UNIVERSITY OF CAPE TOWN DEPARTMENT OF STATISTICAL SCIENCES MSc - Data Science Speacialisation 2021

STA5092Z - Exploratory Data Analysis Assignment 1 - 15%

<u>Due date:</u> Tuesday, 6 April 2021 at 6:00pm Late submissions will be penalised at 10% per day (pro rata)

GENERAL INSTRUCTIONS:

- Prepare a report that answers the questions. All analyses to be conducted via R and if you wish to use Python, be aware of the fact that exam language is in R. All code must be submitted both as an appendix and on Vula, and should include comments that clearly explain the purpose of the code.
- **NB:** The length of your report (excluding appendices) is limited to a maximum of **10 pages**. Any information beyond the 10th page will be ignored.
- You need to prepare your report in R Markdown format and submit both your final pdf as well as the .Rmd file. It would be nice if you could create the pdf in scientific writing format (ie. article).
- The submissions will be done on VULA under the assignments tab.
- Please attach a plagiarism declaration to your report. Plagiarism of any form will be reported to the university court.

The southern pied babbler (Turdoides bicolor) dataset

This problem dataset comes from the UCT's Zivahub:

https://zivahub.uct.ac.za/articles/dataset/Southern_Pied_Babbler_nestling_mass_tarsus_length_and_survival/12441899.

Data were collected for each austral summer breeding season from September 2005February 2019 (14 breeding seasons in total). For details of the research, please refer to the paper attached to the assignment here.

PART I - Data Wrangling

For this part, please use head(x, 5) to show your generated dataframes. Explain every step of your actions in detail.

- 1. Download the data from the following link: https://zivahub.uct.ac.za/articles/dataset/Southern_Pied_Babbler_nestling_mass_tarsus_length_and_survival/12441899
- 2. After unzipping the downloaded file, you will notice that there are 6 .csv files, and 3 of them are metadata, which describes the variables. Extract the data .csv files into R, convert them into tibble format.
- 3. Merge the two files on fledlings and nestlings into one single file called Spiedbabbler. Hints:
 - (i) You need to convert the date column into a proper date format.
 - (ii) Check the names of the variables in each datasets. Rename, select the variables where applicable.
 - (iii) Check the types of the variables in each file. Record any changes that are necessary to make sure that all variables are coded correctly and why?

PART II - Data Summaries and Visualizations

Use the merged dataset and attempt the following:

- 1. What is your total sample size for each year in the Spiedbabbler dataframe (tibble) you created in Part I?
- 2. Are there any missing values and outliers in the following variables? What is your definition of an outlier?
 - GrpSizeAd
 - GrpSizeTotal
 - Broodsize
 - Mass
 - TmaxMeas
 - No.ChicksFledge
 - Rain
 - Drought
- 3. Create a table for Mass and Date per nest.
- 4. Determine the differences between seasons. Hint: Use the temperature variable(s) for this.

- 5. Plot the Mass over time per nest, with the season variable being a factor grid. Colour code your points with different seasons. Hint: Axis scales.
- 6. Calculate the yearly average of Mass, Broodsize, GrpSizeTotal, No.ChicksFledge, Rain. Plot this information on a seasonal and/or Drought grid.
- 7. Finally create a plot that you think would be a useful information given this dataset.

- 1 Running head: Temperature drives offspring mortality
- 2 <u>Title: High temperatures drive offspring mortality in a cooperatively breeding bird</u>
- 3 Amanda R. Bourne*1, Susan J. Cunningham¹, Claire N. Spottiswoode^{1,2}, Amanda R. Ridley^{1,3}
- 4 *Corresponding author: Amanda Bourne <u>abourne.uct@gmail.com</u>
- ¹ FitzPatrick Institute of African Ornithology, DST-NRF Centre of Excellence, University of
- 6 Cape Town, Private Bag X3, Rondebosch 7701, South Africa
- ² Department of Zoology, University of Cambridge, Downing Street, Cambridge CB2 3EJ, UK
- 8 Centre for Evolutionary Biology, School of Biological Sciences, University of Western
- 9 Australia, Crawley 6009, Australia

Abstract

10

11

12

13

14

15

16

17

18

19

20

21

22

An improved understanding of life history responses to current environmental variability is required to predict species-specific responses to anthopogenic climate change. Previous research has suggested that cooperation in social groups may buffer individuals against some of the negative effects of unpredictable climates. We use a 15-year dataset on a cooperative-breeding arid-zone bird, the southern pied babbler *Turdoides bicolor*, to test i) whether environmental conditions and group size correlate with survival of young during three development stages (egg, nestling, fledgling), and ii) whether group size mitigates the impacts of adverse environmental conditions on survival of young. Exposure to high mean daily maximum temperatures (mean T_{max}) during early development was associated with reduced survival probabilities of young in all three development stages. No young survived when mean $T_{max} > 38^{\circ}$ C, across all group sizes. Low survival of young at high temperatures has broad implications for recruitment and population persistence in avian communities given the rapid pace of advancing climate change. Impacts of

high temperatures on survival of young were not moderated by group size, suggesting that the availability of more helpers in a group is unlikely to buffer against compromised offspring survival as average and maximum temperatures increase with rapid anthropogenic climate change.

Keywords: climate change, cooperative breeding, dryland ecology, environmental variability, survival of young, southern pied babbler

Introduction

Anthropogenic climate change has altered weather patterns in every ecosystem on Earth [1,2], with far-reaching consequences for population dynamics across taxa [3]. An improved understanding of life history responses to current environmental variability is required to predict species-specific responses to climate change [4]. While cooperative breeders occur in diverse habitats [5,6], comparative research has demonstrated that both cooperatively-breeding birds [7] and mammals [8] occur with disproportionate frequency in regions characterised by high spatial and temporal variability in environmental conditions. This implies that group living enhances the ability to persist in challenging environments [9]. To date, however, there are few empirical studies that explicitly test the extent to which group-living mitigates the effects of climate variability on reproduction [10–13]. Of these studies, only Langmore *et al.* (2016) and van de Ven *et al.* (2019) explore impacts of temperature alongside variation in group size, despite evidence of thermoregulatory benefits of group living [14], and only Covas *et al.* [13] consider offspring survival across more than one development stage. This latter point is important, because specific drivers of survival can differ substantially between development stages [15–17].

Temperature and rainfall patterns are important measures of climate variability, playing a critical role in offspring survival rates observed in vertebrates [18], and recent changes in temperature and rainfall patterns have led to adjustments to the timing and success of breeding in

some bird species [19,20]. For birds in arid environments, higher rainfall is often associated with improved offspring survival [21,22], droughts are associated with reduced offspring survival [23,24] and periods of very hot weather are typically associated with lower nest survival rates [15,25] and nestling growth rates [26–28]. Therefore, it is reasonable to expect that offspring survival and population persistence of birds in arid environments will be impacted as regions become hotter and drier under climate change [29,30].

Cooperative breeding, where more than two individuals rear a single brood [31], occurs in ~9% of bird species [32]. Reproductive benefits of cooperation include earlier fledging age and more broods raised per season [33], reduced costs of breeding for females [11,34], enhanced egg investment [35], increased fledgling recruitment [17,36], and the ability to raise overlapping broods [12,37]. Global comparative studies suggest that cooperative breeding evolved in unpredictable environments [38], facilitated the colonisation of such environments [39], or prevented extinction under increasingly harsh conditions [40]. One prominent explanation for the occurrence of cooperative breeding in birds in variable environments is that it represents a 'bethedging' strategy [38], whereby breeding individuals share the costs of reproduction with helpers and are thus able to reduce interannual variation in offspring survival in response to unpredictable rainfall and food availability [9]. This implies that cooperation might buffer breeding attempts from failure during adverse environmental conditions [13,41].

