

1 **Title:** The fecundity costs of building complex nests in birds

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12

13 **Abstract**

14 Animal nests provide a beneficial environment for offspring development and as such contribute to
15 fitness. Gathering and transporting materials to construct nests is energetically costly, but the life
16 history trade-offs associated with the complexity of nests built are largely unknown. Who
17 contributes to building the nest could also mediate these trade-offs, as building a nest as a couple is
18 expected to be less costly per individual than building alone. Using a comparative analysis on 227
19 songbird species globally, we found a fecundity cost associated with the type of nest a species
20 builds. Species that build complex dome nests produce fewer broods per year than species building
21 more simple cups or platforms. On the other hand, dome nesting species have larger clutch sizes
22 than open nesting species, but only when the nest is built by a couple and not when females build
23 nests alone. This suggests that building dome nests represents a trade-off with investment in young,
24 especially when females are solely responsible for nest building. More broadly, our results could
25 explain macroevolutionary patterns, such as the recent finding that females more often build open
26 cup rather than dome nests.

27 **Key words**

28 broods per year, clutch size, life history, nest type, reproductive investment

29

30 **Introduction**

31 Avian nests create favorable conditions for developing offspring whilst also protecting them against
32 predators, meaning they are important structures for reproduction (Hansell, 2000; Mainwaring *et*

33 *al.*, 2014). Whilst nests provide advantages, they are also time consuming and energetically costly to
34 build (Mainwaring & Hartley, 2013). Although there is little experimental evidence, the cost of nest
35 building probably depends on the type of nest a species builds, with open cups or platforms (open
36 nest), being smaller and requiring less cognitive ability to build than the larger and more complex
37 enclosed cups with a roof and side entrance (dome nest; Collias, 1997). For example, current
38 evidence suggest that open nests are simpler to construct, require less building material, are lighter
39 and smaller relative to the builders' body weight, and take less time to build than dome nests
40 (Collias, 1997; Hansell, 2000; Mouton & Martin, 2019; Medina *et al.*, 2022). While dome nests might
41 be more costly to build, they are thought to be an adaptation to extreme environments, offering
42 greater insulation of offspring from unfavorably cold and hot weather conditions and providing
43 protection from solar radiation (Collias, 1997; Martin *et al.*, 2017; Duursma *et al.*, 2018).

44 Building nests of a certain type, open or dome, may have co-evolved with other life history
45 parameters, such as fecundity. A trade-off in allocation of resources between nest building and
46 fecundity is evident at the species level (Lens *et al.*, 1994; Moreno *et al.*, 2010a). When species that
47 reuse nests were unable to do so, or nests were experimentally removed which forced birds to build
48 new nests, female white storks (*Ciconia ciconia*), black wood peckers (*Dryocopus martius*) and blue
49 tits (*Cyanistes caeruleus*) all produced lower clutch sizes or had lower breeding success (Lambrechts
50 *et al.*, 2012; Tobolka *et al.*, 2013; Kosiński & Walczak, 2019; for no effect see Cancellieri & Murphy,
51 2013). In addition, when pied flycatchers (*Ficedula hypoleuca*) were provided with complete nests,
52 offspring received more provisioning and were larger, suggesting resources were redirected from
53 nest building to developing offspring (Moreno *et al.*, 2010b). Past comparative studies on species of
54 North American Passeriformes and Piciformes found evidence that fecundity can vary with nest type
55 (Martin & Li, 1992; Böhning-Gaese *et al.*, 2000). However, these studies have divided nest type into
56 open and cavity nests (ignoring dome nests), and hence don't focus on the costs of building the nest
57 structure, but rather its placement. Jetz *et al.* (2008) did consider dome nests (categorizing nests as
58 open, closed or cavity) in their analysis on clutch size and found that clutch size was strongly related
59 to nest type, with cavity nesters producing largest clutches, followed by dome nesting species and
60 open nesting species producing the smallest clutches. However, Jetz *et al.* (2008) considered only
61 clutch size as a measure of fecundity as it aimed to test the global predictors of clutch size and not
62 the potential fecundity costs of nest building.

63 Another dimension of fecundity is how many times a species reproduces during each breeding
64 season. Species, or individuals within a species, that produce a single brood would be expected to
65 have larger clutches than those that have multiple breeding attempts. There are several possible
66 reasons why multi-brooded species have smaller clutches. Breeding multiple times may present a

67 trade-off between investment in the current breeding attempt and saving resources for future
68 breeding attempts, it could be to align with more steady resource availability supporting less
69 offspring at once (rather than a single burst), or to avoid predation of entire breeding attempt for
70 the season (Slagsvold, 1982; Crick *et al.*, 1993; Martin *et al.*, 2000). Evidence for females producing
71 larger clutches when investing in a single brood per season has been found in Brown-cheeked
72 Laughing Thrush's (*Trochalopteron henrici*) where females that produce single broods have larger
73 clutches than multi-brooded females (Li *et al.*, 2020). There is some variation as to how multi-
74 brooded species invest in their clutches over the breeding season. Some species such as Eastern
75 Bluebirds (*Sialia sialis*) invest more in the first attempt producing heavier first clutches and lighter
76 second clutches (Robinson *et al.*, 2010). In contrast some species have larger clutch sizes in their
77 subsequent breeding attempts, such as Horned Larks (*Eremophila alpestris*) and White-collared
78 Blackbirds (*Turdus albocinctus*), possibly due to increased food availability later in the season (Du *et*
79 *al.*, 2014; Fan *et al.*, 2017). While studies have investigated the relationship between clutch size and
80 number of broods per year, it is unknown if the type of nest a species builds affects the trade-off
81 between clutch size and number of broods produced per year. It has been shown that dome nesting
82 species take longer to build their nests, but differences in number of broods per season between
83 nest types are yet to be tested.

