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Detecting climate signals cascading through levels of biological organization

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- 17

18 Abstract

- 19
- 20 Threats to species under climate change can be understood as a time at which the signal of
- 21 climate change in ecological processes emerges from the noise of ecosystem variability, defined
- 22 as 'time of emergence' (ToE). Here, we show that ToE for the great tit (*Parus major*) will occur
- 23 earlier at the level of population size than trait (laying date) and vital rates (survival, recruitment)
- 24 under the RCP 8.5 scenario, suggesting amplified climate change signal at the population level.
- 25 ToE thus varies across levels of biological organization that filter trends and variability in
- 26 climate differently. This has implications for the detection of climate impacts on wild species, as
- a shift in population size may precede changes in traits and vital rates. Further work would need
- 28 to identify the ecological level that may experience an earlier detection of the climate signal for
- 29 species with contrasting life histories and climate trends and variability.

31 Main Text

32

33 The impact of anthropogenic climate change on wildlife populations is a topic of 34 profound concern. Climate change occurs in the context of broad-band natural climate 35 variability, often making it difficult to discern the explicit effects of long-term change driven by 36 forced response to greenhouse gases. In addition, ecological responses to environmental 37 variation are stochastic with multiple sources of variation, including observed and unobserved 38 variability in abiotic and biotic factors that interact with natural climate variability. Accordingly, 39 detecting responses to anthropogenically-forced changes in climate is challenging¹. This is, 40 however, crucial for the detection and attribution of ecological responses to climate change because changes in climate have direct impacts on ecosystem processes and society². 41

42

43 To detect changes in climate, climatologists have extensively used the concept of time of emergence in climate (ToE_{climate})^{3,4}. It defines the point in time when the signal of climate 44 change emerges from the noise of natural climate variability. It has been applied for instance on 45 changes in temperatures ³, rainfall ⁵ and in polar climate ^{1,4}. Here, we apply this concept, for the 46 47 first time, across levels of ecological organization to identify the time at which the signal of 48 climate change in ecological processes emerges from the stochastic noise associated with natural 49 climate and ecological variability (time of emergence, ToE). We assess the ToE from trait 50 (ToE_{trait}), to vital rates (e.g. survival, recruitment) (ToE_{vital}), and population size (ToE_{pop}) (Fig. 1) to study how the climate signal cascades through the levels of biological organization. Climate-51 52 induced changes in resources, that influence fitness-related traits, are expected to generate 53 changes in vital rates, which lead to population-level responses. We may thus expect that the 54 time of emergence is delayed across levels of biological organization, occurring earlier for traits than for vital rates and population size $^{6-8}$. However, those responses depend on the sensitivity of 55 vital rates to climate variation and the sensitivity of population growth rate to changes in vital 56 57 rates, potentially driving more complex patterns across levels of biological organization^{1,8,9}.

58

59 There are not many systems for which this hypothesis can be tested because it requires 60 long-term data at various levels of biological organization. Here, we use one of the best longterm ecological time series study system on the great tit (Parus major) at the Hoge Veluwe 61 62 National Park (the Netherlands) from 1985 to 2020 (Fig. 1). The great tit is a short-lived small 63 passerine bird species abundant in European gardens and woodlands and it is not migratory. Global warming influences this population in several ways. In spring, warmer temperatures lead 64 65 to an advanced peak date of caterpillar biomass, an important food resource for great tits for feeding their offspring during the breeding season. However, the advancement in laying dates is 66 slower than the advancement in food peak date, leading to a phenological mismatch between 67 offspring requirements and food peak ¹⁰. This mismatch influences the vital rates of great tits ¹¹. 68 In summer, warmer temperatures are expected to influence the intensity and frequency of 69 beechnut production (*Fagus sylvatica*) 12,13 , an important food resource for great tits in winter, 70 also affecting their vital rates ¹⁴. Taking advantage of this unique system to quantify the ToE 71 72 across biological levels of organization, we identified the point in time when climate-driven 73 signals in trait (laying date), vital rates (survival, recruitment) and population dynamics can be 74 distinguished from noise by constructing prediction intervals of ecological projections using the 75 Community Earth System Model Large Ensemble (CESM-LE)¹⁵. 76

77 We first quantified the ToE in caterpillar peak dynamics (ToE_{caterpillar}). Using the 78 established relationship between spring temperatures and caterpillar peak (period 1985 – 2020) 79 ¹⁶, we projected caterpillar peak dynamics under a high emission climate scenario with no policy 80 intervention (RCP 8.5 scenario), back in the past and into the future, from 1920 to 2100. The peak date of caterpillar biomass advanced over time 16 , with an expected ToE_{caterpillar} in 2034, if 81 we only account for climate natural variability (Fig. 2). When many sources of ecological 82 83 stochasticity were included in the projections, such as uncertainty in parameter estimates and 84 process variance corresponding to unexplained temporal environmental stochasticity beyond that 85 explained by climate, ToE_{caterpillar} was detected later, in 2049 (Extended Data Fig. 1).