A likely mechanism underlying such benefits of cooperation is load-lightening [42], which refers to individual reductions in workload in response to the presence of additional group members. Load-lightening has been observed in a number of cooperatively-breeding species [11,16,43], and may operate via task-partitioning [37,44] or by improved access to resources [45,46]. In larger groups, there are more individuals available to assist with breeding attempts,

which can either lead to load-lightening amongst individual group members [11,37], or to cumulatively greater investment in young [36,47]. Both are potential benefits of group living that may be particularly advantageous when unfavourable rainfall or temperature conditions are experienced. Specifically, these effects could mean that larger groups are better able to maintain adequate levels of parental care to eggs, nestlings, and/or fledglings at high temperatures or during periods of low rainfall, despite individual declines in investment in parental care behaviours.

We use a comprehensive 15-year dataset on southern pied babblers *Turdoides bicolor* (hereafter 'pied babblers'), a cooperatively-breeding passerine endemic to the Kalahari in southern Africa, to explore the impacts of temperature, rainfall, and group size (the number of adults in the group, indicating the potential for the breeding pair to receive help) on the survival of young, including fledgling survival. Specifically, we test for effects of these parameters on survival of young from i) initiation of incubation to hatching; ii) hatching to fledging; and iii) fledging to nutritional independence at 90 days of age. We expected high temperatures to reduce survival, and high rainfall and larger group sizes to enhance survival during each development stage. If the presence of helpers buffers the effect of environmental variation on reproduction, as proposed by the temporal variability hypothesis [9], then we would expect an interaction between environmental factors and group size, such that weaker impacts of adverse climatic conditions on reproduction are observed in larger groups.

Materials and methods

Study site and system

Fieldwork was conducted at the Kuruman River Reserve (33 km², KRR; 26°58'S, 21°49'E) in the southern Kalahari. Mean summer daily maximum temperatures at the study site, from 1995-2015, averaged 34.7 ± 9.7°C and mean annual precipitation averaged 186.2 ± 87.5mm [48]. The Kalahari region is characterised by hot summers and periodic droughts [49], with extremely variable rainfall between years [50] and increases in both the frequency and severity of high temperature extremes over the last 20 years [51]. Pied babblers are medium-sized (60–90 g), cooperatively-breeding passerines endemic to the Kalahari where they live in territorial groups ranging in size from 3–15 adults [52]. They breed during the austral summer, from September to March [53]. Pied babbler groups consist of a single breeding pair with subordinate helpers [54], and all adult group members (individuals > 1 year old) engage in cooperative behaviours, including territory defence and parental care [53,55]. Previous research has shown that high temperatures and drought negatively affect many aspects of this species' ecology, including foraging efficiency, body mass maintenance, interannual survival, and provisioning of young [56–59].

Birds in the study population are marked as nestlings with a metal band (engraved with a unique number) and a unique combination of up to three colour rings for individual identification, and are habituated to observation at distances of 1–5 m [55]. Habituated groups are visited weekly during the breeding season to check group composition and record life history events, including breeding activity.

Data collection

Data were collected for each austral summer breeding season from September 2005–February 2019 (14 breeding seasons in total).

Nest life history data

Nest monitoring (location of nests, determination of incubation, hatch, and fledge or failure dates, records of group size and brood size) followed Ridley & van den Heuvel [33]. Nests were located by observing nest-building, and incubation start, hatch and fledge dates were determined by checking nests every 2-3 days. Breeding attempts were considered to have failed when nests were no longer attended, or when dependent fledglings were not seen on two consecutive visits. Failure dates were calculated as the midpoint between the date of the last pre-fail nest/group check and the date when the nest was no longer attended or the fledgling was missing. In most cases, it was not possible to determine the proximate cause of nest failure or death, although common causes of nest failure in this species include predation, abandonment, and nestling starvation [52,60].

Group size (mean = 4.2 ± 1.5 , range: 2–10 adults) was recorded for each nest incubated. Brood size was recorded 11 days after hatching (mean = 2.7 ± 0.8 , range: 1–5 nestlings), when nestlings were ringed. We defined early development as the period between initiation of incubation and nutritional independence at 90 days of age [55]. Average time from initiation of incubation to hatching is 14 ± 1.2 days. Average time between hatching and fledging is 15.4 ± 1.7 days. Pied babblers are nutrionally independent (receiving < 1 feed per hour) by 90 days of age [55].

Sexing & nestling mass

Pied babblers are sexually monomorphic (Ridley, 2016) and molecular sexing was used to determine the sex of individuals (*sensu* Fridolfsson & Ellegren 1999). Blood samples were collected by brachial venipuncture and stored in Longmire's lysis buffer. Nestlings were ringed, blood sampled, and weighed to 0.1 g (Mass₁₁) on a top-pan scale 11 days post-hatching.

Temperature and rainfall

Daily maximum temperature (°C) and rainfall (mm) data were collected from an on-site weather station (Vantage Pro2, Davis Instruments, Hayward, USA). Missing weather data from 2009, 2010, and 2011 were sourced from a nearby South African Weather Services weather station (Van Zylsrus, 28 km away), which produces significantly repeatable temperature measurements and moderately repeatable rainfall measurements, adequately detecting detecting wet vs. dry periods, in comparison with the on-site weather station [63].

Daily minimum (T_{min}) and maxium (T_{max}) temperatures, and daily temperature variation (T_{max} - T_{min}), were averaged for each development stage: incubation (mean T_{minInc} , mean T_{maxInc} , mean T_{varInc}), nestling (mean $T_{minBrood}$, mean $T_{maxBrood}$, mean $T_{varBrood}$), and fledgling (mean T_{min90} , mean T_{max90} , mean T_{var90}). Rainfall was summed for the 60 days prior to initiation of incubation ($Rain_{60}$), and for the period between fledging and independence ($Rain_{90}$).

Statistical analyses

Statistical analyses were conducted in R version 3.6.0 [64]. All continuous explanatory variables were scaled by centering and standardising by the mean [65,66]. All explanatory variables were tested for correlation with one another [67]. Mean T_{max90} and mean T_{min90} were correlated (VIF = 2.8,correlation coefficient = 0.77) and all other explanatory variables were not correlated with

each other (all VIF < 1.3, correlation coefficient < 0.30). Correlated variables were not included in the same additive models. Unless otherwise indicated, summary statistics are presented as mean \pm one standard deviation. Analyses exclude groups > 8 due to small sample sizes for groups of 9 (n = 5) and 10 (n = 1) over 15 years of records. A quadratic term for temperature was included as a predictor variable only when no main linear effect of temperature was found and visual inspection of the data suggested a non-linear relationship. Sensitivity power analyses, using the package pwr [68], indicated that we had sufficient statistical power to detect effects of two-way interactions given our sample sizes [69,70], see Table S1. We tested for temporal trends in environmental (temperature and rainfall) and reproductive (nest success, fledgling survival) parameters using univariate linear models with breeding season as the only predictor. Covariates exhibiting temporal trends were detrended prior to inclusion in our models using the *detrend* function in the package pracma [71].

Survival probabilities during each development stage

Pied babbler survival probabilities are not constant across time during early development [53], see Fig. S1, and covariates are unlikely to have the same relationship with survival during all three early development stages. We used generalised linear mixed-effects models (GLMMs) with a binomial distribution and a logit link function in the package *lme4* [72] to determine which variables best predicted survival probabilities during each development stage. These analyses were undertaken at the level of the breeding attempt (i.e. clutch or brood) because individual offspring were only ringed for individual identification from the 11th day after hatching, by which time ~60% of monitored breeding attempts had failed. Model selection using Akaike's information criterion corrected for small sample size (AICc), with maximum likelihood estimation was used to test a series of models to determine which model/s best explained patterns

of variation in the data [65]. Where several models were within 5 AICc of the top model, top model sets were averaged using the package *MuMIn* [73]. Model terms with confidence intervals not intersecting zero were considered to explain significant patterns in our data (Grueber, Nakagawa, Laws, & Jamieson, 2011). Binomial model fits were tested against the dispersion parameter in the package *RVAideMemoire* [75].

