

1 Tree taxon effects on the phenology of caterpillar 2 abundance and biomass

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13

14 Abstract

15 Phenological shifts are well documented biological responses to warming. While many studies
16 have focused on the mean timing of an event, there is growing appreciation that the height and
17 width of the phenological distribution will also impact on species interactions. A temperate
18 deciduous forest food chain of oak trees – arboreal caterpillars – insectivorous passerines has
19 become paradigmatic in research on phenological mismatch. This focus on oak-dominated
20 woodlands means that we have limited insight into whether (i) caterpillar phenological
21 distributions vary among tree taxa and habitats and (ii) oak is an exceptional host, which has
22 implications for the potential for buffering of interactions on a local and landscape scale. Here,
23 we survey caterpillar abundance and mass throughout spring on 10 tree taxa for 10 years across
24 44 Scottish woodland sites. We found substantial variation in caterpillar abundance among host
25 taxa, with oak, birch and willow yielding similarly high numbers of caterpillars, and evidence

26 that caterpillar abundance increases with the density of oak foliage within a woodland stand,
27 but not with the density of other taxa. Considering variation in the phenological distribution of
28 caterpillars on different host taxa, we found the main axis of variation to be the maximum
29 abundance/total biomass reached, which was highest on oak. We found significant variation in
30 the mean timing of abundance and duration of abundance and total biomass among hosts,
31 though effect sizes were quite small, and little evidence for among host variation in the
32 phenological distribution of individual caterpillar mass. In woodlands where oak is abundant,
33 our findings are consistent with the presence of other tree taxa providing little local buffering
34 of phenological mismatch. Whereas, in the absence of oak, birch and willow have the potential
35 to support similarly substantial caterpillar abundances. These findings have implications for
36 conservation, resilient forestry planting and management decisions.

37

38 Keywords

39 Abundance, biomass, caterpillar, deciduous forest, mass, match/mismatch hypothesis,
40 phenology

41

42 Introduction

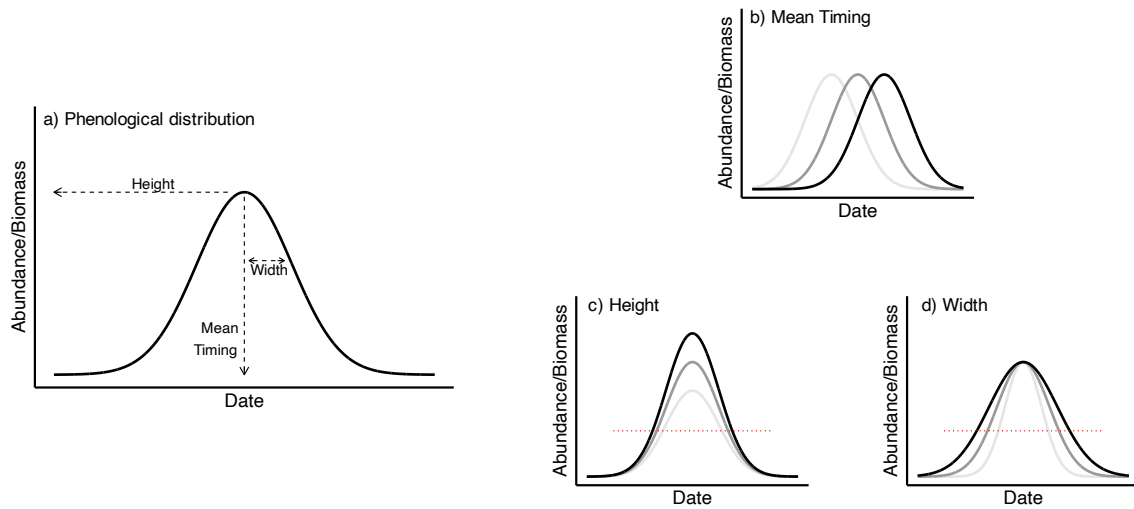
43 Climate warming is driving species across multiple taxa and trophic levels to advance the
44 timing of seasonal events (Parmesan 2006; Thackeray *et al.* 2016; Cohen *et al.* 2018) and
45 phenological shifts are one of the most highly documented biotic responses to climate change
46 (Walther *et al.*, 2002; Parmesan and Yohe, 2003). The shifts in timing vary between species
47 and trophic levels, with secondary consumers generally advancing less than producers and
48 primary consumers (Thackeray *et al.* 2010, 2016).

49 Phenological synchrony of trophic interactions has become a concern under climate change
50 due to trophic levels differing in their phenological reaction norms (Thackeray *et al.* 2016),
51 which has the potential to generate shifts in the degree of (a)synchrony between a consumer
52 and its resource, with potentially negative fitness consequences for the consumer (the
53 match/mismatch hypothesis, MMH) (Cushing 1990; Visser & Both 2005; Durant *et al.* 2007;
54 Samplonius *et al.* 2020). However, there has been a paucity of evidence that mismatch is
55 leading to consumer population declines (Samplonius *et al.* 2020) or having positive effects
56 for the producer, which may be explained if consumer-resource interactions are more
57 ‘buffered’ than we have appreciated (Weir & Phillimore 2024). A major form that buffering of
58 phenological interactions can take is where consumers are able to exploit alternative resources
59 according to what is phenologically synchronous (Bartomeus *et al.* 2013), though to date there
60 have been rather few studies examining the potential for this form of buffering.

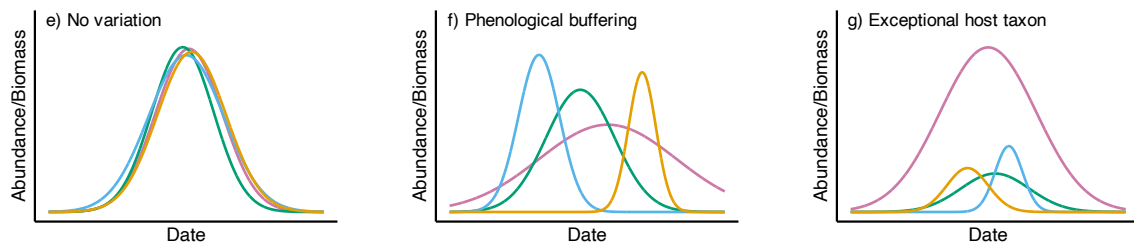
61 A further factor that may contribute to phenological buffering being underappreciated is the
62 tendency for research to focus on shifts in mean timing of populations/guilds (Thomas *et al.*,
63 2001; Charmantier *et al.*, 2008; Both *et al.*, 2009; Reed, Jenouvrier and Visser, 2013;
64 Thackeray *et al.*, 2016; Burgess *et al.*, 2018; Roslin *et al.*, 2021) and to the neglect of the

65 duration of events and the height of phenological peaks. We can describe the full phenological
66 distribution of population (or guild) abundance or biomass with three parameters (Fig 1a):
67 mean timing (Fig 1b), maximum height (Fig 1c) and width (Fig 1d; here defining the shape of
68 the distribution independently of the height, similarly to a standard deviation) (Shutt *et al.*
69 2019a; Macphie *et al.* 2023). The duration of the distribution is determined by both the height
70 and width (Fig 1c-d) and differs depending on the abundance or biomass at which it
71 is measured. Extensions of the MMH recognise that if availability of the resource is important
72 for consumer fitness then the height, width and resulting duration of the resource peak may
73 matter in addition to the mean timing (Durant *et al.* 2005; Miller-Rushing *et al.* 2010; Macphie
74 2023). A consumer that is asynchronous with the mean timing of one resource may be buffered
75 if the height and width of the resource phenological distribution result in adequate resource
76 being present. Alternatively, if multiple resources are utilised locally, and these resources differ
77 in their phenological distributions, this presents the potential for phenological buffering, where
78 asynchrony with one resource is buffered by utilising an alternative synchronous resource.

79



Phenological distribution among host taxa



80

81 Figure 1: The parameters describing the phenological distribution and examples of how the

82 distribution of a guild's abundance or biomass could differ among hosts. a) Shows the three

83 main parameters describing the phenological distribution. b-d) Show the effect of changing

84 each parameter: the parameter value increases moving from light grey to black. The red dotted

85 line in c and d illustrate how differences in both the height (c) and width (d) of the phenological

86 distribution influence the duration at a given abundance or biomass. e-g) Show four

87 phenological distributions representing the guild phenological distribution on four different

88 host taxa; e) shows no variation among taxa, f) shows variation the mean timing, height and

89 width of the distribution that results in different taxa hosting the highest abundance or biomass

90 over time, g) shows one exceptional taxon hosting more of the guild at all points in time despite

91 differences in the phenological distribution among the other hosts.

92

93 Nowhere have the impacts of climate change on phenology and the MMH been more
94 intensively studied than the temperate terrestrial tri-trophic food chain of deciduous tree –
95 caterpillars – cavity nesting insectivorous passerine system (Thomas *et al.* 2001; Visser *et al.*
96 2006; Charmantier *et al.* 2008; Both *et al.* 2009; Samplonius *et al.* 2016; Cole *et al.* 2021). This
97 system includes ephemeral resources at two trophic levels, which is expected to make it more
98 susceptible to climate-mediated asynchrony; caterpillars rely on young palatable leaves while
99 they grow to pupation (Feeny 1970; van Asch & Visser 2007; Forkner *et al.* 2008), and a short-
100 lived peak in caterpillars serves as a key food source for many breeding birds (Betts 1955;
101 Bañbura *et al.* 1994; Sanz 1998; Wilkin *et al.* 2009; García-Navas & Sanz 2011; Samplonius
102 *et al.* 2016). The phenological distribution of abundance and biomass of caterpillars has
103 potential top-down implications for herbivory damage to deciduous trees, which can affect tree
104 growth, survival and forest productivity (Crawley, 1985; Kulman 1971; Whittaker &
105 Warrington 1985; Whitham *et al.* 1991; Marquis & Whelan 1994) and bottom-up implications
106 for the fitness of consumer species (Buse *et al.* 1999; Visser *et al.* 2006; Reed *et al.* 2013).

107 Most work on the woodland tri-trophic system has focused on oak-dominated (*Quercus* spp.)
108 woodlands or mainly collect data on caterpillar abundance (or biomass) on oak trees (Varley
109 *et al.* 1974; Visser *et al.* 2006; Hinks *et al.* 2015; Burgess *et al.* 2018). This taxonomic bias
110 may have arisen due to tit and flycatcher species appearing to prefer oak habitats (Perrins 1979;
111 Simms 1971) and experimental work showing evidence that oak provides a good resource for
112 developing caterpillars, including the winter moth *Operophtera brumata* (Feeny 1970; Wint
113 1983; but see Weir 2023). Whilst there is evidence that oaks support an especially diverse range
114 of Lepidopteran species (Narango *et al.*, 2020), many temperate woodland lepidopteran species
115 (and the passerine species that prey on them) will feed, forage and breed across a variety of
116 woodland habitats (Allan 1979; Perrins 1979; Hagemeyer & Blair 1997; Simms 1971; Skinner
117 2009) and oak-dominated woodland represents just a fraction of the arboreal habitat present.

118 For instance, in Great Britain, although oak trees are the second most common broadleaf tree
119 taxon, they make up just 16% of the area covered by broadleaf woodlands (Stagg & Ward
120 2019). The extent to which inferences about the caterpillar phenological distributions on oak
121 trees can be generalised to other tree species is largely unknown (Shutt *et al.* 2019a). If oak is
122 exceptional as a resource (Fig 1g), as judged by the abundance and biomass of caterpillars,
123 then framing the MMH with respect to this single primary producer taxon in oak-dominated
124 woodlands may be a reasonable simplification of the food web, with other tree taxa
125 contributing little to the size of the caterpillar guild on a local scale. However, oak represents
126 a small proportion of the available woodland habitat in which many lepidopteran and passerine
127 species are found (Allan 1979; Perrins 1979; Hagemeyer & Blair 1997; Simms 1971; Skinner
128 2009; Stagg & Ward 2019).

129

130 The potential for the composition of woodlands to contribute to phenological buffering depends
131 on how phenological distributions of caterpillars vary among host trees. For instance, if all tree
132 taxa host a similar phenological distribution of caterpillars, there would be very limited scope
133 for a mixed woodland composition to provide phenological buffering for either caterpillars or
134 birds (Fig 1e), as being asynchronous with the resource on one tree taxon means being
135 asynchronous with all. Where there are differences among tree taxa in the timing, width and
136 duration of the caterpillar peak, but peak heights are similar, this can give rise to the potential
137 for phenological buffering for generalist caterpillars or birds (Fig 1f); if resource levels are low
138 due to being asynchronous with one tree taxon, the consequences for consumers may be
139 buffered by asynchrony being less and/or resource levels being more plentiful on alternative
140 taxa. . In addition, if multiple tree taxa support similar numbers of caterpillars (i.e. one tree
141 taxon is not exceptional) this enhances the potential for spatial heterogeneity in woodland

142 composition to facilitate buffering via spatial portfolio effects, whereby consumer-resource
143 asynchrony at one location is buffered by synchronous interactions elsewhere (Burgess *et al.*
144 2018; Schindler *et al.*, 2015; Weir & Phillimore 2024).

