

1 **Are tropical ant and termite assemblages along a forest recovery gradient habitat or dispersal**
2 **limited?**

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19 **ABSTRACT**

20 Regenerating forests comprise a significant proportion of forest ecosystems in the tropics. While we are
21 beginning to understand assembly mechanisms of tree communities after anthropogenic disturbances,
22 those of animal communities are still poorly understood. It has been shown that locally established ant
23 communities clearly assemble along gradients of forest recovery from active agriculture over the time
24 of succession to old growth forests. However, if this is determined by dispersal limitation or habitat
25 filtering is unclear. To disentangle the two processes for ant and termite communities we compared
26 community composition of dispersing and sessile life stages for both based on OTUs, in a forest
27 landscape of about 200 km² extend in the Chocó lowland tropical forest in Ecuador. Our chronosequence
28 comprises a recovery gradient ranging from agricultural land to regenerating forests to old-growth
29 forests. Our results show that winged reproductives (alates) of both taxa disperse into all regeneration
30 stages along the gradient, but communities were more similar in spatially closer plots suggesting that
31 alates of both taxa have the potential to reach and colonize forests of all regeneration ages, but dispersal
32 distances are smaller than the spatial extent of our study area. Worker ant communities originating from
33 sessile nests were driven by forest regeneration age and elevation, suggesting that ants can disperse into
34 different regeneration stages, but not all species establish colonies in all regeneration stages and
35 elevation. Termite worker communities were likewise more similar at similar elevation and less similar
36 in spatially closer plots, which might be explained by species specific habitat preferences for certain
37 elevations and by biotic interactions such as local competition for resources. These results suggest, that
38 both taxa are only dispersal limited on the larger landscape scale, and while ant communities are more
39 affected by the habitat filtering (abiotic and biotic conditions) of the forest structure along the
40 chronosequence, termite communities seem to be more affected by intraspecific competition.

41

42 **1. INTRODUCTION**

43 Understanding species assembly rules in recovering forests is of particular importance as they cover
44 large areas globally (Global Forest Resources Assessment 2020) and offer the potential to mitigate the
45 effects of species loss during ongoing deforestation (Chazdon, 2009). However, unravelling the

46 fundamental mechanisms that govern community assembly remains a central challenge in contemporary
47 ecological theory (Vellend, 2010). Among the various proposed concepts, two key mechanisms are
48 dispersal limitation and habitat filtering (Belyea & Lancaster, 1999). The dispersal limitation paradigm
49 emphasizes the importance of dispersal between patches. Following this paradigm, differing species
50 compositions in a landscape are explained by the species inability to reach suitable habitats due to
51 limited dispersal mechanisms (Leibold et al., 2004). In contrast, the habitat filtering paradigm
52 emphasizes the role of habitat heterogeneity caused by environmental gradients in structuring
53 communities, where environmental conditions determine if species can establish and persist in a local
54 patch (Kraft et al., 2015). It assumes a moderate dispersal rate which allows species to reach suitable
55 patches but stresses the importance of niche separation caused by local biotic interactions and abiotic
56 conditions (Leibold et al, 2004). The terms environmental conditions and environmental filtering often
57 refer to abiotic factors such as temperature and humidity, hence in the following we use the term habitat
58 filter to emphasize that besides abiotic conditions also biotic interactions such as mutualism or
59 competition can have an influence on community assembly. While the two paradigms are not mutually
60 exclusive (Livingston et al., 2013), their relative importance in structuring ecological communities
61 continues to be debated and both mechanisms could potentially produce and explain the same observed
62 pattern of local species distributions. By comparing dispersing stages with established communities the
63 importance of the two factors in shaping local community structure can be disentangled.

64 Many (but not all) social insect species have two distinct life stages. In the first life stage winged
65 reproductives (so-called alates) of many species leave their colony for nuptial flights to disperse into the
66 surrounding for mating and the subsequent establishment of a new colony (Hartke & Baer, 2011; Hakala
67 et al., 2019). Consequently, this mobile stage provides the opportunity to study dispersal abilities and
68 possible dispersal limitations.

69 In the second life stage following colony founding, social insects live in (quasi-)sessile colonies
70 consisting of reproductive dealate queens (and males for some species) and a non-reproductive worker
71 caste (and soldiers for some species). Workers of these colonies forage in the surroundings and exploit
72 the available resources. As established colonies of many species usually do not move extensively, the

73 distribution of colonies in a landscape provides information about the species' performance in different
74 environmental conditions, but not of the species' ability to reach other potential habitats for the founding
75 of new colonies. Hence this life stage is suitable to study the impact of habitat filters on social insect
76 communities.

