

## Article (refereed) - postprint

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Broughton, Richard K.; Bellamy, Paul E.; Hill, Ross A.; Hinsley, Shelley A.  
2014. **Winter habitat selection by marsh tits *Poecile palustris* in a British woodland.**

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**This is an Accepted Manuscript of an article published by Taylor & Francis Group in *Bird Study* on 21/07/2014, available online: <http://www.tandfonline.com/10.1080/00063657.2014.934193>**

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1 Winter habitat selection by Marsh Tits *Poecile palustris* in a British woodland

2

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10

11 Short title: Marsh Tit winter habitat selection

12

13 Keywords: birds, foraging, hyperspectral, lidar, *Quercus robur*, radio-tracking, remote  
14 sensing

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29 Summary

30 Capsule Radio-tracking and remote sensing showed Marsh Tits selected for English Oak  
31 *Quercus robur* trees within large winter home-ranges.

32 Aims To investigate winter habitat selection by Marsh Tits in a British wood, testing for  
33 preferences in tree species and woodland structure.

34 Methods Thirteen Marsh Tits were radio-tracked during the winter, and home-ranges were  
35 derived. Lidar and hyperspectral data were used to compare the vegetation structure and  
36 tree species composition of entire home-ranges and the core areas of intensive use within.  
37 Instantaneous sampling observations provided further information for tree species utilisation.

38 Results The mean home-range was very large (39 ha,  $n = 13$ ). There were no significant  
39 differences in mean tree height or canopy closure, or in understorey height and volume,  
40 between full home-ranges and the core areas of use. Core areas contained a significantly  
41 greater proportion of English Oak relative to availability in the full home-ranges.

42 Instantaneous sampling confirmed that English Oak was used significantly more than other  
43 trees.

44 Conclusion Selection for English Oak during winter contrasted with previous studies of  
45 breeding territories, indicating that habitat usage varies seasonally, and Marsh Tits require  
46 extensive areas of woodland habitat during winter. These results help to explain the  
47 sensitivity of Marsh Tits to habitat fragmentation, and demonstrate the need for habitat  
48 selection studies throughout the year.

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57 INTRODUCTION

58 Habitat selection is a dominant theme in ornithology, and the distribution of birds relative to  
59 availability of habitat is a common method of investigating such patterns (Johnson 2007;  
60 Fuller 2012). Quantifying the use of differing habitat composition or structures is important  
61 for understanding whether and how a bird's requirements are met by available resources in  
62 the environment. This, in turn, can inform species conservation to ensure that sufficient  
63 habitat exists for bird populations to be maintained. For woodland or forest birds, studies of  
64 habitat selection frequently focus on breeding habitat (Amar et al. 2006; summary in  
65 Wesolowski & Fuller 2012). Less attention has been given to habitat selection by resident  
66 birds during the non-breeding period, when harsh weather and reduced food availability  
67 could result in greater resource limitation than in spring/summer, and so selection may be  
68 more acute (e.g. Matthysen 1998).

69

70 Among the relatively well-studied parids *Paridae* of wooded habitats, some species form  
71 stable winter flocks in discrete home-ranges (Ekman 1989), and this behaviour can aid the  
72 delineation of available habitat and analysis of the composition of utilised areas (Siffczyk et  
73 al. 2003; Hadley & Desrochers 2008), similar to methods used for breeding territories (e.g.  
74 Broughton et al. 2006). Recording the movements and defining the home-ranges of parids is  
75 relatively straightforward, using standard methods such as colour-ringing or radio-telemetry  
76 (Naef-Daenzer 1994; Hadley & Desrochers 2008), or recent advancements such as passive  
77 integrated transponder (PIT) tags (Farine & Lang 2013). However, characterising woodland  
78 habitat over the scale of a parid home-range can be more problematic, due to the strongly  
79 heterogeneous and three-dimensional nature of such vegetation (Hinsley et al. 2002;  
80 Broughton et al. 2012a). Remote sensing methods, such as light detection and ranging  
81 (lidar), can overcome some of the limitations of ground-based sampling methods by  
82 providing high-resolution, three-dimensional habitat data of entire home-ranges and study  
83 areas (Bradbury et al. 2005; Vierling et al. 2008). The combination of remote sensing habitat

84 data with high-resolution data of bird locations, territories or home-ranges allows powerful  
85 analyses of habitat selection (e.g. Broughton et al. 2012a, 2012b; Smart et al. 2012).