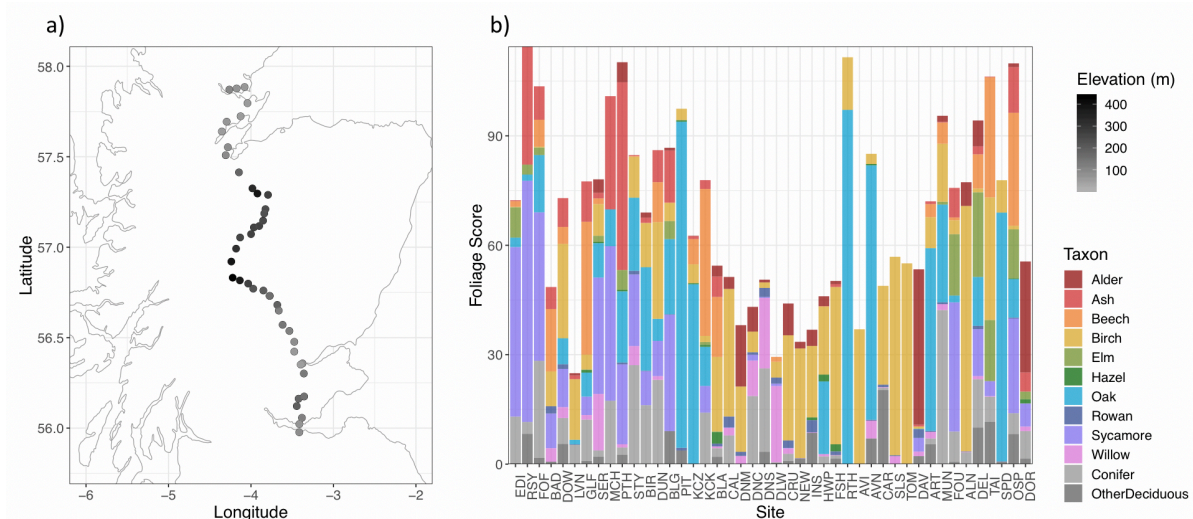
145 A wide variety of mechanisms exist that could give rise to among host taxon variation in the
146 timing, height and width of the peak in the abundance and biomass of the caterpillar guild. For
147 instance, timing differences in the abundance of caterpillars could reflect adaptation of
148 different populations or species to the leaf out times of different host species (Murray *et al.*
149 1989; Roberts *et al.* 2015; Cole & Sheldon 2017) or dominant hosts in a stand. Differences in
150 leaf nutritional quality (Schultz *et al.* 1982; Yanar *et al.* 2017), could affect Lepidopteran
151 abundance and biomass through effects on fecundity (Awmack & Leather 2002), survival
152 (Wint 1983; Yanar *et al.* 2017), and growth (Loader & Damman 1991). Preferential laying by
153 females on specific hosts (Thompson & Pellmyr 1991; Kakimoto *et al.* 2003), or dispersal by
154 larvae (van Asch & Visser 2007; Forkner *et al.* 2008) could amplify differences in abundance
155 and biomass among tree taxa. Where host tree species differ in their ability to support an
156 abundance of caterpillars this could have secondary effects at the tree stand-level, via local
157 source-sink dynamics; arising via dispersal of caterpillars between trees or via indiscriminate
158 host-choice by females during egg-laying. Among tree taxon variation in caterpillar growth
159 rates, time to pupation and the caterpillar species supported could all generate differences in
160 the width of the phenological distribution of biomass.

161 Field comparisons of caterpillar phenological distributions among woodland types have been
162 few in number, particularly in relation to differences among deciduous taxa, with more focus
163 given to comparing oak to coniferous or other deciduous habitats (van Balen 1973; Mägi *et al.*
164 2009; Veen *et al.* 2010; Burger *et al.* 2012). Evidence that oak may not be the sole key resource
165 comes from field studies in Białowieża Forest, Poland – where hornbeams (*Carpinus betulus*),

166 maples (*Acer platanoides*) and limes (*Tilia cordata*) were all found to receive more herbivory
167 damage than pedunculate oak (*Q. robur*) (Wesołowski & Rowiński 2006) – and in Scotland –
168 where willow (*Salix* spp.) and birch (*Betula* spp.) hosted quite similar caterpillar abundances
169 to oak (Shutt *et al.* 2019a). In addition, experimental work finds that the growth and survival
170 of a dominant European forest species, the winter moth (*Operophtera brumata*), is higher on a
171 range of other host taxa than on oak (Weir 2024). The only work that we are aware of that
172 compares phenological distributions of caterpillars across multiple deciduous taxa is Shutt *et*
173 *al.*'s (2019a) study in Scotland, which reported no difference in peak timing between oak,
174 willow, birch and sycamore (*Acer pseudoplatanus*), though estimates had broad credible
175 intervals.

176 Here we build on Shutt *et al.*'s (2019a) study on the effects of tree taxa on the phenological
177 distribution of caterpillars, using 7.5x the number of caterpillar samples (48466 records),
178 collected over 10 years from 44 deciduous Scottish woodland sites and incorporating an
179 additional six tree taxa. We have two main aims that are directed at establishing the potential
180 for caterpillar host-breadth to generate phenological buffering in this system. First, we test the
181 general hypothesis that abundance varies among tree taxa, and the more specific hypothesis
182 that oak trees and oak woodlands host exceptional abundances of caterpillars. Second, we
183 assess the degree to which the full phenological distribution (timing, height, width and
184 duration) of abundance, mass and biomass varies among host tree taxa. These tests allow us to
185 examine the potential for woodland composition to provide a source of phenological buffering
186 in this system. Gaining answers to these questions has implications for climate resilient
187 management of forests and the food webs that they host.

188



189

190 Figure 2: a) Map of site locations in Scotland, the darkness of the points indicates the site
 191 elevation and b) shows the woodland habitat composition at each site displayed as a foliage
 192 score which accounts for tree size (Shutt *et al.* 2018, see methods), sites are ordered by
 193 increasing latitude from left to right.

194

195 Materials and Methods

196 Study System

197 This study was carried out at 44 woodland sites along a 220 km transect between Edinburgh
 198 (55°980 N, 3°400 W) and Dornoch (57°890 N, 4°080 W) (Fig. 2a). This includes the 40 sites
 199 monitored between 2014-16 (Shutt *et al.* 2018) and four additional sites monitored from 2017
 200 onwards (Macphie *et al.* 2023). Since 2020 the number of sites monitored for caterpillars has
 201 varied, with some, predominantly northern, sites excluded in some years: the number of sites
 202 monitored were 2020=22, 2021=37, 2022=43, 2023=22. Woodland habitat composition has
 203 been surveyed at a 15m radius around each nest box installed at the sites (6-8 nest boxes per
 204 site, with one site limited to 4), including all trees with a trunk circumference of ≥ 40 cm at chest
 205 height or a ‘stand’ with ≥ 6 branches within 20cm of each other at the base, categorised by three
 206 sizes: small (circumference at chest height [cch]: 0.4-0.99m), medium (cch: 1.0-2.49m) and

207 large (cch: >2.50m). Trees were identified to the genus-level with the exception of some
208 conifers, for full details of survey methods and site foliage score calculations see (Shutt *et al.*
209 2018). The foliage scores for each tree taxon at each site are intended to approximate the
210 relative contribution of different taxa to the local foliage in a metric equivalent to the mean
211 number of ‘small’ trees of each taxon within a 15m radius circular area (Fig. 2b). One ‘medium’
212 tree contributes 6.25 units and one ‘large’ tree contributes 39.06 units.

213 Across all sites and species, the percentage of woodland composed of any taxon ranges from
214 0-100% and each tree taxa was absent from at least 4 of the sites (Fig 2b). The range of site
215 tree compositions includes 11 birch dominated sites, six oak dominated, two alder dominated,
216 two sycamore dominated, one beech dominated and one willow dominated (with dominance
217 defined by a threshold of 50%). The remaining 21 sites were of various mixed compositions,
218 only one is dominated by 100% birch.”

219 **Caterpillar Sampling**

220 Caterpillar sampling followed the branch beating methodology described in Shutt *et al.*
221 (2019a). A selection of trees at each site, approximately representative of the site’s tree
222 composition (Fig S1), were monitored for leafing phenology (Shutt *et al.* 2019b) and those that
223 had a branch of minimum length 1m and between 0.5-1.5m above the ground were also beaten.
224 The focal tree taxa sampled were alder (*Alnus glutinosa*), ash (*Fraxinus excelsior*), beech
225 (*Fagus sylvatica*), birch (*Betula* spp.), elm (*Ulmus glabra*), hazel (*Corylus avellana*), oak
226 (*Quercus* spp.), rowan (*Sorbus aucuparia*), sycamore (*Acer pseudoplatanus*) and willow (*Salix*
227 spp.). One branch per tree meeting the height and length criteria was marked and beaten every
228 four days. The trees sampled at each site were divided in two groups and each group was beaten
229 alternately at two days intervals. The branch was held consistent between years unless
230 damaged, broken or dead. The average number of total individual trees sampled at each site in

231 each year was 2014=3, 2015-16=6, 2017-18=14, 2019=15 and 2020-23=14, with a total of
232 48466 beating samples recorded across the 10 years. Sampling began each year when
233 approximately 45% of the monitored trees across all sites had reached the ‘first leaf’ stage and
234 continued until the end of the blue tit breeding season (Shutt *et al.* 2019a), with the exception
235 of 2020 in which sampling began when we were able to begin field work and tree phenology
236 was not recorded due to the Covid-19 pandemic. Sampling periods extended between the
237 following ordinal dates in each year: 2014=120-166, 2015=125-175, 2016=130-173,
238 2017=123-167, 2018=129-172, 2019=117-168, 2020=130-170, 2021=133-175, 2022=119-170
239 and 2023=127-171.

240 Branch beating was carried out using a clear plastic rubble sack measuring 76cm x 51cm. The
241 bag was fully extended over the branch’s foliage and closed with one hand at the maximum
242 length, keeping the open end facing upwards. The bag was then beaten 30 times at a consistent
243 impact and rate (roughly two per second) to dislodge any free-living invertebrates on the
244 branch. After careful removal from the branch, all caterpillars (larvae of Lepidoptera (>90%),
245 Hymenoptera, Diptera and Coleoptera; Shutt *et al.* 2019a) with an estimated diameter of ≥ 1 mm
246 were counted and collected. We chose this threshold due to an assumption that the smallest
247 caterpillars would be of minimal value to avian consumers, and as they are hard to see and
248 collect, excluding them increases the consistency between samples and recorders. From 2017
249 onwards, the total biomass of each sample was recorded to 0.01g using a Myweigh Triton T3R-
250 500 Digital Scale. We recorded the cases where samples were of insufficient mass (< 0.02 g) to
251 show a read on the balance.

252 **Statistical analysis**

253 All analyses used Bayesian generalized linear mixed models (GLMM) in the MCMCglmm
254 package (Hadfield 2010) in R version 3.5.3 (R Core Team 2019) and we present full models

255 (Tables S2-5). Poisson GLMMs were used for all models looking at variation in caterpillar
256 abundance and posterior predictive checks were used to confirm that the data were not zero-
257 inflated as compared with model expectation. Gaussian GLMMs were used to model individual
258 caterpillar mass.

259 All models included the following structural random terms to allow for spatio-temporal
260 differences in caterpillar abundance and individual mass (Table S1): site, year (as a factor),
261 site-by-year and day-by-site-by-year. We also included the unique tree ID and recorder of each
262 beating sample as random terms.

263 **Abundance**

264 *Variance decomposition of caterpillar abundance*

265 To quantify the relative contributions of spatial and temporal factors to variation in caterpillar
266 abundance we decomposed the variance (abundance decomposition model, Table S1). The
267 response variable was the number of caterpillars recorded in each beating sample with date and
268 date² included in the fixed effects to account for the humped temporal distribution. Date refers
269 to ordinal date and was z-transformed in all models (prior to scaling: mean = 146.77 [27th May,
270 26th in leap years], SD = 14.04). The variance explained by date (*a*) and date² (*b*) was
271 calculated by matrix multiplication between the parameter estimates and covariance matrix of
272 the two variables using the quadratic equation:

$$273 \quad \text{Equation 1:} \quad [\beta_a \quad \beta_b] \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_a^2 & \sigma_{a,b} \\ \sigma_{a,b} & \sigma_b^2 \end{bmatrix} [\beta_a \quad \beta_b]^T$$

274 In addition to the structural random terms that were included in all models, this model included
275 each day in each year and the host tree taxon. We calculated the mean percentage of latent
276 scale variance that is attributable to the date and date² fixed effects and each random term.

277 *Tree taxon and habitat variation in caterpillar abundance*

278 We assessed differences in the abundance of caterpillars supported by different tree taxa (host-
279 level), the effect of local foliage density and whether the foliage score of each tree taxon (stand-
280 level) contributing to local woodland composition has any additional effect (habitat abundance
281 model, Table S1). To calculate the site stand-level foliage scores for non-focal tree taxa, we
282 combined all of the coniferous tree taxa into a ‘conifer’ group and all deciduous tree taxa that
283 are less common and not sampled at the host-level were grouped as ‘other deciduous’. The i th
284 observation of caterpillar abundance on host taxon j at site k was modelled as:

285 Equation 2:

$$286 \quad y_{ijk} = b_0 + u_j^{(h)} + \sum_s (b_1 + u_s^{(g)}) f_{sk} = b_0 + u_j^{(h)} + b_1 f_k + \sum_s u_s^{(g)} f_{sk}$$

287 Here b_0 is the intercept, $u_j^{(h)}$ is the effect of host taxon j , f_{sk} is the (globally mean-centered)
288 foliage score for each stand taxon s at site k and $f_k = \sum_s f_{sk}$ is the total foliage score at site
289 k . b_1 is the average effect of foliage score on y (irrespective of stand composition) and $u_s^{(g)}$ is
290 the deviation from this average for taxon s in the tree stand. $u_j^{(h)}$ and $u_s^{(g)}$ are random effects
291 with estimated variance.

