# **Conformity to Bergmann's rule in birds depends on nest design**

# <sup>2</sup> and migration

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13	Running title: Bergmann's rule depends on nest design and migration
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15	
16	Word count: 7085
17	
18	

## 19 Abstract

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Species' geographic ranges and range limits are thought to be determined by climate, and across climatic 21 gradients the morphology of populations varies non-randomly. Ecogeographic rules seek to characterise 22 such variation, with Bergmann's rule positing that organisms inhabiting colder environments are typically 23 larger-bodied than those inhabiting warmer environments. While Bergmann's rule has been supported 24 across a range of taxonomic groups, how organisms' behaviour may moderate its effect remains unclear. 25 Here we investigate whether conformity to Bergmann's rule among birds of the Western Palearctic varies 26 in relation to nest design and migratory behaviour, using phylogenetic comparative analyses. We test 27 predictions using data on nest structure and location, migration, body mass, latitudinal distribution, 28 annual mean temperature and phylogenetic relatedness for a sample of >500 species. We find that 29 conformity to Bergmann's rule depends strongly on migratory behaviour: non-migratory species breeding 30 31 at colder, more northerly latitudes are larger-bodied, while body mass is unaffected by climate in shortand long-distance migrants. Among non-migratory species, conformity to Bergmann's rule depends. 32 further, on nest design: species with more open nests, who are thus most exposed to adverse climatic 33 conditions while breeding, conform most strongly to Bergmann's rule. Our findings suggest that enclosed 34 nesting and migration allow smaller bodied species to breed in colder environments than their body size 35 would otherwise allow. Therefore, we conclude that organisms' behaviour can strongly affect exposure to 36 environmental selection pressures. 37

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Keywords: body size, Bergmann's rule, geographic range, latitude, niche construction, nest building,
 migration, phylogenetic comparative methods, temperature

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# 43 Introduction

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Species' geographic ranges and range limits are influenced by abiotic factors such as environmental 45 conditions and physical barriers to dispersal, and by biotic factors such as competition for resources and 46 the risk of predation (Gaston 2003, 2009). Whilst the relative importance of these factors varies between 47 species and geographic regions, the availability of ambient and productive energy primarily determines 48 species' geographic ranges and range limits (Currie et al. 2004). This is because species' range edges 49 occur at climatic thresholds and vary predictably with changes in climatic conditions (Gaston 2003, 50 2009), because organisms have a unique set of environmental conditions in which they can survive and 51 reproduce (Blackburn and Gaston 1996). The morphology of individuals also varies non-randomly across 52 geographic clines. Ecogeographic principles seek to characterise such variation, with Bergmann's rule 53 being one of the most widely known and enduring examples (James, 1970). Bergmann's rule posits that 54 species inhabiting colder environments are larger than species inhabiting warmer environments, because 55 larger bodied organisms have a lower surface area to volume ratio and thus a greater ability to conserve 56 heat (Bergmann 1847). 57

However, evidence that body size and morphology correlate in accordance with Bergmann's rule 58 remains variable, and its general validity across diverse animal taxa has been questioned (Blackburn et al. 59 1999, Meiri and Dayan 2003). At the intraspecific level, a substantial minority (~25-30%) of bird species 60 fail to conform to Bergmann's rule (Ashton 2002, Meiri and Dayan 2003). While Bergmann's rule is 61 broadly supported across bird species globally, the magnitude and direction of relationships between body 62 size and climate varies widely among geographic regions and taxonomic groups (Olson et al. 2009). 63 Further, within taxonomic subsets, Bergmann's rule is not supported in the majority of bird genera, 64 families and orders (Olson et al. 2009). Taken together, these results suggest that while broadly valid, 65 conformity to Bergmann's rule is mediated by other factors. 66

Organisms are able to buffer against environmental selection pressures to some extent via their behaviour (Odling-Smee et al. 2003). Nesting behaviour may be particularly important in this regard because nests are structures built to contain and protect offspring and the attending parents during the

breeding season (Martin et al. 2017, Hansell 2000). Both aspects of nest structure and location can affect 70 the exposure of parents and offspring to climatic conditions (Biancucci and Martin 2010). However, the 71 potential relationship of nests to species' responses to environmental conditions such as those predicted 72 by Bergmann's rule is currently underexplored. In particular, incubating parents and broods of species 73 with open nests may be more exposed to the adverse effects of cold weather than those of species with 74 enclosed nests (Mainwaring et al. 2017). We therefore predict that species with enclosed nests should not 75 conform as strongly to Bergmann's rule as open nesting species. This prediction has not, so far, found 76 support at the intraspecific level: body mass is no more likely to increase in colder climates within species 77 laying in open nests than within those with enclosed nests (including tree cavities, burrows and domed 78 nests built of vegetation, Meiri and Dayan 2003). Bergmann's rule has been proposed, rather, to depend 79 80 on migratory behaviour, as migrating species avoid extreme winter temperatures that may select for large body size at high latitudes (Ashton 2002, Meiri and Dayan 2003). In support of this idea, some analyses 81 find that body mass is more likely to increase in colder temperatures within sedentary rather than 82 migratory bird species, but this pattern is not consistent across studies using different statistical 83 approaches (Meiri and Dayan 2003, Ashton 2002). As yet, the potential role of nesting and migration in 84 mediating Bergmann's rule across species, where variation in body mass and geographic range far 85 exceeds that within species, has not yet been investigated. 86

