High wood specific gravity will increase termite damage but decrease microbial damage. Larger trees will have more damage from both decomposers.

123 Table 1. Study questions and hypotheses.

124

125 **Materials and Methods**

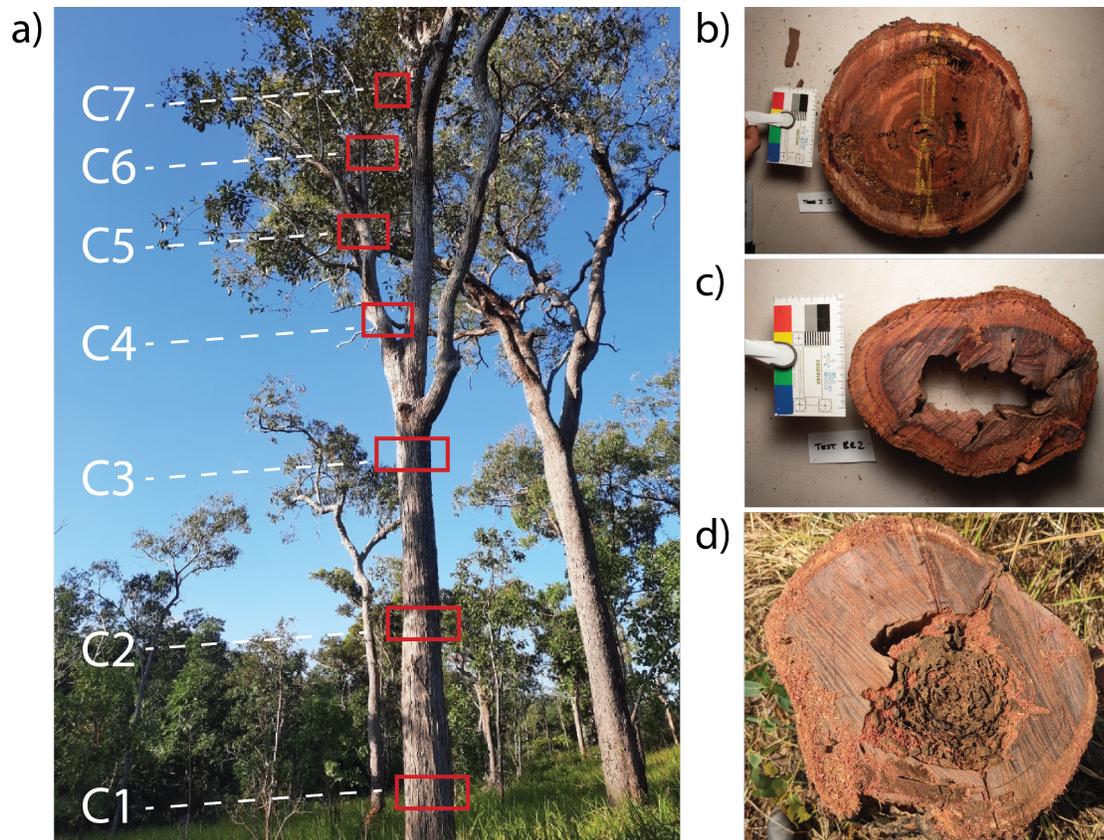
126 *Study ecosystem*

127 The study was carried out in October 2022 in the Iron Range on Cape York Peninsula, Far North
128 Queensland (-12.7781°N, 143.3199°E). This site is in the Australian Monsoon Tropics, with a seasonally
129 wet tropical climate and a mean annual rainfall of 2057 mm, ranging from 1110-3299 mm (65 year
130 average, Australian Bureau of Meteorology 2023). Mean annual temperature of the region averages 26°C
131 with monthly averages ranging between 20.6 and 30.9°C (Australian Bureau of Meteorology 2023). The
132 study site is a frequently burned savanna with dominant species as follows: *Corymbia clarksoniana*, *C.*
133 *tessellaris*, *Eucalyptus tetrodonta*, *Lophostemon suaveolens* (all Myrtaceae), and *Parinari nonda*
134 (Chrysobalanaceae). *Planchonia careya* (Lecythidaceae), a sparse subcanopy of *Grevillea parallela*
135 (Proteaceae) and *Acacia flavescens* (Fabaceae) is also present. Tree density at the site averaged 326 trees
136 ha⁻¹ with a DBH range of 1.3 to 69.7 cm (mean 17.1 cm, standard deviation (SD) 12.1 cm) (Calvert et al.,
137 2023).

138

139 *Destructive harvest protocol*

140 Thirty-nine trees were harvested from a pre-planned firebreak clearance on two survey areas (lower plot:
141 1.84 ha, upper plot: 0.27 ha). From the destructive harvest, we determined tree AGB (see Calvert et al.,
142 2023 for full methods). To assess and quantify internal stem damage, we sampled 4-7 cross sections from
143 trees (4 cm average thickness) along the lower stem from where the tree was felled (C1), at the midpoint
144 in the lower stem (C2, only if damage was present at C1 and C3), and 50 cm below the first branching
145 point (C3). Cross section samples were then taken in the tree crown following decreasing branch sizes
146 (C4-C7, Figure 1a).



