

1	Burrow depth, carbon dioxide and reproductive success in Sand
2	Martins (Riparia riparia)
3	
4	Thomas O. Mondain-Monval* and Stuart P. Sharp
5	Lancaster Environment Centre, Lancaster University, Lancaster, LA1 4YQ, UK

- 5
- *Corresponding Author: t.mondain-monval@lancaster.ac.uk 6

7

- Short title: Breeding costs in sand martins 8
- 9
- Keywords: Burrowing, colony, gas exchange, reproductive success, semi-fossorial 10

12 Summary

14	Capsule: Carbon dioxide (CO ₂) concentrations in the burrows of sand martins <i>Riparia</i>
15	riparia increase with depth but have no detectable impact on fledging success.
16	Aims: To investigate whether burrow depth and CO ₂ concentrations influence reproductive
17	success in sand martins.
18	Methods: We monitored two Sand Martin colonies along the River Lune, Lancashire (UK) to
19	investigate the effect of burrow depth on reproductive success. We also measured CO ₂ levels
20	in a sample of burrows to test whether burrow depth predicts CO2 concentration, and to test
21	for a relationship between CO ₂ concentration and breeding success.
22	Results: Burrow depth was significantly correlated with fledging success, but the correlation
23	was positive in first broods and negative in second broods. The highest CO ₂ concentration
24	recorded was 73 650 ppm and the mean concentration across burrows was 31 757 ppm.
25	However, while CO ₂ concentrations were positively correlated with burrow depth after
26	controlling for the number and age of nestlings, they were not correlated with reproductive
27	success.
28	Conclusion: There are reproductive costs associated with deeper burrows in second broods,
29	but these could not be attributed to CO ₂ concentrations despite the exceptionally high levels
30	recorded. This study highlights the need for further investigation into gas exchange and the
31	potential impacts of, or adaptations to, CO2 accumulation in avian burrows.

33 Introduction

The construction of a burrow to sleep or reproduce in has evolved in many species from 34 a range of vertebrate taxa, chiefly to reduce predation and to buffer against extreme 35 environmental conditions (Cowles & Bogert 1944, Clutton-Brock et al. 1999, Randall et al. 36 2000, Shenbrot et al. 2002, Ke & Lu 2009). Digging a burrow is energetically demanding and 37 many studies have tried to quantify this (Vleck 1979, Lovegrove 1989, Seymour et al. 1998, 38 Ebensperger & Bozinovic 2000). It has also been shown that the cost of digging is positively 39 correlated with burrow depth and complexity (Vleck 1979), but this may be offset by the 40 greater protection from outside conditions which these characteristics typically provide 41 (Cowles & Bogert 1944, Shenbrot et al. 2002, Ke & Lu 2009). 42 43 Gas exchange presents another significant physiological challenge to burrowing animals. 44 Models suggest that in burrows with narrow entrances, the main source of air flow is through the soil, potentially leading to a significant accumulation of carbon dioxide (CO₂) and 45 corresponding decrease in oxygen (O2) concentration (Wilson & Kilgore 1978, Withers 46 47 1978). The CO₂ concentration of free air is typically around 400 ppm but concentrations over 50 000 ppm have been recorded in the burrows of some species and these levels are likely to 48 have severe physiological effects (Boggs et al. 1984, Schmidt-Nielsen 1997). The 49 concentration of CO₂ is positively correlated with the metabolising mass of the burrow's 50 occupants due to respiration (White et al. 1978, Wickler & Marsh 1981), but even in 51 unoccupied burrows CO₂ concentrations are higher than in free air (Birchard et al. 1984), 52 presumably due to soil microbe and root respiration in the substrate. The levels also depend 53 on abiotic factors such as the substrate, season, burrow depth and structure (Wilson & 54 Kilgore 1978, Arieli 1979, Birchard et al. 1984), but more work is needed to understand how 55 biotic and abiotic influences interact. 56

57	Most studies investigating the impact of exposure to high CO ₂ concentrations on
58	burrowing animals have addressed physiological responses, specifically how fossorial and
59	semi-fossorial species (i.e. animals which spend all or some of their lives underground,
60	respectively) may be adapted to such conditions. Burrowing birds, for example, have a lower
61	ventilatory response to elevated CO ₂ concentrations than non-burrowing species (Boggs &
62	Kilgore 1983; Boggs et al. 1984). Comparisons between closely related fossorial and non-
63	fossorial mammals have shown higher skeletal muscle myoglobin concentrations and slower
64	metabolisms in the former (McNab 1966, Lechner 1976). Other research has examined the
65	effects of elevated CO ₂ levels on survival in poultry farms, where concentrations are high due
66	to bird densities and low ventilation. In these farms, CO ₂ levels greater than 2500 ppm
67	increase the risk of heart disease (Frame et al. 1999) and when greater than 4000 ppm can
68	cause chick mortality through lethargy and reduced feeding (Donaldson et al. 1995).
69	Despite the implications of this research, very little is known about the potentially
70	adverse effects of CO ₂ on the reproductive success of animals which raise their young in
71	burrows. The young of semi-fossorial species may be particularly susceptible because they
72	are exposed to high CO ₂ and low O ₂ concentrations for extended periods of time, yet may not
73	show the same adaptations to these conditions as fossorial species (Soholt et al. 1973). A
74	study of the European Bee-Eater Merops apiaster showed that chicks raised in burrows with
75	CO ₂ concentrations above 60 000 ppm had noticeably laboured and rapid breathing,
76	averaging about 100 breaths/min compared with 68 breaths/min for chicks exposed to
77	concentrations of 30 000 ppm (White et al. 1978). Being exposed to such high concentrations
78	could inhibit development (Scheid 1982) and reduce begging and feeding (Donaldson et al.
79	1995). This could be especially problematic in birds, where adults take direct cues from
80	begging chicks when making choices about food distribution and feeding frequency (Kilner
81	& Johnstone 1997, Leonard & Horn 2001). However, only a small number of other studies

have measured CO_2 levels in the burrows of wild birds (Birchard *et al.* 1984, Ar &

Piontkewitz 1992, Lill & Fell 2007) and the relationship between burrow depth and CO₂
accumulation has rarely been investigated.