We considered the influence of the following parameters on (i) the probability of at least one egg per clutch surviving to hatch, (ii) the probability of at least one nestling per brood surviving to fledge, and (iii) the probability of at least one fledgling per brood surviving to nutritional independence: for (i) group size, Rain₆₀, mean T_{minInc} , mean T_{maxInc} , and mean T_{varInc} , for (ii) group size, Rain₆₀, mean $T_{minBrood}$, mean $T_{varBrood}$, mean $T_{maxBrood}$, and mean $T_{maxBrood}^2$, and for (iii) group size, Rain₉₀, mean T_{min90} , mean T_{var90} , mean T_{max90} , and mean T_{max90}^2 . We tested two-way interactions between rainfall, T_{max} , and group size variables in each analysis, and, in order to account for non-independence of data, we included group identity as a random term in all three analyses.

In order to contribute data that can be incorporated into mechanistic modelling of the effects of climate change on avian populations [4], we further sought to identify the threshold T_{max} ('breakpoints') above which survival was compromised during each development stage. We used the package *segmented* [76] to apply a Davies' test for a non-zero difference-in-slope and, when the regression parameter in the linear predictor was non-constant, to identify a point estimate and 95% confidence interval for the breakpoint. We then fitted simple linear regression models for the data above and below the identified breakpoints with temperature (mean T_{maxInc} , mean $T_{maxBrood}$, and mean T_{max90} respectively) as the only predictor, and survival per breeding attempt as the response. In the segmented regressions, we used a continuous form of the survival

response, specifically (i) the number of days between initiation of incubation and either the hatching of at least one egg or failure of the breeding attempt before hatching (age at hatch/fail), (ii) the number of days between hatching and fledging at least one nestling from a brood or failure (age at fledge/fail), and (iii) the number of days between fledging and at least one fledgling surviving to nutritional independence or failure (age at survival/fail).

Influence of nestling mass on fledgling survival

In addition to survival data at the scale of the breeding attempt, we have detailed individual-level survival data for 372 fledglings weighed and banded as 11-day-old nestlings. Larger nestling mass is commonly associated with higher survival probabilities in birds [16,77]. Prior research on pied babblers has shown that nestling mass is influenced by environmental factors such as temperature and rainfall [57]. We therefore used a confirmatory path analysis [78,79] to test for indirect effects of environmental and group size factors on survival to nutritional independence in known individual fledglings mediated via their mass as a nestling (Mass₁₁). We computed the path analysis using the R package *piecewiseSEM* [80], which can accommodate multiple error structures. This capacity is important because the response terms of our component models have different distributions (see below). While model selection processes can be applied to multiple path analyses [81], our goal was not to choose between competing hypotheses, and but rather to construct a single model testing the relative importance of direct effects of environmental and group size factors vs. effects mediated via nestling mass. Path analysis allowed us to specify and simultaneously quantify all hypothesised relationships of interest, including the indirect effects of weather and group size on survival via nestling mass. Path coefficients are partial regression coefficients and can be interpreted similarly to simple and multiple regression outputs. Statistical significance was taken as p < 0.05. We hypothesised that:

198

199

200

201

202

203

204

205

206

207

208

209

210

211

212

213

214

215

216

217

218

219

Survival would be negatively affected by i) high temperatures during the nestling and fledgling stages, ii) low rainfall between fledging and independence, iii) smaller group size, and iv) low nestling body mass (model with binomial error structure).

Nestling body mass would be negatively affected by i) high mean temperatures during the nestling period, ii) low rainfall prior to the nestling period, and iii) smaller group size (model with Gaussian error structure).

Results

Temporal patterns in temperature, rainfall and reproduction

Most rain falls between Dec and Feb (72%), when temperatures are high (Fig.1a). Most pied babbler breeding activity occurs between Oct and Dec (68%), when conditions are generally drier and cooler than later in the season (Fig.1a). The total number of days (Oct–Mar) exceeding 35.5° C, identified as a critical temperature threshold in pied babblers [56,57], has increased significantly at the study site since 2005 ($F_{I,I2} = 7.448$, p = 0.018; Fig.1b). Total summer rainfall (Oct–Mar) over the same time period was highly variable but showed a declining, non-statistically significant trend ($F_{I,I2} = 1.616$, p = 0.228; Fig.1c). Both the number of nests fledged (a non-significant trend; $F_{I,I2} = 3.747$, p = 0.077; Fig.1d) and the number of surviving young produced ($F_{I,I2} = 5,285$, p = 0.040; Fig.1e) have declined at the study site since 2005, despite the number of groups monitored remaining relatively constant between years (coefficient of variation = 0.17).

Survival probabilities during each development stage

Overall, $31.4 \pm 10.9\%$ of breeding attempts produced at least one fledgling that survived to nutritional independence. Mean (\pm se) survival probabilities of young differed between life

stages (incubation, nestling, dependent fledgling), with lower survival probabilities during early development in the nest, on average, than post-fledging (Fig. S1c).

Of 489 breeding attempts by 50 groups over 14 breeding seasons, 339 hatched (69.3%). The probability of at least one egg per clutch hatching decreased as mean daily maximum temperatures (mean T_{maxInc}) increased (Table 1a). We found no evidence that mean T_{minInc} , mean T_{varInc} , rainfall or group size, or interactions between environmental conditions, influenced the probability of hatching (see Table S2 for full model output). For the period between initiation of incubation and hatching, a breakpoint was detected at 35.4°C (95% CI: 33.9, 36.9): there was no effect of mean T_{maxInc} on age at hatch/fail below 35.4°C ($F_{I,399} = 0.008$, p = 0.926), whereas above 35.4°C, age at hatch/fail significantly declined with increasing temperature ($F_{I,85} = 9.490$, p = 0.003, Fig. 2a).

Of 339 hatched nests by 46 groups over 14 breeding seasons, 210 fledged at least one chick (61.9%). The probability of at least one nestling per brood surviving to fledge increased with increasing mean daily maximum temperatures during the nestling period (mean $T_{maxBrood}$) until ~33.1°C, above which survival probability decreased (Table 1b). We found no evidence that mean $T_{minBrood}$, mean $T_{varBrood}$, rainfall or group size, or interactions between group size and environmental conditions, influenced the probability of fledging (see Table S3 for full model output). For the period between hatching and fledging a breakpoint was detected at 37.3°C (95% CI: 36.5, 38.0). Age at fledge/fail tended to increase with increasing mean $T_{maxBrood}$ until 37.3°C ($F_{I,317} = 3.239$, $P_{I,20} = 0.073$), above which age at fledge/fail declined significantly with increasing temperature ($F_{I,20} = 13.370$, $P_{I,20} = 0.002$, Fig. 2b). At mean $T_{maxBrood} > 38$ °C (n=12), no nests fledged young.

Of 198 fledged broods with complete weather data by 36 groups over 14 breeding seasons, 160 produced at least one fledgling that survived to nutritional independence (80.8%). The probability of surviving to nutritional independence increased as rainfall during the post-fledging period increased (Rain₉₀; Table 1c). We found no evidence that mean $T_{min_{90c}}$, mean $T_{max₉₀}$, mean $T_{var₉₀}$, group size or interactions between group size and environmental conditions influenced the probability of fledgling survival to independence (see Table S4 for full model output). We also found no evidence for a breakpoint in the data related to variation in mean $T_{max₉₀}$ for the period between fledging and independence (Davies' test p = 0.288). While temperature was not a significant predictor of survival to nutritional independence in either of the model sets, no breeding attempts produced surviving young at mean $T_{max₉₀} > 38$ °C (n=8).

Influence of nestling mass on fledgling survival

The confirmatory path analysis model explained 47% of the variation in survival from fledging to independence (Fig. 3; $X^2 = 0.689$, p = 0.708). Higher Rain₉₀ was directly associated with an increased probability of surviving to independence, and larger group sizes were indirectly associated with increased survival via the positive effect of larger group size on nestling Mass₁₁. High mean T_{maxBrood} was associated with reduced survival both directly and indirectly (high mean T_{maxBrood} was associated with reduced nestling mass, which in turn predicted reduced survival). There was no evidence for a direct effect of either mean T_{max90} or natal group size on survival to independence, or an effect of rainfall prior to the breeding attempt (Rain₆₀) on nestling Mass₁₁.