292

293 **Phenological Distributions of Abundance, Mass and Biomass**

294 *Caterpillar abundance*

295 To quantify how the phenological distribution of caterpillar abundance throughout spring
296 differs among tree taxa, we allowed each taxon to have a distinct temporal trend in abundance
297 over the course of the spring (abundance phenology model, Table S1). Date and date² were

298 included as fixed effects, to allow for a humped phenological distribution over time (Shutt *et*
299 *al.* 2019a). We included tree taxon random effects on the intercept, date and date² slopes to
300 capture among taxon variation in phenological abundance distributions. We included date and
301 date² random slopes for site and year as additional structural terms. For each tree taxon we used
302 model posteriors to derive estimates of the mean timing, height (maximum abundance), and
303 width, calculated at half the peak height. We also calculated how the duration of the peak varied
304 among tree taxa (peak duration) at a consistent abundance of 0.01 caterpillars per branch. We
305 primarily present peak width as a metric that describes the shape of the peak and rate of change
306 in abundance whilst being unaffected by peak height. We also discuss peak duration (which
307 includes an effect of peak height, Fig 1 c-d) due to its implications for top-down and bottom-
308 up trophic impacts, describing the length of time for herbivory of young leaves and key food
309 availability for many breeding birds.

310 We assessed the adequacy of the quadratic function in describing the shape of the phenological
311 distribution of caterpillar abundance by including a cubic date term. The additional cubic term
312 allows for the phenological distribution to take an asymmetric form (Table S6). Details of the
313 analysis can be found in Supplementary Information.

314

315 *Caterpillar Mass*

316 To obtain the mean mass per caterpillar in a sample we divided the mass for each sample by
317 the number of caterpillars weighed. Due to restrictions in measuring small masses in the field,
318 we have uncertainty in the accuracy of measurements $\leq 0.02\text{g}$. All samples meeting this
319 criterion were interval censored between 0.001g and $(0.02/n)\text{g}$, where 0.001g is the minimum
320 mass viable for an individual caterpillar sampled in-line with the methodology (J. C. Weir,

321 unpublished data) and n is the number of caterpillars in the sample. Average individual mass
322 observations were log transformed and modelled as interval-censored Gaussian.

323 The individual mass model included date and date² in the fixed effects, which would allow for
324 a curved trend in proportional growth if appropriate (mass phenology model, Table S1). The
325 focal random terms were the tree taxa random intercepts and date slope. In addition to the
326 structural random terms, we included a date random slope for sites, allowing for spatial
327 variation in phenology. Year was included as a random intercept but not as a random slope in
328 order to aid model convergence, as mass data were only recorded since 2017. The residual
329 variance for each observation was modelled as $\frac{1}{n}VAR(u) + VAR(e)$ where n is the number of
330 caterpillars in the sample, $VAR(u)$ is the variance in individual caterpillar mass after
331 accounting for all other terms in the model, $VAR(e)$ is the residual variance which includes
332 variability in the true mean individual mass across samples and measurement error; thus
333 weighting the confidence in each sample by the number of caterpillar from which the mean per
334 caterpillar was calculated. To assess differences in the ultimate mass of a caterpillar on different
335 tree taxa during our sampling period, the posterior distributions of the fixed effects and tree
336 taxa random intercepts and slopes were used to calculate the predicted mass of an individual
337 caterpillar at day 168 (16th June), which corresponds to the latest date on which a caterpillar
338 has been sampled on each of the tree taxa.

339

340 *Caterpillar biomass*

341 Total biomass, the product of abundance and average individual mass, can be obtained by
342 exponentiating the sum of the linear predictors from the abundance and individual mass
343 models, since both were modelled on the log scale. Ideally a bivariate model would have been

344 used to allow for covariance between abundance and individual mass across random terms,
345 however due to the interval censoring required for the mass data this could not be implemented.
346 Instead, we used the posterior distributions of the two models to generate a posterior
347 distribution for the phenological distribution of total biomass. The same peak metrics as
348 discussed for the abundance results were calculated, with peak duration estimated at a total
349 biomass of 0.25mg.

350 Fixed effects were considered significant if the 95% credible intervals (CIs) did not overlap
351 zero. Random effects were considered significant if the lower credible interval for their
352 variance was removed from 0. We used the mean of the posterior distribution when estimating
353 effect sizes and the mode for reporting the random term variances. Where we present estimates
354 on the data scale these correspond to the median rather than the mean expectation on the data
355 scale. All models were run with sufficient iterations to ensure an effective sample size of >1000
356 for each focal parameter and convergence was assessed by visual inspection of the trace plots.
357 Parameter-expanded priors were used for all random effect (co)variances such that the marginal
358 priors for the variances were scaled $F_{1,1}$ with a scale of 100. An inverse gamma distribution
359 with shape=scale=0.002 was used for the residual variance. Default flat priors were used for
360 the fixed effects.

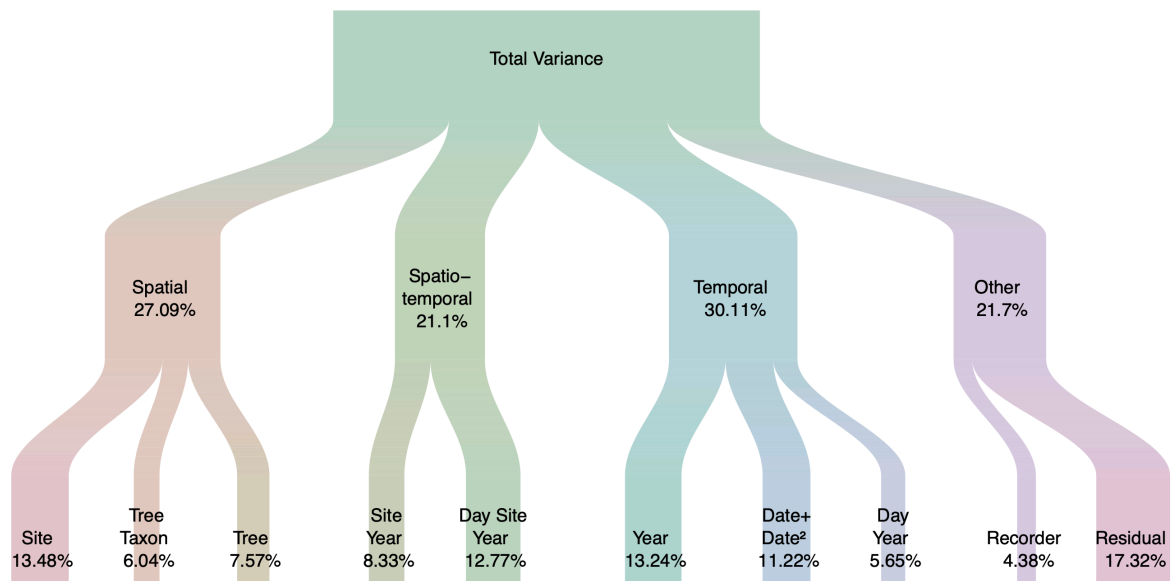
361 All results comparing caterpillar abundance, average individual mass or total biomass among
362 host tree taxa are presented primarily as deviations from the fixed effect prediction, which
363 represents an average tree taxon. In addition, to test the hypothesis that oak is exceptional as a
364 caterpillar resource we also estimate taxon effects as deviations from the prediction for oak,
365 described fully in Supplementary Information. The abundance and individual mass of
366 caterpillars are both modelled on the log scale, meaning that the exponent of coefficients

367 relating to differences in abundance, mass or peak height among tree taxa quantifies
368 proportional differences.

369

370 Results

371 Overall, we found that 9.2% of branch beating yielded at least one caterpillar. Where a
372 caterpillar was present, in 70.6% of cases there was just 1 and in 15.3% there were 2, with a
373 maximum abundance of 107, recorded during an outbreak at one of our sites during 2019.



374

375 Figure 3: Riverplot of the percentage variance composition of caterpillar abundance estimated
376 from terms in a Poisson GLMM (Table S2). All variables were included as random terms
377 except for Date+Date² which were included as numeric fixed effects to model the humped
378 shape of the phenological distribution.

379

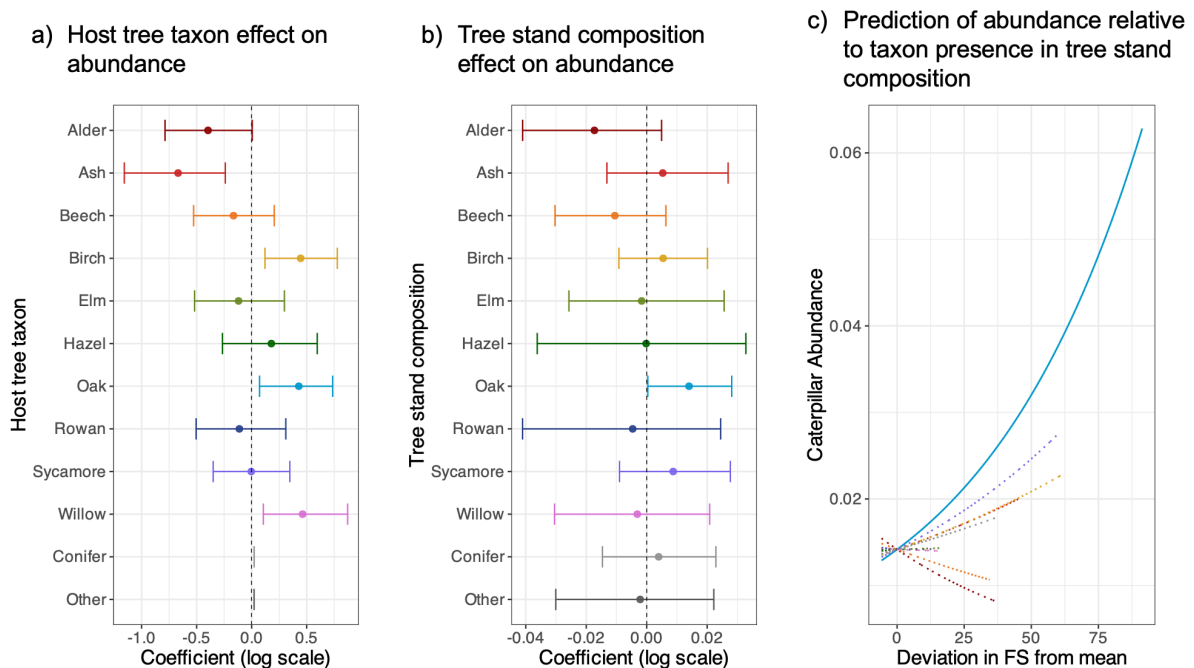
380

381 **Abundance**

382 *Partitioning variance in caterpillar abundance*

383 All variance posterior distributions in the abundance decomposition model (Table S1, S2) were
384 removed from zero, meaning that we have statistical support for each term. The spatial,
385 temporal and spatiotemporal components explained 78.30% (CIs: 73.24 – 83.83%) of the
386 variance, with temporal and spatial components explaining similar proportions, 30.11% (CIs:
387 20.93 - 43.09%) and 29.09% (CIs: 18.33 - 36.31%) respectively (Fig. 3). Host tree taxon
388 explained 6.04% (CIs: 1.36 – 13.40%) of the variance (Fig. 3).

389



390

391 Figure 4: a-b) Posterior mean and 95% credible intervals for random effects in a Poisson
392 GLMM (Table S3). Predicted coefficients for a) the log difference in abundance of caterpillars
393 (number of caterpillars) sampled from each host tree taxon (conifers and other deciduous trees
394 were not included) and b) the log change in caterpillar abundance on an average branch with
395 an increase in the amount of foliage of the tree taxon within the local tree stand composition
396 (globally mean centred foliage scores). c) Slope predictions from a Poisson GLMM (Table S3)
397 analyzing the change in caterpillar abundance with change in the amount of foliage of each tree
398 taxon present in the tree guild at each site (globally mean centered), colours consistent with
399 taxa in a) and b). The intercept falls at the mean foliage score (FS) of any taxon at any site and

400 mean total FS across all sites. Dotted and solid lines indicate a non-significant and significant
401 difference in slope from zero, respectively.

402

403 *Tree taxon effects on caterpillar abundance*

404 We found substantial variance in the abundance of caterpillars sampled among host tree taxa
405 in the habitat abundance model (Table S3). Ash (0.53 CIs: 0.28 - 0.75) hosts roughly half as
406 many caterpillars as an average tree taxon, whilst oak (1.56, CIs: 1.07 - 2.08), birch (1.58, CIs:
407 1.12 - 2.17) and willow (1.62, CIs: 1.03 - 2.26) all host roughly 1.5 times as many caterpillars
408 as an average tree (Fig. 4a). The results are also suggestive of alder hosting proportionally
409 fewer caterpillars than average, with the exponentiated coefficient posterior distribution CIs
410 falling below one (0.69, CIs: 0.43 – 0.96), though the log-scale coefficient posterior distribution
411 overlaps zero (-0.40, CIs: -0.79 – 0.01; Fig. 4a). In comparison with oak, six (alder, ash, beech,
412 elm, rowan and sycamore) of the nine other tree taxa support significantly fewer caterpillars
413 (Fig. S2).

414 We found that in general the stand-level foliage density was not associated with elevated
415 caterpillar abundance and also found no evidence that stand-level tree taxon composition
416 affects caterpillar abundance, with the variance posterior distribution not removed from zero
417 (Table S3). However, within the stand-level taxon effects we found some evidence of oak
418 exceptionalism, as the abundance of caterpillars increased with the stand-level amount of oak
419 foliage (Fig 4b-c). Across the range of oak foliage that we observe among our sites, the increase
420 in oak availability is associated with 5.52 (CIs: 1.14 – 11.20) times the caterpillar abundance
421 on a branch of any taxon moving from a woodland with no oak trees to one dominated by
422 mature oak trees (Fig. 4c).

