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1 Running head: Sensitivity of nestling and fledgling mass to weather

2 Contrasting sensitivity of nestling and fledgling Barn 3 Swallow *Hirundo rustica* body mass to local weather 4 conditions

5
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17
18 Local weather can influence the growth and development of young birds, either indirectly, by
19 modifying prey availability, or directly, by affecting energetic trade-offs. Such effects can have lasting
20 implications for life history traits, but the nature of these effects may vary with the developmental
21 stage of the birds, and over timescales from days to weeks. We examined the interactive effects of
22 temperature, rainfall and wind speed on the mass of nestling and fledgling Barn Swallows *Hirundo*
23 *rustica*, both on the day of capture and averaging weather across the time since hatching. At the daily
24 timescale, nestling mass was negatively correlated with temperature, but the strength of this
25 association depended on the level of rainfall and wind speed; nestlings were typically heavier on dry
26 or windy days, and the negative effect of temperature was strongest under calm or wet conditions. At
27 the early lifetime timescale (i.e. from hatching to post-fledging), nestling mass was negatively
28 correlated with temperature at low wind speed. Fledgling body mass was less sensitive to weather;
29 the only weather effects evident were a negative correlation with temperature at the daily scale under

30 high rainfall that became slightly positive under low rainfall. These changes are consistent with
31 weather effects on availability and distribution of insects within the landscape (e.g. causing high
32 concentrations of flying insects), and with the effects of weather variation on nest microclimate. These
33 results together demonstrate the impacts of weather on chick growth, over immediate (daily) and
34 longer term (nestling/fledgling lifetime) timescales. This shows that sensitivity to local weather
35 conditions varies across the early lifetime of young birds (nestling-fledgling stages) and illustrates the
36 mechanisms by which larger scale (climate) variations influence the body condition of individuals.

37

38 **Keywords:** fitness wind speed, foraging ecology, rainfall, temperature.

39 The biotic and abiotic conditions experienced by an individual animal early in its development have
40 consequences not only for short term growth, development and immediate survival, but also for
41 longterm survival, reproductive success and social status (e.g. Richner *et al.* 1989, Magrath 1991, Naef-
42 Daenzer *et al.* 2001, Saino *et al.* 2012). In birds, chick growth and survival is associated with factors
43 linked to both the nesting attempt as a whole, such as hatching date, brood size, habitat quality and
44 predator abundance (Podlesak & Blem 2001, Nilson & Gårdmark 2001, Mainwaring *et al.* 2009, Saino
45 *et al.* 2012, Crombie & Arcese 2018), and factors that may vary within the nesting attempt, such as
46 weather and food availability (Geiser *et al.* 2008, Salaberria *et al.* 2014, Crombie & Arcese 2018). A
47 range of studies has linked these factors to post-fledging and over-winter survival, and fecundity in
48 subsequent breeding seasons (e.g. Newton & Moss 1986, Greño *et al.* 2008, Öberg 2015), highlighting
49 the importance of understanding the factors influencing early stages of development, and the role
50 played by relatively short-term environmental factors during this period.

51 Weather is of particular interest in the context of understanding nestling development in wild
52 birds, given predictions of both shifts in average weather conditions and increases in the frequency
53 and magnitude of extreme weather events over the coming decades (IPCC 2014). Regional-scale
54 climate conditions, manifested as local-scale weather conditions and nest-scale microclimate, could
55 impact chick growth via direct mechanisms (e.g. by altering energetic costs; Sikamäki 1996, Dawson
56 *et al.* 2005) or indirectly (e.g. by altering prey availability; Ritz *et al.* 2005, Gruebler *et al.* 2008). The
57 relative importance of these different mechanisms is likely to vary according to an individual's ability
58 to thermoregulate, its food demands and, later, its ability to self-provision, all of which change from
59 hatching to post-fledging (Elmen *et al.* 1991, Siikamäki 1996, McCarty & Winkler 1999, Ambrosini *et al.*
60 *et al.* 2006). Despite this, the majority of studies has focused on the effects of local weather variation on
61 the nestling phase as a whole (e.g. Sikamäki 1996, Dawson *et al.* 2005, Ardia 2013, Mainwaring &
62 Hartley 2016), and on future post-fledging survival or recruitment (e.g. Greño *et al.* 2008, Obërg *et al.*
63 2014, Rodríguez *et al.* 2016). The effects of local weather on body condition in the weeks immediately