84 One factor that may buffer the possible fecundity costs associated with nest building is sex-specific
85 nest building contributions. In crested tits (*Lophophanes cristatus*), males helping with nest building
86 shortened the period between start of nest building and the start of egg laying, resulting in
87 beneficial earlier fledging dates of young (Lens *et al.*, 1994). More broadly, a recent comparative
88 analysis found that species with females who build nests alone had shorter breeding seasons and
89 therefore less opportunity for subsequent broods (Mainwaring *et al.*, 2021). Furthermore, dome
90 nests were suggested to be particularly costly for females to build alone, as females usually build
91 open nests, with larger and more complex dome nests more commonly being built by female and
92 males together (Mainwaring *et al.*, 2021). While there is some research on the roles of males and
93 females contributing to nest building (Lifjeld *et al.*, 2019; Soler *et al.*, 2019; Mainwaring *et al.*, 2021),
94 we know very little about the life history consequences of these sex-specific investment strategies.

95 Fecundity is a crucial aspect of avian reproduction, and unsurprisingly, it is related to a suite of
96 different variables. For example, latitude encapsulates trends in fecundity attributed to
97 environmental drivers such as predation rate, length of the breeding season and seasonality of
98 resources, making it a useful umbrella term to control for these effects used in many studies
99 (Griebeler *et al.*, 2010; Jetz *et al.*, 2008). Generally, species at higher latitudes lay larger clutches and
100 produce less broods per year likely due to the more seasonal environment with a short suitable

101 climate and food availability windows for breeding (Cardillo, 2002). Nest predation rates are higher
102 in the tropics selecting for smaller clutches and more broods per year, which is facilitated by the
103 comparatively stable climate (Schemske *et al.*, 2009; Remeš *et al.*, 2012). Another important variable
104 related to fecundity that is not covered by latitude is body size. Larger species also typically have
105 smaller clutches and less broods per year than smaller species (Böhning-Gaese *et al.*, 2000).
106 Therefore, after latitude and body size are taken into account, the type of nest a species builds may
107 have a fecundity cost due to the resources required for nest building.

108 In this study we use a phylogenetically controlled comparative analysis of 227 songbird species
109 (suborder Passeri) globally to explore whether building more complex and time-consuming nests
110 (e.g. dome nests) incurs a fecundity cost in terms of clutch size or the number of broods species
111 produce per year. In addition, we test whether such effects depend on who contributes to nest
112 building: both the female and the male, or the female alone.

113

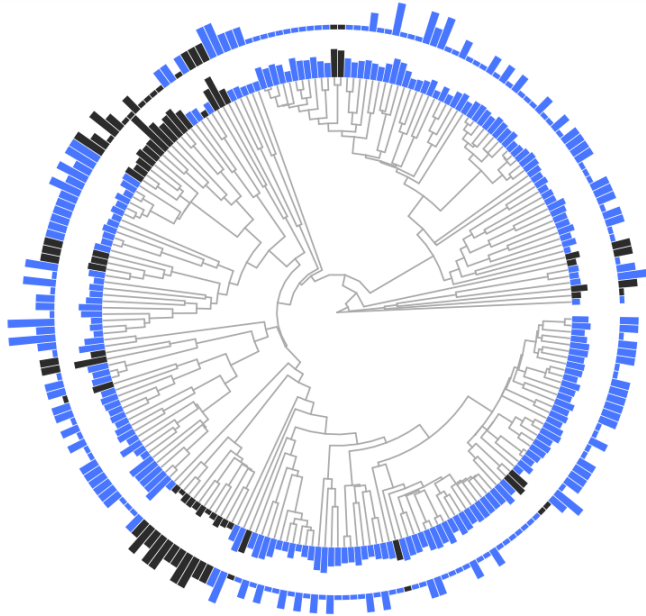
114 **Methods**

115 Data compilation

116 We built upon the Medina *et al.* (2022) dataset on nest type and time taken to build nests ($N=277$
117 spp.) of songbird species, and adopted the taxonomy structure from Jetz *et al.* (Jetz *et al.*, 2012)
118 phylogenies (see Figure 1 for phylogenetic distribution of nest types). We collected data primarily
119 from the Birds of the World website (Billerman *et al.*, 2022) on the number of broods per season, sex
120 of the nest builder and adult body weight, and on clutch sizes primarily from Jetz *et al.* (Jetz *et al.*,
121 2008) and Lislevand *et al.* (Lislevand *et al.*, 2007). When data was unavailable in these sources, we
122 performed a literature search on each of the remaining species ($N = 37$) and extracted data from
123 journal articles and handbooks (for sources see supplementary materials). Nest type built by each
124 species was classified as either dome (nest with a roof or a side entrance; $N=43$) or open (nest with a
125 cup shape or platform; $N=184$) following established procedures (Mouton & Martin, 2019; Medina *et al.*,
126 2022). We excluded nests that were built inside a cavity because we were interested in the costs
127 of building a structure, not those associated with its placement. Clutch size (defined as the average
128 of the minimum and maximum clutch sizes) and average number of broods per year were used as
129 separate response variables, rather than combined into a measure of fecundity as they have a
130 negative relationship (Böhning-Gaese *et al.*, 2000) which may mask individual effects. Species where
131 the male builds the nest alone were excluded ($N=8$). This was because males building the nest alone
132 is far less common (as in Mainwaring *et al.*, 2021) and as only female birds lay eggs, we would only