To investigate the potential role of nest design and migration as mediators of conformity to 87 Bergmann's rule, we examined the combined effects of nest type, migration and climatic conditions on 88 body mass among the bird species of the Western Palearctic. We focus on this region due to dramatic 89 variation in environmental conditions over large-scale latitudinal gradients in the Northern hemisphere, in 90 which ambient temperatures are considerably colder in northerly than southerly regions. We test 91 predictions with phylogenetic comparative analyses based on a sample of >500 species with data on nest 92 design, migratory behaviour, breeding latitude and breeding range temperature. We fit models in which 93 the slope of body mass on latitude or temperature is allowed to vary between species with differing nest 94 designs and migratory strategies. We predict that conformity to Bergmann's rule should depend on nest 95 design as follows: body mass should increase with latitude and decrease with temperature most strongly 96

among species with open nests, followed by those with semi-open nests while those with enclosed nests conform least to Bergmann's rule. In terms of migration, we predict the strongest conformity to Bergmann's rule among sedentary (non-migrating) species, followed by short-distance and long-distance migrants. If nest type and migration have equally important effects on conformity to Bergmann's rule, we should find the same effects of nest design within each category of migratory behaviour, and vice versa. Alternatively, if either nest design or migration is a more important mediator of conformity to Bergmann's rule, one should override the effect of the other.

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#### 105 Materials and methods

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#### 107 Study species

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We examined relationships between nest design, migration, body mass and breeding climate among bird 109 species listed as breeding residents in the Birds of the Western Palearctic book series (Cramp and 110 Simmons 1977, 1980, 1983, Cramp 1985, 1988, 1992, Cramp and Perrins 1993, 1994a, 1994b). Data on 111 112 nest structure and location (categorised based on descriptive information), body mass, latitudinal range and migratory behaviour were collected from the same source for n=857 species, of which n=769 could 113 be matched with the Jetz et al. (2012) molecular phylogeny. Bioclimatic data (annual mean temperature, 114 'BIO1') were obtained from the WorldClim global climate database (Fick and Hijmans 2017) and 115 matched to species' ranges using distribution maps from BirdLife International (BirdLife International & 116 Handbook of the Birds of the World 2018). Of species included in the phylogeny, data on nest structure 117 and location were available for n=538 species, body mass for n=518 species, latitudinal range for n=530 118 species and migratory behaviour for n=538 species. We obtained bioclimatic data only for species that 119 were included in the phylogeny and which had available body mass, nest design and migration data 120 (n=518). 3 such species lack temperature data either because the species is no longer recognized in the 121 latest HBW-BirdLife Taxonomic Checklist (version 3.0, November 2018) or because the species' range is 122 too small to be matched to bioclimatic data at the chosen grid resolution, leaving n=515 with annual mean 123

temperature data. The full dataset used for analysis, along with associated R code and additional relevant
 files, is available in the Supporting Information.

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### 127 Classifying nest types

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Here, we consider nest type to be more complex than simply the structure of the nest itself, because the 129 location in which the nest is built also strongly affects its exposure to climatic conditions (Mainwaring et 130 al. 2014). For example, open cup-shaped nests built in vegetation should be more exposed to 131 environmental conditions than open cup-shaped nests built inside tree cavities (von Haartman 1957). 132 Therefore, we combine both aspects of the structure and location of birds' nests to produce an appropriate 133 single nest design factor as follows. Nest structure is classified following Hansell (2000) in figure 3.2 as 134 either cup, plate, scrape, bed, dome, dome and tube or burrow, while nest location is classified as open, 135 semi-open or enclosed in which open refers to fully exposed nest sites (such as waders nesting on bare 136 ground), semi-open refers to those nests that are largely concealed from all sides by, for example, being 137 located in dense vegetation and enclosed refers to nests in tree cavities and alike (von Haartman 1957, 138 Alerstam and Hogstedt 1981, Hansell 2000). We then combine information on nest structure and location 139 to classify species' overall nest type as either open, semi-open or enclosed (Table S1). We consider as 140 'open' nest types only open nest structures (cup, plate, scrape or bed nests) built in open locations. We 141 consider as 'enclosed' nests both nests of any structure located inside cavities, and enclosed nest 142 structures (dome, dome and tube or burrow) built in any location. Finally, we treat open nest structures 143 (cup, plate, scrape or bed nests) built in 'semi-open' locations as 'semi-open' nests, an intermediate state 144 between fully open and fully enclosed nest designs. In Supporting Information, we present the results of 145 additional analyses treating nest structure and location separately. 146

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#### 151 **Quantifying breeding climate**

