Effects of leaf maturity and wind stress on the nutrition of a generalist caterpillar, *Lymantria dispar*, feeding on poplar

RAYMOND V. BARBEHENN 1,2 , NOLA HAUGBERG 1 , JOSEPH KOCHMANSKI 1 and BRANDON MENACHEM 1

¹Department of Molecular, Cellular and Developmental Biology and ²Department of Ecology and Evolutionary Biology University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan, U.S.A.

Running title: Effects of leaf maturity and wind on herbivores

Correspondence: Raymond V. Barbehenn, Department of Molecular, Cellular and Developmental Biology, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan, 48109-1048, U.S.A.

This is the author manuscript accepted for publication and has undergone full peer review but has not been through the copyediting, typesetting, pagination and proofreading process, which may lead to differences between this version and the Version of Record. Please cite this article as doi: 10.1111/PHEN.12105

Abstract. The growth rates of insect herbivores commonly decrease when they feed on mature

2 leaves, a result of the combined effects of several nutritional and physiological mechanisms.

3 Environmental stresses during leaf development may also decrease herbivore performance. This

study tests two main hypotheses to help clarify the importance of these factors for the nutrition

and growth of an insect herbivore: (i) that decreases in nutrient levels, consumption rates, and

nutrient assimilation efficiencies impact negatively on herbivores feeding on mature leaves, and

(ii) that wind stress has a negative impact on herbivores feeding on mature leaves. The results

show that mature poplar (Populus alba x P. tremula) leaves have decreased levels of protein and

increased levels of fibre, and that growth rates of gypsy moth (Lymantria dispar L.) are

decreased on mature leaves in association with decreased consumption rates. However, contrary

to the first hypothesis, protein and carbohydrate are assimilated efficiently (74-82% and 84-87%,

respectively) from immature and mature poplar leaves. The larvae are able to chew mature

leaves as efficiently as immature leaves, potentially maximizing nutrient extraction. Contrary to

the second hypothesis, wind-stressed leaves have no significant detrimental effects on nutrient

assimilation efficiencies, and the lower growth rates of L. dispar larvae feeding on mature wind-

stressed leaves can be explained by lower consumption rates. Therefore, the availability of

nutrients to herbivores feeding on mature tree leaves is not necessarily impacted by lower

assimilation efficiencies, even when leaves develop under wind stress. These results help

explain some of the large variation between the nutritional qualities of trees for forest

20 Lepidoptera.

22

23

21

4

5

6

7

8

9

10

11

12

13

14

15

16

17

18

19

Key words: assimilation, carbohydrates, digestion, insect herbivore, larva, nutrients, protein,

Introduction

24

46

25	The nutritional quality of plants has a major impact on the fitness of insect herbivores.
26	Caterpillar growth rate and body mass (fitness-related parameters) are generally greatest for
27	larvae that feed on immature leaves (Feeny, 1970; Hough & Pimentel, 1978; Schweitzer, 1979;
28	Raupp & Denno, 1983; Raupp et al., 1988; Schroeder, 1986; Hunter & Lechowicz, 1992; Parry
29	et al., 1998; Kursar & Coley, 2003).
30	
31	As leaves mature, their nutritional quality typically declines because of the lower
32	availability of some nutrients and increased fibre and toughness. Decreased levels of foliar
33	protein, carbohydrates, and/or water in mature tree leaves can each impact negatively on the
34	growth rates of insects (Scriber, 1979; Mattson, 1980; Coley et al., 2006). Nutrient availability
35	is also affected by how efficiently nutrients are extracted, digested and absorbed (or
36	"assimilated") by herbivores. Increased fibre is associated with increased leaf toughness, which
37	commonly decreases the consumption rates of insect herbivores (Kursar & Coley, 2003, Clissold
38	et al., 2009). In turn, decreased nutrient assimilation rates have a negative impact on herbivore
39	growth rates.
40	
41	Abiotic stresses, such as wind, during leaf development can cause plant responses that
42	potentially decrease foliar nutritional quality for insect herbivores. Wind stress on some plants
43	causes them to produce more flexible and fibrous leaves, and to develop foliar characteristics
44	that minimize water loss from transpiration (Jaffe & Forbes, 1993; Anten et al., 2010). A major
45	study on the effects of wind stress on leaf composition shows increased levels of lignin and

peroxidase activity in stressed bean leaves (Cipollini, 1997). However, few studies have

examined foliar nutritional components other than fibre. Under certain conditions, the mechanical stimulation of a grass lowers foliar nitrogen levels significantly, but does not consistently affect carbohydrates (Kraus *et al.*, 1994). To characterize the effects of a major abiotic stress on foliar nutritional quality better, this study examines the effects of wind stress on foliar fibre components, as well as nutrients such as protein and carbohydrate.

No previous work, of which the authors are aware, examines the impact of wind stress on the nutritional physiology of insect herbivores. Previous work on mite populations shows that wind-stressed bean leaves support lower reproductive rates (Cipollini, 1997). However, wind-stressed tomato leaves have no significant effect on the growth rates of *Manduca sexta* caterpillars (Cipollini & Redman, 1999). In these cases, it is unclear whether the herbivores are affected because of decreased feeding (mites), or are unaffected because of compensatory responses, such as increased consumption rates (*M. sexta*). A major purpose of this study is to examine the mechanisms underlying the impact of wind stress on the nutrition of a tree leaf-feeding insect.

The availability of nutrients such as protein can decline from mature leaves not only because of a decrease in their levels, but also because of decreased extractability. Decreased protein extractability is largely responsible for the decline in protein assimilation efficiency (PAE) by *Lymantria dispar* L. larvae on the mature leaves of red oak (*Quercus rubra*) and presumably also on sugar maple (*Acer saccharum*) (Barbehenn *et al.*, 2013a, 2014). Caterpillars feeding on lush, immature oak and maple leaves assimilate protein with efficiencies of 70-80%, which decline after leaf maturation to efficiencies of less than 50%. By contrast, when *L. dispar*

larvae feed on several species in the willow family (Salicaceae), there appears to be little decrease in protein or carbohydrate assimilation efficiencies (Barbehenn *et al.*, 2015). In this study, it is expected that PAE remains high in *L. dispar* that feed on the mature leaves of hybrid poplar (*Populus alba* x *P. tremula*), and that high PAE is associated with high protein extractability from ingested leaf tissues. Previous work on carbohydrate assimilation efficiency (CAE) shows that sugar assimilation efficiencies remain high (ca. 90%) from mature leaves, whereas starch assimilation efficiencies are consistently lower (ca. 30-50%) (Horie *et al.*, 1985; Barbehenn *et al.*, 2014, 2015). Nevertheless, it is expected that overall CAE remains high on mature leaves, based on the predominance of sugars in the carbohydrate budgets of tree-feeding caterpillars (Horie *et al.*, 1985; Barbehenn *et al.*, 2014, 2015). The balance of protein and carbohydrate assimilated by insect herbivores can affect their growth rates (Clissold *et al.*, 2006; Behmer, 2009). Therefore, this study examines the effects of leaf maturation and wind stress on the balance of protein and carbohydrates that are assimilated by an herbivore.