86

87 The Marsh Tit *Poecile palustris* is a non-migratory parid of temperate deciduous woodlands  
88 in Europe and Asia. In Britain, Marsh Tit abundance fell by 73% between 1967 and 2011  
89 (Baillie et al. 2014), with a 22% range contraction over the same period (Balmer et al. 2013).

90 The causes of this decline are not fully understood, but may relate to habitat fragmentation  
91 and inter-specific competition with increasing numbers of Great Tits *Parus major* and Blue  
92 Tits *Cyanistes caeruleus* (Broughton 2012). Marsh Tit pairs are strictly territorial in spring,  
93 and the composition of their large (5-6 ha) breeding territories is well-described in Britain,  
94 with a preference for a tall, near-closed tree canopy above a dense understorey shrub layer,  
95 characteristic of mature woodland (Hinsley et al. 2007; Broughton et al. 2012a, 2012b).

96 However, little information is available on habitat selection during the non-breeding season,  
97 including the composition of winter home-ranges.

98

99 Nilsson & Smith (1988) reported that Swedish Marsh Tits established group home-ranges  
100 during winter, occupied by an adult pair and several non-related juveniles, similar to other  
101 boreal parids (Ekman 1989). However, other work indicates that Marsh Tits elsewhere  
102 occupy large, overlapping winter home-ranges in which individuals forage and associate in  
103 changeable groups (Amann 1997; Broughton et al. 2010). Early studies by Hartley (1953),  
104 Gibb (1954), and later Morse (1978), described aspects of Marsh Tit foraging behaviour  
105 throughout the year in Wytham Woods, southern England. A variety of trees and shrubs  
106 were recorded being used during the winter, but particularly English Oak *Quercus robur*,  
107 European Elder *Sambucus nigra* and Common Beech *Fagus sylvatica*. This was revisited by  
108 Carpenter (2008), partly at the same site, but no preference was found for any tree or shrub  
109 species in winter. Similarly, Broughton et al. (2006, 2012a) found no evidence of selection  
110 for particular trees or shrubs in Marsh Tit breeding territories in Monks Wood, eastern  
111 England. However, unlike the winter studies, the analyses of breeding habitat could relate

112 tree species selection to their availability to individual birds, by characterising territory  
113 composition. This approach has yet to be applied to winter studies, and so uncertainties  
114 remain regarding habitat selection during this significant part of Marsh Tit's annual cycle,  
115 including how this may differ from the breeding period.

116

117 We investigated the winter habitat selection of Marsh Tits by defining winter home-ranges  
118 using radio-tracking, characterising habitat availability using remote sensing methods, and  
119 then comparing the habitat composition of home-ranges against that of the areas of most  
120 intensive use within. This was supported by field observations of vegetation utilisation. We  
121 then put winter habitat selection into the context of studies of breeding territory composition,  
122 to determine how habitat selection varies throughout the year and how this may influence  
123 Marsh Tit conservation.

124

## 125 MATERIALS AND METHODS

126 The study was centred on 160 ha of mature deciduous woodland at Monks Wood National  
127 Nature Reserve in Cambridgeshire, UK (52° 24' N, 0° 14' W), which is dominated by  
128 Common Ash *Fraxinus excelsior*, English Oak and Field Maple *Acer campestre* in the tree  
129 canopy, with smaller amounts of Silver Birch *Betula pendula*, European Aspen *Populus*  
130 *tremula* and elm *Ulmus* spp. (Hill et al. 2010). The understorey is dominated by hawthorns  
131 *Crataegus* spp., Blackthorn *Prunus spinosa* and Common Hazel *Corylus avellana*  
132 (Broughton et al. 2006). Since 2003, almost all Marsh Tits have been marked with a unique  
133 combination of colour-rings, and aged and sexed using biometrics, moult and breeding  
134 behaviour (Broughton et al. 2008, 2010).

