

# 1 Why link diverse citizen science surveys? Widespread arboreal habits of a 2 terrestrial amphibian revealed by mammalian tree surveys in Britain

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11

## 12 Abstract

13 Terrestrial anurans, with their typically short limbs, heavy-set bodies and absent claws or  
14 toe pads are incongruous tree climbers, but even occasional arboreal locomotion could offer  
15 substantial advantages for evading predators or accessing new shelter or food resources.  
16 Despite recent interest, arboreal behaviour remains rarely and unsystematically described  
17 for terrestrial amphibians in Europe, likely due to fundamental differences in survey  
18 methods and therefore a lack of field data. However, other taxa surveys specifically target  
19 trees and tree cavities. We undertook collaborations and large-scale data searches with  
20 citizen science projects surveying for arboreal mammals in Britain to investigate potential  
21 tree climbing by amphibians at a national scale. Remarkably, we found widespread arboreal  
22 usage by amphibians in England and Wales, with occupancy of hazel dormouse  
23 (*Muscardinus avellenarius*) nest boxes, tree cavities investigated as potential bat roosts and  
24 even a bird nest by common toads (*Bufo bufo*), but few additional records of frogs or newts.  
25 Toads are potentially attracted to tree cavities and arboreal nests because they provide safe  
26 and damp microenvironments which can support an abundance of invertebrate prey but the  
27 importance of such tree microhabitats for toad conservation remains unknown. Possible  
28 interactions with arboreal mammals are also unclear, but such mammals and even some  
29 birds may benefit from the occasional presence of toads if they feed on the mites and other  
30 arthropods that frequently infest their nests. We encourage expanding and linking of  
31 unrelated monitoring surveys and citizen science initiatives as valuable tools for  
32 investigating ecological traits and interactions.

## 33 Key Words

34 *Bufo bufo*; arboreality, arboreal *Bufo* spp.; scansorial; amphibian locomotion

35

## 36 Introduction

37 Arboreal amphibians are vastly better represented in tropical compared to temperate  
38 regions, with the maximum diversity they reach in the tropics linked to the patterns of high  
39 precipitation and low annual seasonality as well as the variations in vegetation structure and  
40 the more complex habitat microniches in such environments (1). There is also substantial  
41 variation between temperate continental regions, with very few arboreal amphibian species  
42 in Europe compared with North America, and entirely represented in Europe by the genus  
43 *Hyla*, which was previously regarded as a single species - the European tree frog *Hyla*  
44 *arborea*.

45 Most arboreal amphibians use climbing as a way of locomotion in addition to jumping ability  
46 and have obvious morphological adaptations to facilitate surface climbing and movements  
47 on branches and leaves. Such adaptations in arboreal amphibians include toe disc  
48 modifications of the last phalanx to end with a hook as well as toe pads to allow gripping  
49 onto smooth surfaces but also longer digits, palm claspings, proportionally longer limbs and  
50 slender bodies and larger diapophyseal expansion, which allows greater fore-aft translation  
51 of the iliac shafts during climbing (2). Tree frogs also have strong abilities for attaching to a  
52 variety of surfaces using their versatile and complex toe pads which involves the secretion  
53 of mucus into the pad-substrate gap (3) but they likely rely on several attachment  
54 mechanisms given that they climb a wide diversity of natural surfaces and can vary greatly in  
55 size (4). By contrast, typical terrestrial amphibians are generally heavier, with squat bodies  
56 and proportionately shorter limbs (5; 6) and can produce substantially more eggs and prey  
57 on larger food items.

58 True toads, comprising the family *Bufo*idae, include both typical terrestrial hoppers but  
59 also riparian leapers (e.g. *Phryno*idis *aspera*), terrestrial crawlers (e.g. *Melanophryniscus*  
60 *stelzneri*) and even several species of arboreal toads, in particular in SE Asia (e.g. *Pedostibes*  
61 *hosii*) (7). However, even some typical terrestrial toads which use hopping for locomotion,  
62 such as *Rhinella arenarum* from South America, were recently shown during climbing tests  
63 and morphological analyses of the limbs to be able to climb wooden structures of up to 90%  
64 inclination but were using different strategies compared with tree frogs, including flexing  
65 their fingers and toes to grasp at the substrate and displaying hooking and partial grasping  
66 (8). Climbing ability was also recently noted for other *Rhinella* toad species but based on few  
67 chance observations in the field (9; 10).

68 Temperate region toads are considered archetypal terrestrial amphibians and while there  
69 are some literature mentions of arboreal habits, these are typically rare observations of 1-2  
70 individuals (11). These observations include the common toad *Bufo bufo* in Europe, one of  
71 the most widespread and common amphibians in Europe, which inhabits most of the  
72 continent, from the west coast of Britain to eastern Siberia and Kazakhstan (12). Species in  
73 other families of European terrestrial amphibians such as smooth newts *Lissotriton vulgaris*  
74 are also known to be able to climb vegetation and tree trunks, with some collated records

75 from Denmark and Germany describing this behaviour (13). However, given that survey  
76 schemes for European amphibians focus almost exclusively on aquatic and ground-level  
77 terrestrial areas, there is an inherent inability to collect information on arboreal usage for  
78 this group, meaning our understanding remains very limited. There is substantial interest  
79 currently in managing European forests to benefit biodiversity including for providing and  
80 protecting microhabitats such as tree cavities for various groups such as bats, birds or  
81 insects (14; 15). Understanding if and how amphibians might use such arboreal  
82 microhabitats in trees could improve their conservation management and might be  
83 important for the broader implementation value of any such forestry focused management  
84 options.