64 after fledging remain largely unexplored, despite survival being at its lowest during this critical period
65 (Yackel Adams *et al.* 2006, Cox *et al.* 2014).

66 Temperature, rainfall and wind speed have been shown to affect nestling growth and development
67 in a wide range of species. While warmer temperatures have been shown to increase nestling survival,
68 feather development and body mass in many species (e.g. Podlesak & Blem 2001, Dawson *et al.* 2005,
69 Ambrosini *et al.* 2006), extremely high or low temperatures have been linked to reduced growth rates,
70 body condition and survival (e.g. Rodriguez & Barba 2016, Adreasoon *et al.* 2019, Imlay 2019). Rainfall
71 has been shown to have a negative effect on nestling provisioning rates, survival, and fledging success
72 (e.g. Arlettaz *et al.* 2010, Conrey *et al.* 2016, Crombie & Arcese 2018, but see Oppell *et al.* 2013).
73 Negative effects of rainfall on nestling mass and growth have been shown in a number of species, for
74 example, Cirl Bunting *Emberiza cirlus* (Evans *et al.* 1997), Pied Flycatcher *Ficedula hypoleuca* (Siikamäki
75 1996), Eurasian Bittern *Botaurus stellaris* (Kasprzykowski *et al.* 2014), Gambel's White-Crowned
76 Sparrow *Zonotrichia leucophrys gambelii* and Lapland Longspur *Calcarius lapponicus* (Pérez *et al.*
77 2016). Although the effects of rainfall on chick mass seem to be typically negative, this is not universal.
78 For example, Kruuk *et al.* (2015) found a positive association between chick mass and high levels of
79 precipitation during the nestling phase in the Superb Fairy-wren *Malurus cyaneus*.

80 Wind is an important meteorological variable that is likely to affect chick growth and development
81 through changes in prey abundance and availability (Quinney *et al.* 1986, Dawson *et al.* 2000, Gruebler
82 *et al.* 2008, Møller 2013), and by altering the nest microclimate and costs of thermoregulation
83 (Salzman 1982, Bakken *et al.* 2002, Heenan & Seymour 2012, Gray & Deeming 2017). Only a few
84 studies have linked higher wind speeds to reduced nestling growth; for example in nestling Blue Tits
85 *Cyanistes caeruleus* (Mainwaring & Hartley 2016), Black-legged Kittiwakes *Rissa tridactyla*
86 (Christensen-Dalsgaard *et al.* 2018) and Eurasian Bittern (Kasprzykowski *et al.* 2014). However, in
87 contrast to rainfall and temperature, and despite growing evidence of its influence on reproductive
88 traits (Møller 2013, Irons *et al.* 2017), the impact of wind speed on chick growth has received less
89 attention and is less well known (Mainwaring & Hartley 2016, Irons *et al.* 2017). Similarly, the potential

90 for interactive effects between different weather variables has rarely been considered (but see
91 Dawson *et al.* 2000, Coe *et al.* 2015, Mainwaring & Hartley 2016, de Zwann *et al.* 2019 for examples),
92 despite the potential for synergistic or antagonistic relationships; for example, de Zwann *et al.* (2019)
93 found that the delay in nestling development in Horned Lark *Eremophila alpestris* chicks, induced by
94 cold temperatures, was exacerbated by precipitation.

