

1 **Surface reflectance drives nest box temperature profiles**
2 **and thermal suitability for target wildlife**

3

4 **Stephen R. Griffiths^{1*}, Jessica A. Rowland², Natalie J. Briscoe², Pia E.**
5 **Lentini², Kathrine A. Handasyde², Linda F. Lumsden³, Kylie A. Robert¹**

6

7 ¹ Department of Ecology, Environment and Evolution, La Trobe University, Bundoora,
8 Victoria, Australia

9 ² School of BioSciences, The University of Melbourne, Parkville, Victoria, Australia

10 ³ Arthur Rylah Institute for Environmental Research, Department of Environment, Land,
11 Water and Planning, Heidelberg, Victoria, Australia

12

13 * Corresponding author

14 Email: s.griffiths@latrobe.edu.au (SRG)

15

16 Author Contributions

17 Conceived and designed the experiments: SRG, JAR, NJB, KAH. Performed the
18 experiments: SRG, JAR. Analyzed the data: SRG, JAR, PEL, NJB. Contributed
19 reagents/materials/analysis tools: SRG, KAR, NJB, KAH. Wrote the paper: SRG, JAR,
20 NJB, PEL, KAH, LFL, KAR.

21

22 **Short title:** Surface reflectance drives nest box temperatures

23 **Abstract**

24 Thermal properties of tree hollows play a major role in survival and reproduction of
25 hollow-dependent fauna. Artificial hollows (nest boxes) are increasingly being used to
26 supplement the loss of natural hollows; however, the factors that drive nest box thermal
27 profiles have received surprisingly little attention. We investigated how differences in
28 surface reflectance influenced temperature profiles of nest boxes painted three different
29 colors (dark-green, light-green, and white: total solar reflectance 5.9%, 64.4%, and 90.3%
30 respectively) using boxes designed for three groups of mammals: insectivorous bats,
31 marsupial gliders and brushtail possums. Across the three different box designs, dark-green
32 (low reflectance) boxes experienced the highest average and maximum daytime
33 temperatures, had the greatest magnitude of variation in daytime temperatures within the
34 box, and were consistently substantially warmer than light-green boxes (medium
35 reflectance), white boxes (high reflectance), and ambient air temperatures. Results from
36 biophysical model simulations demonstrated that variation in diurnal temperature profiles
37 generated by painting boxes either high or low reflectance colors could have significant
38 ecophysiological consequences for animals occupying boxes, with animals in dark-green
39 boxes at high risk of acute heat-stress and dehydration during extreme heat events.
40 Conversely in cold weather, our modelling indicated that there are higher cumulative
41 energy costs for mammals, particularly smaller animals, occupying light-green boxes.
42 Given their widespread use as a conservation tool, we suggest that before boxes are
43 installed, consideration should be given to the effect of color on nest box temperature
44 profiles, and the resultant thermal suitability of boxes for wildlife, particularly during
45 extremes in weather. Managers of nest box programs should consider using several
46 different colors and installing boxes across a range of both orientations and shade profiles
47 (i.e., levels of canopy cover), to ensure target animals have access to artificial hollows with
48 a broad range of thermal profiles, and can therefore choose boxes with optimal thermal
49 conditions across different seasons.

50 **Introduction**

51 Tree hollows (also referred to as tree holes or cavities) provide vital refuges for a broad
52 range of fauna worldwide [1–4]. As hollow-dependent animals often spend over half their
53 lives within roosts, nests and dens [5], the availability and quality of these resources
54 significantly influences energetics [6], social interactions [7], breeding success [8,9],
55 survival [10], and population size [11]. Forestry practices, land clearing for agricultural
56 intensification or urban expansion, and the removal of senescent trees in urban areas (due to
57 public safety concerns), have resulted in a significant reduction in the number of mature
58 hollow-bearing trees in human-impacted landscapes worldwide [12]. While revegetation
59 programs are increasingly being undertaken in both agricultural [13] and suburban areas
60 [14], the significant time required for the development of hollows in newly-planted trees
61 means that revegetation efforts alone will not offset the loss of hollows in human-modified
62 environments [8,12]. One method commonly employed to offset this loss is to install
63 artificial hollows (nest boxes) as substitutes for natural hollows [15]. Several factors can
64 reduce the effectiveness of nest box programs, including infestation by invertebrates (e.g.,
65 bees and ants) or non-target vertebrate taxa, and high rates of box attrition [16–18].
66 However, nest boxes remain a valuable short to medium term conservation tool to
67 supplement natural hollows for a range of hollow-dependent wildlife [19–21]. To date,
68 studies investigating the use of nest boxes have predominantly focused on birds [22],
69 arboreal mammals [21] and bats [23]; however, artificial hollows are also used by
70 invertebrates [24], amphibians [25], and reptiles [26,27].

71

72 To ensure desired conservation outcomes are achieved for target taxa, nest boxes should
73 provide similar (or better) protection against environmental extremes as natural hollows
74 [28]. The thermal properties of hollows play a major role in the survival and reproduction
75 of hollow-dependant endotherms by influencing the metabolic costs of thermoregulation
76 and water balance [29,30]. Despite the biological importance of providing artificial hollows
77 with suitable thermal profiles, the factors driving fluctuations in nest box temperatures have
78 received surprisingly little attention, particularly in relation to mammals [31]. The few
79 studies to date that have examined this have shown greater thermal fluctuations in boxes

80 compared to natural hollows [28,32–35]. The influence temperature has on nest box
81 suitability depends on the target species and environmental conditions: for endothermic
82 animals, higher temperatures may be advantageous in cool climates [36], but could have
83 severe fitness costs in hotter environments or during extreme heat events [28,37].

84

85 One simple and cheap method for manipulating nest box temperatures is to paint them
86 different colors [38]. Darker colors, with lower reflectance, absorb more radiation, which is
87 converted into thermal energy (i.e. heat); conversely, lighter colors, with higher reflectance,
88 absorb less radiation [39]. Northern hemisphere studies on bats have shown that black nest
89 boxes consistently experience higher maximum temperatures than white boxes [38,40–42].
90 In practice, nest boxes are often painted to reduce weathering, and the colors used are
91 typically various shades of green or brown that are perceived to effectively blend into the
92 environment where they are installed [43,44]. This is thought to make them less
93 conspicuous to predators and reduce the risk of boxes being vandalized [22]. To date, no
94 study has measured the reflectance of nest-boxes painted colors typically used in
95 conservation programs and examined how subsequent interactions between box color,
96 orientation and canopy cover effect box temperatures.

97

98 Here, we investigated how variation in nest box reflectance influences temperature profiles,
99 using three color treatments (dark-green, light-green, and white) on boxes designed for
100 three groups of Australian nocturnal mammals which range in size and denning behaviour:
101 insectivorous bats (Chiroptera: 4–40 g), marsupial gliders (*Petaurus* spp.: 100–600 g), and
102 brushtail possums (*Trichosurus* spp.: 1.2–4.5 kg). We also investigated how the effect of
103 nest box reflectance varied with canopy cover and orientation, which drive sun exposure
104 [35]. We built a biophysical model for common brushtail possums (*Trichosurus vulpecula*)
105 to explore how thermal profiles of boxes affect key ecophysiological parameters. Our
106 objective was to determine the level to which arbitrary decisions about one element of nest
107 box design (paint color) can impact the quality of diurnal refuge habitat that they provide
108 for target taxa, via their influence on the metabolic costs of thermoregulation.

109 **Methods**

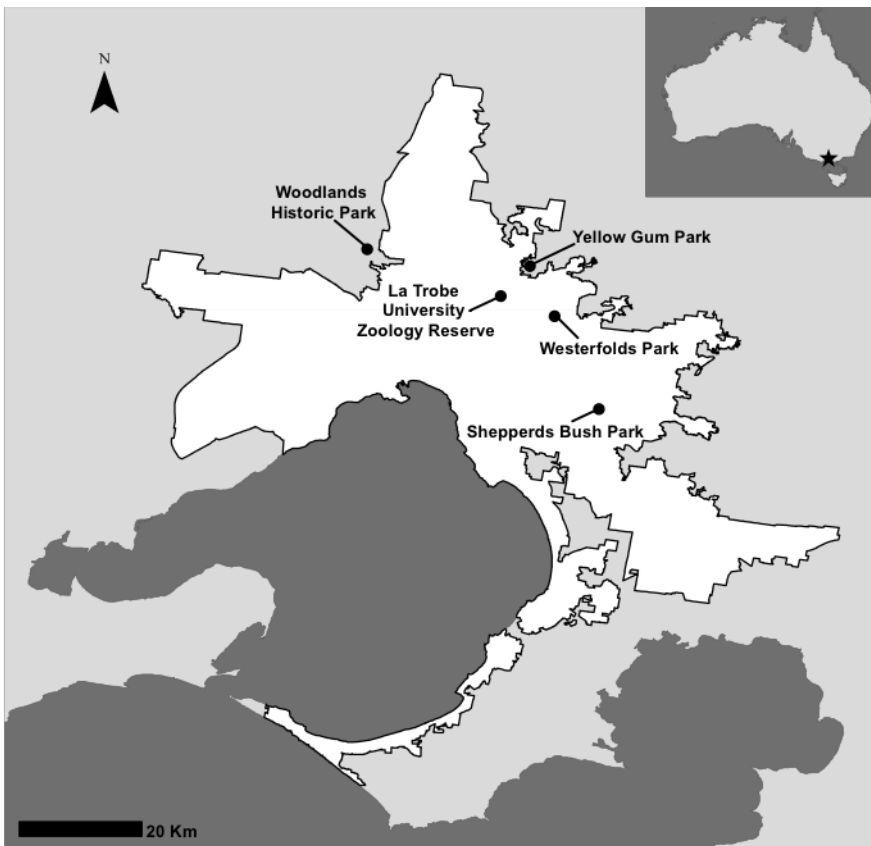
110 **Ethics statement**

111 This research was carried out with approval from La Trobe University's Animal Ethics
112 Committee (project AEC13-30) and the Department of Environment, Land, Water and
113 Planning (research permit 10006790). There was no animal handling or manipulation
114 conducted during the study.

115

116 **Study sites**

117 This study was conducted within the greater metropolitan area of Melbourne (37°48' S,
118 144°55' E) in the state of Victoria, south-eastern Australia. The region experiences a
119 Mediterranean climate: temperatures range from a mean monthly maximum of 26.9°C in
120 February to a mean monthly minimum of 5.6°C in July, but can exceed 40°C during
121 summer and occasionally fall below 0°C during winter [45]. We selected five reserves in
122 greater Melbourne as sites to install nest boxes (Fig 1). Permission to access field sites
123 located on public land was granted from Parks Victoria; access to the one field site located
124 on private land was granted by La Trobe University.



