

1 **Material type and position determines the insulative properties of simulated nest walls**

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15 interpreted data and contributed to writing the manuscript.

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## 17 Summary

18 Incubation in birds takes place within a nest that is often assumed to confer a degree of thermal  
19 insulation. The range, amounts and organisation of materials used to construct nest walls hampers  
20 our understanding of the degree to which they provide insulation during incubation. This  
21 experimental study used temperature loggers in a model system to test the insulative properties of  
22 materials extracted from bird nests to determine: 1) whether differences existed in terms of  
23 insulation, and, 2) if the position of a material mattered when two materials were tested in  
24 combination. Animal-derived materials had better insulation than plant-derived materials, whether  
25 tested singly or in combination. Halving the mass of each material did not affect insulation  
26 conferred by the material proximal to the temperature logger. Differing thermal conductivities of the  
27 materials in contact with the temperature logger may explain these results. If a bird strategically  
28 places an animal-derived material only into a nest cup lining then it may be sufficient to provide  
29 good insulation for the whole nest. More research is needed to generate thermal conductivity data  
30 for commonly used nest materials to test this idea more rigorously in finite element heat transfer  
31 models.

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34 Bird nests can be considered an extended phenotype that can affect fitness (i.e., overall lifetime  
35 reproductive success) because, among other things, the nest wall confers thermal insulation to the  
36 adult and incubating eggs (Deeming, 2016). Nest building is an energetically expensive process  
37 (Smith et al., 2012) and so the choice and placement of nest building material may be important in  
38 minimising the energetics of nest construction and maintenance. Contact incubation in birds is also an  
39 energetically expensive behaviour and factors that minimise energy loss from the eggs will help  
40 reduce the energetic impact on the incubating adult (Nord & Williams, 2015). Nest insulation  
41 increases with nest mass and wall thickness (also in mammals, e.g. Redman et al., 1999), and is  
42 affected by nest composition (Rohwer & Law, 2010; Mainwaring et al., 2014a; Gray & Deeming, 2017;  
43 Dickinson et al., 2019). Within a species, environmental temperatures during nest construction, due to  
44 latitude or altitude, negatively correlate with nest wall thickness and composition in birds (Kern, 1984;  
45 Rohwer & Law, 2010; Crossman et al., 2011; Mainwaring et al., 2012, 2014a; Altamirano et al.,  
46 2019) and mammals (Altamirano et al., 2019).

47 Our understanding of the roles different materials play in determining nest wall insulation is  
48 hampered by inter-species variation in constructing a nest that is typically a composite structure with a  
49 variety of materials (Deeming & Mainwaring, 2015; Biddle et al., 2018a). It is further complicated by  
50 intra-specific plasticity in nest construction as influenced by, for instance, environmental temperature  
51 (Mainwaring et al., 2014a). This high level of variation is making it difficult to tease apart those factors  
52 that are important in determining nest construction behaviour. Nests constructed using very different  
53 materials often have very similar insulative properties (Crossman et al., 2011; Biddle, 2018; Dickinson  
54 et al., 2019). Materials commonly used in nests have differing insulative properties, with animal-  
55 derived materials, e.g. feathers, being better insulators than plant-derived materials, e.g. dry grass  
56 (Hilton et al., 2004). Nest construction in small passerine species is not a random process because

57 animal-derived materials are more often found in the cup lining, rather than the outer wall (Møller,  
58 1984; Hansell & Ruxton, 2002; Biddle et al., 2018a; Dickinson, 2018). However, it is unclear to what  
59 extent this spatial distribution of materials has upon the insulation of the nest wall as a whole, and  
60 thus its adaptive nature. We do not know how nest wall insulation is affected, if at all, by the relative  
61 position of materials in the nest; if all other things are equal, is there an additive effect on nest  
62 insulation such that it doesn't matter if, for instance, feathers line the cup or the outer nest surface?

63 The physical complexity of the materials used in the nest is not the only issue in better  
64 understanding nest insulation. During incubation (or experimental testing) the flow of heat in nest  
65 materials could occur by a variety of mechanisms including conduction, convective heat transfer from  
66 the cup, direct radiation, and evaporation-condensation in the presence of moisture (Heenan &  
67 Seymour 2012). In an attempt to disentangle the role of various materials, and the different  
68 mechanisms of heat movement, in determining nest insulation, this study sought to simplify the nest  
69 by creating standardised artificial nest walls comprising of either one or two materials. This  
70 experimental manipulation sought to focus on assessing heat flux by conduction through direct  
71 contact with dry nest materials.

