

*Heterogeneous changes in avian body size
across and within species*

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steigende Sommertemperaturen generell in Verbindung mit kleinerer Flügellänge, aber hatten keinen Zusammenhang mit fettfreier Masse oder Fettwert. Eine geringere fettfreie Masse, nicht aber Flügellänge oder Fettwert, stand im Zusammenhang mit steigenden Temperaturen im Wintermittel. Die Temperatureffekte unterschieden sich keines der drei Maße signifikant zwischen Arten. Bei alle nicht-ziehenden Arten hinweg war das Ausmaß der Veränderung der Körpergröße über die Zeit nicht korreliert mit dem Einuss der mittleren Winter- oder Sommertemperatur und könnte durch andere Faktoren bedingt sein. Unsere Ergebnisse stehen im Kontrast zu denen einer nahegelegenen Beringungsstation, in der weitreichende Abnahmen in der Flügellänge und der fettfreien Körpermasse beobachtet wurden. Unsere Ergebnisse zeigen, dass Populationen einer einzigen Art über kurze Entfernungen (< 250 km) entgegengesetzte Veränderungen in der Körpergröße aufweisen können. Wir schließen daraus, dass Veränderungen in der Körpergröße über kurze Zeiträume heterogen sind und sich innerhalb von und zwischen Arten auch über kurze Entfernungen unterscheiden können. Ständige Fortschritte im Verständnis des Zusammenhangs zwischen Veränderungen in der Körpergröße und Klimawechsel müssen die Komplexität erfassen und alternative Hypothesen ins Gespräch bringen.

Introduction

Mounting evidence continues to demonstrate that the Earth's climate is changing rapidly (Jones et al. 2001; Karl and Trenberth 2003; Hansen et al. 2006; IPCC 2014). Particularly for birds and other endotherms, climate change has been linked to changes in phenology (Cort 2004; Torti and Dunn 2005; Macmynowski et al. 2007; Miller-Rushing et al. 2008; Ve

captured in western Pennsylvania have exhibited decreasing fat-free mass (mass when fat score is zero) and wing length since 1961, and noted that this trend was consistent with a response to a warming climate. In contrast, Salewski et al. (2010) found no general trend for body size changes in response to climate change between 1972 and 2006 for 12 central European passerines. In a study of 11 bird species in Germany, Salewski et al. (2014) found that morphological changes between 1889 and 2010 were not consistent either within or across species, and that observed changes were not associated with temperature.

In addition to these inconsistent results, Goodman et al. (2012) found that body sizes of birds in California increased between 1983 and 2009, and attributed these changes to increases in primary productivity or climatic variation. Thus, although climate change has been associated with morphological responses in birds, observed changes have varied across species and across studies (Gardner et al. 2011). Given the myriad factors that can influence body size (Peter 1983, Calder 1984) and the complex interaction between climate and body size (Ozgul et al. 2009, 2010; Chown 2012; Huey et al. 2012), observed heterogeneity in the magnitude and direction of body size responses to climate change should not be surprising (Millien et al. 2006). Here, we examine whether avian body size changes also vary regionally within species and ask whether populations of the same species exhibit differing changes in body size over time. Our objectives in this exploratory analysis were to (1) examine how body sizes of resident and short-distance migratory birds have changed in Laurel, Maryland, from 1980 to 2012, (2) evaluate whether observed morphological monsebody

free mass, time of day and fat score were also included as selected continuous variables.

For each of the 20 species included in the GLMM, we estimated the morphological change (i.e., change in wing length and change in fat-free mass over years) using the MIXED procedure in the SAS program. We included age, sex, year, and Julian day as fixed effects. For analyses of fat-free mass, we also included time of day and fat score.

We examined the influence of annual temperature variation only on resident species, because short-distance migrants might be less impacted by regional temperatures that were used as explanatory variables. We added mean summer temperature (SumTemp) and mean winter temperature (WintTemp) as continuous fixed effects to the two GLMMs (for wing length and fat-free mass) described previously. To test whether species differed in their slopes to SumTemp and WintTemp, we compared models with and without the heterogeneity in slopes with a likelihood ratio test (West et al 2006). Significance of effects was determined from F-tests (Type III SS). We estimated the influence of mean summer and mean winter temperature on each species separately by adding SumTemp and WintTemp to the MIXED models described previously.

To examine overall changes in body condition between 1980 and 2012, we used GLMM to model fat score as a function of year, time of day, Julian date, age, and sex with the GLIMMIX procedure in SAS. To test whether species differed in their slopes, we compared models with and without the heterogeneity in slopes with a likelihood ratio test (West et al 2006). We examined changes in fat score for each species separately with the MIXED procedure, with year, time, Julian date, age, and sex as explanatory variables.

