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32 Abstract

Aim: Dead wood inhabiting bryophyte communities are formed by several important factors. Besides the amount, quality and continuity of the substrate, there are also external factors indirectly influencing their structure. One of the most important is local microclimate. This fact has been recognized by many previous authors, yet studies exploring the direct effect of the microclimate on epixylic bryophytes are still sparse. Based on directly measured values of local temperature, air humidity and canopy openness, we explored the associations between microclimate and epixylic bryophyte communities.

40 Location: Old-growth mixed *Fagus sylvatica-Abies alba* montane forest in the Czech Republic (West
41 Carpathians).

42 Methods: The associations between microclimate and bryophyte communities were studied on 61 43 large logs of *Abies alba* in advanced decay stage. Air temperature and humidity was measured in three 44 periods of the year 2017, canopy openness was measured in leafless and leaf-on periods. Water 45 potential (Ψ) values were calculated from the data. The importance of the seasons was compared, the 46 effect of microclimate variables on the species composition of logs was explored by canonical 47 correspondence analysis. The effect on total cover and species richness was analyzed by linear models.

Results: Our analysis revealed a clear relationship between the communities and the microclimatic gradient. The most important factors for bryophyte composition were the spring and summer water potential and canopy openness in the leaf-on period. Total species richness and cover increased with increasing water potential (relatively cool and humid conditions). Also, the appearance of sensitive epixylic specialists (mainly liverworts) was positively correlated with these microclimatic conditions. On the other hand, species more tolerant to desiccation preferred logs with a drier and warmer microclimate.

- 55 Conclusions: Comparing logs with similar physical properties but different microclimates, we 56 confirmed that epixylic bryophyte communities are significantly associated to microclimatic conditions 57 in natural temperate forest.
- 58 Keywords: Bryophytes, Canopy openness, Central Europe, Dead wood, Microclimate, Natural forest,
- 59 Temperature

61 Introduction

Dead wood is an essential element for the maintenance of forest biodiversity, 30-40% of the forest 62 63 dwelling species are related to this special substrate in temperate and boreal zone, which has also a 64 crucial role in nutrient and carbon cycling and forest site conditions (Stokland et al. 2012). While the 65 most important agents of decomposition are the fungi and insects, many other organism groups use dead wood as a substrate, nesting or breeding site (plants, lichens, birds, bats) (Harmon et al. 1986). 66 67 Many studies have demonstrated the importance of decaying wood as a key substrate for bryophyte diversity in forests (e.g. Berg et al. 2002; Hofmeister et al., 2015a; Söderström, 1993). Some properties 68 69 of decaying wood have a major influence on the structure and quality of the bryophyte communities. 70 In particular, the total amount, continuity, structural diversity (logs, branches, snags, stumps) of dead 71 wood, as well as the presence of all decay stages are crucial for the continuous occurrence of 72 bryophytes with specific habitat requirements (Kruys et al. 1999; Mills and Macdonald 2004; Ódor and 73 van Hees 2004). Different combinations of these factors create a wide spectrum of microhabitats that 74 can be colonized.

The size of the dead woody material is also a determining factor of epixylic bryophyte diversity (Ódor et al. 2006). Larger pieces tend to decay longer and give species with dispersal limitations a better chance to colonize them. They usually consist of a mosaic of different decay stages, and their heterogeneous surface can host many species with different ecological demands. Because of their size, they are also prevented from being overgrown by forest floor generalists and vascular plants (Ódor and van Hees 2004; Jansová and Soldán, 2006) or buried by litter from forest canopy (Muhle and LeBlanc 1975).