423

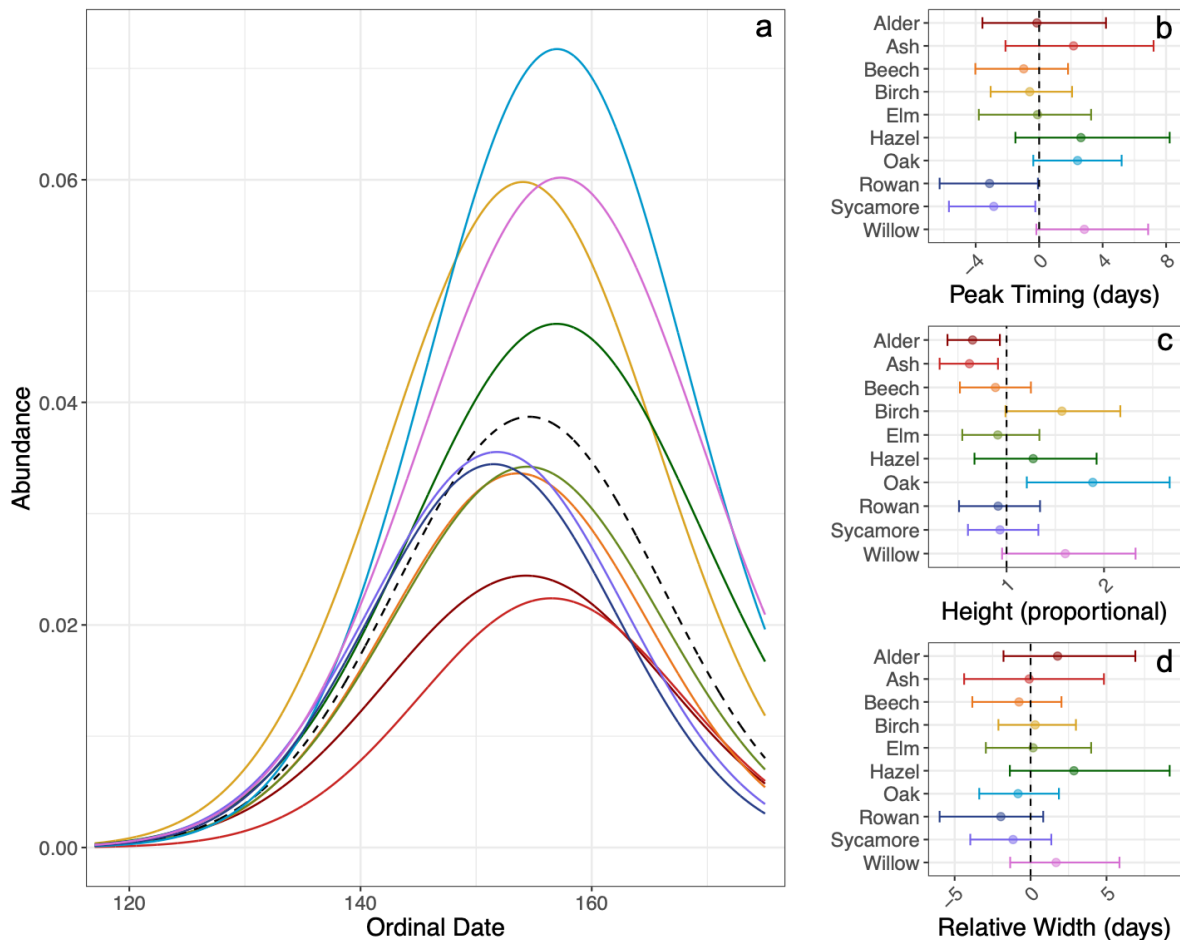
424

425 **Phenological distributions of Abundance, Mass and Biomass**

426 *Caterpillar abundance*

427 A humped seasonal trend in the temporal distribution of caterpillar abundance is apparent in
428 our data (Fig. S3) and supported by the significant negative quadratic date term from the
429 abundance phenology model (-0.76, CIs: -1.02 - -0.52, Table S4). We found substantial among
430 -host tree variance in intercepts and date slope effects, but not the date² effects (Table S4). For
431 the average tree taxon, in an average site and year, the predicted peak date is ordinal day 154.68
432 (CIs: 149.59 – 159.84) or 2nd/3rd June, with a peak height of 0.04 (CIs: 0.02 - 0.07) caterpillars
433 per branch, and peak width of 27.38 days (CIs: 23.03 – 31.95 days). The predicted duration of
434 the phenological distribution is 38.21 days (CIs: 28.19 – 49.56 days). When we calculated peak
435 duration, a small proportion (1%) of the posterior samples yielded NAs due to some iterations
436 either not predicting a negative quadratic term or predicting a peak height beneath the threshold
437 for peak duration. These iterations were excluded from calculations which will make the mean
438 and CIs slight underestimates.

439



440

441 Figure 5: Model predictions for the phenological distribution of caterpillar abundance (number
 442 of caterpillars) on branches of different tree taxa (Table S4). a) shows the model predictions
 443 for the phenological distribution of caterpillar abundance (ordinal date) for each tree taxon, the
 444 black dashed line depicts the prediction from the fixed effects. Plots b-d) show the difference
 445 between each tree taxon and the fixed effect prediction (indicated by a black dashed line at zero
 446 or one) for the b) timing of the peak, c) proportional change in the height of the peak (maximum
 447 abundance) and d) width of the peak at half of the height. The mean and 95% credible interval
 448 were calculated using the posterior distributions for the fixed effects and tree taxa random
 449 effects and interactions.

450

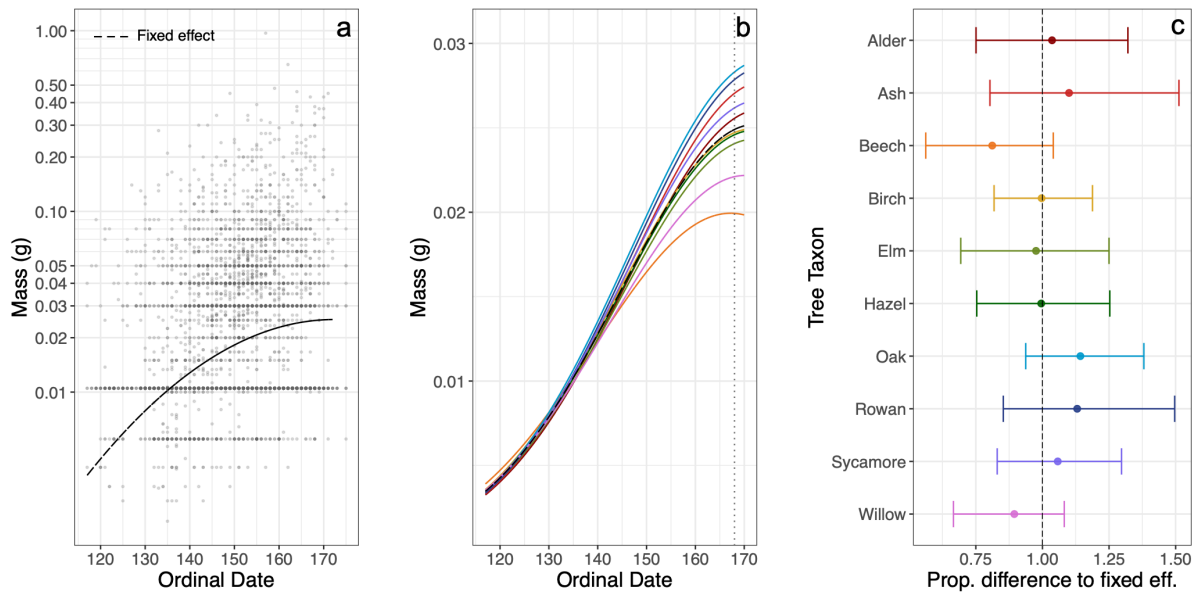
451 We found some evidence for among host tree taxon differences in the phenological
 452 distributions of caterpillar abundance (Fig. 5a). The peak timing of caterpillars on rowan (-
 453 3.12 days, CIs: -6.27 - -0.08) and sycamore (-2.86 days, CIs: -5.86 - 0.24) were significantly
 454 earlier than for the average taxon (Fig. 5b). The height of the peak in caterpillar abundance
 455 departed significantly from the average taxon for three taxa (Fig. 5c); alder (reaching 0.65, CIs:

456 0.39 - 0.93, times the average peak height), ash (0.62, CIs: 0.31 - 0.91) and oak (1.88, CIs: 1.21
457 - 2.67). The point estimates of peak height were relatively high for birch (1.57, CIs: 0.99 - 2.17)
458 and willow (1.60, CIs: 0.95 - 2.32), though the CIs include zero.

459 The width of the abundance phenological distribution did not significantly differ between any
460 host tree taxon (Fig. 5d). Due to the relatively consistent shape but variable peak height,
461 duration showed more variation among host taxa, lasting for 6.60 days (CIs: 0.15 – 14.47) and
462 8.67 days (CIs: 1.20 – 18.31 days) longer than the average taxon on oak and willow respectively
463 (Fig. S4); again the point estimate for birch (6.28 days, CIs: -0.11 - 13.44) was relatively high,
464 though the CIs included zero. The caterpillar phenological distribution on oak was found to be
465 significantly later than on beech, birch, rowan and sycamore, significantly higher than all tree
466 taxa tested except birch and willow and lasting for a significantly longer duration than peaks
467 on all tree taxa tested except birch, hazel and willow (Fig. S5).

468 When we tested for asymmetry in the caterpillar phenological abundance distribution (Table
469 S6), we found that the cubic term was significant (Table S7), but the resulting asymmetry in
470 the peak estimate was low (Fig. S9).

471



472

473 Figure 6: Model predictions for individual caterpillar mass over time (Table S5). a) Observed
 474 data (dots) and fixed effect prediction (line). b) Individual mass over time for caterpillars on
 475 each tree taxon, with the black dashed line showing the fixed effect trend from plot a). The
 476 grey dotted vertical line indicates the day 168 (16th June), the latest date with caterpillar mass
 477 data for all tree taxa. c) shows the posterior mean and 95% credible intervals for the
 478 proportional difference in day 168 mass between each tree taxon and the fixed effect prediction.

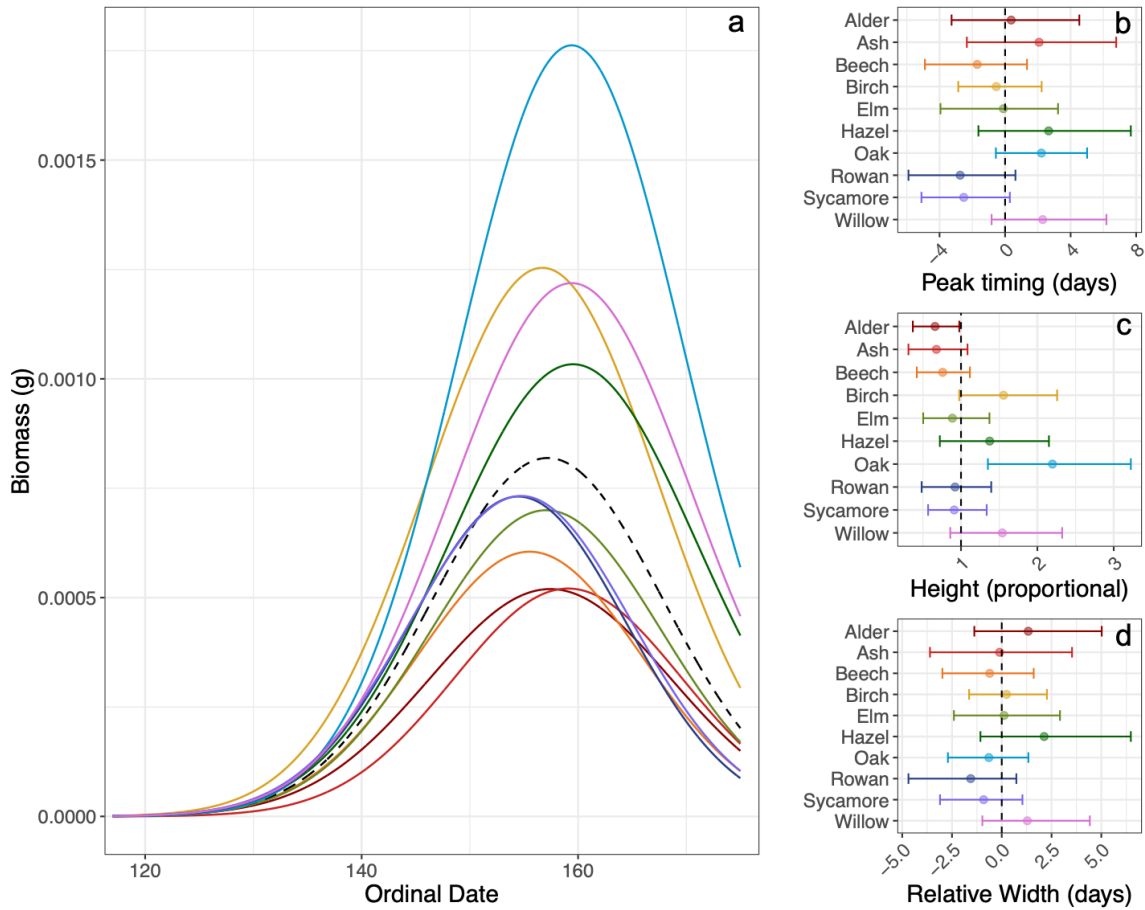
479 *Caterpillar mass*

480 Most caterpillars throughout spring weighed less than 0.1g, although caterpillars of up to 0.96g
 481 (n=1) were recorded (Fig. 6a). There was a pronounced trend for individual mass to increase
 482 over the course of the spring, with the rate of increase declining on the log scale (Fig. 6b, Table
 483 S5). The variances among tree taxa in the intercept and date slope were non-significant. The
 484 day 168 mass of individual caterpillars (in mid-June) predicted from the fixed effects was
 485 0.025g (CIs: 0.017 - 0.034g) for an average tree taxon. Whilst the curves and day 168 masses
 486 do not differ significantly between any tree taxon and the fixed effect trend (Fig. 6b-c), we
 487 found the ultimate mass of individual caterpillars was significantly lower for those sampled
 488 from beech compared to oak (Fig. S6). Willow had similarly low point estimate for ultimate
 489 individual mass when compared to oak, though the CIs included zero (Fig. S6).

