

Importance of conserving large and old trees to continuity of tree-related microhabitats

Abstract

Protecting structural features, such as tree-related microhabitats (TreMs), is a cost-effective tool crucial for biodiversity conservation applicable to large forested landscapes. While the development of TreMs is influenced by tree diameter, species, and vitality, the relationships between tree age and TreM profile remain poorly understood. Using a tree-ring based approach and a large dataset of 8038 trees, we modeled the effects of tree age, diameter, and site quality on TreM richness and occurrence across some of the most intact primary temperate forests in Europe, including mixed beech and spruce forest types. We observed an overall increase in TreM richness on older and larger trees in both forest types. The occurrence of specific TreM groups showed variable relationships with tree age and diameter, whereas some TreM groups showed a stronger positive relationship with tree species and altitude. While many TreM groups were positively associated with both tree age and diameter, only two TreM groups in spruce stands reacted exclusively to tree age (insect galleries and exposed sapwood) without responding to diameter. Thus, the retention of trees for conservation purposes based on tree diameter appears to be a generally feasible approach with rather low risk of under-representation of TreMs. As greater tree age and diameter showed positive effects on TreM development, placing a greater emphasis on both conserving large trees and allowing them to reach older ages, for example through establishment of conservation reserves, would better maintain the continuity of TreM resource and associated biodiversity. However, this approach may face difficulties due to the widespread intensification of forest management and global climate change.

Article impact statement: Conservation of habitat trees based on size, without considering tree age, may impair landscape-level biodiversity potential

Introduction

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Large and old trees play critical ecological roles such as carbon sequestration (Lutz et al., 2018) and habitat provisioning (Remm & Lohmus, 2011) and they are, therefore, often called “keystone structures” in forest ecosystems (Lindenmayer et al., 2014). Despite their importance, over the past century, global declines in mature and old forest areas and biodiversity related to habitat loss, along with fragmentation and overexploitation are causing increased concern among conservationists. Large old trees across the globe are in a steep decline, mainly due to preferential cutting in a variety of forest harvesting and land-use change context, causing serious threats to ecosystem integrity and biodiversity (Lindenmayer et al., 2012; Liu et al., 2022).

As complete biodiversity inventories typically are not feasible across forest landscapes due to time and economic constraints, scientists and forest managers in the past decade have focused on structural indicators of biodiversity, such as large trees, coarse woody debris, and canopy gaps (Gao et al., 2015; Burrascano et al., 2018). To quantify the potential of individual trees to host biodiversity, the concept of tree-related microhabitats (hereafter TreMs) was developed in recent years with standardized typologies for TreM assessment in order to ensure compatibility between different studies (Kraus et al., 2016; Larrieu et al., 2018). Here, we refer to TreMs as ‘distinct, well-delineated structures occurring on living or standing dead trees, that constitute a particular and essential substrate or life site for species or species communities during at least a part of their life cycle to develop, feed, shelter or breed’ (Larrieu et al., 2018). These include microhabitats such as cavities, tree injuries, exposed wood, fungal fruiting bodies or excrescences. Even though the relationship between TreM richness and forest biodiversity is relatively understudied, the occurrence of TreMs appears to be a suitable indicator for many taxa, such as certain insects, birds, and bats (Buse et al., 2007; Winter & Möller, 2008; Regnery et al., 2013; Paillet et al., 2018; Larrieu et al., 2019; Basile et al., 2020a).

Scientific understanding of TreM development and dynamics at the tree scale has increased substantially with the greater attention on TreMs (Paillet et al., 2019; Asbeck et al., 2021a). For instance, snags often contribute more to the TreM occurrence when compared to living trees, mostly due to decomposition and wood properties that favor the development of certain TreMs, such as cavities, breakages, and sloughing bark (Körkjäs et al., 2021a). Another largely important factor is the tree diameter since the

occurrence and diversity of TreMs increases with larger tree diameter (Winter & Möller, 2008; Larrieu & Cabanettes, 2012; Paillet et al., 2019). Additionally, tree species influence type and rate of TreMs development, with broadleaved tree species generally accumulating TreMs to a greater extent than coniferous species (Larrieu & Cabanettes, 2012; Courbaud et al., 2017; Paillet et al., 2019; Krumm et al., 2020), and early-successional species tending to differ from mid- and late-successional species with higher formation of TreM types such as bark loss, crown deadwood, and rot holes on early successional species (Courbaud et al., 2021).

As TreMs typically take time to develop or often develop once a tree is sufficiently large (Michel et al., 2011; Courbaud et al., 2017), tree age may drive the occurrence of certain TreMs, like cavities, rot holes, and cracks. Tree age is often in a close relationship with tree size, but this relationship is not always straightforward as the largest trees are not always the oldest (Issartel & Coiffard, 2011; Hubau et al., 2019). Highly shade tolerant, suppressed trees can grow in the lower, shaded canopy strata for decades with relatively small diameter increments. Growth rates in suppressed trees can increase following mortality in the upper canopy and elevated light availability. This growth response is particularly true for long-lived and shade-tolerant species, such as European beech (*Fagus sylvatica* L.; Di Filippo et al., 2012) and silver fir (*Abies alba* Mill.; Pantic et al., 2015). In contrast, dominant canopy trees often grow faster and can reach large diameters without exceeding the life expectancy of understory conspecifics (Issartel & Coiffard, 2011; Pavlin et al., 2021). This effect can lead to substantially different TreM occurrence between large and old trees as certain conditions for TreM occurrence might relate to a large diameter but not necessarily to higher age and vice versa (Körkjas et al., 2021a).