135

### 136 Home-range delineation

137 Aebischer et al. (1993) recommend a sample size above ten individuals for radio-tracking  
138 analyses of habitat utilisation, and for this study we radio-tracked 13 Marsh Tits during two  
139 winter periods: four birds in November-December 2006 and nine birds in December-January

140 2007-2008. Climate was similar in both winter periods, with a regional (East Anglia) mean  
141 temperature of 6-7 °C and 10-11 days of air frost during the months of sampling (Met Office  
142 2013). Radio-tracked birds were comprised of one juvenile female and four adult and eight  
143 juvenile males, with males being preferred due to their larger size meeting recommendations  
144 for the maximum load of radio-transmitters (Caccamise & Hedin 1985). We used Pip Ag317  
145 radio-transmitters (Biotrack, Wareham, Dorset, UK) attached by gluing and tying to the  
146 central tail feathers in the first winter period, and fitted to the rump using a 'Rappole harness'  
147 (Rappole & Tipton 1991) in the second period.

148

149 Radio-tracking of each bird began on the day after transmitter attachment, and took place on  
150 4-11 days (mean = 7, s.d. = 2) over a 4-27 day period (mean = 11, s.d. = 6). The period of  
151 data collection overlapped by one week for all four birds in the first winter, and in the second  
152 winter up to three birds at a time overlapped by up to four days. Artificial food was not  
153 available except to capture birds on specific days, when data were not collected, and birds  
154 were recaptured for tag-removal after their radio-tracking period. During each radio-tracking  
155 session, focal birds were located by an observer using a Yagi antenna and followed at a  
156 typical range of 10-30 m, attempting to keep the bird under continuous observation where  
157 possible. We used instantaneous sampling (Martin & Bateson 2007) from the initial location  
158 to record the coordinates of focal birds on large-scale maps at 10 min intervals during radio-  
159 tracking sessions of 0.5-2.5 h (median = 1.25 h). Post-hoc analysis showed that 10 min  
160 intervals were sufficient for birds to move up to three times the median distance between any  
161 two recorded locations between sampling points.

162

163 When in view, the species of tree or shrub in which the focal bird was situated was recorded  
164 at each sampling point. In a study of winter behaviour, Carpenter (2008) has previously  
165 shown that Marsh Tits at this site spend the majority of their time (65%) actively foraging in  
166 trees and shrubs, while at another English site Gibb (1954) reported that birds were feeding  
167 in c. 90% of winter observations, and so we assumed that Marsh Tit use of vegetation during

168 our sampling would primarily be driven by this activity. Location coordinates were digitised in  
169 ArcGIS 9 (ESRI, Redlands, CA, USA), and maximum home-ranges were calculated in  
170 Animal Space Use 1.3 (Horne & Garton 2009) using kernel estimation with a smoothing  
171 parameter derived from likelihood cross-validation and a 10 m cell size. Asymptote analysis  
172 identified the minimum number of locations required for home-range calculations, by plotting  
173 number against the cumulative area of each home-range (Kenward 2001). The asymptote  
174 was reached when home-range area increased by less than 5% with the addition of five or  
175 more new locations, indicating that the full extent had essentially been reached. For 11 birds  
176 the asymptote was reached at 23-94 locations, although it was not reached for the remaining  
177 two birds. However, as the 73-74 locations for these two individuals exceeded the mean  
178 asymptote of 60 (s.d. = 20) for other birds, we considered that largely representative home-  
179 ranges would be derived, and so included all birds in analyses.

180

181 Core home-ranges were identified by plotting the cumulative area of home-range kernel  
182 contours in 5% increments, which revealed inflection points for each bird at the 65-80%  
183 contour (containing 65-80% of locations). Beyond this, further outlying locations led to a  
184 more rapid increase in home-range size. To standardise spatial analyses between  
185 individuals, we applied the mean 70% contour to define core home-ranges for all birds,  
186 which contained 70% of the locations for each individual. The remaining area between the  
187 70% contour and the 100% perimeter contour defined the home-range peripheries.

188

189 Analysis of the social organisation of this Marsh Tit population (in prep.) showed that birds  
190 did not show winter territoriality, but instead had individual, sometimes partially-overlapping  
191 home-ranges, with only casual associations between most birds. The home-ranges  
192 examined here covered c.80% of the study area in total, and the maximum overlap of core  
193 home-ranges between any two individuals was only 65%. This indicated that sampling of  
194 woodland vegetation would not be significantly biased by location or social interactions and

195 that the movements of each bird could be treated as independent, as birds were not  
196 constrained in their utilisation of the available habitat.