490 *Caterpillar biomass*

491 Based on the fixed effects from the abundance and individual mass phenology models (Tables
492 S1, S4, S5), the predicted peak date for the total biomass phenological distribution on the
493 average host tree taxon is day 157.32 (CIs: 152.67 – 162.26), 5/6th June, two days later than
494 the peak in abundance. The total biomass peak height was predicted to be 0.9mg (CIs: 0.3 –
495 1.6mg) per branch, with a width of 25.23 days (CIs: 21.74 - 28.94), narrower than the
496 distribution of abundance, but with overlapping CIs. The peak duration was 32.89 days (CIs:
497 21.73 – 44.20) at a threshold of 0.25mg of caterpillars per branch. Similarly to the abundance
498 peaks, some iterations ($\leq 3\%$) produced NAs in the calculations of peak duration so the mean
499 and CIs are underestimates.

500 Whilst some slight differences in host taxon effects are visible depending on whether total
501 biomass (Fig 7) or abundance (Fig 5) is the focal metric, timing, height and width are broadly
502 consistent; though few effects are removed from zero for total biomass due to increased
503 uncertainty in the estimates. No taxon differs significantly in total biomass mean timing when
504 compared to the average tree taxa. For the peak height of total caterpillar biomass, oak is higher
505 than average, reaching 2.20 (CIs: 1.35 – 3.22) times the abundance of an average tree, whereas
506 alder is lower than average, reaching 0.66 (CIs: 0.37 – 0.98). No tree taxa differed in peak
507 width to the average taxon, but oak and willow lasted for significantly longer durations than
508 the average tree by 8.43 days (CIs: 1.67 – 16.48) and 7.28 days (CIs: 0.09 – 16.53) respectively.
509 When compared to oak, the biomass peak height point estimates and CIs for birch and willow
510 sit lower than the abundance peak height equivalents, though posteriors heavily overlap (Fig.
511 S5, S8).



512

513 Figure 7: Model predictions for the phenological distribution of total caterpillar biomass on
 514 branches of different tree taxa (based on models in Table S4+5). a) shows the model predictions
 515 for the phenological distribution of caterpillar biomass (ordinal date) for each tree taxon, the
 516 black dashed line depicts the prediction from the fixed effects. Plots b-d) show the difference
 517 between each tree taxon and the fixed effect prediction (indicated by a black dashed line at zero
 518 or one) for the b) timing of the peak, c) proportional change in the height of the peak (maximum
 519 biomass) and d) width of the peak at half of the height. The mean and 95% credible were
 520 calculated using the posterior distributions for the fixed effects and tree taxa random effects
 521 and interactions.

522

523

524

525 Discussion

526 We show evidence of substantial variation in the height of the caterpillar peak among tree taxa,
527 with some variation in mean timing and duration. Of the three scenarios presented in Figure 1
528 (e-g), we find most support for the exceptional host hypothesis (Fig 1g). The most exceptional
529 host taxon identified was oak, with caterpillar abundance and total biomass being elevated on
530 oak compared with most other species, and oak dominance in woodlands having a positive
531 stand-level impact on caterpillar abundance. However, we find the caterpillar peak height on
532 birch and willow to be broadly comparable to oak (Fig 1e), consistent with Shutt et al. (2019a),
533 whilst the peaks on alder and ash reach lower heights than average. We also did not find any
534 evidence for oak exceptionalism in terms of the average mass of individual caterpillars. At the
535 host-level, we find effects of tree taxon on the timing of phenological distributions for
536 abundance. Mean timing of the phenological distribution of caterpillar abundance falls earlier
537 on rowan and sycamore trees than on an average taxon (Fig. 5b), however we note that the 3-
538 day difference in timing estimated is a relatively small effect size and we suggest this is likely
539 to contribute little to the buffering potential. Whilst the width of the peak varies rather little
540 among tree taxa (Fig 5d, 7d), the height and width of each taxon taken together result in the
541 duration of peaks on oak and willow lasting for roughly a week longer than for the average tree
542 taxon (Fig. S4). We find minimal evidence for individual caterpillar mass gain differing among
543 host tree taxa, and therefore, most of the among tree taxon differences in aspects of the
544 phenological distribution of total biomass track the trends that we observe for abundance, albeit
545 with broader credible intervals.

546 The positive stand-level impact of oak foliage density on caterpillar abundance (Fig. 4c),
547 suggests that oak-dominated woodlands may be unique in the numbers of spring caterpillars
548 that they support. This stand-level effect may be due to a combination of high caterpillar

549 abundance on oaks and dispersal to other taxa, either via oak-raised females laying eggs or
550 dispersal of caterpillars from oaks to other trees in spring. Another possibility is that oaks
551 represent especially good hosts to generalist species, as was found earlier for the generalist
552 winter moth (Shutt et al 2019), which could then mean that species dispersing from oak may
553 be more likely to find a suitable host. Why stand-level impacts arise for oaks but not for other
554 tree taxa that have a positive host-level impact on caterpillar abundance, such as willow, may
555 be attributable to the greater size of oak. The crown areas and heights of oaks generally surpass
556 most other tree taxa considered here, and may influence the likelihood of dispersal throughout
557 an area for both the caterpillars and adults, particularly for species with wingless Lepidoptera
558 females such as *Operophtera* spp., that made up 38% of previously identified samples in from
559 these sites (Shutt *et al.* 2019a).

560 Our finding that caterpillar abundance on oak reaches a high peak but for a relatively short time
561 period agrees with previous work (van Balen 1973; Varley *et al.* 1974; Visser *et al.* 2006; Veen
562 *et al.* 2010), but we find this is similar to the abundance peaks observed on birch and willow.
563 This positive host-level effect on caterpillar abundance must arise through either elevated
564 survival through the life cycle, higher fecundity, greater species richness or a combination of
565 these effects. A recent laboratory study has shown the developmental duration, mass at
566 pupation and female fecundity of winter moth caterpillars to be lower when reared on oak
567 foliage compared to a range of taxa, including lower fecundity and pupal mass than on birch
568 *B. pendula* and willow *S. alba* and lower survival than on willow (Weir 2023). Winter moth
569 make up approximately a third of individuals sampled from the caterpillar guild across our
570 study sites (Shutt *et al.* 2019a), and these differing insights into the value of oak obtained in
571 the field and laboratory are challenging to reconcile. One potential explanation is that winter
572 moth caterpillar survival in-situ is distinct from that measured in the laboratory, possibly
573 influenced by factors such as parasitism and predation or the density of leaves as a food source

574 and their distribution across the tree. For birch and willow however, the high abundances
575 reached *in-situ* may well be associated with the higher than average fecundity of caterpillars
576 reared on them (Weir 2023). Conversely, those reared on alder had substantially lower survival
577 and fecundity which suggests alder may serve as a sink habitat for some species (Weir 2023),
578 in agreement with the low abundances we identified *in-situ*.

579 An implication of particularly high abundance and total biomass hosted by oak is that the
580 common practice of monitoring caterpillar prevalence purely on oak (Visser *et al.* 2006; Smith
581 *et al.* 2011; Hinks *et al.* 2015; Burgess *et al.* 2018) is liable to overlook spatial-heterogeneity
582 in caterpillar abundance both between locations and within larger sites. Nonetheless, the
583 elevated caterpillar abundance on oak and in oak-dominated woodlands may make these
584 habitats the most important to consumers, more so than birch and willow when considering the
585 additional stand-level effect. Oak woodlands possibly act as a source that contributes to the
586 repopulation of areas with lower consumer breeding success, as the prevalence of oak within a
587 stand has been shown to increase blue tit fledging success (Shutt *et al.* 2018).

588 Whilst oak is often used as a baseline for comparison with other woodland compositions (Mägi
589 *et al.* 2009), the high abundance and total biomass of caterpillars this taxon hosts appears to be
590 unrepresentative of certain other woodland types across the UK (Stagg & Ward 2019). In fact,
591 our results suggest the phenological distribution of caterpillars on beech, elm, hazel, rowan and
592 sycamore are more representative of an average deciduous tree taxon. Analysis of this
593 substantially expanded data set broadly agrees with previous findings that alongside oak,
594 willow and birch host greater/longer caterpillar abundances than the average tree, whilst alder
595 and ash host lower abundances (Shutt *et al.* 2019a). As this study considers abundance at the
596 caterpillar guild level it is unclear whether host taxon impacts on abundance are across a range
597 of caterpillar species or instead arise via turnover, with some tree taxa hosting greater diversity

598 than others (Narango et al., 2020). Consistent with this latter explanation, Shutt et al. (2019a)
599 found that oak, willow and birch hosted the greatest species richness of caterpillars within our
600 study system, a finding supported by work on Lepidopteran diversity across the United States
601 (Narango et al., 2020). Our results suggest that the seasonal peak in abundance contributes
602 more than individual mass in dictating the timing of the total biomass peak and the among tree
603 taxa differences in the phenological distribution. We find that the individual mass of the
604 sampled caterpillar guild increases rapidly in early spring before asymptoting (Fig. 6), with
605 minimal difference in caterpillar growth rate and individual mass at the end of spring.
606 Caterpillars sampled from beech, however, weighed significantly less than those sampled from
607 oak (Fig. S6), consistent with results from rearing experiments using winter moth (*O. brumata*)
608 (Feeny 1970; Wint 1983). Our measure of individual mass will have captured various processes
609 including individual growth, and the appearance and disappearance of species from the guild
610 through both varied phenologies among caterpillar species and turnover between sites. The
611 guild level individual mass pattern therefore does not necessarily represent the growth curve
612 of any particular caterpillar species and is of most relevance when considering the guild's
613 involvement in trophic interactions and estimations of the relative contributions of individual
614 mass and abundance to total guild biomass.

615 Our work suggests that the potential for woodland stand tree composition to alter the
616 consequences of trophic asynchrony may be stronger than previously appreciated (Bell *et al.*
617 2019; Shutt *et al.* 2019a), as we have identified further differences in the caterpillar peak among
618 tree taxa, particularly in peak height but also some deviations in duration and timing. As the
619 composition of tree taxa varies in space, within and between woodlands, the differences in peak
620 height that we observe among tree taxa are expected to result in geographic variation in
621 caterpillar abundance. The phenological distribution of caterpillar abundance and total biomass
622 on oak and willow lasts for six-eight days longer than on the average tree taxon and the

623 phenological distribution on oak lasts for longer than on alder, ash, beech, elm, rowan and
624 sycamore by roughly 10-15 days (Fig. S5, S8). The extended duration of the peak on oak and
625 willow prolongs the period of attack by herbivores and of resource availability for consumers
626 from an average of 5.5 weeks to 6.5 weeks (at the level duration was measured at). Given many
627 breeding passerines will feed young in the nest for up to three weeks, an additional week of
628 resource availability may have substantial benefits for late or early birds. The lack of variation
629 in peak width suggests that the shape of the peak does not differ substantially among taxa and
630 thus the extended duration of the peak is predominantly associated with higher abundances of
631 caterpillars and not a low but wide peak for some taxa. The distinction in duration between oak
632 and willow and other taxa suggests the phenological distribution may vary substantially in
633 duration between an oak- or willow-dominated woodland and one with a mixed composition,
634 which may make the consequences of asynchrony more pronounced in woodlands that lack a
635 substantial oak or willow component. Our results suggest that the within-site peak duration is
636 unlikely to be greatly influenced by differences in mean timing among taxa as a three-day
637 deviation from average is small relative to 5-6 week peak duration.

638 Whilst oak woodlands are thought of as the preferred habitat for many woodland passerines,
639 many species breed and forage across a range of woodland compositions (Perrins 1979;
640 Hagemeyer & Blair 1997; Simms 1971) and oak is not abundant across all woodland (Stagg &
641 Ward 2019). In a mixed woodland, blue tits and great tits were found to spend more time
642 foraging on oak than expected based on their prevalence, however they also spend longer than
643 expected foraging on birch and sycamore trees (Peck 1989). A greater foraging effort by birds
644 on oak and birch (Peck 1989), that we found host higher caterpillar abundances, may mean we
645 have underestimated the extent of their true peak height, as would be estimated in the absence
646 of natural predation (Böhm *et al.* 2011). The variation we have identified in the phenological
647 distribution of caterpillars among tree taxa suggests that extending the study of the MMH into

648 more varied woodland tree compositions will be key for understanding spatial variation in
649 trophic interactions and how reforestation efforts might alter a key herbivorous guild.