There are limitations to derive TreM dynamics from studies carried out only in managed forests. The process of felling can cause tree damage and injuries which can lead to an increased occurrence of TreMs such as bark loss, dendrotelms, and resinosis (Michel et al., 2011; Larrieu & Cabanettes, 2012). In addition, most TreM groups have reduced formation rates in managed forests compared to unmanaged forests (Courbaud et al., 2021). Investigating TreM occurrences in forests that have never been managed or have not been managed for a long time provides a significant reference for understanding patterns of TreM development under natural conditions. Thus, primary forests represent the ultimate intact habitat

(Ulyshen et al., 2018) for biodiversity studies since they often contain an abundant and diverse array of TreMs (Larrieu et al., 2014; Kozák et al., 2018; Jahed et al., 2020; Asbeck et al., 2021b).

In Europe, effects of tree age on TreM occurrence have mostly been studied within managed forest stands of aspen (*Populus tremula* L.) or Norway spruce (*Picea abies* Karst.) (Körkjäs et al., 2021b), focusing only on specific TreM types, such as cavities or rot holes (Puverel et al., 2019; Fritz & Heilmann-Clausen, 2010). Consequently, the influence of tree age on TreM occurrence in primary forests (i.e. never influenced by humans) is still relatively unknown.

To address this knowledge gap, we disentangled the effects of tree age and diameter on TreM occurrence using dendrochronological methods using a large sample of trees ($n = 8038$) and study plots ($n = 379$) across the geographic range of the Carpathian primary mixed beech and spruce forests. Here, we focused on assessing the importance of tree age, diameter (Diameter at Breast Height, DBH), tree species, and site quality on TreM occurrence at the tree scale. We used generalized mixed effect models to differentiate the relative strength of these effects on overall TreM richness as well as on the occurrence of specific TreM groups. Specifically, we asked to what extent (i) is TreM richness and occurrence coincided with age and/or diameter of the trees, and (ii) are individual TreM groups related to tree age and diameter differently in particular forest types?

Methods

Study area

The study area was restricted to primary forests in two regions: the western Carpathians (Slovakia) and the southern Carpathians (Romania). The Carpathian Mountains support a substantial part of all remaining primary forests in Europe (Sabatini et al., 2018, 2021; Mikoláš et al., 2019). We refer to ‘primary forest’ as a forest without signs of direct human impact and where natural disturbances are the main driver of forest structure and composition (Barredo et al., 2021). The study forests were selected based on previous inventories of primary forest remnants when available (e.g. Veen et al., 2010; Mikoláš et al., 2019), and by searching the available archival information and historical data regarding the land

use history of these areas. During the initial field survey, all forests were inspected for various indicators of naturalness (e.g. deadwood in various stages of decay, pit-and-mound topography, very large trees, natural tree species composition), and for signs of human impact. Forests with evidence of past logging and grazing and those in close proximity (ca. 500 m) to formerly grazed areas were avoided (Mikoláš et al., 2019).

We selected 379 plots in primary mixed beech (n = 133) and spruce (n = 246) mountain forests (Figure 1). Survey locations were based on an existing international network of permanent inventory plots (REMOTE, <https://www.remoteforests.org>) that spans across primary forests in central, eastern and southeastern Europe, and that are randomly distributed across various environmental and climatic gradients. Due to possible differences in topography and climatic conditions within the two studied forest types, which can influence differently the growth of the studied tree species as well as the occurrence of certain TreM types (Asbeck et al., 2019; Paillet et al., 2019), we divided our data into two subsets based on the forest type; i.e. mixed beech and spruce.

The dominant tree species in the mixed beech forests (montane zone) was European beech with secondary species being mainly Norway spruce, silver fir (*Abies alba* Mill.), and sycamore (*Acer pseudoplatanus* L.). Spruce forests (subalpine zone) were mostly dominated by Norway spruce with minor admixture of other tree species, including rowan (*Sorbus aucuparia* L.), European beech, silver fir, sycamore, and stone pine (*Pinus cembra* L.).

We collected field data to describe the tree and associated TreM characteristics during the vegetation season of 2018 and 2019. All data were collected within 0.1 ha circular plots in spruce stands and 0.15 ha circular plots in mixed beech stands, corresponding to the extent of the original REMOTE plots.