Specifically, larger nestlings were more likely to survive to independence (Est = 0.116, p = 0.019), as were fledglings that experienced higher Rain₉₀ (Est = 0.750, p < 0.001). However, fledglings were less likely to survive (Est = -0.169, p = 0.003) when they had experienced higher

mean $T_{maxBrood}$. Nestlings were heavier when raised by larger groups (Est = 0.118, p = 0.021) and lighter when they experienced higher mean $T_{maxBrood}$ (Est = -0.224, p < 0.001). There was an indirect negative effect of mean $T_{maxBrood}$ on survival via nestling mass [Est = -0.026 (calculated by multiplying standarised estimates for each component of the indirect path: -0.244 × 0.116; see Fig. 3)]. The combined direct and indirect effect of mean $T_{maxBrood}$ (via nestling mass) on survival was negative [-0.195, calculated by summing standardised estimates for direct and indirect paths: -0.169 + (-0.026); see Fig. 3]. The direct effect of mean $T_{maxBrood}$ was more prominent (~87% of the combined effect) than the indirect effect via nestling mass (~13% of the combined effect). Natal group size had an indirect positive effect on survival via nestling mass [Est = 0.014 (= 0.118 x 0.116)], with an overall effect of natal group size = 0.132 (0.059+0.014).

Discussion

We investigated the impacts of environmental conditions and the potential for larger group sizes to buffer against these impacts in a cooperatively breeding bird, focusing on egg, nestling, and fledgling survival. We present three main findings. First, exposure to high mean daily maximum temperatures during early development was associated with significant reductions in survival probabilities, in keeping with other recent studies [24,26,82]. Second, both environmental (largely direct) and social (indirect) factors were important for predicting survival during different development stages. Third, contrary to our expectations, we found no evidence that effects of T_{max} and rainfall on reproduction were moderated by group size, despite considerable statistical power to detect such interactions. Taken together with evidence that temperatures are increasing and rainfall decreasing at the study site, and that the number of surviving young produced in the study population showed similar declines, the impacts of high temperatures on mortality during early development are concerning.

Impacts of high temperatures during early development

311

312

313

314

315

316

317

318

319

320

321

322

323

324

325

326

327

328

329

330

331

332

In pied babblers, high mean daily maximum temperatures during early development were associated with a significantly increased risk of mortality. Adverse weather is known to impair egg [83] and nestling development [84]. For example, survival to fledging can be compromised both by sub-optimally cool [85] and sub-optimally hot conditions [26,28]. For the early development stages before fledging, we identified temperature thresholds in the mid- to high-30s (35.4°C during incubation, and 37.3°C for nestlings) above which survival of eggs and young became significantly less likely. These temperatures are within ~2°C of an apparent upper limit (38°C) above which we recorded no successful breeding in this species over 15 years of research. While we did not detect a direct effect of high temperatures on post-fledging mortality (i.e. between fledging and independence) at the brood scale, path analysis revealed that the probability of individual fledglings surviving to independence was influenced by high temperatures experienced as a nestling (Mean T_{maxBrood}), both directly and indirectly via the effect of high temperatures on nestling Mass₁₁. This suggests that dependent pied babbler fledglings, similar to the young of other species [86,87], are influenced by carryover effects of high temperatures they experienced while still in the nest. With temperatures increasing rapidly in the Kalahari (van Wilgen et al. 2016), the 38°C limit for successful breeding in this species suggests that pied babblers may increasingly experience conditions that do not allow successful breeding. This could undermine population growth and ultimately lead to local extinctions for this species, although the effect may be mitigated by behavioural adjustments such as breeding earlier in the season or engaging in compensatory breeding during good years [63].

Different drivers of survival for each early development stage

The primary climatic (temperature and rainfall) and social (group size) drivers of survival probability were different across the three development stages. Mean daily maximum temperature was the strongest predictor of survival probability during both the incubation and nestling development stages. At high temperatures over prolonged periods, incubating birds may not be able to sustain nest attendance to regulate egg temperature [88], leaving eggs vulnerable to overheating and becoming unviable [15,83]. Likewise, several studies have reported that high temperatures constrain nestling growth [26,84,89], result in smaller nestlings overall [27,90,91], alter corticosterone levels [92,93], and reduce nestling survival probabilities [94,95].

Rainfall was the strongest predictor of survival probability during the dependent fledgling stage. Higher rainfall periods are associated with greater food availability [21,96], which likely enhanced both provisioning rates to fledglings [97] and their ability to find food for themselves [98,99]. In cooperative breeders, survival of young during this stage often improves with increasing group size [36,53]: larger groups may provision more regularly (Meade *et al.* 2010; but see Wiley & Ridley 2016), better detect and repel predators [52], or access higher quality territories or nest sites [16]. We did not find a direct effect of group size on survival to independence at the brood scale. However, path analysis indicated that group size influenced individual fledgling survival probabilities indirectly, via a positive effect on nestling mass.

Nestling mass is a well-established positive predictor of post-fledging survival in cooperative breeders [16,77]. Larger nestlings are more mobile and better developed at fledging, enabling them to forage more effectively and avoid predators [100]. The presence of both direct and indirect (via negative effects on nestling Mass₁₁) effects of mean T_{max} during the nestling period on survival to independence suggests that carryover effects of high temperatures during early development continue to impact individual survival probabilities post-fledging [101,102].

Buffering effect of group size

We found a lack of a buffering effect of group size on the effects of high mean T_{max} on offspring survival. While, as discussed above, we found an indirect positive effect of larger group size on survival from fledging to independence, group size did not interact with the large and persistent negative effects of high mean T_{max} on survival observed across all development stages to buffer the detrimental effects of high temperatures on survival from one early development stage to the next. This suggests that physiological tolerance limits [103] and resource constraints [104] at high temperatures may exceed any potential buffering effect of group size on offspring survival in cooperative breeders in arid and semi-arid environments [10].

Conclusion

In this study, negative effects of adverse climate conditions on breeding success in a cooperative breeder were not moderated by group size, suggesting that reproduction in pied babblers is constrained by available resources and physiology at high temperatures and low rainfall, regardless of group size. Climate change is one of the defining challenges of our time, posing a serious threat to biodiversity [3] and society [1]. The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change predicts that the incidence of hot extremes will continue to become more frequent and the length, frequency, and intensity of heatwaves will continue to increase over most land masses [105]. At higher average and extreme temperatures, arid zone bird species may increasingly experience temperatures that preclude successful breeding. We have observed both increasing temperatures and declining rainfall, along with declining offspring survival, at the study site over the last 15 years. Over time, the negative effects of these high temperatures on offspring survival could limit population recruitment and lead to local extinctions. Despite the intuitive appeal of the hypothesis that cooperative breeding may buffer against some of these

effects, we found no evidence this will be the case in pied babblers. Taken together, our findings raise concerns for the long-term persistence of arid zone species in the face of rapidly changing environmental conditions, and suggest that the presence of more helpers in a group is unlikely to provide a buffer against reproductive failure as average and maximum temperatures increase with advancing anthropogenic climate change.

Acknowledgements

379

380

381

382

383

384

385

386

387

388

389

390

391

392

393

394

395

396

397

398

399

400

We thank the Kuruman River Reserve (KRR) and surrounding farms, Van Zylsrus, South Africa, for making the work possible. The KRR was financed by the Universities of Cambridge and Zurich, the MAVA Foundation, and the European Research Council (Grant No. 294494 to Tim Clutton-Brock), and received logistical support from the Mammal Research Institute, University of Pretoria. Thanks to Sello Matiee, Paige Ezzey, and Lesedi Moagi for fieldwork during 2016– 2019, and all past and present staff and students of the Pied Babbler Research Project for data collected since 2003. Work was funded by the DST-NRF Centre of Excellence at the FitzPatrick Institute of African Ornithology, the University of Cape Town, the Oppenheimer Memorial Trust (Grant No. 20747/01 to ARB), the British Ornithologists' Union, the Australian Research Council (Grant No. FT110100188 to ARR), a BBSRC David Phillips Fellowship (BB/J014109/1 to CNS), and the National Research Foundation of South Africa (Grant No. 99050 to SJC). The opinions, findings and conclusions are those of the authors alone, and the National Research Foundation accepts no liability in this regard. Data were collected under animal ethics permits R2012/2006/V15/AR and 2016/V6/SC, University of Cape Town. We thank the associate editor and two anonymous reviewers for their thorough and thoughtful comments which helped us to improve the manuscript immeasurably.