Another factor directly determining bryophyte community structure is tree species composition. In the temperate forest zone, there is a major difference between bryophyte species colonizing deciduous and coniferous trees. Tree species vary in physical, chemical and structural properties of their wood and bark and consequently in the decomposability of the substrate (Weedon et al. 2009; Shorohova et

al. 2016). Epixylic communities respond to differences in the pH of the substrates, water content and
decay type of the wood, which are strongly modified by the tree species-specific decomposers
represented mostly by saproxylic fungi (Heilmann-Clausen et al. 2005; Freschet et al. 2012; Fukasawa
et al. 2015). Therefore, the mutual presence of both deciduous and coniferous species increases the
total bryophyte species richness (Táborská et al. 2015).

91 In addition to the direct influence of dead wood and its quality, there are also external factors shaping 92 bryophyte communities. Continuity, land-use history and naturalness of the forest stands considerably determine the local species pool of bryophyte assemblages (Ódor et al. 2006). Many recent studies 93 94 have focused on comparisons of natural and managed forest stands, and have found that species 95 richness and the quality of the community both increase with decreasing human influence, not only in 96 the present but also in the past (Söderström 1988; Ódor and Standovár 2001; Brunet et al. 2010; 97 Hofmeister et al. 2015b; Táborská et al. 2017). In particular, rare and endangered species are 98 dependent on the continuous presence of sufficient amounts and quality of dead wood, which is very 99 often completely missing in managed forests. There is also a known relationship between bryophyte 100 species richness and regional climatic factors on a larger geographical scale. Heilmann-Clausen et al. 101 (2014) showed that site and landscape filters such as forest naturalness and climate are more 102 important drivers than local filters, represented mostly by available decay stages, on a gradient from 103 Central to Western Europe.

Furthermore, microclimate has repeatedly been pronounced as an important factor driving growth, survival and reproductive success and consequently the total species richness of a site and the local distribution of species in a forest (e.g. Ódor et al. 2013; Zellweger et al. 2019). It is usually described as a combination of temperature and air humidity (Haughian and Frego 2017a). In the forest, these two aspects are influenced by different factors on many levels. Generally, microclimate is largely defined by the regional climate of the area (Geiger et al. 1995; Chen et al. 1999). However, forest site and stand structural characteristics considerably modify the regional climate creating specific below canopy

microclimates (Kovács et al. 2017). The main drivers significantly influencing bryophyte communities
in the forest are the topography as elevation, slope and aspect (Holland and Steyn 1975; Åström et al.
2007; Oldén et al. 2019), the microtopography of the site (Beatty 1984; Ulanova 2000), local water
regime (Hylander et al. 2002; Stewart and Mallik 2006; Staniaszek-Kik et al. 2016) and canopy openness
(Tinya et al. 2009; Haughian and Frego 2017b)

116 From the site characteristics, forest canopy is a key driver determining ground microclimate. 117 Bryophytes, as poikilohydric organisms, are especially sensitive to moisture and air humidity (Proctor 118 2009). Different species have different water management strategies, with some being desiccation 119 tolerant, and others rather dependent on a stable water supply. Many epixylic specialists belong to the 120 latter category, creating humidity-sensitive, tiny, single-layer mats on the wood surface. Their 121 occurrence is therefore bound to stable moisture conditions (Söderström 1988; Jansová and Soldán 122 2006). A closed canopy buffers extremes of maximum temperature and vapor pressure deficit on the 123 forest floor (Kovács et al. 2017; Davis et al. 2019), creating optimal environment for this sensitive 124 species. On the contrary, some species favors spots under sparser canopy with easier access of rainfall 125 and light (Haughian and Frego 2017b; Górski et al. 2019).

In the temperate forest zone, microclimate changes significantly during the season and so do the dynamics of the bryophyte growth. Generally, authors agree that the most important period for annual growth is autumn (Tamm 1953; Pitkin 1975), though others report the highest growth rates in late winter and early spring (Jansová 2006; Rincon and Grime 2009). In the temperate zone – and especially in mountainous regions – both these periods are characterized by very stable low temperatures and high atmospheric humidity associated with frequent precipitation, which is crucial for poikilohydric bryophytes.