147
 148 **Figure 1.** a) Cross section sampling scheme to measure internal stem damage at multiple points up the
 149 tree, b) microbial internal stem damage, c) termite damage, and d) stem hollow filled with termite
 150 excretion.

151
 152 *Attributing and quantifying internal stem damage at the cross section level*

153 Given differences in how termites and microbes decompose wood, evidence of termite (complete
 154 removal) and microbial decomposition (Figure 1b, wood discoloration or spongy texture) was visually
 155 estimated. Termite-derived hollows can be filled with termite excretion (Figure 1c-d, Greaves 1962),
 156 which we removed to quantify termite damage. Some cross sections had both termite and microbial
 157 damage; in this case damage estimates from termites and microbes were separately delineated and
 158 quantified.

159
 160 We quantified the percentage internal stem damage per cross section using an area-based segmentation
 161 script in Adobe Illustrator (<https://gist.github.com/bryanbuchanan/11387501>). The total area of the cross
 162 section was divided by the area identified as damaged. It was assumed that damage levels were consistent
 163 across both the top and bottom of a given cross section. It is noted that if a cross section had termite

164 damage, it could have been first damaged by microbes, which would be obscured. Therefore, we could
165 only attribute and measure damage at the time of harvest.

166

167 *Tree-level estimates of damage*

168 To understand how internal stem damage, attributed to both microbes and termites, changed with
169 increasing height in individual trees, we used linear regressions following Calvert et al. (2023) for those
170 trees with >3 cross sections. Cross section diameter (where larger cross sections occur at the tree base;
171 smaller cross sections occur in the crown) was the predictor and percentage internal stem damage (for
172 both termite and microbial damage) was the response. To scale this relationship to estimate tree-level
173 percentage damage, we applied the linear relationship of damage to quantitative structural models derived
174 from terrestrial laser scanning (see full description of methods in Calvert et al., 2023).

175

176 *Species level wood specific gravity*

177 Cross section samples were kept in airtight bags when transported from the field to the research station.
178 Field mass was determined to the nearest 10 g for large (>500 g) cross sections and to the nearest 0.01g
179 for small (<500 g) cross sections. Field volume was measured using volume displacement via the
180 Archimedes Principle, where displaced water is assumed to have a density of 1.0 g cm⁻³. Samples were
181 held for less than one week at the research station before being dried at 105 °C to constant mass. Dry
182 mass was used to calculate cross section wood specific gravity in g cm⁻³ (dry mass divided by field
183 volume). Field-measured wood specific gravity was determined as average values across the undamaged
184 cross sections for each species.

185

186 *Termite sampling, identification, and deadwood occupancy transects*

187 Termites associated with living trees were sampled from mounds at the tree base, external termite
188 runways, and in cross section samples. We also carried out two 50 m deadwood occupancy transects
189 adjacent to the upper and lower plots following the protocol described in Clement et al. (2021).
190 Deadwood pieces >2cm intersecting the transect were thoroughly searched for termites. Collected termite
191 specimens were stored in 95% ethanol for later visual identification to the species level based on soldier
192 morphologies. When visual identification was not possible, we followed the protocol in Clement et al.
193 (2021) for species identification using DNA barcoding.

194

195 *Analyses*

196 *Amount of termite versus microbial damage at different tree heights*

197 To test how the amount of damage at the cross section level changed with increasing height in the tree, we
198 used a linear mixed-effect model with percentage damage as a log-transformed response variable, relative
199 height up the tree (as a percentage where 0 is the tree base and 100 is the maximum tree height) and tree
200 species as fixed effects (including an interaction), and tree individual as a random effect. We ran separate
201 models for termite and microbial damage as the response.

202

203 *Amount of total tree-level internal stem damage*

204 To test if termite or microbial damage was greater at the tree-level, we used linear models with tree-level
205 percentage damage as a log-transformed response variable. Damage agent (termite or microbial) and tree
206 species were used as predictors, including an interaction. A pairwise post hoc multiple comparisons test
207 was used to compare microbial and termite damage by tree species.

208

209 *Microbial and termite damage co-occurrence*

210 Tree-level microbial and termite damage co-occurrence represented our baseline expectation in testing if
211 co-occurrence within cross sections was equivalent. We used a chi-squared test to determine if damage
212 co-occurrence in cross sections (observed) differed from what we measured at the tree-level (expected).
213 Cross sections with presence of termite damage were labeled ‘Y’ and those without termite damage were
214 labeled ‘N’; counts of the two classes were summarized in a contingency table. This was repeated to
215 describe counts of microbial damage. The same process was applied to summarize microbial and termite
216 damage at the tree-level.

217

218 *Effect of tree traits on tree internal stem damage*

219 To test if tree size and wood specific gravity predicted percentage internal stem damage by each of the
220 damage agents, we used a linear model with percent damage (separate models for termite and microbial
221 damage) as a log-transformed response variable and wood specific gravity and tree DBH as predictors.

