

Short Communication

Bark traits affect epiphytic bryophyte community assembly in a temperate forest

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1 **Abstract**

2 Bark traits of trees often serve as a key factor determining the community structure of
3 epiphytes. However, the extent to which barks modulate the relative importance of
4 abiotic and biotic assembly processes of epiphytes is poorly understood. Here, using a
5 community phylogenetic approach, we aimed to infer the assembly processes of
6 epiphytic mosses and liverworts on tree species with varying bark traits in a temperate
7 forest of central Japan. We observed a total of 56 moss and 35 liverwort species on 150
8 trees. Moss communities showed decreasing species richness and a tendency toward
9 phylogenetic overdispersion, that is, higher phylogenetic diversity than expected by
10 chance, in relation to increasing bark roughness and acidity. Along the same bark
11 gradients, liverwort communities became phylogenetically clustered. Species richness
12 of both mosses and liverworts increased with the nitrogen content of barks. The results
13 indicate non-random assembly processes such as abiotic filtering associated with
14 environmental harshness and microhabitat variety determined by barks. Our findings
15 imply that bark traits modulate community assembly processes through which epiphyte
16 diversity is maintained.

17

18 **Keywords:** Biodiversity, Competition, Environmental filtering, Evolutionary history,
19 Mosses, Phylogenetic diversity

20 Introduction

21
22 Epiphytes are essential components of forest biodiversity (Burns and Zotz 2010;
23 Mendieta-Leiva and Zotz 2015; Tatsumi et al. 2017). Understanding the processes
24 through which epiphyte species assemble on host trees provides a crucial step toward
25 developing effective conservation strategies and preserving the functional roles
26 epiphytes play in forest ecosystems (Ellis 2012). Notably, the characteristics of barks
27 have been recognized as a key determinant of epiphyte community structure (Callaway
28 et al. 2002; Wyse and Burns 2011; Mendieta-Leiva and Zotz 2015). However, despite
29 extensive research describing the composition and distribution patterns of epiphytes on
30 various barks, comparatively little is known about how bark traits modulate the relative
31 importance of assembly processes (e.g., abiotic filtering or biotic interactions) driving
32 such patterns (Spicer and Woods 2022).

33 Phylogenetic diversity has been widely employed to account for evolutionary and
34 ecological relatedness among species within a community. In particular, the sign and
35 magnitude of phylogenetic diversity deviating from null expectations have commonly
36 served as proxies representing the relative strengths of different assembly processes
37 (Webb et al. 2002; Cavender-Bares et al. 2004; Gerhold et al. 2015). Under
38 evolutionary niche conservatism, phylogenetic diversity lower or higher than expected
39 by chance, referred to as phylogenetic clustering and overdispersion, respectively, has
40 been interpreted as indicative of abiotic and biotic assembly (Webb 2000; Webb et al.
41 2002). In combination with demonstrable environmental gradients, phylogenetic
42 diversity can provide insights into ecological processes through which species assemble
43 into communities (Cadotte and Tucker 2017; Cadotte et al. 2019; Tatsumi et al. 2019).

44 For example, the acidity of barks can serve as a gradient determining the
45 environmental harshness for epiphytes ([Mitchell et al. 2021](#)). Abiotic filtering can thus
46 become more pronounced on barks with lower pH, resulting in phylogenetic clustering
47 of communities under niche conservatism and overdispersion under convergent
48 evolution ([Webb 2000; Webb et al. 2002](#)). On the other hand, the significance of biotic
49 interactions often increase with resource availability ([Briones et al. 1998](#)). Therefore, on
50 barks that can retain resources such as water (Zamfir and Goldberg 2000), competitive
51 exclusion among closely related species may become a dominant assembly process,
52 leading to phylogenetic overdispersion under niche conservatism (Webb 2000;
53 Cavender-Bares et al. 2004; Cadotte et al. 2019).

54 Here, we explore community assembly of epiphytic bryophytes on barks.
55 Specifically, we analyze phylogenetic diversity of mosses and liverworts, which

56 constitute two major clades of bryophytes, on multiple tree species that represent
57 gradients of bark traits in a temperate forest. Using null models, we test whether
58 communities show tendency toward phylogenetic clustering or overdispersion along the
59 gradients. Based on the phylogenetic community structure observed, we infer
60 underlying assembly processes and their links to bark traits.