133 expect a relationship between nest building and fecundity if the female was involved in nest
134 building.

135



136

137 **Figure 1.** Phylogenetic distribution of open (represented in blue) and dome (represented in black)
138 nests and association with mean clutch size (inner ring) and number of broods per year (outer ring)
139 across 227 songbird species. R package 'ggtree' was used to generate this figure (Yu *et al.*, 2017).

140

141 To control for the associations between latitude and body size, and our response variables (clutch
142 size and the number broods per year; Böhning-Gaese *et al.*, 2000), we collected data on the mean
143 latitude for the distribution range of each species (Sheard *et al.*, 2020) and the body weight of the
144 nest builder (an average of the male and female when they built the nest together and the female
145 weight when she solely built the nest [female weight wasn't available in 13% of species that the
146 female built the nest, so we used the average of both sexes]). We also collected information on the
147 length of the breeding season (maximum time range breeding has been recorded to occur, as
148 months) for as many species as possible ($N=186$).

149

150 Statistical analysis

151 The statistical program R was used for all analyses (v. 4.2.0; Team, 2019). The full models consisted
152 of the predictors; nest type (dome or open), nest builder (female or both female and male), latitude
153 (absolute), average body weight of the builder/s (log transformed) and interactions between nest
154 type and nest builder, and body weight and nest builder. The response variables were clutch size (log

155 transformed) or broods per year (average values were rounded to the nearest whole number). Initial
156 models were run using Phylogenetic Generalized Least Squares with the 'caper' package (Orme *et*
157 *al.*, 2013) and all predictors. We then used the 'dredge' function in the MuMin package (Burnham &
158 Anderson, 2002) to select a best-fitting model by comparing the corrected Akaike Information
159 Criteria (AICc) of the models nested within the full model (see Table S1 for results). The final models
160 consisted of predictors of models within Δ AICc < 2. The *check_model* function in the 'performance'
161 package (Lüdecke *et al.*, 2021) was used to check final models for collinearity between predictors. All
162 variance inflation factors (VIF) values were below 1.5 for the broods per year model. Values for the
163 clutch size model were above 5 so we split the dataset into nests built by females and nests built by
164 both males and females and ran two separate models for this analysis, which reduced the VIF to
165 below 1.5. Final models were run using Bayesian regression models using Stan (BRMS) with the
166 'brms' package (Bürkner, 2017) to accommodate for ordinal response data and to use a consistent
167 method across all models. All models were run with weakly informative priors calculated with the
168 *get_prior* function in 'brms' package (Bürkner, 2017). We report the credibility intervals for each
169 predictor.

170 To investigate if nest type is associated with the number of broods produced per year, we used a
171 BRMS with an ordinal cumulative distribution and a probit link function (Bürkner, 2017). This
172 distribution was the most appropriate due to the ordinal distribution of the response variable
173 'broods per year'. The best model predictor variables from model selection were average body
174 weight of the builder/s (log transformed), nest type (dome or open), nest builder (female or both
175 male and female) and latitude (absolute). This model was run in 4 chains each with 10000 iterations
176 with a warmup of 1000 iterations and thinning of 1.

177 To test if nest type influences fecundity through clutch size, we built BRMS models with a gaussian
178 distribution and an identity link function (Bürkner, 2017). Due to collinearity between predictors, we
179 split the dataset in two by who built the nest (female or male and female together) and ran a
180 separate model for each sub-set of the data. In both models, the response variable was the mean
181 clutch size (log transformed) and the best model predictors from model selection; nest type (dome
182 or open) and latitude (absolute). To facilitate model convergence, in the final model the predictors
183 (nest type and latitude) were scaled and centered for the dataset of nests built by both the male and
184 female. Both models were run in 4 chains each with 20000 iterations with a warmup of 2000
185 iterations and thinning interval of 1. This number of iterations was necessary for model convergence.

186 To control for species phylogenetic relatedness, we generated a maximum clade credibility (MCC)
187 tree to include as a random effect in our analysis, using 1000 phylogenies from birdtree.org (Jetz *et*

188 *al.*, 2012) and the package ‘Phangorn’ (Schliep, 2011). To account for phylogenetic uncertainty we
 189 performed each analysis across 100 trees, and used the package ‘coda’ (Plummer *et al.*, 2006) to
 190 generate 95% highest posterior density intervals (HPD) for the estimates across 100 trees.

191 **Results**

192 Open nests were built by 81% of species, with the female building the nest alone in 61% of these
 193 species. Dome nests were built by the other 19% of species, with the female building the nest alone
 194 in 51% of these species.