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Bergmann's rule is generally tested using measures of climatic conditions across a species' entire range. 153 However, since our predictions concern how body mass may be affected by exposure to climatic 154 conditions while breeding, here we investigate relationships between species' body mass and climatic 155 conditions of the breeding range specifically. We used two variables to capture climatic conditions in the 156 breeding range: breeding range latitude and breeding range temperature. We obtained northernmost and 157 southernmost latitudes of the breeding ranges for each species from distribution maps in the Birds of the 158 Western Palearctic book series (Cramp and Simmons 1977, 1980, 1983, Cramp 1985, 1988, 1992, Cramp 159 and Perrins 1993, 1994a, 1994b). For analyses, we used a single latitudinal measure, 'breeding latitude 160 midpoint', taken as the mean of the northernmost and southernmost breeding latitudes. To estimate 161 breeding range temperature, we matched annual mean temperature data from WorldClim (Fick and 162 Hijmans 2017) to species' ranges from BirdLife International (BirdLife International & Handbook of the 163 Birds of the World 2018) using functions from the R packages 'rgdal' (Bivand et al. 2018) and 'letsR' 164 (Vilela and Villalobos 2015). Species' ranges were converted to presence-absence matrices with 0.5 165 degree grid cell resolution (~55km at the equator), counting a species as present if its range covered 10% 166 or more of a cell. We exclude uncertain records (presence codes 2 = 'probably extant', 3 = 'possibly 167 extant' and 6 = 'presence uncertain') and records from outside of species' native ranges (all except origin 168 code 1 = 'native' and 2 = 'reintroduced'). To limit records to ranges in which birds may breed, we select 169 only records from the birds' resident or breeding season ranges (season codes 1 = 'resident' or 2 =170 'breeding season'), thereby excluding non-breeding season and passage ranges, and records of uncertain 171 seasonality (season codes 3 = 'non-breeding season', 4 = 'passage' and 5 'seasonal occurrence 172 uncertain'). We obtained annual mean temperature data at 10 minutes of a degree resolution, matching it 173 to each grid cell where a species is present. Since the climatic data is higher resolution than the presence 174 absence matrix, we average climatic data across cells at the coarser 0.5-degree resolution to match the 175 presence absence matrix. Finally, we summarise breeding range temperature at the species-level by taking 176 the mean of annual mean temperature across all occupied cells in each species' presence-absence matrix. 177

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## 179 **Quantifying body sizes**

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We measured species' body sizes as the mean body mass of males and females during the breeding season, preferring estimates from the UK (where appropriate) due to larger sample sizes, using data from the Birds of the Western Palearctic (Cramp and Simmons 1977, 1980, 1983, Cramp 1985, 1988, 1992, Cramp and Perrins 1993, 1994a, 1994b). Body masses of unknown sex were used where body mass was not reported separately for males and females, following e.g. Møller et al. (2010).

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### 187 Quantifying migratory behaviour

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Using data from the Birds of the Western Palearctic (Cramp and Simmons 1977, 1980, 1983, Cramp 190 1985, 1988, 1992, Cramp and Perrins 1993, 1994a, 1994b), we categorised species' migratory behaviour, 191 distinguishing between sedentary (non-migratory) species, short-distance migrants and long-distance 192 migrants. Sedentary species are those species that remain in the same area year-round and are thus 193 residents, whilst short-distance migrants migrate south each autumn to over-winter either in southern 194 Europe or northern Africa, and long-distance migrants migrate south each autumn to over-winter in sub-195 Saharan Africa.

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#### 197 Statistical analyses

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We test predictions using Bayesian phylogenetic generalized linear mixed models and phylogenetic generalized least squares regression, implemented in the MCMCglmm R package (Hadfield 2010) and BayesTraits software (Pagel 1999, Pagel et al. 2004, Meade and Pagel 2016) respectively. To test for Bergmann's rule across the whole sample of species, we fit body mass as the outcome variable, predicted by either breeding range latitude or temperature. To investigate whether conformity to Bergmann's rule is affected by nesting variables and migration, we include an interaction term allowing slopes of body mass

on latitude or temperature to vary between species with different nest characteristics and/or migratory
 strategies. For models incorporating interactions, sample sizes are sufficient that there are at least 10
 species for every slope estimated. Body mass is log10-transformed to correct for a strong positive skew,
 while breeding latitude and temperature are roughly normally distributed and are left untransformed.

Accounting for phylogenetic non-independence is essential in cross-species comparative analyses 209 to avoid pseudoreplication and biased parameter estimates (Freckleton et al. 2002). We obtained trees 210 from a comprehensive global bird phylogeny (Jetz et al. 2012), selecting a version constructed using only 211 species with molecular data, based on the Hackett et al. (2008) 'backbone' phylogeny. For the majority of 212 our analyses we use a single maximum clade credibility (MCC) phylogeny based on a posterior sample of 213 10,000 trees, created with TreeAnnotator (Drummond et al. 2012). However, to ensure analyses are 214 robust to phylogenetic uncertainty, we repeat one of our main analyses across a posterior distribution of 215 3000 trees in BayesTraits (Pagel 1999, Meade and Pagel 2016). This approach uses MCMC to estimate 216 model parameters across the posterior tree distribution, thereby incorporating both model and 217 phylogenetic uncertainty into results (Pagel et al. 2004). We find qualitatively identical results, both when 218 sampling trees in proportion to their likelihood and when visiting each tree for an equal number of 219 iterations (Table S2). Therefore, we are confident that our results are not substantially affected by 220 phylogenetic uncertainty. For MCMCglmm analyses we quantify the influence of phylogeny on results by 221 estimating heritability  $(h^2)$ , the proportion of residual variance attributable to phylogenetic relationships 222 equivalent to Pagel's  $\lambda$  for PGLS regression (Hadfield and Nakagawa 2010). Like Pagel's  $\lambda$ ,  $h^2$  varies 223 from 0, equivalent to an ordinary non-phylogenetic regression with a random error structure, to 1, where 224 the covariation in residual errors is directly proportional to phylogenetic relationships, assuming a 225 Brownian motion model of trait evolution (Pagel 1999, Freckleton et al. 2002). 226

For all models, we ran MCMC chains of sufficient length to obtain effective sample sizes of at least 1000 for all model parameters (MCMCglmm = 501,000 iterations, sampling every 100 iterations, with a burn-in period of 1000 iterations; BayesTraits = 5,050,000 iterations, sampling every 1000 iterations, with a burn-in of 50,000 iterations). For MCMCglmm analyses, we use default, diffuse normal priors for predictor variables (mean=0, variance= $10^8$ ) and commonly used inverse-Wishart priors for the