61

62 **Methods**

63

64 *Study site and tree species*

65 This study was conducted in the Ashiu Forest Research Station of the Kyoto University,
66 western Japan (4186 ha; 35.3° N, 135.8° E; 355 to 959 m elevation) (Fig. S1). The
67 study site is covered by primary forests and part of it is designated as a National
68 Bryophyte Heritage Site of Japan for the rich bryophyte flora. The study site is located in
69 a warm- and cool-temperate ecotone dominated by an evergreen conifer *Cryptomeria*
70 *japonica* and deciduous broadleaves including *Aesculus turbinata*, *Fagus crenata*, and
71 *Quercus crispula*. The mean monthly temperature ranges from -0.4°C in January to
72 24.0°C in August. The mean annual precipitation is 2568 mm.

73 We selected 10 tree species for our study: *Acer pictum* subsp. *mono*, *Acer*
74 *sieboldianum*, *Aesculus turbinata*, *Betula grossa*, *Castanea crenata*, *Clethra*
75 *barbinervis*, *Cryptomeria japonica*, *Fagus crenata*, *Quercus crispula*, and *Quercus*
76 *serrata*. These species were selected to cover a large variety of bark traits as possible.
77 For each tree species, we surveyed bryophyte communities on 15 trees, totalling 150
78 trees, in six plots distributed across the study area (Fig. S1). The surveyed trees were
79 selected in such a way that most tree species had similar levels of variation in tree sizes
80 (except for *A. sieboldianum* and *C. barbinervis* which are shrub species; Fig. S2) and
81 among-individual geographical distances (Fig. S1). We selected trees in closed-canopy
82 stands that were at least ~ 20 m away from the nearest forest edge to minimize the
83 potential variation in light environment. We measured the diameters at breast height
84 (DBH) of the trees using diameter tapes.

85

86 *Bryophyte survey and diversity*

87 In October 2016, we surveyed epiphytic bryophytes in four 10-cm wide, 200-cm high
88 quadrats positioned at the cardinal directions of each tree, totalling 8000 cm² per tree.
89 We recorded the presence or absence of bryophyte species on each tree. Species were
90 identified in the field or in the laboratory under a microscope. To prevent epigeic species
91 from being included, the quadrats were placed approximately 5–30 cm above the

92 ground surface, depending on the inclination of stems and slopes. We used quadrats
93 with a fixed size so that bryophyte diversity would be comparable among trees of
94 different sizes, without being affected by variation in the survey area *per se*. All trees
95 were surveyed at their cardinal directions to keep the possible influences of aspect
96 consistent.

97 A bryophyte phylogeny was reconstructed based on three chloroplast genes (*rbcl*,
98 *rps4*, and *trnL-F*), which are commonly used in bryophyte phylogenetics (Stech and
99 Quandt 2010). See Supplementary text 1 for details on phylogeny reconstruction.

100 We quantified phylogenetic diversity of bryophyte communities using mean pairwise
101 distance (MPD) (Webb 2000). We calculated the standardized effect size of MPD,
102 referred to as net relatedness index (NRI), based on null modelling (Webb et al. 2002).
103 The NRI was defined as $-1 \cdot (x - \mu_{\text{null}}) / \sigma_{\text{null}}$, where x is the observed MPD, μ_{null} is
104 the mean MPD of a null distribution, and σ_{null} is the standard deviation of a null
105 distribution (Webb et al. 2002). The null distributions were generated based on 999
106 iterations of presence-absence randomizations across 150 communities using the
107 independent swap algorithm (Gotelli 2000). Randomizations were conducted separately
108 for mosses and liverworts. To examine for possible effects of tree sizes on bryophyte
109 community structure, we compared models with and without DBH as an explanatory
110 variable.

111

112 *Bark traits*

113 For each of the 10 tree species, we measured bark roughness, water holding capacity,
114 pH, and inorganic nitrogen content. These traits were selected based on previous
115 research that has shown their associations with epiphyte community structure
116 (Gustafsson and Eriksson, 1995; reviewed by Ellis, 2012). We measured each trait on
117 three trees per species and used the mean value for statistical analyses. See
118 Supplementary text 2 for details of the measurement methods and Table S1 for the
119 observed bark trait values. To account for correlations between some pairs of traits
120 (Table S2), we performed a principal component analysis to derive composite measures
121 of bark traits.