195 When the male and female build the nest together, species building dome nests have larger clutches
 196 but when the female builds the nest alone, the clutch size didn’t differ between species building
 197 dome and open nests (Table 1 and Figure 2). Species at higher latitudes laid larger clutches.

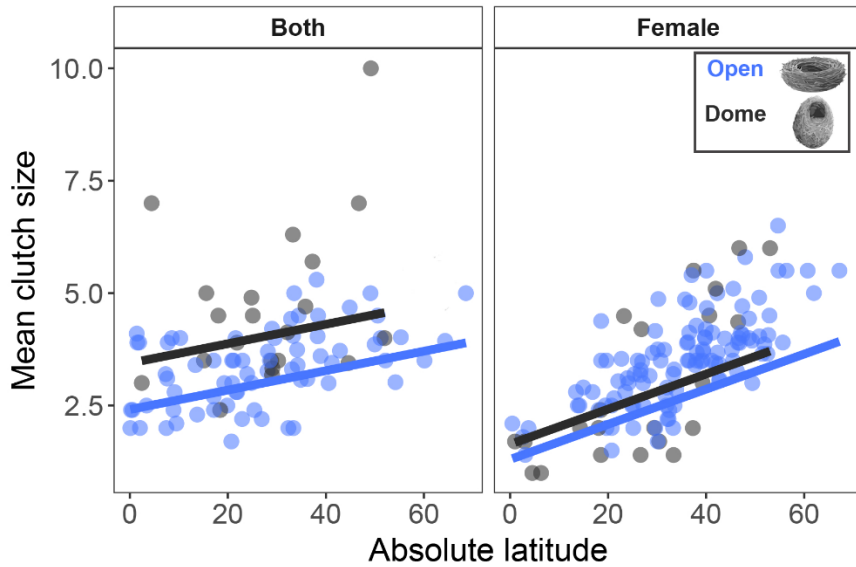
198 There was no difference in body weight or breeding latitude between open and dome nesting
 199 species (Figure S1 and Figure S2), or differences in the length of their breeding season (Figure S3).

200 **Table 1.** Results of BRMS models testing the associations between nest type and average clutch size
 201 (when the nest is built by the (1) female or (2) the male and female), and (3) average number of
 202 broods per year. Estimate and 95% confidence intervals (95% CI) from models with MCC to control
 203 for phylogeny. The 95% HPD interval of the estimate was generated across 100 phylogenetic trees.

Response	Predictor	Estimate_{MCC}	95% CI_{MCC}		95% HPD interval₁₀₀	
(1) Clutch size (female data)	Nest type	0.01	-0.15	0.16	-0.03	0.04
	abs(latitude)	0.01	0.01	0.02	0.01	0.01
(2) Clutch size (male and female data)	Nest type	-0.10	-0.16	-0.04	-0.29	-0.28
	abs(latitude)	0.15	0.03	0.08	0.006	0.007
(3) Broods per year	log(weight)	-0.48	-0.88	-0.14	-0.54	-0.42
	Nest type	0.96	0.14	2.08	0.86	1.15
	Nest builder	-0.54	-1.24	0.02	-0.66	-0.49
	abs(latitude)	-0.03	-0.04	-0.01	-0.03	-0.02

204

205



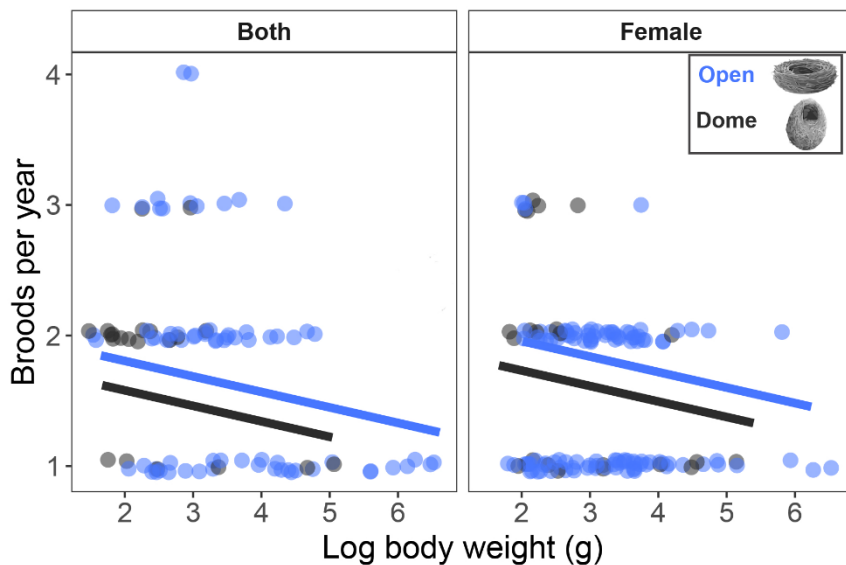
206

207 **Figure 2.** Association between mean clutch size and latitude of species that build dome nests (black)
 208 and open nests (blue). Points indicate raw data and lines show the model predictions.