197

198 Remote sensing of habitat data

199 Data describing the woodland vegetation structure and composition of home-ranges were  
200 collected using airborne remote sensing. Discrete return lidar data were acquired for Monks  
201 Wood in June 2005, and used to generate a raster canopy-height model. This described the  
202 height of each 0.5 x 0.5 m grid cell of the woodland canopy surface to 1 cm precision, with  
203 the tree canopy layer defined as vegetation taller than 8 m and the understorey layer as  
204 vegetation 1-8 m in height (see Hill & Broughton 2009 for full details). However, due to  
205 obscuration of much of the understorey by tree canopy foliage in the summer 2005 model,  
206 additional lidar data from April 2003 were employed. At this stage of early spring, lidar could  
207 penetrate more fully through the dormant tree canopy and onto the understorey below. This  
208 provided additional height and coverage data for understorey shrubs that were combined  
209 with the 2005 data to create a model of the total understorey layer (Hill & Broughton 2009;  
210 Broughton et al. 2012b). Previous work (Broughton et al. 2012b) has shown that the mature  
211 woodland in the study area is essentially stable, with little dynamic change in vegetation  
212 being apparent during the 3-5 year lag between the remote sensing data collection and  
213 radio-tracking fieldwork.

214 The mean height and closure (spatial coverage) of the tree canopy were calculated for the  
215 core and periphery of each home-range in ArcGIS 9. The mean height and volume of the  
216 understorey layer were also extracted for each home-range division, with volume calculated  
217 as the vegetation height multiplied by the area of each grid cell.

218

219 A 1 m resolution raster map of tree species coverage in the canopy layer was derived from a  
220 supervised classification of time-series Airborne Thematic Mapper data, acquired in 2003  
221 (see Hill et al. 2010 for technical details). This had a surveyed accuracy of 88%, and was  
222 used to calculate the coverage of the home-range cores and peripheries by each of the six

223 tree species (listed above). Grid cells in the understorey and field layers (vegetation < 8 m in  
224 height) were assigned to an unclassified category.

225

226 Statistical analysis

227 Selection for vegetation structure was tested by comparing the lidar-derived variables of  
228 canopy and understorey structure between the home-range cores and peripheries, using  
229 Wilcoxon signed rank tests (*W* statistic). We also used Mann-Whitney *U* tests to look for  
230 differences between age classes of birds.

231

232 Selection for preferred tree species was tested by comparing the proportions of each tree in  
233 the full home-ranges (100% maximum extent) and the 70% core home-range areas, using a  
234 compositional analysis (Aebischer et al. 1993). This was implemented using the 'compana'  
235 functionality in the 'adehabitat' package (Calenge 2014), in R version 2.9.1 (the R  
236 Foundation for Statistical Computing). In this analysis, the tree species composition in the  
237 full home-range represents the habitat available to each bird, while the composition of the  
238 core area reflects preferred species utilisation or selection by the bird. If the utilisation of tree  
239 species differs from random, then they can be ranked according to their proportion in each  
240 area, and any significant between-rank differences can be identified (Aebischer et al. 1993).

241

242 During instantaneous sampling it became apparent that the focal bird was sometimes out of  
243 direct observation, leading to incomplete data for usage of tree and shrub species. This was  
244 biased towards sampling points when the focal bird was in dense understorey thickets,  
245 meaning that usage of canopy tree species was easier to record than understorey shrubs.  
246 As such, we limited analysis to observations in canopy trees, for which any bias of non-  
247 observation would be similar across tree species, and which would assist interpretation of  
248 the compositional analyses. Instantaneous sampling scores for tree species use were  
249 calculated for each Marsh Tit with a minimum of 15 observations (pooled across radio-  
250 tracking sessions), and a Kruskal-Wallis test was applied to determine preferential use.

251

## 252 RESULTS

253 The mean maximum extent of the 13 Marsh Tit home-ranges was 39.3 ha (s.d. = 20.1), with  
254 a range of 10.4-82.7 ha. These incorporated a mean core area, as defined by the 70%  
255 contour, of 8.4 ha (s.d. = 4.5) and a range of 2.4-15.6 ha.