85 Following a report about a toad in a dormouse nest box in England in 2016, and discussions  
86 with amphibian and mammal surveyors in Britain, it became apparent that while there are  
87 virtually no meaningful arboreal data for amphibians collected by herpetologists there  
88 might be broader potentially relevant survey data elsewhere. As an alternative to amphibian  
89 surveys, we used two major citizen science project schemes that focus on arboreal mammal  
90 monitoring in the UK to verify if such projects could contain valuable information on the  
91 arboreal occurrence of amphibians at a national level and, if so, to quantify and understand  
92 the extent, the potential reasons and implications for this behaviour at a national scale.

### 93 **Methods**

94 To investigate potential tree climbing behaviour by amphibians we analysed data records  
95 from the main arboreal mammal survey projects in the UK, starting with the National  
96 Dormouse Monitoring Programme (NDMP). NDMP targets hazel dormouse, a nocturnal and  
97 rapidly declining arboreal species in the UK, which has become the focus of several  
98 conservation and reintroduction initiatives in England and Wales in the past decades (16).  
99 The scheme is supported and administered by the conservation NGO People's Trust for  
100 Endangered Species (PTES) and between 1988-2014, 640 sites were monitored as part of  
101 NDMP, with a mean number of 77 boxes used to survey for dormice in sites with dormice  
102 presence (17), each checked a minimum of twice per year in spring and autumn, although  
103 some boxes are checked as often as monthly during the active season (April-November).  
104 Not all NDPM sites have dormouse populations and not all dormouse monitoring is part of  
105 this scheme, including those undertaken by ecological consultants in relation to planning  
106 proposals. NDMP guidance recommends that ideal monitoring sites should have 50 or more  
107 dormouse nest boxes, spaced 10-20 m apart in parallel lines, which should also be 10-20 m  
108 apart (18; 19). Dormouse nest boxes are wooden boxes similar to bird nest boxes but with  
109 the 3.5 cm entrance hole positioned immediately near the supporting tree or branch, and  
110 should be placed ideally 120-150 cm off the ground on coppiced hazel trees (*Corylus*  
111 *avellana*) where possible, or other shrubs or young trees well linked to the adjacent  
112 understorey and canopy (18). As dormice are legally protected monitoring requires a  
113 licence. The standardised NDMP recording form asks information on other mammals  
114 present in the nest box (e.g. mice or voles) but not specifically for other animal species (19).

115 Given that it was assumed that amphibian records were not consistently reported in the  
116 standardised forms by dormouse surveyors, a short online data request was sent to the  
117 NDMP surveyors by PTES in September 2016 and again in May-June 2021, asking for  
118 information about any amphibian records noted by observers during the nest box  
119 monitoring scheme. Data submissions were checked and some surveyors were additionally  
120 contacted to verify site details or to ask additional information. Some dormouse surveyors  
121 sent records from monitoring outside of NDMP, using both nest boxes and hair tubes.

122 Secondly, we investigated datasets collected for other arboreal mammals in the UK and in  
123 particular, bats. The citizen science initiative behind the Bat Tree Habitat Key (BTHK) project  
124 offers a publicly available but site anonymised database (20). The project began officially in  
125 2010 and the majority of records were made in the period 2015-2019 but its associated  
126 database has records dating back to 2002. Surveyors, including trained and licensed  
127 volunteers and professionals, identify and surveys trees across the UK, searching for  
128 potential roost features (PRFs), and describe them in detail using standardised forms to  
129 record physical characteristics and environmental information. Records span all months and  
130 some PRFs have been subject to monthly inspections over three years. However, as with  
131 other citizen science projects, the BTHK project is mostly supported by qualified people  
132 recording data in their local woodlands and in their own free time. As a result, records tend  
133 to be biased toward periods when bats were present. Tree and site selection criteria vary,  
134 with some structured surveys of a particular area of wooded habitat where surveyors tried  
135 to map all the PRFs for repeat inspection as part of a Bat Group project, while others have  
136 radio-tracked bats to their roosts and catalogued the PRF as part of a research project, or  
137 have recorded roosts during ecological consultancy surveys (although these records are in  
138 the minority), and some volunteers just take their endoscope when walking in local  
139 woodlands to search and record PRFs they can access from the ground as they come across  
140 them. Collated data in the standardised BTHK forms include survey dates, tree location, tree  
141 species, tree height and DBH (diameter at breast height), PRF entrance height, the internal  
142 dimensions and the environment offered (e.g., apparent humidity, substrate texture and  
143 even smell) as well as any species using it; primarily bats but also any other mammals (e.g.  
144 squirrels), birds, arthropods, gastropods, other species and signs of animal usage such as  
145 bird or mammal nests. As bats are also protected species BTHK surveys operate under  
146 specific bat licences.