77 In this study, we aim to disentangle the effects of dispersal limitation and habitat filtering for the
78 assembly of ant and termite communities in a tropical forest recovery gradient along a chronosequence
79 ranging from agricultural land, regenerating forest of different ages and old-growth rainforest. This
80 gradient represents an environmental gradient with differing biotic and abiotic conditions. As our study
81 is situated in the Chocó-Darien Global Ecoregion (CGE), which is among the top 25 biodiversity
82 hotspots for conservation worldwide (Myers et al., 2000), our study area provides a crucial context for
83 evaluating the ecological consequences of land-use transformation (Escobar et al., 2015).

84 Former investigations in our study area have shown that community composition of ant workers
85 emanating from sessile nests differs between agricultural land, regenerating forest and old-growth forest
86 (Hoenle et al., 2022; Hoenle et al., 2023). Forest regeneration time, elevation and land-use legacy have
87 been identified as drivers for species composition (Hoenle et al., 2022; Hoenle et al., 2023). Based on
88 these outcomes environmental conditions appear to be central in shaping the distribution of ants in this
89 region strengthening the habitat filtering paradigm as pivotal mechanism in explaining ant assemblages.
90 But as described before, ant colonies do not disperse after colony founding and the study of sessile nests
91 cannot indicate potential dispersal effects.

92 Here, we investigate the community composition of ant and termite communities to test whether a
93 potential dispersal limitation before colony founding already influences species distribution of social
94 insects by comparing the communities of dispersing alates with the communities of workers deriving
95 from sessile nests. We sampled worker ants with an extended sampling protocol in comparison to former
96 studies and explored termite worker, and alate communities of both taxa for the first time in our study
97 area. In addition to forest regeneration time, we control for elevation and space as factors potentially
98 influencing community composition. As plots of different land use type, forest regeneration age and old-

99 growth forests form a small scale mosaic in our study area (Escobar et al. 2025), dispersing alates should
100 be able to reach different habitat types at short distances.

101 We analyse ant and termite community composition of both life stages separately via multiple regression
102 models of Jaccard dissimilarity. In case ant and termite communities are dispersal limited along the
103 recovery gradient we expect to find a high dissimilarity of dispersing alates community composition
104 depending forest age. Additionally, if habitat filtering is an important mechanism in shaping ant and
105 termite communities we expect to find high dissimilarities in worker communities depending on forest
106 regeneration age and the entailing environmental gradient. This would imply that habitat characteristics
107 determine the success of colonies to establish and persist, depending on the species performance in
108 different habitat conditions. As these mechanisms are not mutually exclusive, a synthesis of both is also
109 possible, where alate communities are dispersal limited and worker communities are driven by habitat
110 filtering.

111

112 **2. METHODS**

113 **2.1 Study sites and plot design**

114 Our study area is located in the tropical lowland Chocó rainforest in north west Ecuador (province
115 Esmeraldas) in the two reserves Reserva Río Canandé and Reserva Tesoro Escondido. 62 plots were
116 selected in the framework of the REASSEMBLY research unit (www.reassembly.de). Plots are located
117 across a 200-km² area and comprise each 50 x 50 m in forest plots (old-growth forest and regenerating
118 forests) and 16 x 16 m in agricultural plots. The landscape in our study area is characterized by a small
119 scale mosaic of heterogeneous environment encompassing old-growth forests, regenerating forests of
120 various successional stages, human settlements and agricultural land with short distances among these
121 land-use types. The distance of each plot to the nearest old-growth plot for example averages 59 m (SD
122 ± 46) and forest cover is generally high with an average of 74% (SD ± 2.8) within a 1-km radius of each
123 plot (Escobar et al., 2025). Our study sites consisted of a recovery gradient ranging from agriculture
124 (pastures and cacao plantations) to regenerating forests (former pastures and cacao plantations) to old-

125 growth forests. Time since abandonment (= age) of regenerating forests ranged from 1 to 37 years and
126 plot elevations from 128 – 615m. Further details on the study sites and the plot design of the Reassembly
127 plots are described in Escobar et al. (2025). Some plots of our study are not in the final plot selection of
128 the REASSEMBLY project because plot selection was finalized in 2022 (see details below).