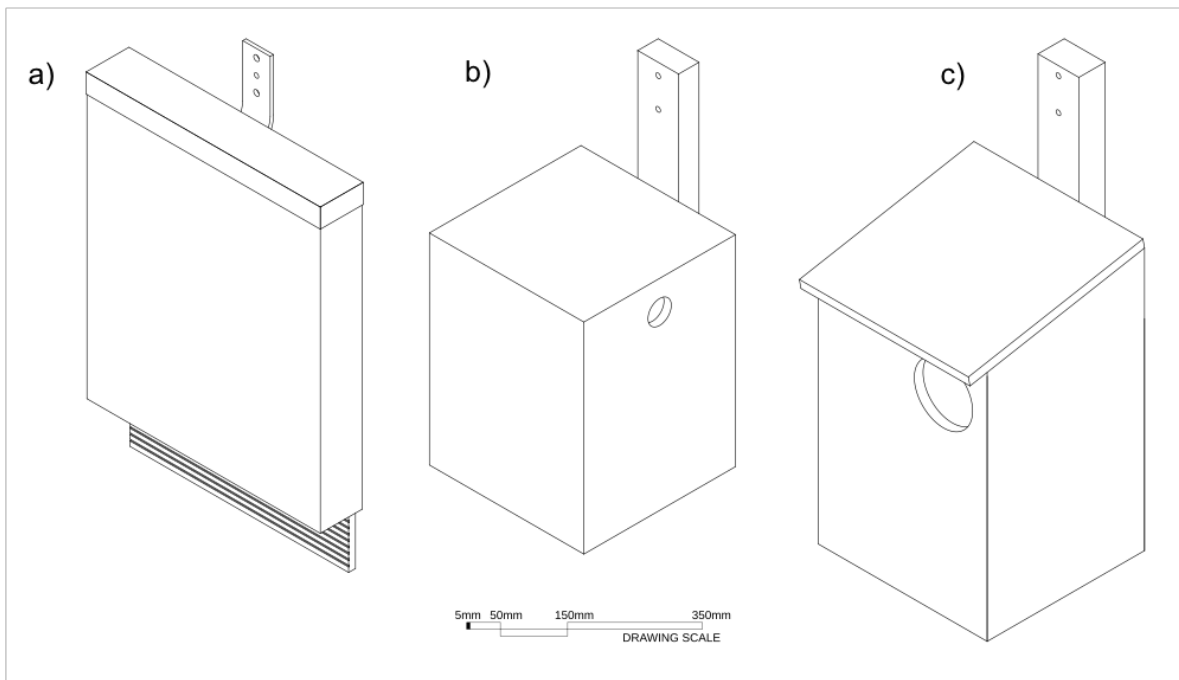
125

126 **Fig 1. Location of the five study sites where nest boxes were installed across greater**
 127 **Melbourne (white area), Victoria, Australia.** The spatial data used to construct the map
 128 were obtained from open access sources [46,47].

129

130 **Nest box color manipulation**

131 Variations in shape, surface area, wall thickness and volume influence the amount of direct
 132 solar radiation nest boxes are exposed to, and their rate of heating and cooling [48].
 133 Therefore, to test whether the influence of surface reflectance on box temperature profiles
 134 was consistent across a range of box types, we incorporated box designs for different-sized
 135 endotherms: (i) insectivorous bats, (ii) gliders (e.g., sugar glider *Petaurus breviceps*), and
 136 (iii) brushtail possums (e.g., common brushtail possum). Bat and glider boxes were
 137 constructed with 12 mm marine plywood and possum boxes with 15 mm marine plywood.
 138 The boxes differed in dimensions (Fig 2): bat boxes were tall and narrow [49] with the
 139 smallest internal volume, while glider and possum boxes were a more square cuboid shape
 140 [50,51].



141

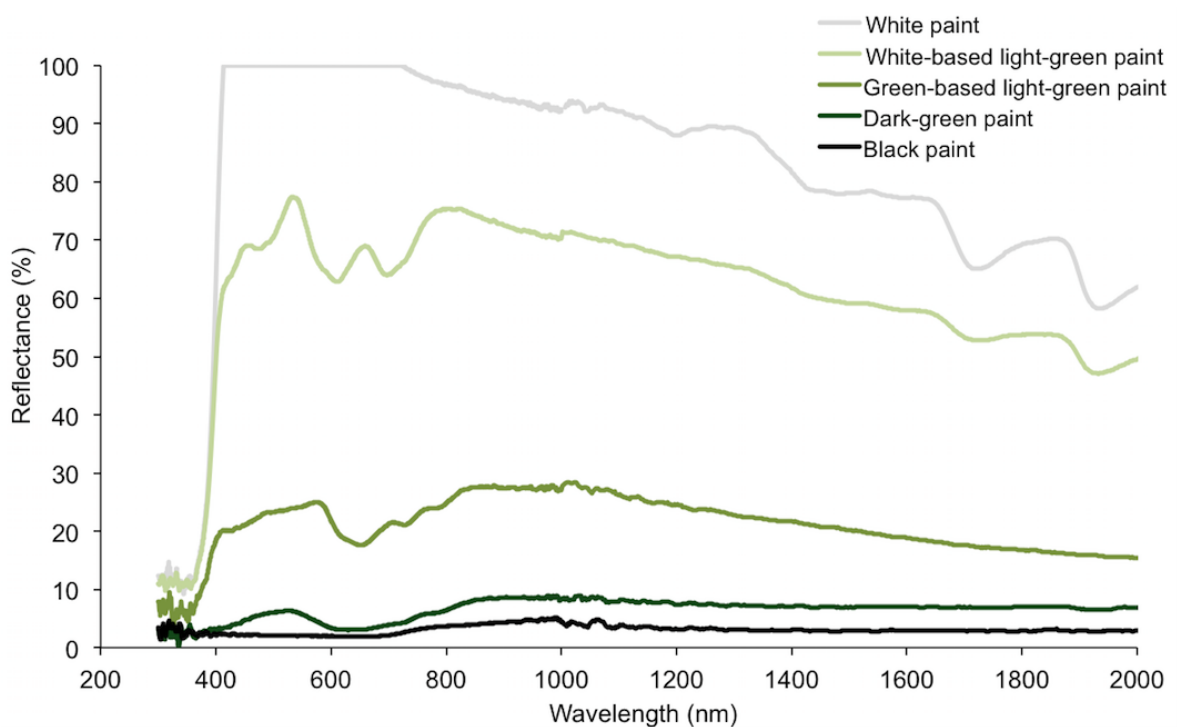
142 **Fig 2. Diagrams of the three nest box designs.** (a) Bat boxes constructed with 12 mm
 143 marine plywood with a narrow, single-chamber, open-bottomed design: height, 50 cm;
 144 width, 43 cm; depth, 7.5 cm; bottom entrance width, 1.5 cm; internal volume, 9,555 cm³.
 145 (b) Glider boxes constructed with 12 mm marine plywood: height, 36 cm; width, 27 cm;
 146 depth, 28 cm; circular entrance diameter, 4 cm; internal volume, 20,845 cm³. (c) Possum
 147 boxes constructed with 15 mm marine plywood with a forward sloping lid: front height, 40
 148 cm; back height, 45 cm; width, 29 cm; depth, 27 cm; circular entrance diameter, 10 cm;
 149 internal volume, 33,278 cm³. All boxes were attached to trees with a trunk diameter that
 150 was wider than the box.

151

152 **Measuring surface reflectance**

153 We quantified the reflectance spectrum, the fraction of incident electromagnetic radiation
 154 that is reflected from the surface of an object [52], of painted nest boxes. Reflectance was
 155 measured using two spectrophotometers (NIQ-Quest and USB4000, Ocean Optics, USA)
 156 that measured spectral reflectance from 290–1000 nm and 1000–2000 nm respectively. We
 157 made six measurements of nest boxes painted each color, and the average of these was
 158 converted to solar reflectance by calculating the weighted average across 37 bandwidths
 159 between 290–2600 nm. We assumed that reflectance remained constant above 2000 nm;
 160 this region of the spectrum only accounts for 4% of solar radiation, so this assumption

161 should not have a major influence on solar reflectance values. We tested two shades of
162 light-green paint: one was mixed from a green base and had a reflectance spectrum profile
163 (total solar reflectance = 20.9%) that was similar to that of the dark-green paint (total solar
164 reflectance = 5.9%: ‘low-reflectance’), while a white-based light-green paint (total solar
165 reflectance = 64.4%: ‘medium-reflectance’) had a reflectance spectrum profile that was
166 more similar to white paint (total solar reflectance = 90.3%: ‘high-reflectance’; Fig 3). As
167 we were interested in comparing two shades of green with markedly different reflectance
168 spectra, we selected the white-based light-green paint for the nest box temperature trials. As
169 previous studies have used nest boxes painted black (the color with the lowest reflectance)
170 to achieve the greatest possible difference between box and ambient temperatures [38,40–
171 42,53], we also tested a sample of black paint. This analysis revealed that the dark-green
172 paint treatment used in this study had a reflectance spectrum that was almost identical to
173 black paint (total solar reflectance = 2.9%, Fig 3).
174



175
176 **Fig 3. Reflectance spectra of the different paint color treatments.** The colors used to
177 paint nest boxes in this study were (i) dark-green (total solar reflectance = 5.9%: ‘low-
178 reflectance’), (ii) white-based light-green (total solar reflectance = 64.4%: ‘medium-
179 reflectance’) and (iii) white (total solar reflectance = 90.3%: ‘high-reflectance’). The

180 reflectance spectrum for the ‘green-based light-green paint’ (total solar reflectance =
181 20.9%) is shown to highlight the similarity with the dark-green paint, despite appearing
182 visually similar to the white-based light-green. The reflectance spectrum for the black paint
183 (total solar reflectance = 2.9%) is shown to highlight the similarity of the dark-green paint
184 to this low reflectance extreme.

185

186 **Monitoring thermal profiles of nest boxes**

187 Seventy-two bat boxes were attached to trees, 5–6 m above the ground, across five sites. At
188 each site, one bat box of each color (dark-green, light-green, and white) was attached to the
189 tree trunk on one of four cardinal directions (north, east, south, and west), with the
190 exception of the La Trobe University Zoology Reserve (LTUZR) where two boxes of each
191 color were attached to each side of the tree (i.e., north, east, south, and west). In addition,
192 44 glider boxes (14 dark-green, 16 light-green, and 14 white) and 18 possum boxes (9 dark-
193 green and 9 light-green) were installed at LTUZR, with glider box pairs of the same color
194 attached to the north and south sides of the tree trunk. All 18 possum boxes were attached
195 the east side of the trunk, which has been recommended for management programs in
196 southeast Australia, to minimize wind and solar exposure [44].

197

198 Temperature data loggers (Thermochron iButton model DS1922L, Maxim Integrated
199 Products, USA) recorded ambient temperature (T_a) and box temperature (T_{box}) concurrently
200 at 1-hour intervals during summer-autumn (February–April 2015) in bat boxes, and at 30-
201 minute intervals in summer (January 2015) and winter (July–August 2015) in glider and
202 possum boxes. Data loggers were suspended from a hook attached to the inside of the lid of
203 each box (loggers hung 10 cm below the lid). Data loggers were also attached to four trees
204 at each bat box site and nine trees at LTUZR (suspended behind a south-facing nest box to
205 ensure they were not exposed to direct sunlight) to record T_a . During temperature
206 recordings the entrances to the bat and possum boxes were blocked with wire mesh,
207 facilitating natural airflow while excluding animals from occupying boxes and thus altering
208 T_{box} . Glider box entrances were not blocked during the study. We conducted daily checks
209 of glider boxes using a borescope (Traveler TV-EC2M) for the duration of the study. If a
210 glider box was occupied on inspection, this was recorded, and the animals were not further

211 disturbed. T_{box} records from any glider boxes that were occupied on any given day during
212 the study were excluded from analysis of temperature profiles (during winter two boxes
213 were occupied by sugar gliders: one for 23 days, the other for three days; during summer no
214 boxes were occupied).

215

216 **Measuring canopy cover**

217 To estimate variation in canopy cover (to assess how much solar radiation reached nest
218 boxes) we quantified the ‘percent canopy openness’ above each box. Using a digital SLR
219 camera (EOS 5D Mark II, Canon, Japan) with a circular (180° field of view) fisheye lens
220 (8mm 1:4.6 EX DG Lens, Sigma, Japan) we took hemispherical photographs directly above
221 each nest box. Variation in the exposure of photographs taken at different times, and on
222 different days, was standardized in the field using the method described by [54]. Digital
223 photos were analyzed for percentage canopy openness using Gap Light Analyzer version
224 2.0.4 image processing software [55]. At one site (LTUZR) a weather station (922
225 Signature, WeatherHawk, USA) recorded solar radiation hourly (W/m^2) during February–
226 April 2015. This allowed calculation of an index of solar exposure for each glider and
227 possum box at LTUZR by multiplying total daytime solar radiation (W/m^2) by percent
228 canopy openness.

229

230 **Statistical analyses**

231 To investigate factors driving T_{box} we fitted linear mixed effects models (LMMs) using the
232 ‘lme’ function in the ‘nlme’ R statistical package [43]. To account for spatial
233 autocorrelation and repeated measures, models were fitted so that each box nested within
234 the site had a random effect on the intercept. Using a corARMA correlation structure, a
235 range of variance structures were fitted, based on predictor variables of the model.
236 Response variables were log transformed where necessary and continuous variables were
237 standardized prior to analyses by subtracting the mean and dividing by the standard
238 deviation.