147 Most tree cavity inspections can be performed from the ground, but some bat surveyors are  
148 qualified to access PRFs in the canopy using specialist equipment, such as ropes or  
149 mechanical elevating work platforms. The PRFs are investigated using camera endoscopes  
150 (such as the Ridgid CA series or NHBS Explorer Premium). The endoscope lenses have  
151 integral LED lamps and live view is visible to the surveyor on a screen, so disturbance is  
152 controlled. In addition, the units allow the surveyor to record video footage and  
153 photographs of the inspection for later data verification and storage. This means that the  
154 numbers of bats and their species can be verified later, thus minimising the duration of the

155 inspection. It also allows advice to be sought for other species that require specialist  
156 knowledge, such as invertebrates.

157 Finally, we discussed our data collection project with other NGOs and groups of ecological  
158 consultants to verify the presence of additional records from pre-existing survey datasets.

### 159 ***Statistical analysis***

160 To investigate tree and tree cavity selection by toads in the BTHK dataset we compared  
161 trees and PRFs used by toads to those where toads were absent and used a Generalised  
162 Linear Mixed Model (GLMM) (21; 22) and a Gaussian/normal error family as we expect tree  
163 and PRF size measurements to follow this distribution. We used four separate models to  
164 investigate the variation in four response variables (tree height (m), DBH (cm), PRF height  
165 (m), and PRF entrance height (cm)) and whether this was explained by the explanatory  
166 binary variable of the presence of toads. All analyses were carried out in R (23) using the  
167 lme4 (24), multcomp (25), and MuMIn (26) packages. To compare tree size measurements  
168 (DBH and height) we aggregated the BTHK dataset by the unique identifier for each tree  
169 surveyed and used a random effect for the survey location (i.e., site name) to account for  
170 the fact that several trees were sampled within each survey location. For PRF size  
171 measurements (height and entrance height) we aggregated the BTHK dataset by the unique  
172 identifier of the PRF (a combination of the tree identifier and PRF number) and used two  
173 nested random effects, tree identifier within survey location, to account for the fact that  
174 sometimes several PRFs were sampled on the same tree, and several trees were sampled  
175 within each survey location. We determined p-values and modelling statistics by comparing  
176 the model with the term of interest (presence of toads) to a model without (i.e., an  
177 equivalent intercept-only model), and then conducting a likelihood ratio test.

178 We also compared the tree and PRF measurements for trees where toads were present to  
179 those in which slugs, snails, blue tits (*Cyanistes caeruleus*), and woodlice (*Oniscidea*)  
180 occurred (as well as all other animals in the BTHK dataset labelled as 'other'). We selected  
181 these animal groups as they represented the four most recorded animal groups in the BTHK  
182 dataset (see Table 1). For all species data were recorded as presence absence in each PRF  
183 but for vertebrates the total number was recorded when there was more than one  
184 individual present. We used the same four model specifications as before (in terms of tree  
185 and PRF measurements and random effects) but used a different categorical explanatory  
186 variable that indicated the presence of toads, slugs, snails, blue tits, woodlice, or other  
187 animal groups. We used multiple comparison tests with the Tukey adjustment to test for  
188 differences in tree and PRF measurements between these animal groups. Plots of model  
189 residuals approximately followed a normal distribution and there were no strong patterns of  
190 residuals versus fitted model values, indicating modelling assumptions held. Marginal and  
191 conditional  $R^2$  values were computed for each model.

### 192 **Results**

193 We identified and collated records of amphibians associated with dormouse surveys from  
194 18 sites, with dates of observations spread between 2009 and 2019. Most records (30  
195 individuals) came specifically from checking dormice nest boxes as part of NDMP, but one  
196 was from a recent but empty blackbird (*Turdus merula*) nest found in the tree while  
197 checking the dormouse nest box. Another record was from an ecological survey to verify the  
198 presence of dormice using hair tubes, with a toad using the hair tube, and one was from  
199 dormouse monitoring using nest boxes but not part of the national monitoring scheme.  
200 Although several amphibians were found in dormice nests inside nest boxes, none were  
201 observed simultaneously in the nest box or the tree cavity with arboreal mammals or birds  
202 in either of the survey schemes investigated. All amphibian observations from the dormouse  
203 survey scheme were linked to rural woodland areas located in England and Wales (Fig 1A).

204 In addition, the 1,388 trees surveyed in the Bat Tree Habitat Key project generated a further  
205 20 other amphibian records from 5 sites (Fig. 1B; Table 1), all from 2015-2019, including  
206 with multiple individuals. A distinct record came from a separate bat roost survey.

207 Most amphibians recorded were common toads but we also collected two records of  
208 common frog, *Rana temporaria* in dormouse nest boxes and two of newts, a smooth newt  
209 male and two great crested newts *Triturus cristatus*, found in tree cavities during bat  
210 surveys. One adult toad was discovered dead inside a dormouse nest box but the cause of  
211 death was unknown.

212 There was no obvious seasonal pattern in the distribution of amphibians in either nest  
213 boxes or tree cavities, but of the total 54 amphibians recorded there were more  
214 observations in summer months May-July (54% of observations) compared to spring  
215 (March-May: 9%) or autumn (September-October: 37%).

216 Nest box height was sometimes not recorded in the NDMP database, as most sites include a  
217 substantial number of such boxes and the variation between them in terms of height is  
218 small as following guidance most are placed at “chest height” or between 120 to 150 cm  
219 height, to facilitate checking by volunteers. For the BTHK, where PRF height was recorded as  
220 standard, the mean height of cavities occupied by toads was 134 cm but there were records  
221 of 192 cm and 216 cm and the maximum recorded cavity height occupied by a toad was  
222 over 3 m, within a cavity with the entrance at 280 cm height in an oak tree and an additional  
223 25 cm up above the entrance inside the feature (Figure 2A).