122

123 *Regression analyses*

124 We tested the changes in bryophyte species richness along bark trait gradients using
125 generalized linear mixed models with a Poisson error distribution and a log-link function.
126 Changes in MPD were tested using log-normal linear mixed models. Changes in NRI
127 were tested using linear mixed models. We included 'plots' as a random variable in all

128 models. We used R 4.3.0 (R Core Team 2023) for all statistical analyses.

129

130 **Results and Discussion**

131

132 We observed a total of 56 moss and 35 liverwort species on 150 trees, with 1016
133 occurrences of mosses and 515 occurrences of liverworts (Fig. 1). Regarding bark
134 traits, more than half of the variation was captured by the first principal component (PC
135 1) (Fig. 2). Bark roughness and pH showed a negative correlation (Table S2), likely due
136 to the tendency for rougher barks to capture more atmospheric materials, resulting in
137 increased acidity (Oka et al. 2021). The PC 1 represented a composite gradient of bark
138 roughness, pH, and water holding capacity (Fig. 2, Table S3), along which we found
139 significant changes in species richness of mosses (Figs. 3a, S3). This result may reflect
140 the impact of bark acidity (ranging from pH 4.16 to 6.18; Table S1), which often reduce
141 germination and growth rates of mosses (Löbel and Rydin 2010), thereby leading to a
142 decrease in species richness (Kaufmann et al. 2019; Mitchell et al. 2021).

143 The MPD and NRI of mosses increased and decreased along the PC 1 axis (Fig.
144 3e, 3i), respectively, suggesting changes in assembly processes. Specifically, moss
145 communities became phylogenetically overdispersed ($NRI < 0$) on rough and acid barks
146 (Figs. 3i, S3i, S3j); that is, communities became composed of species belonging to a
147 larger variety of lineages than would be expected by chance. A possible reason for this
148 pattern is that rough barks, which often have a greater heterogeneity of microhabitats
149 than smooth barks (Wyse and Burns 2011; Lamit et al. 2015), allowed moss species
150 from different lineages favouring different microhabitats to coexist. Alternatively, the
151 observed pattern of overdispersion (Fig. 3i) may reflect independent adaptations among
152 moss lineages to harsh environments. Convergent evolution of plants to harsh
153 environments is a commonly observed phenomenon, including adaptations of alpine
154 plants to high elevations (Bryant et al. 2008) and mangrove trees to salinity (Shi et al.
155 2005). In our study, we observed moss species from distant lineages (e.g., *Tetraphis*
156 *pellucida* [order Tetraphidales], *Dicranum viride* var. *hakkodense* [Dicranales],
157 *Brotherella complanata* [Hypnales]) on *C. japonica* trees (Fig. 1a) that have rough,
158 acidic, and wet barks (Fig. 2). Among these bark traits, acidity (pH = 4.16 for *C.*
159 *japonica*) may have acted as an environmental filter representing harshness, given the
160 fact that many extant moss species favour neutral pH (Robinson et al. 1989).

161 Contrary to our expectation, we found no significant effect of water holding capacity
162 on moss community assembly (Fig. S3k). Water often serves as key resource for which
163 mosses compete ([Zamfir and Goldberg 2000](#)). We therefore expected biotic interactions

164 to intensify with increasing water availability on barks, leading to phylogenetic
165 overdispersion ([Webb 2000](#); [Cavender-Bares et al. 2004](#); [Cadotte et al. 2019](#)).
166 However, such competition-mediated assembly was not evident in our study site,
167 possibly because it receives ample precipitation, making water a non-limiting resource
168 regardless of bark traits. It is also worth noting that the water holding capacity only
169 serves as a rough proxy for hydrological environment on barks. Future studies are thus
170 needed to examine whether other hydrological variables, such as cortical runoff which
171 quantifies stem flow in relation to tree-canopy morphology ([González-Mancebo et al.](#)
172 [2003](#)), can better explain the impacts of water availability on epiphytic bryophyte
173 communities.