209

210 Species that build open nests lay more broods per year than those that build dome nests (Table 1,
 211 Figure 3). The number of broods produced per year didn't differ between species in which the
 212 female builds the nest and those where the female and male build together. Larger species and
 213 those at higher latitudes produced less broods per year.

214



215

216 **Figure 3.** Association between the number of broods a species produces per year and the weight of
 217 the species that build dome nests (black) and open nests (blue). Points indicate raw data and lines
 218 show the model predictions.

219

220 **Discussion**

221 We found that building different nest types is associated with fecundity costs, with species building
222 dome nests having less broods per year than species building open cup nests. The effect of nest
223 building on overall fecundity, however, depends on sex-specific nest building contributions. In dome
224 nesting species where both females and males contribute to nest building, the lower number of
225 broods per year may be compensated by producing larger clutch sizes than open nesting species. In
226 species where the dome nest is built solely by the female, clutch size isn't larger than that produced
227 by open nesting species. Therefore, our results suggest there could be an overall fecundity cost to
228 building dome nests when females build the nest (Mainwaring *et al.*, 2021).

229

230 Dome-nesting species produced larger clutches than open nesting species when the male and
231 female built the nest together, but clutch size didn't differ with nest type when the female built
232 alone. One hypothesized advantage of enclosed nests is a lower rate of predation due to offspring
233 concealment from predators (Collias, 1997; Hall *et al.*, 2015). Lower predation rates of dome nests
234 could drive selection for larger clutch sizes in dome than open nesting species (Skutch., 1949).
235 Previous research on the benefits of lower predation rates in dome nests hasn't considered who is
236 involved in nest building. Our findings indirectly suggest there could only be lower predation in
237 dome nesting species when the male and female build together, but not when the female builds
238 alone (because there is a larger clutch size only in couples that build domed nests). Alternatively,
239 dome nesting females may be under selection to lay larger clutches due to lower predation, but are
240 unable to do so due to a trade-off in resource allocation between nest building and offspring (Lens *et*
241 *al.*, 1994; Moreno *et al.*, 2010a). When males also contribute to building the dome nest the cost to
242 the female is likely to be lower than if she built the nest alone, meaning only in such cases are the
243 trade-offs between resource allocation to nest building and egg production relaxed, thereby
244 resulting in a larger clutch.

245

246 We found that after controlling for body size and latitude, species that build dome nests have less
247 broods per year than species building open nests, regardless of who builds the nest. It is highly likely
248 that dome nests are more energetically costly and cognitively demanding to build than open nests
249 (Collias, 1997; Hansell, 2000; Mouton & Martin, 2019) which could leave less energy for subsequent
250 breeding attempts. If there is selection for larger clutches in dome nesting species then females may
251 face a trade-off with producing less broods per year to allow for investment in larger clutches
252 (Böhning-Gaese *et al.*, 2000). Another possibility is that dome nests take longer to build as reported

253 in (Medina *et al.*, 2022), and it's possible that there is less time for re-nesting, resulting in fewer
254 broods per year. Producing multiple broods per year is more common when birds successfully fledge
255 a brood early in the breeding season, leaving more time for subsequent re-nesting (Geupel &
256 DeSante, 1990; Evans Ogden & Stutchbury, 1996; Halupka *et al.*, 2008). Consistent with this idea, we
257 found that species with longer breeding seasons produced more broods per year (Figure S4),
258 however, the differences in number of broods between open and dome-nesting species that we
259 report cannot be explained by differences in length of breeding seasons, because in our dataset the
260 length of their breeding seasons is similar (Figure S3).

261

262 Latitude and body size are known to be global drivers of clutch size and number of broods per year
263 (Böhning-Gaese *et al.*, 2000). Consistent with the literature, species at higher latitudes laid larger
264 clutches (Figure 2) and produced less broods per year (Figure S6), which is thought to be because of
265 prominent seasonal variation in food availability and survival (Cardillo, 2002; Jetz *et al.*, 2008). In
266 addition, species at lower latitudes had longer breeding seasons (Ricklefs & Bloom 1977; Wyndham,
267 1986; Figure S5). Latitude was included in our analysis to control for these trends, and we found no
268 differences in latitude between nest types in our dataset (Figure S2). We also controlled for body
269 size, as consistent with previous studies, species with smaller body size tended to lay larger clutches
270 (but this effect was not statistically significant) and produce more broods per year (Böhning-Gaese *et*
271 *al.*, 2000; Figure 3). We didn't find a difference in body size between open and dome nesting species
272 in our dataset (Figure S1).

273

274 Our study found that building a dome nest has a fecundity cost for species in which the female builds
275 alone. This could explain broad-scale patterns recently reported, where dome nests are less
276 commonly built by females alone (Mainwaring *et al.*, 2021). A pertinent question, therefore, is why
277 some species where the female builds alone build dome nests? There is growing evidence that the
278 benefits of dome nests may be more related to the protective thermal environment than predation
279 (Martin *et al.*, 2017). Hence, the costs of constructing larger dome nests might be lower than having
280 a nest with a suboptimal microclimate. There is evidence that dome nesting species spend less time
281 incubating, suggesting a lower energetic cost associated with incubating at least in colder
282 environments (Martin *et al.*, 2017; Mouton & Martin, 2019). In this instance selection would favor
283 building a dome nest.