72 This study used materials previously collected from deconstructed passerine nests to  
73 determine the individual thermal characteristics of each material in a standardised, simulated nest  
74 wall. Thereafter, to investigate whether stratification of materials in a nest wall has any functional role  
75 in insulation, two different nest materials were tested in equal masses to determine whether the  
76 position of the material relative to a temperature measuring device was important in determining  
77 thermal properties of the whole structure. We predicted that the experiment would confirm that  
78 animal-derived materials are better insulators than plant-derived materials. Given that bird nests are  
79 layered structures, we also predicted that the proximity of a material to the temperature logger would  
80 be important.

81 Several previously deconstructed nests, of a variety of passerine species (e.g. thrushes  
82 [Turdidae], and finches [Fringillidae]), yielded feathers, hair, moss, grass, leaves, lichen and roots,  
83 which are the most common components of nests of small passerines (Deeming & Mainwaring, 2015;  
84 Biddle et al., 2018a; Dickinson, 2018). These materials were derived from numerous (at least 5 and  
85 up to 10-15 nests for some materials, such as feathers) nests, and were stored dry, irrespective of  
86 species, in paper bags at room temperature. To create a simulated nest wall, 5 g of material was  
87 loosely placed so that it completely filled a cardboard tube (102 mm long and 46 mm diameter) with  
88 an open plastic mesh attached to the bottom end to prevent the material from being lost.

89 Twelve, 5 mm deep, 16 mm diameter circular wells, each accommodating an iButton®  
90 temperature logger (with an accuracy of  $\pm 0.5^{\circ}\text{C}$ ), were drilled spaced 55 mm apart in a sheet of 10  
91 mm thick expanded polystyrene (Figure 1), measuring 345 by 255 mm. Temperature loggers were set  
92 to record the temperature ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) every minute prior to being heated to  $80^{\circ}\text{C}$  in a water bath and then  
93 dried with a paper towel before being placed in the wells. A cardboard tube filled with nest material  
94 was placed centrally on top of each of 11 temperature loggers and the twelfth was left open to the air.  
95 The cardboard tubes were weighed down using a 1 Kg metal grid and the experimental set up was

96 left for 20 minutes for the temperature loggers to cool down. This procedure was repeated three times  
97 for each tube of material and there were 10 tubes per material type or combination of two materials.

98 The procedure took place within the closed test chamber of a custom-built wind-tunnel (Gray &  
99 Deeming, 2017) so as to minimise the effects of air movement on the cooling rate of the isolated  
100 temperature logger (Deeming & Campion, 2018). There was a temperature logger placed on the  
101 sidewall of the chamber to record the air temperature during the experiment.

102 Cooling rates were recorded in a similar way to that reported by previous authors (McGowan et  
103 al., 2004; Mainwaring et al., 2012, 2014a). Cooling rates ( $^{\circ}\text{C}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ ) of the pre-heated temperature  
104 loggers were determined by fitting the temperature data to a logistic model (McGowan et al., 2004;  
105 Mainwaring et al., 2012). The difference in cooling rate ( $\Delta\text{CR}$ ) of each artificial nest was the difference  
106 in the rates of cooling ( $^{\circ}\text{C}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ ) of the temperature logger under the material filled tube and of the  
107 exposed control temperature logger (*sensu* McGowan et al., 2004; Mainwaring et al., 2012, 2014a),  
108 with larger values indicating better insulation.

109 The first experiment used 5 g of an individual material in the tube placed over the temperature  
110 logger. Each material was tested in 10 separate tubes with three repetitions per tube. Each test run  
111 involved 11 tubes containing materials, and an exposed logger, which was always in the centre  
112 position of the experimental set-up. In order to minimise trial effects, the materials in the tubes used in  
113 each test run were randomly chosen. Thus, any one run had a mixture of materials being tested at the  
114 same time.