Lymantria dispar is a highly polyphagous European species that was introduced into the eastern United States. It has become a model tree-feeding insect species because of its economic importance and wide host range. Among the hundreds of tree and shrub species on which L. dispar feeds, poplars are among the most favourable for its growth (Liebhold et al., 1995). Poplar has become a model deciduous tree because of its economic value, rapid growth, and the utility of Populus species for genetic research. In this study, rapid tree growth and large leaf size are essential for examining treatment effects in a brief (2 month) period with late-stadium larvae. Late-stadium larvae produce sufficient frass to quantify nutrient assimilation efficiencies for each individual. The use of a continuously growing (indeterminate) tree species such as poplar is

and mature leaves are available together. The examination of wind stress in a greenhouse is expected to increase the sensitivity of its detection, given that poplar trees are able to be grown in the absence of wind for comparison with trees grown under wind stress.

97

98

99

100

101

102

103

104

105

106

107

108

109

110

111

112

113

93

94

95

96

The first main hypothesis tested is that leaf maturation has negative impacts on caterpillar nutrition and growth due to decreased nutrient levels, decreased consumption rates, and decreased nutrient assimilation efficiencies. To compare nutritional factors that could directly or indirectly impact nutrient assimilation efficiencies and rates, levels of foliar protein, carbohydrates, water, and fibre are measured. The second main hypothesis tested is that wind stress has a negative impact on caterpillar nutrition and growth. A 2 x 2 factorial study is performed on the immature and mature leaves from control and wind-blown poplar saplings, examining leaf nutritional quality, nutrient assimilation efficiencies, and larval assimilation and growth rates. Two factors that potentially affect nutrient assimilation efficiencies are also examined: chewing efficiency (i.e., food particle size) and protein extraction efficiency from ingested leaf tissues. If mature leaves are chewed less thoroughly than immature leaves, nutrient assimilation efficiencies could be decreased. To determine whether ingested mature leaf tissues retain higher levels of unextracted protein than do immature leaf tissues, protein levels are measured in leaf particles from the midguts and frass of larvae that consume immature or mature leaves. Together, these physiological measurements are aimed at a better understanding of the impact of leaf quality on the nutritional ecology of forest Lepidoptera.

114

115

Materials and methods

Insect-plant system

Eggs of *L. dispar* were obtained from the USDA (Otis Air Force Base, Massachusetts). Larvae were reared in Petri dishes in incubators, primarily at 23 °C (16 h light). They were fed artificial diet (Addy, 1969) from egg hatch through the third or fourth stadium. The diet was modified by using linseed oil instead of wheat germ oil.

122

123

124

125

126

127

128

129

130

131

132

133

134

135

136

137

138

116

117

118

119

120

121

Poplar saplings of clone 717 (n = 20) were grown in a greenhouse in tall 8-L pots designed for tree growth (Barbehenn et al., 2007). They were watered daily and fertilized with Osmocote 15-9-12 slow-release fertilizer (Hummert International, Earth City, Missouri) (50 mL per pot). Saplings attained a height of over 2 m before their leaves were used in the feeding experiment on leaf maturity (July, 2012). For the experiment on the effects of leaf maturation and wind stress (July, 2013), poplar saplings were grown as in the above experiment, with the exception that wind stress was applied to one group. Box fans were positioned to produce a wind speed averaging 2.1 m sec⁻¹ on 9 saplings. The force of the air produced a constant swaying of the tree tops and movement of their leaves for more than a 2-month period before they were used. Saplings were moved to new positions daily. Wind speed was measured with an R.M. Young Wind Monitor-AQ anemometer (R.M. Young Co., Traverse City, Michigan). Control saplings (n = 9) were grown in the same room, but on the back side of the fans, where no measurable air speed was recorded. Average wind speeds outside the greenhouse were 1.3 m sec⁻¹ (Barbehenn *et al.*, 2015). Daily minimum and maximum temperatures in the greenhouse averaged 20.0 ± 0.6 and 29.7 ± 0.6 °C, respectively. All saplings produced over 40 leaves under the experimental conditions deployed.

Leaf position was determined using the leaf plastochron index (LPI), with the first
uncurled leaf greater than 2 cm being defined as leaf "0", and older leaves counted radially
around the tree (Larson & Isebrands, 1971). Very young leaves (less than LPI 10) were excluded
from this study because they may contain elevated levels of toxins, feeding deterrents, and/or
antinutritional compounds (e.g., salicylates and protease inhibitors), and are often avoided by
foraging caterpillars (Meyer & Montgomery, 1983; Haruta et al., 2001). For the first
experiment, leaves were cut from LPI 10-12 (immature), LPI 20-22 (recently mature), and LPI
30-32 (fully mature). Immature leaves retained the same light green colour found in leaves from
LPI 0-9, and they were not yet fully expanded. By comparison, mature leaves had become dark
green. Leaves were cut with a razor blade through their petioles, and were harvested each
morning during the experiments. This method was expected to avoid the induction of defences
during the course of the experiment (Osier et al., 2000). A single leaf was cut from each position
from 9 trees each day. Leaf turgor was maintained by keeping the leaf petioles in tubes of water
until they were used. Leaf discs (2.5 cm-diameter) were cut with a cork borer, avoiding the
midrib. The discs were mixed within age groups to eliminate the potential effect of between-tree
variation in food quality. The time from leaf harvest to larval feeding ranged between 2-3 hours.
Leaf discs were kept turgid in a humidified Petri dish at ambient temperature before they were
fed to larvae. The use of leaf disks permitted accurate measurements of consumption by
providing amounts of food that would be largely consumed (Schmidt & Reese, 1986).

Immature leaves were selected for the wind stress experiment from a zone centred near LPI 15, and mature leaves were cut near LPI 25. Again, immature leaves were a light green colour and were not fully expanded. Leaf discs were obtained as described above, with the

exception that the leaves were first washed in a mild detergent solution, rinsed by soaking in tap water, and dried with paper towels before being cut into discs.

Effect of leaf maturity on larval nutrition and growth

Newly moulted fourth-stadium larvae were assigned randomly to one of three leaf age groups. Individual larvae were fed for a three-day period on immature, newly mature, or fully-mature leaves (n = 15 per treatment) in 35-mL snap-cap plastic cups. Groups of freshly cut leaf discs were weighed for each larva daily. A moistened paper filter was placed in the bottom of each cup, and hydrated daily, to keep the leaf disks turgid. Uneaten food was dried (70 °C) each day to determine the amount eaten. Representative leaf discs were weighed fresh and after drying to estimate the dry weight of food given to each larva on each day. Additional leaf discs were frozen (-80 °C) daily and lyophilized. Frass was collected daily, and kept separately for each larva in screw-cap centrifuge tubes at -80 °C. After 3 days of feeding, larvae were kept in empty cups for 6 h to collect their final frass pellets. Larvae were then frozen and dried to obtain their final masses. Initial larval masses were estimated from the fresh weight:dry weight ratio of 5 representative larvae. Consumption, assimilation and growth rates were relativized by dividing them by the initial dry mass of the larvae. Nutrient analyses are described below. The following nutritional indices were examined for protein:

Relative protein consumption rate (RPCR) = mass of protein ingested day⁻¹ mg⁻¹

Protein assimilation efficiency (PAE) = (mass of protein ingested - mass of protein

egested) / mass of protein ingested x 100

Relative protein assimilation rate (RPAR) = (mass of protein ingested - mass of protein egested) / day

(Note that RPCR x PAE = RPAR.) Protein assimilation efficiency is identical to the "approximate digestibility" of protein. Protein ingested was calculated as percent protein in leaves x total mass ingested, and total protein egested was calculated as percent protein in frass x total mass egested. Carbohydrate assimilation efficiencies and rates were measured in the same manner as described for protein by analyzing carbohydrate (i.e., sugar and starch) levels in the food and frass of the same larvae.