256

257 The home-ranges of 12 birds fell wholly or largely (> 90%) within the area of remotely  
258 sensed vegetation data, and so were included in habitat analyses. In this group, there was  
259 no difference in home-range area between the four adult and seven juvenile males ( $U =$   
260  $20.5$ ,  $P = 1.00$ ), while that of the single juvenile female was also similar (36.4 ha). We also  
261 found no difference between adults and juveniles in any of the structural habitat metrics in  
262 the home-range cores or peripheries (Mann-Whitney tests, all  $P$  values > 0.23), and so all  
263 birds were pooled for further analyses. This showed that, within all home-ranges, there was  
264 no significant difference in the height or volume of understorey shrubs between the 70%  
265 core areas and the home-range peripheries, and also no difference in tree canopy height or  
266 tree canopy closure in the home-range peripheries (Table 1).

267

268 Following the order of abundance in the study area, Common Ash was the dominant tree  
269 canopy species in home-ranges, followed by English Oak and then Field Maple, with other  
270 species being rare (Table 2). Except for Common Ash, all tree species occurred in greater  
271 proportions in the home-ranges than in the wider study area, as did unclassified vegetation  
272 below 8 m in height.

273

274 Within home-ranges, compositional analysis indicated that selection of canopy tree species  
275 differed significantly from random (weighted mean  $\Lambda = 0.07$ ,  $P = 0.01$ ). English Oak was  
276 ranked highest in the order of Marsh Tit selection (Table 3), with a disproportionately greater  
277 coverage in the 70% core home-range areas than in the peripheries, an average difference  
278 of 15%. English Oak and unclassified vegetation were favoured to a significantly greater

279 extent than Common Ash or Field Maple, which had a low rank of habitat selection. The  
280 selection for unclassified vegetation may have represented greater use of understorey  
281 shrubs under areas of relatively open tree canopy in the home-range cores (Table 1). There  
282 was a weak, non-significant, negative correlation between home-range area and the  
283 proportion of English Oak (Fig. 1).

284

285 Sufficient data for canopy tree species use from instantaneous sampling were available for  
286 ten birds, totalling 268 sampling point records, with an average of 27 observations (s.d. = 8)  
287 contributing to summary sampling scores for each bird (Table 4). Tree species use was not  
288 uniform (Kruskal-Wallis  $\chi^2 = 24.4$ , d.f. = 3,  $P < 0.01$ ), and pair-wise Wilcoxon tests showed  
289 that English Oak was used significantly more than Common Ash ( $W = 99.0$ ,  $P < 0.01$ ), Field  
290 Maple ( $W = 100.0$ ,  $P < 0.01$ ), and combined European Aspen, Silver Birch and elm ( $W =$   
291  $89.0$ ,  $P < 0.01$ ). There was also weaker support for a greater use of English Oak over all tree  
292 species combined ( $W = 74.5$ ,  $P = 0.07$ ), but adults did not use oak to greater extent than  
293 juveniles ( $U = 23.0$ ,  $P = 0.17$ ). A further 108 observations (29% of the total) were of Marsh  
294 Tits using understorey shrubs, but this cannot be used as an accurate reflection of the  
295 proportional usage of the understorey versus the tree canopy due to observational bias (see  
296 methods).

297

## 298 DISCUSSION

299 To date, all studies of Marsh Tit habitat selection within individual ranges have focussed on  
300 breeding territories in spring, identifying a preference for a tall tree canopy and dense  
301 understorey in relatively large territories averaging 5-6 ha (reviewed in Broughton 2012). In  
302 previous work on Marsh Tit habitat selection in breeding territories, also at Monks Wood, no  
303 selection for any particular tree species was detected (Broughton et al. 2006, 2012a).  
304 However, analysis of microhabitat selection of nesting locations within territories found some  
305 preference for Common Ash and Field Maple, with possible avoidance of English Oak,

306 although this could not be differentiated from selection for habitat structure rather than tree  
307 species (Broughton et al. 2012b).