129

130 **2.2 Sampling**

131 Our data consists of two data sets. The first data set comprises dispersing ant and termite alates that were
132 collected during nuptial flights. The second data set comprises workers of both taxa, where specimens
133 were collected directly from their nests or during foraging. All specimens of this data set belonged to
134 sessile colonies and did not disperse for reproduction.

135 The first data set of dispersing ant and termite alates is a subset of data on flying insects which was
136 published by Müller et al. (2023). The collection of all flying insects using light traps was conducted on
137 44 plots in October and November 2021. These plots comprise 10 agricultural plots (5 pastures, 5 cacao
138 plantations), 13 regenerating pastures with regeneration times ranging from 4 to 34 years, 10
139 regenerating cacao plantations with regeneration times ranging from 4 to 25 years, and 11 old-growth
140 forests. From 44 plots 38 were in the final Reassembly plot selection whereas 6 plots were sampled
141 additionally. Although ants and termites are usually not the target taxa of light traps, studies have
142 demonstrated that light traps are suitable for capturing flying ant and termite alates (Basset et al.,2020).
143 Hence, we extracted the data of ants and termite alates for our analysis. The trapping methods and the
144 metabarcoding approach for species identification are described in Müller et al. (2023). In short, an
145 autonomous light trap was used for one night per plot for 8 hours avoiding full moon phase. It was
146 installed at 2 m height in cleared vegetation free surrounding. To attract insects after dusk a LED light
147 was used, which is optimized for insect sampling (LepiLED Mini Switch 0.65, UV-mode switched off,
148 Brehm, Jena, Germany). The trap included a plexiglas roof and a funnel leading insects into chloroform.
149 After collection, all insects were dry stored in a freezer and filtered by size. Laboratory and bioinformatic
150 pipelines for species identification were followed as described in Hausmann (2020) to sequence the
151 CO1-5P (mitochondrial cytochrome oxidase 1) gene of the collected insect bulk samples. This pipeline

152 resulted in a list of taxa occurring on each plot. We did not assign species names to the taxa as many
153 BINs (Barcode Index Numbers) were not clearly assigned to a species name in the BOLD database. We
154 rather refer to the taxa of this data set and of the worker data set as OTUs (operational taxonomic units)
155 to keep it consistent within our study.

156 Foraging and nest-dwelling workers were collected in three sampling seasons in 2022 and 2023. In the
157 first season in February to April 2022 we sampled all 62 Reassembly plots and two additional plots (one
158 regenerating pasture and one cacao plantation). The 64 plots comprise 12 agricultural plots (6 pastures,
159 6 cacao plantations), 17 regenerating pastures, 18 regenerating cacao plantations and 17 old-growth
160 forests. Regeneration times of former pastures and cacao plantations range both from 1 to 37 years. We
161 collected ants and termites with the use of Winkler traps, by hand sampling of foraging ants and termites
162 on the ground and from tree trunks upon breast height and as described by Hoenle et al. (2022). In doing
163 so we captured ant and termite communities of different strata including leaf litter dwelling (Winkler
164 traps), epigeal (ground transects) and parts of tree dwelling (tree trunks) communities. In addition to the
165 three methods used by Hoenle et al. (2022) we used methods to capture dead wood dwelling ants and
166 termites. In the first field season, we opened five naturally occurring dead wood pieces per plot (mean
167 per plot: 3.16 ± 1.24 , $n = 193$, 61 plots) that were in contact with the ground (logs and stumps) and
168 collected ants and termites nesting in the dead wood. In the second sampling season in August to October
169 2022 we used an additional baiting approach on the 62 Reassembly plots where we collected wood-
170 dwelling ants and termites with dead wood baits from five different tree species. We placed one wood
171 piece per plot from the tree species *Trema micrantha* (Sapanillo), *Theobroma cacao* (Cacao), *Inga sp.*
172 (Guaba), *Triplaris cumingiana* (Fernán Sánchez) and *Hieronyma chocoensis* (Mascarey) each. Wood
173 pieces had a diameter ranging from 7-10 cm and a length of 50 cm. In a third field season after 6 months
174 (February-March 2023) we retrieved the five wood pieces from each plot and placed them in emergence
175 chambers. These emergence chambers consisted of mesh tubes made of white fabric used for insect nets
176 (1mm double-thread netting, bioform.de; Model A110e) and a 50 ml sampling tube filled with ethanol
177 attached at the bottom. Insects emerging from the wood pieces and falling into the ethanol were collected
178 for the following six months (February-August).