86

Second, we quantified the ToE in trait dynamics, namely laying date (ToE_{laving}). Using 87 88 the established relationship between spring temperatures and laying dates (period 1985 – 2020) ¹⁶, we projected laying dates dynamics from 1920 to 2100. Laying occurred earlier and earlier 89 over years, with an expected ToE_{laving} in 2045 and 2068 (with climate natural variability only and 90 91 with all sources of uncertainties, respectively) (Fig. 2, Extended Data Fig. 1). Under warmer 92 spring conditions, directional selection for earlier laying has been reported in plethora of species ¹⁷⁻²⁴. The shift in laying date has been interpreted as a phenotypic plastic response to increasing 93 temperatures, tracking the advance in the phenology of the food peak²⁵⁻²⁸. Our results 94 95 demonstrate that the difference between laying dates and date of the food peak, the so-called 96 phenological mismatch (Fig. 1), might not be detectable before 2100 when including many 97 sources of ecological uncertainties in the projections (Extended Data Fig. 1). However, when 98 only climate natural variability was accounted for in the modelling, ToE_{mismatch} was detectable 99 and expected to occur in 2049 (Fig. 2). Increasing ecological complexity delays the ToE_{mismatch} as 100 we expected, but mainly through the interaction with environmental stochasticity.

101

102 Third, thanks to the individual long-term monitoring of great tits, we estimated annual age-specific great tits vital rates (survival, recruitment) using a state-of-the-art integrated 103 population model $^{29-32}$ (period 1985 – 2020, Extended Data Fig. 2). Annual vital rates were 104 105 linked to past beechnut production, mismatch and density (period 1985 – 2020, Table S1). Then, 106 we projected age-specific vital rates by 2100 under expected future conditions of mismatch and beechnut production and quantified the ToE in vital rates (ToEvital). Beechnut production is 107 expected to change in the future ^{33–35}, but there is currently no predictive model available for this 108 food resource. Therefore, we simulated two extreme scenarios, one of decreasing beechnut 109 110 production by 2100 and another of increasing production (Extended Data Fig. 3). Under the 111 scenario of decreasing beechnut production (scenario 1), we found a decrease in vital rates over 112 time, with a ToE_{vital} between 2050 and 2060 for most of the ages when we only accounted for 113 climate natural variation (Fig. 3, Extended Data Fig. 4). When all sources of ecological 114 uncertainties were accounted for, ToEvital was not detectable before 2100 (Fig. 3, Extended Data 115 Fig. 5). Similarly, under the scenario of increasing beechnut production (scenario 2), we found 116 an increase in vital rates over time, with a ToE_{vital} between 2054 and 2084 for most of them when we accounted for climate natural variability only (Fig. 3, Extended Data Fig. 6). Interestingly, 117 the ToE_{vital} occurred earlier for survival than recruitment rates because of a stronger signal on 118 119 survival. While the ToE_{vital} did not differ much between the two scenarios for survival, it is 120 delayed up to 20 years for recruitment under the scenario of increasing, compared to decreasing, beechnut production. The climate-driven signals in recruitment rates by beechnut production 121 122 were obscured by density dependence, which plays a stronger role under favorable conditions

123 (i.e. when there are more years with a high beech crop) and weaker under poor conditions. As 124 expected, when all sources of ecological uncertainties were accounted for, ToE_{vital} was 125 undetectable (Fig. 3, Extended Data Fig. 7).

126

127 Finally, to quantify the ToE in population size (ToE_{pop}), we projected the great tit 128 population size from 1920 to 2100 by parametrizing a stochastic age-structured population model 129 with the projected vital rates (Extended Data Fig. 4-7). Under the scenario of decreasing 130 beechnut production, population size decreased with a ToE_{pop} in 2028 when we accounted for 131 climate natural variability only, whereas population size increased under the scenario of 132 increasing beechnut production with a ToE_{pop} in 2055 (Fig. 3). When all sources of ecological 133 uncertainties were accounted for, ToEpop occurred later, in 2069 under the first scenario and in 134 2074 under the second scenario (Fig. 3).

135

Remarkably, for any scenario of beech crop production, the ToE_{pop} occurred earlier than 136 the ToE_{vital} when all sources of uncertainties were accounted for. This is consistent with previous 137 138 work based on numerical simulations that has shown that under a fast rate of environmental 139 change and low predictability, a population can decline before any apparent change in mean 140 value of the trait⁸. Similarly, in an experimental design, a fast change in prey availability resulted in the decline of a protozoan ciliate population preceding a shift in mean body size ⁸. 141 142 Therefore, the ToE_{pop} can occur earlier than ToE_{vital} and the detection of ToE depends on the 143 level of biological organization considered, its sensitivity to climate (i.e. magnitude and shape of 144 the functional relationship between climate and ecological variable), but also on the amount of 145 variability both in the climate and ecological systems.