222

223 *Damaged biomass at the plot level*

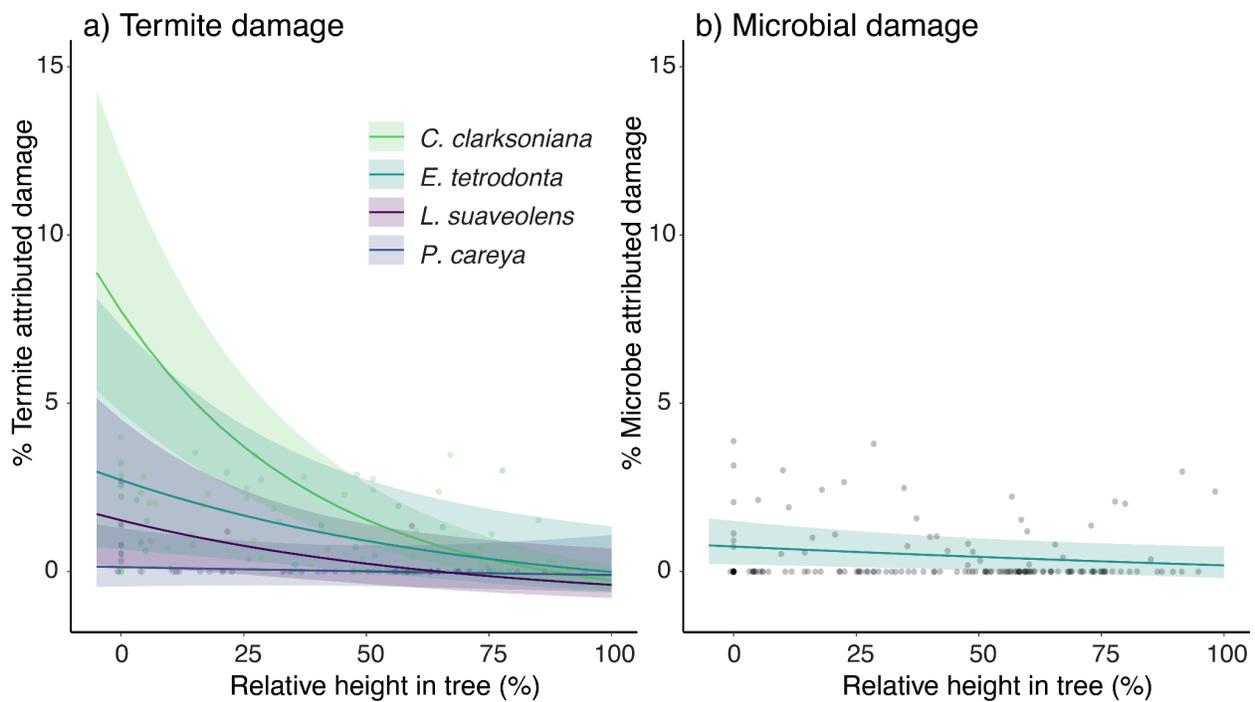
224 We calculated damaged tree biomass (kg) from each decomposer (termite/microbe) per hectare (ha) using
225 species-level AGB from the two firebreak plots combined (2.1 ha total). We calculated total and
226 percentage AGB for each species on this plot using biomass data from Calvert et al. (2023). We converted
227 AGB to the hectare level and multiplied by species-level microbial and termite damage to determine
228 damaged biomass in kg ha^{-1} . All analyses were performed in R 4.3.1 (R Core Team, 2023).