308

309 The current study is the first to investigate habitat composition and selection within defined  
310 Marsh Tit home-ranges during winter, and the results contrast with those for spring breeding  
311 territories. Marsh Tit winter home-ranges averaged 5-6 times larger than spring territories at  
312 the same site, and, unlike results for spring territories (Broughton et al. 2006, 2012a), clear  
313 selection was shown for English Oak in the core areas of intensive use within the winter  
314 home-ranges. The difference in the percentage cover of English Oak in the home-range  
315 cores was not substantially greater than in the full home-ranges (Table 2), and this may be  
316 due to the dispersed distribution of oak trees in the study area. However, as a percentage of  
317 the proportional cover in the study area, the coverage of English Oak in the home-range  
318 cores was some 21% greater than that generally available in the wood.

319

320 This selection for English Oak was supported by instantaneous sampling observations of  
321 tree species use, in which Marsh Tits were recorded on oaks more than any other tree  
322 species. There was also a significant selection for unclassified vegetation in the core home-  
323 ranges, which probably reflected understorey vegetation exposed under an open tree  
324 canopy. Limited support for this was given by the non-significant result of a slightly more  
325 open tree canopy in the home-range cores, although there was no preference for a greater  
326 height or volume of the understorey shrub layer. However, a limitation of this study was the  
327 limited sample of Marsh Tits and the pooling of age and gender classes for analyses. While  
328 the small number of birds in each class showed no significant differences between them in  
329 home-range size or the habitat variables examined, it is possible that ecological differences  
330 may exist between and within classes as a result of social dominance structures (Nilsson &  
331 Smith 1988; Broughton et al. 2010), and this caveat applies to our results.

332

333 Notwithstanding these limitations, our results for winter habitat selection are consistent with  
334 earlier studies of winter foraging sites at another English location, Wytham Woods, in which  
335 English Oak was also the preferred tree species in midwinter (Hartley 1953; Gibb 1954;  
336 Morse 1978). This suggests that the importance of English Oak to Marsh Tits during winter  
337 may be a general characteristic, at least in southern Britain. The preference for English Oak  
338 is presumably related to food availability, and Betts' (1955) analysis of Marsh Tit diet  
339 recorded oak gall tissue and a range of invertebrates, including eggs and pupae, being  
340 taken from twigs, buds and hanging dead leaves in oak woodland during winter. Both Gibb  
341 (1954) and Betts (1955) also noted the extensive use of oaks as winter foraging sites by  
342 Great, Blue and Coal Tits *Parus ater* in English woodland.

343

344 Hartley (1953) and Gibb (1954) identified a further preference of Marsh Tits for foraging in  
345 Common Beech and European Elder, but these species were virtually absent from our study  
346 area and so could not be tested. In a more recent comparative study of winter habitat use at  
347 Wytham Woods and Monks Wood, Carpenter (2008) recorded Marsh Tits in similar  
348 proportions overall in English Oak and Common Ash. Yet, despite a similar prevalence of  
349 English Oak in both woods, in Monks Wood the proportion of Marsh Tit observations in oak  
350 was almost twice as high as in Wytham Woods. Carpenter suggested this may have been  
351 due to competitive exclusion from preferred foraging areas by higher densities of  
352 competitively dominant Great Tits and Blue Tits in Wytham. However, no previous study has  
353 tested the utilisation of tree and shrub species by Marsh Tits relative to their availability  
354 within individual home-ranges.

355

356 We found little evidence that Marsh Tits in our study area were selecting winter habitat  
357 based on specific elements of woodland structure, unlike spring territories and nest-sites  
358 (Broughton et al. 2012a, 2012b). However, the lack of preference for a taller tree canopy,  
359 and the slight non-significant finding of a more open canopy in the core home-ranges, tied  
360 well with the selection for unclassified (i.e. non-canopy) vegetation in the cores. Together,

361 this points to the importance of the understorey shrub layer to wintering Marsh Tits, a feature  
362 which is also important in breeding territories (Hinsley et al. 2007; Broughton et al. 2012a).  
363 Despite this, we found no evidence of selection for greater volumes of understorey shrubs in  
364 the core home-ranges. At Wytham Woods, Gibb (1954) reported that 42% of Marsh Tit  
365 foraging occurred in the understorey shrub layer throughout the year, compared to 47% in  
366 the canopy layer, while Morse (1978) and Carpenter (2008) found that more than half of  
367 winter foraging occurred in the understorey. In our study, 29% of Marsh Tit observations  
368 were in shrubs, but this was likely to be a significant under-estimate. Nevertheless,  
369 understorey shrubs appear to be at least as important as canopy trees as winter foraging  
370 sites for Marsh Tits, offering invertebrates and also seeds/fruits as a food source (Gibb 1954;  
371 Betts 1955; pers. obs.).