179 Sampled worker ants and termites were identified with a combination of a morphological analyses and
180 a DNA barcoding approach. First, we identified samples to genus level if possible using taxonomic
181 literature (Bolton, 1994; Constantino, 2002) and subsequently separated them into morphospecies. For
182 every sampling method from every plot we prepared one specimen of each morphospecies for the
183 barcoding of the CO1-5P gene by cutting off one leg of ants and the heads of termites. The dissected
184 tissues were sent to the Canadian Centre for DNA Barcoding (University of Guelph, Canada) for DNA
185 isolation and sequencing. DNA sequences were uploaded to the BOLD (Barcode of Life Data System)
186 database. BOLD creates BIN clusters of sequences that have been shown to be in high concordance with
187 species and can be used for species identification (Ratnasingham & Hebert, 2013). Based on these BINs,
188 phylogenetic trees and additional morphological analyses based on taxonomic literature (as cited in
189 Hoenle et al., 2022) we made our final species identifications. These resulted in a list of taxa for each
190 plot.

191

192 **2.3 Statistical analyses**

193 We performed statistical analyses separately for both taxa and both data sets using R version 4.4.1 (R
194 core team, 2024). Considering diversity analyses, it is often criticized that species richness does not
195 consider abundance and sampling effort (see Gotelli & Colwell, 2001). For our data a standardization
196 considering sampling effort was not possible due to the difficulties of estimating social insect abundance
197 (as discussed by Basset et al., 2015), especially when using a metabarcoding approach where specimens
198 are homogenized after collection. Hence, we used the first Hill number q_0 (Hill, 1973) which is the
199 number of observed species to quantify OTU diversity. We calculated the number of observed OTUs,
200 using the 'specnumber' function from the *vegan* package (Oksanen et al., 2022).

201 For exploring the relation of the number of observed OTUs with forest age and elevation, we performed
202 generalized linear models (GLM) choosing a negative binomial distribution with the 'glm.nb' function
203 of the MASS package (Ripley et al., 2002). We checked the distribution of residuals using the DHARMA
204 package (Hartig, 2024). For this and the following analyses, we set the age of old-growth forests to 55

205 years to enable inclusion of old growth forest data as predictions have shown that tree species richness
206 recovers to 90% in comparison to old growth already after 55 years (Escobar et al., 2025).

207 For the identification of the factors influencing community composition between plots we used a
208 multiple regression model (MRM) using the ‘MRM’ function of the *ecodist* package. As input we
209 created Euclidian distance matrices between plots for forest age, elevation, and space (longitude and
210 latitude) with the ‘dist’ and function as well as distances of OTU composition with the Jaccard
211 dissimilarity index computed with the ‘vegdist’ function of the *vegan* package. All matrices were
212 standardized using the ‘decostand’ function. For the visualization of OTU composition we made a
213 NMDS (Non-metric multidimensional scaling) using the ‘metaMDS’ function of the *vegan* package by
214 grouping all plots into four categories representing the different land-uses with differing habitat
215 conditions in our study area (agricultural land, early regenerating forests (1-20 years), late regenerating
216 forests (21-37 years) and old growth forest).