Sand Martins *Riparia riparia* are colonial Afro-Palearctic migrant birds that nest in 85 burrows excavated into river banks and man-made quarries. They are a Species of European 86 Conservation Concern (BirdLife International 2004), but the underlying causes of within-87 88 colony variation in reproductive success are poorly known. Sand Martins arrive in Europe from West Africa in spring and start digging new burrows or renovate pre-existing ones 89 90 (Szép et al. 2003, Turner & Rose 2010). Each burrow has a single entrance and the nest is placed in a small chamber at the far end at a depth varying from 30cm to over 100cm 91 (Heneberg 2003, Turner & Rose 2010). In a comparative study of three burrowing bird 92 93 species – Sand Martins, Rhinoceros Auklets Cerorhinca monocerata and Burrowing Owls 94 Athene cunicularia – the burrows of Sand Martins had the highest mean CO₂ concentrations (32 000 ppm), the highest overall CO₂ concentration (67 000 ppm) and the widest range 95 (4000 ppm to 67 000 ppm, Birchard et al. 1984). They are therefore an ideal model system 96 for understanding the relationship between burrow depth, CO₂ concentration and 97 reproductive success. 98

99 Wickler and Marsh (1981) took gas samples from Sand Martin burrows and reported 100 a positive correlation between CO₂ content and burrow depth. Burrow depth is likely to 101 exacerbate CO₂ accumulation because air convection, due to either wind or the movement of 102 occupants, is typically the most important mechanism of gas exchange in animal burrows yet may be restricted at greater depths (White et al. 1978, Wilson & Kilgore 1978, Withers 1978, 103 104 Wickler & Marsh 1981, Birchard et al. 1984, Lill & Fell 2007). Another previous study of Sand Martins reported a negative correlation between burrow depth and breeding success, but 105 CO₂ concentrations were not measured (Cruickshank 2013). In our study, we monitored all 106

nesting attempts at two colonies during a single season in order to: (1) investigate how
different components of reproductive success vary with burrow depth; (2) test whether
burrow depth predicts CO₂ concentration after controlling for other influences; and (3) test
whether CO₂ concentration is correlated with breeding success.

111

112 Materials and methods

113 STUDY POPULATION AND NEST MONITORING

Fieldwork was carried out during the 2015 breeding season at two Sand Martin colonies 114 along the River Lune near Whittington, Lancashire, UK (54°182'N, 2°597'W); these colonies 115 were 250 m apart with no suitable breeding habitat in between. Each colony was divided into 116 approximately equal sections and photographed, and all burrows were then individually 117 labelled on the photographs to create reference maps. Burrows were inspected and their depth 118 measured (in cm) using a Micro CA-100 endoscope (RIDGID, Ohio, USA). Inspections 119 120 started in mid-April before laying had commenced and ended after the last chicks had fledged on the 2nd September; the first nest containing eggs was found on the 27th April. A maximum 121 of one hour was spent in front of any given colony section in order to limit the amount of 122 time that chicks and eggs were left unattended; birds from neighbouring sections continued to 123 visit their nests during this time. 124

Every burrow in both colonies was inspected once every two to four days until laying commenced, and then left unchecked for at least five days in order to record clutch size on the following visit. Nests were then checked regularly around the time that hatching was due (allowing for a typical incubation period of 14-15 days) and on average once every four days thereafter until the nest failed or fledged. A nest was considered fledged if at least one nestling survived until 16 days old, after which time juveniles leave the nest but may return regularly to their own or neighbouring burrows (Szabó & Szép 2010, Turner & Rose 2010).

Most failed nests were found empty and it was therefore impossible to be sure of the cause of 132 death, not least because adults may remove broken eggs or dead chicks to prepare the nest for 133 a second brood. In other cases, dead chicks or their remains were found in burrows but the 134 cause of death could not be determined from visual inspection with the endoscope. Once a 135 nest had failed or fledged, the burrow was checked every three days in order to obtain laying 136 dates for any replacement clutches or second clutches, respectively; these were then 137 138 monitored in the same way as first breeding attempts. Burrow depth was recorded whenever a new clutch was found because depth sometimes varied between breeding attempts. 139 140 The following parameters were recorded for every breeding attempt (i.e. where at least one egg was found): lay date, clutch size, hatch date, brood size and fledgling number. Lay 141 date was the date on which the first egg in a clutch was laid and was calculated 142 143 retrospectively once incomplete clutches were found (assuming one egg was laid per day; Turner & Rose 2010). Clutch size was determined once the number of eggs remained the 144 same on successive visits to a nest which was not subsequently found to have failed at the 145 egg stage. Hatch date was estimated to within a day using the physical attributes of chicks 146 (Fernaz et al. 2012). Where hatching was missed by more than six days, hatch date was 147 estimated based on the lay date, an incubation period of 15 days and the modal clutch size for 148 these colonies (5 eggs), assuming one egg was laid per day and incubation started with the 149 penultimate egg (Turner & Rose 2010). Partial brood mortality occurred in a small proportion 150 151 of nests, so brood size was taken as the maximum number of chicks recorded on any visit prior to fledging. Fledgling number was the brood size recorded on the final visit before 152 fledging (between day 12 and 16 of the nestling period) or zero for nests that failed. 153 154 A total of 824 nests were monitored throughout the breeding season. All dates were converted to a Julian Date (JD, days since 1st January) for analyses. Active nests were 155 156 sometimes found late in the season in burrows that had previously been unoccupied; these

157 were considered unlikely to be first breeding attempts, especially as pairs are known to sometimes change burrow between broods (Cowley 1983). Second broods were therefore 158 classified as follows: 'true' second broods were first identified as a second breeding attempt 159 160 in a nest that had previously fledged; the lay date for the earliest known true second brood was 15th June (JD 165) and this was then used as a threshold for determining second broods 161 in other burrows. All eggs laid on or after this date were considered part of a second brood 162 163 and all those before, a first brood (i.e. including replacement clutches).

164

177

178

165 CARBON DIOXIDE CONCENTRATION

CO₂ was measured (in ppm) throughout the breeding season using a GM70 166

CARBOCAP probe (Vaisala, Vantaa, Finland) calibrated to 10% CO₂ concentrations. The 167 168 probe was placed directly alongside the nest at the end of the burrow and left in place until 169 the reading stabilised (approximately five minutes), and the time of day was then recorded.

The probe was allowed to return to ambient CO₂ concentrations (measured as 380-450 ppm 170

during each day of the study), before the next sample was taken; 228 samples were taken 171

throughout the season. Many nests were only sampled once (n = 122) but repeat 172

measurements were made for those nests which survived long enough (n = 53 nests, each 173

sampled twice). Repeat measurements were taken once within the first part of the nestling 174

period (day 1-10) and once within the last nine days before fledging (day 11-20). For burrows 175

176 in which chicks may have been old enough to fly (age 16-20), all chicks were counted and the

of unoccupied burrows (n = 66) for which depth was measured. Ambient air temperature was

 CO_2 probe inserted only if all were present. CO_2 concentration was also measured in a sample

179 obtained to the nearest 0.01°C from TGP-4017 Tinytag data loggers (Gemini, Chichester,

UK) placed in trees between the colonies and set to record every 30 minutes throughout the 180

entire breeding season. These were calibrated in a United Kingdom Accreditation Service
approved laboratory using 0 and 30°C calibration points.