115 The second experiment paired four combinations of materials based on the results of the first  
116 experiment. Feathers were paired with grass, and with roots, and hair was tested with lichen, because  
117 these materials exhibited significant differences in  $\Delta\text{CR}$ . Hair and moss were also tested because  
118 they did not show significant differences in mean  $\Delta\text{CR}$ . For each pair of materials, 2.5 g of the one  
119 material was placed in the lower half of the tube proximal to the temperature logger and 2.5 g of the  
120 second material was used to fill up the rest of the tube. After three replicates to determine  $\Delta\text{CR}$ , the  
121 materials were carefully removed, their order reversed and the experiment was re-run.

122 The three repeat measurements for each tube were averaged and analysis was carried out on  
123 the 10 mean values for  $\Delta\text{CR}$  for each material type or combination. Anderson-Darling tests showed  
124 that the datasets were normally distributed, so the effect of material on  $\Delta\text{CR}$  was investigated using  
125 one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), with Tukey *post hoc* pairwise comparisons run in Minitab (ver.  
126 17; [www.minitab.com](http://www.minitab.com)). For combinations of materials, the data were combined with the values for the  
127 5 g samples of the relevant materials prior to one-way ANOVA tests.

128 Animal-derived materials had the highest  $\Delta\text{CR}$  values (Figure 2), which were significantly  
129 greater than all plant-derived materials ( $F_{6,63} = 11.34$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ,  $R^2 = 51.9\%$ ; Figure 2), except for the  
130 differences between hair, moss and grass which were non-significant. The degree of insulation  
131 offered by roots was approximately half that offered by feathers (Figure 2).

132 For combinations of materials, if the animal-derived material was proximal to the temperature  
133 logger then the  $\Delta\text{CR}$  was always significantly higher than when the plant-derived material was  
134 proximal to the logger (Figure 3). Differences in cooling rates for the 2.5 g of the material proximal to  
135 the temperature logger were not significantly different from the values for 5 g of the same material.

136 Therefore, the combination of material significantly affected differences in cooling rates for feathers  
137 and grass (Figure 3A;  $F_{3,36} = 17.9$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ,  $R^2 = 59.9\%$ ), although whether there was 2.5 or 5 g of  
138 feathers proximal to the temperature logger had no effect on  $\Delta CR$ . This same pattern was observed  
139 for combinations of lichen and hair (Figure 3B  $F_{3,36} = 9.8$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ,  $R^2 = 44.9\%$ ) and feathers and  
140 roots (Figure 3C,  $F_{3,36} = 44.0$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ,  $R^2 = 78.45\%$ ). Differences in cooling rates for 5 g of either  
141 hair or moss were not significantly different (Figure 2), and the effect of switching these materials was  
142 much less than for other materials. However, having hair proximal to the temperature logger did  
143 produce a significantly greater  $\Delta CR$  than having moss proximal to the logger when the materials were  
144 used in combination (Figure 3D;  $F_{3,36} = 4.0$ ,  $P = 0.015$ ,  $R^2 = 24.8\%$ ).

145 Nests are composite structures consisting of differing amounts of animal-derived and plant-  
146 derived materials, depending on species (Hansell, 2000; Biddle et al., 2018a). Thermal insulation  
147 varied between different materials used in avian nests with, as expected, animal-derived materials  
148 having higher  $\Delta CR$ s than plant-derived materials. We showed that halving the amounts of materials  
149 adjacent to the temperature logger had no effect on insulation compared with 5 g of the same  
150 material, although values were higher if the animal-derived material was proximal to the logger.  
151 Therefore, the contribution of each material in a combination does not seem to be additive and, even  
152 in a relatively simple combination, the effect on insulation is non-linear.