146 Climate trends and variability are differently filtered by the vital rates (survival, reproduction) and the ages ¹. In addition, density dependence may prolong the ToE_{pop} ¹ as 147 illustrated here with our two scenarios of changes in beech crop production. Under the scenario 148 149 of decreasing beech crop production (scenario 1), both survival and recruitment rates decrease, 150 the magnitude of this decrease being age-specific. Competition also decreases, allowing for more 151 immigrants. The negative influence of beech crop on vital rates, only partially compensated by 152 an increase in the number immigrants, leads to a rapid population decline, with an early ToE. 153 Under the scenario of increasing beech crop production (scenario 2), survival and recruitment 154 rates increase. However, competition also increases, leading to a weak positive effect of beech crop on recruitment rates, the latter being density-regulated ³⁶. Similarly, the number of 155 immigrants joining the population are positively influenced by beech crop, but strongly regulated 156 157 by density, resulting in fewer immigrants. The positive influence of beech crop on survival rates, 158 counterbalanced by a strong density regulation acting on the number immigrants and on 159 recruitment rates leads to a moderate increase in population size, and a later ToE_{pop}.

Ecological variability is also key to detect ToE. We found that ToE in mismatch and vital rates are not detectable before 2100 when ecological variability is accounted for, emphasizing the difficulties to detect climate change signals in ecological processes. Thankfully, some of this noise from sampling and process errors can be reduced by increasing monitoring effort and improving our understanding of how the biological systems respond to biotic and abiotic factors.

166 The detection of ToE across levels of biological organization is context-specific, and the 167 earlier detection at the population level we showed here is unlikely for semelparous species, or if

climate affects primarily fertility¹. In addition, several climate variables with different ToE may 168 169 affect the various ecological organizational levels, hence making difficult to predict which ecological level may experience an earlier detection of the climate signal. Future studies could 170 171 build upon our analysis to better understand and detect when climate-driven changes in 172 ecosystems will clearly emerge from the "noise" of variability across species with contrasting 173 life histories inhabiting different environments (e.g. various climate variability and trends)¹. 174 This is particularly urgent as ecosystems have a limited ability to adapt, and large changes outside past experience could be particularly devastating ^{37,38}. 175

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 MEV, BES; Writing – original draft: MG; Writing – review & editing: MG, SJ, ML, BES, MEV;
 Visualization: MG.

187

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189

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193

194 Figure Legends

- 195 Fig. 1. Schematic illustration of the general approach. The first panel shows forecasted
- 196 caterpillar peak dates, great tit laying dates, mismatch between caterpillar peak date and laying
- date, as well as beech crop production (two scenarios) in the studied great tit population expected
- 198 from 1920 to 2100. From the ecological time series, the points in time when climate-driven
- 199 signals in food peak, laying and mismatch can be distinguished from noise (ToE) are identified. 200 On the second panel, great tit life cycle showing age-specific vital rates (survival S_i , recruitment
- R_i) and the number of immigrants joining the population (*Nim*) as functions of mismatch, beech
- 202 crop and density N. On the third panel, forecasted vital rates and great tit population size from
- 203 1920 to 2100 according to expected mismatch under global warming and beech crop (two
- scenarios). From the time series of vital rates and population sizes, the points in time when
- climate-driven signals in vital rates (ToE_{vital}) and population size (ToE_{pop}) can be distinguished from noise are identified.
- 207

Fig. 2. Caterpillar peak dates, great tit laying dates, and mismatch forecasted under global

- warming in the studied great tit population between 1920 and 2100. Each line corresponds to
- 210 one climate scenario (40 in total), and the black line corresponds to the mean. Vertical dotted
- 211 lines indicate the historical period (1922-1950), horizontal line indicates the lower bound of the
- 212 66% interval during that period. Vertical red line corresponds to the time of emergence (ToE). In
- thick blue, annual observed values between 1985 and 2020.
- 214

215 Fig. 3. Times of Emergence (ToE) from caterpillar peak dates to population size in the

Hoge Veluwe great tit population. Columns show the ToE for the two scenarios of beech crop

217 production (scenario 1: decreasing production by 2100; scenario 2: increasing production) for the

different levels of biological organization (in rows). In red, ToE when only climate uncertainty is accounted for, and in grey ToE when all sources of ecological uncertainties are accounted for.