183

184 STATISTICAL ANALYSES

185 Burrow Depth and Reproductive Success

The effect of burrow depth on reproductive success, controlling for lay date, brood 186 number (1 or 2) and colony (north or south), was analysed using a mixed modelling 187 approach. Analyses were restricted to those nests for which complete data were available (n =188 768). Collinearity between the explanatory variables was assessed using correlation plots and 189 190 variance inflation factors (VIFs, following Zuur et al. 2009). Lay date and brood number were highly positively correlated (r > 0.9) and so only brood number was retained in 191 subsequent analyses. This was partly because retaining lay date would have reduced the 192 193 sample size by over 100 nests (for which lay date was unknown) but also because variation in breeding success between broods was of greater interest than temporal variation more 194 195 generally. All other correlations were weak (r < 0.4) with small associated VIFs (< 2) and so 196 the remaining explanatory variables were fitted as fixed effects. Any effects of burrow depth may vary between broods, especially if the accumulation of carbon dioxide is an important 197 198 factor, and so the interaction between burrow depth and brood number was also fitted. Burrow depth was both centred and standardised, and brood number and colony were centred 199 (Schielzeth 2010). Burrow identity was fitted as a random effect in order to account for 200 201 repeated measures.

The distribution of the number of fledglings showed high zero inflation and so a hurdle model was fitted (Zuur *et al.* 2009). The *glmmADMB* package (Fournier *et al.* 2012) in R version 3.2.3 (R Core Team 2015) was used to fit two separate generalised linear mixed effects models (GLMMs). In one, the response variable was a binary indicator of whether or

not the nest fledged at least one chick, hereafter 'fledging success'. In the other, restricted to
successful nests, the response variable was the number of chicks fledged, hereafter 'fledgling
number'.

209 For the analysis of fledging success, models were fitted with a binomial error distribution and logit link function. All possible candidate models (excluding those containing the 210 interaction term but not the constituent main effects) were compared using the AIC_c value 211 (the second order Akaike Information Criterion). No candidate models were within 2 AICc 212 units of the full model, so the full model was retained after validation using an index plot of 213 214 residuals and a binned plot of the scaled average residuals against expected values (Collett 2002). Models for the analysis of fledgling number were fitted with a truncpoisson error 215 distribution (Zuur et al. 2009) and the log link function. All possible candidate models were 216 217 fitted and ranked by AICc using the dredge function in the MuMIn package (Bartoń 2015). AIC_c is the Akaike's Information Criterion corrected for sample size. Models within 2 AIC_c 218 units of the best-fitting model were then averaged (Bartoń 2015). To obtain relative 219 importance values for each explanatory variable, the Akaike weights (the normalised relative 220 likelihoods of each model) were calculated and summed across all models which contained 221 the variable (Bartoń 2015). The best-fitting model was validated by plotting the distribution 222 of the residuals, the residuals versus fitted values and the residuals versus each explanatory 223 variable. 224

225

226 Burrow Depth and Carbon Dioxide Concentration

Linear mixed effect models (LMEs) were used to investigate the relationship between
burrow depth and CO₂ levels; models were fitted with the *lme4* package (Bates *et al.* 2015).
CO₂ concentration was fitted as the response variable and burrow depth, brood number (1 or
colony (north or south), brood size and chick age (measured in days from hatch date) were

231 fitted as fixed effects (number of samples per age group: age 0-5, n = 55; age 6-10, n = 69; age 11-15, n = 59; age 16+, n = 45); the latter two were included together with their 232 interactions with burrow depth because these factors were considered likely to influence CO₂ 233 234 levels based on previous work (Wickler & Marsh 1981). Time of day (timing of the samples throughout the day: 07.00-10.00, n = 36; 11.00-14.00, n = 54; 15.00-18.00, n = 121; 18.00 or 235 later, n = 17) and ambient air temperature are also likely to affect CO₂ concentrations due to 236 237 the impact of light levels and temperature on soil microbe respiration (Lloyd & Taylor 1994), and so were included as fixed effects together with their interactions with burrow depth. 238 239 Burrow identity was included as a random effect in order to control for repeated measures. Continuous variables were centred and standardised before analysis; brood number and 240 colony were centred (Schielzeth 2010). All variables were included in the analyses because 241 242 correlations between them were weak (r < 0.3) and VIFs small (< 2; Zuur *et al.* 2009). Models were compared, averaged and validated using the same approach described above. To 243 compare CO₂ concentrations in occupied and unoccupied burrows, the mean level per burrow 244 was analysed using a Mann-Whitney U Test. A linear regression was used to investigate the 245 relationship between unoccupied burrow depth and CO₂ concentration. 246

247

248 Carbon Dioxide Concentration and Reproductive Success

GLMMs were used to investigate the relationship between carbon dioxide concentration and fledging success using the *lme4* package (Bates *et al.* 2015). The effect of CO₂ on fledgling number was not considered as fledgling number was very strongly correlated with brood size, an important determinant of CO₂ concentration. Due to missing fledging success data, analyses were carried out using a sub-sample of the dataset (n = 221 samples from 175 nests). Fledging success was fitted as the response variable in a model with a binary error distribution and logit link function. CO₂ concentration, brood number (1 or 2), colony (north 256 or south) and the interaction between CO₂ concentration and brood number were fitted as explanatory variables. The interaction term was included because reproductive costs are 257 likely to differ between broods, and the potential costs associated with CO₂ concentrations 258 may therefore also differ. Burrow identity was included as a random effect to control for 259 repeated measures. CO₂ concentration was centred and standardised before analysis; brood 260 number and colony were centred (Schielzeth 2010). All variables were included in the 261 262 analyses as correlations between them were weak (r < 0.4) and VIFs small (< 2; Zuur *et al.* 2009). Models were compared, averaged and validated using the same approach described 263 264 above.

265

266 **Results**

267 BURROW DEPTH AND REPRODUCTIVE SUCCESS

Fledging success varied with burrow depth after controlling for differences between the colonies, but this relationship was significantly different between the two broods (Table 1, Table A1, Fig. 1). In first broods, fledging success was significantly higher and positively correlated with burrow depth, but there was a negative correlation between fledging success and burrow depth in second broods (Fig. 1).