217

218 **3. RESULTS**

219 **3.1 General results and diversity**

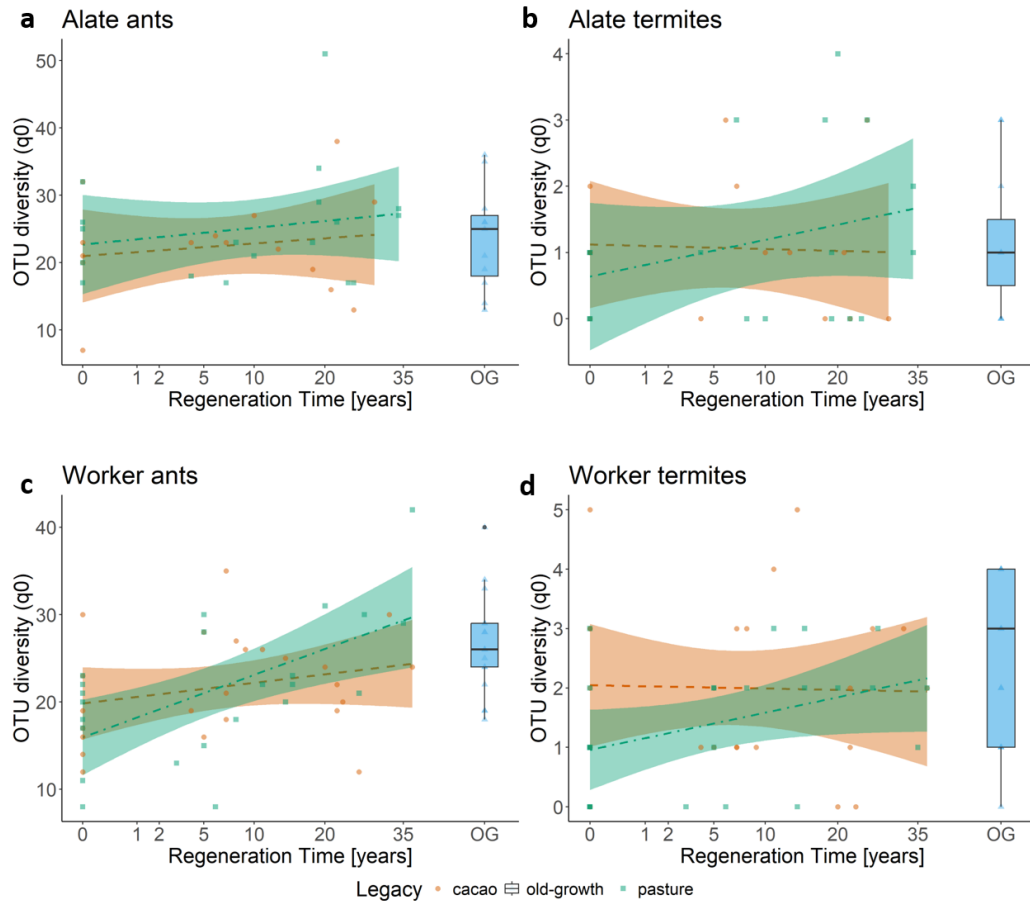
220 With the light trap approach for capturing alates, 188 ant OTUs and 17 termite OTUs (Table 1) were
221 successfully identified. Alate diversity of both taxa was not influenced by forest age or elevation (Figure
222 1a,b ; Table 2). In comparison, we identified 300 ant OTUs and 29 termite OTUs from the worker caste
223 (Table 2). The diversity of worker ants and termites increased along the recovery gradient and was
224 predicted by forest age. (Figure 1c,d; Table 2).

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230 **Figure 1:** Recovery trajectories of ant (a,c) and termite (b,c) diversity (number of observed OTUs q_0)
 231 along the recovery gradient. Workers (c, d) originate from nest-dwelling or foraging specimen while
 232 alates (a, b) were captured during nuptial flights. Land-use legacy of active and former pastures and
 233 cacao plantations are highlighted by colour and shape. Their trajectories are predicted by a linear model
 234 with 95% CI. Old-growth forest (OG) is plotted without forest age for comparison with the regenerating
 235 plots.

236 **Table 2:** Generalized linear models (GLM) of alate and worker ant and termite diversity (number of
 237 observed species q_0) with forest age and elevation as predictors. Significant p-values are highlighted in
 238 bold.

Parameter	Estimate	95 % CI	p-value
Alate ants			
Intercept	3.03	0.14	<2e⁻¹⁵
Age	0.0002	0.002	0.93
Elevation	0.0004	0.0004	0.3
Worker ants			
Intercept	2.98	0.11	<2e⁻¹⁶
Age	0.006	0.002	7e⁻⁵
Elevation	8e ⁻⁶	0.0003	0.98
Alate termites			
Intercept	0.29	0.42	0.49
Age	0.006	0.008	0.46
Elevation	-0.0009	0.001	0.49
Worker termites			
Intercept	0.68	0.3	0.02
Age	0.009	0.004	0.03
Elevation	-0.0007	0.0008	0.38