133 In the past, many authors presumed that due to their high water holding capacity, the logs themselves 134 strongly modify their surface microclimate by providing more water to the epixylic flora living on its 135 surface (Rambo and Muir 1998; Botting and DeLong 2009; Stokland et al. 2012). However recent

studies from Haughian and Frego (2017a; 2017b) showed that in logs, water is not likely to be supplied
to the surface from their internal parts and there might be other physical and biological factors shaping
bryophyte assemblages which have not been described yet.

139 With developing technical possibilities, studies of the forest microclimate and its dynamics begin to 140 emerge (Wild et al. 2019). Besides general studies mostly related to stand structure (Frey et al. 2016; 141 Kovács et al. 2017; Ehbrecht et al. 2017) and forest management (Chen and Franklin 1997; Ma et al. 142 2010; Kovács et al. 2020), there also several studies focusing on the effect of microclimate on forest-143 dwelling organisms in their natural habitats, such as decaying wood. In the past, substitute variables 144 have usually been used, such as macroclimatic variables (Raabe et al. 2010), elevation (Spitale 2016), 145 aspect (Dahlberg et al. 2014), and estimates of moisture (Chmura et al. 2018). Currently more and 146 more studies present the directly measured microclimatic data. The authors mostly define 147 microclimatic conditions based on temperature and air humidity measured on the surface or in the 148 sub-surface of the logs. These methods have been used to answer various questions involving a 149 diversity of colonizing species of bryophytes and fungi (Király et al. 2013; Dahlberg et al. 2014; Pouska 150 et al. 2016), bryophyte growth (Haughian and Frego 2017b) or factors determining the occurrence of 151 rare species (Górski et al. 2019).

With this study we would like to contribute to the topic and explore the epixylic bryophyte assemblages association with a microclimatic gradient on a local scale in a mixed *Fagus sylvatica-Abies alba* natural forest in the Czech Republic. We address the following questions:

- 155 (i) What are the seasonal differences in microclimate, and which periods are most important156 in terms of the regulation of bryophyte communities?
- 157 (ii) What are the shape and direction of the relationships between microclimate and the
 158 assemblage or single species? Do epixylic specialists more strongly associate with more
 159 humid microclimates?
- 160 (iii) What is the relationship between total species richness, cover and microclimate?

161 Material and methods

162 Study area

163 The study was conducted in the national nature forest reserve Salajka in the Moravskoslezské Beskydy 164 Mts. in the Czech Republic (49.401°N, 18.418°E). The total area of the forest reserve is 21.86 ha, where 165 elevation ranges from 715 to 820 m above sea level. The forest is dominated by European beech (Fagus 166 sylvatica L., 67.6% of standing volume) and silver fir (Abies alba Mill., 22.8% of standing volume); the 167 two most common admixing tree species are Norway spruce (Picea abies (L.) Karst., 8.6% of standing 168 volume) and sycamore maple (Acer pseudoplatanus L., 1% of standing volume) (Král et al. 2014a). The 169 forest has an old-growth structure characterized by veteran trees, regeneration in gaps and a fine-170 scale mosaic of patches of various forest developmental stages (Král et al. 2014b). The amount of the 171 dead wood is high (110 m³/ha), representing 21% of the living standing volume. In contrast to the 172 standing trees, the dead wood is dominated by silver fir (63.3% of the total dead wood volume), 173 followed by European beech (29.5% of the total dead wood volume) and Norway spruce (6.5% of the 174 total dead wood volume) (Král et al. 2014a). The site is under protection and has been unmanaged 175 since 1937.

This site was chosen for a microclimatic study because of its topography: the forest stand occurs on two opposite-facing slopes, one facing south-east and the other facing north-east (Fig. 1). We supposed that the heterogeneous topography of the area provides that the studied logs are characterized by different microclimate. The bedrock in the area is flysch rock of the Solan system made up of sandstone, clay stone and argillaceous shale layers (Menčík 1979), the soil is silt-loam, loam and clay-loam Haplic Cambisols (Driessen et al. 2001). The area has a temperate montane climate, with a mean annual temperature of 6.2 °C and annual precipitation of 1142 mm (CHMI 2016).