The best-fitting models of fledgling number contained burrow depth and brood number as fixed effects, but no interaction between them (Table 2, Table A2). Fledgling number differed significantly between broods (Table 2), with the number of chicks fledged in successful nests being higher in first broods than second broods (first brood mean: $2.53 \pm$ 1.92 sd, second brood mean: 1.67 ± 1.80 sd). Although burrow depth was retained in the bestfitting models, the effect size was very small and unlikely to be biologically meaningful (Table 2).

281 BURROW DEPTH AND CARBON DIOXIDE CONCENTRATION

The average CO₂ concentration in occupied burrows was 31 757 ppm (\pm 17 152 sd), but 282 ranged from 570 ppm to 73 650 ppm. In the analysis of the factors affecting these levels, all 283 284 fixed effects and interactions were contained in the model set used for averaging (Table 3, Table A3). Brood number had the largest effect, with CO₂ concentrations significantly lower 285 in nests containing second broods (Table 3, first brood mean: 35 356 ppm \pm 16 905 sd, 286 287 second brood mean: 24 557 ppm \pm 15 053 sd). Time of day and air temperature were negatively and positively correlated with CO₂, respectively (Table 3). CO₂ concentration was 288 289 also positively correlated with chick age, brood size and burrow depth (Table 3). The interaction between brood size and burrow depth revealed a more marked effect of depth on 290 CO₂ in smaller broods (Fig. 2), but the effect sizes for all other interactions were extremely 291 292 small (Table 3).

In unoccupied burrows, CO₂ concentration ranged from 350 ppm to 33 180 ppm with a mean of 6700 ppm, significantly lower than in occupied burrows (W = 27866, P < 0.001).

295 CO₂ concentration in unoccupied burrows was also positively correlated with burrow depth 296 (linear regression: r = 0.415, P < 0.001).

297

298 CARBON DIOXIDE CONCENTRATION AND REPRODUCTIVE SUCCESS

Fledging success was not correlated with burrow CO₂ concentrations. Colony and brood number were retained in the best-fitting model set but effect sizes were low and therefore unlikely to be biologically meaningful (Table 4, Table A4).

302

303 Discussion

Burrow depth was positively correlated with fledging success in first broods but 304 negatively correlated in second broods, and there was no correlation with fledgling number in 305 306 either. A previous study of the same colonies by Cruickshank (2013) reported a negative 307 relationship between burrow depth and fledgling number but the sampling was far less comprehensive and the effect size was small. Here, the results suggest that while the depth of 308 a burrow may impact on whether or not a nest is successful, there is no further effect on the 309 310 productivity of successful nests. Alternatively, the magnitude of any such effect may be small and difficult to detect, especially in this study as there were relatively few nests that fledged a 311 312 very small or large number of chicks.

The positive correlation between burrow depth and fledging success in first broods is 313 likely due to the greater protection from predators and more stable microclimates that deeper 314 315 burrows provide (Randall et al. 2000, Shenbrot et al. 2002, Ke & Lu 2009). The causes of 316 nestling mortality were difficult to identify but environmental conditions may be particularly important earlier in the season when it is colder and wetter. Some studies of other animals 317 have found positive correlations between burrow depth and reproductive success (e.g. 318 Patricia & Passmore 1996, Heg & Rasa 2004), whereas others have found no correlation (e.g. 319 320 Hampton et al. 2009). Further work is needed to understand this interspecific variation. Whatever the mechanism behind the positive relationship between burrow depth and 321 reproductive success in first broods, the benefits of a deeper burrow are apparently 322 323 outweighed by the associated costs in second broods. Declines in reproductive success throughout the season are not uncommon in birds, for example due to reduced food 324 availability (Crick et al. 1993, Møller 2002) or the energetic costs associated with second 325 326 breeding attempts (Verhulst & Tinbergen 1991). However, this does not explain the negative effect of burrow depth on reproductive success in second broods. It could be that birds using 327 deep burrows for their first brood, in which there was generally higher fledging success, face 328

trade-offs which lead to reduced success in their second. Such trade-offs are difficult to determine because Sand Martins often change burrows between broods (Cowley 1983), but they may be driven by the accumulation of ectoparasites which impose significant costs on nestlings (Szép & Muller 2000). The relationship between parasite load and burrow depth requires further study.

CO₂ concentrations in occupied burrows were significantly higher than in unoccupied 334 burrows and, in common with other studies, increased with the age and number of chicks 335 (Wilson & Kilgore 1978, Withers 1978, Wickler and Marsh 1981, Birchard et al. 1984). High 336 337 CO₂ levels can reduce begging and feeding behaviour, leading to lower growth rates and increased mortality through reduced food consumption (Donaldson et al. 1995, Frame et al. 338 1999). Indeed, it was expected that high CO₂ would be one of the primary drivers of reduced 339 340 fledging success in deeper burrows. Our findings suggest, however, that it had no influence 341 on fledging success. CO₂ concentration in burrows was positively correlated with ambient air temperature, and warmer temperatures are likely to correspond with a higher abundance of 342 the insects on which Sand Martins feed (Bale et al. 2002, Turner & Rose 2010). It could be 343 that this increase in prey abundance offsets any negative effects of elevated CO₂ 344 concentration, meaning that chicks remain well fed despite having reduced begging 345 capabilities. Alternatively, the effects of CO₂ concentration on chicks may not have been 346 detected in our study. CO₂ varied significantly throughout the day and those in deeper 347 348 burrows may be exposed to higher concentrations for longer periods of time; this would not be reflected in our measures of CO₂ concentration. It could also be that Sand Martins are 349 unaffected by high CO₂ levels due to physiological adaptations (Boggs et al. 1984), or that 350 351 there are post-fledging fitness costs such as reduced offspring survival. Investigating these possibilities would increase our understanding of avian behaviour and physiology in 352 burrowing species. 353

354 The positive correlation between burrow depth and CO₂ concentration was stronger in small broods, perhaps indicating that large broods produce enough CO₂ to mask any effect of 355 depth. This may be because airflow in shallower burrows can reduce CO₂ levels providing 356 357 that broods are relatively small. It is also possible that a significant proportion of CO₂ accumulation is accounted for by bacteria within the burrows; bacteria may be enhanced by 358 359 large broods producing more faecal matter. This might explain why temperature is highly correlated with CO₂ concentration as soil microbe respiration is greater at higher 360 temperatures (Lloyd & Taylor 1994). The large overall effect size of burrow depth indicates 361 362 that, even after accounting for other abiotic and biotic factors, it is an important determinant of the gas composition of burrows, as suggested by previous studies (Maclean 1981, Wickler 363 & Marsh 1981). In fact, as far as we are aware, the CO₂ concentrations reported here are the 364 365 highest found in burrows of any vertebrate species to date, and far greater than those thought 366 to be dangerous for birds in poultry farms (Donaldson et al. 1995). This makes the absence of any relationship between CO₂ concentration and reproductive success all the more intriguing. 367

369 Acknowledgements

We would like to thank the Metcalfe and Whittaker families for granting permission to

371 work on their land. Ian Hartley and Rob Robinson provided useful feedback on an earlier

version of the manuscript, and discussions with Peter Wynn regarding gas exchange were

- extremely helpful. Special thanks to Nick Ostle for helping to support the analysis of carbon
- dioxide concentrations. This study complies with all current laws in Britain.