239

240 We modeled four T_{box} response variables, calculated from temperatures recorded between
241 dawn and dusk: maximum daytime temperature (T_{boxMAX}), maximum difference between

242 T_{box} and T_a ($T_{\text{box}}-T_a$), mean daytime temperature (T_{boxMEAN}), and the difference between the
243 box's daytime minimum and maximum temperatures ($T_{\text{boxMAX}}-T_{\text{boxMIN}}$). We also assessed
244 the minimum daytime box temperature (T_{boxMIN}) but unsurprisingly found little difference
245 between color treatments as these measurements typically occurred at dawn.

246

247 While our primary interest was the effect of surface reflectance on box temperature
248 profiles, the effect of T_a is also of interest, because the thermal suitability of a nest box for
249 an animal is the result of the combined effects of all key drivers. Consequently, all models
250 included the predictor variable box color, and an ambient temperature variable, which
251 changed according to the response. For T_{boxMAX} and $T_{\text{box}}-T_a$ the T_a predictor was T_{aMAX} , for
252 the T_{boxMEAN} models it was T_{aMEAN} , and for $T_{\text{boxMAX}}-T_{\text{boxMIN}}$ it was $T_{\text{aMAX}}-T_{\text{aMIN}}$. Bat box
253 models also included percent canopy openness and orientation (four categories: north, east,
254 south, and west). Solar exposure data were available for all possum and glider boxes, thus
255 were used as a predictor variable instead of canopy openness. Models of glider boxes also
256 included orientation (two categories: north and south). We also included an interaction
257 between box color and orientation in bat models, and an interaction between box color and
258 solar exposure in glider models. Other factors, including box height above ground, tree
259 diameter at breast height, and trunk diameter at box height, were considered but had little
260 influence. Means are presented \pm SD, unless otherwise stated.

261

262 **Effect of occupation and physiological costs**

263 **Heated mounts**

264 Heat produced by animals occupying a nest box can influence local microclimates [57] and
265 may therefore alter associated physiological costs [48]. To obtain estimates of the impact of
266 occupation by a common brushtail possum on T_{box} , we used heated mounts, “proxy object
267 simulating endothermic metabolism” (POSEM) [48], which mimicked heat-loss from a
268 medium-sized furred endotherm. Each POSEM consisted of a glass jar (900 mL) wrapped
269 in cotton ‘futon’ filling (20 mm thick) and a newspaper sheet, and contained two heat pads
270 (132 x 100 mm; Hotteeze Heat Pads, Hotteeze Pty Ltd, Australia) and two sealed 30 mL
271 plastic vials with water at the body temperature of a common brushtail possum (36.2°C)
272 [44]. Heat pads were activated immediately before being placed in the jars, and POSEMs

273 positioned in the possum box. Heat production from POSEMs (summer: 3.5 ± 0.2 W;
 274 winter: 3.9 ± 0.3 W) was similar to the metabolic rate reported for brushtail possums (3.5
 275 W) [58]. POSEM trials were conducted on six days during each possum nest box
 276 temperature-sampling period. POSEMs were placed in half ($n = 9$) of the possum boxes
 277 every day during daylight hours, with remaining boxes unoccupied.

278

279 **Biophysical model**

280 To examine the potential physiological effects of solar exposure and box color, we
 281 calculated heat production, or loss, required by a common brushtail possum occupying
 282 light-green and dark-green boxes during the summer and winter POSEM trials. We used
 283 temperatures from ‘occupied’ boxes to account for the additional heat produced by a
 284 possum. Physiological costs were estimated using a simple endotherm model [59] that
 285 calculates heat flux between animals and their environment, and enabled us to simulate
 286 simple behavioural responses. We simulated possums with traits outlined in Table 1, with
 287 hourly postures (and the equivalent fur depth value) selected to minimize thermoregulatory
 288 costs. We predicted heat production or heat loss required for an animal to maintain its core
 289 temperature when experiencing half-hourly conditions recorded in each occupied nest box.
 290 Physiological costs are reported as % basal heat production (i.e. an animal with 200%
 291 required heat production has to produce twice its basal heat production; an animal with
 292 50% required heat loss has to lose half its basal heat load). Basal heat production was
 293 predicted using the allometric equation for Australian marsupials [58].

294

295 Table 1. Parameter estimates of common brushtail possum (*T. vulpecula*) traits used to model the physiological
 296 costs of inhabiting nest boxes painted different colors during summer and winter.

Parameter	Value	Reference
Body size (kg)	2.2	Clinchy <i>et al.</i> [60]
Core temperature (°C)	36.2	Dawson and Hulbert [58]
Basal metabolic rate (W)	4.2	Predicted using allometric equation from Dawson and Hulbert [58]
Fur conductivity (W/m°C)	0.04	Default mammal value, see Porter and Kearney [59]
Fur depth (mm)	18.81–22.98	Weighted average of dorsal and ventral fur depth measurements from <i>T. vulpecula</i> museum specimens based on modelled posture ($n = 21$)

Posture (ratio length:width)	1.1–4.0	Minimum estimated for a possum curled in a ball and maximum calculated based on measured surface areas of museum specimens
------------------------------	---------	--

297

298 **Results**

299 **Weather conditions**

300 The mean daytime T_{aMEAN} , T_{aMIN} and T_{aMAX} across the five bat box field sites combined for
301 the duration of the study were $18.2 \pm 3.4^{\circ}\text{C}$, $13.7 \pm 3.4^{\circ}\text{C}$ and $23.8 \pm 4.8^{\circ}\text{C}$ respectively.
302 T_{aMAX} exceeded 30°C on eight days (S1 Fig). The mean daytime T_{aMEAN} , T_{aMIN} and T_{aMAX}
303 during each 23-day survey period for the possum and glider boxes were $20.5 \pm 3.7^{\circ}\text{C}$, 15.2
304 $\pm 3.1^{\circ}\text{C}$ and $26.4 \pm 5.7^{\circ}\text{C}$ in summer (S1 Fig), and $9.2 \pm 1.8^{\circ}\text{C}$, $6.0 \pm 2.5^{\circ}\text{C}$ and $12.5 \pm$
305 1.8°C in winter, respectively. T_{aMAX} exceeded 30°C on five days during summer, while in
306 winter mean T_{aMIN} fell below 5°C on five days (S1 Fig).

307

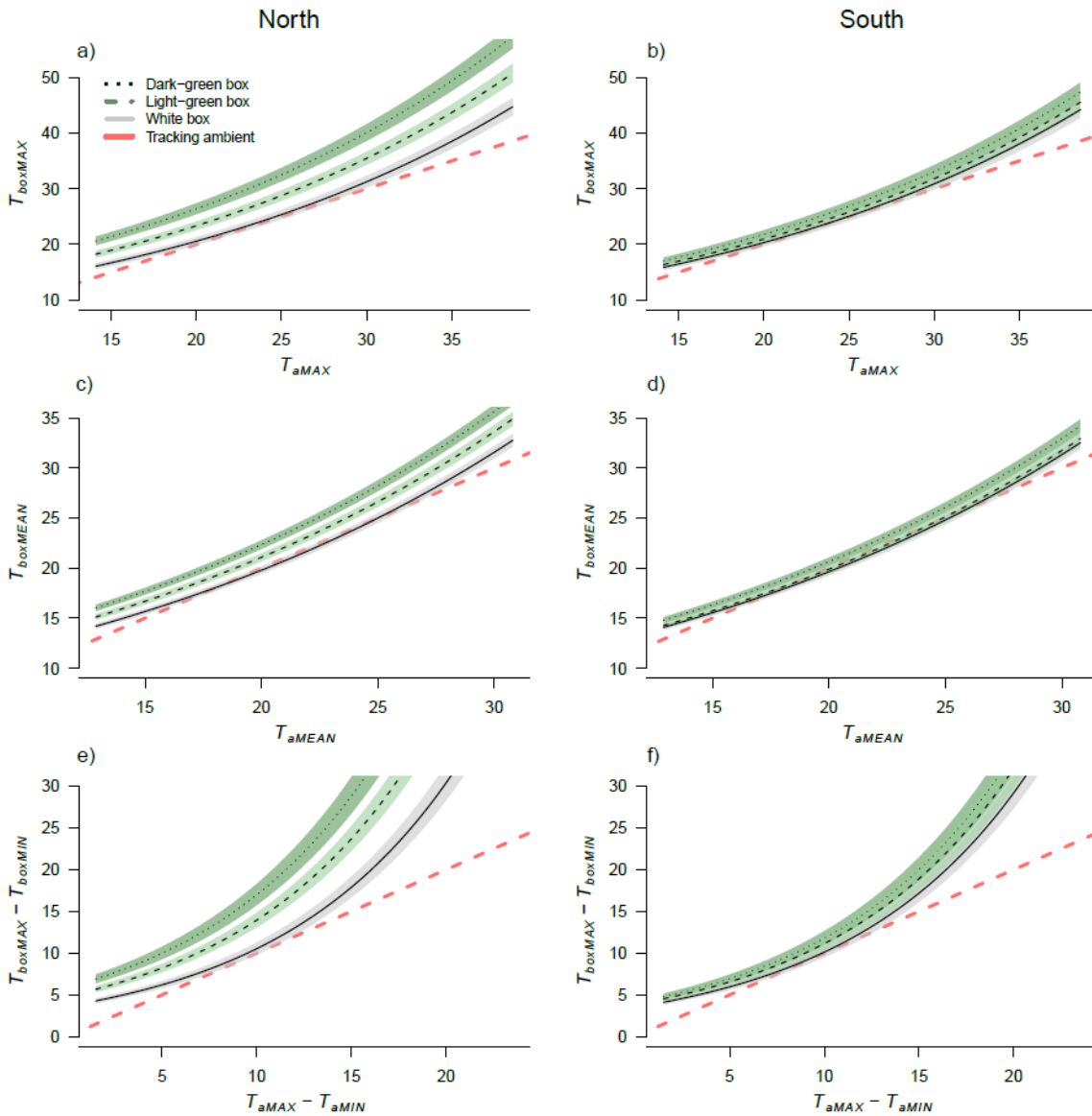
308 **Influence of color on nest box thermal profiles**

309 Paint color (reflectance) strongly influenced temperature profiles in nest boxes. For all
310 three box designs (bat, glider, and possum), dark-green boxes experienced the highest
311 average and maximum daytime temperatures ($T_{boxMEAN}$ and T_{boxMAX}), had the greatest
312 magnitude of difference in temperatures within boxes each day ($T_{boxMAX}-T_{boxMIN}$), and were
313 consistently substantially warmer than ambient air temperature ($T_{box}-T_a$) (Table 2).

314

315 **Bat boxes**

316 Across all four bat box models color, and the interaction between color and orientation
317 emerged as having a strong effect on T_{box} response variables (Table 3, Fig 4). This
318 corresponded to the fact that dark-green bat boxes tended to experience the highest average
319 and maximum daytime temperatures (Table 2). Dark-green bat boxes also had the greatest
320 magnitude of difference in temperatures within the box each day (Table 2, Fig 4). The
321 extremes in T_{boxMAX} , and the difference between T_{boxMAX} and T_{aMAX} , were most pronounced
322 for bat boxes facing north and west, the orientations that receive the greatest amount of
323 solar radiation during the hottest period of the day (Table 2, Fig 5). For example, west-
324 facing dark-green bat boxes got up to 53.0°C (18.3°C and 18.9°C hotter than south-facing
325 light-green and white boxes respectively) when ambient temperatures reached 31.3°C (on
326 10 February 2015).



327

328 **Fig 4. Differences between bat box color treatments across the range of T_a recorded at**
 329 **five sites in greater Melbourne, Australia, from 10 February to 15 April 2015.** Panels
 330 on the left show modeled averages for north-facing boxes, and panels on the right for
 331 south-facing boxes. Shaded areas represent 95% confidence intervals. The dashed red line
 332 (without 95% confidence intervals) represents where corresponding T_a variables are
 333 tracking, to indicate the difference between the boxes and ambient conditions.