229

230 **Results**

231 *Amount of termite versus microbial damage through tree height*

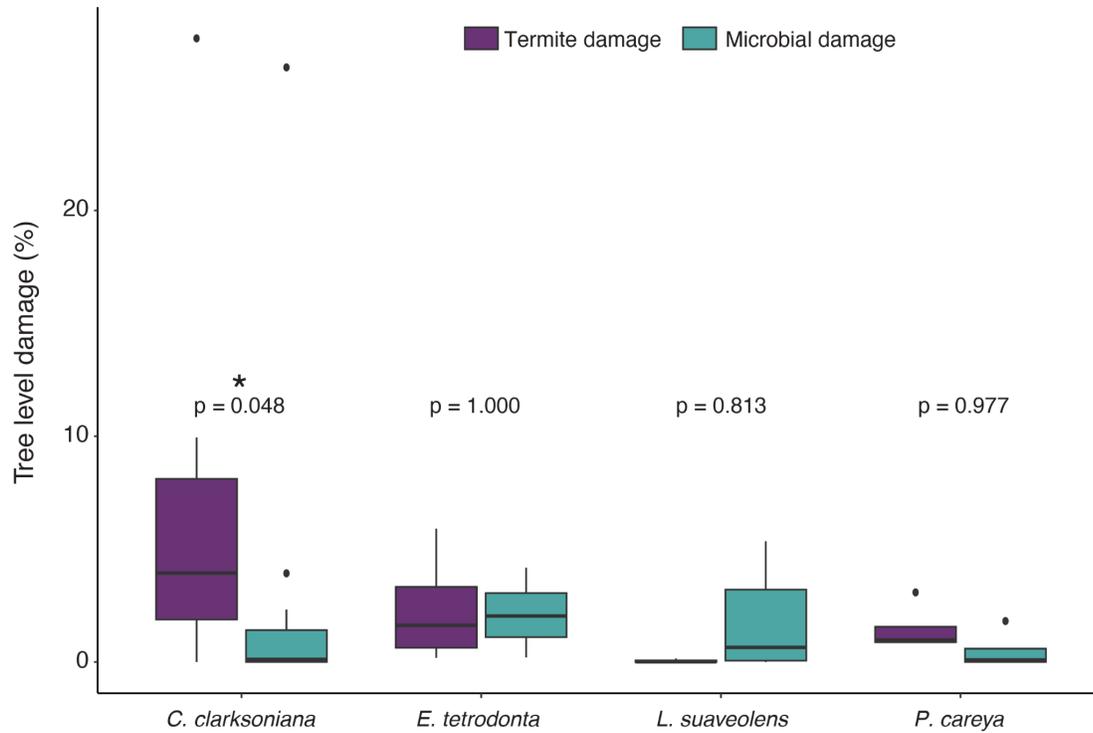
232 Termite damage decreased with increasing height in the tree ($\chi^2=83.4$, $df=1$, $p<0.001$, Figure 2a,
233 Supplementary Table 2) and varied by tree species ($\chi^2=14.1$, $df=6$, $p=0.028$); a significant interaction was
234 found between species and height in the tree ($\chi^2=21.1$, $df=6$, $p=0.002$). *C. clarksoniana* trees had the
235 highest intercepts (greatest damage at the tree base) and steepest negative slopes (decreasing damage with
236 height), followed by *E. tetradonta* and *L. suaveolens*, while *P. careya* trees had the lowest intercepts and a
237 shallow slope (Figure 2a). Microbial damage also decreased with increasing height in the tree ($\chi^2=4.2$,
238 $df=1$, $p=0.041$, Figure 2b, Supplementary Table 2) but did not vary across species ($\chi^2=1.6$, $df=6$,
239 $p=0.949$); for microbial damage there was no significant interaction between species and height in the
240 tree.



241
242 **Figure 2.** Changes in cross section damage across relative tree height (% of total height) for a) termite
243 and b) microbial internal damage. Shaded areas represent 95% confidence intervals.

244
245 *Amount of internal stem damage at the tree-level*

246 At the tree-level, there was a significant interaction between damage type (microbial or termite) and tree
247 species ($F_{(3,50)}=3.13$, $p=0.034$, Supplementary Table 3). A pairwise post hoc test showed that termite
248 damage was greater than microbial damage only in *C. clarksoniana* trees ($t_{(50)}=3.17$, $p=0.049$, Figure 3).

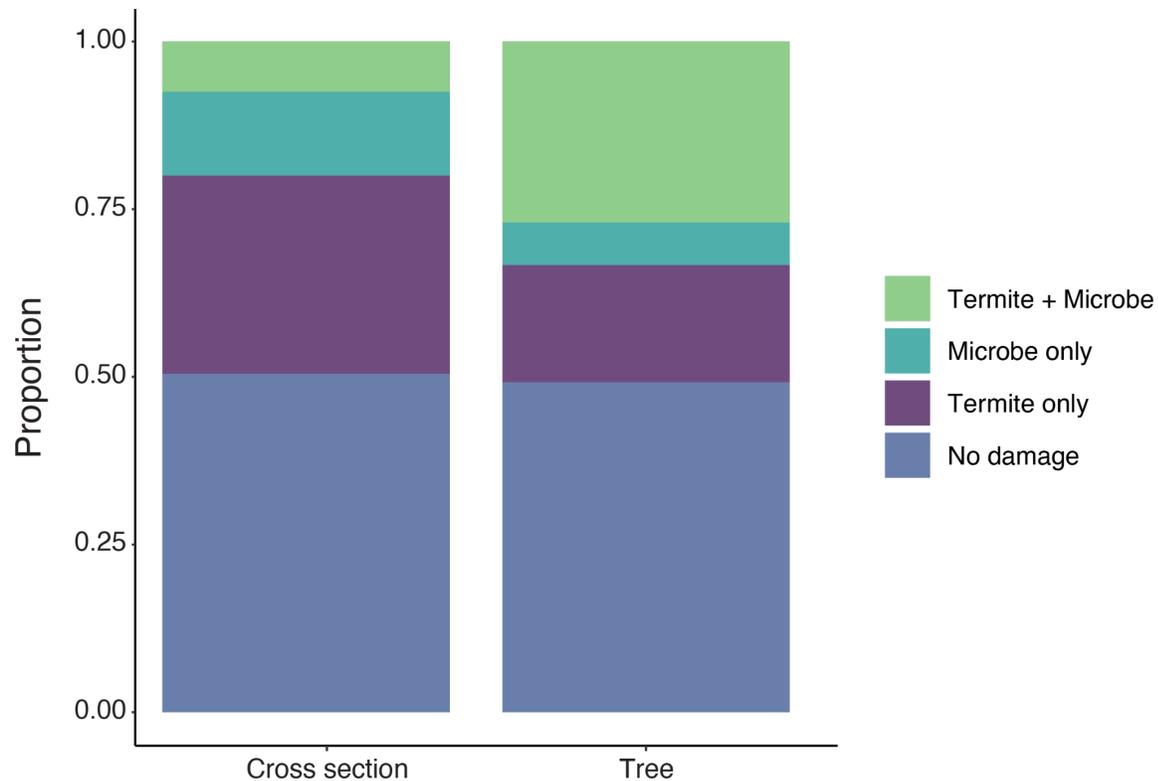


249

250 **Figure 3.** Differences in microbial and termite damage across species. Sample sizes by species group are
 251 as follows: *C. clarksoniana* (n=15), *E. tetradonta* (n=4), *L. suaveolens* (n=6), *P. careya* (n=4).
 252