376 **References**

377	Ar, A. and Piontkewitz,	Y.	1992.	Nest	ventilation	explains	gas	composition	in	the	nest-
378	chamer of the Europea	n E	ee-eat	er. Re	spir. Physio	l. 87 :407-	418				

Arieli, R. 1979. The atmospheric environment of the fossorial mole rat (*Spalax ehrenbergi*):
effects of season, soil texture, rain, temperature and activity. *Comp. Biochem. Phys. A*63:569-575.

382	Bale, J.S.	, Masters,	G.J.,	, Hodkinson,	, I.D.	, Awmack,	C.	, Bezemer	, T.M.	, Brown	, V.K	
-----	------------	------------	-------	--------------	--------	-----------	-----------	-----------	--------	---------	-------	--

Butterfield, J., Buse, A., Coulson, J.C., Farrar, J., Good, J.E.G., Harrington, R.,

Hartley, S., Jones, T.H., Lindroth, R.L., Press, M.C., Symrnioudis, I., Watt, A.D.

and Whittaker, J.B. 2002. Herbivory in global climate change research: direct effects of

rising temperature on insect herbivores. *Global Change Biol.* **8**:1-16.

Bartoń, K. 2015. MuMIn: multi-model inference. Version 1.15.6.

Bates, D., Maechler, M., Bolker, B. and Walker, S. 2015. Fitting linear mixed-effects
models using lme4. *J. Stat. Soft.* 67:1-48.

Birchard, G.F., Kilgore Jr, D.L. and Boggs, D.F. 1984. Respiratory gas concentrations and
 temperatures within the burrows of three species of burrow-nesting birds. *The Wilson Bulletin* 96:451-456.

BirdLife International 2004. *Birds in Europe: Population Estimates, Trends and Conservation Status.* Cambridge, UK. BirdLife International.

- Boggs, D.F. and Kilgore Jr, D.L. 1983. Ventilatory responses of the burrowing owl and
 bobwhite to hypercarbia and hypoxia. *J. Comp. Physol.* 149:527-533.
- Boggs, D.F., Kilgore Jr, D.L. and Birchard, G.F. 1984. Respiratory physioogy of
 burrowing mammals and birds. *Comp. Biochem. Physiol.* 77:1-7.
- Clutton-Brock, T.H., O'Riain, M.J., Brotherton, P.N.M., Gaynor, D., Kansky, R.,
 Griffin, A.S. and Manser, M. 1999. Selfish sentinels in cooperative mammals. *Science*284:1640-1644.
- 402 Collett, D. 2002. *Modelling Binary Data*. CRC Press.
- 403 Cowles, R.B. and Bogert, C.M. 1944. A preliminary study of the thermal requirements of
 404 desert reptiles. *Bull. Am. Mus. Nat. Hist.* 83:261-296.
- 405 Cowley, E. 1983. Multi-brooding and mate infidelity in the Sand Martin. *Bird Study* **30**:1-8.
- 406 Crick, H.Q., Gibbons, D.W. and Magrath, R.D. 1993. Seasonal changes in clutch size in
 407 British birds. J. Anim. Ecol. 62:263-273.

408 Cruickshank, A. 2013. Reproductive success and provisioning rate in the Sand Martin,
 409 *Riparia riparia*: the effect of colony size and structure. MSc, Lancaster Environment
 410 Centre, Lancaster University, UK.

411	Donaldson, W., Christensen, V., Garlich, J., McMurtry, J. and Olson, N. 1995. Exposure
412	to excessive carbon dioxide: A risk factor for early poult mortality. J. Appl. Poultry. Res.
413	4 :249-253.

Ebensperger, L.A. and Bozinovic, F. 2000. Energetics and burrowing behaviour in the
semifossorial degu *Octodon degus* (Rodentia: Octodontidae). *J. Zool.* 252:179-186.

416 Fernaz, J.M., Schifferli, L. and Grüebler, M.U. 2012. Ageing nestling barn swallows
417 *Hirundo rustica*: an illustrated guide and cautionary comments. *Ringing & Migration*418 27:65-75.

Fournier, D., Skaug, H., Ancheta, J., Ianelli, J., Magnusson, A., Maunder, M., Nielsen,
A. and Sibert, J. 2012. AD Model Builder: using automatic differentiation for statistical
inference of highly parameterized complex nonlinear models. *Optim. Method Softw.*27:233-249.

Frame, D.D., Buckner, R.E. and Anderson, G.L. 1999. Causes and control of spontaneous
cardiomyopathy or roundheart disease in Utah turkeys. All Archived Publications Paper
26. Utah State University Extension.

Hampton, S.L., Ryan, P.G. and Underhill, L.G. 2009. The effect of flipper banding on the
breeding success of African penguins *Spheniscus demersus* at Boulders Beach, South
Africa. *Ostrich* 80:77-80.

Heg, D. and Rasa, O.A.E. 2004. Effects of parental body condition and size on reproductive
success in a tenebrionid beetle with biparental care. *Ecol. Entomol.* 29:410-419.