TreMs and forest structure

Detailed inventory data were obtained to quantify forest structure and TreM occurrence across all study plots. Tree characteristics were identified by precise mapping of all living trees using laser rangefinders and customized software (Field-map; Monitoring and Mapping Solutions, Jílove u Prahy, Czech Republic). As tree DBH has been recognized as an important factor for TreM occurrence (e.g. Paillet et

al., 2019), we measured DBH of all trees ≥ 6 cm at 1.3 m on the uphill side of the tree, and determined ages for a subset of canopy trees based on increment core samples collected 1 m above the ground surface. In the spruce forests, we collected an increment core from 25 random non-suppressed trees with ≥ 10 cm DBH per plot. If the tree was rotten, it was replaced by a surrounding tree with similar DBH (Janda et al., 2019). In the mixed beech forests, the trees were selected for coring based on hierarchy of size classes in a circular nested plot design. All living trees up to 8 m from the plot center with ≥ 6 cm DBH were cored, in addition to a quarter of all canopy and subcanopy trees with 10-20 cm DBH and all trees ≥ 20 cm DBH up to 17.84 m from the plot center. All trees with ≥ 60 cm DBH were cored up to 21.85 m from the plot center (Pettit et al., 2021).

We identified occurrences of 47 distinct TreM types (Appendix 6) on all cored trees based on the typology by Larrieu et al. (2018) and these types were pooled into 15 TreM groups described by the same typology based on the similarities in their morphological characteristics and biodiversity relevance. TreMs richness was defined as the number of different TreM types per tree and the occurrence of TreM groups was set to 1 if at least one TreM type from the respective TreM group was present on a tree and was set to 0 if none of the TreM types from the respective TreM group were present. All trees were identified to species level. We only used four major tree species in the analyses, namely European beech, silver fir, sycamore, and Norway spruce, due to the minor occurrence of other tree species in the dataset. Trees that had not been cored, and the information about their age is thus unavailable, were excluded from the final dataset.

Tree age data

Increment cores were dried in the laboratory and measured and cross-dated following standard dendrochronological methods (Stokes & Smiley, 1968) in order to get accurate measures of the tree ages and to avoid underestimation due to missing tree rings. Annual rings were measured to the nearest 0.01 mm using a stereomicroscope and a LintabTM sliding-stage measuring device in conjunction with TSAP-WINTM software (<http://www.rinntech.ds>). Cores were first visually cross-dated using the marker year approach (Yamaguchi, 1991), verified with CDendro software (Larsson, 2003), and then confirmed with COFECHATM software (Holmes, 1983). For cores that did not intersect the pith, the number of missing

rings was extrapolated from the curvature and average growth rates of the innermost rings (Duncan, 1989). We excluded all cores that had more than 20 estimated years missing or were of inadequate quality due to rotten pith area, which did not allow us to properly measure and cross-date the samples (Pavlin et al., 2021). This approach might lead to an underestimation of certain TreM types (such as trunk rot holes) and the exclusion of TreM types which might cause difficulties during tree coring (e.g. chimney trunk rot holes). Importantly, because we cored trees at 1 m of height, we did not consider the number of tree rings required to reach 1 m, which could range from years to several decades for shade tolerant species (Pantic et al., 2015).

Statistical analyses

We used generalized linear mixed models (GLMMs) to disentangle the effect of tree age and DBH on the overall TreM richness and occurrence probability of TreM groups on trees in mixed beech and spruce forest stands. First, we split the dataset into mixed beech forests data and spruce forests data and fitted separate models to each forest type since we expected forest-specific responses of TreM characteristics. The models involved several variables with fixed and random effects. A categorical explanatory variable classifying tree species (variable Species with four levels: beech, spruce, fir, sycamore) was used in the models of mixed beech forests as this forest type regularly supports multiple tree species that may bear specific TreMs (Table 1). The categorical variable Species was not present in the spruce forest GLMMs as there were only very few tree species present other than spruce. Therefore, we removed them from the dataset. Moreover, we included site quality, namely altitude, terrain slope, and region as additional fixed-effect variables to account for a possible confounding effect of environmental heterogeneity among plots. Since the data were collected in a hierarchical sampling design (individual trees nested within plots that were nested within stands), categorical indicators of plots and stands were used as random effects in the GLMMs to avoid pseudoreplication.

The TreM richness data showed lower variability than expected under the unit mean-variance relationship assumed in the Poisson distribution; dispersion parameter $\phi = 0.8$ in mixed beech forests and even less than 0.3 in spruce forests. Therefore, we fitted the TreM richness data by GLMMs with a

Conway-Maxwell-Poisson distribution which effectively handles underdispersion (Shmueli et al., 2005). A zero-truncated Conway-Maxwell-Poisson distribution was used to fit TreM diversity in mixed beech forests since these data completely lack zero values.

Presence/absence of 13 TreM groups (twig tangles and woodpecker cavities were excluded due to very few observations) were fitted as binary outcomes to relate the probability of occurrence of individual TreM groups with explanatory variables. GLMMs with binomial error distribution and logit link function were employed for this task.