183 Study design and data collection

This study focused on the direct effects of microclimate on bryophyte communities on dead wood. To
eliminate the effects of log-related variables like tree species, decay stage and dead wood volume, logs

186 with similar characteristics were selected. For the pre-selection of appropriate logs, a stem database 187 of the Salajka reserve was used. This database has been periodically updated since 1974, with repeated 188 mapping and measurements taking place over the years 1974, 1994, 2007 and 2014 (Přívětivý et al. 189 2016). The database contains, among others, information about the tree species, live status, diameter 190 at breast height (DBH) and also the decay stage of the dead trees (Král et al. 2014a). All information is 191 also processed in the form of a stem position map. Only logs of silver fir with diameter 60–90 cm in an 192 advanced decay stage were selected. This was defined as being in an advanced stage of wood rot, with 193 bark missing, soft wood, the log often broken, the outline deformed and the log partly sunk in the soil 194 (decay stage 4 and 5 according to Ódor and van Hees 2004). The reason for this selection of logs was 195 their high availability at the site, and the presence of epixylic specialists that were the subject of 196 interest and that are significantly less frequently present on the dead wood of deciduous species 197 (Táborská et al. 2015). On each log, a 5 m long segment measured from the stem base was examined 198 for bryophytes during one survey in the vegetation period of 2017. The presence of species and their 199 percentage cover were recorded, but the uprooted parts of the logs were not included in the sampling. 200 Species were identified in the field or transported to the laboratory for microscopic identification. 201 Voucher specimens of all the species are deposited in the herbarium of the first author. The 202 nomenclature follows Kučera et al. (2012). Microclimate was measured in three periods through the 203 year of 2017, each lasting minimum 8 days. The first period was in spring from 29 March to 7 April, 204 then in summer from 8 August to 15 August, and in autumn, from 11 November to 22 November 205 (hereafter seasons). 62 MCC USB-502 combined air temperature and humidity loggers (Measurement 206 Computing Corp., Norton, MA, Appendix S1, Fig. 1a) were used for temporally synchronized 207 microclimate measurements, recording air temperature and relative humidity at every five minutes. 208 All loggers were covered by passively ventilated plastic shields to prevent the sensors from direct solar 209 radiation (Appendix S1, Fig. 1b, c). They were temporarily installed on the sides of the logs (average 210 distance of the sensors from log surface was 8 cm), in the middle of the sampled segment and at the 211 height of the half of the log's diameter (Appendix S1, Fig. 1d.). A reference logger in each sampling

212 period was installed nearby in the forest reserve but independently from the surveyed logs (Fig. 1.). 213 Using the measurements of this unit, relative values were calculated: reference values were subtracted 214 from every logged record. These relative values were positive if the logged records were higher than 215 the reference and negative if they were lower. These derived differences were used for the further 216 analyses to minimize the effects of larger-scale weather patterns and diurnal fluctuations. Besides 217 temperature and relative humidity, indirect light measurements estimating the canopy openness (CO; 218 proportion) were performed using type-A spherical densiometer two times in 2017, next to the loggers 219 (Lemmon 1957). We characterized the light regime of the leafless and leaf-on periods by this method 220 on the last days of microclimate campaigns in spring (before bud break) and in summer. For the light 221 estimations, a third measurement in autumn was not necessary since hypothetically the results are 222 the same as in spring.