372

373 Although Gibb (1954) and Carpenter (2008) recorded the usage of some individual shrub  
374 species by foraging Marsh Tits during winter, there has been little study of the relative  
375 importance of given species or overall diversity. Addressing this question is problematic,  
376 however, due to the difficulties of collecting understorey shrub data at an appropriate scale  
377 and over a sufficient area to define availability, a role which remote sensing cannot yet fulfil  
378 (Broughton 2012). The collection of unbiased observations of Marsh Tit shrub usage is a  
379 further difficulty, even when assisted by radio-telemetry, as found during the current study.

380

381 Our results, and those from the breeding period (Broughton et al. 2006, 2012a, 2012b;  
382 Hinsley et al. 2007), indicate that habitat use varies throughout the year. Elements of the  
383 tree canopy and understorey shrub layers remained important in different seasons, but the  
384 structural preferences of a mature canopy and understorey in spring were not replicated in  
385 winter. In addition, apparent selection for Common Ash and Field Maple around nest-sites  
386 (Broughton et al. 2012b) was replaced by selection for English Oak during winter. These  
387 contrasts could help to explain the unusually large extent of Marsh Tit breeding territories  
388 and winter home-ranges, which may need to be sufficiently large to encompass a variety of

389 habitat features to support a sedentary bird throughout the year. Such seasonal differences  
390 emphasise the importance of habitat selection studies and species conservation to consider  
391 the complete annual cycle, as efforts directed solely at e.g. the breeding season may  
392 significantly under-estimate habitat requirements at other times of the year.

393

394 Even allowing for differences in methodology, the 39 ha mean winter home-range of Marsh  
395 Tits in the current study was substantially larger than the 10-24 ha recorded for the closely-  
396 related Willow Tit *Poecile montana* (Ekman 1979; Siffczyk et al. 2003), Boreal Chickadee  
397 *Poecile hudsonica* (Hadley & Desrochers 2008) and Black-capped Chickadee *Poecile*  
398 *atricapillus* (Smith 1991). Siffczyk et al. (2003) and Hadley & Desrochers (2008) found that  
399 Willow Tits and Boreal Chickadees used large winter home-ranges to compensate for the  
400 inclusion of unsuitable habitat, with birds focussing activity on widely-distributed patches of  
401 preferred habitat. Marsh Tits in Monks Wood may have behaved in a similar way, by  
402 establishing extensive home-ranges to encompass sufficient amounts of widely-dispersed  
403 resources, such as oaks, as predicted by the resource dispersion hypothesis (Carr &  
404 Macdonald 1986). Indeed, the (albeit weak) negative relationship between Marsh Tit home-  
405 range size and the proportion of English Oak echoed that of Boreal Chickadee home-ranges  
406 and their preferred stands of mature forest (Hadley & Desrochers 2008).

407

408 The Marsh Tit has a negative conservation status in Britain, having declined by 73%  
409 between 1967 and 2011 (Baillie et al. 2014). As such, it is essential to understand the year-  
410 round habitat requirements of the species in order to inform habitat management and identify  
411 potential causes of decline. Differential habitat selection in spring/summer and winter may  
412 provide challenges when trying to create or maintain adequate woodland habitat for Marsh  
413 Tits, but further work is needed to test our findings at different sites and to fully investigate  
414 the importance of understorey shrub species for winter foraging.

415

416 ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

417 The authors thank Nick Aspey, Bjorn Beckmann, Daria Dadam, Lindsay Henderson,  
418 Deborah Marchant and Michael MacDonald for fieldwork assistance, and Natural England  
419 and the Abbots Ripton Estate for access to study sites. This work was funded by the Natural  
420 Environment Research Council (NERC). The remotely sensed data were acquired by the  
421 NERC's Airborne Research and Survey Facility (ARSF) in conjunction with the Unit for  
422 Landscape Modelling (ULM) at the University of Cambridge.

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590 TABLES

591 Table 1. Woodland structural variables in the cores and peripheries of 12 Marsh Tit home-  
 592 ranges, compared using Wilcoxon signed rank tests (*W* statistic). Home-range cores were  
 593 delimited by the 70% kernel contour, and peripheries by the 70-100% contours.