253 *Microbial and termite damage co-occurrence*

254 We found that 27% (n=17) of trees had both termite and microbial internal stem damage present (in at
 255 least one cross section), compared with just 7.5% of all cross sections examined. Cross sections had
 256 significantly less co-occurrence of microbial and termite damage compared to whole trees ($\chi^2_{(1,200)}=25.3$,
 257 $p<0.001$, Figure 4).



258
 259 **Figure 4.** Proportion of cross sections (n=200 total) and trees (n=63 total) with microbial only, termite
 260 only, termite and microbial, and no damage.

261
 262 *Effect of tree traits on tree internal stem damage*
 263 Wood specific gravity was a marginally significant (positive) predictor of termite damage ($F_{(1,29)}=3.97$,
 264 $p=0.056$, Supplementary Table 4), but had no influence on microbial damage ($F_{(1,29)}=1.39$, $p=0.249$). Tree
 265 size was not a significant predictor of either termite or microbial damage (Supplementary Table 4).

266
 267 *Damaged total measured biomass*
 268 Termites damaged an estimated 200 kg ha⁻¹, while microbes damaged an estimated 147 kg ha⁻¹
 269 (Supplementary Table 6). Termite damage was present in most *C. clarksoniana* trees (93%), all *E.*
 270 *tetradonta* trees and all *P. careya* trees (Supplementary Table 1). Microbial damage was present in all *E.*
 271 *tetradonta* trees and most *L. suaveolens* trees (83%). *E. tetradonta* and *C. clarksoniana* trees constituted
 272 the majority of biomass in the plot.

273
 274 *Termites associated with living trees and fallen deadwood*

275 Living trees and deadwood were occupied by different termite species. In living trees, *Nasutitermes*
276 *graveolus* and *Coptotermes acinaciformis* were most abundant, while in deadwood, termites in the genera
277 *Microcerotermes* and *Schedorhinotermes* dominated (Supplementary Figure 1, Supplementary Table 5).

278

279 **Discussion**

280 Termites and microbes were important internal stem damage agents in our study system, with an
281 estimated 200 kg ha⁻¹ of internal tree wood removed by termites and 147 kg ha⁻¹ damaged by microbes;
282 together this represents ~5% of estimated AGB. Individual stems could be up to ~30% damaged, from
283 both termites and microbes. Additionally, termite and microbial damage decreased with height,
284 suggesting a general phenomenon of damage proceeding from the ground up and being concentrated at
285 the base in this ecosystem. Interestingly, the co-occurrence of termite and microbial damage was greater
286 at the tree than at the cross section level, suggesting that termites and microbes capitalize on wood
287 resources within the same tree, but largely remain spatially separated. Despite expectations from other
288 systems, wood density and tree size were not strong predictors of internal stem damage; however, species
289 still differed in amount of damage. Specifically, termite damage was greater than microbial damage for *C.*
290 *clarksoniana* trees. Below we discuss the importance of accounting for wood decomposition occurring
291 not just outside, but also inside living trees.

292

293 *Termite and microbial damage scaling: implications for AGB storage and turnover*

294 Termite and microbial internal stem damage was highest at the tree base and decreased toward the crown.
295 The basal concentration of termite damage is congruent with frequent patterns of ground colonization
296 (Law et al., 2019) and association with tree bases (Eleuterio et al., 2020). Microbial damage did not occur
297 equally across tree heights as expected. Our findings for microbial damage may reflect the nature of
298 savannas as fire-prone ecosystems, where fire-induced basal scarring is a primary contributor to access
299 points for both termites and microbes (Adkins, 2006; N'Dri et al., 2011). It remains to be seen if the
300 patterns observed here in a savanna system are similar to those in other wooded ecosystems. For instance,
301 in some tropical forests, crown loss (from windstorms, lightning, large herbivores, etc.) is a prevalent
302 source of external stem damage (Zuleta et al., 2021). Such differences in external damage may result in
303 varied patterns of internal stem damage accumulation, with more microbial damage likely occurring in
304 the crown due to increased entry points.

305

306 Internal stem damage remains an important and unaddressed source of error in tree AGB models, with
307 implications for improving AGB estimation methodology (Monda et al., 2015; Flores-Moreno et al.,
308 2024). For example, Calvert et al. (2023), on which this study builds, demonstrated that increased internal

309 stem damage resulted in overestimated AGB but did not assign such damage to different decay agents. In
310 the current study we described separate scaling relationships for microbial and termite damage; for
311 termite damage, we further capture some of the nuances in how this varies across tree species. These
312 scaling relationships can serve as a starting point for incorporating error from internal stem damage into
313 AGB models, although testing internal stem damage changes through tree height in different ecosystems
314 and tree species will help to determine the representativeness of our models.