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316 Methods

317318 General overview

319

320 To detect climate signals cascading through levels of biological organization, we build a 321 reproducible three-step approach (Fig. S1). First, long-term data should be collected from trait 322 values, to vital rates and population size. In parallel, environmental variables should be available. 323 Different methods can be used to estimate annual vital rates and population size when the 324 detection probability is lower than 1, e.g. capture-recapture models or integrated population 325 models (IPM). When the detection probability equals to 1, other methods such as population 326 census or generalized linear models can be used. Second, the effects of environmental covariates 327 on annual variation in trait values, vital rates and population size is assessed. This can be done 328 using linear mixed models (see methods section). Third, these established relationships permit projecting time series of trait values, vital rates and population size under various environmental 329 330 scenarios in the past and in the future to quantify the time of emergence (Fig. S1) by linking 331 ecological models to climate models.

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334

335

333 Our methodological approach is divided into several objectives:

- (1) Our first objective is to determine the point in time when climate-driven signals in caterpillar peak dates timing can be distinguished from noise ($ToE_{caterpillar}$).
- (2) Our second objective is to determine the point in time when climate-driven signals in great tit laying dates can be distinguished from noise (ToE_{laying}).
- 338 (3) Our third objective is to determine the point in time when climate-driven signals in
 mismatch (between laying dates and food peak) can be distinguished from noise
 340 (ToE_{mismatch}).
- 341 (4) Our fourth objective is to determine the point in time when climate-driven signals in vital
 342 rates can be distinguished from noise (ToE_{vital} for each age-specific vital rate).
- $\begin{array}{ll} 343 \\ 344 \end{array} (5) Our fifth objective is to determine the point in time when climate-driven signals in population can be distinguished from noise (ToE_{pop}). \end{array}$
- 345

To achieve objectives 1-3, we use functional relationships linking caterpillar peak dates, laying dates and mismatch to temperatures ¹⁶. To achieve objectives 4-5, we built an IPM to estimate annual age-specific vital rates. We then estimated the functional relationships between environmental variables and vital rates using linear mixed models. Finally, to project the great tit population dynamics from 1920 to 2100, we simulated two beech crop production scenarios.

- 351
- 352 Study site and data collection
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The studied population is located at Hoge Veluwe National Park in the Netherlands ($52^{\circ}02'N$, $5^{\circ}51'E$), a wood of 171 ha. Great tits (*Parus major*) are short-lived small passerine birds, abundant in European gardens and woodlands and, in the Netherlands, not migratory. They are cavity-nesters and readily accept nest boxes as nesting sites, making it possible to monitor the entire breeding population. They produce one or two clutches each year ³⁹. In the study area, very few females bred in natural cavities and most of them bred in nest boxes ⁴⁰. The population is open to immigration and emigration ¹¹. 361 The data used in this study were collected between 1985 and 2020. Nest boxes were visited during the breeding season and laying dates were recorded (1st egg laid). In addition, 362 three types of demographic data were recorded. First, the total number of breeding females (C_t) . 363 364 As most females start to breed at one year of age, the breeding population size is a good proxy for the total number of females ⁴¹. Second, fledglings were marked with a uniquely numbered 365 leg-ring, ringed mothers identified and unringed mothers given a ring to allow for future 366 367 identifications. These unringed mothers were assumed to have immigrated into the population 368 during the year in question. The following year, they are then considered to be local females. 369 Overall, 2,204 breeding females of known age (local and immigrant) were monitored, providing 370 capture-recapture (CMR) data of known age females. We grouped the breeding birds of known age into four age classes: 1, corresponding to the first year of breeding (i.e., second calendar year 371 372 of life); 2, corresponding to the second year of breeding; 3 corresponding to the third year of 373 breeding; and 4, which groups breeding females in their fifth calendar year of life and older. 374 Third, ringed fledglings were recorded as recruited to the breeding population if they were 375 caught breeding in a subsequent year. From the monitoring of breeding females of known age, 376 we reported for each year t the observed number of breeding females in age class $i(B_{i,t})$ and also 377 the observed number of locally recruited females produced per age class $i(J_{i,t})$. In total, this type of demographic data based on reproductive success consisted of 3,675 breeding events. 378 379

380 Environmental data collection: food peak, mismatch, beech crop index and 381 temperatures

382

383 Between 1985 and 2020 (except 1991), annual peak dates of caterpillar biomass (hereafter food peak) were determined ⁴². The annual mismatch corresponded to the difference in 384 385 mean laying date for great tits minus the food peak plus 33. These 33 days accounted for 386 incubation duration and assumed that nestlings have the highest energy demand 10 days after hatching ¹⁶. In addition to caterpillars, beech mast is an important food resource for great tits, 387 especially during winter when other resources are scarce. It is also indicative of seed production 388 of other tree species ^{14,40}. The beech crop index (BCI), measured as the net weight of all nuts per 389 m^2 , was recorded annually as a three-level index (1, 2 or 3). 390

391 Annual temperatures were recorded. Previous work showed that laying dates in this great 392 tit population depended on spring temperatures from 11 March to 20 April (hereafter Temp_{laving}), whereas temperatures from 6 March to 14 May had the strongest influence on food peaks 393 (hereafter Temp_{cateroillar})¹⁶. We thus recorded mean daily temperatures during these two time 394 395 windows. We standardized Templaying and Tempcaterpillar with the mean and the variance of Temp_{laving} and Temp_{peak} observed during this period, so Temp_{laving} and Temp_{caterpillar} were 396 transformed as z-scores. Temperature data were obtained from the De Bilt station of the KNMI 397 398 (Royal Dutch Meteorological Institute), less than 50 km from the Hoge Veluwe field site.