Long-term declines in body size could indicate deteriorating environmental conditions (Teplitsky et al 2008). Environmental degradation could reduce the quality and availability of food, resulting in smaller and less healthy individuals, which could scale up to population declines. To examine this possibility, we examined Pearson correlation coefficients between changes in body size (wing length and fat-free mass) changes in body condition (fat score), and changes in population size across species. Positive correlations could indicate environmental degradation (Van Buskirk et al 2010). Winter population density was obtained from the Christmas Bird Count (www.audubon.org/bird/cbc/index.html). We selected US ENTIRE United States for the County/Region. Breeding population density was estimated from Breeding Bird Survey data using the New England/Mid-Atlantic Coast region for local breeders. For northern breeders, we used the Atlantic Northern Forest region; when a species population trend was not found in this region, we used Boreal Hardwood Transition or consulted range maps

from Birds of North America species accounts to select a suitable region.

Results
Morphological changes over time

Mean wing length across species increased between 1980 and 2012 ($F_{1, 35311} = 13.00, P < 0.001$, Table 1).

Table 1 Summaries of generalized linear mixed models (GLMMs) to examine morphological changes (log-transformed wing length, log-transformed fat-free mass, and fat score) for 20 resident and short-distance migrant species from 1980 to 2012

Source of variation	Estimate	SE	F value	P
Wing length				
Year	0.000129	0.000036	13.00	< 0.001
Julian day	0.000198	0.000011	328.41	< 0.001
Age				
AHY	0.01921	0.000454	1791.56	< 0.001
HY	0			
Sex				
Female	- 0.02607	0.00076	4227.10	< 0.001
Male	0.03445	0.00077		
Unknown	0			
Fat-free				
Year	- 0.000060	0.000088	0.43	0.51
Time	0.000058	0.000003	295.27	< 0.001
Julian day	0.000713	0.00002	1238.65	< 0.001
Age				
AHY	0.00858	0.00082	110.86	< 0.001
HY	0			
Sex				
Female	- 0.02976	0.00137	1554.50	< 0.001
Male	0.03619	0.00137		
Unknown	0			
Fat				
			1406.37	< 0.001
Fat score				
Year	- 0.00525	0.00035	224.83	< 0.001
Time	0.00029	0.00003	98.08	< 0.001
Julian day	0.00693	0.000171	1634.40	< 0.001
Age				
AHY	0.04073	0.007099	32.91	< 0.001
HY	0			
Sex				
Female	- 0.00785	0.01189	17.29	< 0.001
Male	- 0.05959	0.01194		
Unknown	0			

Estimates are coefficients; negative coefficients indicate declining size and positive coefficients indicate increasing size
SE standard error

Although significant, the mean magnitude of change in Fat-free mass showed a negative but non-significant wing length was just 0.41 % over the course of the study trend across years ($F_{1, 33481} = 0.43, P = 0.51$, Table 1), Change in wing length differed significantly across species but species varied significantly in change in fat-free mass ($v^2 = 116,282.7, df = 1, P < 0.001$) and ranged from $(v^2 = 145,264.4, df = 1, P < 0.001)$, ranging from 4.11 - 0.90 to 2.47 %. Of the 20 species examined, 16 to 5.22 % between 1980 and 2012. Fat-free mass of Blue exhibited an increasing trend in wing length ($P < 0.012$, Jays (*Cyanocitta cristata* - 4.11 %), Ruby-crowned Kinglets (*Regulus calendula* - 1.18 %), and White-throated Sparrows (*Zonotrichia albicollis* - 0.73 %) decreased significantly, and fat-free mass of three species (Eastern Phoebe, *Sayornis phoebe* - 5.22 %; Gray Catbird, *Dumetella carolinensis* - 0.66 %; and Tufted Titmouse,

Table 2 Changes in log-transformed wing length and log-transformed fat-free mass (10,000) and change in fat score on a 0–4 scale (9 10,000) 1980–2012