223 Data analysis

The 474 912 temperature and relative humidity data pairs were first screened for obvious inaccuracies 224 225 and missing values. Due to measurement errors of the microclimate loggers, three logs were excluded 226 from further analyses. In autumn 10 logs were excluded from the analysis because of technical failures of the microclimate loggers. Therefore, 58 logs were analyzed in spring and summer, whereas 48 logs 227 228 were analyzed in fall. Water potential (Ψ ; Pa; Eq.1) was also computed based on the measured air 229 temperature (T; °C) and relative humidity (RH; %) data since it is a useful variable for the 230 characterization of the desiccation power of air on cryptogams (Jonsson et al. 2008; Proctor 2009; 231 Haughian and Frego 2017a). Water potential varies between -∞ and 0, with 0 indicating complete 232 saturation, lower (more negative) values mean higher desiccation power of the air.

233
$$\Psi = \frac{8.3144 \times (T + 273.15)}{18.021 \times 10^{-6}} \times \ln(RH)$$
 (Eq.1),

in that Ψ is the water potential, T is air temperature in °C and RH is relative air humidity in %.

235 For water potential the relative values ($\Delta\Psi$, compared to reference logger) were also computed.

236 Descriptive statistics were calculated for the original values of the measured microclimate variables (T,

RH, Ψ and CO). For each log the mean values of the studied variables were calculated for the three
seasons separately. Because of the obvious differences between the seasonal means of the original
values, differences between the seasonal means were not tested statistically. However, we compared
the spatial (i.e. among log) variances of the microclimate variables of the different seasons by pairwise
F variance tests with Bonferroni-Holm corrections (Holm 1979).

242 The relationship between microclimate variables and bryophyte species composition was explored by 243 canonical correspondence analysis (CCA, Borcard et al. 2011). Only species with 3 and more 244 occurrences were included into analysis. Log-level means of relative water potential ($\Delta\Psi$) values in 245 spring, summer and autumn, as well as canopy openness values of leafless and leaf-on periods were 246 used as explanatory variables. The cover values of the species were *In*-transformed before the analysis. 247 Separate CCA's were performed for every potential microclimate variable, and their explained variance 248 was tested by Monte-Carlo simulations (Borcard et al. 2011). A final CCA model was created from the 249 explanatory variables using a forward selection approach, the explained variance of the axes was 250 tested by Monte-Carlo simulations, and the first axis (CCA1) of this final model was used as a 251 generalized microclimate variable (Borcard et al. 2011). The distribution of species along CCA1 was 252 described by descriptive statistics. The individual cover response of the species (with frequency higher 253 than 4, 6.9%) on CCA1 was evaluated by non-parametric LOESS smoothing on the observed data (Zuur 254 et al. 2009). The effect of CCA1 on total cover and species richness was analyzed by linear models. For 255 cover, square root transformation was used before the analysis.

All analyses were performed in the R.3.6.1 statistical environment (R Core Team 2019); for CCA the package "vegan" (Oksanen et al. 2017) was used.

258 Results

259 Effect of microclimate on bryophytes

Altogether we sampled 61 logs and found 42 species of bryophytes, of which 20 were liverworts and
22 mosses (Appendix 1, Table 1). The most common species were *Dicranodontium denudatum*,

262 Tetraphis pellucida, Herzogiella seligeri, Lepidozia reptans and Dicranum scoparium. Three Red-Listed 263 species for the Czech Republic (Kučera et al. 2012) have been recorded (Harpanthus scutatus, 264 Callicladium haldanianum and Syzygiella autumnalis) and three species are classified as Lower Risk-265 Near Threatened (Calypogeia suecica, Cephalozia catenulata and Liochlaena lanceolata) (Kučera et al. 266 2012). The maximum number of the species recorded on one log was 18, the minimum 5 and the 267 average was 12.6 species per log. The mean air temperature values were 8.6 °C in spring, 18.2 °C in 268 summer and 0.1 °C in autumn (Fig. 2a), the relative humidity was 77% in spring, 79% in summer and 269 99% in autumn (Fig. 2b). Following these differences, the water potential of the air was lower in spring 270 and summer (-37.9 and -34.1 MPa, respectively) than in autumn (-2.3 MPa, Fig2c). The mean canopy 271 openness was 46.5% in leafless and 14.9% in leaf-on period. Because of the obvious climate differences 272 among the seasons these mean values were not tested statistically. The variance of the air temperature 273 among the logs was the highest in spring, intermediate in summer and lowest in autumn (Fig. 2a, 274 Appendix S1, Table 2). The variance of air-humidity was higher in spring and summer than in autumn 275 (Fig. 2b, Appendix S1, Table 2). Similarly to the temperature, the variance of water potential was the 276 highest in spring, intermediate in summer and the lowest in autumn (Fig. 2c, Appendix S1, Table 2). 277 The variance of canopy openness was similar in the leafless and leaf-on periods (Fig. 2d, Appendix S1, 278 Table 2).