399

400 Objective 1: Forecasting food peak and estimating ToE_{caterpillar}

401 In this population, food peak dates (in Julian date) are linked to temperatures 402 (Temp_{caterpillar}) through this relationship 16 :

403
$$food \ peak = 138.379 \ (se: 0.629) - 7.162 \ (se: 0.629) \times Temp_{caterpillar} + 3.719$$

404 Eqn. 1

405 From this relationship, we estimated past (1920-2019) and future (2020-2100) food peak dates 406 according to the RCP 8.5 climate scenario that considers no policy intervention. This scenario 407 brings together 40 ensemble members diagnosing the influence of internal climate variability on projections ¹⁵, and it is the preferred choice for assessing climate change impacts risks throughout the mid-century ⁴³. The mean and the standard deviation over 1985-2020 of all 408 409 410 members were used to transform temperatures (Temp_{caterpillar}) into z-scores. Thus, the mean and 411 the standard deviation used for standardizing each of the members was the mean of means and 412 the mean of standard deviations calculated for each member. Such a rescaling allowed observed 413 temperatures in the study site and climate scenarios (on average across all 40 of them) to be 414 aligned between 1985 and 2020 so that they had the same mean and variance. From Eqn. 1, we 415 performed 100 simulations, parameters in the equation being drawn from normal distributions. 416 This resulted in 100 simulations per member, that is 4,000 simulations from 1920 to 2100. This 417 gave us expected food peak dates when all sources of ecological uncertainties were accounted 418 for, including parameter uncertainty and process variance corresponding to unexplained temporal 419 variation in parameters beyond that explained by climate.

420 After having visually controlled for a good match between observed food peak dates and 421 predicted dates (period 1985-2020, Figure 2), we selected an historical time window during 422 which food peak dates were stable over time (1922-1950, slope of the regression between food 423 peak dates and years during this time window: 0.032 (SE: 0.025)). We computed the lower 424 bound (LB_{caterpillar}) of the 66% prediction interval for food peak dates during this historical 425 period, and determined the point in time when the upper bound (UB_{caterpillar}) of the 66% prediction interval for food peak dates became lower than LB_{caterpillar}. This point corresponded to 426 427 the time of emergence for food peak (ToE_{caterpillar}). In addition, we forecasted food peak dates but 428 we only accounted for climate uncertainty in the projections. To do so, we turned off standard 429 errors and σ (the last term) in Eqn. 1 to obtain 40 projections of food peak dates from 1920 to 430 2100, i.e. one projection per member.

- 431
- Objective 2: Forecasting laying dates and estimating ToE_{laying} (=ToE_{trait}) 432

433 We replicated the same procedure for laying dates. In this population, laying dates (in 434 Julian date) are linked to temperatures (Temp_{laving}) through this relationship 16 :

435
$$laying date = 110.980 (se: 0.582) - 4.947 (se: 0.590) \times Temp_{laying} + 3.493$$
 Eqn. 2

436 We estimated the expected annual laying dates between 1920 and 2100 according to the RCP 8.5 437 climate scenario, with all sources of uncertainty, and when only climate uncertainty was 438 accounted for. We selected an historical time window during which laying dates were stable over 439 time (1922-1950, slope of the regression between laying dates and years during this time 440 window: 0.019 (SE: 0.017)), and we identified the time of emergence for laying dates (ToE_{laving}).

- 441
- Objective 3: Forecasting mismatch and estimating ToE_{mismatch} 442
- 443

444 We then calculated the mismatch between laying dates and food peak from 1920 to 2100 as the difference in expected annual laying dates minus the expected annual food peak plus 33¹⁶. 445 This was done for the 4,000 simulations accounting for all sources of uncertainties, and for the 446

447 40 simulations accounting for climate uncertainty only. In both cases, we identified the time of 448 emergence for mismatch ($ToE_{mismatch}$).