Family Common name	Species code	Scientific name	Wing		Fat-free mass		Fat score	
			Est.	SE	Est.	SE	Est.	SE
Cardinalidae								
Northern Cardinal	NOCA	<i>Cardinalis cardinalis</i>	7.63	1.63	4.71	3.41	- 1.7	6.9
Corvidae								
Blue Jay	BLJA	<i>Cyanocitta cristata</i>	- 2.80	2.39	- 13.10	5.37	- 27.8	17.9
Emberizidae								
Dark-eyed Junco	SCJU	<i>Junco hyemalis</i>	- 2.00	0.36	- 1.60	0.86	- 27.8	7.5
Swamp Sparrow	SWSP	<i>Melospiza georgiana</i>	- 0.01	1.41	1.17	2.79	- 80.6	22.2
Song Sparrow	SOSP	<i>Melospiza melodia</i>	0.11	1.12	- 1.90	2.04	- 56.2	14.7
Fox Sparrow	FOSP	<i>Passerella iliaca</i>	0.40	2.07	- 7.10	3.69	4.1	32.3
Eastern Towhee	EATO	<i>Pipilo erythrophthalmus</i>	1.78	2.01	0.27	1.91	- 67.7	16.0
Field Sparrow	FISP	<i>Spizella pusilla</i>	4.39	1.78	2.00	2.75	3.6	22.2
White-throated Sparrow	WTSP	<i>Zonotrichia albicollis</i>	- 0.20	0.43	- 2.30	0.97	- 65.7	8.8
Mimidae								
Gray Catbird	GRCA	<i>Dumetella carolinensis</i>	2.71	0.55	2.05	0.84	- 57.0	7.5
Paridae								
Tufted Titmouse	TUTI	<i>Baeolophus bicolor</i>	6.64	1.63	8.48	3.47	- 11.6	6.3
Carolina Chickadee	CACH	<i>Poecile carolinensis</i>	3.84	1.75	4.61	3.42	- 22.1	8.8
Parulidae								
Yellow-rumped Warbler	MYWA	<i>Setophaga coronata</i>	7.02	0.83	3.31	2.11	14.0	17.8
Regulidae								
Ruby-crowned Kinglet	RCKI	<i>Regulus calendula</i>	1.32	0.63	- 3.70	1.39	- 45.9	16.4
Golden-crowned Kinglet	GCKI	<i>Regulus satrapa</i>	0.72	0.80	- 0.30	2.01	- 111.1	23.7
Troglodytidae								
Carolina Wren	CARW							

Baeolophus bicolor (2.75 %) increased significantly, from did not differ significantly across species ($v^2 = 3.9$, $P = 0.04$, Table 2). Across species, change in wing length and $df = 1$, $P = 0.10$, Table 4). Eastern Towhees (*Pipilo erythrophthalmus*) and Northern Cardinals (*Cardinalis cardinalis*) exhibited significantly shorter wings with increases

Across all species, fat scores decreased between 1980 mean summer temperature, and no species had significantly longer wings (Table 4). Increasing mean winter decrease of 0.17 (on a 0–4 scale) over the course of the study. Species exhibited significant variation in fat score ($F_{1, 6654} = 0.03$, $P = 0.82$, $N = 20$, $P < 0.001$, Fig. 1), with a significantly longer wings (Table 4). Increasing mean winter decrease of 0.17 (on a 0–4 scale) over the course of the study. Species exhibited significant variation in fat score ($F_{1, 6654} = 0.03$, $P < 0.001$, Table 2), ranging from -0.36 to 0.04 over 32 years. Eleven of the 20 species exhibited a significant decline in fat score, and none showed a significant increase ($P < 0.001$, two-tailed binomial test, Table 2).

Body size changes and annual temperature variation

Wing length

Across resident species, increasing mean summer temperatures were associated with shorter wing lengths ($F_{1, 6654} = 5.77$, $P = 0.016$, Table 3). Although significant, the magnitude of wing change was small (26 %/C). The association between mean summer temperature and wing length ranged from 0.63 % to 0.15 %/C but

Table 3 Summaries of generalized linear mixed models (GLMMs) for log-transformed wing length, log-transformed fat-free body mass and fat score for 9 resident species from 1980–2012

Source of variation	Estimate	SE	F value	P
Wing length				
Year	0.000372	0.000082	20.55	0.001
Julian day	0.000207	0.000022	89.93	0.001
Age				
AHY	0.02201	0.001468	224.64	0.001
HY	0			
Sex				
Female	- 0.01659	0.00474	223.98	0.001
Male	0.02731	0.00486		
Unknown	0			
SumTemp	- 0.00257	0.00107	5.77	0.016
WintTemp	0.000091	0.000548	0.03	0.87
Fat-free mass				
Year	0.00023	0.000158	2.11	0.15
Time	0.000057	0.000008	50.90	0.001
Julian day	0.000509	0.000034	229.09	0.001
Age				
AHY	0.01898	0.002209	73.87	0.001
HY	0			
Sex				
Female	- 0.02288	0.00715	219.73	0.001
Male	0.04268	0.00733		
Unknown	0			
Fat			49.53	0.001
SumTemp	- 0.00227	0.001293	3.08	0.079
WintTemp	- 0.00188	0.000639	8.63	0.003
Fat score				
Year	- 0.00343	0.000617	30.92	0.001
Time	0.000182	0.000047	15.23	0.001
Julian day	0.001442	0.000194	55.00	0.001
Age				
AHY	0.02982	0.01286	5.38	0.020
HY	0			
Sex				
Female	- 0.02176	0.03860	2.81	0.061
Male	- 0.06121	0.03959		
Unknown	0			
SumTemp	0.000068	0.006282	0.00	0.99
WintTemp	- 0.00911	0.004775	3.64	0.056