Based on the partial CCA's of bryophyte assemblages, both the water potential in spring and summer and canopy openness in the leaf-on period were significant drivers (8.14%, 6.54% and 3.69% of explained total variance, respectively, Table 1). The effect of water potential in autumn and canopy openness in the leafless period were not significant (Table 1). The final CCA model containing the significant variables explained 13.34% of the total variance ($F_{(3,54)} = 2.7705$; P < 0.001; Fig. 3).

The first canonical axis (CCA1; 8.76% of the total variance) displayed a water potential gradient with drier conditions on the negative side of the gradient and more cool and humid environment on the positive end. Canopy openness correlated more with the second axis (3.24% of variance explained)

287 and indicated a light gradient. Based on the CCA, species showed a clear separation along the water 288 potential gradient (Fig. 3), which was strongly related to the individual response of the species (Fig. 4). 289 On the positive side of the gradient, the cover of epixylic and humidity sensitive species exponentially 290 (e.g. Liochlaena lanceolata, Riccardia latifrons, Calypogeia suecica, Rhizomnium punctatum and 291 Harpanthus scutatus), or more or less linearly increased (Cephalozia bicuspidata, Lepidozia reptans). 292 Most of these species are tiny liverworts creating smooth mats on the log surface. In the middle part 293 of the gradient there were opportunistic species with unimodal response (Dicranodontium 294 denudatum, Tetraphis pellucida) and species that did not respond to the microclimate gradient (e.g. 295 Cephalozia lunulifolia, Herzogiella seligeri, Dicranum scoparium, Chiloscyphus profundus). This was a 296 structurally heterogeneous groups including liverworts, acrocarpic and pleurocarpic mosses. The 297 negative side of the gradient represented by drier and warmer microclimate was correlated with 298 species with an exponentially decreasing response (Hypnum andoi, Dicranum montanum). These were 299 pleurocarpic and acrocarpic mosses, which can occur not only on dead wood but often on the bark of 300 standing trees as epiphytic species.

The effect of microclimate (CCA1 axis) on bryophyte cover and richness was also tested. Both variables correlated positively with the microclimate scores (Fig. 5., cover: $R^2_{adj} = 0.16$, $F_{(1,56)} = 12.123$, p = 0.0009; species richness: $R^2_{adj} = 0.25$, $F_{(1,56)} = 19.97$, p < 0.0001).

304 Discussion

305 Seasonal changes in microclimatic gradient

Seasonality in bryophyte growth rates has already been demonstrated by several studies (Stark 2002; Jansová and Soldán 2006). Although autumn, late winter and early spring are favorable for the bryophyte growth, spring and summer are the periods that may be more important in actually shaping the bryophyte assemblages. Our results show that the variance in measured microclimatic components during these two periods is much higher than in autumn. Mean water potential values are much lower in spring and summer, and this could be limiting for species growth or even survival. We can suppose, that although autumn and early spring are the most active period for bryophyte growth, the species
composition of the logs (the survival of species) is determined mainly by the humidity and temperature
limited spring and summer periods.