Effects of leaf maturity and wind stress on larval nutrition and growth

Newly moulted fifth-stadium larvae were weighed and assigned randomly to one of four treatment groups: immature control leaves, mature control leaves, immature wind-stressed leaves, or mature wind-stressed leaves. Larvae (n = 14 per treatment) were fed weighed leaf discs for a two-day period in the same experimental conditions as described above. At the end of the experiment, larvae were kept in empty cups overnight to collect their final frass pellets. A subgroup of larvae was dissected to confirm that their guts were empty after the period of starvation. Final larval weights were measured after they were dried (70 °C, 2 days). All leaf and frass samples were lyophilized for chemical analysis (below).

Factors affecting nutrient assimilation efficiency

Chewing. To examine whether chewing efficiency is impacted by leaf maturity, fifth-stadium larvae (n = 15per treatment) were fed for a 2-day period on leaf disks from immature, recently mature, or fully mature leaves grown in control conditions (July, 2012), as described above. Larvae were chilled individually (6 min, -20 °C) and dissected. The contents of the foreguts of

larvae were dispersed in $500 \,\mu\text{L}$ of $50\% \,(\text{v/v})$ methanol. Particles were stained and their sizes measured in micrographs as described previously (Barbehenn *et al.*, 2014).

Mandible size. To examine the effect of mandible size on food particle size, mandibles were dissected from the head capsules of each larva used for measuring food particle size. Mandible size was measured using an ocular micrometer in a stereo-microscope at a magnification of 25X, with the length between condyles (points of articulation) serving as an indicator of overall size.

Protein extractability from ingested leaf particles.

The ability of larvae to extract protein from ingested leaf tissues can decrease as leaves mature.

To examine this directly, the protein that remained inside ingested leaf particles was measured in samples from the posterior half of the midguts of fifth-stadium larvae (July, 2012). These samples were obtained from the same larvae used for measuring food particle size. The contents

of 20 mM HCl, which was flushed with nitrogen. Samples were dispersed by shaking, and were

of each posterior midgut (n = 15 per treatment) was placed in a separate tube containing 500 μ L

immediately centrifuged (8,000 x g, 3 min). Supernatant solutions were removed (eliminating

any protein that was not contained inside the leaf particles), and the pellets were lyophilized.

Protein-bound amino acids in 5-mg samples were measured in acid hydrolysates with high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC), as described below.

Protein levels were also compared in the frass of fifth-stadium larvae (n = 15 per treatment) in a separate experiment in which they fed on poplar leaves from one of the three age groups (July, 2012). The experiment followed the same procedures described above for feeding experiments with immature and mature leaves. Protein levels were measured in lyophilized frass

as total amino acids (protein-bound plus free) in acid hydrolysates with HPLC. Total amino acids in the frass were expected to be primarily protein-bound because previous work has found negligible levels of free amino acids in the frass of *L. dispar* larvae that fed on immature or mature red oak leaves (Barbehenn *et al.*, 2014).

234

235

236

237

238

239

240

241

242

243

244

245

246

247

248

249

250

251

230

231

232

233

Chemical analyses

All analyses were performed as described previously (Barbehenn et al., 2014). Briefly, protein was measured with HPLC as total amino acids (protein-bound plus free) in 6 M HCl hydrolysates from each leaf age and date and the frass from each larva. Of the total amino acids measured in the leaves, approximately 99% were expected to be protein-bound (Giovanelli, 1987; Ruuhola et al., 2003). Sugars (summing glucose, fructose and sucrose) were measured using an enzymatic method (Zhao et al., 2010). Starch was measured in the extracted pellets remaining from leaf and frass samples (Zhao et al., 2010). Sugars and starch were combined as a measure of total nonstructural carbohydrates. Water was measured in each of the feeding experiments by weighing leaf discs before and after they were oven dried (70 °C). Total fibre was measured with the neutral detergent fibre (NDF) assay, modified from Van Soest & Wine (1967). In the experiment to examine the effects of wind stress, cellulose, hemicellulose and lignin were quantified as follows. The NDF assay was followed on the same samples by the acid detergent fibre (ADF) assay (Van Soest & Wine, 1967, as modified in Barbehenn et al., 2014) and then an assay for lignin. Lignin (Klason type) was determined by treating the ADF pellets with 72% sulphuric acid (Dence, 1992). Cellulose was determined as the difference between ADF and lignin. Hemicellulose was determined as the difference between NDF and ADF.

252

Waste nitrogen products were quantified in the frass from each larva in the first experiment. The two major waste nitrogen products (uric acid and ammonium salts) were extracted from 5-mg frass samples in 500 µL of pH 2.1 buffer, and measured with HPLC as described previously (Barbehenn *et al.*, 2014). Allantoic acid and allantoin were below the limits of detection. Of the total amino acids (protein-bound + free) measured in the frass of *L. dispar*, approximately 98% were protein-bound, regardless of food quality (Barbehenn et al., 2014). Therefore, free amino acids are not considered a form of waste nitrogen for *L. dispar*.

Experimental design and statistical analyses

The experimental design in this study emphasizes the measurement of larval nutrition and growth to test the main hypotheses. The number of replicate larvae used (n = 14-15) was sufficient to demonstrate whether there are nutritional effects of leaf maturity and/or wind stress in a short period of larval growth (i.e., 2 or 3 days). By contrast, variation between trees was minimized by using a clone and mixing leaf samples from multiple saplings within treatment groups on each experimental day, leading to sample sizes of only n = 2 or 3 replicate days per treatment. This low number of replicates limited the statistical power to show treatment effects on the leaves. However, the experimental design was aimed primarily at quantifying the amounts of nutrients that were consumed by each larva.

The effects of leaf maturation on the levels of foliar protein, carbohydrate, water, fibre, were made between three leaf age groups with one-way ANOVA (SAS Institute, 2010). The effects of leaf maturation and wind stress on foliar nutritional quality were examined with a 2-factorial ANOVA, using leaf age and wind treatment as main factors. Because leaf discs were

pooled within treatment groups, replicates for leaf analyses were days within experiments (n = 2-3 per treatment).

278

279

280

281

282

283

284

285

286

287

288

289

290

291

292

293

294

295

296

277

276

The effects of leaf maturation on consumption rates and assimilation efficiencies were compared between leaf ages with ANCOVA, using ingested masses or egested masses as main factors and initial dry mass or ingested masses as covariates, respectively (SAS Institute, 2010). The assumption of parallel slopes for ANCOVA was confirmed with a separate analysis of the treatment x covariate interaction term (non-significant). Relative growth rate data could not be transformed to meet the assumptions of ANCOVA, and were examined with one-way ANOVA. The effects of leaf maturation and wind on larval nutrition and growth were compared with 2factorial ANCOVA. One exception was CAE, which was analyzed with two-way ANOVA. Effects of leaf age on food particle protein, faecal protein, waste nitrogen, food particle size, and mandible size were examined between treatment groups with one-way ANOVA. For all analyses, the normality of the residuals was confirmed with the Shapiro-Wilk test (PROC-MIXED). Post hoc multiple comparisons were made using the probabilities of differences between least squares means (PROC MIXED). These comparisons tested a priori hypotheses. Therefore, a P-value of 0.05 was used to determine statistical significance. Individual larvae served as replicates in all experiments on insects (see Methods and Results for sample sizes). Pearson correlation analyses were used to examine associations between (1) nutrient levels, consumption rates, assimilation efficiencies, assimilation rates, and growth rates, (2) mandible size and food particle size, and (3) P:C ratios in leaves and RPAR:RCAR by larvae.

