

1 Shrinking body size may not provide meaningful thermoregulatory benefits in a warmer world

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15 AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

16 This commentary resulted from a lab meeting at the Department of Biology, Lund University,

17 Sweden. AN, EP, JKRT and ET conceptualized the paper and drafted the outline. AN wrote the

18 first complete draft, which was revised in equal measure by EP, JKRT, ET and AN. JKRT and

19 AN constructed the heat balance model, JKRT performed the modelling, and JKRT and AN

20 developed the graphic material. Author names are listed in alphabetical order to reflect equal

21 contributions.

22 MAIN TEXT

23 In a recent and impressive analysis of avian morphological data (covering >250 000 male birds
24 from 105 species), Youngflesh et al.¹ report that birds breeding in North America have become
25 significantly lighter over the last three decades, coincident with rising breeding season
26 temperatures. Because these observations recapitulate predictions under Bergmann's Rule (i.e.,
27 that the body size of congeners and conspecifics is usually larger near the cooler poles than near
28 the warmer equator), the authors argue a thermoregulatory benefit to their occurrence under the
29 assumption that smaller-bodied animals have lower cooling costs than larger-bodied animals in
30 a warming world. We agree that warmer environments during reproduction may well explain
31 avian body size declines. However, we question whether: (1) changes in heat balance attributed
32 to these declines are sufficiently large to explain observed size reductions, and (2) increased
33 thermoregulatory efficiency during the short windows where reproduction occurs is always
34 relevant, particularly when tenancy in breeding ground temperatures is short (i.e., among
35 migrants). Generalizability of these results may be limited further by sex-specific enquiry,
36 which overlooks the possibility of divergent selection on body size in males and females under
37 climate warming. In this commentary, we expand on these concerns hoping to instigate
38 discussion on knowledge gaps that need closing if we wish to better understand the proximate
39 and ultimate drivers of shapeshifting animals in a changing world.

40

41 Data presented by Youngflesh et al.¹ corroborate several recent reports detailing how animals
42 are changing body size and shape in parallel with warming temperatures²⁻⁴. These collective
43 observations are notable, and we share the view of Youngflesh et al.¹ that such temporal trends
44 must be described and understood from both evolutionary and applied points of view^{5,6}. We
45 also agree that smaller animals are theoretically better equipped to withstand higher ambient
46 temperatures in thermal environments characterised by net heat loss, since their higher surface

47 area to volume ratios increase the proportion of integument usable for heat transfer. However,
48 the reported mean body size shifts in this and other studies are small (here, -0.56% ¹; Fig. 1A)
49 and so, according to currently available allometric relationships, yield near-negligible effects
50 on mean body surface area (-0.38%) and surface area to volume ratios ($+0.19\%$) across species
51 (Fig. 1B). Such minor changes in morphology hold little thermoregulatory bearing, with
52 conservative heat balance models (i.e., assuming both complete and static plumage cover)
53 suggesting a mean increase in heat flux (W / cm^2) of around 0.14% Fig. 1B). The estimated
54 effects on evaporative water loss ($+0.10\%$), total heat loss rate (i.e., thermal conductance;
55 $+0.27\%$), basal heat production (i.e., basal metabolic rate; -0.39%), upper critical temperature
56 (-0.05%), and the metabolic response to warmth (-0.48%) are similarly weak (Figs. 1B-C). Even
57 for higher estimates of body mass change (e.g., -2.6% on average in ref.⁴), thermoregulatory
58 benefits are still likely to be limited (e.g., $+0.60\%$ in heat flux, $+0.42\%$ in evaporative water
59 loss, $+1.10\%$ in thermal conductance, and -1.56% in basal metabolic rate). By comparison, a
60 typical physiological thermoregulatory response may lead to a 5- to 15-fold increase in
61 evaporative water loss upon heat exposure⁷. In all, it seems doubtful that the observed shifts in
62 body mass reported by Youngflesh et al.¹ and elsewhere will hold any significant bearing over
63 the degree to which species can respond to thermoregulatory pressures caused by warming
64 temperatures. In fact, available data suggest that, interspecifically, maximum tolerable air
65 temperature in passerines has positive allometry⁷, and reducing plumage depth by as little as
66 1% would over-double the heat dissipation effect ascribed to body shrinkage in ref.¹ (i.e., 0.39%
67 reduction in heat flux relative to 0.14%). We therefore caution against such adaptationist
68 conclusions in the absence of empirical evidence of thermoregulatory benefits.