232	residual variance and phylogenetic random effect (with V=1, nu=0.002) (Hadfield 2019). For BayesTraits
233	analyses, we use default minimally-informative, uniform prior distributions for all parameters, with a
234	range of -100 to 100 for fixed effects and 0 to 1 for Pagel's $\lambda$ (Meade and Pagel 2016). For every model,
235	we ensured that chains had converged on the posterior distribution, that burn-in periods were sufficient
236	and that chains did not have problematic levels of autocorrelation by confirming sufficient effective
237	sample sizes and by visual examination of chain plots. For all parameter estimates, we report means and
238	95% credible intervals from posterior distributions. Additionally, for each model we report $R^2$ estimated
239	as the squared Pearson's correlation of the observed and fitted Y values.
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241	Data deposition

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<sup>243</sup> Data will be made available in the Dryad Digital Repository upon acceptance.

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# 245 **Results**

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# 247 Support for Bergmann's rule

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We find support for Bergmann's rule across the whole sample: species' body mass increased with 249 breeding range latitude midpoint ( $\beta = 0.002$  [<-0.001, 0.004], n = 513,  $h^2 = 0.990$  [0.973, 0.998],  $R^2 =$ 250 0.026, Fig. S1a) and decreased with breeding range temperature ( $\beta = -0.003$  [-0.005, <0.001], n = 515, 251  $h^2 = 0.989$  [0.973, 0.998],  $R^2 = 0.019$ , Fig. S1b). These relationships are, however, fairly weak, with 252 breeding climate explaining less than 3% of the variation in body mass. Translating effects to the data 253 scale, the model predicts that body mass increases from 277g to 363g across the range of breeding 254 latitudes (16 to 79.5 degrees), while body mass decreases from 384g to 297g from the lowest to the 255 highest breeding range temperatures (-16°C to 28°C). 256

#### **Effects of nest design and migration on conformity to Bergmann's rule**

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When modelling interactions of nest design and breeding climate, we find that nest design affects conformity to Bergmann's rule (Table 1). Specifically, in semi-open nesting species, we find similar effects to those found across the whole sample: body mass increases slightly with breeding range latitude and decreases with breeding range temperature. However, among open and enclosed nesting species, there is little to no relationship between body mass and either latitude or temperature. Repeating analyses for nest location and structure separately suggests that this pattern is driven primarily by nest location rather than structure (Tables S3, S4).

When including interaction terms for migration and breeding climate, we find support for the predicted effect of migration on conformity to Bergmann's rule: among sedentary species, body mass increases with breeding latitude and decreases with breeding range temperature, but not in short- or longdistance migrants (Table 2, Fig. 1).

When including a three-way interaction between breeding climate, nest type and migration, we find the predicted effects of nest type on conformity to Bergmann's rule within sedentary species. Among sedentary species, body mass increases with breeding range latitude and decreases with breeding range temperature for open and semi-open nesting species, but not enclosed nesting species. Short- and longdistance migrating species do not conform to Bergmann's rule at all, regardless of nest type (Table 3, Fig. 2). When re-running analyses separating the effects of nest structure and location, we find similar patterns both for nest structure (Table S5) and location (Table S6).

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# 280 **Discussion**

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We find that conformity to Bergmann's rule, which predicts that species inhabiting colder environments should have larger body sizes (Bergmann 1847) depends strongly on migration and nest design in Western Palearctic birds. In both long- and short-distance migratory species, body mass is unaffected by climatic conditions in the breeding range, while among non-migrating sedentary species, conformity to

Bergmann's rule is greatest among species whose nests are most exposed to environmental conditions. 286 Our results suggest that smaller bird species can adapt to colder climates either by migrating to avoid 287 extreme winter temperatures, or by breeding in enclosed nests, while colder breeding climates favour 288larger body sizes in resident, open-nesting species. Therefore, among non-migratory species, enclosed 289 nests may compensate for higher thermoregulatory costs of incubation in smaller-bodied adults breeding 290 in colder climates, thus enabling smaller species to breed in colder climates than their body mass would 291 otherwise allow. Our study is consistent with the idea that birds' behaviour, and particularly their nesting 292 and migratory strategies, mediate the effect of environmental conditions on species' morphology. 293

Among resident species, we find evidence in support of Bergmann's rule only for species with 294 open or semi-open nests, in which brooding parents are most exposed to adverse weather at northerly 295 latitudes. Therefore, our results support the idea that enclosed nests serve to protect smaller birds against 296 colder climatic conditions at higher latitudes. In additional analyses reported in the Supporting 297 Information, we find the same pattern of results among resident species both for those building open nest 298 structures and siting nests in open locations. Therefore, both enclosed nest structures and open structures 299 built in protected locations can effectively buffer smaller-bodied species against colder conditions at 300 higher latitudes. These results demonstrate the importance of considering not only aspects of nest 301 structure but also of location when investigating ecological correlates of nest design. Our results contrast 302 with a prior study testing the validity of Bergmann's rule at the intraspecific level within 106 bird species, 303 which found that body mass was no more likely to increase in colder climates within open nesting than 304 enclosed nesting species (Meiri and Dayan 2003). Our findings may differ from those of this study 305 because we test predictions in a larger sample (>500 species) at the interspecific level, capturing far more 306 variation in body mass and climatic conditions. Further, in contrast to prior studies we investigate 307 relationships between body mass and environmental conditions in birds' breeding ranges specifically 308 rather than across their entire ranges. Nest design is much more relevant to the former since birds' nests 309 are generally temporary structures built for the purposes of breeding only. 310