224 The average size of trees occupied by amphibians in BTHK (trees used by toads: average  
225 height 10.4 m, average DBH: 28.8 cm) was smaller compared with the wider dataset of  
226 surveyed trees (average tree height: 12.6 m, average DBH: 43.6 cm), with wide variation  
227 between groups of animals recorded in tree cavities (Figure 3).

228 In the BTHK dataset, the number of toad records was small, which limited the statistical  
229 power of our models to detect differences in tree measurements between trees with toads  
230 versus other animals. The fixed effect of toad presence was poor at explaining the variation



231 in different tree and PRF measurements (extremely low marginal  $R^2$  values, all less than  
232 0.004) and it was clear that the random effects of survey location and tree identifier  
233 explained far more of the variation (higher values of conditional  $R^2$  values ranging from 0.30  
234 – 0.88;). Nevertheless, summary statistics and high variability in tree and PRF measurements  
235 in the BTHK dataset supported our model's inconclusive findings that toad selection of trees  
236 was similar compared to the wider dataset in terms of tree height (tstat: 0.71; pvalue: 0.98),  
237 DBH (tstat: 0.73; pvalue: 0.97), PRF entrance height (tstat: 0.97; pvalue: 0.93). Trees  
238 occupied by toads were also similar in height to those selected by blue tits, snails, slugs, and  
239 woodlice (Figure 3; Supplementary material S1), but there was an indication that snails were  
240 selecting lower height trees compared to the available trees (tstat: -2.86; pvalue: 0.04).  
241 There was no apparent pattern in the orientation of the entrances into PRFs used by  
242 amphibians, with three PRFs facing NW, three SE, three SW, four West, four East and one  
243 North.

244 Amphibians in BTHK were recorded in PRFs located in seven tree species: sycamore *Acer*  
245 *pseudoplatanus*, alder *Alnus glutinosa*, downy birch *Betula pubescens*, silver birch *Betula*  
246 *pendula*, hazel *Corylus avellana*, common oak *Quercus robur* and especially goat willow *Salix*  
247 *caprea*. Compared to the nearly 50 species surveyed overall in BTHK (including some hybrids  
248 and others identified only to genus level), the tree selection by amphibians was broadly  
249 similar to its availability in the dataset for some tree species, with of the two most common  
250 tree species surveyed in BTHK, sycamore and common oak, used by 17.6% and 11.8% of  
251 toads and represented 6.9% and 11% of all trees surveyed. However, there was a substantial  
252 difference apparent for goat willow, which was used by 35.3% of amphibian records despite  
253 representing only 1.1% of all trees surveyed in the BTHK project and suggesting positive  
254 selection for the environmental conditions associated with this tree species (e.g. damp or  
255 wet woodland). By contrast, pedunculate oak *Quercus petraea* was the third most  
256 frequently surveyed tree species in the project (33.6% of all surveyed trees) yet none of the  
257 PRFs surveyed for this tree species were used by amphibians. All trees used by amphibians  
258 were live trees.

## 259 Discussion

260 Most animal species use a characteristic primary mode of locomotion for the majority of  
261 their daily activities, but several species were shown to be capable of expanding their  
262 locomotion mode in order to access atypical habitats or substrates, such as some European  
263 terrestrial rodents when climbing vegetation (27). Even if rarely used, this ability to adjust  
264 the movement type to access otherwise inaccessible areas may confer those individuals  
265 important or even critical advantages in particular situations such as during dispersal, when  
266 facing stressful environmental situations such as drought, fires or flooding, or during the  
267 generation of new ecological niches (8). The collated data from arboreal mammal surveys in  
268 Britain demonstrates that some amphibian species regularly climb trees in Britain and do so  
269 across their active period in the year, although with an apparent increase in summer and  
270 autumn months. While literature examples and discussions with experts indicated such

271 behaviour and ability to climb vegetation for some newt species and especially the smooth  
272 newt (11), our collated dataset from nest boxes and tree cavities is overwhelmingly and  
273 unexpectedly comprised of common toad records.

274 Common toads are morphologically a typical terrestrial anuran, with short legs keeping the  
275 body close to the ground, slow walking or hopping movements and heavy body weight,  
276 especially for adult females, but which has been described as a “laborious climber” which  
277 can overcome many obstacles on its way (28), particularly during the spring migration to the  
278 breeding ponds (29). They are considered adaptable habitat generalists, inhabiting  
279 woodland, grassland, farmland and coastal areas, can tolerate some degree of urbanisation  
280 and often occupy artificial wetlands such as reservoirs or large man-made ponds (30)  
281 although it has suffered large scale declines in Britain in recent decades (31). Toads live  
282 overwhelmingly terrestrial lives, normally only found in water during breeding in March-  
283 April as adults and March-July as tadpoles, they hibernate on land, and usually spend  
284 daytime periods under dead wood or large rocks and emerging at night to ambush hunt  
285 woodlice, earthworms, slugs and ants. The preference for wooded habitat, in particular  
286 deciduous woodland, is well known for this species, with the probability of toad occurrence  
287 positively associated with the presence of nearby wooded habitat (32; 33). Yet, despite the  
288 fact that their biology and ecology are well documented and that it is universally described  
289 as a terrestrial species, there are rare instances documenting vegetation climbing in this  
290 species but they are either general and do not provide specific details (28) or refer to chance  
291 observations of 1-2 individuals (13). However, Gosá (34) recorded in northern Spain that  
292 local toads (now recognised as a separate species, *Bufo spinosus*) were using roots and low  
293 oak-trunk sections in an old-growth oak forest and collected over 200 observations of  
294 amphibians in 2000-2003 of such climbing behaviour, mostly *Bufo spinosus* (129  
295 observations with an average climbing height of 39 cm and maximum height of 197 cm) but  
296 also *Alytes obstetricans* (66 observations at 34 cm average height, maximum height 135 cm)  
297 and *Rana temporaria* (9 observations, 14 cm average height, maximum 30 cm) and  
298 suggested this behaviour was linked to a search for humidity provided by moss growing on  
299 oak as records were rare during the wet season (March to early June) but increased during  
300 the dry period (September—October) (34).