334 **Table 2. Summary of bat, glider and possum box temperature response variables.** See methods for definitions of box temperature response variables. Ambient
 335 temperature variables are included for comparison with box variables. Temperature (°C) data are presented as mean ± SD.
 336

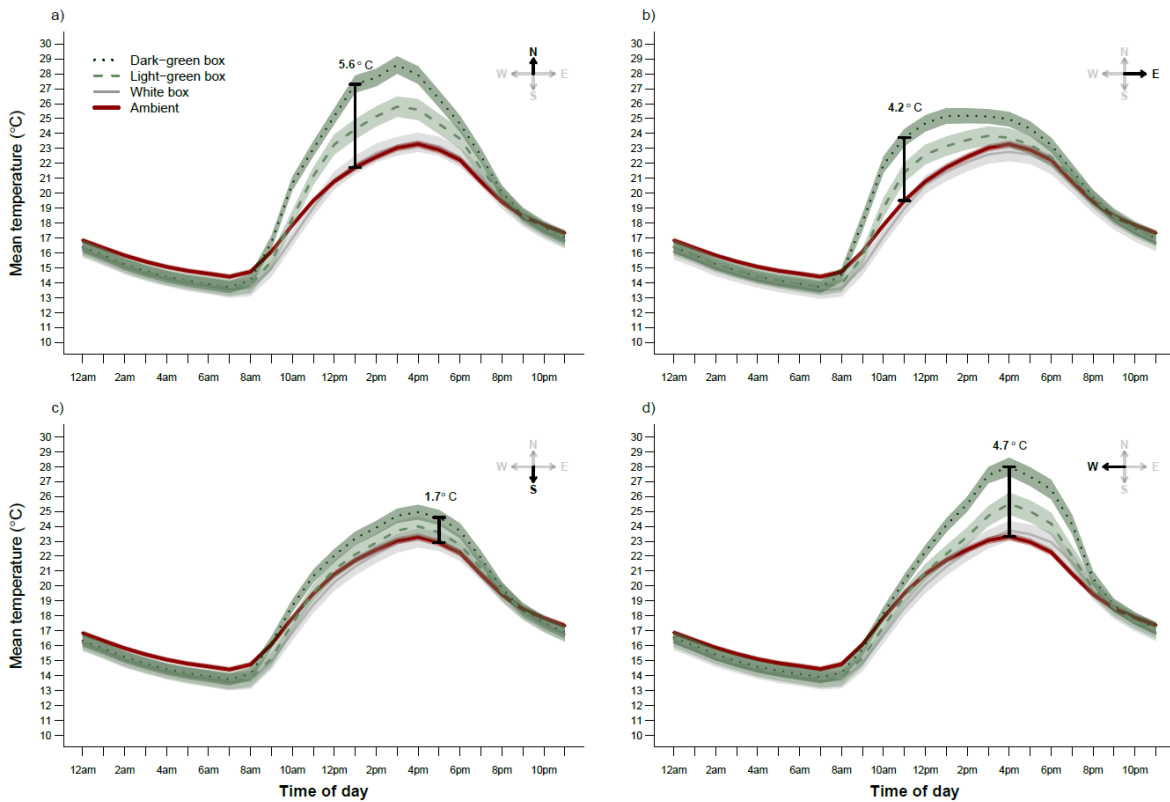
Response variable	<i>Bat boxes</i>				<i>Glider boxes</i>				<i>Possum boxes</i>	
	North	East	South	West	Summer North	Summer South	Winter North	Winter South	Summer East	Winter East
T_{boxMAX}										
Dark-green	32.5 ± 6.3	28.9 ± 6.3	26.6 ± 5.3	32.5 ± 6.5	30.7 ± 7.2	31.1 ± 7.2	16.9 ± 4.0	15.2 ± 3.5	29.5 ± 6.9	15.8 ± 3.5
Light-green	27.7 ± 5.3	25.3 ± 5.1	24.9 ± 5.0	27.3 ± 5.5	28.2 ± 6.4	28.9 ± 6.4	14.1 ± 2.5	13.4 ± 2.1	28.2 ± 6.7	14.0 ± 2.5
White	24.2 ± 4.9	23.5 ± 4.9	23.9 ± 5.0	24.6 ± 5.0	26.4 ± 5.8	26.4 ± 5.9	12.8 ± 2.0	12.2 ± 1.9	-	-
Ambient (T_{aMAX})	23.7 ± 4.8	23.7 ± 4.8	23.7 ± 4.8	23.7 ± 4.8	26.3 ± 5.7	26.3 ± 5.7	12.4 ± 1.8	12.4 ± 1.8	26.3 ± 5.7	12.4 ± 1.8
T_{boxMEAN}										
Dark-green	23.0 ± 4.1	21.9 ± 4.3	21.0 ± 4.0	22.6 ± 4.0	23.8 ± 4.7	24.0 ± 4.8	12.1 ± 2.1	11.3 ± 2.0	23.7 ± 4.8	11.9 ± 2.1
Light-green	21.2 ± 3.9	20.5 ± 4.0	20.0 ± 3.9	20.3 ± 3.9	22.6 ± 4.4	23.1 ± 4.4	10.8 ± 1.8	10.8 ± 2.0	23.0 ± 4.7	11.1 ± 1.9
White	19.7 ± 3.8	19.4 ± 3.8	19.5 ± 3.8	19.6 ± 3.8	21.8 ± 4.2	21.8 ± 4.2	10.3 ± 1.8	9.9 ± 1.8	-	-
Ambient (T_{aMEAN})	19.7 ± 3.8	19.7 ± 3.8	19.7 ± 3.8	19.7 ± 3.8	22.0 ± 4.3	22.0 ± 4.3	10.1 ± 1.8	10.1 ± 1.8	22.0 ± 4.3	10.1 ± 1.8
$T_{\text{boxMAX}} - T_{\text{boxMIN}}$										
Dark-green	19.2 ± 6.9	15.5 ± 6.1	13.3 ± 4.8	19.0 ± 6.8	15.2 ± 6.7	15.6 ± 6.8	10.2 ± 5.7	8.7 ± 4.8	13.7 ± 6.2	8.9 ± 4.9
Light-green	14.6 ± 5.1	12.1 ± 4.5	11.9 ± 4.4	14.1 ± 5.0	13.0 ± 6.0	13.7 ± 5.9	7.8 ± 4.1	6.7 ± 3.4	12.4 ± 6.1	7.1 ± 4.0
White	11.4 ± 4.4	8.5 ± 4.4	10.9 ± 4.3	11.6 ± 4.4	11.0 ± 5.2	11.2 ± 5.3	6.3 ± 3.4	6.0 ± 3.2	-	-
$T_{\text{box}} - T_{\text{a}}$										
Dark-green	10.5 ± 4.5	7.9 ± 3.9	4.0 ± 1.1	9.5 ± 4.1	6.0 ± 3.6	6.3 ± 3.5	5.3 ± 3.5	3.6 ± 2.9	5.5 ± 3.2	4.4 ± 2.9
Light-green	5.2 ± 2.1	3.7 ± 1.9	1.9 ± 0.6	4.2 ± 1.9	3.8 ± 2.5	4.2 ± 2.0	2.5 ± 1.8	1.9 ± 1.4	5.0 ± 4.5	2.5 ± 1.8
White	1.6 ± 0.6	1.1 ± 0.5	1.1 ± 0.4	1.8 ± 0.7	1.6 ± 1.0	2.0 ± 2.4	1.2 ± 0.9	0.6 ± 0.7	-	-

337

338 **Table 3. Parameter estimates of bat box, glider box, possum box and POSEM LMMs.** The three variables with the largest effect size relative to the intercept are
 339 highlighted in bold for each bat and glider box model; two variables are highlighted for each possum box and POSEM model. ‘ln’ indicates that the response was log-
 340 transformed to improve model residual plots.

Explanatory variable(s)	T_{boxMAX}		T_{boxMEAN}		$T_{\text{box}}-T_a$		$T_{\text{boxMAX}}-T_{\text{boxMIN}}$	
	Est	SE	Est	SE	Est	SE	Est	SE
Bat boxes	ln		ln		ln			
Intercept (Dark-green, East)	3.340	0.019	3.080	0.010	1.804	0.105	2.594	0.037
T_a variable	0.209	0.001	0.176	0.001	0.162	0.008	0.457	0.004
White	-0.195	0.025	-0.108	0.013	-1.458	0.146	-0.377	0.049
Light-green	-0.122	0.025	-0.058	0.013	-0.816	0.15	-0.216	0.051
South	-0.096	0.026	-0.043	0.012	-0.774	0.149	-0.181	0.053
West	0.051	0.028	-0.005	0.013	-0.089	0.157	0.095	0.056
North	0.096	0.026	0.036	0.012	0.227	0.15	0.184	0.053
White * South	0.126	0.035	0.058	0.017	0.804	0.207	0.224	0.069
White * West	0.003	0.036	0.018	0.018	0.287	0.212	0.017	0.071
White * North	-0.054	0.035	-0.014	0.017	-0.138	0.206	-0.101	0.068
Light-green * South	0.082	0.036	0.021	0.017	0.333	0.209	0.159	0.071
Light-green * West	0.045	0.037	0.011	0.018	0.388	0.215	0.093	0.074
Light-green * North	-0.001	0.036	0.000	0.017	0.181	0.209	0.019	0.071
Canopy openness	-0.008	0.006	-0.005	0.004	-0.021	0.038	-0.005	0.012
Glider boxes – summer					ln			
Intercept (Dark-green, East)	31.323	0.488	24.024	0.209	2.214	0.059	16.05	0.451
T_a variable	5.703	0.071	4.116	0.030	0.026	0.011	5.118	0.071
White	-4.947	0.627	-2.285	0.252	-0.687	0.059	-4.744	0.544
Light-green	-2.608	0.624	-1.132	0.257	-0.287	0.073	-2.525	0.600
South	0.255	0.347	0.144	0.207	0.038	0.054	0.204	0.264
Solar exposure	1.334	0.149	0.819	0.050	0.225	0.016	1.369	0.153
White * Solar exposure	-1.267	0.158	-0.761	0.054	-0.125	0.020	-1.284	0.162
Light-green * Solar exposure	-0.721	0.199	-0.403	0.085	-0.037	0.023	-0.745	0.206
Glider boxes – winter					ln			
Intercept (Dark-green, East)	17.593	0.443	12.207	0.147	1.921	0.085	10.726	0.424
T_a variable	1.773	0.037	1.786	0.012	-0.071	0.013	3.030	0.060
White	-4.490	0.453	-1.888	0.189	-1.200	0.104	-4.098	0.430
Light-green	-3.122	0.474	-1.308	0.185	-0.649	0.103	-2.712	0.454
South	-1.042	0.239	-0.492	0.107	-0.403	0.084	-0.471	0.181
Solar exposure	1.611	0.177	0.656	0.054	0.312	0.025	1.733	0.173
White * Solar exposure	-1.429	0.181	-0.713	0.056	-0.147	0.033	-1.362	0.175

Explanatory variable(s)	T_{boxMAX}		T_{boxMEAN}		$T_{\text{box}}-T_a$		$T_{\text{boxMAX}}-T_{\text{boxMIN}}$	
	Est	SE	Est	SE	Est	SE	Est	SE
Light-green * Solar exposure	-1.107	0.191	-0.496	0.059	-0.084	0.032	-1.043	0.184
Possum boxes – summer	ln							
Intercept (Dark-green, East)	28.905	0.402	22.934	0.132	1.565	0.091	4.092	0.448
T_a variable	5.458	0.140	4.204	0.045	0.127	0.033	0.919	0.029
Light-green	-2.242	0.568	-0.598	0.168	-0.480	0.161	-2.157	0.494
Solar exposure	0.492	0.141	0.348	0.033	0.386	0.032	0.865	0.156
Possum boxes – winter	ln							
Intercept (Dark-green, East)	16.356	0.345	11.916	0.152	5.068	0.445	8.957	0.435
T_a variable	1.826	0.082	1.798	0.024	-0.222	0.084	3.612	0.137
Light-green	-2.155	0.455	-0.863	0.212	-2.521	0.614	-1.277	0.490
Solar exposure	0.975	0.091	0.456	0.038	1.432	0.115	0.566	0.149
POSEM	ln							
Intercept (Dark-green, Occupied, Summer)	3.623	0.027	28.527	0.451	8.736	0.547	17.768	0.563
Light-green	-0.118	0.031	-0.900	0.287	-2.429	0.736	-2.750	0.737
Status (Unoccupied)	-0.103	0.024	-2.158	0.261	-2.317	0.240	-0.599	0.465
Season (Winter)	-0.826	0.025	-15.466	0.445	-2.040	0.463	-2.797	0.381