174 In contrast to mosses, liverwort communities showed decreasing MPD and a
175 tendency toward phylogenetic clustering ($NRI > 0$) in relation to the increased
176 roughness and acidity of barks (Figs. 3g, 3k, S4). According to Fiz-Palacios et al.
177 (2011), liverworts experienced a relatively slow diversification process from the mid-
178 Cretaceous to the early Cenozoic era, during which mosses and ferns rapidly diversified
179 in habitats created by angiosperms (as proposed by the "shadow of angiosperms"
180 hypothesis; Schneider et al. 2004). It is possible that liverwort species, due to this
181 constrained niche evolution, have maintained their specific habitats over time, leading to
182 phylogenetic niche conservatism. The combination of closely related species having
183 similar habitat preferences and environmental filtering associated with rough and acidic
184 barks could have contributed to the observed pattern of phylogenetic clustering (Figs.
185 3k, S4i, S4j). A logical next step of our study would be to test the assumption of niche
186 conservatism based on relationships between functional traits, phylogeny, and
187 community structure of bryophytes.

188 Ample evidence has shown that excess nitrogen owing to human activities (e.g.,
189 fertilization and atmospheric deposition) can reduce bryophyte richness (Oishi and
190 Hiura 2017), both directly by posing toxic impacts and indirectly by enhancing the
191 competitiveness of vascular plants (Turetsky 2003). In contrast, we found increasing
192 species richness of both mosses and liverworts in response to inorganic nitrogen
193 content (Figs. 3b, 3d, S3d, S4d). The observed pattern could be attributed to the fact
194 that our study was conducted in a primary temperate forest where anthropogenic
195 nitrogen inputs are kept minimal and epiphytic vascular plants are rare. In a nitrogen-
196 limited environment with few competitors like our study site, barks with a high nitrogen
197 content may serve as a hotspot for bryophytes. Nevertheless, it should be noted that we
198 observed low levels of MPD on nitrogen-rich barks (Fig. 3f), indicating that only a
199 restricted number of moss lineages could utilize such habitats.

200 While we identified significant relationships between bark traits and bryophyte
201 community patterns (Fig. 3), there are still some uncertainties associated with our
202 findings. Specifically, the absolute values of NRI that we observed were smaller than
203 1.96 (Fig. 3i, 3j, 3k, 3l), suggesting relatively weak signals of community assembly
204 processes ([Webb et al. 2002](#)). Moreover, we were only able to measure bark traits at
205 the species level, without accounting for the possible variations that derive from
206 individual-tree characteristics (e.g., tree size) and environments (Burns and Zotz 2010;
207 Lamit et al. 2015; Rosell 2019). In fact, some bark traits showed relatively large levels of
208 variations among trees (Table S1). Nevertheless, we confirmed that the signs and
209 statistical significance of the estimated relationships between bark traits and bryophyte
210 communities remained consistent whether or not DBH was included as an explanatory
211 variable (Table S4). Moving forward, future studies should verify the robustness of the
212 relationships using a larger dataset than ours, while accounting for variations in barks
213 and environmental conditions at individual-tree levels.

214 In this study, we found that epiphytic bryophyte communities assemble non-
215 randomly along gradients of bark traits (Fig. 3). Our study provides an important step
216 toward understanding how host trees, as living patches, determine epiphyte assembly
217 processes. Trees with different bark traits respond differently to environments (Rosell
218 and Olson 2014), implying that potential future changes in tree bark diversity under
219 environmental change can have cascading effects on epiphytic bryophyte diversity.
220 While our study was based on snapshot data, future research should incorporate long-
221 term monitoring and investigate the dynamics of host trees and epiphytes over time.
222 Doing so would provide a more comprehensive understanding of epiphyte community
223 assembly, which is essential for informing effective strategies for their conservation in
224 the face of changing environments.

225
226 **Acknowledgements.** We are grateful to two anonymous reviewers and the associate
227 editor (Kyle Palmquist) for thoughtful comments on an earlier version of this manuscript.
228 We thank Takeshi Saeki and Takayuki Sugimoto for their assistance in the field. We are
229 also grateful to Ryo Kitagawa and Xingfeng Si for their advice on statistical analyses,
230 Yume Imada for her assistance during our pilot survey, Kentaro Fukushima for his
231 advice on chemical analyses, and Yuta Kobayashi for his assistance in making figures.

232
233 **Authors contributions.** ST conceived and led the study. All authors conducted the field
234 survey. TO identified the bryophyte species. ST and WAA measured the bark traits. ST
235 analyzed the data. ST wrote the manuscript with inputs from other authors.