In contrast with our findings, two recent comparative analyses suggest that enclosed nests are protective against exposure to hotter and drier, rather than colder and wetter, climatic conditions. Among

diverse geographic regions, the proportion of passerine species with enclosed nests is 2 to 3 times greater 313 in tropical or southern hemisphere regions than in north temperate regions (Martin et al. 2017). Within 314 Australia, meanwhile, the proportion of passerine species building domed nests increases in areas with 315 hotter, drier climates and less vegetative cover (Duursma et al. 2018). Direct comparisons between our 316 results and these prior studies is challenging due to key methodological differences: these studies are 317 based on geographical patterns rather than phylogenetically-informed relationships, and do not 318 incorporate potential interactions with body mass. Discrepancies with our findings may also be partly 319 explained, however, by different approaches to classifying nest types: in contrast to our study, these 320 analyses did not count nests built in cavities as enclosed due to a focus solely on nest structure. In our 321 sample, a substantial proportion (~20%) of species nest in cavities which may provide effective protection 322 against colder breeding environments in the Northern hemisphere. Taken at face value, however, these 323 differing results suggest that protective effects of enclosed nests against extreme climatic conditions may 324 be region-specific. Enclosed nesting may only have the opportunity to evolve in response to colder 325 climates within the Northern hemisphere, which encompasses far more potential breeding range in 326 temperate and polar climatic zones than the Southern hemisphere. 327

Along with nest type, we also identify migration as an important mediator of conformity to 328 Bergmann's rule. Consistent with some previous work at the intraspecific level (Meiri and Dayan 2003, 329 but see Ashton 2002), we find that body mass increases in colder temperatures among sedentary species, 330 but in neither short-distance or long-distance migrants. These findings support the idea that long-distance 331 migrants are less exposed to selection pressures favouring large body size in colder climates as they avoid 332 exposure to the coldest winter temperatures at high latitudes by spending the non-breeding season in 333 warmer environments (Ashton 2002, Meiri and Dayan 2003). Teasing apart the effects of migration and 334 nest type on conformity to Bergmann's rule, we find that migration has a stronger effect than nest type. 335 While we find predicted effects of nest type within sedentary species, migratory species do not conform 336 to Bergmann's rule at all, regardless of their nesting behaviour. Therefore, the thermoregulatory benefits 337 of migration override those of nest design, such that enclosed nests provide no additional 338 thermoregulatory benefits for migratory, small-bodied species. This is perhaps unsurprising because 339

migration results in species avoiding extreme winter conditions in the Northern hemisphere altogether,
 while nest design can only affect exposure to environmental conditions for relatively short periods during
 breeding. Taken together, our results reveal the interplay between nesting and migration in buffering
 small-bodied species against cold climates in the Northern hemisphere.

Alternative explanations for our findings may be related to potential systematic changes in the 344 availability of nest sites (Hansell 2000) or food (Martin 1995) over latitudinal gradients: for example, 345 natural cavities and food may be limited in forests at higher latitudes which may mean that smaller and 346 competitively inferior tree cavity-nesting species are prevented from breeding at higher latitudes through 347 competitive exclusion rather than environmental conditions alone. However, these alternatives seem 348 unlikely as natural cavities are not usually in limited supply in the northern hemisphere (Wiebe 2011). 349 Instead, our findings suggest that migration and nest morphology in birds and other animals may help 350 species to breed in climates where they would not necessarily otherwise be able to. Meanwhile the need 351 for streamlined body designs for efficient flight in migrant birds may play a greater role in determining 352 their morphology than conditions on the breeding grounds alone. Nevertheless, these findings are 353 consistent with a prediction of niche construction theory that susceptibility to abiotic selection pressures, 354 such as environmental temperature, can be buffered by species' alteration of their environments through 355 behaviour, particularly in terms of the location of nesting sites (Odling-Smee et al. 2003). However, since 356 comparative analyses can only identify correlational rather than causal relationships (Nunn 2011), we 357 cannot rule out the possibility of alternative causal explanations. Our results are therefore equally 358 consistent with causal scenarios in which environmental selection pressures drive changes in behaviour 359 rather than vice-versa, or where environmental selection pressures and behaviour influence one another in 360 evolutionary feedback loops. In any case, our findings are significant in that they suggest that 361 fundamental relationships between species' environments and morphology may be mediated by 362 behaviour. 363

We have demonstrated that in Western Palearctic birds, body mass increases in colder climates as hypothesised by Bergmann's rule only in non-migratory species breeding in exposed nests. Our findings are consistent with the idea that migration and enclosed nests compensate for greater thermoregulatory

costs in smaller-bodied birds, allowing then to breed in colder environments than expected for their body size. Further research could usefully examine how species' modification of environments affects responses to environmental selection pressures across more diverse taxa and geographic regions, including across human populations. Our work should also guide future experimental studies on the potential mediating role of nesting and migratory behaviour on the influence of climatic conditions on parental and offspring fitness. We conclude that behaviour, particularly migration, nest-building and nestsite choice, is an important mediator of species' responses to climatic selection pressures.

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375 Acknowledgements - We thank Sue Healy and Kevin Laland for useful comments.

Author contributions - MCM and SES designed the study, MCM collected the data, SES analysed the data and
 MCM and SES wrote the manuscript.