Our main aim was to separate the effect of tree age and DBH on TreM richness and their occurrence. Those variables are often tightly related and using both in the same model might cause collinearity problems and biased results. Therefore, we examined correlations between the tree age and DBH and also variance inflation factors (VIF) of each variable in the models. Pairwise correlations were rather moderate (spruce forests: $\rho = 0.47$, mixed beech forests: $\rho = 0.64$) and, importantly, no VIF exceeded 2.2 (Appendix 2 and 3) indicating that the models should not suffer from multicollinearity and the results can be trusted (Quinn & Keough, 2002). The performance of each model was evaluated using diagnostic plots of residuals; no considerable violation of the assumptions was observed (Appendix 4 and 5). Likelihood ratio tests were used to examine statistical significance of individual fixed-effect terms and also to test the significance of whole models comparing changes in deviance between full and null models. Marginal pseudo-determination coefficients (R^2_m ; Nakagawa & Schielzeth, 2013) were quantified to assess the overall goodness-of-fit of the models. To compare the relative importance of individual variables, we calculated semi-partial R^2_m based on commonality analysis (Ray-Mukherjee et al., 2014). We also evaluated the models using a predictive approach that allows for independent assessment of model performance. Root mean squared error (RMSE) and square root of Brier score (BS) were used as measures of predictive performance of the TreM richness and binomial models, respectively. Five-fold cross-validated RMSE and BS values were calculated to ensure unbiased estimates of predictive performance (Kuhn & Johnson, 2013).

The analyses were performed in R 4.1.2 (R Core Team, 2021) using the packages DHARMA (Hartig, 2022), effects (Fox & Weisberg, 2019), ggplot2 (Wickham, 2016), glmmTMB (Brooks et al., 2017), and performance (Lüdtke et al., 2021).

Results

Tree age positively influenced overall TreM richness in both studied forest types (Figure 2) and significantly influenced the probability of occurrence of 4 out of 13 studied TreM groups in mixed beech forests (Table 1) and 5 out of 13 TreM groups in spruce forests (Table 2). In spruce forests, the tree age had relatively greater importance than diameter of the trees as quantified by partial R^2 (Table 2) and standardized regression coefficients (Appendix 3) for the following TreM groups: insect galleries, exposed sapwood, burrs and cankers (Appendix 7). In mixed beech forests, only one TreM group, i.e. burrs and cankers, reached a higher magnitude of effect related with age rather than with the diameter (Table 1, Appendix 2, Appendix 7).

Tree DBH was the most important predictor for overall TreM richness in both studied forest types (Figure 2) and also positively influenced the probability of the occurrence of 8 out of 13 TreM groups (Table 1 and 2). The effect of tree DBH was consistent across both forest types in almost all TreM groups; the only exceptions were exposed sapwood and heartwood, and exudates (significant only in mixed beech) and epiphytes (significant in spruce forests) (Appendix 2, 3 and 7).

Tree species, which were used as a predictor only in mixed beech forests, positively influenced overall TreM richness and occurrence of all TreM groups except for insect galleries (Table 1). Broadleaved species (European beech and sycamore) showed higher TreM richness than conifers (silver fir and Norway spruce) (Figure 2).

Additionally, site quality had only a limited influence on TreM characteristics (Table 1 and 2). Altitude showed a positive effect on the overall TreM richness in spruce forests (Figure 2) and was the most important driving factor of the occurrence of epiphytes across both forest types. Terrain and slope had

only a minor effect; positively influenced the occurrence of epiphytes in spruce forests. Regional differences were significantly manifested only in the occurrence of annual fungi in mixed beech forests and insect galleries, crown deadwood, and exudates in spruce forests.

Discussion

The unprecedented rate of species extinctions, coupled with widely held expectations that the frequency and intensity of landscape disturbances will increase with climate change and modify the age structure of forests across the globe (Seidl & Turner, 2022) highlights the need to better understand how tree age impacts habitat availability for forest biodiversity. Based on a unique dataset covering spruce and mixed beech primary mountain forests across one of the largest remaining continuous forest ecosystems in Europe - the Carpathians, we quantified the effects of tree age, diameter, species, and site quality on TreM occurrence in natural landscapes to provide deeper insights for conservation emphasizing habitat tree retention.

The older and larger trees benefited from higher overall TreM richness and showed increased occurrence of almost all TreM groups with increasing age and diameter, suggesting the critical importance of old trees for biodiversity conservation. Positive effect of increasing tree diameter on TreM richness and occurrence is relatively well studied across different tree species (Paillet et al., 2019). In general, the higher TreM richness among larger and older trees can be explained by higher susceptibility of such trees to biotic or abiotic damage and by a longer lifespan leading to increased TreM development (Larrieu et al., 2014; Asbeck et al., 2019; K rkjas et al., 2021b). Our results generally confirm mutual substitutability of tree age and tree diameter for prediction of TreMs occurrence. Confirmation of mutual substitutability between tree age and tree diameter should not lead to overlooking the positive effect of tree longevity on TreMs richness. In this study, old trees indeed influenced the occurrence of specific TreM groups, although only some TreMs (the insect galleries and exposed sapwood) were solely related to tree age in spruce forests with strong regional effect. This trend among older spruce trees, prevalent in western Carpathian region, might be connected to bark-beetle outbreaks in the previous decades (Senf