284

285 Our findings that building dome nests could result in fecundity costs could help explain the repeated
286 transition from dome to open nests in songbirds in mild climates where the thermal benefits of
287 dome nests aren't required (Price & Griffith, 2017; Fang *et al.*, 2018; Medina, 2019). The ancestral
288 state in passerines has been found to be dome nests built by the male and female together (Price &
289 Griffith, 2017; Mainwaring *et al.*, 2021), thus suggesting that in some lineages there was a transition
290 to females building dome nests alone. Future studies could investigate if breeding strategies, such as
291 how monogamous a species is, have selected for females to build nests alone and particularly more
292 complex dome nests.

293

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410

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414

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429 **Supplementary material**

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443

444 1. Data sources

445 The handbooks and journal articles used to collect data for this comparative analysis can be found in
446 the supplementary excel data sheet 'Data sources'. The songbird species in this dataset are the
447 species for which we could find information on how long it took to build the nest, clutch size, and
448 the number of broods per year, and there were no geographic restrictions placed on our data
449 collection.

450

451 3. Supplementary analysis

452 *Model structure for supplementary models*

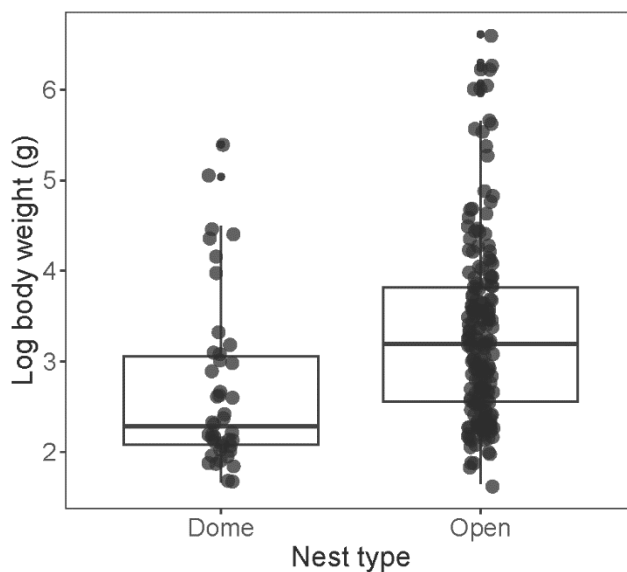
453 All models were run with weakly informative priors calculated with the *get_prior* function in 'brms'
454 package (Bürkner, 2017). We included the maximum clade credibility (MCC) tree as a random effect,
455 and for any models with significant predictors, we also ran the same model using a distribution of
456 100 trees. All models were run in 4 chains each with 10000 iterations with a warmup of 1000
457 iterations and thinning of 1. We report the credibility intervals for each predictor.

458 *Test for an association between latitude and nest type*

459 To investigate if dome or open nesting species have significantly different weight distributions, we
460 built a BRMS model with a gaussian distribution and identity link function (Bürkner, 2017). The
461 response variable was the average body weight of the builder/s (log transformed), and the predictor
462 variable was nest type (dome or open).

463 We found no significant difference in body weight of dome and open nesting species (Estimate= -
464 0.00, [95% CI -0.29 – 0.28], Figure S1).

465



466

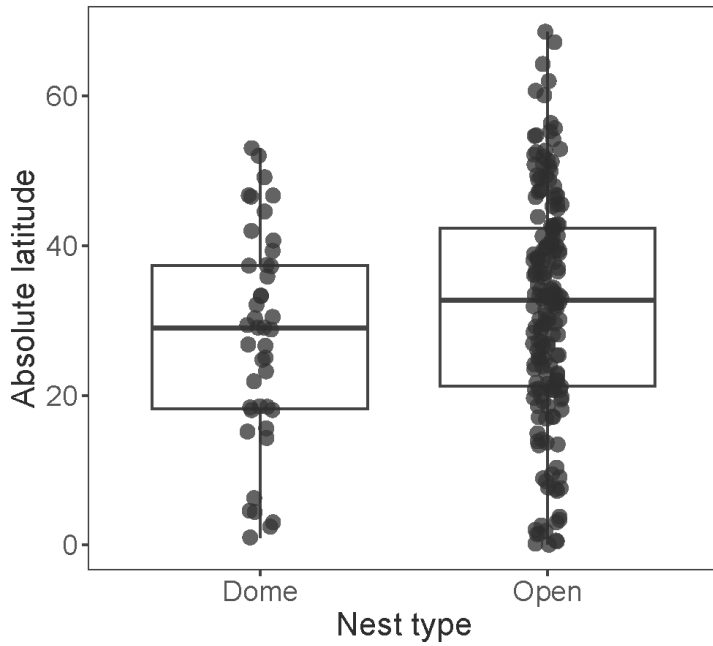
467 **Figure S1.** The mean body weight of species that build open and dome nests was not significantly
468 different. The points indicate the raw data, the dark line in each box indicates the median, the upper
469 and lower lines of each box indicate the minimum and maximum quantiles and the whiskers indicate
470 the minimum and maximum data spread.

471 *Test for an association between latitude and nest type*

472 To investigate if dome or open nesting species are distributed across significantly different latitudes,
473 we built a BRMS model with a gaussian distribution and an identity link function (Bürkner, 2017). The
474 response variable was absolute latitude, and the predictor variable was nest type (dome or open).