236

237 **Funding.** ST was supported by the Grant-in-Aids for Research Fellows PD (15J10614)
238 and Young Scientists B (16K18715) from the Japan Society for the Promotion of
239 Science (JSPS). TO was supported by the Grant-in-Aids for Research Fellows DC2
240 (16J08907) from the JSPS.

241

242 **Data availability.** The bryophyte community matrix (presence-absence of 91 bryophyte
243 species on 150 trees), the reconstructed bryophyte phylogenetic tree (Newick format),
244 and the bark trait data are available at FigShare
245 (<https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.23673258>).

246

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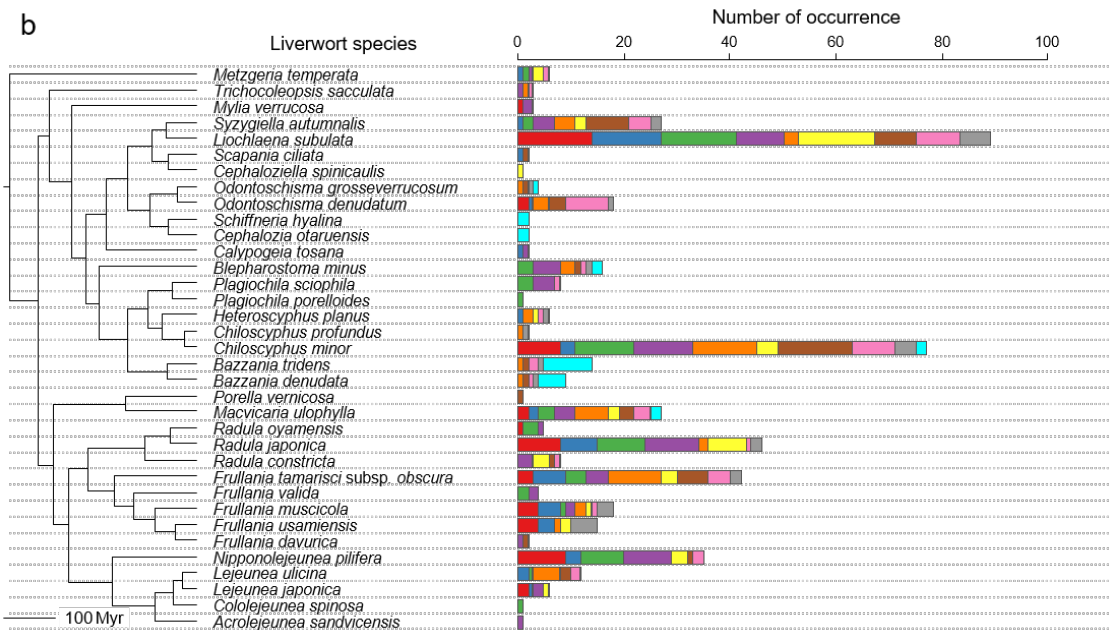
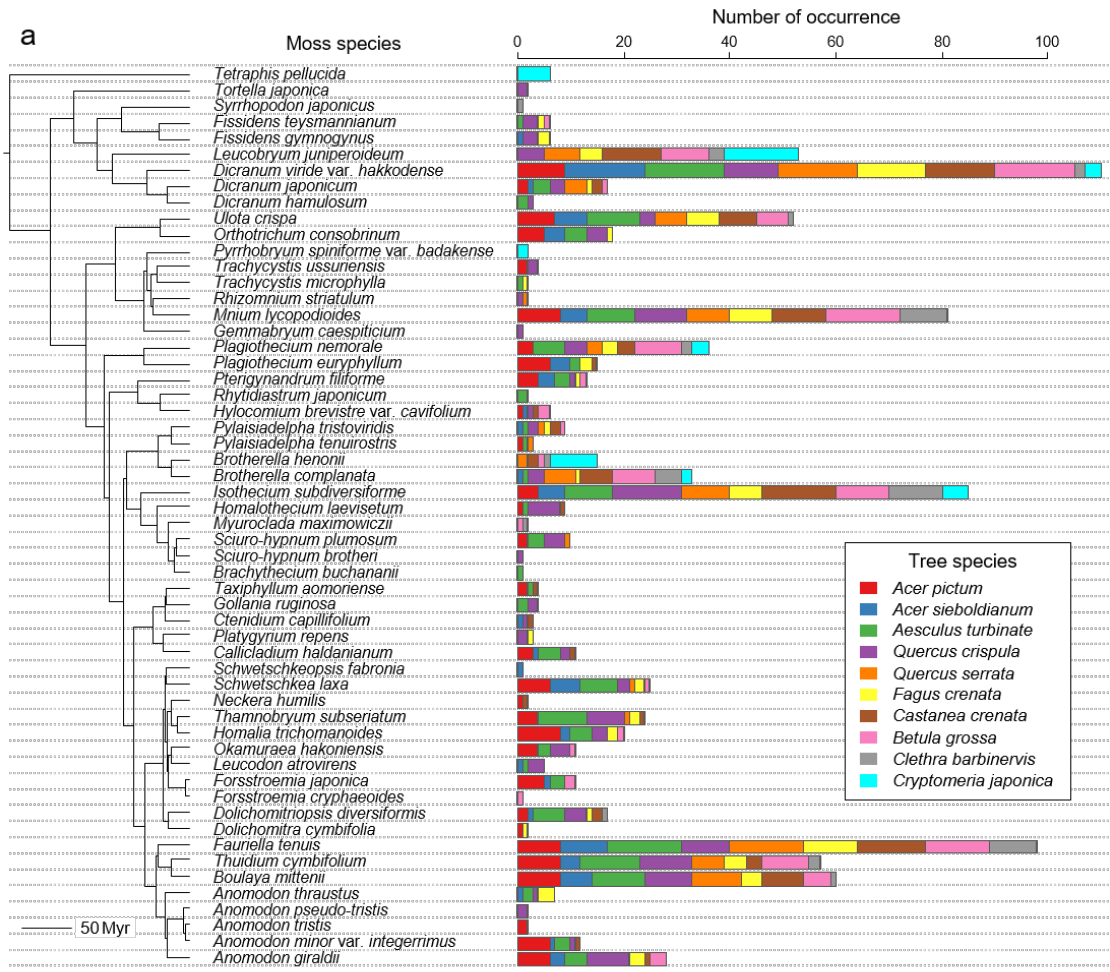
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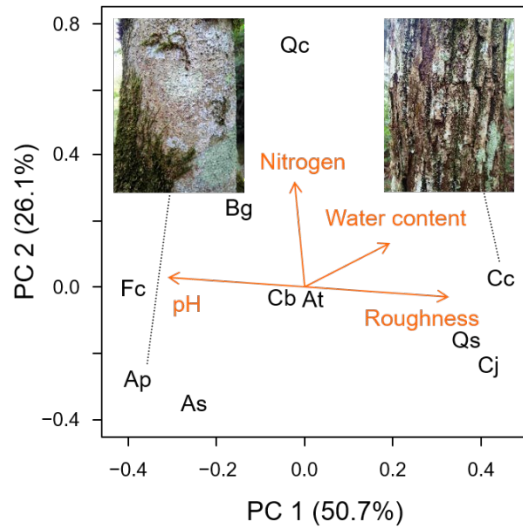
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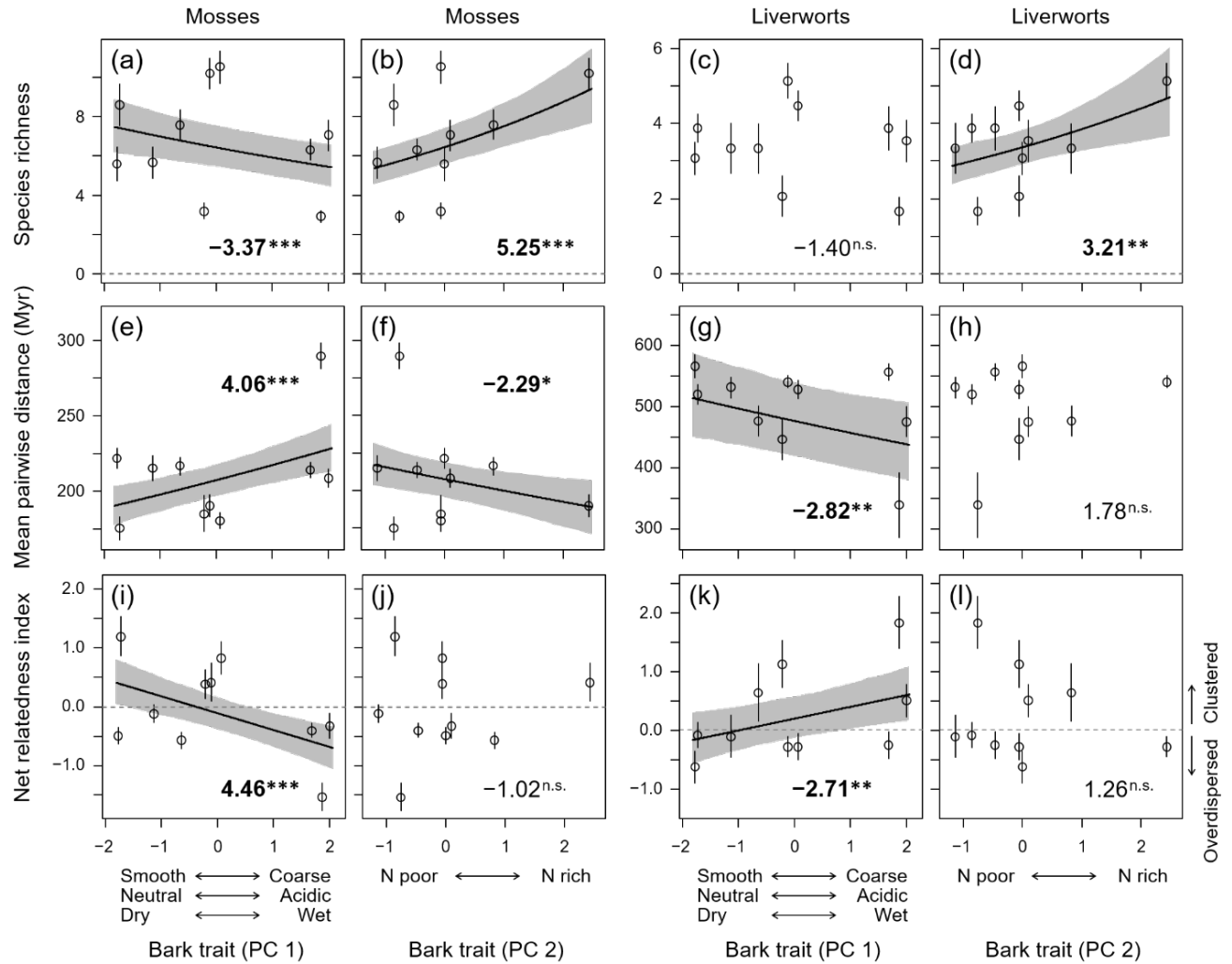