& Seidl, 2020), which may increase the likelihood of further colonization by other xylophagous insects (Hagge et al., 2019) due to a weakened defense system of older trees. Similarly, exposed sapwood (e.g. bark losses, pockets and shelters) occurred more likely on older trees probably due to longer exposure to damage and injuries or possibly because younger trees have a higher chance to heal the wound after an injury. Presence of TreMs caused by pathogens (burrs and cankers) was more likely to occur on older trees rather than on large ones in both forest types, which might be connected either to decreased efficiency of tree defense mechanisms against fungal, bacterial, and viral infections as trees grow older (Vasiatis, 2013) or due to longer exposure to these stressors. On the other hand, certain TreM groups more likely occur on older trees because of the time necessary for the development of these specific TreMs. One example is the rot holes originating from intrusions, lesions, and breakages, exposing sap and heartwood initiating wood decay; the fully evolved rot holes have thus a very long development time (Gouix et al., 2015). Our results supported the importance of tree age for rot holes occurrence across mixed beech forests. However, the magnitude of the effect was lower for tree age than for diameter. This pattern may result from the thresholds for rot holes opening (diameter of opening >10 cm or >30 cm based on the type of rot holes; see Appendix 6) which are applied when surveying TreMs with Larrieu et al. (2018) typology, with larger trees being more likely to form larger rot holes openings. Previously, the occurrence of rot holes on beech trees was related to low tree growth and not explicitly to the age or size of the tree (Fritz & Heilmann-Clausen, 2010). Even though we did not specifically focus on the effect of tree growth in this study, the described pattern of low growth and rot holes occurrence might be present in our data as well because the age of trees in temperate primary forests increases with longer periods of suppression where trees exhibit smaller growth rates (Pavlin et al., 2021). The variations in growth trends among individual trees might explain the development of certain TreMs but such analyses were out of scope of this study.

Many trees in our dataset exceeded more than 300 years of age and the oldest reached more than 500 years of age (Appendix 1). After trees of an advanced age die, they develop a diversity of TreMs over a long process of stem breakdown and bole decomposition in the standing dead tree, with time frame and TreM community composition dependent on tree species, decomposition rates, and other factors such

as stem snapping or uprooting. Consequently, TreM habitat provisioning may, in some cases, span hundreds of years (van Pelt, 2007).

Besides tree age and size, tree species and site quality impacted the occurrence of several TreM groups. For instance, in both forest types, the occurrence of epiphytes increased with altitude, which is in accordance with other studies from European temperate forests and may be connected to higher precipitation (Asbeck et al., 2019; Paillet et al., 2019). Moreover, from the four studied tree species, sycamore exhibited increased occurrence of epiphytes, probably due to different bark characteristics, such as water-holding capacity, roughness or chemical properties (Mitchell et al., 2021). Consistently with other studies (Asbeck et al., 2019; Paillet et al., 2019) broadleaved species showed higher overall TreM richness than conifers.

Strictly and permanently protected forest landscapes, such as biodiversity-rich primary forests, represent an environment where trees are allowed to reach high ages and sizes and consequent TreM formation (Pavlin et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2022; Asbeck et al., 2021b). Besides small-scale mortality factors such as tree senescence, temperate primary forest dynamics are driven by natural disturbances. In the case of the Carpathians, the most profound drivers are wind and bark-beetle outbreaks (Janda et al. 2017). Wind damage may cause breakages of tree stems, limbs or branches, which might additionally damage neighboring trees resulting in wounds and bark damage, with such events directly causing TreM formation. Large trees might be more prone to damage, and allow for further TreM development as trees get older (e.g. injuries can evolve to rot holes and cavities; Kõrkjas et al., 2021a). Moreover, biotic agents such as woodpeckers, insects, or fungi are known to create certain TreMs or play an important role in TreM development. For instance, cavities often appear after polypore emergence because of changed wood properties (Courbaud et al., 2017), polypores are also known to co-occur with other TreMs such as rot holes, cracks, and bark losses (Larrieu et al., 2021), and woodpeckers prefer to dig their cavities on trees with a larger-than-average DBH (Basile et al., 2020b). Thus, the possibility of TreM formation increases immensely with increasing age and diameter of the tree (Ranius et al., 2009; Fritz & Heilmann-Clausen, 2010; Vuidot et al., 2011) significantly increasing the ecological value of the tree (Bütler et al., 2020). Moreover, certain TreM formation processes are typical for old trees, such

as lower branches dying in the shade or the development of cavities from trunk wounds (Zheng et al., 2016). Increased size can make trees more prone to breakages of large limbs, treetops, or the formation of trunk injuries (Körkjas et al., 2021b). Although, in general, the tree age and diameter are closely correlated, the oldest trees are often not the largest trees in the primary forests, which results from the decreased growth rates of suppressed trees as opposed to the trees that grew fast in the open canopy and gained larger increments in a shorter time (Pavlin et al., 2021). This interesting pattern dependent on the growth trends of individual trees may thus result in different pathways of TreM formation between the old and large trees.

We present a widely applicable framework to improve conservation approaches based on selection of habitat trees. Besides other tree characteristics, integrating dendrochronological tree-ring measurements in surveys and selection of trees suitable for the creation of TreMs based on tree age might be vital to maintaining a full range of TreMs. This approach may help to identify the slow-growing (suppressed) trees with high potential to reach the highest ages and can help to avoid the deprivation of particular habitats. However, applying a dendrochronological approach might be time-consuming and expensive, and thus probably not possible to be applied everywhere, whereas habitat tree selection based on diameter can be routinely done during forest inventory. Alternatively, tree age estimation might be simplified by using methods based on visual characteristics (Handegard et al. 2021). Hence, the best way to reach the highest tree ages across the forest landscapes is the establishment of strict conservation areas (Liu et al., 2022). We argue that it might be difficult to reach the highest potential tree ages in conventionally managed stands and that integrative forest management approaches may not be sufficient to fulfill the maximum habitat potential for nature conservation across the landscapes unless complemented by a strict and permanent forest conservation (Muys et al., 2022).