315

316 From these scaled estimates, we show that 350 kg ha⁻¹ of internal wood is under some state of
317 decomposition from both termites and microbes in living trees. This is approximately half of the amount
318 of deadwood estimated to be on the ground (800 kg ha⁻¹) in northern Australian savanna ecosystems
319 (Cook et al., 2020), which termites and microbes will decompose through time. It is clear from our
320 estimates that internal stem decomposition can therefore play a significant role in AGB estimates and C
321 turnover in the savanna landscape. Fallen deadwood is often incorporated into models of terrestrial C
322 cycling (Cook et al., 2020); it is evident that C cycling models should consider internal stem damage as
323 well.

324

325 *Spatial co-occurrence of termite and microbial damage*

326 Termite and microbial damage co-occurrence was greater at the tree-level than for individual cross
327 sections. This result suggests that while termites and microbes can colonize the same tree, they use
328 separate spaces. Such partitioning of wood resources may stem from differences in colonization patterns,
329 negative biotic interactions at local scales (i.e., cross sections) through direct or indirect competition
330 (Bradford et al., 2021) and/or environmental filtering (Li & Greening 2022). Given that damage from
331 both agents decreases with height in trees, it seems unlikely that colonization differences drive the
332 observed patterns. Termites have been shown to filter microbial communities that occur in their mounds
333 (Li & Greening 2022), and this may also occur in internal tree wood if termites deter other competing
334 wood decay fungi (Martin & Bulmer 2018). Furthermore, some soft rot fungal genera (e.g., *Termitaria*,
335 *Laboulbenia*, *Antennopsis* and *Cordycepioideus*), are parasitic on termites and could reduce or prevent
336 termite activity (Wong & Cheok 2001). Further research on how biotic interactions between termites and
337 wood-decay microbes shape internal stem damage is needed to resolve how facilitation and competition
338 interact to shape observed damage patterns.

339

340 Given how destructive our methods are, we could not follow biotic decay through time to track
341 colonization, spread and interactions of microbes and termites within stems. How such damage progresses
342 remains an open but challenging question; repeated measurements of the same tree stem with minimally

343 invasive methods of estimating damage such as sonic tomography (Gilbert et al., 2016) could give
344 insight. Biotic interactions may facilitate damage progression, for instance, if mechanical or chemical
345 changes to the wood from microbial decomposition create favorable conditions for termite entry (Ulyshen
346 2016). Termites could also be vectors of wood-decomposing microbes that later establish in the wood;
347 such vectoring has been described for wood-inhabiting beetles (Jacobsen et al., 2017). However, testing
348 the succession of decomposer communities and interactions between termites and microbes remains a
349 challenge for future study, as current non-invasive measurements cannot distinguish between microbial
350 and termite internal damage.

351

352 *Termites as important internal stem damage agents*

353 While microbial heart rot has long been documented around the globe (Heineman et al., 2015; Frank et
354 al., 2018), termites as agents of internal stem damage have received less attention. In our study system,
355 termite damage was found in approximately half of trees and removed up to 28% of tree biomass.
356 Interestingly, *C. clarksoniana* trees were much more preferred by termites compared to microbes, and
357 most (>90%) *C. clarksoniana* and *E. tetradonta* trees (both in the Myrtaceae) had evidence of termite
358 damage. Why termites target such tree species is unclear; we predicted that wood specific gravity and
359 large stem size could play a role but did not find evidence to support this. However, other studies
360 including more tree species (n = 87) and a wider range of wood specific gravities (range: 0.4 to 0.9 g cm⁻³)
361 found a positive relationship with internal stem damage (Flores-Moreno et al., 2024). The four species
362 we measured had lower variation in wood specific gravity (range: 0.5 to 0.7 g cm⁻³), and may not differ
363 enough to detect relationships between internal stem damage and these tree traits. Additionally, other tree
364 traits such as secondary chemistry could influence termite preferences. Myrtaceae trees have many
365 polyphenolic compounds, including flavonoids (Saber et al., 2023), some of which are attractive to (Boué
366 & Raina 2003) and even preferred by (Ohmura et al., 2000) *Coptotermes formosanus* termites. However,
367 little is known about how termites interact with polyphenols specific to Myrtaceae; future work could test
368 for termite preferences in secondary compounds unique to these trees.

369

370 In documenting termite damage, we could not definitively ascribe which termite species were responsible,
371 however we found different termite species associated with live-standing trees and fallen deadwood.