- Heneberg, P. 2003. Soil particle composition affects the physical characteristics of Sand
 Martin *Riparia riparia* holes. *Ibis* 145:392-399.
- 433 Ke, D. and Lu, X. 2009. Burrow use by Tibetan ground tits *Pseudopodoces humilis*: coping
 434 with life at high altitudes. *Ibis* 151:321-331.
- 435 Kilner, R. and Johnstone, R.A. 1997. Begging the question: are offspring solicitation
 436 behaviours signals of need? *Trends Ecol. Evol.* 12:11-15.
- 437 Lechner, A.J. 1976. Respiratory adaptations in burrowing pocket gophers from sea level and
 438 high altitude. *J. Appl. Physiol.* 41:168-173.
- 439 Leonard, M.L. and Horn, A.G. 2001. Begging calls and parental feeding decisions in tree
 440 swallows (*Tachycineta bicolor*). *Behav. Ecol. Sociobiol.* 49:170-175.
- 441 Lill, A. and Fell, P.J. 2007. Microclimiate of nesting burrows of the Rainbow Bee-eater.
 442 *Emu* 107:108-114.
- 443 Lloyd, J. and Taylor, J.A. 1994. On the temperature dependence of soil respiration. *Funct.*444 *Ecol.* 8:315-323.
- 445 Lovegrove, B. 1989. The cost of burrowing by the social mole rats (Bathyergidae)
 446 *Cryptomys damarensis* and *Heterocephalus glaber*: the role of soil moisture. *Physiol.*447 Zool. 62:449-469.

448 Maclean, G.S. 1981. Factors influencing the composition of respiratory gases in mammal
449 burrows. Comp. *Biochem. Phys. A* 69:373-380.

450 McNab, B.K. 1966. The metabolism of fossorial rodents: a study of convergence. *Ecology*451 47:712-733.

452 Møller, A.P. 2002. North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO) effects of climate on the relative
453 importance of first and second clutches in a migratory passerine bird. *J. Anim. Ecol.*454 71:201-210.

455 Patricia, R.Y.B. and Passmore, N.I. 1996. Time constraints and multiple choice criteria in
456 the sampling behaviour and mate choice of the fiddler crab, *Uca annulipes. Behav. Ecol.*457 *Sociobiol.* 38:407-416.

458 R Core Team 2015. R: a language and environment for statistical computing. R Foundation
459 for Statistical Computing. Vienna, Austria.

460 Randall, J.A., Rogovin, K.A. and Shier, D.M. 2000. Antipredator behavior of a social
461 desert rodent: footdrumming and alarm calling in the great gerbil, *Rhombomys opiums*.
462 *Behav. Ecol. Sociobiol.* 48:110-118.

463 Scheid, P. 1982. Respiration and control of breathing. *Avian Biol.* 6:405-453.

464 Schielzeth, H. 2010. Simple means to improve the interpretability of regression coefficients.
465 *Method Ecol. Evol.* 1:103-113.

466 Schmidt-Nielsen, K. 1997. Animal Physiology: Adaptation and Environment. Cambridge
467 University Press, UK.

Seymour, R., Withers, P. and Weathers, W. 1998. Energetics of burrowing, running, and
free-living in the Namib Desert golden mole (*Eremitalpa namibensis*). J. Zool. 244:107117.

471 Shenbrot, G., Krasnov, B., Khokhlova, I., Demidova, T. and Fielden, L. 2002. Habitat472 dependent differences in architecture and microclimate of the burrows of Sundevall's jird
473 (*Meriones crassus*) (Rodentia: Gerbillinae) in the Negev Desert, Israel. J. Arid Environ.
474 51:265-279.

475 Soholt, L.F., Yousef, M.K. and Dill, D.B. 1973. Responses of Merriam's kangaroo rats,
476 *Dipodomys merriami*, to various levels of carbon dioxide concentration. *Comp. Biochem.*477 *Phys. A* 45:455-462.

478 Szabo, Z.D. and Szep, T. 2010. Breeding dispersal patterns within a large Sand Martin
479 (*Riparia riparia*) colony. *J. Ornith.* 151:185-191.

480 Szép, T. and Muller, A.P. 2000. Exposure to ectoparasites increases within-brood variability
481 in size and body mass in the Sand Martin. *Oecologia* 125:201-207.

482 Szép, T., Moller, A.P., Vallner, J., Kovács, B. and Norman, D. 2003. Use of trace
483 elements of Sand Martin *Riparia riparia* for identifying moulting areas. *J. Avian. Biol.*484 34:307-320.

- 485 Turner, A. and Rose, C. 2010. A Handbook to the Swallows and Martins of the World.
 486 A&C Black.
- Verhulst, S. and Tinbergen, J.M. 1991. Experimental evidence for a causal relationship
 between timing and success of reproduction in the great tit *Parus m. major. J. Anim. Ecol.* 60:269-282.
- 490 Vleck, D. 1979. The energy cost of burrowing by the pocket gopher *Thomomys bottae*.
 491 *Physiol. Zool.* 52:122-136.
- White, F.N., Bartholomew, G.A. and Kinney, J.L. 1978. Physiological and ecological
 correlates of tunnel nesting in the European bee-eater, *Merops apiaster. Physiol. Zool.*51:140-154.
- Wickler, S.J. and Marsh, R.L. 1981. Effects of nestling age and burrow depth on CO₂ and
 O₂ concentrations in the burrows of bank swallows (*Riparia riparia*). *Physiol. Zool.*54:132-136.
- Wilson, K.J. and Kilgore, D.L. 1978. The effects of location and design on the diffusion of
 respiratory gases in mammal burrows. *J. Theor. Biol.* 71:73-101.
- 500 Withers, P.C. 1978. Models of diffusion-mediated gas exchange in animal burrows. *Am.*501 *Nat.* 112:1101-1112.
- Zuur, A., Ieno, E.N., Walker, N., Saveliev, A.A. and Smith, G.M. 2009. *Mixed effects models and extensions in ecology with R*. Springer Science & Business Media.

505 Appendices

Table A1. The full set of GLMMs of the factors affecting fledging success in Sand Martins. Burrow identity was fitted as a random effect in

 each case. Model averaging was carried out on the models within 2 AICc units of the best-fitting model (shown in bold). Int = Intercept, BN

 = Brood Number, Col = Colony, BD = Burrow Depth.

Model ID	Int	BN	Col	BD	BN x BD	AICc	ΔAICc	Weight
16	1.299	+	+	0.200	+	944.896	0.000	0.992
4	1.310	+	+	-	-	955.178	10.282	0.006
8	1.289	+	+	-0.053	-	956.825	11.928	0.003
14	0.867	+	-	-0.008	+	972.243	27.346	0.000
6	0.865	+	-	-0.246	-	983.980	39.084	0.000
3	0.893	-	+	-	-	984.703	39.807	0.000
7	0.862	-	+	-0.098	-	985.372	40.476	0.000
2	0.867	+	-	-	-	992.363	47.467	0.000
5	0.536	-	-	-0.263	-	1006.703	61.807	0.000
1	0.528	-	-	-	-	1017.062	72.165	0.000

Table A2. The full set of GLMMs of the factors affecting fledgling number in Sand Martins. Burrow identity was fitted as a random effect ineach case. Model averaging was carried out on the models within 2 AICc units of the best-fitting model (shown in bold). Int = Intercept, BN =Brood Number, Col = Colony, BD = Burrow Depth.