While our statistical model and analyses relied on established approaches, our study has some limitations that warrant discussion. First, the oldest trees are often rotten, and extraction of the tree core and tree rings counting from heavily rotten trees is often impossible. Thus, such trees were omitted from the analyses, although they usually host a lot of TreMs. Therefore, the effect of age on TreMs occurrence could be even higher, if data from the potentially oldest, but rotten, trees were included. Second, larger

surface area of large trees makes the occurrence of TreM with specific size thresholds more likely than on smaller trees. Third, we focused only on living trees within the study plots, even though living trees host less TreMs than dead ones on average (Paillet et al., 2019; Asbeck et al., 2021a). This approach helped us to better understand the important role of large and old trees and focus on improving conservation approaches based on selection of habitat trees. However, as our results suggest, forests must be allowed to attain older ages that would benefit the presence of standing dead and old trees in the landscapes. Thus, we believe that our analyses produced results with a high degree of generality.

Conclusion

Global change factors have triggered a significant recent acceleration of tree mortality rates in forests across Europe (Seidl & Turner, 2022). The effects of increasingly severe drought episodes, rising temperatures, a climate-mediated intensification of natural disturbance, land clearing and wood harvest, among other factors, are multiplicatively impacting tree demography and survival. These processes are disproportionately affecting the persistence of the largest and oldest trees (Lindenmayer et al., 2012). Remaining primary and intact forests support the largest proportion of the remaining large and old trees, and these systems are the most threatened (IUCN, 2018). An awareness of the progressive and accelerating loss of the largest trees has generated substantial research attention devoted to understanding the consequences of these trends for ecosystem functioning. The largest trees are known to disproportionately control the flux of carbon, nutrients, and energy in forests (Lutz et al., 2018). In contrast, less is understood regarding the relative importance of individual tree size versus age for habitat regulation and biodiversity potential. However, the largest trees are not necessarily the oldest (Pavlin et al., 2021). In this study, we demonstrate that even if tree diameter and age are largely interchangeable in their importance for temporal and spatial patterns in TreM richness and occurrence, they differ in the effect on some specific TreMs. We show that particularly specialized TreM types emerge separately in old vs. large trees, partly as a consequence of morphological differences that increase with time and age. Consequently, the largest trees and the oldest trees differ, but synergistically support the integrity of forest functioning, through the provisioning of specialized microhabitats, which, in turn, promote the

viability and persistence of dependent, niche-differentiated flora and fauna. Our findings may better inform conservation efforts, suggesting a need to expand current strategies to also incorporate measures that promote an explicit retention and protection of, both, large and old trees across divergent landscape settings to stem current trends in biodiversity loss (Blicharska & Mikusiński, 2014, Lindenmayer et al., 2014).

Supporting Information

Additional information is available online in the Supporting Information section at the end of the online article. The authors are solely responsible for the content and functionality of these materials. Queries (other than absence of the material) should be directed to the corresponding author.

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672 **Supporting Information**

673 The supplementary material includes the following:

674 **Appendix 1:** Description of the main characteristics of the studied living trees in mixed beech and
675 spruce forests.

676 **Appendix 2:** Details of the generalized linear mixed effect models testing the influence of tree
677 characteristics (age, DBH, species) and site quality (altitude, slope, region) on the richness and
678 occurrence of TreMs in mixed beech forests.

679 **Appendix 3:** Details of the generalized linear mixed effect models testing the influence of tree
680 characteristics (age, DBH) and site quality (altitude, slope, region) on the richness and occurrence of
681 TreMs in spruce forests.

682 **Appendix 4:** Diagnostic plots of residuals from the GLMMs on the richness and occurrence of TreMs
683 in mixed beech forests.

684 **Appendix 5:** Diagnostic plots of residuals from the GLMMs on the richness and occurrence of TreMs
685 in spruce forests.

686 **Appendix 6:** 47 Tree-related microhabitat (TreM) types based on the hierarchical typology of Larrieu
687 et al. (2018).
688

689 **Appendix 7:** Effect plots showing the influence of tree age and DBH on the probability of TreMs
690 occurrence in mixed beech forests and spruce forests.

691
692 **Appendix 8:** Table depicting the number of all trees and trees with respective TreM groups used for
693 analyses for spruce and mixed beech forests.

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Table 1: Results of the generalized linear mixed effect models testing the influence of tree characteristics (age, DBH, species) and site quality (altitude, slope, region) on richness and occurrence of TreMs in mixed beech forests. Table shows semi-partial R^2_m values and probabilities (* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$) for statistically significant model parameters. Overall R^2_m values and results of the whole model likelihood-ratio tests are displayed in the last column. Cross-validated RMSE values (TreM richness) and BS values (other characteristics) are given in squared brackets. For further details see Appendix 2.