372 These associations give initial expectations as to which termites may be causing damage in live tree and
373 fallen deadwood pools. *Coptotermes acinaciformis* only occurred in association with living trees and are
374 suggested as a primary agent of internal stem damage in Australian eucalypt forests (Werner & Prior
375 2007), as well as *Coptotermes testaceus* in Brazil (Eleuterio et al., 2020). *Nasutitermes graveolus* was
376 also found in association with living trees, which build arboreal mounds in the crown (Beasley-Hall et al.,

377 2019), although they are not likely to forage in the canopy and rather descend to forage on the ground
378 (Hill 1942). *Microcerotermes* and *Schedorhinotermes*, two wood-feeding genera (Clement et al., 2021),
379 were most frequently encountered on deadwood transects. Wood-feeding termites likely distinguish
380 between living and fallen deadwood resources, with distinct species (*C. acinaciformis* and *N. graveolus*)
381 colonizing live tree wood resources for use as both food and habitat.

382

383 *Internal tree stem damage and wood C cycling*

384 Through visual assessment of cross sections, it was evident that microbes damaged wood in situ (i.e., via
385 excretion of extracellular enzymes), keeping wood volume largely intact while reducing density as
386 decomposition progresses (Harmon et al., 2011). In contrast, termite damage completely removes wood
387 from a given site, reducing the volume but not wood specific gravity of the remaining wood. Furthermore,
388 termites translocate the consumed wood in their guts to their nests and mounds (Ulyshen 2016), meaning
389 that internal wood decomposition is taking place ex situ, even if translocation is to another part of the
390 same tree. Importantly, the void resulting from termite hollowing does not always remain empty, as it can
391 be refilled with carton nest material (Figure 1d), which is often enriched in lignin (Rückamp et al., 2011).
392 This carton material could potentially contribute to C storage, albeit in a different form than the original
393 wood C, within the tree; however, little is known about the decomposability of this material. Therefore,
394 the on-site C consequences of internal damage are likely to shift depending on whether microbes or
395 termites dominate.

396

397 **Conclusions**

398 From nature-based climate change solutions to a push for natural capital accounting (Pan et al., 2011),
399 there is a pressing need to accurately measure and model C storage and cycling in wooded landscapes.
400 Prior work on wood decomposition and biomass storage has overlooked internal wood decomposition in
401 living trees, leaving a knowledge gap in our understanding of when and how C cycles out of wood. We
402 are among the first to quantify how termites and microbes alter live tree AGB, highlighting the
403 importance of incorporating this process into C cycling models. Indeed, termites release CH₄, in addition
404 to CO₂, while decomposing organic matter (Chiri et al., 2020). CH₄ has a greater climate warming
405 potential compared to CO₂, meaning shifts between microbial- and termite-mediated wood decay may
406 have different feedbacks in the Earth system. Investigation of such questions is an important next step
407 given that global climate models predict increased termite-driven wood decomposition in savanna
408 ecosystems under hotter, drier conditions (Zanne et al., 2022).

409

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613 **Supporting Information**

614 Supplementary Table 1. Summary of damaged trees in the study (with sample size $n > 3$).

Species	Wood specific gravity (g cm^{-3})	n		
		Total	With termite damage	With microbial damage
<i>Corymbia clarksoniana</i>	0.668	15	14	9
<i>Eucalyptus tetrodonta</i>	0.699	4	4	4
<i>Lophostemon suaveolens</i>	0.569	6	3	5
<i>Planchonia careya</i>	0.513	4	4	2

615
616 Supplementary Table 2. Linear mixed-effect model output summarized in an analysis of deviance table
617 testing how internal stem damage changed across heights in the tree for different species.

Response		χ^2	df	p
log(percent termite damage)	height	83.4	1	< 0.001***
	species	14.2	6	0.028*
	height*species	21.1	6	0.002**
log(percent microbe damage)	height	4.2	1	0.041*
	species	1.7	6	0.949

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629 Supplementary Table 3. Linear model output summarized in an analysis of variance table testing the
 630 amount of overall tree-level damage for different damage type (termite and microbial) and tree species.

Response		Sum sq	df	F-value	p
log(percent damage)	species	4.4	3	2.30	0.089
	damage type	2.4	1	3.81	0.057
	species*damage type	6.0	3	3.13	0.034*
	residuals	31.8	50		

631
 632 Supplementary Table 4. Linear model output summarized in an analysis of variance table testing wood
 633 density (wd) and tree size (dbh) as predictors of the amount of internal stem damage (for both termites
 634 and microbes).

Response		Sum sq	df	F-value	p
log(percent termite damage)	wd	2.993	1	3.971	0.056
	dbh	0.394	1	0.523	0.475
	residuals	21.854	29		
log(percent microbe damage)	wd	0.868	1	1.386	0.249
	dbh	0.388	1	0.619	0.438
	residuals	18.168	29		

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646 Supplementary Table 5. List of species and total counts of occurrences with termites found in/associated
 647 with living trees and fallen deadwood.