449 450

451 Objectives 4-5: Forecasting vital rates and population dynamics and estimating 452 ToE_{vital} and TOE_{pop}

- 453
- 454

1- Estimating annual age-specific vital rates and densities

455 For populations with a recapture rate of 1, population census can be used as a proxy of 456 population size, and survival rates can simply be estimated using generalized linear model with 457 binomial link function, based on whether or not the individual has been observed. Here, we used 458 an integrated population model (IPM) to obtain accurate and precise estimates of annual 459 population size and age-specific vital rates. Even if the recapture probability is high on the study 460 site¹¹, still not all females may be recaptured, resulting in biased estimates of vital rates and 461 number of individuals. There was also a possibility of double counts, for instance if one female 462 has produced two broods but was only identified in one of them (because she has deserted one of 463 the clutches), and a possibility that some clutches are missed (because females have bred in 464 natural cavities). To estimate age-specific demographic rates and density while accounting for 465 these issues, we integrated the recorded number of breeding females (C_t) , CMR data of females of known age, and data on reproductive success (i.e., $B_{i,t}$ and $J_{i,t}$) into an IPM ³⁰ (Figure S2). 466 This framework allowed us to obtain the posterior median of age-specific vital rates (survival $S_{i,t}$, 467 recruitment $R_{i,t}$, the number of local (N_{local}) and immigrant (Nim) breeding females in each age 468 class N_i and total N (total density) for each year t with improved precision and free of observation 469 error ^{29–32,44}. The joint analysis of these three datasets thus allowed us to account for observation 470 error associated with the recorded number of counted breeding females ⁴⁵. It also allowed us to 471 account for the incomplete information on age structure in the monitoring data (e.g. some 472 473 females are of unknown age), for imperfect detection (e.g. recapture probability is not 1) and for 474 demographic stochasticity ⁴⁶.

475

476 The likelihood of the IPM corresponds to the product of the likelihoods of the three different datasets, namely CMR data, reproductive success data and population counts ⁴⁴. For 477 CMR data of breeding females of known age, we used the Cormack-Jolly-Seber model ⁴⁷ which 478 479 allows estimation of annual survival between age class i and i+1 (S_{i,t}) and annual recapture (p_t) 480 probabilities. For data on reproductive success, the observed number of daughters locally recruited per age class $i(J_{i,t})$ is Poisson distributed with $J_{i,t}$ ~Poisson $(B_{i,t} \times R_{i,t})$, where R is 481 the recruitment rate of females of age class *i* at year *t*. For the population count data, we used a 482 state-space model ⁴⁸ that consisted of a process model describing how the population size and 483 structure changed over time as well as an observation model²⁹. We considered a pre-breeding 484 485 age-structured model with the four pre-defined age classes.

The model was fitted within a Bayesian framework using NIMBLE (version 0.9.1)⁴⁹. We ran four independent chains with different starting values for 200,000 MCMC iterations, with a burn-in of 150,000 iterations, thinning every 100th observation and resulting in 2,000 posterior samples. We used the Brooks and Gelman diagnostic \hat{R} to assess the convergence of the simulations and used the rule $\hat{R} < 1.1$ to determine whether convergence was reached ⁵⁰. For a full description of the IPM, the priors used and the R code to fit the IPM, see Gamelon et al. ⁵¹.

2- Linking vital rates to BCI, mismatch and density

494 The IPM was used to estimate annual age-specific vital rates and densities. Once these 495 were estimated, we linked annual age-specific vital rates and annual number of immigrants 496 joining the local population as response variables to annual density, BCI and mismatch (from 497 1985 to 2020) (see life cycle on Fig. 1). The same approach has been done in previous studies 52^{-1}

498 ⁵⁴ that first used an IPM to estimate vital rates and density, and then used regressions to link vital 499 rates to density and/or environmental covariates. As the annual vital rates and densities are 500 estimated in the IPM model, they are not obscured by sampling variance and observation errors and thus this approach does not lead to spurious detection of density dependence ^{51,55,56}. In detail, 501 survival between two successive breeding seasons t and t+1 could be affected by BCI at time t. 502 503 Therefore, we linked age-specific survival rates $S_{i,t}$ (on a logit-scale) to BCI at t. Because the effect of BCI on survival may be age-specific, we included the interaction between age and BCI. 504 505 To account for the non-independence of the survival rates among age classes of a given year, we 506 included the year as a random effect. The linear-mixed model (LMM) took the following form:

 $logit (S_{i,t}) = \mu + \beta_{1,i} a + \beta_2 BCI_t + \beta_{3,i} [a \times BCI_t] + \beta_{year} year + \varepsilon_{S_t}$ 507 Eqn. 3 where μ is the intercept, *a* is the age class (i.e. 1, 2, 3 and 4), β are the regression coefficients, 508 509 year is the random effect and $\varepsilon_{S_{it}}$ corresponds to the residuals of the LMM. Note that the LMM 510 was weighted by the inverse of the variance of the survival rates (on a logit-scale) to account for 511 the uncertainty associated with the survival rates estimated with the IPM.