475 There was no significant difference in latitude between dome and open nesting species (Estimate=
476 1.88, [95% CI -4.38 – 8.20], Figure S2).

477



478

479 **Figure S2.** The mean latitude of the distribution range species that build open and dome nests was
 480 not significantly different. The points indicate the raw data, the dark line in each box indicates the
 481 median, the upper and lower lines of each box indicate the minimum and maximum quantiles and
 482 the whiskers indicate the minimum and maximum data spread.

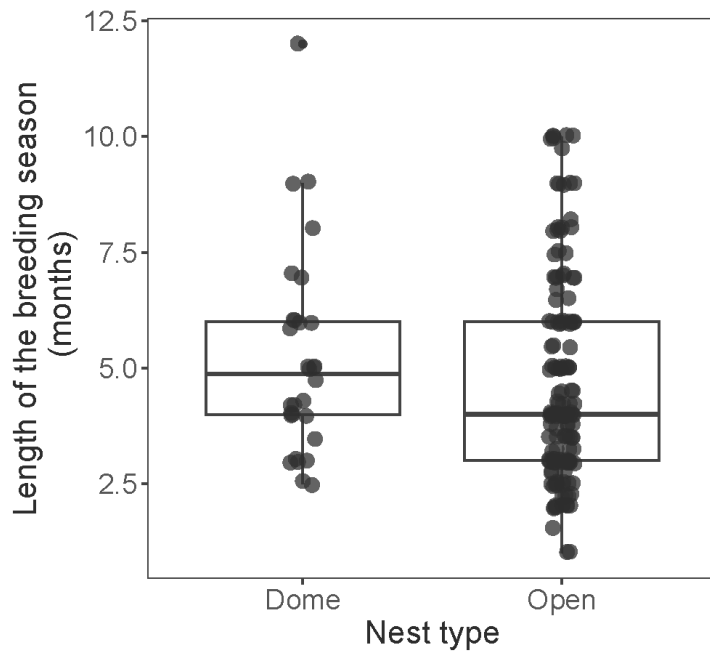
483

484 *Test for an association between the length of the breeding season and nest type*

485 To investigate if species that build dome or open nests breed for significantly different lengths of
 486 time in each year, as this could result in differences in the number of broods, we built a BRMS model
 487 with a gaussian distribution and an identity link function (Bürkner, 2017). The response variable was
 488 length of breeding season (maximum time range breeding has been recorded to occur, as months
 489 [e.g., mid-March to end May = 2.5 months]; $N=186$), and the predictor variable was nest type (dome
 490 or open).

491 Dome and open nesting species breed for the similar lengths of time (Estimate= 0.09, [95% CI -0.30 –
 492 0.11], Figure S3).

493



494

495 **Figure S3.** The length of the breeding season did not differ between species that build dome and
 496 open nests. The points indicate the raw data, the dark line in each box indicates the median, the
 497 upper and lower lines of each box indicate the minimum and maximum quantiles, the whiskers
 498 indicate the minimum and maximum data spread and the outlier is shown by the smaller solid point.

499

500 *Test for an association between length of the breeding season and broods per year*

501 To test for an association between the length of the breeding season and the number of broods a
 502 species lays, we built BRMS with a gaussian distribution and an identity link function (Bürkner, 2017).

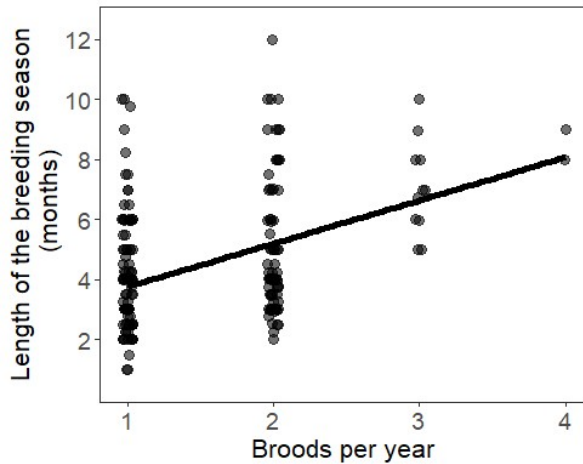
503 The response variable was the length of the breeding season log transformed, and the predictor
 504 variable was broods per year (average values were rounded to the nearest whole number; $N=186$).

505 There was a significant positive association between the length of the breeding season and broods
 506 per year, such that species with longer breeding seasons have more breeding attempts (Estimate=
 507 0.17, [95% CI 0.08 – 0.26], 95% HPD interval = 0.16 to 0.18, Figure S4).

508

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511

512 **Figure S4.** Association between the length of the breeding season and the number of broods a
 513 species lays annually.