297

298

Results

Effect of maturation on leaf nutritional quality

The levels of protein, carbohydrate, water and fibre were measured in the three ages of leaves ingested by larvae (Table 1). As often occurs in mature leaves, protein and water levels decreased significantly by 12-28% and 4-5%, respectively, relative to levels in immature leaves. However, changes in carbohydrate were not shown to be significant. Carbohydrate was composed of 87-92% sugar, with the remaining fraction being starch. Fibre levels were significantly higher by 20% in fully mature leaves.

Effect of leaf maturation on larval nutrition and growth

Consistent with the first hypothesis, larval consumption rates were 29-32% higher on immature leaves than on mature leaves (Table 2). Although assimilation efficiencies for the entire leaf mass decreased when larvae fed on mature leaves, the assimilation efficiencies of two major macronutrients were not impacted negatively by leaf maturation. Protein assimilation efficiency remained high (74-82%) in *L. dispar* caterpillars feeding on mature leaves. Carbohydrate assimilation efficiency also remained high in larvae on all ages of poplar leaves (Table 3). Sugars were assimilated with exceptionally high efficiencies (averaging 94-97% across leaf ages), whereas starch was assimilated less efficiently (averaging 56-60%). However, the relatively small amounts of starch in poplar leaves meant that low starch assimilation efficiency had little effect on overall CAE. Waste nitrogen produced by larvae on mature leaves dropped by 43-60% (Table 4). The total amount of waste nitrogen produced by each larva was associated positively with the total amount of protein it assimilated (r = 0.74, P < 0.001). The growth rates of larvae that fed on mature leaves declined by 33-43%, in association with lower

consumption rates (r = 0.74), lower RPAR (r = 0.86), and to a lesser extent, lower RCAR (r = 0.41).

Effect of leaf maturation and wind stress on leaf nutritional quality

During leaf maturation, protein levels were again found to decrease significantly by 24%, whereas the opposite trend in carbohydrates was observed. In contrast to the first experiment, no significant changes in leaf water content or trends in fibre levels were observed in mature leaves. Wind-stressed leaves contained fibre levels that were increased significantly by 3-5% relative to the levels in control trees (Table 5). Among the three fibre components measured, wind stress was associated with a trend towards higher cellulose (P = 0.112), but no increases in lignin or hemicellulose were detected (Fig. 1).

Effect of leaf maturation and wind stress on larval nutrition and growth

Consistent with the results of the above experiment on leaf maturation, the PAE and CAE of larvae that fed on mature poplar leaves remained high (ca. 70% and 90%, respectively) (Tables 6 and 7). The negative effect of leaf maturation on PAE was small (5-9% decrease), as was the positive effect of leaf maturation on CAE (3-4% increase). Contrary to the wind stress hypothesis, *L. dispar* larvae that fed on wind-stressed leaves did not have significantly decreased PAE or CAE. However, there was a significant 4-7% decrease in total assimilation efficiency in larvae on wind-stressed leaves, which could not be explained by patterns of protein or carbohydrate assimilation. In addition, larvae that fed on mature wind-stressed leaves had significantly lower consumption rates, which led to a trend towards lower growth rates on wind-stressed leaves (Table 6). The importance of protein nutrition for larval growth can be inferred

from correlations between nutrient assimilation rates and growth rates. Larval growth rates (Table 6) were closely associated with protein assimilation rates (RPAR; r= 0.74), and more strongly associated with protein than with carbohydrate assimilation rates (RCAR; r= 0.53). In turn, RPAR and RCAR were strongly associated with protein and carbohydrate consumption rates (r= 0.99 and 0.98, respectively). Protein assimilation efficiency, which contributes to RPAR, was also associated with RPAR (r= 0.74).

Consistent with the efficient assimilation of protein and carbohydrate from immature and mature poplar leaves, foliar protein: carbohydrate (P:C) ratios were strongly associated with larval RPAR: RCAR ratios (Fig. 2, r = 0.97, P < 0.001 for combined data). The slope of the regression equation was close to 1.0 (0.88), indicating that the ratio of P:C assimilated was modified slightly from the P:C ratio in the leaves.

Factors affecting nutrient assimilation efficiency

Chewing. Caterpillars chewed immature and mature leaves into a wide range of particle sizes (Fig. 3). Contrary to expectation, median food particle sizes were similar between each leaf age group, ranging from $0.32\text{-}0.34~\mu\text{m}^2$. Larval mandibles ranged from 0.89 to 1.22 mm wide.

However, mandible size was not associated with food particle size (r = 0.15-0.34 for each leaf

age).

Protein extractability from ingested leaf particles. Protein levels in food particles from the posterior midgut did not differ significantly between larvae on immature and mature leaves (Fig. 4), consistent with the high PAEs in *L. dispar* on all ages of popular leaves. Protein levels

remaining in the frass of larvae that fed on immature or mature leaves also supports the conclusion that protein does not become more difficult to extract from mature leaves (Fig. 4). The large difference in protein levels between the posterior half of the midgut and the frass suggests that much of the absorption of amino acids occurs in the posterior midgut.

372

373

374

375

376

377

378

379

380

381

382

383

384

385

386

387

388

389

390

368

369

370

371

Discussion

The larvae of L. dispar grow more rapidly on immature than on mature poplar leaves, as would be expected from previous research (Feeny, 1970; Hough & Pimentel, 1978; Schweitzer, 1979; Raupp & Denno, 1983; Raupp et al., 1988; Schroeder, 1986; Hunter & Lechowicz, 1992; Parry et al., 1998; Kursar & Coley, 2003). However, by examining a wide range of physiological factors that potentially impact herbivore growth, this study shows that their higher growth rates on immature popular leaves are due to higher leaf quality, higher consumption rates, and the associated increases in nutrient assimilation rates, but do not result from higher nutrient assimilation efficiencies or greater chewing efficiency by larvae on lush young leaves. Thus, the findings in this study require the rejection of one component of the first hypothesis: PAE and CAE by L. dispar larvae are not negatively impacted when larvae feed on mature poplar leaves. Similar, high PAE (77-80%) and CAE (83-87%) are also observed in fifth-stadium larvae on immature or mature poplar leaves (R. V. Barbehenn, unpublished observations). This is contrary to a common belief that nutrient assimilation efficiencies decrease in insect herbivores on mature or more fibrous leaves (e.g., Read & Stokes, 2006). Whereas there is a pattern of decreased PAE from the mature leaves of some trees, such as red oak and sugar maple (Barbehenn et al., 2013a, 2014), there is a large amount of variation in this trait among tree species. Several species in the Salicaceae have highly available protein and carbohydrates in their mature leaves (Barbehenn et

al., 2015). The present study confirms this finding, and offers a more detailed view of the nutritional physiology of *L. dispar* on a wider range of leaf ages.

393

394

395

396

397

398

399

400

401

402

403

404

405

406

407

408

409

391

392

A second major finding is that wind-stress during poplar leaf development has only a limited impact on foliar composition and herbivore nutrition. Wind-stressed leaves develop higher levels of fibre, presumably as an adaptive response to avoid mechanical damage. In one of the few previous studies on wind stress that examine foliar chemical composition, wind stress causes bean leaves to produce higher levels of fibre, especially lignin (Cipollini, 1997). However, lignin is not among the fibre components that increase in wind-stressed poplar. Also contrary to the wind stress hypothesis, the changes in wind-stressed poplar leaves do not significantly affect the availability of nutrients to L. dispar larvae. The results of this study confirm recent results showing that when poplar is grown in outdoor wind conditions, protein and carbohydrate are assimilated efficiently from mature leaves (i.e., PAE = 74-75% and CAE = 78%; Barbehenn et al., 2015). In the only previous study on the effects of wind stressed leaves on a leaf-chewing herbivore, the growth rate of M. sexta caterpillars is not affected significantly by feeding on wind-stressed tomato leaves (Cipollini & Redman, 1999). Similarly, in the current study, there are only limited effects of wind stressed leaves on the nutrition of L. dispar, and these appear to be attributable to decreased consumption rate rather than decreased nutrient availability.