512 The recruitment rate of a given breeding season t could be affected by the number of 513 breeding females at time t in the population (density at t) and by BCI at time t. Therefore, we 514 linked the age-specific recruitment rates $R_{i,t}$ (on a log-scale) to density at t N_t and to BCI at t. 515 Because the effect of BCI and density on recruitment may be age-specific, we included the 516 interaction between age and BCI and between age and density. The LMM took the following 517 form:

518
$$log(R_{i,t}) = \nu + \beta_{1,i} a + \beta_2 BCI_t + \beta_3 N_t + \beta_{4,i} [a \times BCI_t] + \beta_{5,i} [a \times N_t] + \beta_6 year + \varepsilon_{R_{i,t}} Eqn. 4$$

where v is the intercept, a is the age class, β' are the regression coefficients, and $\varepsilon_{R_{i,t}}$ corresponds 520 to the residuals of the LMM. As done for survival rates, the LMM was weighted by the inverse 521 522 of the variance of the recruitment rates (on a log-scale) to account for the uncertainty associated 523 with the recruitment rates estimated with the IPM.

524 The number of immigrants joining the population during the breeding season t+1 may be influenced by BCI and mismatch as well as the number of local breeding females N_{local} at t. 525 Therefore, we linked the number of immigrant breeding females Nim_{t+1} to the number of local 526 527 breeding females $N_{local,t}$, BCI and mismatch at t using a generalized linear model (GLM) with 528 Poisson distribution:

529

 $Nim_{t+1} = \eta + \beta_{I,1} BCI_t + \beta_{I,2} Mism_t + \beta_{I,3} N_{local,t} + \varepsilon_{I_{t+1}}$ Eqn. 5 where η is the intercept, β_I are the regression coefficients, and $\varepsilon_{I_{t+1}}$ corresponds to the residuals 530 531 of the GLM.

- 532
- 533 3- Building the population model
- For given conditions of BCI, mismatch and densities, age-specific survival and 534

535 recruitment rates as well as the number of immigrants joining the local population may be 536 simulated (hereafter denoted $S_{sim i,t}$, $R_{sim i,t}$ and $Nim_{sim,t+1}$). As a result, the number of breeding 537 females in the population $N_{sim,t}$ may be simulated. 538 In detail, the total number of breeding females in the population at time t+1 $N_{sim t+1}$ corresponded to the sum of breeding females in each age class $i N_{sim i,t+1}$ at time t+1 (Figure 1): 539 540 $N_{sim,t+1} = N_{sim\,1,t+1} + N_{sim\,2,t+1} + N_{sim\,3,t+1} + N_{sim\,4,t+1}$ Eqn. 6 541 As most of the immigrant breeding females were females of age class 1, we assumed that (i) 542 $N_{sim 1,t+1}$ corresponded to the sum of the number of daughters that were locally recruited into the population $n_{sim,t+1}$ (i.e. produced by the breeding females of each age class) and also of the 543 544 number of immigrants *Nim_{sim,t+1}* arriving into the population: 545 $N_{sim 1,t+1} = n_{sim,t+1} + Nim_{sim,t+1}$ Eqn. 7 546 $n_{sim,t+1}$ was modeled using a Poisson distribution to include demographic stochasticity: $n_{sim,t+1} \sim Poisson(N_{sim 1,t} \times R_{sim 1,t}) + Poisson(N_{sim 2,t} \times R_{sim 2,t}) + Poisson(N_{sim 3,t} \times R_{sim 3,t})$ 547 $R_{sim 3,t}$) + Poisson($N_{sim 4,t} \times R_{sim 4,t}$) Eqn. 8 548 549 $N_{sim 2, t+1}$ corresponded to the number of females of age class 1 that survived from time t to (ii) 550 time t+1, and was modeled using a binomial process to include demographic stochasticity: 551 $N_{sim 2,t+1} \sim Bin(N_{sim 1,t}, S_{sim 1,t})$ Eqn. 9 $N_{sim 3,t+1}$ and $N_{sim 4,t+1}$ corresponded to the number of females in the previous age class that 552 (iii) 553 survived from time *t* to time t+1: $N_{sim 3,t+1} \sim Bin(N_{sim 2,t}, S_{sim 2,t})$ Eqn. 10 554 $N_{sim 4,t+1} \sim Bin(N_{sim 3,t}, S_{sim 3,t}) + Bin(N_{sim 4,t}, S_{sim 4,t})$ 555 Eqn. 11 Therefore, for given conditions of BCI, mismatch and densities, $S_{sim i,t}$, $R_{sim i,t}$ and $Nim_{sim,t+1}$ may 556 be computed. We accounted for sources of environmental stochasticity due to processes other 557 than covariates included in the model with a covariance matrix Σ of "random year effect + $\varepsilon_{S_{it}}$ " 558 and "random year effect + $\varepsilon_{R_{i,t}}$ ". The covariance matrix was estimated and new residuals were 559 560 generated from a multivariate normal distribution with covariance matrix equal to Σ . Then, N_{sim} 561 $I_{1,t+1}$, $N_{sim 2,t+1}$, $N_{sim 3,t+1}$ and $N_{sim 4,t+1}$, functions of $S_{sim i,t}$, $R_{sim i,t}$ and $Nim_{sim,t+1}$ may be computed and 562 finally, the density $N_{sim,t+1}$ may be simulated. 563 564 4- Forecasting vital rates and population size and estimating ToE_{vital} and ToE_{pop} 565 Using the age-structured population model described above, that accounted for the effects 566 567 of BCI, mismatch and density on vital rates, we forecasted the great tit population under two 568 simulated beech crop production scenarios. 569 570 a) Forecasting beech crop index under two scenarios 571 572 BCI is a categorical variable with three levels (1 (low), 2 (medium) and 3 (high 573 production)). We simulated two extreme scenarios of beech crop production by 2100. 574 In the first scenario, we simulated a decrease in beech crop production in the future. The 575 probability of having a year of low production (P(BCI=level 1)) increased over time, from 0.005 576 in1920 to 0.9 in 2100. The probability of having a year of medium production (P(BCI=level 2)) 577 was set to 0.1, the average observed between 1985 and 2020. The probability of having a year of high production (P(BCI=level 3)) corresponded to 1-P(BCI=level 1)-P(BCI=level 2) and thus 578 579 ranged from 0.895 to 0 from 1920 to 2100 (Extended Data Fig. 3, left panel). For each year, we