341

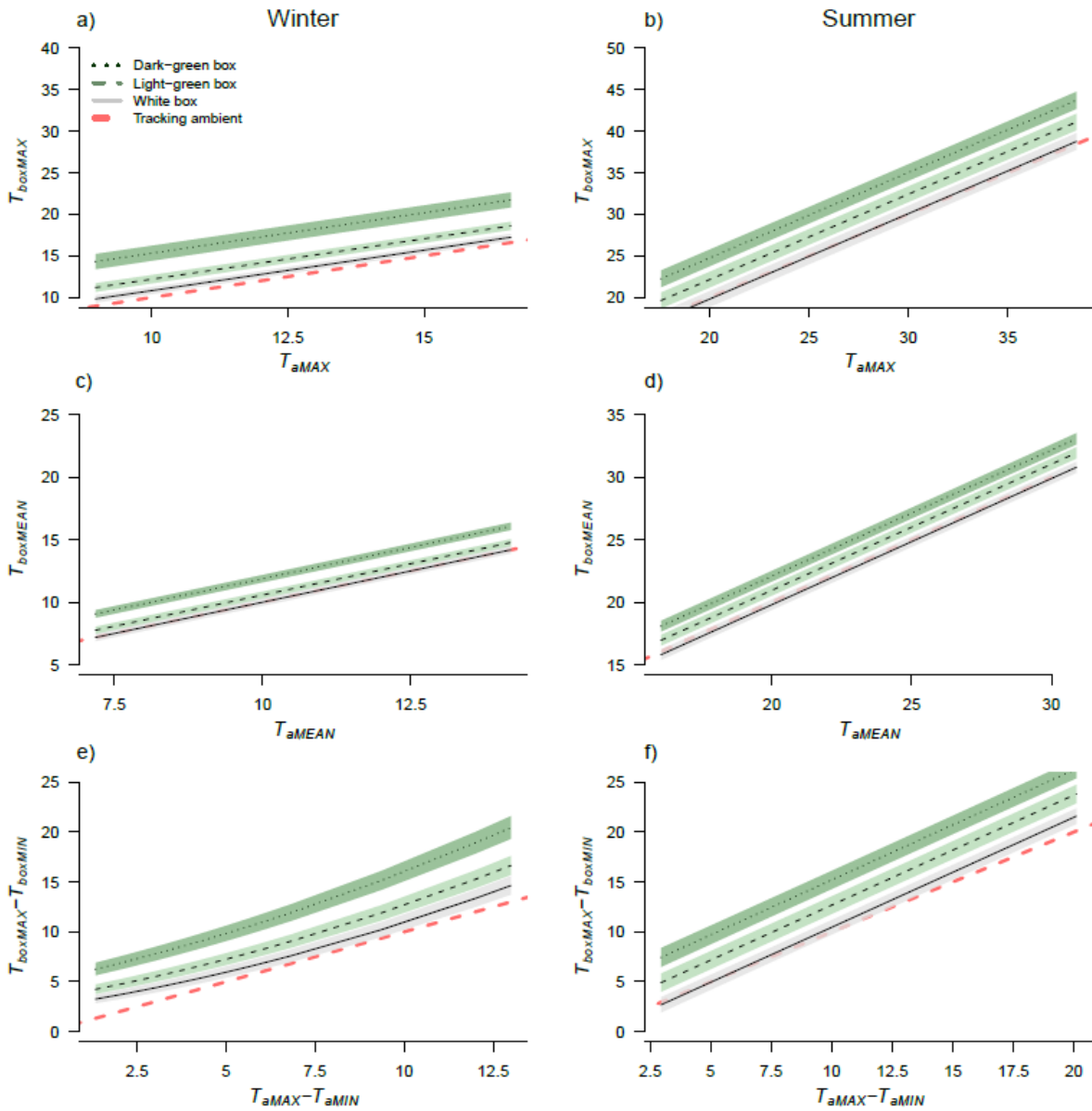
342 **Fig 5. Mean temperature (°C) over 24 hours in bat boxes of different colors installed at**
 343 **five sites in Melbourne, Victoria, Australia.** Data were recorded hourly from 10 February to
 344 15 April 2015 ($n = 65$ days) inside boxes facing each of the four cardinal directions: a) north,
 345 b) east, c) south, and d) west. Data loggers were also attached to four trees at each site to
 346 record hourly T_a . Bars and associated temperature values represent the time of day when the
 347 greatest difference occurred between T_{boxMEAN} and $T_{a\text{MEAN}}$. Shaded areas represent 95%
 348 confidence intervals.

349

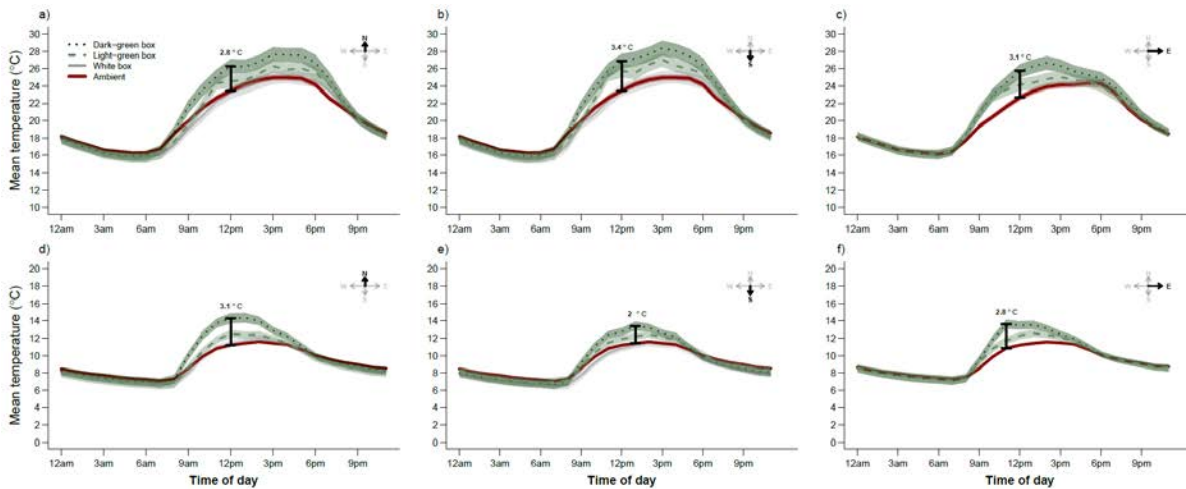
350 **Glider and possum boxes**

351 In all glider box models color had a strong effect on T_{box} response variables, with dark-green
 352 boxes consistently reaching higher temperatures and deviating more from T_a than light-green
 353 and white boxes (Table 2, Fig 6). T_a variables had a strong influence on T_{boxMAX} , T_{boxMEAN} , and
 354 $T_{\text{boxMAX}} - T_{\text{boxMIN}}$, whereas for $T_{\text{box}} - T_a$, the effect of solar exposure was stronger (Table 3, Fig 6).
 355 Solar exposure had a stronger effect on T_{box} response variables of dark-green glider boxes
 356 compared to the light-green or white boxes (Table 3). Orientation had little effect on T_{box} in
 357 summer, but during winter south-facing glider boxes had lower T_{boxMAX} and T_{boxMEAN} ,

358 narrower temperature range, and deviated less from ambient than north-facing boxes (Tables 2
 359 and 3, Fig 7).



360
 361 **Fig 6. Differences between glider box color treatments across the range of T_a recorded**
 362 **during the study, assuming mean solar exposure.** Panels on the left show modeled averages
 363 for north-facing boxes in winter (10 July to 1 August 2015), and panels on the right for north-
 364 facing boxes in summer (7–29 January 2015). Shaded areas represent 95% confidence
 365 intervals. The dashed line (without 95% confidence intervals) represents where corresponding
 366 T_a variables are tracking, to indicate the difference between the boxes and ambient conditions.
 367



368

369 **Fig 7. Mean temperature (°C) over 24 hours in glider and possum boxes of different**
 370 **colors.** Hourly T_{box} were recorded during summer (7–29 January 2015; a–c) and winter (10
 371 July to 1 August 2015; d–f) at the La Trobe University Zoology Reserve, Melbourne,
 372 Australia. Panels show glider boxes facing north (a and d) and south (b and e), and possum
 373 boxes facing east (c and f). Data loggers were also attached to nine trees to record hourly T_a .
 374 Shaded areas represent 95% confidence intervals.

375

376 Color also had an effect on T_{box} response variables in all possum box models. Dark-green
 377 possum boxes showed substantially higher T_{boxMAX} than light-green boxes in both seasons
 378 (Table 2). T_{boxMEAN} was less strongly influenced by color (Table 3), although mean hourly
 379 temperatures differed by up to 3.1°C in summer, and 2.8°C in winter (Fig 6). T_{boxMAX} ,
 380 T_{boxMEAN} and $T_{\text{boxMAX}}-T_{\text{boxMIN}}$ were strongly influenced by T_a variables, while the difference
 381 between box and ambient temperature ($T_{\text{box}}-T_a$) was more strongly influenced by solar
 382 exposure (Table 3).

383

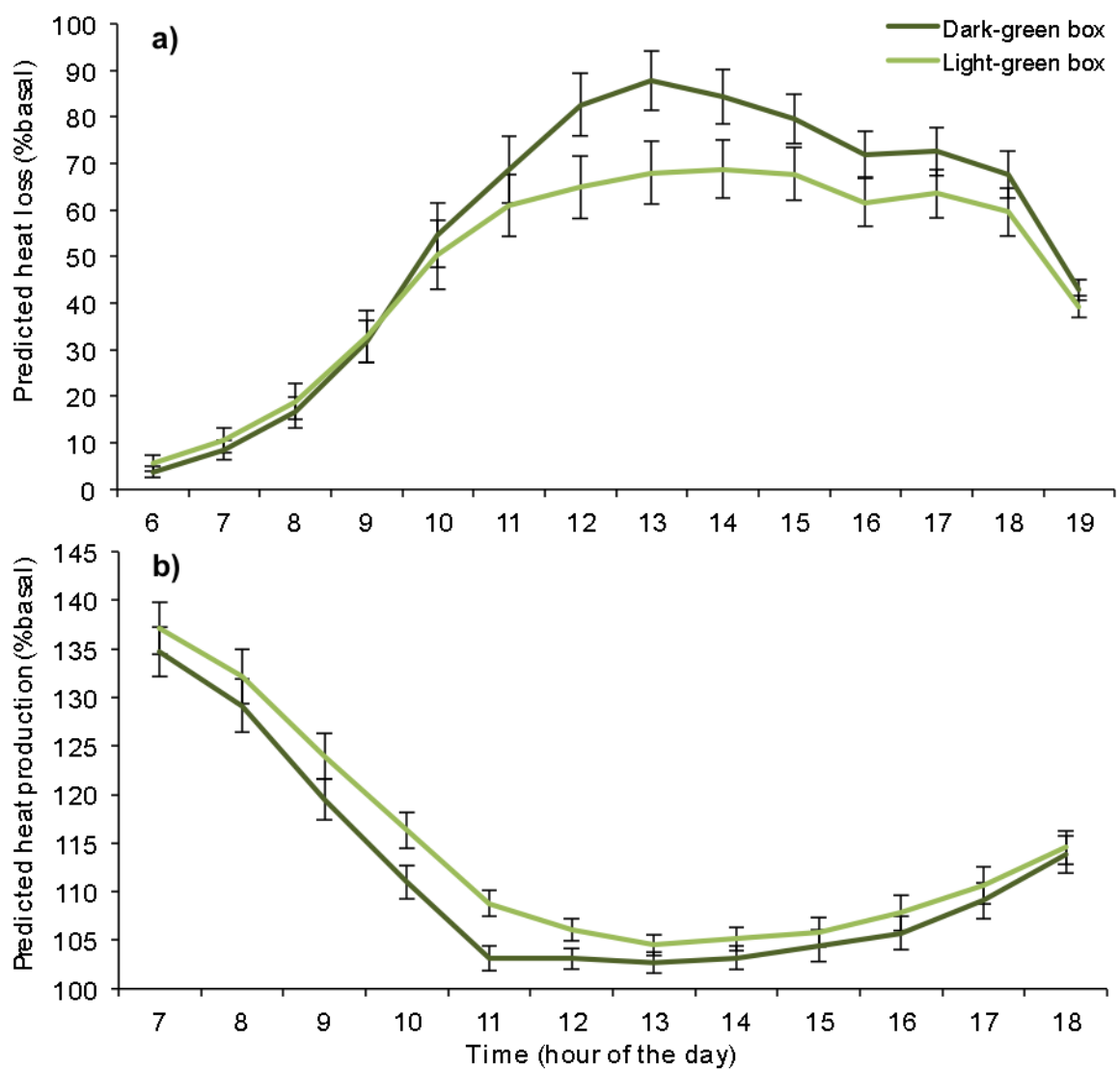
384 **Effect of occupation and physiological costs**