Model ID	Int	BN	Col	BD	BN x BD	AICc	∆AICc	Weight
2	1.261	+	-	-	-	1644.352	0.000	0.401
6	1.262	+	-	0.009	-	1646.282	1.930	0.153
4	1.266	+	+	-	-	1646.344	1.992	0.148
1	1.221	-	-	-	-	1647.481	3.129	0.084
8	1.271	+	+	0.013	-	1648.192	3.840	0.059
14	1.262	+	-	0.007	+	1648.308	3.956	0.055
5	1.222	-	-	0.012	-	1649.310	4.958	0.034
3	1.214	-	+	-	-	1649.354	5.002	0.033
16	1.271	+	+	0.011	+	1650.232	5.880	0.021
7	1.217	-	+	0.009	-	1651.288	6.936	0.013

Table A3. The set of LMEs within 5 AICc units of the best-fitting model of the factors affecting carbon dioxide concentration in Sand Martins. Burrow identity was fitted as a random effect in each case. Model averaging was carried out on the models within 2 AICc units of the best-fitting model (shown in bold). For an electronic copy of the full set of LMEs, contact the corresponding author. Int = Intercept, BN = Brood Number, AT = Air Temperature, CA = Chick Age, BS = Brood Size, Col = Colony, BD = Burrow Depth, T = Time of Day.

Model	Int	BN	AT	CA	BS	Col	BD	Т	AT X	CA x	CN x	BD x T	AICc	∆AICc	Weight
ID									BD	BD	BD				
240	33773.3	+	2987.6	3703.3	2625.6	-	4800.7	-6221.2	1733.9	-	-	-	5009.4	0	0.07
752	33858.6	+	3013.1	3719.8	2597.4	-	5124.5	-6233.3	1636.9	-	-1489.5	-	5009.6	0.145	0.065
624	33893	+	3019.4	3748.5	2631.8	-	5100.9	-6009.4	-	-	-1598	-	5009.9	0.47	0.055
112	33803.2	+	2992.3	3732.6	2664.4	-	4750.4	-5982	-	-	-	-	5010.1	0.639	0.051
256	32623.5	+	2843	3677.6	2663.5	+	4290.5	-6312.7	1831.8	-	-	-	5010.1	0.647	0.051
768	32767.7	+	2875.4	3694.8	2634.3	+	4628.9	-6319.4	1733.4	-	-1429.2	-	5010.4	0.969	0.043
640	32926.9	+	2897.5	3727.8	2666.4	+	4659.9	-6074	-	-	-1550.1	-	5011	1.578	0.032
128	32779.6	+	2863.7	3711.1	2700.1	+	4293	-6051.6	-	-	-	-	5011	1.595	0.031
880	33757.2	+	3017.8	3729.8	2640.3	-	5084.6	-6105.8	-	712.7	-1681	-	5011.5	2.062	0.025
496	33748.4	+	2987.2	3700.5	2628.5	-	4793.2	-6232.5	1690.7	129.7	-	-	5011.6	2.19	0.023

1264	33773.5	+	2992.1	3706.7	2624.3	-	4800.9	-6223	1742.9	-	-	-36.6944	5011.6	2.207	0.023
1008	33802.6	+	3012.8	3713.6	2603.2	-	5116	-6260.4	1532.2	305.7	-1532	-	5011.7	2.27	0.022
239	32398.3	-	2983.5	4014.8	2931.5	-	4889.3	-6541	1702.6	-	-	-	5011.7	2.329	0.022
1776	33858.7	+	3014.1	3720.5	2597.1	-	5124.6	-6233.7	1638.8	-	-1489.3	-7.78201	5011.8	2.374	0.021
368	33692	+	2989.9	3717.2	2672.5	-	4723.1	-6057.3	-	564.4	-	-	5011.9	2.441	0.021
1648	33890.1	+	2982.7	3720.4	2640.8	-	5101.8	-6005	-	-	-1600.6	294.8258	5012	2.569	0.019
751	32447.6	-	3010.8	4040.2	2906.8	-	5192.1	-6558.9	1607.2	-	-1417.3	-	5012.1	2.689	0.018
1136	33800.3	+	2956.8	3705.4	2673.2	-	4750.7	-5977.7	-	-	-	284.3556	5012.1	2.727	0.018
111	32440.8	-	2991.1	4042.7	2962.6	-	4833	-6302.5	-	-	-	-	5012.2	2.831	0.017
512	32575.3	+	2841.1	3673.1	2668.1	+	4274.4	-6330.7	1767.3	196	-	-	5012.2	2.833	0.017
1280	32623.8	+	2844.9	3678.9	2662.9	+	4290.7	-6313.4	1835.4	-	-	-15.0268	5012.3	2.876	0.017
623	32494.7	-	3017	4065.3	2937.7	-	5168.3	-6335.9	-	-	-1524.5	-	5012.3	2.893	0.016
896	32720.5	+	2888.6	3706	2677.8	+	4616	-6184.1	-	784.7	-1638.7	-	5012.5	3.06	0.015
1024	32683.6	+	2872.8	3687	2641.9	+	4610.8	-6352.9	1610.7	362.7	-1478.7	-	5012.5	3.072	0.015
1792	32767.5	+	2873.9	3693.7	2634.8	+	4628.8	-6318.8	1730.6	-	-1429.4	11.55793	5012.6	3.218	0.014
384	32603.2	+	2854.7	3692.4	2711.1	+	4239.7	-6140.8	-	644	-	-	5012.7	3.3	0.013