69

70 Second, the authors base inference on data obtained during Northern Hemisphere springs and
71 summers (May 1st to July 31st). While this in itself is perfectly reasonable, the overwhelming

72 majority of the species studied were migrants (66%, or 69 of 105 species) or partial migrants
73 (22%, 23 of 105)⁸, suggesting short tenancy in at least some study regions, or even measurement
74 during migratory stop-over. In these contexts, regressing morphology against local ambient
75 temperature appears problematic. Specifically, conceptualization and hypothesis testing
76 become difficult when the precise temperatures to which the birds are responding to
77 morphologically are unknown, even if migrants may track their thermal environment across the
78 annual cycle⁹. The problem of spatial asynchrony arguably lessens if shrinking body sizes
79 reflect plastic effects of developmental temperature on final morphometry (as suggested by
80 Youngflesh et al. and others^{1,10}), but recent theory still contends that broad generalizations of
81 warming environments during development and decreasing size are likely naïve¹¹. In any case,
82 spatial asynchrony between sites of measurement and sites of operation remains a concern if
83 size declines reflect selection, for example via temperature-mediated, size-dependent
84 mortality¹. For this reason, we suggest life history parameters be carefully considered in future
85 modelling efforts to shed light on the issues outlined above.

86

87 Last, inference in the study by Youngflesh et al.¹ is based only on male birds with the rationale
88 that reproductive status (i.e., gravidity) renders true female mass uncertain (e.g., ref.¹²).
89 Removing females from the dataset might well be appropriate statistically but raises concerns
90 about the generality of conclusions if any selection for size is sex-specific. For example, larger
91 females can lay larger eggs that produce larger chicks¹³, and so, may sire offspring with higher
92 survival^{13,14}. It could therefore be expected that changes in body size in response to warming
93 may be constrained in females relative to males. In line with this, a recent mammalian study
94 found that while males and females responded qualitatively similarly to developmental
95 temperature manipulations, the effect of body size was markedly larger when males were
96 modelled alone compared to when measurements of both sexes were combined¹⁵. Other studies

97 report that male and female birds show differential thermal sensitivity of reproductive
98 investment¹⁶. While we understand that exclusion of females from the current data set may have
99 been a necessity for modelling, we suggest that future studies consider the possibility that
100 natural selection for body size differs between the sexes, instead of considering only the less
101 variable sex or collapsing the data (e.g., refs.^{3,4}).

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103 By now, several ambitious studies have demonstrated that wild animals show concerted
104 changes in body mass, size, and shape in conjunction with warming temperatures. Evidence
105 suggests such shapeshifting probably stems from plasticity more than it reflects any adaptive
106 evolutionary responses to changing thermal environments¹⁷⁻¹⁹. Whether such plasticity is
107 adaptive, non-adaptive, or neutral remains unclear. However, predictions based on currently
108 available allometries suggests that even if a reduction in body mass mediates changes to heat
109 production and dissipation, the predicted shifts in mean trait levels are often too small to provide
110 meaningful thermoregulatory value (see Fig. 1), especially when compared against those
111 accrued by plastic, physiological responses to cold and warmth. For this reason, the precise role
112 of declining size toward thermal balance under climate warming in birds – or any endotherms
113 – is speculative and should remain acknowledged as such until further evaluated. We suggest
114 future research focus be placed on *how* size declinations occur in the warmth (e.g., via selection,
115 or plasticity) and *why* it matters by evaluating empirically the energetic and fitness benefits of
116 reducing body size under climate warming by observed degrees.

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179 CONFLICT OF INTEREST

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181

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191 FIGURE LEGENDS

192 **Fig. 1. For most bird species, temporal changes in body masses are too small to contribute**
193 **biologically meaningful shifts in heat production and dissipation, suggesting**
194 **thermoregulatory benefit is an unlikely outcome of shapeshift under climate warming. A)**
195 Data on mean shifts in body masses from Youngflesh et al.¹. B) These data were used to predict
196 changes in body proportions, heat flux and several thermo-physiological variables of relevance
197 for how a bird exchanges heat with its environment. We predicted body surface area from body
198 mass²⁰ and then assumed body densities of 1.1 g / cm² (ref.²¹) to estimate effects on surface area
199 to volume ratios. Shifts in surface area were then used to estimate the change in sensible (“dry”)
200 heat loss using biophysical equations from Porter and Kearney²² and assuming still air
201 conditions, no conductive heat loss (i.e., contact heat loss between the integument and the
202 environment), static skin surface temperature of 41°C (i.e., a representative small bird body
203 temperature²³), a soft tissue thermal conductivity of 0.5 W / m / °C²², a plumage conductivity
204 of 0.0272 W / m / °C²², and a plumage depth equalling $1/3 \times \log_{10}$ of body mass in cm. Latent
205 (“wet”) heat loss (i.e., evaporative water loss) was estimated based on data in McKechnie et
206 al.⁷, and total mass-specific heat dissipation rate (i.e., thermal conductance) was predicted based
207 on Aschoff’s allometry for daytime conditions²⁴. C) Body size data were also used to estimate
208 changes in basal heat production (i.e., basal metabolic rate), upper critical temperature (UCT,
209 i.e., the temperature above which heat dissipation mechanisms must be engaged to prevent
210 increasing body temperature), and the slope of the relationship between resting metabolic rate
211 and air temperature above UCT, using allometric relationships in refs.^{7,25}. Solid plotting
212 symbols show mean trait levels and bars denote the 89% quantile intervals.