153 Differences in cooling rates for the different materials were lower than previously recorded  
154 values for actual nest walls from which the materials were derived (Gray & Deeming, 2017; Dickinson  
155 et al., 2019), which may reflect the fact that nests are much heavier than the 5 g of material used. The  
156 material in the simulated nest walls was loosely packed and this low density does not directly relate to  
157 how nest walls are constructed. Whilst differences in the insulative properties of materials used in  
158 nests have been reported previously (Hilton et al., 2004), our study demonstrated that the positioning  
159 of animal-derived materials relative to the heat source, i.e. the incubating bird sitting in the nest cup,  
160 may be important in determining the insulation value of the nest wall. More importantly, the mass of  
161 the material adjacent to the heat source was not a determinant of the degree of insulation. In whole  
162 nests, there seems to be variation in the significance of the intraspecific relationships between nest  
163 mass and insulation, with some bird species exhibiting no relationship (Deeming & Campion, 2018),  
164 whereas other species show significant positive relationships (Dickinson et al., 2019). Measures of  
165 insulation also seem to correlate with base thickness but not with wall thickness (Gray & Deeming,  
166 2017; Dickinson et al., 2019) but other studies do report significant relationships with wall thickness  
167 (Heenan & Seymour, 2012; Akresh et al., 2017). Mass of *Microtus* vole nests also did not correlate  
168 with insulation but their wall thickness did (Redman et al., 1999). These differences, may reflect  
169 differences in the thermal inertia of the materials used in nests, or the mass range of the nests  
170 produced by a single species, but further research is required to better understand how nest mass  
171 and dimensions contribute to thermal insulation.

172 We know that birds place materials of differing structural characteristics in different parts of the  
173 nest according to their role (Biddle et al., 2017, 2018b). Eurasian bullfinches (*Pyrrhula pyrrhula*)  
174 position stronger woody stems in the base of their nest to help to support the nest built at the end of  
175 thin branches, while the hawfinch (*Coccothraustes coccothraustes*) builds its nest on top of a thick

176 branch so the stronger woody materials are in the side walls (Biddle et al., 2018b). Other species  
177 have a predominance of animal-derived nest materials in their cup lining (Møller, 1984; Hansell &  
178 Ruxton, 2002); in the common chaffinch (*Fringilla coelebs*) nest the cup lining has large amounts of  
179 feathers and hair present (68% of cup lining by mass; Biddle et al., 2011a), whereas the nest of the  
180 common linnet (*Linaria cannabina*) is lined with a lot of hair (39% of cup lining by mass; Biddle et al.,  
181 2011a). Such differences in the distribution of materials may reflect the bird positioning particular  
182 materials within the cup that then may determine the insulative properties of the whole nest wall.  
183 Simply lining a nest cup with feathers may provide sufficient insulation for the incubating bird. Whilst  
184 feathers are assumed to be plentiful in the environment (Møller, 1984), limiting such animal-derived  
185 materials to the nest cup may have a positive impact on the energetic demands of nest construction.  
186 Further research should investigate the minimum amount of a well-insulating material before  
187 insulation is compromised in a model system, and then test whether this value reflects what is found  
188 in real nests.

189 Nest materials confer a physical structure to the nest wall that can trap air, which can serve as  
190 an insulator. Vacuum-packing whole bird nests reduces the insulation of the nest wall by 20-25%  
191 despite a 90% reduction in volume (Deeming & Biddle, 2015). During incubation and particularly  
192 nestling rearing the nest materials get compressed which may impact on the amount of insulation  
193 provided by air gaps in the structure. Although materials density was controlled in this study, the  
194 materials were relatively loosely packed and we can assume that the level of insulation provided by  
195 air gaps was similar for all materials. Future research could explore the effects of reducing the density  
196 and, hence the amount of air, on the insulation conferred by the materials.

197 We acknowledge that the material was dry and 'used', having been derived from nests, but this  
198 did apply to all materials studied. It would be interesting to repeat this study with fresh materials from  
199 nests under-going construction because some plant-derived materials, e.g. moss, leaves and grass,  
200 will have a higher water content that could affect thermal conductivity. However, other materials, e.g.  
201 feathers, hair, twigs, have little water content and so would not exhibit big differences to our results.  
202 Not unsurprisingly, if nest materials are wet (Hilton et al., 2004), or a whole nest is wet after being  
203 rained upon (Deeming & Campion, 2018), insulation is decreased compared to dry conditions. The  
204 effects of air humidity on the insulative properties of dry materials can be assumed to change but to  
205 date these effects have not been quantified.