301 While the 19 toad records in 1,388 trees surveyed (1.37% occupancy) and over 7000 tree  
302 cavity surveys in the BTHK database might suggest toads are relatively rare users of tree  
303 cavities, the numbers of toad records are comparable with the those for other vertebrate  
304 species in the same dataset (Table 1). For instance, several deciduous tree cavity nesting  
305 bird species with very large breeding populations in the UK such as blue tits, estimated at  
306 3.6 million breeding territories, had only 94 records in BTHK. Even fewer records were  
307 collated for other common birds that tree cavities, including great tits (*Parus major*) with a  
308 UK breeding population estimated at 2.5 million pairs or jackdaws (*Corvus monedula*) with  
309 1.4 million pairs (35). Only 99 additional BTHK records included empty bird nests in tree  
310 cavities. Altogether, the relatively small number of BTHK records of species known to often



311 rely on tree cavities for breeding, such as blue tits, and their overall UK abundance  
312 numbering in the millions, plus the fact that there are 3.23 million hectares of woodland in  
313 the UK (36), containing perhaps 3 billion trees, suggest that the number of toads regularly  
314 using tree cavities in Britain could be substantial. As shown at the site with the highest  
315 numbers of observation (West Heath in Hampshire), the presence of suitable trees with tree  
316 cavities and large ponds nearby, might increase opportunities for tree habitat usage by  
317 toads. This matches well with the proposed conservation measures for common toads, that  
318 include increased density of both wooded and wet habitats (e.g. through pond and ditch  
319 creation) in farmland (32). That goat willow appeared particularly used compared to their  
320 low availability is not surprising given that this tree prefers wet areas, often bordering  
321 bodies of freshwater such as lakes. It is however important to note that that the overall  
322 sampling regime in our dataset was biased towards the survey of target species (i.e. hazel  
323 dormouse and bats) and as such these results are potentially not representative of the true  
324 habitat use of non-target species such as toads.

325 The spatial distribution of amphibians in dormouse nest boxes in our dataset is probably an  
326 artefact of the dormouse distribution area in Britain and the monitoring survey intensity for  
327 this species, which are mainly focusing on their remnant strongholds in southern England  
328 and southern Wales and the English-Welsh border (19). The Bat Tree Habitat Key tree  
329 monitoring database is more widely distributed in the UK, reflecting the broader distribution  
330 of tree-dwelling bat species in Britain compared with dormice (Fig 1B). However, a relatively  
331 similar distribution pattern was apparent for the amphibian records collated as part of BTHK  
332 project, despite the wider, if unequal spatial coverage across Britain and even in Northern  
333 Ireland.

334 Anurans can use a range of movements on the ground, including leaping, walking, crawling  
335 or hopping. However, while arboreal species have no difficulty to switch to terrestrial  
336 locomotion (as most anurans are capable of hopping), the reverse is far more problematic  
337 for terrestrial anurans with short limbs and a heavy body, and thus cases of terrestrial frogs  
338 or toads climbing trees or cliffs remain rare (8). What is particularly remarkable in our  
339 dataset is the height of several observations, with a record of a toad in a tree feature with  
340 the entrance at 2.8 m height from the ground. By comparison, of the four individuals of  
341 *Rhinella margaritifera* and one individual of *R. castaneotica* recorded above ground level on  
342 vegetation, one was at 130 cm above the ground while the others were at 32 cm, 45, 75 and  
343 102 cm above ground level (9). For another terrestrial anuran capable of climbing, the  
344 catastrophically invasive cane toad *R. marina* in Australia, Hudson et al. (37) found strong  
345 differences in climbing ability associated with sex and relative limb length, but also  
346 population of origin, with longer-limbed male individuals as better climbers within each  
347 population. Yet, the climbing ability of cane toads appeared primarily driven by the local  
348 environmental conditions that supported or rewarded such arboreal activity (37).

349 Few European terrestrial amphibians are known to climb tree trunks and low branches but  
350 smooth newts have been recognised as capable climbers (13). The reasons why they do so

351 remain unknown and the extent of this behaviour might be underestimated by our data  
352 which did not include surveys of shrubs. While European newts have lungs, they are  
353 superficially similar to plethodontid salamanders (found mostly in temperate and tropical  
354 Americas) which are known to have substantial arboreality, with some 45% of all non-  
355 aquatic species being either arboreal or facultative arboreal (38). Yet, even for plethodontid  
356 salamanders the prevalence of arboreal behaviour remains insufficiently recognized and  
357 often reliant on opportunistic observations (38), thus hampering adequate links with species  
358 ecology and conservation management of their environments.