95 Major effects of weather on nestling growth and development are not universal. Several studies
96 have found little or no effect of weather on chick growth (e.g. Bradbury *et al.* 2003, Gilroy *et al.* 2009).
97 Parents may be able to ameliorate weather impacts, at least over short periods, by adjusting the
98 frequency, timing or nature of food delivered to the nestlings (Dawson *et al.* 2000, Paiva *et al.* 2006).
99 Chicks too may be able to mitigate some of the negative effects on development, for example by
100 slowing growth rates or by prioritising the development of certain tissues over others (Lepczyk &
101 Karasov 2000, Metcalfe & Mongahan 2001, Schifferli *et al.* 2014, Honarmand *et al.* 2017). However,
102 such nestling growth strategies are not without negative effects (Metcalfe & Monaghan 2001).

103 In the current study, we used a seven-year data set to investigate the combined and interactive
104 effects of three key weather variables (temperature, rainfall and wind speed) on the mass and growth
105 of nestlings in the Barn Swallow (hereafter 'Swallow'). The Swallow is a socially monogamous, aerial
106 insectivore with altricial young (Cramp 1988, Turner 2006), and so is expected to be particularly
107 sensitive to short-term weather variation, as the young rely on their parents to brood and to provision
108 them with food during both the nestling and immediate post-fledging stages. We examined the
109 relationship between multiple weather variables (temperature, rainfall and wind) and individual
110 Swallow mass during the nestling stage (8-12 days post-hatching) and fledgling stage (20-35 days post-
111 hatching), representing the dependent and semi-/fully-independent stages of development. In both
112 cases, separate analyses were carried out for short-term weather conditions (conditions on the day of
113 weighing for nestlings or day before for fledglings) and average weather conditions over their elapsed
114 lifetime (i.e. weather conditions from hatching until the time of weighing the nestling or fledgling,
115 hereafter 'lifetime'), to assess their importance at different temporal scales. We tested the following

116 directional predictions: i) Nestling body mass is positively related to temperature but negatively
117 related to wind speed and rainfall, at both daily and lifetime scales, due to impacts on, for example,
118 aerial insect abundance and parental provisioning rates; ii) Fledgling mass is sensitive to weather in
119 the short-term (daily scale), due to weather-related variation in insect abundance and activity, but is
120 less sensitive to weather in the long-term (lifetime scale), as fledglings are expected to be less
121 susceptible to food-limitation once they have completed their growth. Furthermore, we predict that
122 temperature, wind and rain will interact to modulate their separate effects on body mass.

123

124 METHODS

125 **Study Species and Site**

126 Swallow nests were monitored at an equestrian centre in Cardiff, Wales, UK (Cardiff Riding School, N
127 $51^{\circ} 29' 40.7292''$ W $3^{\circ} 12' 21.258''$, 9m asl). The centre is surrounded by 10 hectares of intensively
128 grazed pasture dominated by Ryegrass *Lolium* spp. and Meadow Buttercup *Ranunculus acris*, and lies
129 immediately adjacent to c. 120 ha of urban parkland (Bute Park). Each year, 15-22 pairs of Swallows
130 nest in the stable buildings; pairs typically re-use the same nests both within and between seasons,
131 but occasionally swap nest locations between broods within a season (c. 2-3 pairs per year); these
132 alternative nests are always within the same or an adjacent stable (RJF pers. obs.).