TreM characteristics	Age	DBH	Species	Altitude	Slope	Region	Whole model
TreM richness	0.005 ***	0.063 ***	0.011 ***	-	-	-	0.160 [1.19] ***
Rot holes	<0.001 *	0.069 **	0.308 ***	-	-	-	0.398 [0.28] ***
Insect galleries	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Concavities	0.003 **	0.069 ***	0.071 ***	-	-	0.006 *	0.313 [0.21] ***
Exposed sapwood	-	-	0.020 ***	-	-	-	0.035 [0.39] ***
Exposed sapwood & heartwood	-	0.011 *	0.048 **	-	-	-	0.066 [0.36] **
Crown deadwood	-	0.008 ***	0.026 ***	-	-	-	0.049 [0.21] ***
Burrs & cankers	0.020 ***	0.012 **	0.026 **	-	-	-	0.181 [0.43] ***
Perennial fungi	-	-	0.121 *	-	-	-	0.200 [0.24] **
Annual fungi	-	-	0.176 ***	-	-	0.050 *	0.226 [0.13] ***
Epiphytes	0.015 ***	0.015 ***	0.050 ***	0.038 **	-	-	0.180 [0.16] ***
Nests	-	0.033 ***	0.008 ***	-	-	-	0.107 [0.36] ***
Microsoils	-	0.086 ***	0.029 ***	0.031 *	-	-	0.213 [0.28] ***
Exudates	-	-	0.402 ***	-	-	-	0.503 [0.19] ***

Table 2: Results of the generalized linear mixed effect models testing the influence of tree characteristics (age, DBH) and site quality (altitude, slope, region) on richness and occurrence of TreMs in spruce forests. Table shows semi-partial p-values/(partial) marginal R^2_m values and probabilities (* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$) for statistically significant model parameters. Overall R^2_m values and results of the whole model likelihood-ratio tests are displayed in the last column. Cross-validated RMSE values (TreM richness) and BS values (other characteristics) are given in squared brackets. For further details see Appendix 3.

TreM characteristics	Age	DBH	Altitude	Slope	Region	Whole model
TreM richness	0.002 ***	0.011 ***	0.007 **	-	-	0.057 [0.93] ***
Rot holes	-	0.013 *	-	-	-	0.047 [0.10] **
Insect galleries	0.008 ***	-	-	-	0.089 *	0.139 [0.19] ***
Concavities	0.002 *	0.065 ***	-	-	-	0.126 [0.38] ***
Exposed sapwood	0.005 **	-	-	-	-	0.024 [0.31] **
Exposed sapwood & heartwood	-	-	-	-	-	-
Crown deadwood	0.001 *	0.010 ***	-	-	0.099 **	0.138 [0.34] ***
Burrs & cankers	0.021 **	0.011 *	0.026 **	-	0.010 *	0.099 [0.15] ***
Perennial fungi	-	-	-	-	-	-
Annual fungi	-	0.004 *	-	-	-	0.014 [0.11] *
Epiphytes	-	-	0.101 ***	0.02 *	-	0.122 [0.39] ***
Nests	-	0.007 **	-	-	-	0.012 [0.07] *
Microsoils	-	0.040 ***	-	-	-	0.099 [0.12] ***
Exudates	-	0.007 ***	-	-	0.038 **	0.058 [0.42] ***