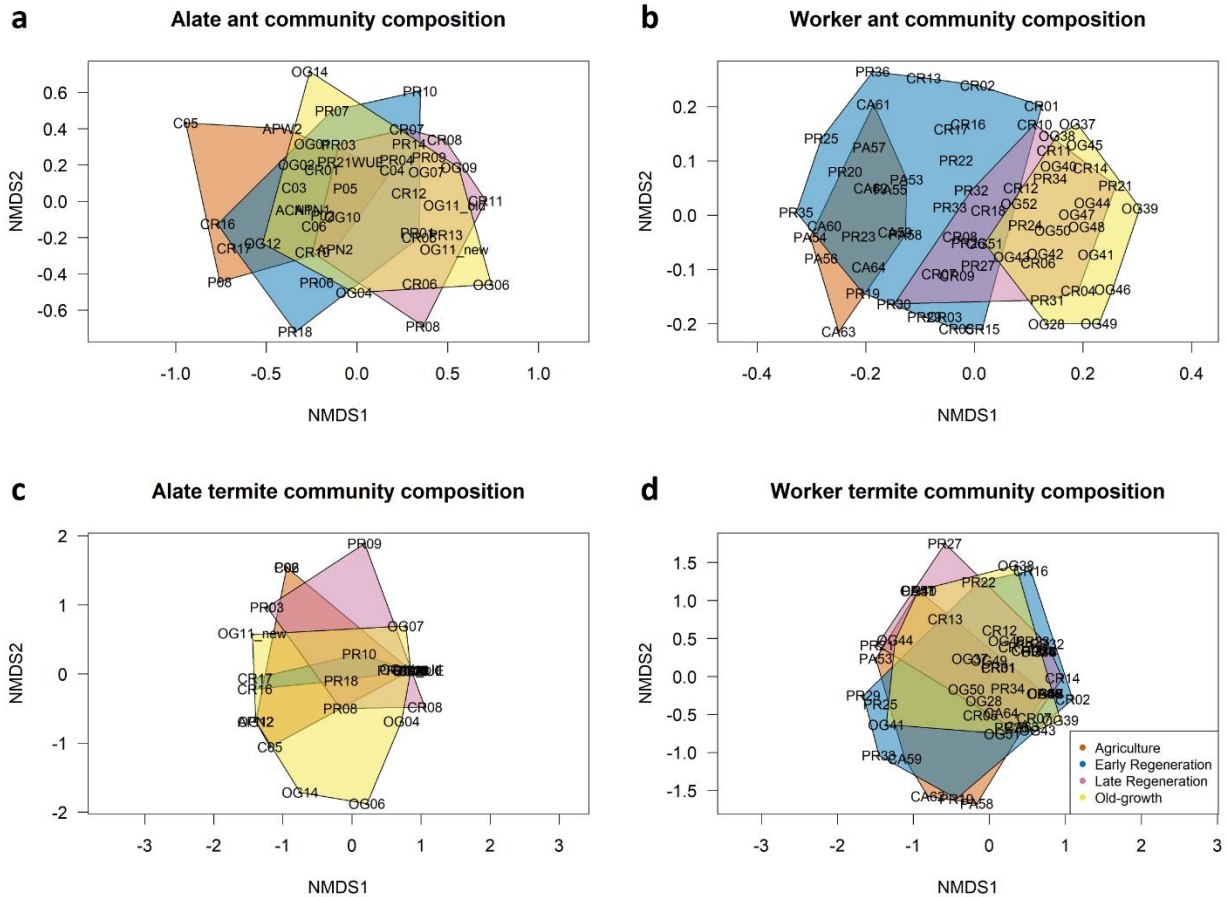
239

240 **3.2 Community composition**

241 While the diversity can only give information about the number of OTUs in the plots, community
242 composition considers the identities of observed taxa. Our results from the analysis of alate community
243 composition of both taxa showed a strong overlap between agricultural land, regenerating forests and
244 old-growth forests (Figure 2a,c) and the multiple regression models likewise showed that community
245 composition (Jaccard dissimilarity index) is independent of forest regeneration age or elevation but
246 driven by space where communities were more similar in spatially closer plots (Table 2).

247 Ant worker communities were best predicted by forest age and elevation with more similar communities
248 on plots with similar regeneration ages and similar elevations (Figure 2b, Table 2). Termite worker
249 community composition was not influenced by forest age but by space and elevation with communities
250 being more similar on similar elevation and more dissimilar when plots were spatially closer (Figure 2d,
251 Table 2).

252



253

254 **Figure 2:** NMDS of worker (a,c) and alate (b,d) community composition of ants (a,b) and termites (c,d)
 255 in agricultural land, early regenerating forests (1-20 years), late regenerating forests (21-37 years) and
 256 old-growth forests.