650 Tree stand composition can be manipulated by foresters and land managers and here we
651 examine the implications of our findings in this context. First, in general, increased defoliation
652 negatively impacts on tree health and productivity (Kulman 1971; Whittaker & Warrington
653 1985; Whitham *et al.* 1991; Marquis & Whelan 1994). Winter moth, the most common species
654 in our study system (Shutt *et al.* 2019a), exhibits cyclic population dynamics with outbreaks
655 causing severe defoliation (Tenow 1972; Hogstad 1997), also observed at one of our sites
656 during spring 2019. Defoliation may be minimised if there is a lower density of oak, thereby
657 preventing the additive effect it has on the abundance of caterpillars throughout the local tree
658 stand. However, with the exception of oak, caterpillar abundance appeared to be insensitive to
659 the amount of other tree taxa present at the stand-level. The second implication relates to the
660 conservation of consumer populations for whom more caterpillars are expected to be
661 beneficial, though the importance of resource abundance versus resource timing relative to
662 breeding is relatively underexplored (but see Naef-Daenzer and Keller, 1999; Ramakers,
663 Gienapp and Visser, 2019). The high density of prey in oak woodlands is thought to be a driver
664 of preference for this habitat by some breeding passerines (Perrins 1979). When considering
665 consumer foraging effort, our results predict that on average a consumer foraging on an oak
666 will encounter three times as many caterpillars per branch than when foraging on an alder or
667 ash (Fig S5). For the benefit of consumers, the site-level peak height should be maximised
668 through the addition of oak, willow and birch, though oak is likely to be of most benefit due to
669 the additional stand-level effect on caterpillar abundance. The addition of oak and willow may
670 also extend the duration of the caterpillar peak, potentially providing a valuable phenological
671 buffer for early emerging caterpillars (Weir & Phillimore 2024). Our study also reveals
672 substantial site and site-by-year effects in the phenological distribution of caterpillar abundance

673 (Table S4), and some site effects on individual mass (Table S5), which implies that factors in
674 addition to woodland composition, as we have measured it, play an important role (Fig. 3). For
675 example, elevational gradients may influence the phenological distribution of caterpillars via
676 the effect of spatial temperature in space (Macphie *et al.* 2023).

677 In this study we have relied on repeated beating of a consistent length of marked branch as a
678 standardised approach to caterpillar sampling. With this approach we cannot exclude the
679 possibility that some of the differences in caterpillar abundance that we attribute to tree taxon
680 actually arise from differences in structure and leaf area. However, such structural differences
681 among tree taxa are unlikely to impact on our estimates of timing, duration or individual mass.
682 Whether branch beating affects the defences produced by a branch and whether this impact
683 varies among tree taxa is unknown. It also remains to be tested whether the phenology
684 estimated from repeated branch beating departs from the true phenological distribution of a tree
685 due to removal of caterpillars or whether recolonisation is sufficiently rapid to minimise such
686 effects. In this study we have identified certain trees to genus rather than species level, due to
687 evidence of extensive hybridisation (Shutt *et al.* 2019a), and this precludes examination of
688 intra-generic differences in phenology and abundance.

689 In summary, across 44 woodland sites we find partial support for oak providing an exceptional
690 resource to the spring-feeding caterpillar guild. On a local scale this means that the contribution
691 of tree species to phenological buffering may be quite limited. However, on a landscape scale
692 our finding that additional tree taxa, particularly birch and willow, can provide an important
693 resource and enhance the potential for woodlands that lack oak to contribute to buffering via
694 spatial portfolio effects. Our findings have applications in woodland management and
695 reforestation for the conservation of woodland lepidopteran and insectivore communities.

696

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896

897 Tree taxon effects on the phenology of caterpillar
 898 abundance and biomass: Supplementary Information

899

900 Supplementary Methods

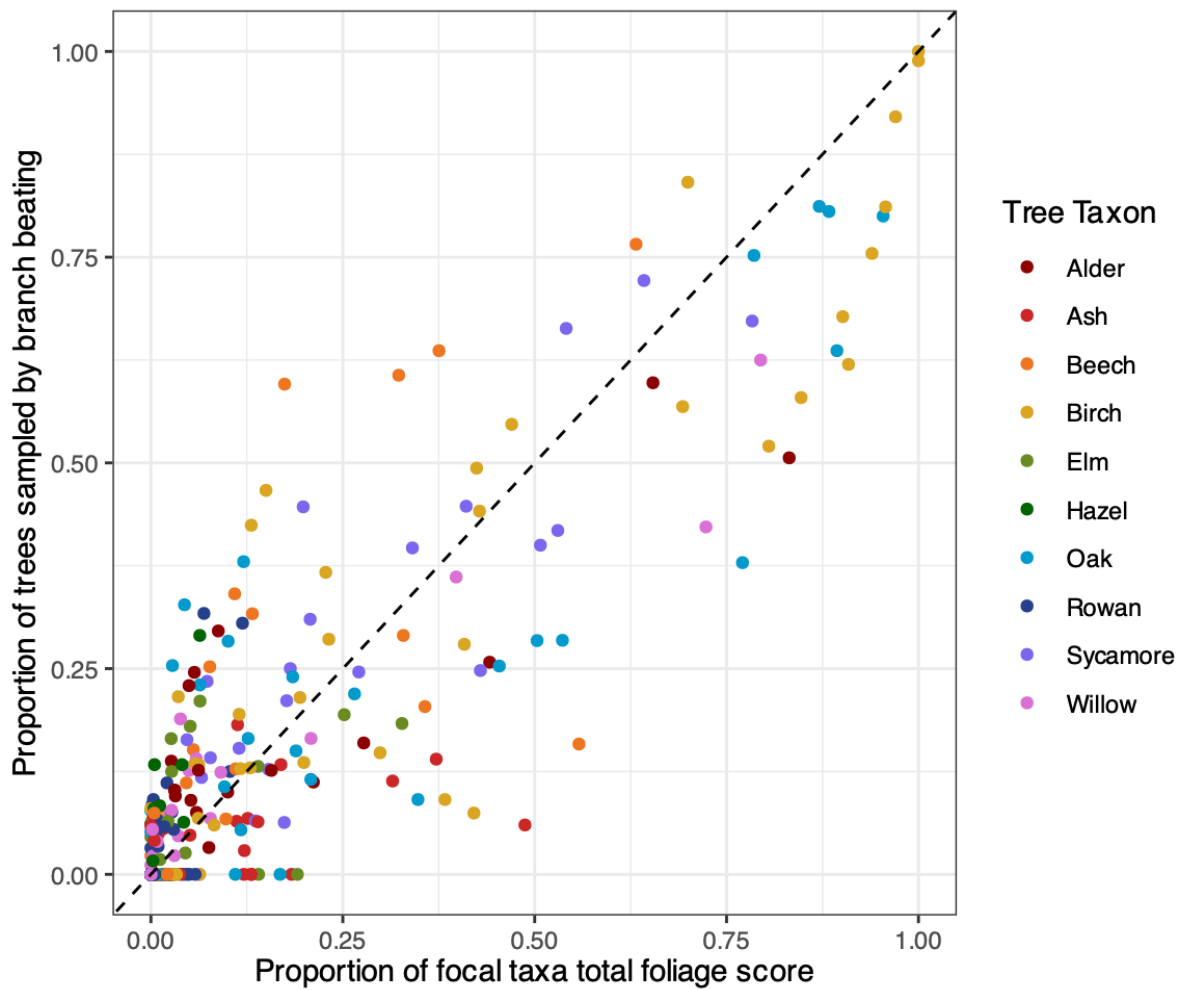
901 Table S1: Terms included in abundance and mass models. Date refers to ordinal date, which
 902 was z-transformed (mean = 147.47, SD = 14.19), year was included as a factor and woodland
 903 composition refers to multi-membership component explained in the text. Int = intercept, abund
 904 = abundance, VCV = variances and covariances.

Model	Abundance decomposition (Table S2)	Habitat abundance (Table S3)	Abundance phenology model (Table S4)	Mass phenology model (Table S5)*
Motivation	Decomposition of variance in abundance	Differences in the abundance of caterpillars among tree taxa and effect of woodland density and composition	Differences in phenological distribution of caterpillar abundance among tree taxa	Differences in phenological distribution of caterpillar mass among tree taxa
Response variable	Caterpillar abundance	Caterpillar abundance	Caterpillar abundance	log(Mean mass per caterpillar)
Fixed effects	Date Date ²	Total foliage score	Date Date ²	Date Date ²
Random terms	Site Tree taxa Tree ID Site by year Day by site by year Year Year-day Recorder	Tree taxa Woodland-composition Site Year Site by year Day by site by year Tree ID Recorder	Int, Date and Date ² VCV across Tree taxa Int, Date and Date ² VCV across Site Int, Date and Date ² VCV across Year Site by year Day by site by year Tree ID Recorder	Int and Date VCV across Tree taxa Int and Date VCV across Site Year Site by year Sqrt(1/abund) VCV across observations Day by site by year Tree ID Recorder
Family	Poisson	Poisson	Poisson	Censored-Gaussian
MCMC Iterations (thinning intervals)	4000000 (1500)	9000000 (2500)	3300000 (1000)	2500000 (2000) 2500000 (2000) 2500000 (2000)
Burnin	100000	500000	300000	500000 for each
Posterior Sample Size	2600	3400	3000	3000 (1000 x3)

905 *Mass phenology model was run as three chains that were then combined

906

907 Sampled trees vs local stand tree composition



908

909 Figure S1: Taxon-specific proportion of trees sampled via branch beating at each site across
910 years plotted against the taxon-specific proportion of the total foliage score among focal tree
911 taxa (those sampled in branch beating), coloured by tree taxon. Dashed black line shows 1:1
912 relationship. Data points where the proportion of the total foliage score = 0 but the proportion
913 of sampled trees > 0 can occur because habitat surveys are conducted at a 15m radius around
914 installed nestboxes, whilst some beaten trees fall between nest boxes.

915

916

917 Supplementary results

918 We found that alder, ash, beech, elm, rowan and sycamore all support significantly fewer
919 caterpillars than oak (Fig. S2), hosting 0.44 (CIs: 0.30 - 0.58), 0.34 (CIs: 0.21 - 0.49), 0.56
920 (CIs: 0.42 - 0.72), 0.59 (CIs: 0.40 - 0.78), 0.59 (CIs: 0.39 - 0.79) and 0.66 (CIs: 0.51 - 0.80)
921 times as many caterpillars respectively.

922

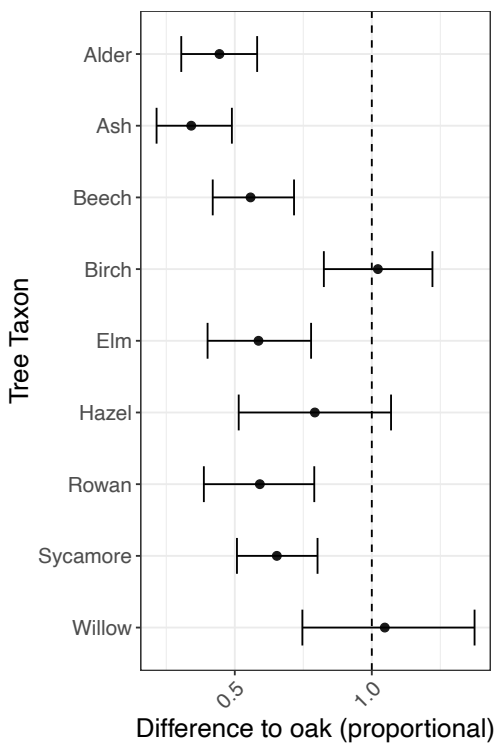


Figure S2: Posterior mean and 95% credible intervals of the model prediction for the proportional difference in caterpillar abundance between each tree taxon and oak. Calculated from tree taxa random effects in a Poisson GLMM (Table S3). Black dashed line at 1.0 indicates no difference to oak/significance threshold.

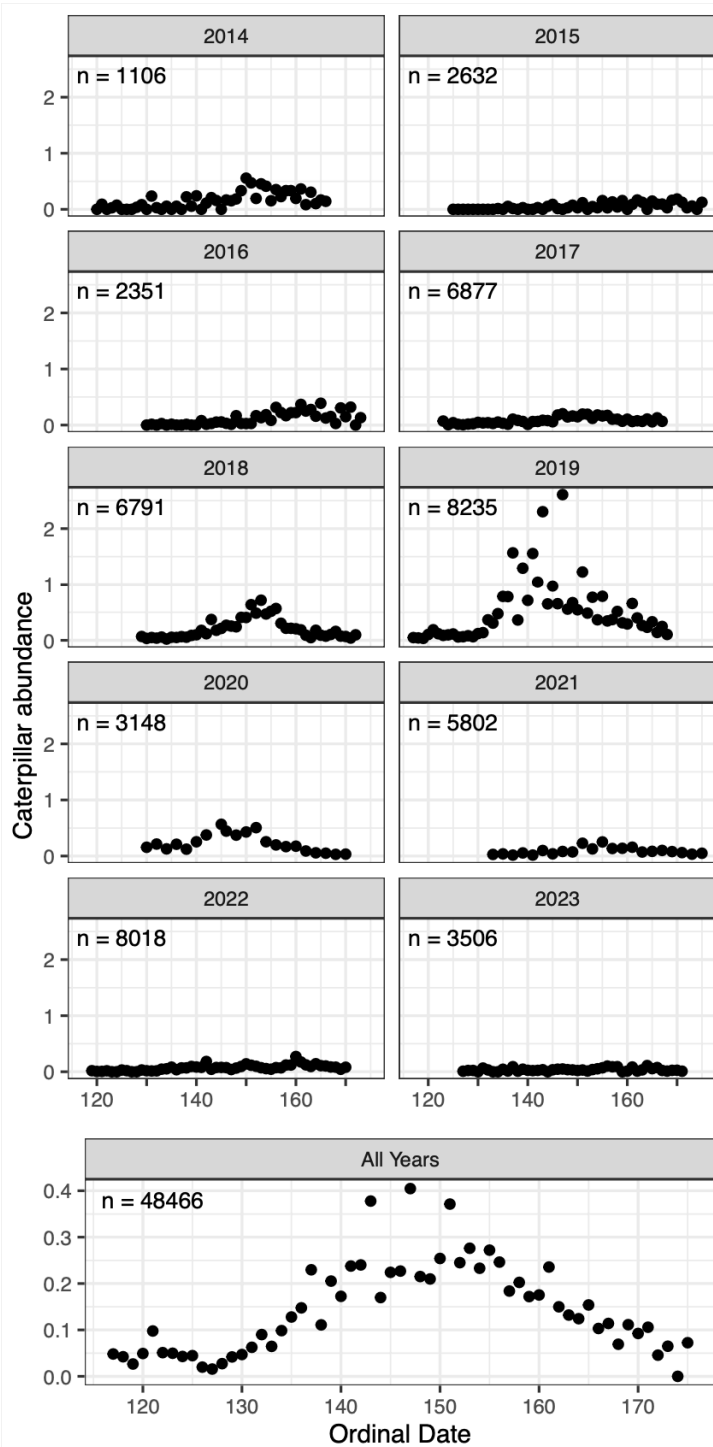


Figure S3: Plots shows the mean abundance of caterpillars sampled on each day among sites for each year and as the mean across all years; n shows the number of branch beatings carried out in each year or across all years.