206 Given the standardised experimental design that minimised convection and cooling associated  
207 with evaporative-condensation (materials were dry), we have interpreted our results as primarily  
208 reflecting the differences in the thermal conductivity of the various materials tested. Those materials  
209 with low thermal conductivity, e.g. feathers ( $0.034 \text{ W}\cdot\text{m}^{-1}\cdot\text{K}^{-1}$ ; Fuller, 2015), will confer better insulation  
210 than those with higher values, e.g. dry leaves ( $0.27\text{--}0.50 \text{ W}\cdot\text{m}^{-1}\cdot\text{K}^{-1}$ ; Jayalakshmy & Philip, 2010).  
211 Unfortunately, there is a general lack of data for thermal conductivity of the materials used in this  
212 study but the patterns of insulation shown here suggest that, when measured, thermal conductivity of  
213 plant roots will be higher than that of moss. Knowledge of the thermal properties of nest materials will  
214 allow finite element heat transfer models to be developed to predict the rate of heat loss through the

215 nest wall. Such models can then be compared to empirical data to help us to understand the impact of  
 216 nest composition on insulating properties of the nest wall.

217 Further studies will allow a better understanding of the factors that have affected the evolution  
 218 of nest construction and function within passerines and non-passerines alike. It is unlikely that nest  
 219 construction is solely based on thermal considerations but will include the effects of other  
 220 environmental factors, such as precipitation (Biddle et al., 2019) and air movement (Gray & Deeming,  
 221 2017; Dickinson et al., 2019). There are likely to be other factors, such as minimising predation, and  
 222 possible signalling roles (Mainwaring et al., 2014b), that will impact upon nest construction and  
 223 thereafter individual reproductive performance and fitness.

224

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 227 drafts.