410

411

412

413

To understand the adverse effects of feeding on mature leaves, several nutritional mechanisms are examined in this study, including chewing efficiency, protein extractability, P:C ratios, and waste nitrogen excretion. The ability of *L. dispar* to chew leaves into fine particles is

the same on immature and mature poplar leaves. This is unexpected, given that cell wall thickness increases on the order of ten-fold and fibres become extensively crosslinked during maturation (Brisson *et al.*, 1994; Doblin *et al.*, 2003). However, similar chewing abilities are observed in larvae on immature and mature red oak leaves, the latter of which are remarkably tough (Barbehenn *et al.*, 2013a, 2014). Therefore, in each of these studies on *L. dispar*, increased fibre levels and toughness do not affect nutrient assimilation efficiencies as a result of chewing efficiency. In caterpillars on oak, PAE decreases markedly on mature leaves, whereas in caterpillars on poplar, PAE remains high, regardless of the similar sizes of leaf particles that are chewed by larvae on the immature or mature leaves of each host plant.

Although leaf toughness (or fibre content) does not affect the chewing efficiency of *L. dispar* with respect to food particle size, it does appear to impact the rate of food consumption for *L. dispar* and many other insect herbivores (Choong, 1996; Kursar & Coley, 2003; Barbehenn *et al.*, 2013, 2014, 2015). For *L. dispar*, there are strong associations between consumption rate, protein assimilation rate, and growth rate. Importantly, decreased growth rate commonly leads to decreased fitness (Scriber & Slansky, 1981; Awmack & Leather, 2002).

Consumption rates could also be decreased on mature leaves by decreased levels of feeding stimulants and/or increased levels of deterrent or toxic plant compounds. It is noteworthy that sugars (feeding stimulants) remain at equally high levels in mature and immature poplar leaves. The major deterrents and toxins in *Populus* species are salicylates (or "phenolic glycosides"), but these are found at lower levels in mature than immature leaves (Osier *et al.*, 2000; Kleiner *et al.*, 2003), presumably causing *L. dispar* larvae to avoid feeding on the

youngest leaves (Meyer & Montgomery, 1987). Previous work shows that the poplar leaves used in this study have negligible levels of tannins and low levels of other phenolic compounds (Barbehenn *et al.*, 2007). It is also unlikely that some of the putative defences examined previously in wind stressed leaves, e.g., peroxidase and polyphenol oxidase, affect the nutrition of *L. dispar* (Barbehenn *et al.*, 2007, 2010, 2012). Further work would be needed to examine whether other types of feeding stimulants and/or deterrents affect the consumption rates by *L. dispar* on mature poplar leaves (e.g., Coyle *et al.*, 2002).

Protein extractability is a key difference between the digestibility of the leaf tissues of poplar and the leaf tissues of species such as red oak. Whereas protein remains highly extractable from the ingested tissues of mature poplar leaves, protein in mature red oak leaves becomes significantly more difficult to extract (Barbehenn *et al.*, 2014). In contrast to protein, CAE remains equally high in *L. dispar* larvae that feed on the immature or mature leaves of poplar or red oak. Therefore, the ratios of protein: carbohydrate present in immature and mature poplar leaves are tightly associated with the ratios of RPAR:RCAR in *L. dispar* larvae. Similar results are found in *L. dispar* on a several species of trees in the Salicaceae (Barbehenn *et al.*, 2015). These findings reiterate the minimal effect that leaf maturation has on macronutrient extractability from certain host plants, in comparison to the large decrease in PAE from species such as red oak and sugar maple (Barbehenn *et al.*, 2013, 2014). Shifts in the balance of protein and carbohydrates that can be assimilated from mature leaves could be important for the growth of *L. dispar*, as found in other insect herbivores on other food sources (Clissold *et al.*, 2006; Behmer, 2009). Together, these studies of *L. dispar* on a variety of tree species show that

developmental changes in leaf tissues can have a strong effect on nutrient availability, but that this effect varies greatly between tree species and nutrient types.

461

462

463

464

465

466

467

468

469

470

471

472

473

474

475

476

460

459

Given that larvae of L. dispar appear to maximize protein and carbohydrate assimilation efficiencies, it is likely that post-absorptive mechanisms are important to deal with unneeded nutrients (e.g., Zanotto et al., 1993; Trier & Mattson, 2003). This study examines waste nitrogen production, but not the metabolism of carbohydrates. Waste nitrogen production by L. dispar is proportional to the amount of protein metabolized, as found previously in larvae feeding on red oak (Barbehenn et al., 2014). This could either indicate that protein is in excess supply in immature leaves or that waste nitrogen products must be excreted in larger amounts as larvae metabolize more protein. The strong association between protein assimilation rates and growth rates in larvae feeding on all leaf ages suggests that they effectively utilized the protein for growth at all protein levels found in poplar and oak, rather than facing an excess of protein in immature leaves. Instead, the production of waste nitrogen may largely result from the mismatch between the amino acid profiles of foliar and larval protein (Barbehenn et al., 2013b), i.e., assimilated amino acids that do not match the pattern required for insect protein synthesis must be metabolized, resulting in the excretion of waste nitrogen products in proportion to ingested protein.

477

478

479

480

481

In conclusion, the results of the current study show that protein and carbohydrate can be assimilated efficiently by *L. dispar* caterpillars feeding on the leaves of poplar trees, regardless of leaf maturity. Leaf development under wind stress does not significantly alter these findings. Instead, the negative impacts of feeding on older (basal) leaves are related to the decreased levels

of certain nutrients, such as protein, and to decreased consumption rates. Together, these factors limit nutrient assimilation rates, and ultimately growth. Further work is needed to examine the potential importance of leaf toughness and compounds that act as antifeedants or toxins in mature leaves. Finally, the mechanisms that limit protein extractability from the mature leaves of some tree species are unknown. It is speculated that the chemical and structural properties of cell walls may explain the variation between the extractability of protein from leaf tissues, but the authors are unaware of any work that bears on this topic. Additional studies are needed to compare nutrient availabilities from the immature and mature leaves of a wider range of tree species to determine whether species in the Salicaceae are unusual, or whether there are general patterns across taxa, such as between indeterminate and determinate tree species. These studies will provide a better understanding of the physiological mechanisms underlying the variation in host plant quality for insects such as *L. dispar*.

Acknowledgements

We thank Christine Lokerson and Hannah Nadel (USDA) for providing *L. dispar* eggs, Frank Marsik and Zachary Ebenstein for making wind velocity measurements, and Sara Kileen, Jennifer Knister, Chelsea Miller, William Nham, and Caleb Nusbaum for research assistance. Support for Jennifer Knister and William Nham from the University of Michigan Underwood-Alger Scholarships (for JK and WN) and the K.L. Jones Award (for WN).