346 **Figure 1. Reconstructed phylogenies and the number of occurrences of (a)**
347 **mosses and (b) liverworts.** Three chloroplast genes (*rbcL*, *rps4*, and *trnL-F*) were
348 used for reconstruction.



349

350 **Figure 2. Ordination plot of tree bark traits.** Values in parentheses indicate the
 351 proportion of variation explained by the first and second principal components (PC). Ap
 352 = *Acer pictum* subsp. *mono*, As = *Acer sieboldianum*, At = *Aesculus turbinata*, Bg =
 353 *Betula grossa*, Cc = *Castanea crenata*, Cb = *Clethra barbinervis*, Cj = *Cryptomeria*
 354 *japonica*, Fc = *Fagus crenata*, Qc = *Quercus crispula*, and Qs = *Quercus serrata*. The
 355 pictures show barks of Ap and Cc as examples with contrasting barks.



356

357 **Figure 3. Changes in bryophyte diversity along bark trait gradients. (a, b, c, d)**
 358 Species richness, (e, f, g, h) mean phylogenetic diversity, and (i, j, k, l) net relatedness
 359 indices of mosses and liverworts along the first and second principal components (PC 1
 360 and PC 2) of bark traits. Circles and vertical bars represent the mean and standard
 361 errors for each tree species ($n = 15$ trees surveyed for each of 10 tree species, totalling
 362 $n = 150$). Lines show fitted models with significant slopes ($P < 0.05$). Grey areas
 363 represent 95% confidence intervals of the fitted models. The values in each panel
 364 indicate the z-statistics of the slope of the fitted model. Significance: *, $P < 0.05$; **, $P <$
 365 0.01 ; ***, $P < 0.001$; not significant (n.s.), $P \geq 0.05$.