401	Ethics statement
402	All data were collected under animal ethics permit numbers R2012/2006/V15/AR and
403	2016/V6/SC from the University of Cape Town and 1216/2016 from the Department of
404	Environment and Nature Conservation, and blood samples were collected and bird banded by
405	licenced professionals [blood sampling was authorised by the South African Veterinary Council
406	(AL17/15885) and bird banding licences were issued by SAFRING (11663)].
407	Data accessibility statement
408	The datasets underlying all analyses presented in this study have been archived at the University
409	of Cape Town's open access institutional data repository, ZivaHub (a figshare platform), where
410	they are publicly available at doi: 10.25375/uct.12441899.v1.
411	Data accessibility statement
412	The authors declare that they have no competing interests.
413	<u>Author contributions statement</u>
414	ARR, SJC, ARB, and CNS conceived the study and secured funding. ARR started habituation of
415	the study animals and collection of life history data in 2003 and has maintained it ever since; this
416	was central to making the study possible. ARB undertook all fieldwork from 2016 onwards.
417	ARB and ARR analysed the data. ARB drafted the manuscript. All authors contributed
418	substantially to revisions, and gave final approval for publication.
419	<u>Literature cited</u>

Scheffers BR et al. 2016 The broad footprint of climate change from genes to biomes to people.

Stillman JH. 2019 Heat waves, the new normal: summertime temperature extremes will impact

Science (80-.). **354**, 719–731. (doi:10.1126/science.aaf7671)

420

421

422

1.

2.

- animals, ecosystems, and human communities. *Physiology* **34**, 86–100.
- Spooner FEB, Pearson RG, Freeman R. 2018 Rapid warming is associated with population decline
 among terrestrial birds and mammals globally. *Glob. Chang. Biol.* 24, 4521–4531.
 (doi:10.1111/gcb.14361)
- 427 4. Conradie S, Woodborne SM, Cunningham SJ, McKechnie AE. 2019 Chronic, sublethal effects of 428 high temperatures will cause severe declines in southern African arid-zone birds during the 21st 429 century. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.* **116**, 14065–14070.
 - 5. Shen S-F, Emlen ST, Koenig WD, Rubenstein DR. 2017 The ecology of cooperative breeding behaviour. *Ecol. Lett.* **20**, 708–720.
 - 6. Lin Y-H, Chan S-F, Rubenstein DR, Liu M, Shen S-F. 2019 Resolving the paradox of environmental quality and sociality: the ecological causes and consequences of cooperative breeding in two lineages of birds. *Am. Nat.* **194**, 207–216. (doi:10.1086/704090)
 - 7. Jetz W, Rubenstein DR. 2011 Environmental uncertainty and the biogeography of cooperative breeding in birds. *Curr. Biol.* **21**, 72–78.
 - 8. Lukas D, Clutton-Brock T. 2017 Climate and the distribution of cooperative breeding in mammals. *R. Soc. Open Sci.* **4**, 160897.
 - 9. Rubenstein DR, Lovette IJ. 2007 Temporal environmental variability drives the evolution of cooperative breeding in birds. *Curr. Biol.* **17**, 1414–1419.
 - 10. van de Ven TMFN, Fuller A, Clutton-Brock T. 2020 Effects of climate change on pup growth and survival in a cooperative mammal, the meerkat. *Funct. Ecol.* **34**, 194–202.
 - 11. Langmore NE, Bailey LD, Heinsohn RG, Russell AF, Kilner RM. 2016 Egg size investment in superb fairy-wrens: helper effects are modulated by climate. *Proc. R. Soc. B* **283**, 10–12.
 - 12. Guindre-Parker S, Rubenstein DR. 2018 The oxidative costs of parental care in cooperative and pair-breeding African starlings. *Oecologia* **188**, 53–63. (doi:10.1007/s00442-018-4178-3)
 - 13. Covas R, Du Plessis MA, Doutrelant C. 2008 Helpers in colonial cooperatively breeding sociable weavers *Philetairus socius* contribute to buffer the effects of adverse breeding conditions. *Behav. Ecol. Sociobiol.* **63**, 103–112. (doi:10.1007/s00265-008-0640-2)
 - 14. Paquet M, Doutrelant C, Loubon M, Theron F, Rat M, Covas R. 2016 Communal roosting, thermoregulatory benefits and breeding group size predictability in cooperatively breeding sociable weavers. *J. Avian Biol.* 47, 749–755. (doi:10.1111/jav.00916)
 - 15. DuRant SE, Willson JD, Carroll RB. 2019 Parental effects and climate change: will avian incubation behavior shield embryos from increasing environmental temperatures? *Integr. Comp. Biol.* **59**, 1068–1080.
 - 16. Mumme RL, Bowman R, Pruett MS, Fitzpatrick JW. 2015 Natal territory size, group size, and body mass affect lifetime fitness in the cooperatively breeding Florida scrubjay. *Auk* **132**, 634–646.
- 458 17. Meade J, Nam KB, Beckerman AP, Hatchwell BJ. 2010 Consequences of 'load-lightening' for future indirect fitness gains by helpers in a cooperatively breeding bird. *J. Anim. Ecol.* **79**, 529–460 537.

- 461 18. Wingfield JC, Sapolsky RM. 2003 Reproduction and resistance to stress: when and how. *J. Neuroendocrinol.* 15, 711–724.
- 463 19. Wingfield JC, Pérez JH, Krause JS, Word KR, González-Gómez PL, Lisovski S, Chmura HE. 2017 How
 464 birds cope physiologically and behaviourally with extreme climatic events. *Philos. Trans. R. Soc. B* 465 *Biol. Sci.* 372, 20160140.
- Stevenson IR, Bryant DM. 2000 Avian phenology: climate change and constraints on breeding.
 Nature 406, 366–367.
 - 21. Hidalgo Aranzamendi N, Hall ML, Kingma SA, van de Pol M, Peters A. 2019 Rapid plastic breeding response to rain matches peak prey abundance in a tropical savannah bird. *J. Anim. Ecol.* **88**, 1799–1811.
 - 22. Skagen SK, Yackel Adams AA. 2012 Weather effects on avian breeding performance and implications of climate change. *Ecol. Appl.* **22**, 1131–45.
 - 23. Conrey RY, Skagen SK, Yackel Adams AA, Panjabi AO. 2016 Extremes of heat, drought and precipitation depress reproductive performance in shortgrass prairie passerines. *Ibis (Lond. 1859).* **158**, 614–629.
 - 24. Cruz-McDonnell KK, Wolf BO. 2016 Rapid warming and drought negatively impact population size and reproductive dynamics of an avian predator in the arid southwest. *Glob. Chang. Biol.* **22**, 237–253.
 - 25. van de Ven TMFN. 2017 Implications of climate change on the reproductive success of the southern yellow-billed hornbill *Tockus leucomelas*. PhD thesis, University of Cape Town.
 - 26. Cunningham SJ, Martin RO, Hojem CL, Hockey PAR. 2013 Temperatures in excess of critical thresholds threaten nestling growth and survival in a rapidly-warming arid savanna: a study of common fiscals. *PLoS One* **8**, e74613.
 - 27. Salaberria C, Celis P, López-Rull I, Gil D. 2014 Effects of temperature and nest heat exposure on nestling growth, dehydration and survival in a Mediterranean hole-nesting passerine. *Ibis (Lond. 1859).* **156**, 265–275. (doi:10.1111/ibi.12121)
- van de Ven TMFN, McKechnie AE, Er S, Cunningham SJ. 2020 High temperatures are associated
 with substantial reductions in breeding success and offspring quality in an arid-zone bird.
 Oecologia
 - 29. Huang J, Yu H, Dai A, Wei Y, Kang L. 2017 Drylands face potential threat under 2 °c global warming target. *Nat. Clim. Chang.* **7**, 417–422. (doi:10.1038/nclimate3275)
 - 30. Ji M, Huang J, Xie Y, Liu J. 2015 Comparison of dryland climate change in observations and CMIP5 simulations. *Adv. Atmos. Sci.* **32**, 1565–1574. (doi:10.1007/s00376-015-4267-8)
- 494 31. Cockburn A. 2002 Evolution of helping behavior in cooperatively breeding birds. *Annu. Rev. Ecol.*495 *Syst.* **29**, 141–177. (doi:10.1146/annurev.ecolsys.29.1.141)
 - 32. Cockburn A. 2006 Prevalence of different modes of parental care in birds. *Proc. R. Soc. B Biol. Sci.* 273, 1375–1383. (doi:10.1098/rspb.2005.3458)
- 498 33. Ridley AR, van den Heuvel I. 2012 Is there a difference in reproductive performance between cooperative and non-cooperative species? A southern African comparison. *Behaviour* **8**, 821–848.