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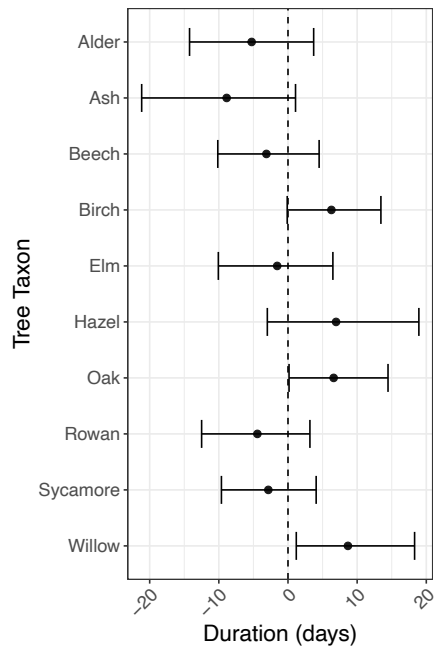
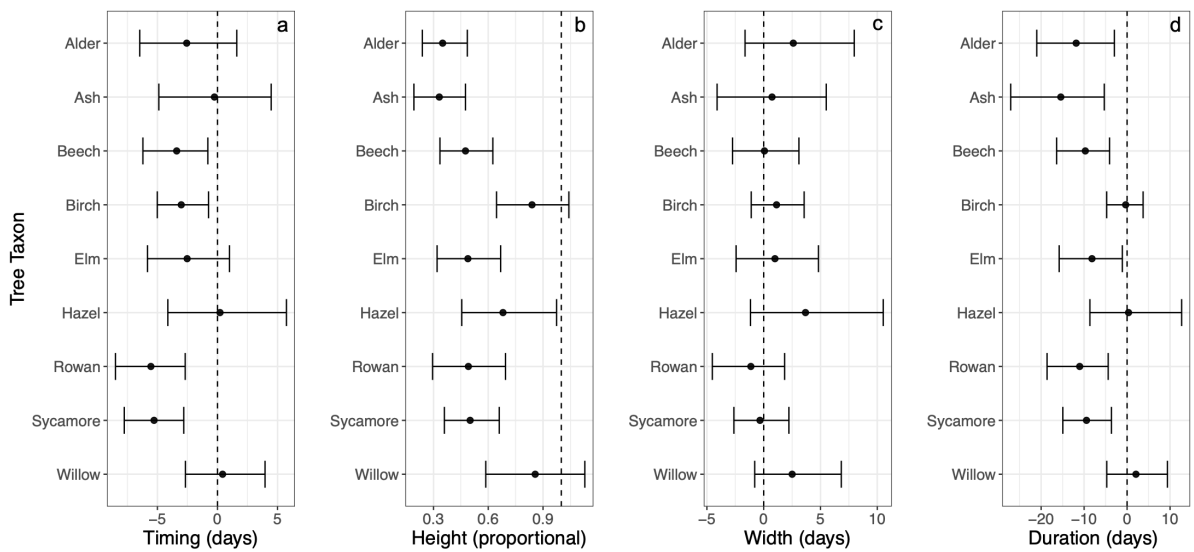


Figure S4: Posterior mean and 95% credible intervals for model prediction of the difference in peak duration (at an abundance of 0.01 caterpillars) for each taxon compared to the fixed effect trend. Calculated from the posterior distributions for the fixed effects and tree taxa random effects and interactions in a Poisson GLMM (Table S4).

972

973



974

975 Figure S5: Posterior mean and 95% credible intervals for (Table S4) predictions of the
 976 difference between each tree taxon and oak for different properties of the phenological
 977 distribution of caterpillar abundance in spring, calculated from the posterior distributions for
 978 the fixed effects and tree taxa random effects and interactions. Plots show a) the difference in
 979 the timing of the peak in abundance, b) the proportional difference in the height of the peak
 980 (maximum abundance), c) the difference in the peak width at half of the peak height and d) the
 981 difference in the duration of the peak (at a set abundance of 0.01 caterpillars).

982

983 When comparing the abundance peak metrics of each taxon to the peak on oak we found a
984 greater number of significant differences than compared to the average trend. The peak was
985 significantly later than on oak than on beech (3.40 days, CIs: 0.80 - 6.21), birch (3.01 days,
986 CIs: 0.74 – 5.01), rowan (5.54 days, CIs: 2.81 – 7.76) and sycamore (5.28, CIs: 2.81 – 7.76)
987 trees (Fig. S5a). The peak on alder, ash, beech, elm, hazel, rowan and sycamore were all found
988 to have a significantly lower height, reaching 0.35 (CIs: 0.24 - 0.49), 0.33 (CIs: 0.19 - 0.48),
989 0.48 (CIs: 0.34 - 0.63), 0.49 (CIs: 0.32 - 0.67), 0.68 (CIs: 0.46 – 0.97), 0.49 (CIs: 0.30 - 0.69)
990 and 0.50 (CIs: 0.36 - 0.66) times the height of the peak on oak trees, respectively (Fig. S5b).
991 The width of the peak at half the height did not differ significantly between any taxon and oak
992 (Fig. S5c). The peaks on alder, ash, beech, elm, rowan and sycamore last for a significantly
993 shorter duration by -11.84 (CIs: -21.01 - -2.95), -15.42 (CIs: -27.08 - -5.31), -9.72 (CIs: -16.39
994 - -4.07), -8.17 (CIs: -15.80 - -1.11), -11.03 (CIs: -18.62 - -4.40) and -9.45 (CIs: -14.95 - -3.65)
995 days respectively (Fig. S5d).

996

997 When comparing the day 168 mass of caterpillars on each tree taxa to those from oak, I found
998 caterpillars sampled from beech weighed significantly less at 0.72 (0.49 - 0.99) times the mass
999 of those sampled from oak (Fig. S6).

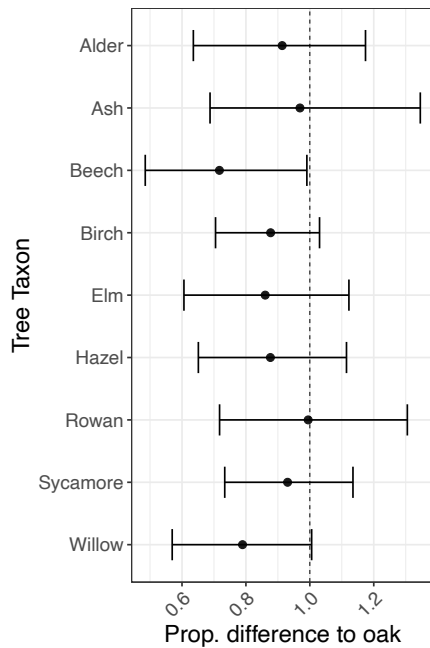


Figure S6: Posterior mean and 95% credible intervals for model predictions of the proportional difference in caterpillar mass between each tree taxon and caterpillars sampled from oak (Table S5). Calculated for day 168 (16th June) for the average year and site, the latest date with caterpillar mass data for all tree taxa, using the posterior distributions for all fixed effect parameters and tree taxa random effects and interactions in a censored-gaussian GLMM.

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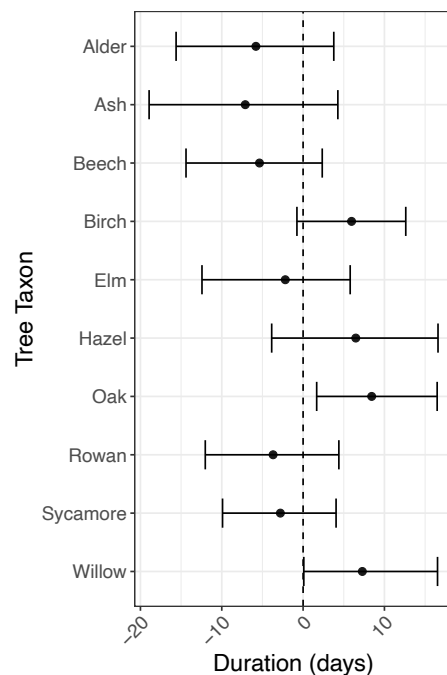
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1018 Figure S7: Posterior mean and 95% credible intervals
 1019 for model prediction of the difference in peak duration
 1020 (at a biomass of 0.25mg of caterpillars) for each taxon
 1021 compared to the fixed effect trend (Table S4+5).
 1022 Calculated from the posterior distributions for the fixed
 1023 effects and tree taxa random effects and interactions in
 1024 a bivariate censored-gaussian (mass) and Poisson
 1025 (abundance) GLMM.



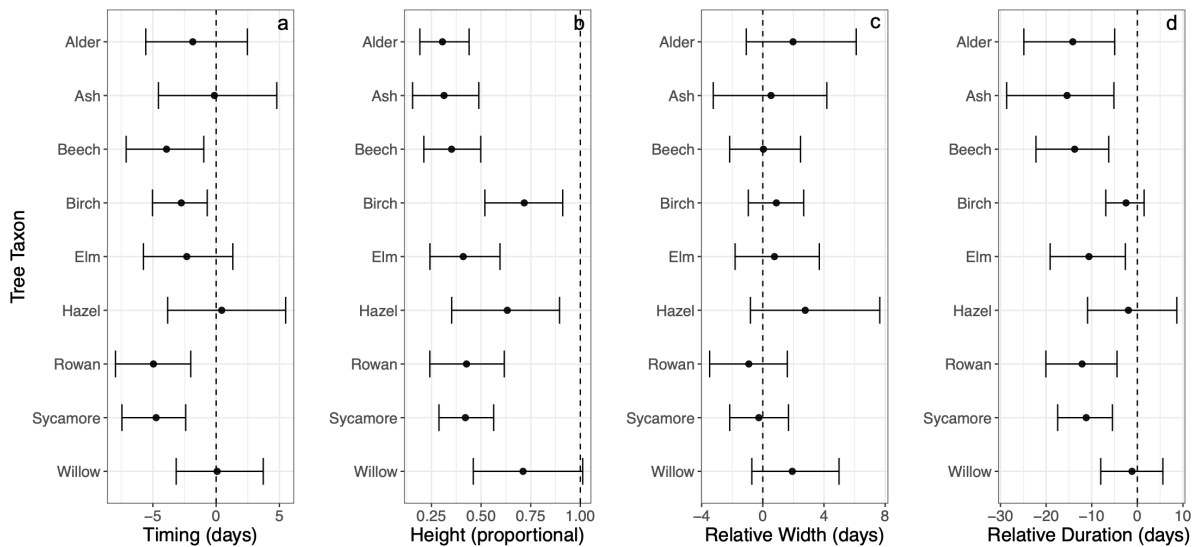
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1028 As with the distributions of caterpillar abundance among tree taxa, there were multiple
 1029 differences between each taxon and oak in the biomass peak metrics (Fig. S8). The peak on
 1030 beech, birch, rowan and sycamore trees was significantly earlier than on oak by -3.92 (CIs: -
 1031 7.11 - -0.98), -2.75 (CIs: -5.03 - -0.71), -4.96 (CIs: -7.95 - 2.01) and -4.74 (CIs: -7.44 - -2.41)

1032 days respectively (Fig. S8). The biomass peaks on all tree taxa except willow were found to
 1033 have a significantly lower height than oak; with alder reaching 0.31 (CIs: 0.19 - 0.44) times the
 1034 height of the peak on oak trees), ash 0.31 (CIs: 0.15 - 0.49), beech 0.35 (CIs: 0.21 - 0.50), birch
 1035 0.72 (CIs: 0.52 - 0.91), elm 0.41 (CIs: 0.24 - 0.60), hazel 0.63 (CIs: 0.35 - 0.90), rowan 0.43
 1036 (CIs: 0.24 – 0.62) and sycamore 0.42 (CIs: 0.29 – 0.56). The width of the peak at half the height
 1037 did not differ to oak on any taxa. The peak duration on lasted for a significantly shorter duration
 1038 on the following taxa than on oak by: alder -14.15 days (CIs: -24.88 - -4.97), ash -15.41 days
 1039 (CIs: -28.64 - -5.14), beech -13.74 days (CIs: -22.22 - -6.27), elm -10.06 days (CIs: -19.11 - -
 1040 2.63), rowan -12.11 days (CIs: -20.05 - -4.45) and sycamore -11.22 days (CIs: -17.46 - -5.47)
 1041 (Fig. S8).