594

	Home-range core,		Home-range periphery,		<i>W</i>	<i>P</i>
	median (range)		median (range)			
Canopy height (m)	13.8	(12.4-16.3)	14.3	(13.6-15.7)	19.0	0.13
Canopy closure (%)	72.1	(51.0-91.5)	77.8	(73.1-84.1)	16.0	0.08
Understorey height (m)	3.9	(3.1-4.4)	3.7	(3.3-3.9)	53.0	0.29
Understorey volume (m <sup>3</sup> /m <sup>2</sup> )	1.6	(0.9-2.0)	1.6	(1.4-1.7)	49.0	0.47

595

596

597 Table 2. Median percentage cover of canopy tree species in 12 Marsh Tit home-ranges and  
598 home-range cores, and the wider study area. Home-range cores were delimited by the 70%  
599 kernel contour within the full home-ranges (100% contour). Unclassified refers to all  
600 vegetation 1-8 m in height.

601

	Home-range cores	Full home-ranges	Study area
Common Ash	26.7	31.5	41.1
English Oak	18.8	16.6	15.5
Field Maple	10.3	11.3	10.6
European Aspen	6.4	6.8	5.4
Silver Birch	2.2	2.1	1.8
Elm spp.	1.7	0.9	0.4
Unclassified	33.96	30.91	25.10

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603

604 Table 3. Ranking matrix from compositional analysis (Aebischer et al. 1993), comparing  
 605 proportional use of canopy tree species in 12 Marsh Tit home-ranges (100% kernel contour)  
 606 vs. home-range cores (70% kernel contour). Unclassified (Unc.) refers to all vegetation 1-8  
 607 m in height. Single positive and negative signs indicate respective (but non-significant)  
 608 preference or non-preference of species in rows vs. species in columns, and triple signs  
 609 (+++/---) represent significant deviation from random at  $P < 0.05$ . The number of positive  
 610 associations in each row ranks tree species in increasing order of relative use, with a higher  
 611 rank indicating greater selection by Marsh Tits.

612

	Ash	Oak	Maple	Aspen	Birch	Elm	Unc.	Rank
Ash		---	-	-	-	+	---	1
Oak	+++		+++	+	+	+	+	6
Maple	+	---		+	-	+	---	3
Aspen	+	-	-		-	+	-	2
Birch	+	-	+	+		+	-	4
Elm	-	-	-	-	-		-	0
Unc.	+++	-	+++	+	+	+		5

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614

615 Table 4. Summary statistics of scores from instantaneous sampling for the relative use of  
 616 tree species by 10 radio-tracked Marsh Tits. Values refer to the proportion of records in  
 617 which a bird was observed using a given tree.

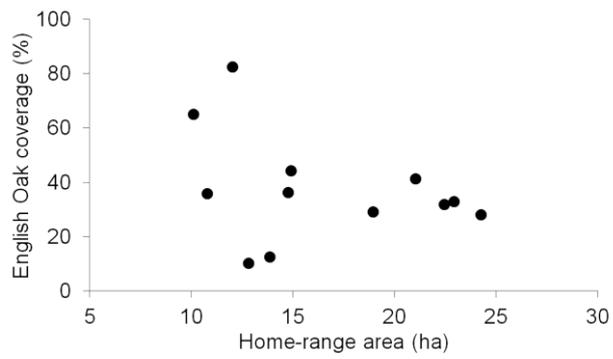
	Records	Ash	Oak	Maple	Birch	Aspen	Elm	Other
Mean	26.8	0.15	0.60	0.04	0.04	0.01	0.13	0.03
s.d.	7.8	0.11	0.19	0.08	0.06	0.01	0.23	0.05
Median	25.5	0.17	0.57	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.01
Min.	15	0.00	0.33	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Max.	42	0.35	0.91	0.25	0.19	0.03	0.67	0.18

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636 Legends to figures

637 Figure 1. The area of Marsh Tit home-ranges plotted against the percentage cover of  
638 English Oak in the tree canopy of the home-range, showing a weak negative correlation:  
639 Spearman's rank-order,  $r_s = -0.34$ ,  $P = 0.28$ .

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641