- 500 34. Cockburn A, Sims RA, Osmond HL, Green DJ, Double MC, Mulder RA. 2008 Can we measure the 501 benefits of help in cooperatively breeding birds: The case of superb fairy-wrens Malurus 502 cyaneus? *J. Anim. Ecol.* **77**, 430–438.
 - 35. Valencia J, Mateos C, de la Cruz C, Carranza J. 2016 Maternal allocation in eggs when counting on helpers in a cooperatively breeding bird. *J. Avian Biol.* **48**, 536–543.
 - 36. Canestrari D, Marcos JM, Baglione V. 2008 Reproductive success increases with group size in cooperative carrion crows, *Corvus corone corone*. *Anim. Behav.* **75**, 403–416. (doi:10.1016/j.anbehav.2007.05.005)
- 508 37. Ridley AR, Raihani NJ. 2008 Task partitioning increases reproductive output in a cooperative bird. 509 Behav. Ecol. **19**, 1136–1142.
 - 38. Rubenstein DR. 2011 Spatiotemporal environmental variation, risk aversion, and the evolution of cooperative breeding as a bet-hedging strategy. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.* **108**, 10816–10822.
 - 39. Cornwallis CK, Botero CA, Rubenstein DR, Downing PA, West SA, Griffin AS. 2017 Cooperation facilitates the colonization of harsh environments. *Nat. Ecol. Evol.* **1**, 0057.
- 514 40. Griesser M, Drobniak SM, Nakagawa S, Botero CA. 2017 Family living sets the stage for cooperative breeding and ecological resilience in birds. *PLOS Biol.* **15**, e2000483.
 - 41. Koenig WD, Walters EL. 2018 Causes of seasonal decline in reproduction of the cooperatively-breeding acorn woodpecker. *J. Avian Biol.* **49**, e01784.
 - 42. Crick HP. 1992 Load-lightening in cooperatively breeding birds and the cost of reproduction. *Ibis* (Lond. 1859). **1**, 56–61.
- Hatchwell BJ. 1999 Investment strategies of breeders in avian cooperative breeding systems. *Am. Nat.* **154**, 205–219.
 - 44. Clutton-Brock TH, Russell AF, Sharpe LL. 2004 Behavioural tactics of breeders in cooperative meerkats. *Anim. Behav.* **68**, 1029–1040.
 - 45. Golabek K, Ridley AR, Radford A. 2012 Food availability affects strength of seasonal territorial behaviour in a cooperatively breeding bird. *Anim. Behav.* **83**, 613–619.
 - 46. Ebensperger LA, Correa LA, León C, Ramírez-Estrada J, Abades S, Villegas Á, Hayes LD. 2016 The modulating role of group stability on fitness effects of group size is different in females and males of a communally rearing rodent. *J. Anim. Ecol.* **85**, 1502–1515. (doi:10.1111/1365-2656.12566)
 - 47. Pike KN, Ashton BJ, Morgan K V., Ridley AR. 2019 Social and individual factors influence variation in offspring care in the cooperatively breeding Western Australian magpie. *Front. Ecol. Evol.* **7**, 2019.00092. (doi:10.3389)
 - 48. van de Ven TMFN, McKechnie AE, Cunningham SJ. 2019 The costs of keeping cool: behavioural trade-offs between foraging and thermoregulation are associated with significant mass losses in an arid-zone bird. *Oecologia* **191**, 205–215.
- van Wilgen NJ, Goodall V, Holness S, Chown SL, McGeoch MA. 2016 Rising temperatures and changing rainfall patterns in South Africa's national parks. *Int. J. Climatol.* **36**, 706–721.
 - 50. MacKellar N, New M, Jack C. 2014 Observed and modelled trends in rainfall and temperature for

505

506

507

510 511

512513

516

517

518

519

522523

524

525

526

527

528

529

530

531

532

533

534

538 South Africa: 1960-2010. S. Afr. J. Sci. 110, 1–13.

- 539 51. Kruger AC, Sekele SS. 2013 Trends in extreme temperature indices in South Africa: 1962-2009. *Int. J. Climatol.* **33**, 661–676.
 - 52. Raihani NJ, Ridley AR. 2007 Variable fledging age according to group size: trade-offs in a cooperatively breeding bird. *Biol. Lett.* **3**, 624–627.
 - 53. Ridley AR. 2016 Southern pied babblers: The dynamics of conflict and cooperation in a group-living society. In *Cooperative Breeding in Vertebrates: Studies of Ecology, Evolution, and Behavior* (eds JL Dickinson, W Koenig), pp. 115–132. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
 - 54. Nelson-Flower MJ, Hockey PAR, O'Ryan C, Raihani NJ, Du Plessis MA, Ridley AR. 2011 Monogamous dominant pairs monopolize reproduction in the cooperatively breeding pied babbler. *Behav. Ecol.* **22**, 559–565.
 - 55. Ridley AR, Raihani NJ. 2007 Variable postfledging care in a cooperative bird: causes and consequences. *Behav. Ecol.* **18**, 994–1000.
 - 56. du Plessis KL, Martin RO, Hockey PAR, Cunningham SJ, Ridley AR. 2012 The costs of keeping cool in a warming world: Implications of high temperatures for foraging, thermoregulation and body condition of an arid-zone bird. *Glob. Chang. Biol.* **18**, 3063–3070.
 - 57. Wiley EM, Ridley AR. 2016 The effects of temperature on offspring provisioning in a cooperative breeder. *Anim. Behav.* **117**, 187–195.
 - 58. Wiley EM. 2017 Examining how multilevel population dynamics and climate influence breeding behaviour, within-group stability and demography in a cooperatively breeding bird. PhD thesis, University of Western Australia.
 - 59. Bourne AR, Cunningham SJ, Spottiswoode CN, Ridley AR. 2020 Hot droughts compromise interannual survival across all group sizes in a cooperatively breeding bird. *bioRxiv* (doi:10.1101/2020.06.11.147538)
 - 60. Ridley AR, Thompson AM. 2011 Heterospecific egg destruction by Wattled Starlings and the impact on Pied Babbler reproductive success. *Ostrich* **82**, 201–205. (doi:10.2989/00306525.2011.618247)
 - 61. Hockey PAR, Dean WRJ, Ryan PG. 2005 *Roberts' Birds of Southern Africa, 7th Edition*. 7th edn. Cape Town: John Voleker Bird Book Fund.
 - 62. Fridolfsson A-K, Ellegren H. 1999 A simple and universal method for molecular sexing of non-ratite birds. *J. Avian Biol.* **30**, 116–121.
 - 63. Bourne AR, Cunningham SJ, Spottiswoode CN, Ridley AR. 2020 Compensatory breeding in years following drought in a desert-dwelling cooperative breeder. *Front. Ecol. Evol.* **8**, 190. (doi:10.3389/fevo.2020.00190)
- 572 64. R Core Team. 2017 *R: a language and environment for statistical computing*. Vienna: R Foundation for Statistical Computing. See http://www.r-project.org.
- Harrison XA, Donaldson L, Correa-cano ME, Evans J, Fisher DN, Goodwin CED, Robinson BS,
 Hodgson DJ, Inger R. 2018 A brief introduction to mixed effects modelling and multi-model
 inference in ecology. *Peer J* 6, 1–32.