580 performed 100 draws from a three-category multinomial distribution with probabilities 581 P(BCI=level 1), P(BCI=level 2), P(BCI=level 3). This resulted in 100 simulated time-series of 582 BCI between 1920 and 2100. These projections of BCI expressed as levels (1, 2 and 3) were 583 used afterwards to project the great tit population size.

584 In the second scenario, we simulated an increase in beech crop production in the future. 585 The probability of having a year of high production (P(BCI=level 3)) increased over time, from 586 0.005 in 1920 to 0.9 in 2100. The probability of having a year of medium production 587 (P(BCI=level 2)) was set to 0.1. The probability of having a year of low production (P(BCI=level 588 1)) corresponded to 1-P(BCI=level 2)-P(BCI=level 3) and thus ranged from 0.895 to 0 from 589 1920 to 2100 (Extended Data Fig. 3, right panel). For each year, we performed 100 draws from a 590 three-category multinomial distribution with probabilities P(BCI=level 1), P(BCI=level 2), 591 P(BCI=level 3). This resulted in 100 simulated time-series of BCI between 1920 and 2100.

- 592
- 593 594

b) Forecasting vital rates and great tit population size

595 Using trajectories of mismatch expected from 1920 to 2100 under the RCP 8.5 scenario 596 that accounted for all sources of uncertainties (see objective 3) and simulated trajectories of BCI 597 simulated according to the first scenario (decreasing beech crop production) as well as the age-598 specific densities in 1987 estimated with the IPM, we simulated 100 stochastic trajectories in 599 vital rates and population sizes per ensemble member from 1920 to 2100, resulting in a total of 600 4,000 stochastic trajectories. We computed the 95% and 66% prediction intervals of the 601 predicted age-specific vital rates, number of immigrants and total population size. We then 602 selected an historical time window during which population size was stable over time (1922 -603 1950, slope of the regression between population size and years during this time window: 0.092 604 (SE: 0.217)) and estimated the time of emergence for population size (ToE_{pop}) and vital rates 605 (ToE_{vital}). In addition, we forecasted the great tit population but accounted for climate uncertainty only in the projections. To do so, we used trajectories of mismatch expected from 1920 to 2100 606 607 that accounted for climate uncertainty only, and turned off stochasticity in Eqn. 8-11 as well as 608 the covariance matrix, to obtain 40 projections of age-specific vital rates and population sizes 609 from 1920 to 2100, i.e. one projection per member.

610 We replicated the exact same procedure with trajectories of BCI simulated according to 611 the second scenario (increasing beech crop production) to obtain forecasted time-series of vital 612 rates and population size.

- 613
- 614 All of these analyses were performed with R software 57.
- 615
- 616 **Data availability:** Data used in the analysis are available at
- 617 <u>https://github.com/marleng/ToE_greattit</u>⁵⁸.
- 618 Data on past observed beech crop index, past observed mismatch between laying dates and food
- 619 peaks, expected spring temperature according to the RCP 8.5 scenario, past observed annual age-
- 620 specific population size and vital rates and their variance are provided.
- 621
- 622 **Code availability:** R code used for the analysis is available at
- $623 \qquad <u>https://github.com/marleng/ToE_greattit</u>⁵⁸.$
- 624

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