315 *Epixylic bryophyte response to microclimatic gradient*

Epixylic bryophyte communities significantly responded to the microclimatic gradient. The CCA explained 13.34% of the variance, which is a significant share. Although we selected only similar logs with well-defined features, in the reality the logs are a mosaic of different decay stages and their proportion could be heterogeneous. The bryophyte species are often related to special microsites as fissures, bark patches and wounds that can occur accidentally on the logs and could not be controlled by the study design.

322 As expected, total species richness and cover increased with positive CCA scores, which means that 323 the higher diversity and cover of this community is related to more humid and cool microclimate within 324 a stand (higher water potential of the air). In these conditions, bryophyte communities are enriched 325 with desiccation-intolerant epixylic species, mainly with liverworts. This pattern confirms the findings 326 of Haughian and Frego (2017a; 2017b), who stated that the water-holding capacity and microclimate 327 buffering ability of the logs is limited and the occurrence of the sensitive species is mainly determined 328 by microclimate per se. The similar fact has been demonstrated for fungi (Pouska et al. 2016) and 329 lichens (Marini et al. 2011), where microclimate also can modify successional pathways in otherwise 330 similar logs. We can suppose that this microclimatic effect is related to the topography (aspect, slope 331 position etc.) of the site. Other studies using topography as explanatory variables found, that within a 332 stand the cooler and more humid topographic conditions (northern slopes, ravines etc.) maintain more 333 diverse epixylic bryophyte communities than more sun exposed or flat topographies (Ódor and van 334 Hees 2004; Raabe et al. 2010). However, these conditions are not necessarily true for other saproxylic 335 organisms, for example lichens and beetles are more related to more open and warm conditions 336 (Hauck 2011; Király et al. 2013; Seibold et al. 2016).

337 The microclimate preference of bryophytes is clearly reflected in our analysis of the species 338 composition. Species that are classified as epixylic specialists (according to Hill et al. 2007) and listed 339 in the Czech Red List (Kučera et al. 2012) as threatened or near-threatened are all positively associated 340 with relatively cool and humid microclimate. All these species (Liochlaena lanceolata, Calypogeia 341 suecica, Harpanthus scutatus, Syzygiella autumnalis and Cephalozia catenulata) occur along the whole 342 gradient, but their cover increases markedly with higher water potential values. Generally, these 343 species are restricted to decaying wood in later decay stages, and in the Czech Republic mostly occur 344 only in forests with old-growth structure and a long-term temporal continuity of dead wood. 345 Therefore, the vulnerability of these species is connected to the decline of primary, old-growth forests 346 in Europe (Berg et al. 2002; Ódor et al. 2006; Sabatini et al. 2018).

In addition to these red-listed species, mostly small liverworts (*Riccardia latifrons, Cephalozia bicuspidata, Lepidozia reptans*) and one rather hygrophilic moss (eg. *Rhizomnium punctatum*) responded positively to more humid and cool microclimate. Most of these prefer a moist environment but are not as sensitive to desiccation as specialized species, and some can also occur on other substrates (such as shaded rocks) in the forest.

352 Those species that did not respond to the microclimatic gradient (eg. Dicranum scoparium, 353 Chiloscyphus polyanthos, Tetraphis pellucida, Herzogiella seligeri) were the dominant species of 354 decayed logs independently of their topographic positions. The species negatively related to relatively 355 humid and cool microclimatic conditions (Hypnum andoi, Dicranum montanum) can often occur on the 356 bark of living trees. We can suppose that air humidity is not a limiting factor for these species in this 357 forest site, and on dead wood they are just occupying niches that were not suitable for more demanding species. The response of Nowellia curvifolia was quite surprising, as this is generally 358 359 considered as specialized epixylic species growing almost exclusively on the wood of conifers, often 360 accompanied by rare epixylic species. Based on these results its higher frequency and cover on logs of 361 managed forests can likely be explained by its higher tolerance for desiccation.