- 577 66. Schielzeth H. 2010 Simple means to improve the interpretability of regression coefficients. 578 *Methods Ecol. Evol.* **1**, 103–113. (doi:10.1111/j.2041-210x.2010.00012.x)
- 579 67. Fox J, Monette G. 1992 Generalised collinearity diagnostics. J. Am. Stat. Assoc. 87, 178–183.
- 580 68. Champely S, Ekstrom C, Dalgaard P, Gill J, Weibelzahl S, Anandkumar A, Ford C, Volcic R, De 581 Rosario H. 2018 pwr: Basic functions for power analysis. See https://github.com/heliosdrm/pwr.
- 582 69. Cohen J. 1988 *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences*. 2nd Editio. New York: Lawrence Erlbam Associates.
- 584 70. Greenland S, Senn SJ, Rothman KJ, Carlin JB, Poole C, Goodman SN, Altman DG. 2016 Statistical tests, P values, confidence intervals, and power: a guide to misinterpretations. *Eur. J. Epidemiol.* 586 **31**, 337–350.
 - 71. Borchers HW. 2019 pracma: practical numerical math functions.
 - 72. Bates D, Maechler M, Bolker B, Walker S. 2015 Fitting linear mixed effects models using lme4. *J. Stat. Softw.* **67**, 1–48.
 - 73. Barton K. 2015 MuMIn: Multi-model inference. See https://cran.r-project.org/package=MuMin (accessed on 1 June 2020).
 - 74. Grueber CE, Nakagawa S, Laws RS, Jamieson IG. 2011 Multimodal inference in ecology and evolution: challenges and solution. *J. Evol. Biol.* **24**, 699–711.
 - 75. Herve M. 2019 RVAideMemoire: testing and plotting procedures for biostatistics. *cran.R-project.org*. See https://cran.r-project.org/package=RVAideMemoire (accessed on 4 March 2020).
 - 76. Muggeo VM. 2008 Segmented: an R package to fit regression models with broken-line relationships. *R News* **8**, 20–25.
 - 77. Kruuk LEB, Osmond HL, Cockburn A. 2015 Contrasting effects of climate on juvenile body size in a Southern Hemisphere passerine bird. *Glob. Chang. Biol.* **21**, 2929–2941. (doi:10.1111/gcb.12926)
 - 78. Shipley B. 2009 Confirmatory path analysis in a generalized multilevel context. *Ecology* **90**, 363–368.
 - 79. Larson JE, Sheley RL, Hardegree SP, Doescher PS, James JJ. 2015 Seed and seedling traits affecting critical life stage transitions and recruitment outcomes in dryland grasses. *J. Appl. Ecol.* **52**, 199–209. (doi:10.1111/1365-2664.12350)
 - 80. Lefcheck JS. 2016 piecewiseSEM: Piecewise structural equation modelling in r for ecology, evolution, and systematics. *Methods Ecol. Evol.* **7**, 573–579. (doi:10.1111/2041-210X.12512)
 - 81. Shipley B, Douma JC. 2019 Generalized AIC and chi-squared statistics for path models consistent with directed acyclic graphs. *Ecology* **101**, e02960. (doi:10.1002/ecy.2960)
- Paniw M, Maag N, Cozzi G, Clutton-Brock T, Ozgul A. 2019 Life history responses of meerkats to seasonal changes in extreme environments. *Science (80-.).* **363**, 631–635.
 - 83. Ospina EA, Merrill L, Benson TJ. 2018 Incubation temperature impacts nestling growth and survival in an open-cup nesting passerine. *Ecol. Evol.* **8**, 3270–3279.

588 589

590

591

592

593

594

595 596

597

598599

600

601

602 603

604

605

606

607

608

609

612

- Mainwaring MC, Hartley IR. 2016 Local weather conditions have complex effects on the growth 614 84. of blue tit nestlings. J. Therm. Biol. 60, 12–19. (doi:10.1016/j.jtherbio.2016.05.005) 615
- Vafidis JO, Vaughan IP, Jones TH, Facey RJ, Parry R, Thomas RJ. 2016 The effects of 616 85. supplementary food on the breeding performance of Eurasian reed warblers Acrocephalus 617 618 scirpaceus: implications for climate change impacts. PLoS One 11, e0159933. 619 (doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0159933)
 - 86. Harrison XA, Blount JD, Inger R, Norris DR, Bearhop S. 2011 Carry-over effects as drivers of fitness differences in animals. J. Anim. Ecol. 80, 4-18.
 - 87. Moore MP, Martin RA. 2019 On the evolution of carry-over effects. J. Anim. Ecol. 88, 1832–1844. (doi:10.1111/1365-2656.13081)
- Carroll RL, Davis CA, Fuhlendorf SD, Elmore RD, DuRant SE, Carroll JM. 2018 Avian parental 88. 624 behavior and nest success influenced by temperature fluctuations. J. Therm. Biol. 74, 140-148. (doi:10.1016/j.jtherbio.2018.03.020) 626
 - Andreasson F, Nord A, Nilsson Jå. 2018 Experimentally increased nest temperature affects body 89. temperature, growth and apparent survival in blue tit nestlings. J. Avian Biol. 49, 1-14. (doi:10.1111/jav.01620)
 - 90. Wada H, Kriengwatana B, Allen N, Schmidt KL, Soma KK, MacDougall-Shackleton SA. 2015 Transient and permanent effects of suboptimal incubation temperatures on growth, metabolic rate, immune function and adrenocortical responses in zebra finches. J. Exp. Biol. 218, 2847-55. (doi:10.1242/jeb.114108)
 - Rodriguez S, Barba E. 2016 Nestling growth is impaired by heat stress: an experimental study in a 91. Mediterranean great tit population. Zool. Stud. 40, 2016.55-40. (doi:10.6620/ZS.2016.55-40)
 - 92. Crino OL, Driscoll SC, Brandl HB, Buchanan KL, Griffith SC. 2020 Under the weather: corticosterone levels in wild nestlings are associated with ambient temperature and wind. Gen. Comp. Endocrinol. 285, 113247. (doi:10.1016/j.ygcen.2019.113247)
 - 93. Newberry GN, Swanson DL. 2018 Elevated temperatures are associated with stress in rooftopnesting common nighthawk (Chordeiles minor) chicks. Conserv. Physiol. 6, coy010. (doi:10.1093/conphys/coy010)
 - 94. Greño JL, Belda EJ, Barba E. 2008 Influence of temperatures during the nestling period on postfledging survival of great tit Parus major in a Mediterranean habitat. J. Avian Biol. 39, 41-49.
 - 95. Zuckerberg B, Ribic CA, McCauley LA. 2018 Effects of temperature and precipitation on grassland bird nesting success as mediated by patch size. Conserv. Biol. 32, 872-882.
 - 96. Cumming GS, Bernard RTF. 1997 Rainfall, food abundance and timing of parturition in African bats. Oecologia 111, 309-317.
 - 97. Russell AF, Clutton-Brock TH, Brotherton PNM, Sharpe LL, McIlrath G, Dalerum FD, Cameron EZ, Barnard JA. 2002 Factors affecting pup growth and survival in cooperatively breeding meerkats Suricatta suricata. J. Anim. Ecol. 71, 700–709.
 - 98. Wheelwright NT, Templeton JJ. 2003 Development of foraging skills and the transition to independence in juvenile savannah sparrows. *Condor* **105**, 279–287.