385 Possum boxes ‘occupied’ by a POSEM had higher T_{boxMAX} and T_{boxMEAN} , and $T_{\text{box}}-T_a$, than
 386 empty boxes (Table 3). ‘Occupied’ boxes had T_{boxMAX} and T_{boxMEAN} 1.7°C and 1.8°C greater
 387 on average than unoccupied boxes, respectively.

388

389 Average daytime rate of required heat loss (calculated as % basal metabolic heat production
 390 that endotherms would need to lose via evaporative cooling) was higher in dark-green boxes

391 (55%) than light-green boxes (48%) across the six days measured in summer (Fig 8a).
 392 Estimated heat loss requirements differed most in the middle of the day on hot, sunny days,
 393 when mean hourly rates of heat loss required for possums in dark-green boxes were up to 35%
 394 higher than for possums in light-green boxes. Conversely, during winter sampling, energy
 395 production required (% basal) was lower in dark-green boxes (111% versus 114%) (Fig 8b).
 396 Heat production differed most during the morning and middle of the day, when mean required
 397 heat production was up to 12% greater in light-green boxes.
 398



399 **Fig 8. Modeled mean (\pm SE) half-hourly rates of daytime heat loss, or heat production,**
 400 **for a common brushtail possum (*T. vulpecula*) occupying light-green and dark-green nest**
 401 **boxes. Half-hourly daytime T_{box} were taken from nest boxes ‘occupied’ by a POSEM during**
 402

403 (a) six days in summer (7, 8, 16, 19, 22, and 24 January 2015, 6:00 to 19:00) and (b) six days
404 in winter (14, 16, 18, 19, 25, and 27 July 2015, 7:00 to 18:00). Physiological costs (calculated
405 as % basal metabolic heat loss, or heat production, required by an endotherm to maintain its
406 core body temperature) were estimated using a simple endotherm biophysical model adapted
407 from Porter and Kearney [59].

408

409 **Discussion**

410 To date, little consideration has been given to the influence of surface reflectance on the
411 thermal properties of nest boxes and the subsequent physiological implications for animals
412 that use them. Here, we have demonstrated that a simple modification in nest box color can
413 result in large differences in box temperatures during the day, when nocturnal animals use
414 boxes. Furthermore, the effect of color on the variation in temperatures was influenced by a
415 range of factors, including box design, orientation, and the interplay between canopy cover
416 (i.e., shade profile) and temporal variation in solar exposure. Results from biophysical model
417 simulations demonstrated that the magnitude of variation in diurnal temperature profiles
418 associated with high or low reflectance colors could have significant ecophysiological
419 consequences for animals occupying boxes.

420

421 The degree to which artificial hollows can buffer occupants against thermal stress during
422 extreme heat events is a critical factor in determining their success as a conservation tool
423 [28,37]. Nest box temperatures $\geq 40^{\circ}\text{C}$ are likely to present thermally stressful environments
424 for bats, gliders and possums. This is because when exposed to such conditions mammals
425 struggle to meet heat loss requirements via evaporative cooling, often leading to an increase in
426 core temperature [61–65]. Our data showed that dark-green bat, glider, and possum boxes all
427 reached temperatures $\geq 40^{\circ}\text{C}$ when ambient temperatures were in the range 35–38°C. In
428 contrast, white boxes were consistently cooler than light-green and dark-green boxes
429 respectively and typically tracked ambient daytime conditions. Ambient summer temperatures
430 during this study were relatively mild for southeast Australia; for example, Melbourne reached
431 45.1°C on 19 December 2015 [45]. Our findings suggest that on extremely hot days such as
432 these, endothermic animals occupying all boxes are likely to experience significant thermal

433 stress [29,65], potentially forcing them to vacate boxes [57,66], thereby increasing predation
434 risk [67]. This is likely to have a significant negative influence on the fitness of animals
435 occupying nest boxes compared to those in natural hollows during summer. Tree-hollows have
436 been shown to have greater thermal inertia, resulting in more effective buffering of extremes
437 in den temperature during hot weather [28,34,35]. Consequently, artificial hollows may
438 ultimately be more effective in mimicking the thermal profiles of naturally-occurring hollows
439 if placed inside the tree (e.g., cut into the tree trunk with a chainsaw), rather than attached to
440 the outside.

441

442 When deploying nest boxes to supplement natural hollows, it is important to consider the
443 range of microclimatic conditions required by animals, which may vary significantly
444 throughout the year for different taxa. For example, among temperate zone bats, pregnant or
445 lactating females generally prefer warm roosts that help minimize the thermoregulatory energy
446 required to maintain gestation or milk production [68]. In contrast, outside of breeding season
447 females use daily torpor to facilitate significant energy savings when using colder roosts [42].
448 Ideally, knowledge of temporal variation in the microclimatic suitability of hollows should be
449 incorporated into nest box designs targeting particular species, but this data is not available for
450 most hollow-dependent taxa.

451

452 Biophysical models have been shown to provide a powerful means of translating variation in
453 environmental conditions into thermoregulatory requirements across a range of species
454 [59,69,70]. Here we show how this approach can be applied to assess the thermal suitability of
455 occupied nest boxes, which may be particularly useful for species of conservation concern.
456 Using a POSEM [48] we simulated heat production by an endothermic animal in a nest box
457 and then modeled the impact of this variation in box temperature on its thermoregulatory
458 requirements [59]. Our biophysical model simulations demonstrated that a common brushtail
459 possums occupying an east-facing dark-green box during a typical sunny summer day in
460 southeast Australia would need to lose up to 35% more metabolic heat (via evaporative heat
461 loss) to maintain constant body temperature than a possum occupying a light-green box. This
462 shows that even on non-extreme days, dark-green boxes represent a more physiologically
463 stressful denning environment than light-green boxes. While arboreal mammals occupying
464 dark-green boxes in heat waves are likely to have a substantially higher risk of acute heat-

465 stress and dehydration [65], our simulations indicated that there are also higher heat
466 production costs for possums occupying light-green boxes in winter, particularly during cold
467 sunny days. Sustained differences could result in reduced body condition. Smaller animals and
468 juveniles who typically have higher thermoneutral zones [59,71,72], animals facing low food
469 availability [73], or activity restriction (e.g., during rain) [74], may particularly benefit from
470 warmer (dark) boxes in winter. Expanding these biophysical approaches to account for
471 additional behavioral and physiological mechanisms used by some fauna (e.g., huddling,
472 torpor, passive re-warming) [75–78] and testing predictions against observed responses could
473 further enhance their utility.

474

475 Several studies have shown that orientation affects nest box temperatures, with boxes
476 receiving more direct solar radiation during the hottest period of the day recording the highest
477 temperatures [31]. We found that solar radiation, as mediated by canopy openness, increased
478 the temperature in glider and possum boxes; however, this effect varied between seasons.
479 During winter, north-facing glider and possum boxes were warmer and deviated more from
480 ambient conditions than those facing south, while in summer, orientation had minimal effect.
481 This pattern was most likely driven by variation in the angle of the sun in the sky, which is at
482 its highest during summer (68.6–73.4° during our summer survey period), and lowest during
483 winter (29.4–33.4° during the winter survey). Hence, in summer there are minimal daytime
484 shadows cast in any direction [4] and exposure to solar radiation was probably equivalent for
485 north- and south-facing glider and possum boxes. In contrast, in winter north-facing boxes
486 may have experienced more direct solar radiation than those facing south, which were
487 probably blocked from radiation for a large part of the day by the tree trunks [28,79]. Our
488 findings are consistent with previous research showing that the interplay between solar
489 radiation and canopy cover can influence nest box temperatures beyond the effect of box
490 orientation alone. For example, Ardia *et al.* [80] found that while nest box orientation and
491 cavity temperatures in open fields were correlated during spring, there was no effect of
492 orientation in summer. Hence, orientation alone may not be useful as a general predictor of
493 nest box exposure to solar radiation, so canopy cover at installation sites needs to be
494 considered in combination with both box orientation and color.

495

496 It is unclear whether manipulating paint color can not only alter reflectance, but also increase
497 the contrast between the box and the tree trunk, making it more conspicuous to predators and
498 therefore less attractive to target taxa. An example of this is the interaction between bats and
499 their aerial predators. Predatory birds are known to capture bats as they alight to trees [67],
500 therefore bats landing on the entrance to a bat box painted a high contrast color (such as
501 white), compared to the trunk or branch of a tree, may be more easily visible and therefore
502 more likely to be captured. While several studies have shown that bats will use boxes painted
503 colors other than green or brown, including both black and white [40–42], to date none have
504 specifically investigated associated changes to predation risk. This issue has received some
505 attention for birds occupying boxes, with multiple studies showing lower rates of nest
506 predation for birds using nest boxes compared to natural hollows [22,81]; however, it is
507 unclear whether use of boxes increases or decreases rates of predation for adult birds [82,83].
508 Our results indicate that large differences in thermal profiles can be achieved by painting
509 boxes colors that, at least to some level, blend into the surrounding environment, such as dark-
510 green and light-green. Therefore, it may be possible to achieve a desired magnitude of
511 variation in box thermal profiles without using high contrast colors that maximize or minimize
512 reflectance (i.e., white or black respectively), but potentially make boxes more conspicuous to
513 predators. The relationship between box color and predation risk is an area that warrants
514 further research.

515

516 Our study has shown that altering box color (and therefore reflectance) is a simple, cheap,
517 flexible and effective means of manipulating the thermal profile of artificial hollows.
518 Additionally, by quantifying the solar reflectance of different paint colors, we were able to
519 highlight two factors not previously considered in the nest box literature. First, we found that
520 differences in perceived color alone may not provide an accurate estimate of the actual
521 difference in solar reflectance of colors typically used (for aesthetic reasons) in conservation
522 programs. Despite appearing to be quite similar, white-based and green-based light-green
523 paint had very different reflectance, with the latter being more similar to that of dark-green.
524 Only one other study to date has examined variation in thermal properties of nest boxes
525 painted typically-used colors [43], and our findings suggest that they may have failed to detect
526 any influence of brown versus green on maximum daytime temperatures because these two
527 colors had similar solar reflectance. Second, our data indicate that box colors commonly used

528 in nest box programs, for example various shades of dark-green [44], may potentially have
529 reflectance values that are very similar to black paint, the color with the lowest possible
530 reflectance, and thereby the largest influence on the difference between box temperatures and
531 ambient conditions [40–42,53]. These two novel findings highlight the benefit of measuring
532 the reflectance spectrum of color treatments, and examining the resultant variation in box
533 thermal profiles, prior to painting and installing boxes.