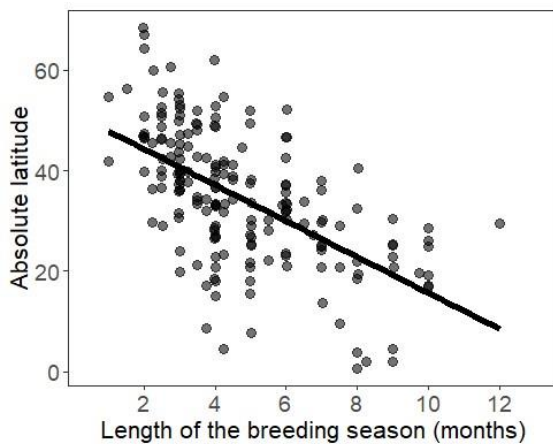
514

515 *Test for an association between species latitude and length of the breeding season*

516 To test for an association between the mean latitude for the species distribution and the length of
 517 the breeding season, we built a BRMS model with a gaussian distribution and an identity link
 518 function (Bürkner, 2017). The response variable was absolute latitude, and the predictor variable
 519 was the length of breeding season ($N=186$).

520 There was a significant negative association between latitude and breeding season length, with
 521 tropical species having longer breeding seasons (Estimate= -3.43, [95% CI 7.88 – 11.56], 95% HPD
 522 interval = -3.46 to -3.32, Figure S5). Due to this association, we only included latitude in our main
 523 models.

524



525

526 **Figure S5.** Association between the mean latitude for the species distribution range and the length
 527 of the breeding season in months.

528

529 4. Model selection results

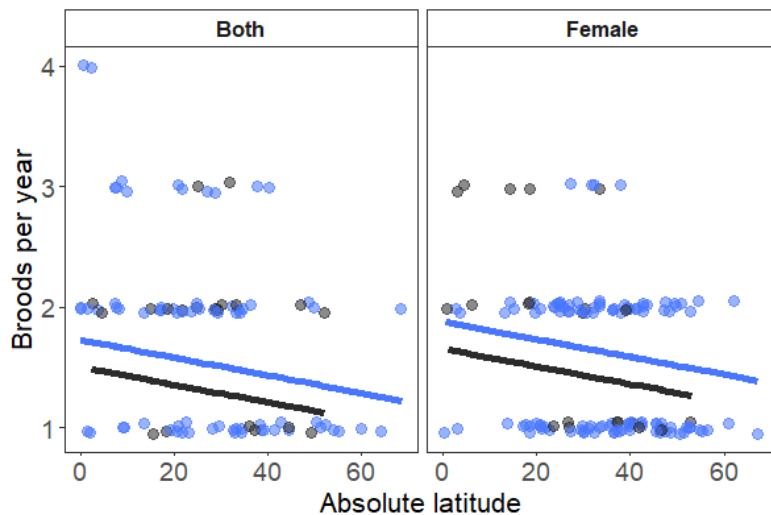
530 **Table S1.** Results of model selection predicting broods per year and clutch size. Predictors are nest
 531 type (dome or open), nest builder (female or both female and male), absolute latitude, average body
 532 weight of the builder/s (log transformed) and an interaction between nest type and nest builder and
 533 between body weight and nest builder. Data for clutch size is split by nest builder so nest builder was
 534 not included as a predictor in these models.

Fecundity measure	Rank	Intercept	Latitude	Weight	Nest type	Nest builder	Weight* Nest builder	Nest type* Nest builder	AICc	ΔAICc	Weight
Broods per year	1	2.19	-0.01	-0.12	+	+			323	0.00	0.316
	2	2.27	-0.01	-0.12	+				324.7	1.66	0.14
	3	2.19	-0.01	-0.12	+	+		+	325	1.97	0.12
	4	2.16	-0.01	-0.11	+	+	+		325	2.01	0.12
	5	2.11	-0.01	-0.11		+			325.5	2.53	0.09
	6	2.19	-0.01	-0.11					326.8	3.76	0.05
	7	2.15	-0.01	-0.11	+	+	+	+	326.9	3.94	0.04
	8	2.10	-0.01	-0.11		+	+		327.6	4.62	0.03
	9	1.78	-0.01		+	+			327.7	4.69	0.03
	10	1.73	-0.01			+			329.5	6.53	0.01
Clutch size- both data	1	2.41	0.02		+				268.0	0.00	0.71
	2	2.28	0.02	0.04	+				270.2	2.13	0.25
	3	2.71	0.02						275.0	6.91	0.02
	4	3.00			+				276.2	8.14	0.01
	5	2.77	0.02	-0.02					277.1	9.04	0.01
	6	2.88		0.04	+				278.3	10.24	0.00
	7	3.38							284.4	16.33	0.00
	8	3.50		-0.04					286.4	18.38	0.00
Clutch size- female data	1	1.38	0.04						287.4	0.00	0.38
	2	1.30	0.04		+				287.5	0.13	0.36
	3	1.45	0.04	-0.02					289.5	2.06	0.14
	4	1.39	0.04	-0.02	+				289.6	2.20	0.13
	5	2.54							337.3	49.87	0.00
	6	2.44				+			337.7	50.27	0.00
	7	2.76		-0.06					339.1	51.71	0.00
	8	2.68		-0.07	+				339.5	52.07	0.00

535

536 5. Supplementary figure

537 *Association between the number of broods a species produces per year and latitude (from analysis in*
 538 *main text)*



539

540 **Figure S6.** Association between the number of broods a species produces per year and latitude of
 541 species that build dome nests (black dots) and open nests (blue dots). Points indicate the raw data
 542 and lines show the model predictions.

543

544 6. Supplementary References

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