257

258 **Table 2:** Multiple regression model of alate and worker community composition (Jaccard dissimilarity
 259 index) of ants and termites with Jaccard dissimilarity, forest age, elevation and space (longitude and
 260 latitude) as input dissimilarity matrices. Significant p-values are highlighted in bold.

Parameter	Estimate	p-value
Ant alates		
Intercept	0.14	0.001
Age	0.03	0.14
Elevation	-0.03	0.18
Space	0.25	0.001

Ant workers		
Intercept	0.1	0.001
Age	0.14	0.001
Elevation	0.07	0.001
Space	0.002	0.82
Termite alates		
Intercept	0.09	0.9
Age	0.01	0.8
Elevation	-0.03	0.48
Space	0.15	0.005
Termite workers		
Intercept	0.11	0.36
Age	0.02	0.45
Elevation	0.12	0.003
Space	-0.06	0.03

261

262

263 **4. DISCUSSION**

264 **Ant and termite alates**

265 The results of our community composition analysis deliver insights into the species assembly of ants
266 and termites in regenerating forests. We found evidence that alates of both taxa are dispersal limited at
267 landscape scale with more similar communities in spatially closer plots. However, alate communities
268 were not influenced by forest regeneration age and thus habitat type of the plots. The observed results
269 may be attributable to limited dispersal ranges for many ant and termite species, which potentially do
270 not extend to the full spatial scale of our study area. Studies on flight ecology of these social insects are
271 scarce and dispersal distances are only known for a selected number of species. Ants have been shown
272 to have a broad range of dispersal distances (see overview in Helms, 2018). For example, for *Pheidole*
273 *minutula* a maximum dispersal distance of 30 m has been estimated (Bruna et al., 2011), for Azteca
274 species up to 400 m (Bruna et al. 2011), *Atta sexdens* is estimated to disperse up to 11 km (Jutsum &

275 Quinlan, 1978), and *Solenopsis invicta* between 5.4 km and 32 km depending on the study (Helms,
276 2018). For termites, that are typically regarded as poor fliers, there has been remarkably little research
277 on flight distances and most studies focused on pest species. The globally significant pest species
278 *Coptotermes formosanus*, for example, has been shown to disperse mainly in a 250 m radius from the
279 nest with some individuals dispersing as far as 1.3 km (Mullins et al., 2015), while another pest species,
280 *Odontotermes formosanus*, has been shown to fly on average 146 m from its nest (Hu et al., 2010).
281 Although our study area spans over 200 km², distances between plots are comparatively short. The
282 Reassembly plots of different habitat type (pastures, cacao plantations, regenerating pastures and cacao
283 plantations of different regeneration age, and old-growth forest) are evenly distributed across the
284 landscape and distances between plots of the same type range from 184 m minimum to 14 km (average
285 between 4.6 km and 5.5 km), while the minimum distance between plots of different type was 250 m
286 (Escobar et al., 2025). Due to this small scale landscape heterogeneity ants and termites are likely able
287 to disperse into plots of all regeneration ages where they could potentially found new colonies, but are
288 dispersal limited on the larger scale as most species are likely not dispersing the whole study area.

289 **Ant workers**

290 The results of the ant worker diversity analysis support previous findings where ant richness or diversity
291 increase with forest regeneration age (Bihn et al., 2008; Rocha-Ortega et al, 2018; Karolak & Fiedler,
292 2024). In contrast to ant alates, regeneration age and elevation have been identified as factors influencing
293 community composition with more similar OTUs in similar regeneration ages and elevation. Although
294 our elevation gradient only comprises 487 m, effects of elevation that are probably correlated with
295 environmental conditions already affected community composition, which has been shown for ants
296 globally (Smith, 2015; Szewczyk et al., 2016) but also in tropical and subtropical elevational gradients
297 (Staab et al., 2014; Hethcoat et al., 2019; Leahy et al., 2024) and in our study area (Hönle et al., 2022).
298 Shifts in ant community composition with recovery time have also been extensively documented across
299 multiple studies elsewhere (Dunn, 2004; Bihn et al., 2008; Neves et al., 2010; Schmidt et al., 2013;
300 Staab et al., 2014; Gomes et al., 2014; Hethcoat et al., 2019) and in the study region; (Hoenle et al.,
301 2022). Different regeneration ages represent different environments; as environmental parameters