502	References
503	Addy, N.D. (1969) Rearing the forest tent caterpillar on and artificial diet. <i>Journal of Economic</i>
504	Entomology, 62 , 270-271.
505	Anten, N.P.R., Alcala-Herrera, R., Schieving, F. & Onoda Y. (2010) Wind and mechanical
506	stimuli differentially affect leaf traits in <i>Plantago major</i> . New Phytologist, 188, 554-564.
507	Awmack, C.S. & Leather, S.R. (2002) Host plant quality and fecundity in herbivorous insects.
508	Annual Review of Entomology, 47, 817-844.
509	Barbehenn, R.V., Jones, C.P., Yip, L. et al. (2007) Limited impact of elevated levels of
510	polyphenol oxidase on tree-feeding caterpillars: Assessing individual plant defenses with
511	transgenic poplar. Oecologia, 154, 129-140.
512	Barbehenn, R.V., Dukatz, C., Holt, C. et al. (2010) Feeding on poplar leaves by caterpillars
513	potentiates foliar peroxidase action in their guts and increases plant resistance.
514	Oecologia, 164, 993-1004.
515	Barbehenn, R.V., Niewiadomski, J., Kochmanski, J. & Constabel, C.P. (2012) Limited effect of
516	reactive oxygen species on the composition of susceptible essential amino acids in the
517	midguts of Lymantria dispar caterpillars. Archives of Insect Biochemistry and
518	Physiology, 81, 160-177.
519	Barbehenn, R.V., Niewiadomski, J., Pecci, C. & Salminen, JP. (2013a) Physiological
520	benefits of feeding in the spring by Lymantria dispar caterpillars on red oak and sugar
521	maple leaves: nutrition versus oxidative stress. Chemoecology, 23, 59-70.
522	Barbehenn, R.V., Niewiadomski, J. & Kochmanski, J. (2013b) Importance of protein quality
523	versus quantity in alternative host plants for a leaf-feeding insect herbivore. Oecologia,

524

173, 1-12.

525	Barbehenn, R.V., Haugberg, N., Kochmanski, J. et al. (2014) Physiological factors affecting the
526	rapid decrease in protein assimilation efficiency by a caterpillar on newly-mature tree
527	leaves. Physiological Entomology, 39, 69-79.
528	Barbehenn, R.V., Knister, J., Marsik, F. et al. (2015) Nutrients are assimilated efficiently by
529	Lymantria dispar caterpillars from the mature leaves of trees in the Salicaceae.
530	Physiological Entomology, 40, 72-81.
531	Behmer, S.T. (2009) Insect herbivore nutrient regulation. Annual Review of Entomology, 54
532	165-187.
533	Brisson, L.F., Tenhaken, R., & Lamb, C. (1994) Function of oxidative cross-linking of cell
534	wall structural proteins in plant disease resistance. Plant Cell, 6, 1703-1712.
535	Choong, M.R. (1996) What makes a leaf tough and how this affects the pattern of Castanopsis
536	fissa leaf leaf consumption by caterpillars. Functional Ecology, 10, 668-674.
537	Cipollini, D.F. (1997) Wind-induced mechanical stimulation increases pest resistance in
538	common bean. Oecologia, 111, 84-90.
539	Cipollini, D.F. & Redman, A.M. (1999) Age-dependent effects of jasmonic acid treatment and
540	wind exposure on foliar oxidase activity and insect resistance in tomato. Journal of
541	Chemical Ecology, 25, 271-281.
542	Clissold, F.J., Sanson, G.D., & Read, J. (2006) The paradoxical effects of nutrient ratios and
543	supply rates on an outbreaking insect herbivore, the Australian plague locust.
544	Journal of Animal Ecology, 75, 1000-1003.
545	Clissold, F.J., Sanson, G.D., Read, J. & Simpson, S.J. (2009). Gross vs. net income: how plan
546	toughness affects performance of an insect herbivore. <i>Ecology</i> , 90 , 3393-3405.
547	Coley, P.D., Bateman, M.L., & Kursar, T.A. (2006) The effects of plant quality on caterpillar

548	growth and defense against natural enemies. Oikos, 115, 219-228.
549	Coyle, D.R., McMillin, J.D., Hall, R.B. & Hart, E.R. (2002) Deployment of tree resistance to
550	insects in short-rotation Populus plantations. Mechanisms and Deployment of Resistance
551	in Trees to Insects (ed. by M.R. Wagner, K.M. Clancy, F. Lieutier and T.D. Paine), pp.
552	189-215. Kluwer Academic Publishers, New York, New York.
553	Dence, C.W. (1992) The determination of lignin. Methods in Lignin Chemistry. (ed. by S.Y. Lin
554	and C.W. Dence), pp. 33-61. Springer-Verlag, New York, New York.
555	Doblin, M.S., Vergara, C.E., Read, S. et al. (2003) Plant cell wall biosynthesis: making the
556	bricks. The Plant Cell Wall (ed. by J.K.C. Rose), pp. 183-222. Blackwell, Oxford,
557	U.K.
558	Feeny, P.P. (1970) Seasonal changes in oak leaf tannins and nutrients as a cause of spring
559	feeding by winter moth caterpillars. Ecology, 51 , 565-581.
560	Giovanelli, J. (1987) Sulfur amino acids of plants: an overview. Methods in Enzymology, 143,
561	419-426.
562	Haruta, M., Major, I.T., Christopher, M.E. et al. (2001) A Kunitz trypsin inhibitor gene family
563	from trembling aspen (Populus tremuloides Michx.): cloning, functional expression, and
564	induction by wounding and herbivory. Plant Molecular Biology, 46, 347–359.
565	Horie, Y., Nakasone, S., Watanabe, K. et al. (1985) Daily ingestion and utilization of
566	various kinds of nutrients by the silkworm, Bombyx mori (Lepidoptera,
567	Bombycidae). Applied Entomology and Zoology, 20, 159-172.
568	Hough, J.A. & Pimentel, D. (1978) Influence of host foliage on development, survival and
569	fecundity of the gypsy moth. Environmental Entomology, 7, 97-102.
570	Hunter, A.F. & Lechowicz, M.J. (1992) Foliage quality changes during canopy development of

571	some northern hardwood trees. <i>Oecologia</i> , 89 , 316-323.
572	Jaffe, M.J. & Forbes, S. (1993) Thigmomorphogenesis: the effect of mechanical
573	perturbation on plants. Plant Growth Regulation, 12, 313-324.
574	Kleiner, K.W., Ellis, D.D., McCown, B.H. & Raffa, K.F. (2003) Leaf ontogeny influences
575	leaf phenolics and the efficacy of genetically expressed Bacillus thuringiensis
576	cry1A(a) d-endotoxin in hybrid poplar against gypsy moth. Journal of Chemical
577	Ecology, 29, 2585-2602.
578	Kraus, E., Kolloffel, C. & Lambers, H. (1994) The effect of handling on photosynthesis,
579	transpiration, respiration, and nitrogen and carbohydrate content of populations of
580	Lolium perenne. Physiologia Plantarum, 91 , 631-638.
581	Kursar, T.A. & Coley, P.D. (2003) Convergence in defense syndromes of young leaves in
582	tropical rainforests. Biochemical Systematics and Ecology, 31, 929-949.
583	Larson, P.R. & Isebrands, J.G. (1971) The plastochron index as applied to developmental studies
584	of cottonwood. Canadian Journal of Forest Research, 1, 1-11.
585	Liebhold, A.M., Gottschalk, K.W., Muzika, RM. et al. (1995) Suitability of North American
86	tree species to the gypsy moth: a summary of field and laboratory tests. United States
587	Department of Agriculture Forest Service, Northeastern Forest Experimental Station,
588	General Technical Report NE-211.
589	Mattson, W.J. (1980) Herbivory in relation to plant nitrogen content. Annual Review of Ecology
590	and Systematics, 11, 119-161.
591	Meyer, G.A. & Montgomery, M.E. (1987) Relationships between leaf age and the food
592	quality of cottonwood foliage for the gypsy moth, Lymantria dispar. Oecologia, 72,
593	527-532.