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# **TABLES**

Table 1. Interaction of Bergmann's rule with nest design.

463 a) Latitude

Nest design	$\beta$ Estimates & 95% CI	$h^2$ & 95% CI	<i>n</i> species	$R^2$
Open	<-0.001 [-0.003, 0.004]	0.987 [0.968, 0.998]	513	0.198
Semi-open	0.003 [-0.001, 0.006]			
Enclosed	0.002 [-0.003, 0.007]			

#### 465 b) Temperature

Nest design	βEstimates & 95% CI	$h^2$ & 95% CI	<i>n</i> species	$R^2$
Open	0.001 [-0.003, 0.006]	0.988 [0.970, 0.998]	515	0.184
Semi-open	-0.005 [-0.009, -0.001]			
Enclosed	-0.004, -0.010, 0.002			

 $\beta$  estimates = mean regression slopes from posterior distributions for body mass on a) latitude and b)

temperature, fitted for species with different nest designs,  $h^2 =$  mean heritability (phylogenetic signal)

 $_{469}$  95% CI = 95% credible intervals.

- 4/8

481 Table 2. Interaction of Bergmann's rule with migration.

482

### 483 a) Latitude

Migration	$\beta$ estimates & 95% CI	$h^2$ & 95% CI	<i>n</i> species	$R^2$
Sedentary	0.006 [0.002, 0.009]	0.991 [0.975, 0.999]	513	0.017
Short distance	-0.001 [-0.004, 0.003]			
Long distance	<0.001 [-0.004, 0.004]	-		

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## 485 b) Temperature

Migration	$\beta$ estimates & 95% CI	$h^2$ & 95% CI	<i>n</i> species	$R^2$
Sedentary	-0.008 [-0.012, -0.004]	0.991 [0.977, 0.999]	515	0.015
Short distance	0.001 [-0.004, 0.005]			
Long distance	0.002 [-0.003, 0.007]			

487	$\beta$ estimates = mean regression slopes from posterior distributions for body mass on a) latitude and b)
488	temperature, fitted for species with different migratory strategies, $h^2 = mean$ heritability (phylogenetic
489	signal) 95% CI = 95% credible intervals.
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Table 3. Interaction of Bergmann's rule with migration and nest design.

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505 a) Latitude

Migration	Nest design	$\beta$ estimates & 95% CI	<i>h</i> <sup>2</sup> & 95% CI	<i>n</i> species	$R^2$
Sedentary	Open	0.009 [0.002, 0.016]	0.988 [0.969, 0.998]	513	0.202
	Semi	0.006 [0.001, 0.010]			
	Enclosed	0.004 [-0.003, 0.010]			
Short	Open	-0.002 [-0.006, 0.004]			
	Semi	0.001 [-0.005, 0.006]			
	Enclosed	-0.002 [-0.010, 0.006]			
Long	Open	<-0.001 [-0.006, 0.006]			
	Semi	-0.002 [-0.008, 0.005]			
	Enclosed	0.004 [-0.006, 0.014]			

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#### 507 b) Temperature

Migration	Nest design	$\beta$ estimates & 95% CI	<i>h</i> <sup>2</sup> & 95% CI	<i>n</i> species	$R^2$
Sedentary	Open	-0.008 [-0.016, <-0.001]	0.989 [0.972, 0.999]	515	0.188
	Semi	-0.009 [-0.014, -0.004]			
	Enclosed	-0.006 [-0.014, 0.004]			
Short	Open	0.003 [-0.003, 0.010]			
	Semi	-0.002 [-0.009, 0.005]			
	Enclosed	0.001 [-0.012, 0.014]			
Long	Open	0.003 [-0.004, 0.010]			
	Semi	0.002 [-0.006, 0.011]			
	Enclosed	-0.004 [-0.017, 0.010]			

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- $\beta$  estimates = mean regression slopes from posterior distributions for body mass on a) latitude and b)
- temperature, fitted for species with different nest designs and migratory strategies,  $h^2 =$  mean heritability

<sup>511</sup> (phylogenetic signal) 95% CI = 95% credible intervals.

512

# 514 FIGURE LEGENDS

515

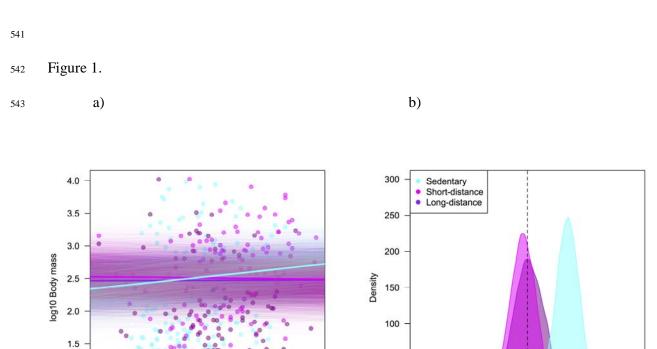
Figure 1. Interaction of Bergmann's rule with migration. a) Species' body mass against breeding latitude midpoint with different slopes fitted for sedentary, short-distance migrating and long-distance migrating species. Mean slopes from posterior distributions are indicated by thick lines, while slopes from the entire posterior distributions are plotted as thinner, semi-transparent lines. b) density plot showing posterior distributions of slope estimates for sedentary, short-distance migrating and long-distance migrating species.