302 change over time with succession. Two important abiotic parameters are temperature and humidity
303 which are linked canopy openness. Logging and habitat conversion can alter the canopy openness
304 resulting in hotter and drier below-canopy microclimate in comparison to forests as shown in in oil palm
305 and rubber plantations in Sumatra (Meijide et al., 2018). For ants, canopy openness has also been
306 identified as a key driver of community dynamics in disturbed habitats (Andersen, 2019). In Borneo for
307 example, Boyle et al. (2021) have shown that ants with higher thermal tolerance were more abundant in
308 more disturbed and warmer habitats. Klimes et al. (2012) additionally identified tree density, tree size
309 and taxonomic diversity of trees as parameters explaining differences in ant communities during
310 succession. As tree species richness and many structure variables such as light availability, maximum
311 tree height, number of stems, vertical vegetation heterogeneity, aboveground biomass, diversity of
312 coarse woody debris, and availability of fine woody debris has been shown to change with forest
313 regeneration age in our study area (Falconí-López et al., 2024, Escobar et al., 2025), we argue that
314 habitat filters associated with regeneration age might explain the observed distribution of ant workers.
315 A previous analysis of recovery mechanisms of our worker ant data set has shown that after perturbation
316 ant recovery is driven by resistance of the species community rather than resilience (Metz et al., under
317 review.). This suggests that community composition along the recovery gradient is rather driven by the
318 persistence of ants remaining on disturbed or previously disturbed land rather than by recolonization of
319 arriving alates. While we demonstrated that ant alates disperse into all forest regeneration ages, it
320 remains uncertain whether the observed pattern of ant workers results from alates choosing or rejecting
321 certain habitats for colony founding by the mated queens, or from failure of the establishment of colonies
322 that subsequently cannot persist in these environments. Additional research examining nesting site
323 selection and post-establishment colony success rates would be valuable for further understanding the
324 mechanisms of ant community reassembly.

325 **Termite workers**

326 Although termites are considered to be sensitive to land-use changes in the Neotropics (Ackerman et al.,
327 2009; Luke et al., 2014, de Paula et al., 2016; Duran-Bautista et al., 2020; Duran-Bautista et al., 2024;
328 Castro et al., 2021), only termite worker diversity but not community composition was influenced by

329 forest age in our study. Instead community composition was influenced by spatial distance and elevation,
330 which might be explained by our sampling method. Most termites were collected in artificially added
331 wood baits or in large pieces of naturally occurring dead wood, which is equally distributed in volume
332 across the recovery gradient (Falconí-López et al, 2024). From the 11 identified termite genera, six were
333 classified as wood feeders, four as soil feeders and one as litter feeder according to the classification by
334 Donovan et al (2001). As termite communities were more dissimilar in spatially close plots, competition
335 for dead wood as a food and nesting resource might explain the observed distributions. The competitive
336 influence on structuring termite communities has been similarly observed across various tropical
337 ecosystems (Casalla Daza & Korb, 2019; Luo et al., 2024), potentially attributable to their specialized
338 dietary niche, which predominantly comprises dead plant material at various stages of decomposition
339 (Donovan et al., 2001).

340 **Limitations and outlook**

341 By analyzing community composition of dispersing alates and workers from sessile nests of ants and
342 termites, we successfully disentangled assembly mechanisms and explored the relevance of dispersal
343 and environmental filters along a recovery gradient of a lowland tropical rainforest. However, some
344 open questions and limitations remain that need to be addressed in future studies. For instance, while
345 our results show how communities assemble in our study area, other spatial scales or landscape
346 configurations with larger and more homogeneous or more isolated forest patches might produce other
347 results. We suggest that our observed community compositions along the recovery gradient might be
348 influenced by the landscape configuration of our study area where plots of different recovery ages are
349 close and thus easier to reach.

350 Given the increasing importance of secondary forests (Chazdon et al., 2009; Chazdon & Guariguata,
351 2016) for mitigating the loss of old-growth forests and the complexity of recovery processes (Poorter et
352 al., 2021), our approach provides an initial insight into the assembly processes of tropical ant and termite
353 communities, which is crucial for developing evidence-based management and conservation strategies.

354

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371 **Data Availability Statement**

372 Annotated R code, including the data needed to reproduce the statistical analyses and figures, is
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374

375 **Conflict of Interest**

376 No potential conflict of interest was reported by the authors.

377

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