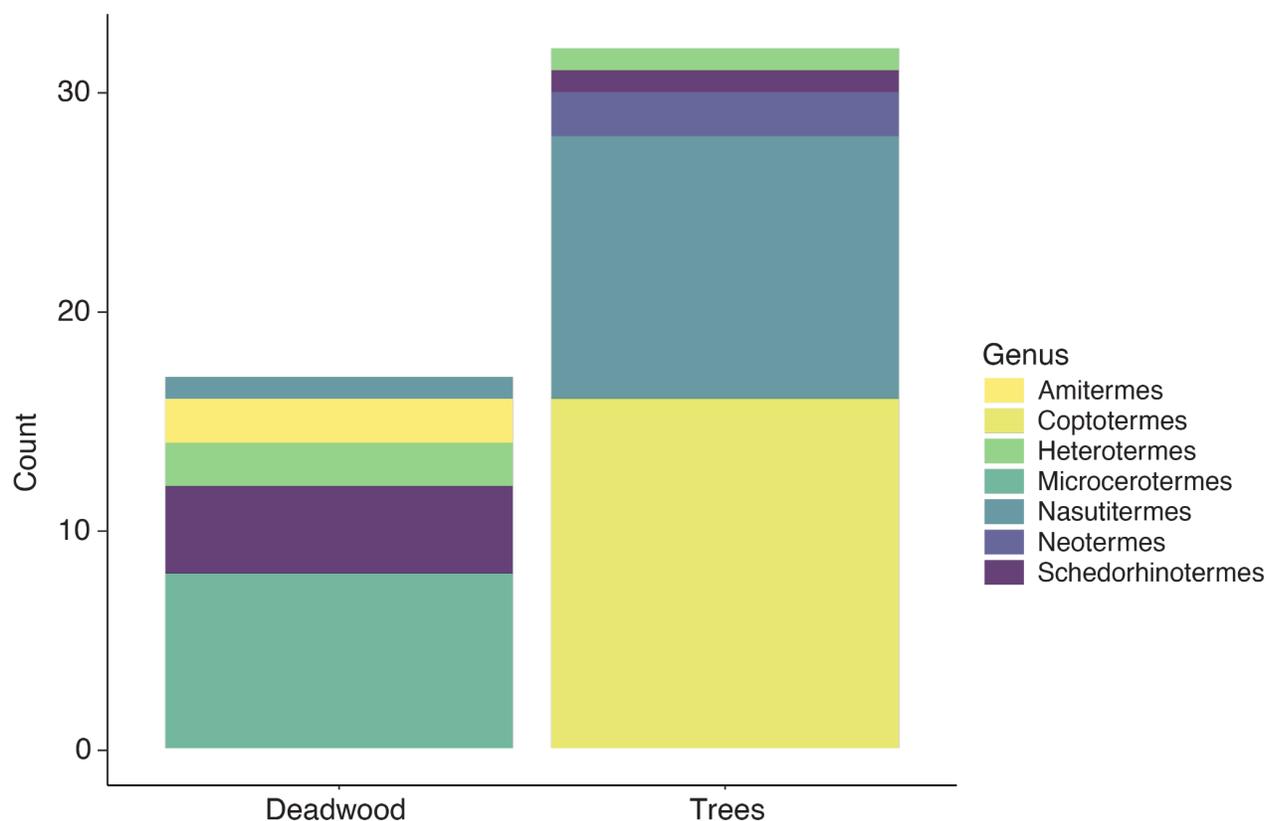
Species	Deadwood count	Living tree count
<i>Amitermes sp. A</i>	2	-
<i>Coptotermes acinaciformis</i>	-	13
<i>Coptotermes sp. A</i>	-	3
<i>Heterotermes vagus</i>	1	-
<i>Heterotermes sp. A</i>	1	-
<i>Heterotermes sp. B</i>	-	1
<i>Microcerotermes sp. A</i>	2	-
<i>Microcerotermes sp. B</i>	2	-
<i>Microcerotermes sp. C</i>	1	-
<i>Microcerotermes sp. D</i>	3	-
<i>Nasutitermes graveolus</i>	1	9
<i>Nasutitermes sp. A</i>	-	3
<i>Neotermes sp. A</i>	-	2
<i>Schedorhinotermes breinli</i>	3	-
<i>Schedorhinotermes sp. A</i>	1	1

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654 Supplementary Table 6. Plot-level damaged tree AGB from both termites and microbes for four damaged
 655 species in the study. Undamaged species included *Acacia polystachya*, *Corymbia tessellaris*, *Deplanchea*
 656 *tetraphylla*, *Grevillea parallela*, *Parinari nonda*, and *Timonius timon*.

Species	Biomass per hectare (kg ha ⁻¹)	Plot biomass (%)	%Tree-level termite damage (SD)	Termite damaged biomass (kg ha ⁻¹)	%Tree-level microbial damage (SD)	Microbial damaged biomass (kg ha ⁻¹)
<i>C. clarksoniana</i>	2,158	24.6	5.68 (± 6.95)	122.6	2.42 (± 6.71)	52.2
<i>E. tetradonta</i>	2,818	32.1	2.34 (± 2.57)	65.9	2.11 (± 1.71)	59.5
<i>L. suaveolens</i>	1,889	21.5	0.04 (± 0.06)	7.6	1.76 (± 2.3)	33.2
<i>P. careya</i>	258	2.9	1.47 (± 1.08)	3.8	0.50 (± 0.88)	2.3
Other species (undamaged)	1,658	18.9	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A

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658 Supplementary Figure 1. Termite species observed in fallen deadwood and living trees.
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