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Figure 2. Interaction of Bergmann's rule with nest design within sedentary species. Species' body mass against breeding latitude midpoint with different slopes fitted for open, semi-open and enclosed nesting species, within sedentary species only. Mean slopes from posterior distributions are indicated by thick lines, while slopes from the entire posterior distributions are plotted as thinner, semi-transparent lines. b) density plot showing posterior distributions of slope estimates open, semi-open and enclosed nesting species, within sedentary species only.

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Posterior slope estimates

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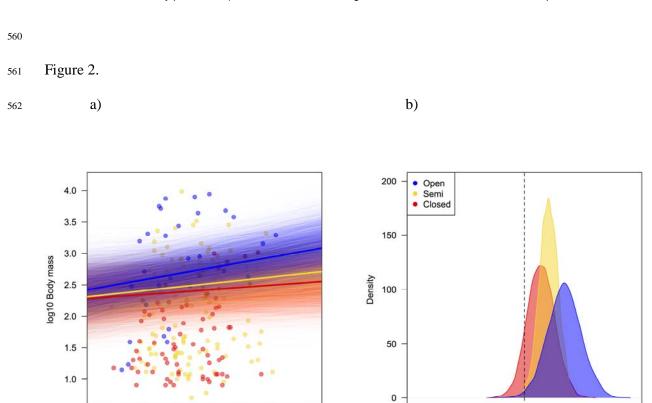
0.015



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Breeding latitude midpoint





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Posterior slope estimates

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Breeding latitude midpoint

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# 566 SUPPORTING INFORMATION

<sup>568</sup> Table S1. Nest design categorisation scheme.

	Open	Semi-open	Enclosed
Cup	Open	Semi-open	Enclosed
Plate	Open	Semi-open	Enclosed
Scrape	Open	Semi-open	Enclosed
Bed	Open	Semi-open	Enclosed
Dome	Enclosed	Enclosed	Enclosed
Dome & tube	Enclosed	Enclosed	Enclosed
Burrow	Enclosed	Enclosed	Enclosed

Scheme used to combine nest structure and location into a single nest design variable. Nest structure (rows) and nest location (columns) categories are combined to form a single nest design variable, capturing differing levels of exposure to environmental conditions influenced by both nest structure and location. 

#### <sup>590</sup> Table S2. Incorporating phylogenetic uncertainty.

#### a) Sampling trees in proportion to their likelihood

Nest design	$\beta$ Estimates & 95% CI	λ & 95% CI	<i>n</i> species	$R^2$
Open	<-0.001 [-0.004, 0.003]	0.970 [0.952, 0.983]	513	0.195
Semi-open	0.003 [-0.001, 0.006]			
Enclosed	0.002 [-0.002, 0.002]			

#### b) Visiting all trees for an equal number of iterations

Nest design	$\beta$ Estimates & 95% CI	λ & 95% CI	<i>n</i> species	$R^2$
Open	<0.001 [-0.004, 0.004]	0.958 [0.936, 0.976]	513	0.200
Semi-open	0.003 [-0.001, 0.006]			
Enclosed	0.002 [-0.003, 0.007]			

Results of one of the main analyses (body mass predicted by an interaction of breeding latitude and nest design) repeated incorporating phylogenetic uncertainty by running the model across a posterior distribution of 3000 trees in BayesTraits. Initially trees were sampled in proportion to their likelihood (a), but this resulted in poor mixing between trees, likely caused by wide variation in tree likelihood across the sample. Results are qualitatively identical when forcing the chain to visit all trees in the sample for an equal number (1000) of iterations (b).  $\beta$  estimates = mean regression slopes from posterior distributions and  $\lambda$  = mean Pagel's lambda (phylogenetic signal) from posterior distributions with 95% credible intervals. 

- Table S3. Bergmann's rule and nest structure.

616 c) Latitude

Nest structure	$\beta$ estimates & 95% CI	$h^2$ & 95% CI	<i>n</i> species	$R^2$
Open	0.001 [-0.001, 0.004]	0.988 [0.971, 0.998]	513	0.055
Enclosed	0.005 [-0.002, 0.012]			

## 618 d) Temperature

Nest structure	$\beta$ estimates & 95% CI	$h^2$ & 95% CI	<i>n</i> species	$R^2$
Open	-0.002 [-0.005, 0.001]	0.988 [0.970, 0.998]	515	0.050
Enclosed	-0.009 [-0.019, <0.001]			

Results of models allowing the slope of body mass on a) latitude or b) temperature to vary between

species with different nest structures (open = cup, plate, scrape or bed, closed = dome, dome and tube or

<sup>623</sup> burrow), regardless of location. β estimates = mean regression slopes from posterior distributions and  $h^2$ 

<sup>624</sup> = mean heritability (phylogenetic signal) from posterior distributions with 95% credible intervals.

- Table S4. Bergmann's rule and nest location.

639 a) Latitude

Nest location	$\beta$ estimates & 95% CI	$h^2$ & 95% CI	<i>n</i> species	$R^2$
Open	<0001 [-0.003, 0.004]	0.987, [0.969, 0.998]	513	0.171
Semi-open	0.003 [<-0.001, 0.006]			
Enclosed	0.002 [-0.003, 0.008]			

#### 641 b) Temperature

Nest location	$\beta$ estimates & 95% CI	<i>h</i> <sup>2</sup> & 95% CI	<i>n</i> species	$R^2$
Open	0.001 [-0.003, 0.006]	0.989 [0.972, 0.988]	515	0.158
Semi-open	-0.005 [-0.009, -0.002]			
Enclosed	-0.003 [-0.011, 0.003]			

Results of models allowing the slope of body mass on a) latitude or b) temperature to vary between

species with different nest locations (open, semi-open or enclosed), regardless of structure.  $\beta$  estimates =

<sup>645</sup> mean regression slopes from posterior distributions and  $h^2$  = mean heritability (phylogenetic signal) from

646 posterior distributions with 95% credible intervals.