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229 Conflict of interest

230 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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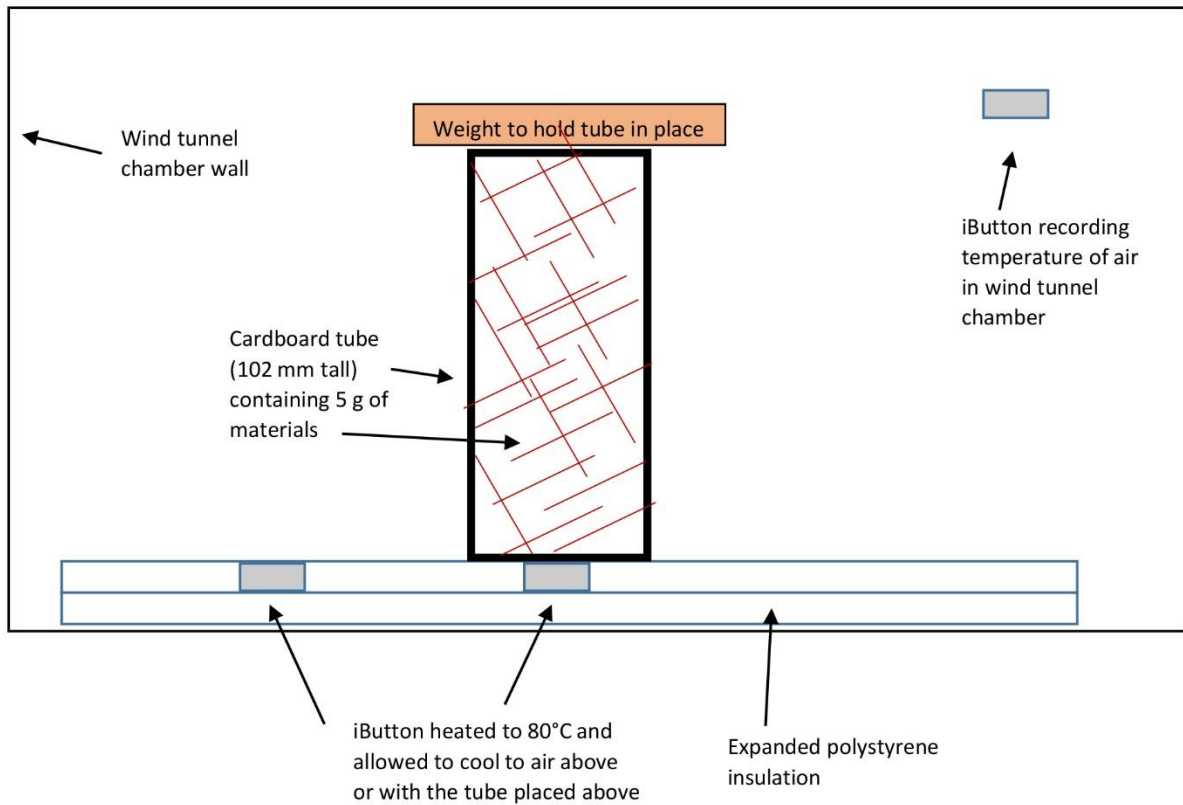
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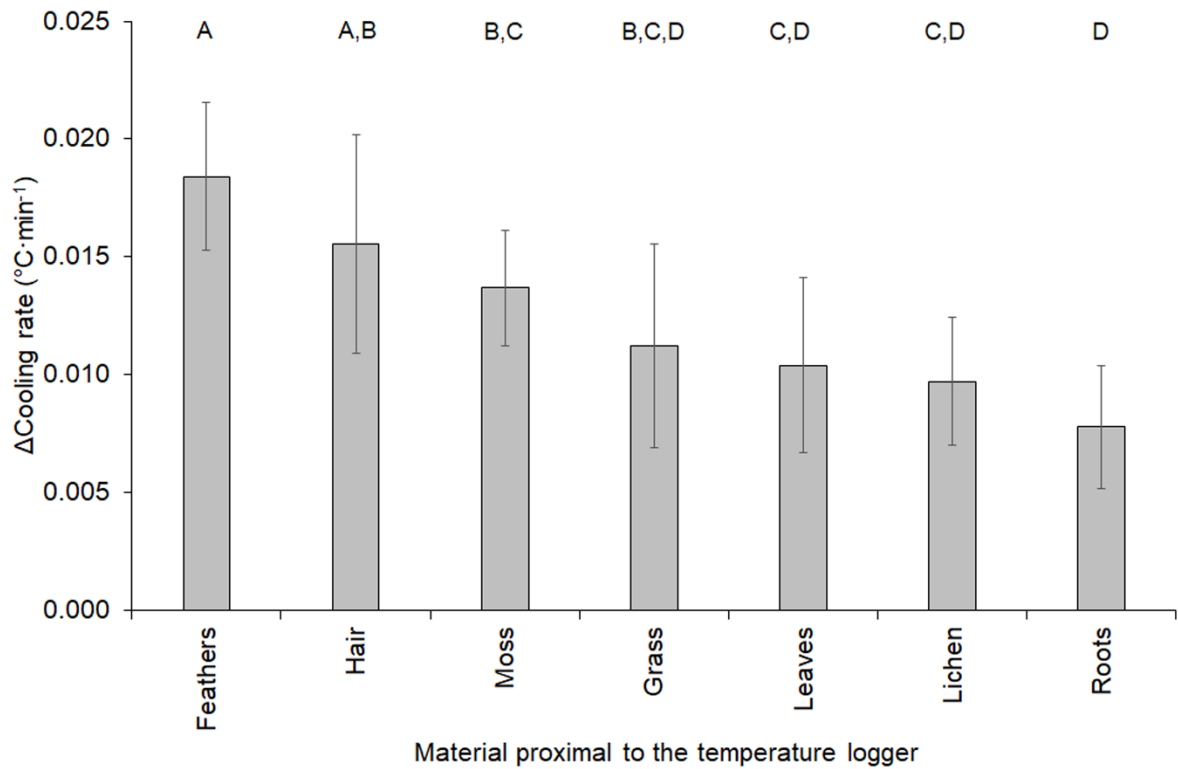


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304 Figure 1. Diagrammatic illustration of the experimental set to indicate the positioning of the cardboard  
 305 tube over the temperature logger. Each run of the experiment involved 11 tubes, containing a variety  
 306 of different materials tested simultaneously in a closed wind tunnel (no air flowing) to minimise effects  
 307 of extraneous air-flow.

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311 Figure 2. Mean ( $\pm$  SD) values for differences in cooling rate between an isolated temperature logger

312 and a temperature logger covered with a cardboard tube filled with 5 g of the material shown.