594	Osier, T.L., Hwang, SY. & Lindroth, R.L.J. (2000) Effects of phytochemical variation in
595	quaking aspen Populus tremuloides clones on gypsy moth Lymantria dispar
596	performance in the field and laboratory. Ecological Entomology, 25, 197-207.
597	Parry, D., Spence, J.R. & Volney, W.J.A. (1998) Budbreak phenology and natural enemies
598	mediate survival of first-instar forest tent caterpillar (Lepidoptera: Lasiocampidae).
599	Environmental Entomology, 27, 1368-1374.
600	Raupp, M.J. & Denno, R.F. (1983) Leaf age as a predictor of herbivore distribution and
601	abundance. Variable Plants and Herbivores in Natural and Managed Systems (ed. by
602	R.F. Denno and M.S. McClure), pp. 91-124. Academic Press, New York, New York.
603	Raupp, M.J., Werren, J.H. & Sadof, C.S. (1988) Effects of short-term phenological changes in
604	leaf suitability on the survivorship, growth and development of gypsy moth (Lepidoptera
605	Lymantriidae) larvae. Environmental Entomology, 17, 316-319.
606	Read, J. & Stokes, A. (2006) Plant biomechanics in an ecological context. American Journal
607	of Botany, 93, 1546-1565.
608	Ruuhola, T., Ossipov, V., Lempa, K. & Haukioja, E. (2003) Amino acids during development of
609	mountain birch leaves. Chemoecology, 13, 95-101.
610	SAS Institute (2010) The SAS system for Windows. Version 9.3. SAS Institute, Cary, North
611	Carolina.
612	Schmidt, D. & Reese, J. (1986) Sources of error in nutritional index studies of insects on
613	artificial diet. Journal of Insect Physiology, 32, 193-198.
614	Schroeder, L.A. (1986) Changes in tree leaf quality and growth performance of lepidopteran
615	larvae. <i>Ecology</i> , 67 , 1628-1636.

616	Scriber, J.M. (1979) Effects of leaf-water supplementation upon post-ingestive nutritional					
617	indices of forb-, shrub-, vine-, and tree-feeding Lepidoptera. Entomologia Experimentalis					
618	et Applicata, 25, 240-252.					
619	Scriber, J.M. & Slansky, F. (1981) The nutritional ecology of immature insects. <i>Annual Review</i>					
620	of Entomology, 26 , 183-211.					
621	Schweitzer, D.F. (1979) Effects of foliage age on body weight and survival in larvae of tribe					
622	Lithophanini (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae). Oikos, 32, 403-408.					
623	Trier, T.M. & Mattson, W.J. (2003) Diet-induced thermogenesis in insects: a developing					
624	concept in nutritional ecology. Environmental Entomology, 32, 1-8.					
625	Van Soest, P.J. & Wine, R.H. (1967) Use of detergents in the analysis of fibrous feeds. IV.					
626	Determination of plant cell-wall constituents. Journal of the Association of Official					
627	Analytical Chemists, 50 , 50-55.					
628	Zanotto, F.P., Simpson, S.J. & Raubenheimer, D. (1993) The regulation of growth by locusts					
629	through post-ingestive compensation for variation in the levels of dietary protein and					
630	carbohydrate. <i>Physiological Entomology</i> , 18 , 425-434.					
631	Zhao, D., MacKown, C.T., Starks, P.J. & Kindiger, B.K. (2010) Rapid analysis of nonstructural					
632	carbohydrates in grass forage using microplate enzymatic assays. Crop Science, 50,					
633	1537-1545.					
	-					

634	Figure legends
635	Fig. 1. Fibre composition of immature and mature poplar leaves (<i>Populus alba</i> x <i>P. tremula</i>)
636	grown without or with wind stress. Fibre components are expressed as a percentage of the total
637	dry weight of the leaf, and sum to equal total fibre (NDF). DW = dry weight.
638	
639	Fig. 2. Association between protein: carbohydrate ratios in immature and mature poplar leaves
640	and the ratios of protein : carbohydrate assimilation rates (PAR:CAR or RPAR:RCAR) in larvae
641	of the gypsy moth <i>Lymantria dispar</i> . \bullet , leaf age experiment; \bullet , wind-stress experiment; \blacktriangle ,
642	R.V. Barbehenn, unpublished observations. $r = 0.97, P < 0.001$.
643	
644	Fig. 3. Particle size distributions in the foreguts of <i>L. dispar</i> larvae after feeding on immature,
645	recently mature, and mature poplar leaves.
646	
647	Fig. 4. Protein levels remaining in rinsed food particles from the posterior half of the midgut and
648	in the frass from Lymantria dispar larvae after feeding on immature, recently mature, and mature
649	poplar leaves (separate experiments). Bars show mean \pm standard error, and letters above bars
650	that differ within each series designate $P < 0.05$.
651	

Table 1. Nutritional quality of immature and mature poplar leaves (*Populus alba* \times *P. tremula*)¹

Leaf age	Protein (% DW)	Carbohydrate ² (% DW)	Water (% FW)	Fibre (% DW)
Immature	$24.2 \pm 0.7^{\text{ b}}$	8.80 ± 1.41	76.0 ± 0.3^{b}	26.1 ± 1.4 ^a
Recently mature	21.4 ± 1.4^{a}	10.52 ± 0.17	72.6 ± 0.7^a	26.1 ± 1.8^{a}
Mature	17.3 ± 0.7^{a}	9.39 ± 0.73	72.1 ± 0.7^a	31.2 ± 0.6^{b}
	P = 0.010	P = 0.203	P = 0.006	P = 0.017

¹Leaf ages represent LPI numbers 10-12, 18-20, and 29-30, respectively. Data are presented as mean \pm SE, with n=3 replicate days/leaf age for all measurements. Summary statistics followed by different letters are significantly different (P < 0.05).

²Carbohydrate includes sugars (87-92% of total) and starch.

D

Table 2. Consumption and assimilation of protein from immature and mature hybrid poplar leaves (*Populus alba* x *P. tremula*) and growth rates of *Lymantria dispar* larvae feeding on them.

Leaf age	Relative consumption to (mg mg ⁻¹ day ⁻¹)	Assimilation efficiency (%)	Relative protein consumption rate (mg mg ⁻¹ day ⁻¹)	Protein assimilation efficiency (%)	Relative protein assimilation rate (mg mg ⁻¹ day ⁻¹)	Relative growth rate (mg mg ⁻¹ day ⁻¹)
Immature	3.14 ± 0.12^{b}	40.5 ± 0.6^{b}	0.755 ± 0.043^{c}	81.5 ± 0.8 ^a	$0.614 \pm 0.036^{\circ}$	$0.870 \pm 0.054^{\ b}$
Recently mature	2.43 ± 0.10^{a}	34.9±1.2 a	0.517 ± 0.007^{b}	78.2 ± 0.7 $^{\rm a}$	$0.404 \pm 0.024^{\ b}$	0.586 ± 0.030^{a}
Mature	2.37 ± 0.09^{a}	35.5 ± 0.9^{a}	0.408 ± 0.021^{a}	74.4 ± 1.1^{a}	0.304 ± 0.015^{a}	0.497 ± 0.027^{a}
\geq	<i>P</i> < 0.001	P = 0.002	P < 0.001	P = 0.187	P < 0.001	P < 0.001

Leaf ages represent LPI numbers 10-12, 18-20, and 29-30, respectively. Data are presented as mean \pm SE, n = 13-15 for all measurements. Assimilation efficiency = (mass ingested – mass egested) / mass ingested * 100.