255	31346.3	-	2861.3	4007.8	2971.8	+	4443.7	-6632.3	1783.6	-	-	-	5012.8	3.368	0.013
1664	32912.1	+	2855.3	3696.3	2676.8	+	4655.6	-6069.9	-	-	-1552.4	327.3966	5013.1	3.672	0.011
1152	32764.9	+	2822.4	3680.3	2710.4	+	4288.2	-6047.6	-	-	-	319.2677	5013.1	3.676	0.011
879	32428.8	-	3014.9	4009	2921.5	-	5138.5	-6444.7	-	1028	-1651.1	-	5013.2	3.783	0.011
767	31462.8	-	2892.4	4029.7	2949.1	+	4769	-6643.9	1689	-	-1363	-	5013.3	3.878	0.01
367	32382.2	-	2986.9	3991.7	2952.2	-	4787.1	-6393.7	-	879.2	-	-	5013.5	4.048	0.009
127	31519.2	-	2881.1	4035	3002.5	+	4443.6	-6372.7	-	-	-	-	5013.5	4.111	0.009
495	32368.4	-	2981.8	3988.9	2928	-	4856.8	-6569.7	1536.9	499.8	-	-	5013.6	4.231	0.008
1904	33761.4	+	2995.3	3713.4	2645.5	-	5085.8	-6098.9	-	681.5	-1678.9	180.8622	5013.7	4.251	0.008
639	31635.9	-	2913.8	4057.2	2976	+	4797.2	-6400.3	-	-	-1481.8	-	5013.7	4.306	0.008
1007	32411	-	3010.3	4006.7	2900.6	-	5169.1	-6598.6	1377.5	676	-1515.8	-	5013.8	4.38	0.008
1520	33747.6	+	2993.6	3705.1	2626.7	-	4793.1	-6235.6	1701.3	135.9	-	-51.8564	5013.8	4.415	0.008
1263	32399.2	-	2989.2	4018.8	2930.3	-	4890.7	-6543.4	1715.3	-	-	-50.1515	5013.9	4.514	0.007
2032	33801.9	+	3018	3717.3	2601.8	-	5115.9	-6262.8	1540.8	310.6	-1531.6	-41.612	5013.9	4.518	0.007
1392	33696.6	+	2965.7	3699.4	2678.1	-	4724.9	-6049.9	-	530.8	-	195.1827	5014	4.603	0.007
1775	32447.7	-	3011.9	4041	2906.5	-	5192.1	-6559.4	1609.5	-	-1417	-9.32123	5014.3	4.897	0.006

1135	32436.7	-	2956.5	4016.6	2970.7	-	4832.4	-6298.5	-	-	-	278.085	5014.3	4.905	0.006
1647	32491.2	-	2981.1	4038	2946.7	-	5169.2	-6331.8	-	-	-1527	287.9306	5014.4	4.979	0.006

Table A4. The full set of GLMMs of the effect of CO_2 on fledging success in Sand Martins. Burrow identity was fitted as a random effect in each case. Model averaging was carried out on the models within 2 AICc units of the best-fitting model (shown in bold). Int = Intercept, BN = Brood Number, Col = Colony.

Model ID	Intercept	BN	CO ₂	Col	BN xCO ₂	AICc	ΔAICc	Weight
1	13.038	-	-	-	-	63.674	0	0.314
5	13.741	-	-	-3.389	-	64.890	1.216	0.171
2	13.639	+	-	-	-	65.350	1.675	0.136
3	13.042	-	0.135	-	-	65.719	2.045	0.113
6	14.538	+	-	-3.747	-	66.370	2.696	0.082
7	13.781	-	0.421	-3.596	-	66.863	3.189	0.064
4	13.659	+	-0.090	-	-	67.419	3.745	0.048
8	14.676	+	0.466	-4.150	-	68.360	4.686	0.030
16	26.879	+	0.316	-25.778	+	68.691	5.016	0.026
12	13.638	+	0.160	-	+	69.489	5.815	0.017

510 Tables

Table 1. The results of the best-fitting GLMM of the factors affecting fledging success in Sand Martins. Analyses were restricted to those nests for which complete data were available (n = 768).

Fixed effect	Estimate	SE	514
Intercept	1.299	0.137	515
Brood number	-0.847	0.162	54.6
Burrow depth	0.200	0.112	516
Colony	-0.958	0.179	517
Brood number x burrow depth	-0.608	0.166	518
Random effect	Variance		519
Burrow identity	8.681e-06		
			520

Table 2. The results of the best-fitting GLMMs of the factors affecting 22 fledgling number in Sand Martins. Analyses were restricted to those nests for 23 which complete data were available (n = 768). Details of fixed effects were 24 obtained by averaging the models within 2 AICc units of the best-fitting model. 26 The random effect variance was obtained from the best-fitting model. Relative 27 importance values are the sum of Akaike weights over all the models 28 containing the explanatory variable. 29

Fixed effect	Estimate	Adjusted SE	Relative 530	
			importa	næ ³¹
Intercept	1.262	0.033		532
Brood number	-0.127	0.057	1.00	533
Burrow depth	0.002	0.013	0.22	534
Colony	-0.003	0.027	0.21	535
				536
Random effect	Variance			
				537
Burrow identity	1.13e-7			

Table 3. The results of the best-fitting LMEs of the factors affecting carbon dioxide concentration. Analyses were restricted to those nests for which complete data were available (n = 228). Details of fixed effects were returned from averaging the models within 2 AIC_c units of the best-fitting model. The random effect variance was obtained from the best-fitting model. Relative importance values are the sum of Akaike weights over all the models containing the explanatory variable.

Fixed effect	Estimate	Adjusted SE	Relative	
			importance	
Intercept	33406.5	1365.8		
Brood number	-4409.0	2034	1.00	
Air temperature	2949.3	938.5	1.00	
Chick age	3714.4	967.6	1.00	
Brood size	2641.7	946.1	1.00	
Burrow depth	4754.0	1006.6	1.00	
Time of day	-6160.3	943.2	1.00	
Colony	924.5	1713.9	0.39	
Air temperature x burrow depth	992.6	1159.8	0.57	
Brood size x burrow depth	-743.8	1052.9	0.49	
Random effect	Variance			
Burrow identity	6.70e-6			

Table 4 The results of the best-fitting GLMMs of the effect of CO_2 on breeding success. Analyses were restricted to those nests for which complete data were available (n = 221). Details of fixed effects were returned from averaging the models within 2 AIC_c units of the best-fitting model. The random effect variance was obtained from the best-fitting model. Relative importance values are the sum of Akaike weights over all the models containing the explanatory variable.

Fixed effects	Estimates	Adjusted SE	Relative	
			importance	
Intercept	13.363	2.287		
Colony	-0.933	3.283	0.28	
Brood number	-0.366	1.452	0.22	
Random effects	Variance			
Burrow identity	1985			

541 Legends to figures

542

543 F	F ig. 1 7	The relationship	between fledging	success and burrow	depth in	broods	1 and 2. Lines
--------------	------------------	------------------	------------------	--------------------	----------	--------	----------------

- show predicted values from a GLMM; shaded areas show 95% confidence intervals.
- 545 Fig. 2 The relationship between carbon dioxide concentrations and burrow depth in large
- 546 broods (5 chicks) and small broods (2 chicks). These brood sizes are one standard deviation
- 547 higher and lower than the mean and rounded to the nearest whole number. Lines show
- 548 predicted values from an LME; shaded areas show 95% confidence intervals.

550 Figures