359 Our systematic field surveys of dormouse nest boxes and unsystematic but large-scale  
360 surveys of tree cavities demonstrate that common toads, although apparently poorly suited  
361 morphologically to this locomotion type, are in fact capable of extensive tree climbing.  
362 Common toads presumably achieve this by using the fingers and toes to perform sufficient  
363 substrate gripping to allow them to climb arboreal environments, both for relatively flat and  
364 steep angle large tree trunks as well as near-vertical small diameter tree trunks. However,  
365 why apparently substantial numbers of adult toads climb trees, how long they remain there,  
366 and how they select trees with cavities or arboreal nests remains unknown. An arboreal  
367 niche might allow toads opportunities to survive either as a resting site where predators can  
368 be avoided, or as novel foraging areas (8; 39) compared to the ground level where they risk  
369 being hunted or parasitized. The toadfly *Lucillia bufonivora* is the obligate agent of myiasis in  
370 amphibians and an important specific parasite of common toads, found in both open  
371 habitats and shaded woodland in different European studies (40). In Britain, most toadfly  
372 records are from England (41), yet even there it is considered rare, perhaps a consequence  
373 of the recent declines of its main hosts, the common toad. Similarly, barred grass snakes  
374 (*Natrix helvetica*) are the main predator of toads and are common and widely distributed in  
375 England and Wales. They possess the ability to consume common toads as tadpoles and  
376 adults, despite toads being poisonous to other species. Both toadfly and grass snakes are  
377 largely absent in Scotland, where we also did not record any observations of amphibians in  
378 tree cavities. However, this could also be explained by the biases in the datasets we  
379 analysed. The hypothesis that toads climb trees more often in areas with high predator or  
380 parasite risk remains untested but could be a topic for future studies.

381 Our findings on the climbing ability of toads also have practical conservation relevance since  
382 toads often fall into road drains and gully pots. A central mitigation solution is to install  
383 perforated metal or mesh “ladders” to allow escape from such traps (42) and a good  
384 climbing ability is therefore crucial.

385 We can only speculate as to the exact reasons for the presence of toads in dormice nests  
386 boxes. However, some information does exist on amphibians using arboreal mammal nests,  
387 such as arboreal salamanders *Aneides lugubris* and *A. ferreus* utilizing *Arborimus spp.* vole  
388 nests up to at least 20 m high in forest canopy in western USA (43). In six of the ten cases,  
389 both salamander species and voles were present at the same time and authors suggested

390 that the presence of salamanders may benefit the voles by feeding on the mites and  
391 dipterans which may parasites the voles (43).

392 Currently, survey limitations and lack of appropriate field data are hampering our ability to  
393 investigate the arboreal ecology and behaviour of common toads. For example, much like  
394 other British amphibians, the nocturnal and generalist nature of common toads means that  
395 nearly all surveys of this species are undertaken during the breeding time, when adults  
396 congregate at aquatic sites. Substantially less survey effort is targeted at their terrestrial  
397 habitats given that toads can inhabit many different habitats and are difficult to detect (32).  
398 This is a common problem for amphibian surveys but also for other nocturnal species  
399 surveys, where observations are generally biased towards sites or times that facilitate  
400 observations. However, as shown in this study, there is untapped potential to use data from  
401 surveys targeted at particular species, such as from volunteer-led surveys and citizen  
402 science, to answer interesting questions for other, non-target species. For example, in the  
403 UK, where citizen science has a long history and diversity of projects (44), one of the largest  
404 structured datasets of mammal records comes from the Breeding Bird Surveys (BBS). The  
405 BBS is run with volunteers and coordinated by the British Trust for Ornithology, generating  
406 important understanding of mammal distribution and abundance trends, although there are  
407 some careful considerations to consider during data verification and expert validation of  
408 spatial outputs (45).

409 Arboreal locomotion and occupancy of tree cavities and nests in European forests by  
410 terrestrial amphibians such as common toad appears a much more common phenomenon  
411 than previously thought, yet this apparently widespread behaviour remains largely  
412 unrecognised and the drivers behind it are unknown. The fact that standardised survey data  
413 has existed unused for nearly a decade in Britain from separate monitoring projects should  
414 act as an incentive for other researchers to investigate such collaborations. Future citizen  
415 science should look beyond distribution and abundance data and target complex species  
416 interactions (46); collecting and integrating diverse citizen science datasets across taxa  
417 groups could provide valuable datasets for further study.

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## 424 Ethical Statements

425 Funding: the authors declare that no funds, grants, or other support were received during  
426 the preparation of this manuscript. Conflict of interest: none. Ethical approval and informed  
427 consent: All observations followed protocols for protected species and the ethical standards  
428 considered for these licenses. No animal testing or experimentation took place.

## 429 Data availability

430 All BTHK data is openly available [http://battreehabitatkey.co.uk/?page\\_id=18](http://battreehabitatkey.co.uk/?page_id=18) but site  
431 location is excluded. Overall site location data is not provided for any observations given the  
432 protected status of the included surveyed species (bats and dormice) and the best practice  
433 for records of such species.