313 Columns that do not share a common letter are significantly different at  $\alpha = 0.05$ .

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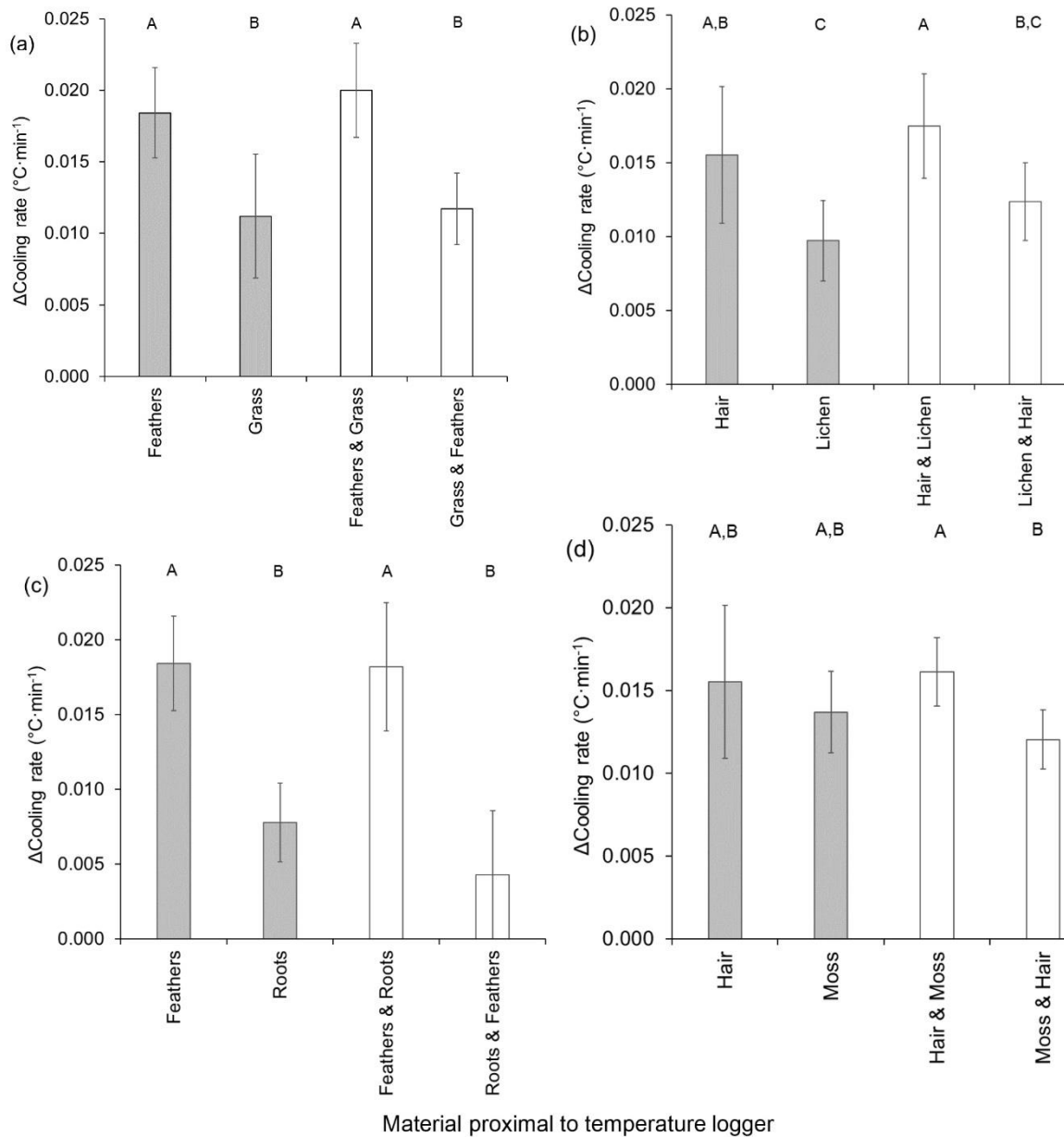
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324 Figure 3. Mean ( $\pm$  SD) values for differences in cooling rate between an isolated temperature logger  
 325 and a temperature logger covered with a cardboard tube filled with the material(s) shown. The first  
 326 mentioned material was proximal to the logger. Grey columns indicate values from Figure 2. Columns  
 327 that do not share a common letter are significantly different at  $\alpha = 0.05$ .

328