621

622

623

625

627

628

629

630

631

632 633

634 635

636 637

638

639

640

641

642

643 644

645

646 647

648 649

650 651

- 653 99. Naef-Daenzer B, Grüebler MU. 2016 Post-fledging survival of altricial birds: ecological determinants and adaptation. *J. F. Ornithol.* **87**, 227–250. (doi:10.1111/jofo.12157)
- 655 100. Martin TE, Tobalske B, Riordan MM, Case SB, Dial KP. 2018 Age and performance at fledging are a cause and consequence of juvenile mortality between life stages. *Sci. Adv.* **4**, 1–8.
 - 101. Blomberg EJ, Sedinger JS, Gibson D, Coates PS, Casazza ML. 2014 Carryover effects and climatic conditions influence the postfledging survival of greater sage-grouse. *Ecol. Evol.* **4**, 4488–4499.
 - 102. Jones TM, Ward MP, Benson TJ, Brawn JD. 2017 Variation in nestling body condition and wing development predict cause-specific mortality in fledgling dickcissels. *J. Avian Biol.* **48**, 439–447. (doi:10.1111/jav.01143)
 - 103. Smit B, Whitfield MC, Talbot WA, Gerson AR, McKechnie AE, Wolf BO. 2018 Avian thermoregulation in the heat: phylogenetic variation among avian orders in evaporative cooling capacity and heat tolerance. *J. Exp. Biol.* **221**, jeb174870. (doi:jeb174870)
 - 104. Nowakowski AJ, Frishkoff LO, Agha M, Todd BD, Scheffers BR. 2018 Changing thermal landscapes: merging climate science and landscape ecology through thermal biology. *Curr. Landsc. Ecol. Reports* **3**, 57–72.
 - 105. IPCC. 2013 *Climate Change 2013: The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change fifth assessment report*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Tables

Table 1: Top GLMM model set for factors influencing survival during early development. Model averaging was implemented for models with $\Delta AICc < 5$ of the 'best-fit' model. Significant terms after model averaging are shown in bold. Null models shown for comparison with top model sets.

Table 1a: Factors influencing survival from initiati Data from 489 clutches by 50 different groups		_	
	AICc	ΔΑΙС	ωί
Null model	600.60	5.36	0.00
Top model set:			
Mean T _{maxinc}	595.24	0.00	0.47
Mean T _{maxInc} + Rain ₆₀ + Mean T _{maxInc} * Rain ₆₀	595.76	0.52	0.36
Mean T _{maxinc} + Natal group size + Mean T _{maxinc} * Natal group size	597.31	2.06	0.17
Effect size of explanatory terms after model averaging	Estimate	SE	95% CI
Intercept	0.870	0.114	0.645/1.094
Mean T _{maxInc}	-0.281	0.102	-0.481/-0.081
Rain ₆₀	0.025	0.070	-0.113/0.163
Natal group size	0.024	0.069	-0.112/0.161
Mean T _{maxInc} * Rain ₆₀	0.071	0.114	-0.153/0.295
Mean T _{maxInc} * Natal group size	0.005	0.043	-0.080/0.089
*Residual deviance: 577.369 on 486 degrees of freedom (ratio: 1.188)			
Table 1b: Factors influencing survival from Data from 339 broods by 46 different groups			
, , ,	AICc	ΔΑΙС	ωί
Null model	452.20	20.47	0.00
Top model set:			
Mean T _{maxBrood} + Mean T _{maxBrood} ^2 + Mean T _{varBrood} + Natal group size	431.73	0.00	0.50
Mean T _{maxBrood} + Mean T _{maxBrood} ^2 + Natal group size	433.02	1.29	0.26
Mean T _{maxBrood} + Mean T _{maxBrood} ^2 + Mean T _{varBrood}	434.20	2.47	0.15
Mean T _{maxBrood} + Mean T _{maxBrood} ^2	435.17	3.43	0.09
Effect size of explanatory terms after model averaging	Effect	SE	95% CI
Intercept	0.862	0.163	0.540/1.182
Mean T _{maxBrood}	-0.074	0.121	-0.312/0.165
Mean T _{maxBrood} ^2	-0.373	0.097	-0.564/-0.183
Mean T _{varBrood}	-0.146	0.149	-0.439/0.147

Natal group size	0.200	0.157	-0.108/0.508
*Residual deviance: 411.141 on 334 degrees of freedom (ratio: 1.231)			
Table 1c: Factors influencing survival from Data from 198 broods by 35 different	0 0	•	
,	AICc	ΔΑΙСα	ωί
Null model	195.90	87.52	0.00
Top model set:			
Mean T _{max90} + Rain ₉₀ + Mean T _{max90} * Rain ₉₀	108.38	0.00	0.44
Natal group size + Rain ₉₀ + Natal group size * Rain ₉₀	108.40	0.03	0.44
Rain ₉₀	111.01	2.64	0.12
Effect size of explanatory terms after model averaging	Effect	SE	95% CI
Intercept	4.936	1.091	2.787/7.086
Mean T _{max90}	0.249	0.566	-0.865/1.364
Natal group size	-0.761	0.998	-2.720/1.198
Rain ₉₀	4.748	1.028	2.721/6.775
Mean T _{max90} * Rain ₉₀	0.482	0.725	-0.943/1.907
Natal group size * Rain ₉₀	-0.544	0.772	-2.061/0.974

Figure legends

679

680

681

682

683

684

685

686

687

688

689

690

691

692

693

694

695

696

697

698

699

700

Figure 1: (a) breeding activity between Oct and Mar (average number of active nests per day: dashed line), relative to temperature (average daily maximum temperature (°C) per day: dotted line) and rainfall (average rainfall (mm) per day: vertical bars). (b) the number of days > 35.5°C at the study site (c) total summer rainfall, (d) number of southern pied babbler Turdoides bicolor nests fledged in the study population, and (e) number of surviving young produced in the study population per breeding season per year (austral summer: 1 Oct to 1 Mar) since 2005. Black lines represent predictions from the models, and dashed lines the 95% CIs. Figure 2: Survival from (a) initiation of incubation to hatch and (b) hatch to fledge as a function of mean daily maximum air temperature during the corresponding time period. Lines represent segmented linear regressions for the relationship between survival age and air temperature above and below the detected temperature thresholds. Open circles indicate that the clutch (a) or brood (b) transitioned to the next development stage; crosses indicate failure of the clutch (a) or brood(b). Figure 3: Confirmatory path analysis exploring the effects of environmental factors (temperature and rainfall) and group size on nestling body mass and survival to nutritional independence (90 days). Boxes represent measured variables. Arrows represent hypothesised unidirectional relationships among variables. Solid arrows denote positive relationships, dashed arrows negative relationships. Unstandardised path coefficients are shown in bold, followed by standard errors in parentheses, standardised estimates, and an indicator of statistical significance of the effect (*). Non-significant paths are grey. The thickness of significant paths has been scaled

relative to the absolute magnitude of the standardised estimates, such that stronger effects have

- thicker arrows. R^2 for component models are given (grey shaded boxes) above response
- 702 variables (orange shaded boxes).

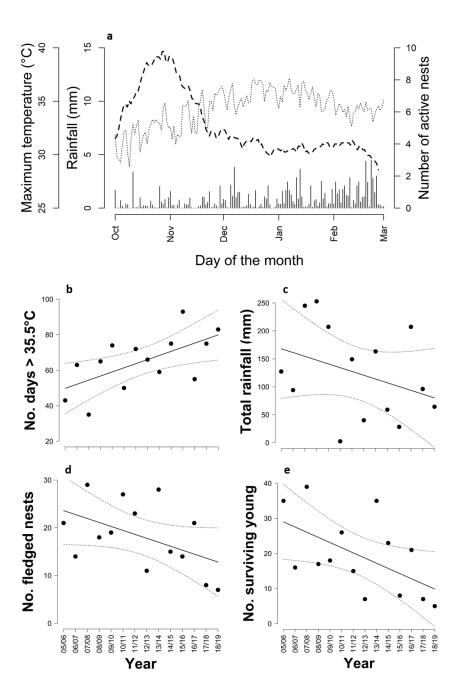


Figure 2