362 Conclusions

363 In this study, we confirmed the significant relationship between epixylic bryophyte communities and 364 microclimatic conditions. We found that the periods with more dynamic heterogeneous climatic 365 pattern, namely spring and summer, had stronger association with bryophyte communities, whereas 366 stable climatic conditions in the autumn were not reflected in the microclimatic gradient. Comparing 367 logs with similar physical properties but different microclimates of the immediate surroundings, we 368 found out that the species richness of these communities as well as the total species cover increased 369 with increasing water potential. The species had very different individual responses to the 370 microclimatic gradient. Epixylic specialists and small liverworts with a smooth mat growth form 371 occurred more frequently on the positive side of the gradient characterized by lower temperatures 372 and higher humidity (higher water potential). On the other hand, more desiccation-tolerant species, 373 which also often colonize the bark of living trees, dominated the negative side of the gradient, with a 374 warmer and drier microclimate (lower water potential). The most common and dominant species of 375 the community had a neutral response to microclimate. Our study emphasizes that the accumulation 376 of dead wood in humid forest sites could be more effective for the maintenance of epixylic bryophyte 377 communities than logs occurring in drier and warmer conditions in temperate and boreal forests. 378 However, dead wood management should consider that other saproxylic organism groups (e.g. 379 beetles, lichens) could have different microclimate requirements.

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387 Authors' contributions

MT and PÓ developed the research idea and methodology, all authors were involved in data collection and manuscript writing, which was led by MT; BK, MT and PÓ did the data analysis. MT and PÓ were responsible for bryophyte inventory, while BK and CN were responsible for microclimate measurements. All authors approved the final version of the manuscript and agreed to be accountable for the aspects of the work that they conducted.

393 Data accessibility

394 The data are accessible online on GitHub <u>https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.3899953</u>

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629 List of Appendices:

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- 631 Appendix S1: Supplementary information about recorded species, seasonal variances of microclimatic
- 632 variables and microclimate measurements.

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635 Tables

- Table 1. Results of the partial CCA analyses using the log-level means of relative water potential ($\Delta\Psi$) and canopy
- 637 openness (CO) values of the different seasons as explanatory variables.

| Variable | F _(1,56) | Р | R^2_{adj} |
|------------------------------|---------------------|---------|-------------|
| $\Delta \Psi_{mean} spring$ | 4.965 | < 0.001 | 0.0650 |
| $\Delta \Psi_{mean}$ summer | 3.919 | < 0.001 | 0.0486 |
| $\Delta\Psi_{mean}$ autumn | 0.961 | 0.477 | -0.0006 |
| COleafless | 1.386 | 0.118 | 0.0069 |
| $CO_{leaf-on}$ | 2.146 | 0.017 | 0.0195 |
| | | | |

641 Figures

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- 646 (dots) were distributed along a presumed, topography-driven microclimatic gradient. Reference logger (x-mark)
- 647 with synchronized sampling was applied for data consistency.



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Fig. 2 Boxplots (median, interquartile range and range without outliers) of air temperature (a), relative humidity (b), water potential (c) and canopy openness (d) values of the studied periods. The means are represented by red dots. The letters indicate homogeneous subsets for the variables of the seasons, based on F-tests. For water potential, the negative values were multiplied by -1, higher values mean higher desiccation power of the air.



Fig. 3 Species – environmental variables biplot of the canonical correspondence analysis using spring and summer log-level means of relative water potential ($\Delta\Psi$) and canopy openness of the fully-leaved period (CO_{leaf-on}) as explanatory variables. Species codes are explained in Appendix S1, Table 1.







- Fig. 4 LOESS-smoothed cover response of individual species along the microclimatic gradient represented by the
- 667 first CCA axis scores for the studied logs. The order of the species is determined by their decreasing score along
- the first CCA axis. Only species with 5 and more occurrences are presented.