534

535 **Conclusion**

536 Nest boxes are increasingly being used in ecological offset programs to supplement the loss of
537 natural hollows caused by habitat clearing and other forms of disturbance [17,21,84,85]. The
538 thermal properties of daytime dens can significantly impact the daily allocation of energy and
539 water resources for hollow-dependent endotherms, and in turn their fitness [29,30,73].
540 Therefore, ensuring that nest boxes effectively mimic the characteristics of natural hollows
541 used by target wildlife, particularly during hot and cold weather extremes, remains a key
542 priority for management and offset programs [35].

543

544 In testing the effect of color on temperature profiles, we used nest boxes designed for three
545 groups of hollow-dependent mammals that range considerably in size and nesting behaviour:
546 insectivorous bats, marsupial gliders, and brushtail possums. Across the three different box
547 designs, dark-green (low reflectance) boxes experienced the highest average and maximum
548 daytime temperatures, had the greatest magnitude of difference in diurnal temperatures within
549 the box, and were consistently substantially warmer than light-green boxes (medium
550 reflectance), white boxes (high reflectance), and ambient air temperatures. As the designs of
551 the glider and possum boxes were similar to those commonly used for a number of bird taxa
552 (in terms of size, shape, and construction material) [15], we believe our findings are broadly
553 applicable when considering the thermal suitability of nest boxes as supplementary hollows
554 for a wide range of hollow-dependent mammals and birds. We recommend that nest box
555 programs use variations in color to influence box thermal properties, and consider the
556 reflectance spectrum of their color treatments. A pilot study undertaken prior to installing
557 boxes could provide a simple method of quantitatively testing whether different paint color
558 treatments achieve the desired magnitude and direction of variation in box temperatures.

559 Furthermore, using several different colors and installing boxes across a range of both
560 orientations and shade profiles (i.e., levels of canopy cover), will ensure target animals have
561 access to artificial hollows with a broad range of thermal profiles, and can therefore choose
562 boxes with optimal thermal conditions across different seasons.

563 **Acknowledgements**

564 We thank Sonja Dechian, Robert Bender, John Salisbury, Michael Bajer, Peter Rowland,
565 Susan Pepper and Kristin Semmens for assistance during fieldwork, and Casey Visintin for
566 drafting the CAD nest box diagrams. SRG is supported by an Australian Government
567 Research Training Program Scholarship. PEL and NJB are supported by the Australian
568 Government's National Environmental Science Program Threatened Species Recovery Hub.
569

570 **References**

- 571 1. Gibbons P, Lindenmayer DB, Barry SC, Tanton MT. Hollow selection by vertebrate
572 fauna in forests of southeastern Australia and implications for forest management. *Biol*
573 *Conserv.* 2002;103: 1–12. doi:10.1016/S0006-3207(01)00109-4
- 574 2. Webb JK, Shine R. Out on a limb: conservation implications of tree-hollow use by a
575 threatened snake species (*Hoplocephalus bungaroides*: Serpentes, Elapidae). *Biol*
576 *Conserv.* 1997;81: 21–33. doi:10.1016/S0006-3207(96)00160-7
- 577 3. Newton I. The role of nest sites in limiting the number of hole nesting birds, a review.
578 *Biol Conserv.* 1994;70: 265–276. doi:10.1016/0006-3207(94)90172-4
- 579 4. Nowak RM. Walker's Mammals of the World. Baltimore: The John Hopkins University
580 Press; 1999.
- 581 5. Kunz TH, Lumsden LF. Ecology of cavity and foliage roosting bats. In: Kunz TH,
582 Fenton MB, editors. *Bat Ecology*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press; 2003. pp. 3–
583 89.
- 584 6. Turbill C, Geiser F. Hibernation by tree-roosting bats. *J Comp Physiol B.* 2008;178:
585 597–605. doi:10.1007/s00360-007-0249-1
- 586 7. Rhodes M. Roost fidelity and fission-fusion dynamics of white-striped free-tailed bats
587 (*Tadarida australis*). *J Mammal.* 2007;88: 1252–1260. doi:10.1644/06-MAMM-A-
588 374R1.1
- 589 8. Gibbons P, Lindenmayer DB. *Tree Hollows and Wildlife Conservation in Australia*.
590 Melbourne: CSIRO Publishing; 2002.
- 591 9. Wiebe KL. Microclimate of tree cavity nests: is it important for reproductive success in
592 northern flickers? *Auk.* 2001;118: 412–421. doi:10.1642/0004-
593 8038(2001)118[0412:MOTCNI]2.0.CO;2
- 594 10. Lentini PE, Bird TJ, Griffiths SR, Godinho LN, Wintle BA. A global synthesis of
595 survival estimates for microbats. *Biol Lett.* 2015;11: 20150371.

- 596 doi:10.1098/rsbl.2015.0371
- 597 11. Wiebe KL. Nest sites as limiting resources for cavity-nesting birds in mature forest
598 ecosystems: a review of the evidence. *J F Ornithol.* 2011;82: 239–248.
599 doi:10.1111/j.1557-9263.2011.00327.x
- 600 12. Manning AD, Gibbons P, Fischer J, Oliver DL, Lindenmayer DB. Hollow futures? Tree
601 decline, lag effects and hollow-dependent species. *Anim Conserv.* 2013;16: 395–403.
602 doi:10.1111/acv.12006
- 603 13. Kavanagh RP, Stanton MA, Herring MW. Eucalypt plantings on farms benefit
604 woodland birds in south-eastern Australia. *Austral Ecol.* 2007;32: 635–650.
605 doi:10.1111/j.1442-9993.2007.01746.x
- 606 14. Hodgkison S, Hero JM, Warnken J. The efficacy of small-scale conservation efforts, as
607 assessed on Australian golf courses. *Biol Conserv.* 2007;135: 576–586.
608 doi:10.1016/j.biocon.2006.11.001
- 609 15. Goldingay RL, Stevens JR. Use of artificial tree hollows by Australian birds and bats.
610 *Wildl Res.* 2009;36: 81–97. doi:10.1071/WR08064
- 611 16. Lindenmayer DB, Wood J, McBurney L, Michael D, Crane M, Macgregor C, et al.
612 Cross-sectional vs. longitudinal research: a case study of trees with hollows and
613 marsupials in Australian forests. *Ecol Monogr.* 2011;81: 557–580. doi:10.1890/11-
614 0279.1
- 615 17. Lindenmayer DB, Crane M, Blanchard W, Okada S, Montague-Drake R. Do nest boxes
616 in restored woodlands promote the conservation of hollow-dependent fauna? *Restor*
617 *Ecol.* 2015;24: 244–251. doi:10.1111/rec.12306
- 618 18. Lindenmayer DB, Welsh A, Donnelly C, Crane M, Michael D, Macgregor C, et al. Are
619 nest boxes a viable alternative source of cavities for hollow-dependent animals? Long-
620 term monitoring of nest box occupancy, pest use and attrition. *Biol Conserv.* 2009;142:
621 33–42. doi:10.1016/j.biocon.2008.09.026
- 622 19. Flaquer C, Torre I, Ruiz-Jarillo R. The value of bat-boxes in the conservation of
623 *Pipistrellus pygmaeus* in wetland rice paddies. *Biol Conserv.* 2005;128: 223–230.
624 doi:10.1016/j.biocon.2005.09.030
- 625 20. Berthier K, Leippert F, Fumagalli L, Arlettaz R. Massive nest-box supplementation
626 boosts fecundity, survival and even immigration without altering mating and
627 reproductive behaviour in a rapidly recovered bird population. *PLoS One.* 2012;7:
628 e36028. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0036028
- 629 21. Goldingay RL, Rueegger NN, Grimson MJ, Taylor BD. Specific nest box designs can
630 improve habitat restoration for cavity-dependent arboreal mammals. *Restor Ecol.*
631 2015;23: 482–490. doi:10.1111/rec.12208
- 632 22. Lambrechts MM, Adriaensen F, Ardia DR, Artemyev A V, Atienzar F, Banbura J, et al.
633 The design of artificial nestboxes for the study of secondary hole-nesting birds: a

- 634 review of methodological inconsistencies and potential biases. *Acta Ornithol.* 2010;45:
635 1–26. doi:10.3161/000164510X516047
- 636 23. Rueegger N. Bat boxes - a review of their use and application, past, present and future.
637 *Acta Chiropterologica.* 2016;18: 279–299. doi:10.3161/15081109ACC2016.18.1.017
- 638 24. McComb WC, Noble RE. Invertebrate use of natural tree cavities and vertebrate nesting
639 boxes. *Am Mild Nat.* 1982;107: 163–172. doi:10.2307/2425197
- 640 25. Glorioso BM, Hardin Waddle J. A review of pipe and bamboo artificial refugia as
641 sampling tools in anuran studies. *Herpetol Conserv Biol.* 2014;9: 609–625.
- 642 26. McComb WC, Noble RE. Herpetofaunal use of natural tree cavities and nest boxes.
643 *Wildl Soc Bull.* 1981;9: 261–267.
- 644 27. Fokidis HB, Risch TS. The use of nest boxes to sample arboreal vertebrates. *Southeast*
645 *Nat.* 2005;4: 447–458. doi:10.1656/1528-7092(2005)004[0447:TUONBT]2.0.CO;2
- 646 28. Isaac JL, Parsons M, Goodman BA. How hot do nest boxes get in the tropics? A study
647 of nest boxes for the endangered mahogany glider. *Wildl Res.* 2008;35: 441–445.
648 doi:10.1071/WR08016
- 649 29. Huey RB. Physiological consequences of habitat selection. *Am Nat.* 1991;137: S91.
650 doi:10.1086/285141
- 651 30. Kearney M, Porter WP. Mechanistic niche modelling: combining physiological and
652 spatial data to predict species' ranges. *Ecol Lett.* 2009;12: 334–350.
653 doi:10.1111/j.1461-0248.2008.01277.x
- 654 31. Mering ED, Chambers CL. Thinking outside the box: a review of artificial roosts for
655 bats. *Wildl Soc Bull.* 2014;38: 741–751. doi:10.1002/wsb.461
- 656 32. Amat-Valero M, Calero-Torralbo MA, Vaclav R, Valera F. Cavity types and
657 microclimate: implications for ecological, evolutionary, and conservation studies. *Int J*
658 *Biometeorol.* 2014;58: 1983–1994. doi:10.1007/s00484-014-0801-0
- 659 33. Bartonicka T, Rehak Z. Influence of the microclimate of bat boxes on their occupation
660 by the soprano pipistrelle *Pipistrellus pygmaeus*: possible cause of roost switching.
661 *Acta Chiropterologica.* 2007;9: 517–526. doi:10.3161/1733-
662 5329(2007)9[517:IOTMOB]2.0.CO;2
- 663 34. McComb WC, Noble RE. Microclimates of nest boxes and natural cavities in
664 bottomland hardwoods. *J Wildl Manage.* 1981;45: 284–289. doi:10.2307/3807906
- 665 35. Rowland JA, Briscoe NJ, Handasyde KA. Comparing the thermal suitability of nest-
666 boxes and tree-hollows for the conservation-management of arboreal marsupials. *Biol*
667 *Conserv.* 2017;209: 341–348. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.biocon.2017.02.006
- 668 36. Velký M, Kaňuch P, Krištín A. Selection of winter roosts in the Great Tit *Parus major*:
669 influence of microclimate. *J Ornithol.* 2010;151: 147–153. doi:10.1007/s10336-009-
670 0436-9