Estimates are coefficients, and SE is standard error

Fat score

Fat score of residents was not associated with increasing mean summer temperature ($F_{1, 6629} = 0.00, P = 0.99$, Table 3) and did not vary significantly across species ($\chi^2 = 0.08, df = 1, P = 0.87$). Fat score did not vary with

mean winter temperature ($F_{1, 6629} = 3.64, P = 0.06$), and the relationship with mean winter temperature did not vary significantly across species ($\chi^2 = 1.95, df = 1, P = 0.27$). Fat score of Song Sparrows (*Melospiza melodia*) decreased with increasing mean winter temperature (Table 4).

Correlated morphological changes and annual temperature variation

Across resident species, the effects of mean summer temperature on wing length and on fat-free mass were not correlated ($r = 0.44, N = 9, P = 0.24$, Fig. 2). The effects of mean winter temperature on wing length and fat-free mass were positively correlated ($r = 0.80, N = 9, P = 0.01$, Fig. 3). Wing responses to increasing summer temperature and to increasing winter temperature were not correlated ($r = 0.04, N = 9, P = 0.93$). Change in fat-free mass with increasing summer temperature was also not correlated with change in fat-free mass with increasing winter temperature ($r = 0.44, N = 9, P = 0.24$).

Body size changes over time and annual temperature variation

Across resident species, change in wing length over time was not correlated with response to mean summer temperature ($r = - 0.60, N = 9, P = 0.09$) or to mean winter temperature ($r = - 0.27, N = 9, P = 0.48$). Change in fat-free mass over time was not correlated with response to mean summer temperature ($r = 0.26, N = 9, P = 0.50$) or to mean winter temperature ($r = - 0.60, N = 9, P = 0.09$).

Assessment of deteriorating environmental conditions

Changes in wing length and fat score over time were weakly positively correlated across species ($r = 0.45, N = 20, P = 0.045$, Fig. 4), but these morphological responses were not correlated with any measure of population change ($N = 20, P > 0.07$ for all tests, Table 5). Change in mass over time was weakly correlated with change in breeding population density since 1980 ($r = 0.45, N = 20, P = 0.049$, Fig. 5; Table 5), but not with change in winter population density ($r = 0.26, N = 20, P = 0.27$, Table 5).

Discussion

We document widespread increases in wing length, but not in fat-free mass, across 20 resident and short-distance migrant species between 1980 and 2012. Annual

temperature variation was associated with some changes in body size, but the magnitude and direction of change depended on the trait examined. In contrast, Van Buskirk et al. (2010) found that wing length and fat-free mass of passerines had decreased since 1961 in western Pennsylvania, and McCoy (2012) found that mean wing length of three of six resident species in Connecticut declined between two sampling periods, 1874–1952 and 1958–2010. These results suggest that changes in avian body size can exhibit different patterns over regional spatial scales, and

significantly in Connecticut, but did not change significantly in our study. Van Buskirk et al (2010) analyzed all six species examined by McCoy (2012). Only Purple Finches (*Haemorrhous purpureus*), which decreased in both locations, and White-breasted Nuthatch (*Sitta carolinensis*), which showed no significant trend, exhibited consistent patterns. Some species showed significant decreases in western Pennsylvania, but no significant change in Connecticut, and these discrepancies might be

were small: - 0.13 to + 0.16 %/year in our study; 0.08 to + 0.02 %/year in Van Buskirk et al (2010), and - 0.03 to + 0.08 %/year in Goodman et al (2012). In our study, 16 of 20 species showed a trend of increasing wing length, and 10 of these trends were statistically significant. Van Buskirk et al. (2010) analyzed 19 of the 20 species in our study (all except Carolina Chickadee (*Parus carolinensis*)) and found that wing length decreased significantly in 12 species and did not increase significantly in any species. Dark-eyed Juncos, the only species that showed significantly shorter wing length in our study, did not show a significant trend in theirs. McCoy's (2012) findings also show that species can exhibit differing body size changes. Wing lengths of Blue Jays, the only species in common with our study, decreased

associated with wet-bulb temperature, a measure that incorporates temperature and humidity, than with temperature alone. We found that annual variation in mean summer and mean winter temperatures was related to some measures of body size of residents. Increasing mean summer temperatures were associated with shorter wing

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