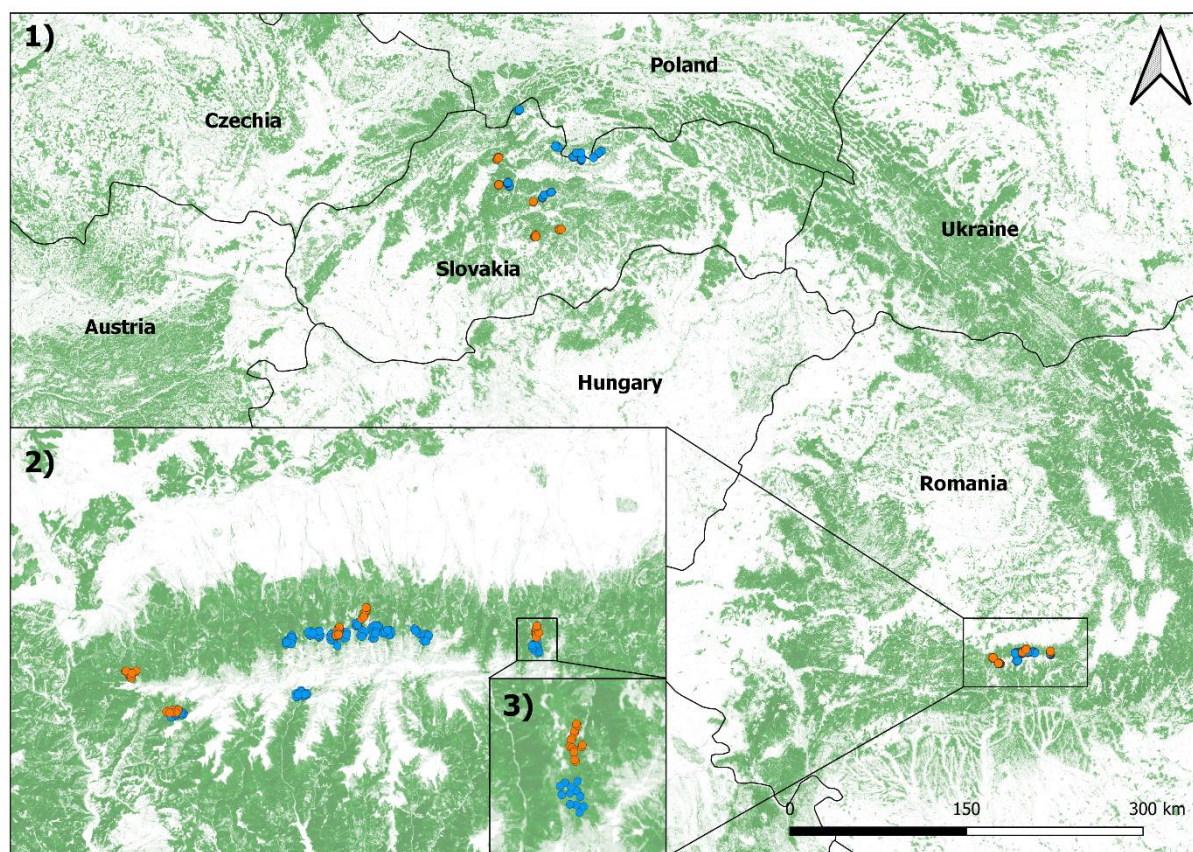


Figure 1: Distribution of the studied forests across Carpathian Mountains representing hierarchical sampling design (plots nested in forest stands nested in the regions). Study plots (orange color - mixed beech forests, blue color – spruce forests) are nested in landscape (1), regions (2), and forest stands (3).

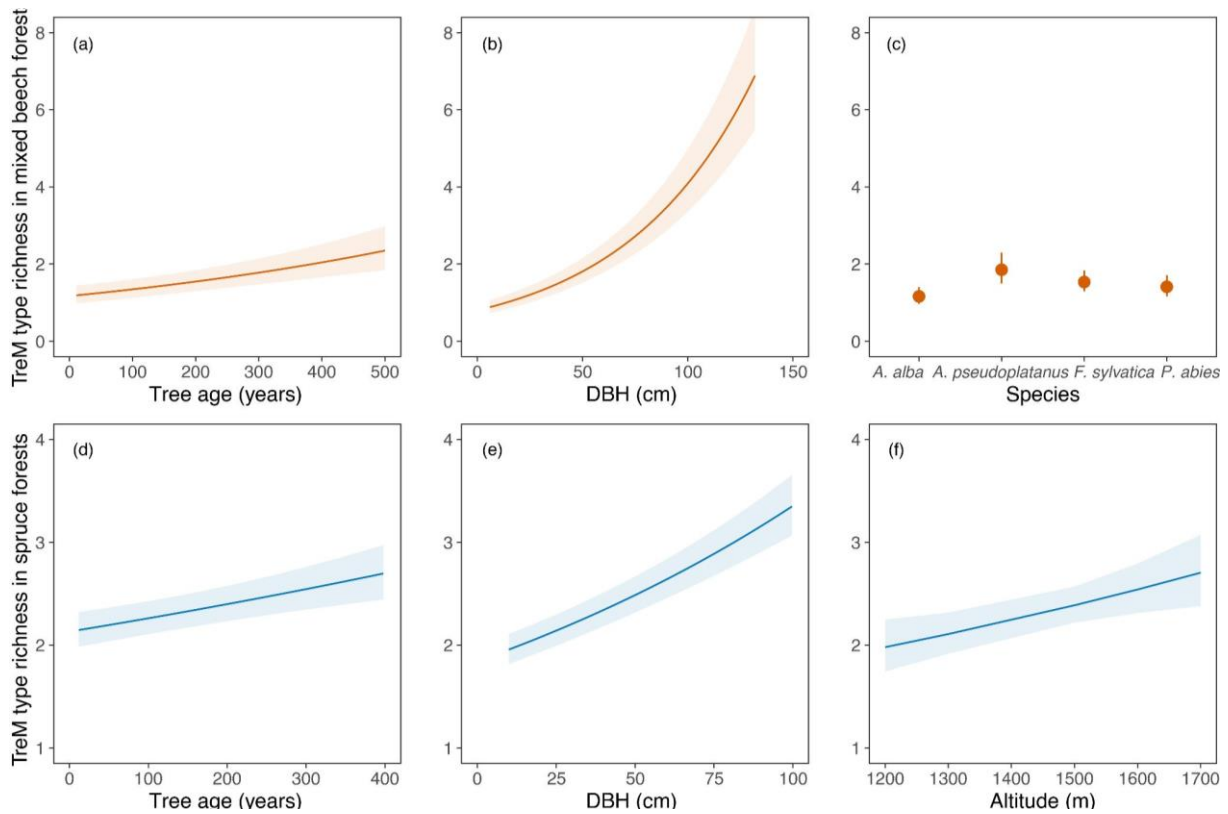


Figure 2: Significant effects of tree characteristics and site quality on richness of TreMs in mixed beech (a-c) and spruce forests (d-f). The effect plots show partial relationships between focal variables while keeping the other variables in the models constant. GLMM-based predictions (lines and dots) and their 95 % confidence intervals (bands and error bars) are displayed. For details of the models see Table 1 and 2 and Appendix 2 and 3.