1042



1043

1044 Figure S8: Posterior mean and 95% credible intervals for combined censored-gaussian (mass)
 1045 and Poisson (abundance) GLMM (Table S4+5) predictions of the difference between each tree
 1046 taxon and oak for different properties of the phenological distribution of caterpillar biomass in
 1047 spring, calculated from the posterior distributions for the fixed effects and tree taxa random
 1048 effects and interactions. Plots show a) the difference in the timing of the peak in biomass, b)
 1049 the proportional difference in the height of the peak (maximum biomass), c) the difference in
 1050 the peak width at half of the peak height and d) the difference in the duration of the peak (at a
 1051 set biomass of 0.25mg of caterpillars).

1052 **Model output tables**

1053

1054 Table S2: Poisson GLMM for variance composition of caterpillar abundance. Date refers to
 1055 ordinal date (scaled: mean = 147.4742, SD =14.19027).

	Coefficient/Variance (Mean/mode and CI)	Effective sample size
<u>Fixed Terms</u>		
Intercept	-3.527 (-4.128 - -2.904)	2600
Date (scaled)	0.453 (0.381 - 0.527)	2456
Date ² (scaled)	-0.441 (-0.513 - -0.371)	2600
<u>Random Terms</u>		
Site	0.464 (0.273 - 0.82)	2041
Tree ID	0.288 (0.24 - 0.354)	2600
Tree Taxa	0.15 (0.051 - 0.55)	1963
Site Day	0.482 (0.42 - 0.577)	2288
Day	0.21 (0.165 - 0.284)	2418
Site Year	0.333 (0.247 - 0.412)	2470
Year	0.301 (0.119 - 1.252)	1024
Recorder	0.129 (0.066 - 0.291)	2183
Residual	0.684 (0.589 - 0.755)	2600

1056

1057 Table S3: Poisson GLMM analysing differences in caterpillar abundance between the different
 1058 tree taxa sampled, the effect of site foliage density and the effect of the amount of foliage of
 1059 each tree taxon within the local woodland composition, included using multi-membership.

	Coefficient/Variance (Mean/mode and CI)	Effective sample size
<u>Fixed Terms</u>		
Intercept	-4.257 (-4.947 - -3.554)	3400
Total Foliage Score	0.002 (-0.014 - 0.018)	3106
<u>Random Terms</u>		
Sampled Tree Taxa	0.165 (0.043 - 0.539)	2693
Habitat Composition	0 (0 - 0.001)	1330
Site	0.246 (0.131 - 0.506)	2937
Year	0.35 (0.107 - 1.135)	1900
Site Year	0.296 (0.223 - 0.39)	3400
Tree ID	0.295 (0.232 - 0.346)	3400
Site Day	0.965 (0.87 - 1.078)	3400
Recorder	0.202 (0.094 - 0.385)	3400
Residual	0.68 (0.593 - 0.757)	3400

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Table S4: Poisson GLMM for analysing variations among tree taxa in the phenological distribution of caterpillar abundance throughout spring. Date refers to ordinal date (scaled: mean = 147.4742, SD =14.19027).

	Coefficient/Variance (Mean/mode and CI)	Effective sample size
<u>Fixed Terms</u>		
Intercept	-3.443 (-4.196 - -2.72)	3000
Date (scaled)	0.763 (0.249 - 1.34)	3000
Date ² (scaled)	-0.761 (-1.018 - -0.524)	3000
<u>Random Terms</u>		
TreeTaxa- Intercept var	0.146 (0.038 - 0.629)	1477
TreeTaxa- Intercept:Date slope covar	0.004 (-0.117 - 0.131)	3000
TreeTaxa- Intercept:Date ² slope covar	-0.001 (-0.075 - 0.06)	2817
TreeTaxa- Date slope var	0.037 (0.011 - 0.21)	2347
TreeTaxa- Date slope:Date ² slope covar	0 (-0.029 - 0.047)	2975
TreeTaxa- Date ² slope var	0 (0 - 0.068)	2793
Site- Intercept var	0.717 (0.445 - 1.222)	3000
Site- Intercept:Date slope covar	-0.138 (-0.32 - 0.017)	3000
Site- Intercept:Date ² slope covar	-0.184 (-0.341 - -0.102)	3000
Site- Date slope var	0.222 (0.149 - 0.422)	2721
Site- Date slope:Date ² slope covar	0.033 (-0.026 - 0.086)	2742
Site- Date ² slope var	0.067 (0.035 - 0.126)	2805
Year- Intercept var	0.439 (0.214 - 1.889)	1431
Year- Intercept:Date slope covar	-0.197 (-1.049 - 0.186)	3000
Year- Intercept:Date ² slope covar	-0.006 (-0.267 - 0.189)	2504
Year- Date slope var	0.401 (0.129 - 1.418)	1545
Year- Date slope:Date ² slope covar	-0.066 (-0.325 - 0.083)	2824
Year- Date ² slope var	0.062 (0.015 - 0.222)	1870
Site-Year	0.352 (0.274 - 0.444)	3000
Recorder	0.152 (0.079 - 0.321)	2696
Site-Day	0.295 (0.236 - 0.361)	2845
Tree ID	0.283 (0.237 - 0.347)	3000
Residual	0.653 (0.578 - 0.737)	3000

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 1067

1068 Table S5: Censored-gaussian GLMM for analysing variations among tree taxa in the
 1069 phenological distribution of log caterpillar mass throughout spring. Date refers to ordinal date
 1070 (scaled: mean = 147.4742, SD =14.19027).

	Coefficient/Variance (Mean/mode and CI)	Effective sample size
<u>Fixed Terms</u>		
Intercept	-4.082 (-4.403 - -3.785)	3000
Date scaled	0.458 (0.334 - 0.574)	2236
Date ² scaled	-0.13 (-0.184 - -0.081)	1961
<u>Random Terms</u>		
TreeTaxa- Intercept var	0 (-0.005 - 0.015)	2845
TreeTaxa- Intercept:Date slope covar	0 (-0.005 - 0.015)	2845
TreeTaxa- Date slope var	0 (0 - 0.035)	1387
Site- Intercept var	0.039 (0.015 - 0.087)	1220
Site- Intercept:Date slope covar	-0.009 (-0.036 - 0.019)	1852
Site- Date slope var	0.063 (0.021 - 0.104)	1157
Year	0.048 (0.013 - 0.401)	473
Site-Year	0.018 (0 - 0.044)	1134
Recorder	0.008 (0 - 0.046)	1447
Site-Day	0.146 (0.093 - 0.186)	1845
Tree ID	0.04 (0.023 - 0.068)	2430
Weighting	0.968 (0.883 - 1.074)	1090
Residual	0.029 (0.008 - 0.066)	617

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1074 Asymmetry in the abundance peak

1075 **Methods**

1076 It is already established that there is a humped phenological distribution of caterpillar
1077 abundance throughout spring in temperate deciduous woodlands (Gibb 1950; van Balen 1973;
1078 Southwood *et al.* 2004; Shutt *et al.* 2019a), though the shape of the peak has not been examined.
1079 We assessed the adequacy of the quadratic function in describing the shape of the phenological
1080 distribution of caterpillar abundance by also modelling the peak including a cubic date term;
1081 allowing an asymmetrical trend over time. The extent of asymmetry was quantified by
1082 comparing the percentage of the peak width predicted to fall before and after the vertex of the
1083 curve.

1084

1085 The peak asymmetry model included the caterpillar abundance per sample as the response
1086 variable with an intercept, date, date² and date³ in the fixed effects, allowing an asymmetrical
1087 peak (Table S6). Date refers to ordinal date and was scaled (prior to scaling: mean = 147.47,
1088 SD = 14.19). The random terms allowed for each site*year to have a separate intercept, date,
1089 date² and date³ slopes and for covariance among these terms. Separate site and year random
1090 intercepts and slopes were not included to aid model convergence. We do not anticipate this
1091 will pose an issue, as our primary interest was to identify the general phenological trend. We
1092 calculated the extent of asymmetry at each quartile of the peak height across the posterior
1093 distribution because the ratio of duration to the left and right of the peak is not necessarily
1094 constant.

1095

1096 Table S6: Model composition for the peak asymmetry model. Date refers to ordinal date which
 1097 was scaled (scaled: mean = 147.4742, SD = 14.19027). Int = intercept and VCV = variances
 1098 and covariances.

Model	Peak asymmetry (Table S7)
Motivation	Evidence of asymmetry in peak shape
Response	Caterpillar abundance
Fixed effects	Date Date ² Date ³
Random terms	Int, Date, Date ² and Date ³ VCV across Site by year Day by Site by Year Tree ID Recorder
Family	Poisson
Iterations (thin)	3500000 (2000)
Burnin	100000
Sample Size	1700

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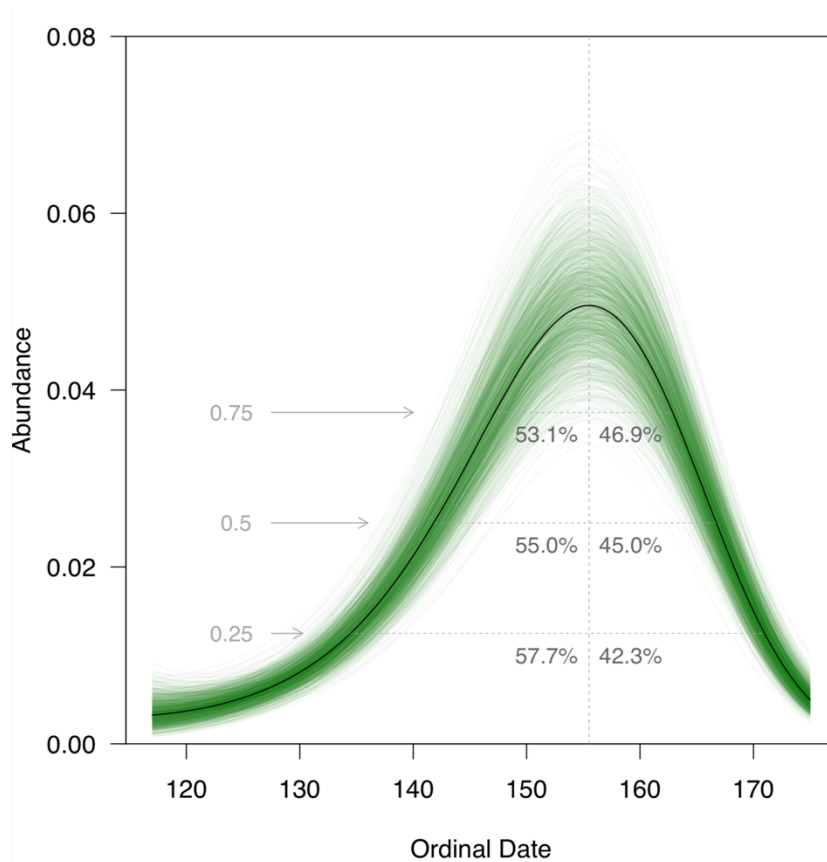


Figure S9: Posterior distribution for Poisson GLMM allowing a cubic (asymmetrical) relationship between caterpillar abundance and ordinal date (Table S7). Percentage of peak width falling before and after the peak date at 0.25, 0.5 and 0.75 of the peak height are shown in grey.

1117

1118 Table S7: Poisson GLMM using a cubic function to analyse possible skew in the distribution
 1119 of caterpillar abundance across ordinal date (scaled: mean = 147.4742, SD = 14.19027).

	Coefficient/Variance (Mean/mode and CI)	Effective sample size
<u>Fixed Terms</u>		
Intercept	-3.267 (-3.485 - -3.034)	1700
Date (scaled)	0.859 (0.701 - 1.005)	1700
Date ² (scaled)	-0.58 (-0.673 - -0.488)	1393
Date ³ (scaled)	-0.208 (-0.277 - -0.137)	1511
<u>Random Terms</u>		
SiteYear- Intercept var	1.644 (1.327 - 1.985)	1345
SiteYear- Intercept:Date slope covar	-0.339 (-0.584 - -0.158)	1822
SiteYear- Intercept:Date ² slope covar	-0.432 (-0.574 - -0.331)	1700
SiteYear- Intercept:Date ³ slope covar	0.021 (-0.042 - 0.082)	1700
SiteYear- Date slope var	0.75 (0.572 - 1.057)	1700
SiteYear- Date slope:Date ² slope covar	0.075 (-0.021 - 0.154)	1700
SiteYear- Date slope:Date ³ slope covar	-0.093 (-0.169 - -0.026)	1535
SiteYear- Date ² slope var	0.192 (0.138 - 0.263)	1700
SiteYear- Date ² slope:Date ³ slope covar	0.007 (-0.018 - 0.032)	1700
SiteYear- Date ³ slope var	0.016 (0.001 - 0.042)	1635
Recorder	0.156 (0.079 - 0.322)	1700
Site Day	0.21 (0.165 - 0.277)	1700
Tree ID	0.356 (0.297 - 0.43)	1700
Residual	0.683 (0.586 - 0.749)	1586

1120

1121 Results

1122 Annual peaks in the temporal distribution of caterpillar abundance in our data are clear (Fig.
 1123 S3), and supported by the significant date² term (-0.58, CIs: -0.673 - -0.488, Table S7) in the
 1124 peak asymmetry model. The cubic parameter was significant and negative (-0.208, CIs: -0.277
 1125 - -0.137) indicating a negatively skewed peak (Table S7), however the resulting asymmetry in
 1126 the curve is quite small (Fig. S9). Each quartile shows 53-58% of the peak duration to the left
 1127 and 42-47% to the right. On the basis of the quite minor asymmetry we conclude that inclusion
 1128 of the quadratic date term, without cubic, is sufficient.

1129