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559

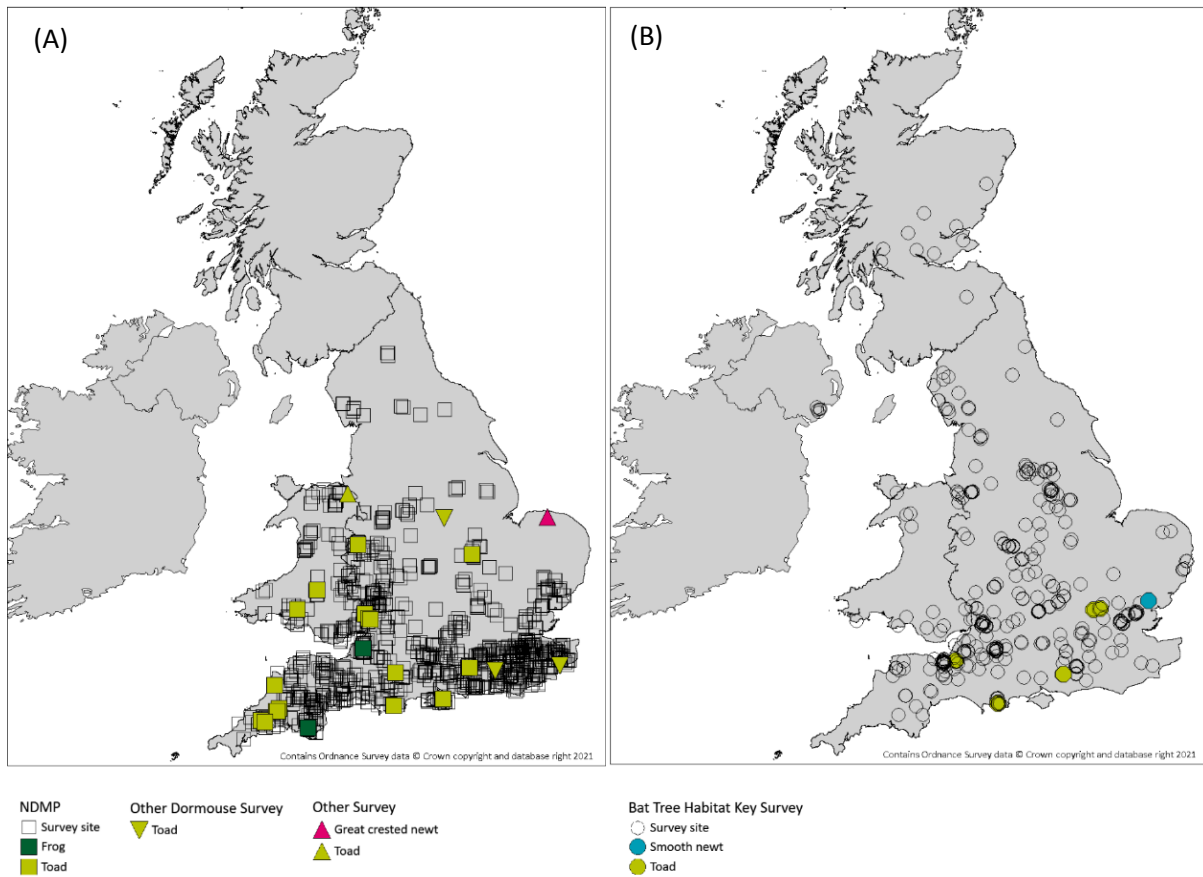
Total BTHK trees surveyed	Total PRFs	Toad records	Smooth newt	Blue tit	Great tit	Jackdaw	Grey squirrel	Hazel dormouse	Woodlice PRFs	Slug PRFs	Snail PRFs	Bird nests
1388	6078	19	1	94	5	3	16	3	1012	298	82	99

560

561 Table 1. Total trees and tree cavities (PRFs) surveyed as part of the standardised monitoring  
562 in the Bat Tree Habitat Key scheme in the UK and comparisons of amphibian records with  
563 other animal species and bird nests identified.

564

565



566

567 Figure 1. A. Survey sites and amphibian records as part of National Dormouse Monitoring  
568 project plus other single site arboreal mammal surveys. Note that in some cases there are  
569 multiple toad records in the same site. B. BTHK survey sites and amphibian records. Note  
570 that in some cases there are multiple toad records in different trees at the same site or in  
571 the same tree.