Table. 3 Consumption and assimilation of carbohydrates from immature or mature hybrid poplar leaves by *Lymantria dispar* larvae

Leaf age	Relative carbohydrate consumption rate (mg mg ⁻¹ day ⁻¹)	Carbohydrate assimilation efficiency (%)	Relative carbohydrate assimilation rate (mg mg ⁻¹ day ⁻¹)	
Immature	0.288 ± 0.018^{b}	83.8 ± 0.5^{a}	0.241 ± 0.016^{ab}	
Recently mature	$0.268 \pm 0.012^{\ b}$	87.1 ± 0.8^{b}	0.234 ± 0.011^{b}	
Mature	0.223 ± 0.011 a	87.2 ± 0.7^{b}	0.195 ± 0.009^{a}	
	P = 0.032	P = 0.004	P = 0.073	

Leaf ages represent LPI numbers 10-12, 18-20, and 29-30, respectively. Summary statistics followed by different letters are significantly different (P < 0.05). Assimilation efficiency = (mass ingested – mass egested) / mass ingested * 100.

Table 4. Waste nitrogen excretion by *Lymantria dispar* larvae that fed on immature or mature poplar leaves

Leaf age	Uric acid (% DW)	Ammonium salts (% DW)	Total waste nitrogen (%DW)
Immature	0.228 ± 0.017^{a}	1.03 ± 0.11 b	1.257 ± 0.116^{b}
Recently mature	0.196 ± 0.017^{a}	$0.75\pm0.08~^{a}$	$0.959 \pm 0.097^{\ a}$
Mature	0.219 ± 0.023^{a}	0.60 ± 0.09^{a}	0.879 ± 0.084^{a}
	P = 0.529	P = 0.012	P = 0.034

Data are presented as mean \pm SE, n = 8-15/date for all measurements. Summary statistics followed by different letters are significantly different (P < 0.05).

Table 5. Nutritional quality of immature and mature poplar leaves grown without or with wind stress

Treatment	Leaf age	Protein (%DW)	Carbohydrate (%DW)	Water (% FW)	Fibre (%DW)
Control	Immature	$26.1 \pm 0.6^{\mathrm{b}}$	$7.2\pm0.7^{\rm ab}$	69.7 ± 0.7 ^a	24.4 ± 0.3^{ab}
Control	Mature	19.7 ± 1.1^{a}	$8.2\pm0.5^{\text{ b}}$	71.1 ± 1.5^{a}	24.2 ± 0.1^a
Wind	Immature	26.3 ± 0.8^{b}	5.8 ± 0.2^{a}	69.7 ± 0.6^{a}	25.1 ± 0.3^{ab}
Wind	Mature	19.9 ± 0.2^{a}	7.3 ± 0.6^{ab}	71.7 ± 1.6^{a}	25.4 ± 0.4^{b}
Treatment Leaf age Treatment x lea	af age	P = 0.757 P = 0.001 P = 0.993	P = 0.098 P = 0.079 P = 0.693	P = 0.845 P = 0.370 P = 0.862	P = 0.031 P = 0.783 P = 0.426

Leaf ages represent LPI numbers near 15 and 25, respectively. Data are presented as mean \pm SE, with only n=2 replicate dates/treatment and leaf age. Summary statistics followed by different letters are significantly different (P < 0.05).

Table 6. Consumption and assimilation of protein and growth of *Lymantria dispar* larvae on immature or mature leaves of poplar grown without or with wind stress

Treatment	Leaf age	Relative consumption rate (mg mg ⁻¹ day ⁻¹)	Total assimilation efficiency (%)	Relative protein consumption rate (mg mg ⁻¹ day ⁻¹)	Protein assimilation efficiency (%)	Relative protein assimilation rate (mg mg ⁻¹ day ⁻¹)	Relative growth rate (mg mg ⁻¹ day ⁻¹)
Control	Immature	1.21 ± 0.04^{b}	36.6 ± 0.7^{b}	0.315 ± 0.010^{c}	76.1 ± 0.5^{c}	$0.245 \pm 0.010^{\text{ c}}$	0.189 ± 0.011 b
Control	Mature	$1.18 \pm 0.06^{\ b}$	$40.2\pm0.8^{\rm c}$	0.232 ± 0.012^{b}	72.1 ± 1.3^{ab}	0.161 ± 0.006^{b}	0.179 ± 0.013^{b}
Wind	Immature	1.11 ± 0.04 b	$34.2 \pm 0.7^{\text{ a}}$	0.291 ± 0.010^{c}	75.4 ± 0.8 bc	$0.234 \pm 0.009^{\circ}$	0.181 ± 0.009^{b}
Wind	Mature	0.86 ± 0.03 ^a	38.4 ± 1.0^{ab}	0.172 ± 0.007^{a}	$68.8 \pm 0.9^{\rm \ a}$	0.117 ± 0.004^{a}	0.140 ± 0.006^{a}
Treatment Leaf age Treatment x	leaf age	P < 0.001 P < 0.001 P = 0.008	P = 0.008 P < 0.001 P = 0.979	P < 0.001 P < 0.001 P = 0.032	P = 0.155 P = 0.004 P = 0.790	P = 0.003 P < 0.001 P = 0.007	P = 0.080 P = 0.007 P = 0.099
Heatment x	icai age	F = 0.008	F = 0.979	F = 0.032	F = 0.790	F = 0.007	F = 0.099

Leaf ages represent LPI numbers near 15 and 25, respectively. Data are presented as mean \pm SE, n = 10-14 for all measurements. Summary statistics followed by different letters are significantly different (P < 0.05). Assimilation = (mass ingested – mass egested).

stati

Table 7. Consumption and assimilation of carbohydrates by *Lymantria dispar* larvae on immature or mature leaves of poplar grown without or with wind stress

Treatment	Leaf age	Relative carbohydrate consumption rate (mg mg ⁻¹ day ⁻¹)	Carbohydrate assimilation efficiency (%)	Relative carbohydrate assimilation rate (mg mg ⁻¹ day ⁻¹)
Control	Immature	$0.085 \pm 0.003^{\text{ b}}$	90.0 ± 0.6 a	0.076 ± 0.003^{b}
Control	Mature	0.094 ± 0.004^{c}	92.8 ± 0.3^{b}	0.087 ± 0.004^{c}
Wind	Immature	0.061 ± 0.002^{a}	88.7 ± 0.6^{a}	0.054 ± 0.002^{a}
Wind	Mature	$0.061 \pm 0.003^{\rm a}$	$92.7\pm0.3^{\text{ b}}$	0.057 ± 0.003^{a}
Treatment Leaf age Treatment x	leaf age	P < 0.001 $P = 0.073$ $P = 0.119$	P = 0.143 P < 0.001 P = 0.210	P < 0.001 P = 0.005 P = 0.120

Leaf ages represent LPI numbers near 15 and 25, respectively. Data are presented as mean \pm SE, n = 10-14 for all measurements except carbohydrate assimilation efficiency and P:C assimilation ratios (n = 9-10). Summary statistics followed by different letters are significantly different (P < 0.05). Assimilation = (mass ingested – mass egested).