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#### 658

Table S5. Interaction of Bergmann's rule with migration and nest structure.

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### 661 c) Latitude

Migration	Nest design	$\beta$ estimates & 95% CI	<i>h</i> <sup>2</sup> & 95% CI	<i>n</i> species	$R^2$
Sedentary	Open	0.005 [0.002, 0.008]	0.990 [0.972, 0.999]	513	0.048
	Enclosed	0.006 [-0.005, 0.017]			
Short	Open	<-0.001 [-0.004, 0.003]			
	Enclosed	-0.004 [-0.018, 0.012]			
Long	Open	-0.001 [-0.005, 0.004]			
	Enclosed	0.006 [-0.005, 0.018]			

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#### 663 d) Temperature

Migration	Nest design	$\beta$ estimates & 95% CI	<i>h</i> <sup>2</sup> & 95% CI	<i>n</i> species	$R^2$
Sedentary	Open	-0.007 [-0.012, -0.003]	0.990, [0.973, 0.998]	515	0.046
	Enclosed	-0.012 [-0.025, 0.002]			
Short	Open	0.001 [-0.004, 0.006]			
	Enclosed	0.005 [-0.020, 0.030]			
Long	Open	0.003 [-0.002, 0.008]			
	Enclosed	-0.009 [-0.024, 0.008]			

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Results of models allowing the slope of body mass on a) latitude or b) temperature to vary between species with different migratory strategies (sedentary, short- or long-distance) and nest structures (open = cup, plate, scrape or bed, closed = dome, dome and tube or burrow).  $\beta$  estimates = mean regression slopes from posterior distributions and h<sup>2</sup> = mean heritability (phylogenetic signal) from posterior distributions with 95% credible intervals.

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Table S6. Interaction of Bergmann's rule with migration and nest location.

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### 680 a) Latitude

Migration	Nest location	$\beta$ estimates & 95% CI	<i>h</i> <sup>2</sup> & 95% CI	<i>n</i> species	$R^2$
Sedentary	Open	0.009 [0.002, 0.016]	0.988 [0.971, 0.998]	513	0.172
	Semi-open	0.006 [0.002, 0.010]			
	Enclosed	0.003 [-0.004, 0.011]			
Short	Open	-0.002 [-0.006,0.003]			
	Semi-open	0.001 [-0.004, 0.006]			
	Enclosed	<-0.001 [-0.010, 0.010]			
Long	Open	<-0.001 [-0.006, 0.006]			
	Semi-open	-0.002 [-0.008, 0.005]			
	Enclosed	0.003 [-0.009, 0.015]			

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### 682 b) Temperature

Migration	Nest location	$\beta$ estimates & 95% CI	<i>h</i> <sup>2</sup> & 95% CI	<i>n</i> species	$R^2$
Sedentary	Open	-0.008 [-0.016, <0.001]	0.989 [0.973, 0.999]	515	0.160
	Semi-open	-0.010 [-0.014, -0.005]			
	Enclosed	-0.006 [-0.015, 0.004]			
Short	Open	0.004 [-0.003, 0.010]			
	Semi-open	-0.002 [-0.009, 0.006]			
	Enclosed	-0.001 [-0.015, 0.014]			
Long	Open	0.003 [-0.004, 0.010]			
	Semi-open	0.002 [-0.006, 0.010]			
	Enclosed	-0.003 [-0.018, 0.012]			

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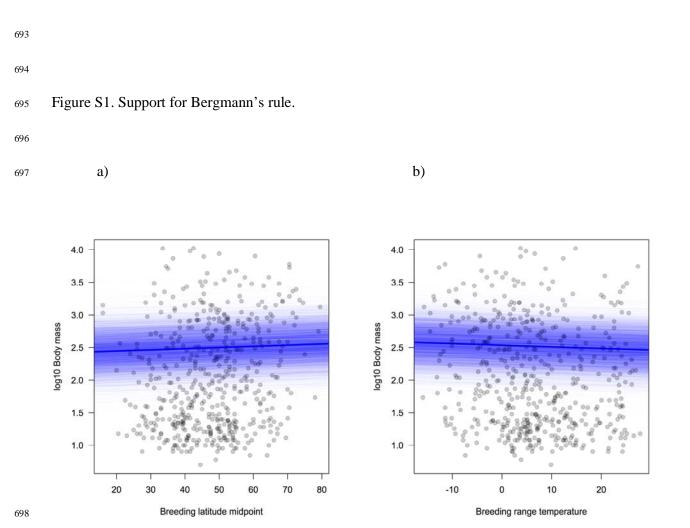
Results of models allowing the slope of body mass on a) latitude or b) temperature to vary between species with different migratory strategies (sedentary, short- or long-distance) and nest locations (open, semi-open or enclosed).  $\beta$  estimates = mean regression slopes from posterior distributions and h<sup>2</sup> = mean heritability (phylogenetic signal) from posterior distributions with 95% credible intervals.

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Species' body mass against a) breeding latitude midpoint and b) breeding range mean temperature across
the whole sample. Mean slopes from the posterior distributions are indicated by thicker, opaque lines,
while slopes from the entire posterior distribution are plotted as thinner, semi-transparent lines.