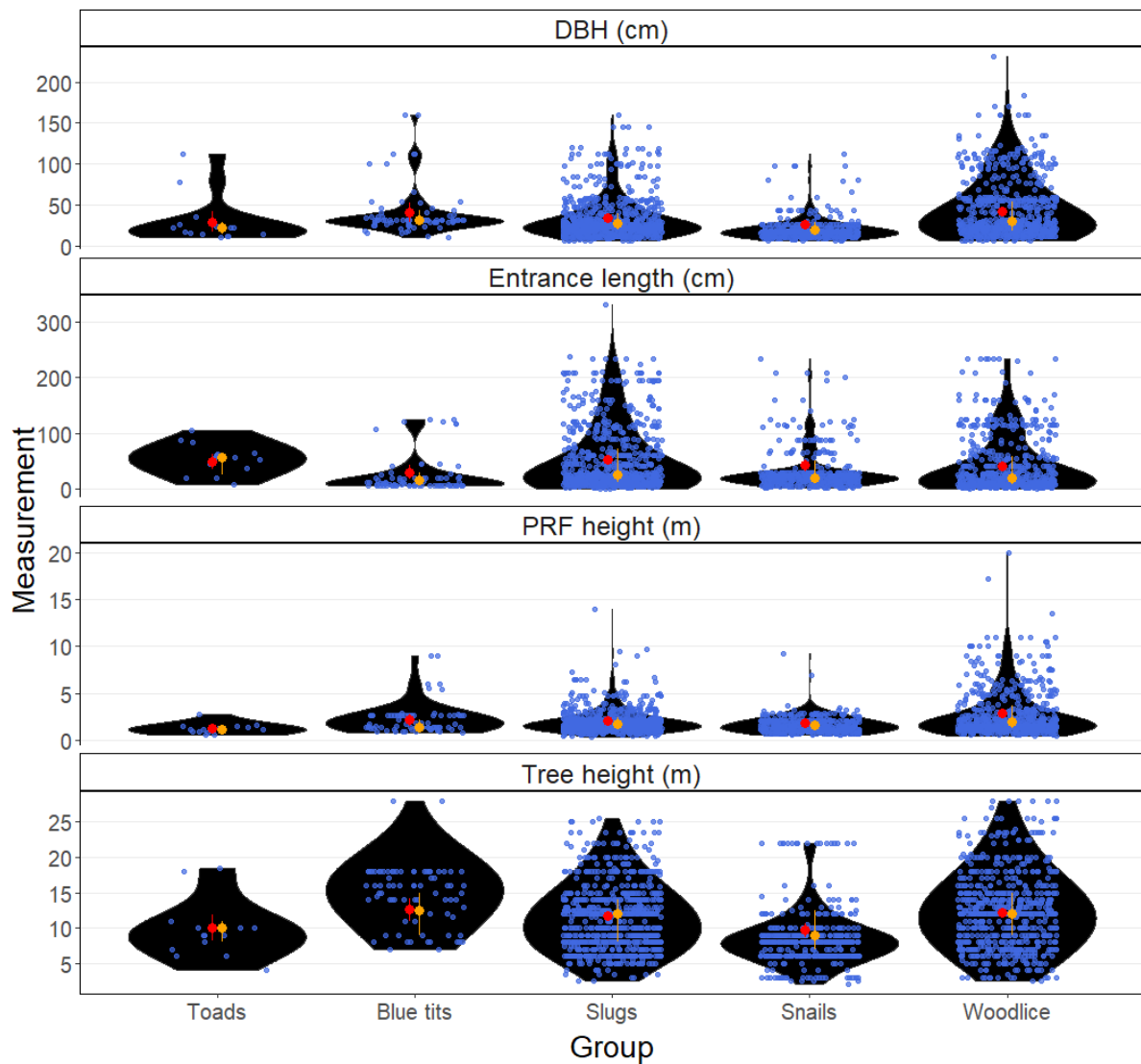
572



573

574 Figure 2. Total tree aspect, detail of PRF entrance and internal PRF image examples from  
575 BTHK. A the PRF (knot-hole type) is 2.8 m up the common oak and an adult toad, probably  
576 male, is visible in the endoscope image. B the PRF (tear-out type) is 0.93 m up the goat  
577 willow and two toads, an adult and a subadult are visible inside. Images Henry Andrews.

578



579

580 Figure 3. Comparative tree characteristics for multiple taxa recorded in tree cavities (PRFs)  
581 as part of the BTHK survey showing raw mean values plus 95% confidence intervals in red;  
582 median plus upper and lower quantiles in orange. To aid data visualisation, we have  
583 excluded four datapoints for PRF height greater than or equal to 13.5m (3 for woodlice and  
584 1 for snails).

585



Measure type	Model	npar	AIC	BIC	logLik	Deviance	ChiSq	Df	Pr(>Chisq)
<b>Tree height (m)</b>	Model without toad variable	3	8218.343389	8234.032905	-4106.171695	8212.343	NA	NA	NA
<b>Tree height (m)</b>	Model with toad variable	4	8220.187905	8241.107261	-4106.093953	8212.188	0.155484	1	0.693349
<b>DBH (cm)</b>	Model without toad variable	3	13022.92319	13038.59964	-6508.461597	13016.92	NA	NA	NA
<b>DBH (cm)</b>	Model with toad variable	4	13024.65678	13045.5587	-6508.328389	13016.66	0.266416	1	0.605746
<b>PRF height (m)</b>	Model without toad variable	4	7294.0685	7315.619337	-3643.03425	7286.069	NA	NA	NA
<b>PRF height (m)</b>	Model with toad variable	5	7294.172352	7321.110898	-3642.086176	7284.172	1.896149	1	0.16851
<b>Entrance height (cm)</b>	Model without toad variable	4	17442.09283	17463.53325	-8717.046416	17434.09	NA	NA	NA
<b>Entrance height (cm)</b>	Model with toad variable	5	17444.08187	17470.88239	-8717.040935	17434.08	0.010962	1	0.916613

586

587 Table S1 (Supplementary material). Log likelihood test for a general linear mixed model  
 588 comparing a model with the term of interest (i.e., toads present), with model without the  
 589 term of interest.

590