- 671 37. Catry I, Franco AMA, Sutherland WJ. Adapting conservation efforts to face climate
672 change: modifying nest-site provisioning for lesser kestrels. *Biol Conserv.* 2011;144:
673 1111–1119. doi:10.1016/j.biocon.2010.12.030
- 674 38. Brittingham MC, Williams LM. Bat boxes as alternative roosts for displaced bat
675 maternity colonies. *Wildl Soc Bull.* 2000;28: 197–207.
- 676 39. Nussear KE, Simandle ET, Tracy CR. Misconceptions about colour, infrared radiation,
677 and energy exchange between animals and their environments. *Herpetol J.* 2000;10:
678 119–122.
- 679 40. Lourenco SI, Palmeirim JM. Influence of temperature in roost selection by *Pipistrellus*
680 *pygmaeus* (Chiroptera): relevance for the design of bat boxes. *Biol Conserv.* 2004;119:
681 237–243. doi:10.1016/j.biocon.2003.11.006
- 682 41. Fukui D, Okazaki K, Miyazaki M, Maeda K. The effect of roost environment on roost
683 selection by non-reproductive and dispersing Asian parti-coloured bats *Vespertilio*
684 *sinensis*. *Mammal Study.* 2010;109: 99–109. doi:10.3106/041.035.0207
- 685 42. Kerth G, Weissmann K, König B. Day roost selection in female Bechstein's bats
686 (*Myotis bechsteinii*): a field experiment to determine the influence of roost temperature.
687 *Oecologia.* 2001;126: 1–9. doi:10.1007/s004420000489
- 688 43. Goldingay RL. Temperature variation in nest boxes in eastern Australia. *Aust Mammal.*
689 2015;37: 225–233. doi:10.1071/AM14040
- 690 44. Roads and Traffic Authority. Biodiversity Guidelines: Protecting and Managing
691 Biodiversity on RTA Projects. New South Wales, Australia; 2011.
- 692 45. Australian Bureau of Meteorology. Climate Data Online [Internet]. 2016. Available:
693 <http://www.bom.gov.au/climate/data/>
- 694 46. The State of Victoria, Department of Environment, Land W and P. Planning scheme
695 Urban Growth Boundary - Vicmap Planning [Internet]. 2017. Available:
696 [http://www.data.vic.gov.au/data/dataset/planning-scheme-urban-growth-boundary-](http://www.data.vic.gov.au/data/dataset/planning-scheme-urban-growth-boundary-vicmap-planning)
697 [vicmap-planning](http://www.data.vic.gov.au/data/dataset/planning-scheme-urban-growth-boundary-vicmap-planning)
- 698 47. Geosciences Australia. Geodata Coast 100K 2004 [Internet]. 2004. Available:
699 http://www.ga.gov.au/metadata-gateway/metadata/record/gcat_61395
- 700 48. Kearney M, Ferguson E, Fumei S, Gallacher A, Mitchell P, Woodford R, et al. A cost-
701 effective method of assessing thermal habitat quality for endotherms. *Austral Ecol.*
702 2011;36: 297–302. doi:10.1111/j.1442-9993.2010.02150.x
- 703 49. Tuttle MD, Kiser M, Kiser S. The Bat House Builder's Hand-book. Texas: Bat
704 Conservation International; 2013.
- 705 50. Beyer GL, Goldingay RL. The value of nest boxes in the research and management of
706 Australian hollow-using arboreal marsupials. *Wildl Res.* 2006;33: 161–174.
707 doi:10.1071/wr04109

- 708 51. Franks A, Franks S. Nest Boxes for Wildlife: A Practical Guide. Melbourne, Australia:
709 Bloomings Books; 2003.
- 710 52. Wendlandt WW, Hecht HG. Reflectance Spectroscopy. Interscience New York; 1966.
- 711 53. Doty AC, Stawski C, Currie SE, Geiser F. Black or white? Physiological implications
712 of roost colour and choice in a microbat. *J Therm Biol.* 2016;60: 162–170.
713 doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jtherbio.2016.07.015
- 714 54. Beckschafer P, Seidel D, Kleinn C, Xu JC. On the exposure of hemispherical
715 photographs in forests. *iForest - Biogeosciences For.* 2013;6: 228–237.
716 doi:10.3832/ifor0957-006
- 717 55. Frazer GW, Canham CD, Lertzman KP. Gap Light Analyzer (GLA), Version 2.0:
718 Imaging software to extract canopy structure and gap light transmission indices from
719 true-colour fisheye photographs, users manual and program documentation. New York:
720 Simon Fraser University; 1999.
- 721 56. R Development Core Team. R: A Language and Environment for Statistical
722 Computing. R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna. 2011. doi:10.1007/978-3-
723 540-74686-7
- 724 57. Havera SP. Temperature variation in a Fox Squirrel nest box. *J Wildl Manage.* 1979;43:
725 251–253. doi:10.2307/3800666
- 726 58. Dawson TJ, Hulbert AJ. Standard metabolism, body temperature, and surface areas of
727 Australian marsupials. *Am J Physiol.* 1970;218: 1233–1238.
- 728 59. Porter WP, Kearney M. Size, shape, and the thermal niche of endotherms. *Proc Natl*
729 *Acad Sci U S A.* 2009;106: 19666–19672. doi:10.1073/pnas.0907321106
- 730 60. Clinchy M, Taylor AC, Zannette LY, Krebs CJ, Jarman PJ. Body size, age and paternity
731 in common brushtail possums (*Trichosurus vulpecula*). *Mol Ecol.* 2004;13: 195–202.
732 doi:10.1046/j.1365-294X.2003.02029.x
- 733 61. Robinson KW, Morrison PR. The reaction to hot atmospheres of various species of
734 Australian marsupial and placental animals. *J Cell Comp Physiol.* 1957;49: 455–478.
735 doi:10.1002/jcp.1030490306
- 736 62. Geiser F, Brigham RM. Torpor, thermal biology, and energetics in Australian long-
737 eared bats (*Nyctophilus*). *J Comp Physiol B.* 2000;170: 153–162.
- 738 63. Bronner GN, Maloney SK, Buffenstein R. Survival tactics within thermally-challenging
739 roosts: heat tolerance and cold sensitivity in the Angolan free-tailed bat, *Mops*
740 *condylurus*. *South African J Zool.* 1999;34: 1–10.
741 doi:10.1080/02541858.1999.11448481
- 742 64. Licht P, Leitner P. Behavioral responses to high temperatures in three species of
743 California bats. *J Mammal.* 1967;48: 52–61. doi:10.2307/1378169
- 744 65. Dawson TJ. Temperature regulation and evaporative water loss in the brush-tailed

- 745 possum *Trichosurus vulpecula*. *Comp Biochem Physiol*. Elsevier; 1969;28: 401–407.
746 doi:10.1016/0010-406X(69)91353-X
- 747 66. Bondarenco A, Kortner G, Geiser F. Hot bats: extreme thermal tolerance in a desert
748 heat wave. *Naturwissenschaften*. 2014;101: 679–685. doi:10.1007/s00114-014-1202-2
- 749 67. Speakman JR, Lumsden LF, Hays GC. Predation rates on bats released to fly during
750 daylight in south-eastern Australia. *J Zool*. 1994;233: 318–321. doi:10.1111/j.1469-
751 7998.1994.tb08593.x
- 752 68. McLean JA, Speakman JR. Energy budgets of lactating and non-reproductive brown
753 long-eared bats (*Plecotus auritus*) suggest females use compensation in lactation. *Funct*
754 *Ecol*. 1999;13: 360–372.
- 755 69. Fitzpatrick MJ, Mathewson PD, Porter WP. Validation of a mechanistic model for non-
756 invasive study of ecological energetics in an endangered wading bird with counter-
757 current heat exchange in its legs. *PLoS One*. 2015;10: e0136677.
758 doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0136677
- 759 70. Mathewson PD, Porter WP. Simulating polar bear energetics during a seasonal fast
760 using a mechanistic model. *PLoS One*. 2013;8: e72863.
761 doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0072863
- 762 71. Aschoff J. Thermal conductance in mammals and birds - its dependence on body size
763 and circadian phase. *Comp Biochem Physiol A - Mol Integr Physiol*. 1981;69: 611–
764 619. doi:10.1016/0300-9629(81)90145-6
- 765 72. Holloway JC, Geiser F. Development of thermoregulation in the sugar glider *Petaurus*
766 *breviceps* (Marsupialia : Petauridae). *J Zool*. 2000;252: 389–397. doi:10.1111/j.1469-
767 7998.2000.tb00634.x
- 768 73. Speakman JR. Factors influencing the daily energy expenditure of small mammals.
769 *Proc Nutr Soc*. 1997;56: 1119–1136. doi:10.1079/PNS19970115
- 770 74. van den Oord QGW, van Wijk EJA, Lugton IW, Morris RS, Holmes CW. Effects of air
771 temperature, air movement and artificial rain on the heat production of brushtail
772 possums (*Trichosurus vulpecula*: an exploratory study. *N Z Vet J*. 1995;43: 328–332.
773 doi:dx.doi.org/10.1080/00480169.1995.35914
- 774 75. Boyles JG, Storm JJ, Brack V. Thermal benefits of clustering during hibernation: a field
775 test of competing hypotheses on *Myotis sodalis*. *Funct Ecol*. 2008;22: 632–636.
776 doi:10.1111/j.1365-2435.2008.01423.x
- 777 76. Willis CKR, Brigham RM. Social thermoregulation exerts more influence than
778 microclimate on forest roost preferences by a cavity-dwelling bat. *Behav Ecol*
779 *Sociobiol*. 2007;62: 97–108. doi:10.1007/s00265-007-0442-y
- 780 77. Geiser F. Metabolic rate and body temperature reduction during hibernation and daily
781 torpor. *Annu Rev Physiol*. 2004;66: 239–274.
782 doi:10.1146/annurev.physiol.66.032102.115105

- 783 78. Currie SE, Noy K, Geiser F. Passive rewarming from torpor in hibernating bats:
784 minimizing metabolic costs and cardiac demands. *Am J Physiol Integr Comp Physiol*.
785 2015;308: R34–R41. doi:10.1152/ajpregu.00341.2014
- 786 79. Harley DKP. Patterns of nest box use by Leadbeater’s Possum (*Gymnobelideus*
787 *leadbeateri*): applications to research and conservation. In: Goldingay RL, Jackson S,
788 editors. *The Biology of Australian Possums and Gliders*. Sydney: Surrey Beatty and
789 Sons; 2004. pp. 318–329.
- 790 80. Ardia DR, Pérez JH, Clotfelter ED. Nest box orientation affects internal temperature
791 and nest site selection by Tree Swallows. *J F Ornithol*. 2006;77: 339–344.
792 doi:10.1111/j.1557-9263.2006.00064.x
- 793 81. Moller AP. Parasites, predators and nest boxes: facts and artefacts in nest box studies of
794 birds? *Oikos*. 1989;56: 421–423. doi:10.2307/3565628
- 795 82. Mainwaring MC. The use of nestboxes by roosting birds during the non-breeding
796 season: a review of the costs and benefits. *Ardea*. 2011;99: 167–176.
797 doi:10.5253/078.099.0206
- 798 83. Mainwaring MC. The use of man-made structures as nesting sites by birds: a review of
799 the costs and benefits. *J Nat Conserv*. 2015;25: 17–22. doi:10.1016/j.jnc.2015.02.007
- 800 84. Le Roux DS, Ikin K, Lindenmayer DB, Bistricher G, Manning AD, Gibbons P.
801 Enriching small trees with artificial nest boxes cannot mimic the value of large trees for
802 hollow-nesting birds. *Restor Ecol*. 2015;24: 252–258. doi:10.1111/rec.12303
- 803 85. Le Roux DS, Ikin K, Lindenmayer DB, Bistricher G, Manning AD, Gibbons P. Effects
804 of entrance size, tree size and landscape context on nest box occupancy: considerations
805 for management and biodiversity offsets. *For Ecol Manage*. 2016;366: 135–142.
806 doi:10.1016/j.foreco.2016.02.017

807

808 **Supporting information**

809 **S1 Fig. Daytime maximum, mean and minimum (\pm SD) ambient temperature ($^{\circ}$ C).** Data
810 were recorded at: (a) five bat box sites in Melbourne, Australia, from 10 February to 15 April
811 2015, and at the La Trobe University Zoology Reserve (the glider and possum box site) during
812 (b) summer (7–29 January 2015) and (c) winter (10 July to 1 August 2015). (PPTX)

813

814 **S1 Dataset. All original data.** Bat box temperature data. (CSV)

815

816 **S2 Dataset. All original data.** Glider and possum box temperature data. (CSV)

817

818 **S3 Dataset. All original data.** Biophysical model and POSEM trial data. (CSV)