133

134 **Nest monitoring**

135 Nests were monitored from April to September (inclusive) between 2008 and 2014. In each year, nest
136 monitoring continued until no further clutches were initiated. Each nest was visited every three to
137 four days, starting in late April, to record first egg date, hatching date, brood size, and chick survival
138 and fledging success. If hatching was not observed directly, nestling age was estimated based on
139 feather development (Turner 2006) and by comparison with chicks of known age; it was possible to
140 examine all chicks within four days of hatching in all years. All breeding attempts were monitored until

141 the chicks had fledged or the attempt failed. Chicks were considered to have fledged when some or
142 all of the brood was absent from the nest on at least one monitoring visit, but observed to be alive on
143 subsequent visits (at approximately 20 days after hatching, Robinson 2015). A second breeding
144 attempt was considered to be any breeding attempt by the same female that followed a successful
145 first breeding attempt. Breeding attempts that resulted from re-nesting after a failed attempt were
146 not included in the study. To allow individual females to be assigned to each breeding attempt, they
147 were caught and ringed with a British Trust for Ornithology (BTO) metal numbered ring and a
148 combination of three plastic coloured leg rings to allow identification of individuals without the need
149 to recapture them.

150 To determine the effects of local weather conditions on individual mass (as a proxy for growth) we
151 used data from 248 nestlings (8–12 days old), and 75 fledglings: combined, these nestlings and
152 fledglings represented 79 broods. Throughout the study period, we aimed to ring and weigh all chicks
153 between eight and 12 days after hatching. At this age, tarsal development was sufficient to
154 accommodate metal rings and plastic rings (the latter fitted as part of another study) but young
155 enough to avoid premature fledging. All nestlings used in this study were those handled between 1700
156 and 2000hrs (British Summer Time, recorded to the nearest 30 minutes), when access to the study
157 site and nests was most practical. This represents approximately 61% of the young ringed during the
158 study; the remainder were either not weighed and/or were ringed under 5 days of age when young
159 enough to accommodate only a metal ring.

160 Individuals ringed as chicks were also re-caught post fledging -either intentionally, as part of other
161 studies, or unintentionally when targeting adult birds. Therefore, our sample of 75 fledglings
162 comprised 34 individuals weighed at both the nestling and fledgling stage, and 41 individuals weighed
163 as fledglings only. All fledglings were caught between 0500 and 0700hrs. Fledglings were captured at
164 dawn by placing a mist net across the entrance of the stable where they roosted. A minimum of 10
165 days elapsed between the ringing of nestlings and any subsequent re-capture as fledglings. All birds
166 were caught and ringed under BTO permit A5411 issued to RJF, following best practice guidelines

167 (Jenni 1998, Redfern & Clark 2001) and weighed to the nearest 0.1 g using an electronic balance
168 (Satrue SA-500 <http://www.satrue.com.tw/dp2.htm>). Nestlings were ringed in all years, but fledglings
169 were only caught from 2008 to 2011.

170

171 **Weather data**

172 Daily mean ambient temperature (°C, mean of the daily maximum and daily minimum values), daily
173 mean wind speed (km/h) and total daily rainfall (mm) were obtained from a UK Meteorological Office
174 weather station (Bute Park; 51°29'16.7"N 3°11'17.0"W, 9m asl), 1.5 km south of the study site. Due to
175 equipment failure, some data were missing from the Bute Park time series for parts of 2007, 2010 and
176 2011 for one or both of the rainfall and temperature variables. To fill in these gaps in the time series,
177 data were obtained from a second Met Office weather station (St Athan; 51°24'18"N, -3°26'24", 49m
178 asl) approximately 18.7 km to the south-east. Linear regression models were fitted to predict mean
179 temperature and total rainfall in Bute Park, using the temperature and rainfall records for St Athan (n
180 = 529 days; temperature $R^2 = 0.915$; rainfall $R^2 = 0.761$), and predictions generated for missing Bute
181 Park data records (temperature $n = 550$ days, rain $n = 366$ days). Mean daily wind speed (km/h) data
182 were also obtained from St Athan, as these data were not available from Bute Park. The three weather
183 variables were only weakly correlated with each other ($r = 0.005$ to 0.026) and so their effects on
184 chicks could be analysed in the same statistical models (see below).

185 Daily weather data were summarised over two timescales relating to the development of individual
186 chicks: i) the day of handling in the case of nestlings, or in the case of fledglings (which were all caught
187 around sunrise), the day prior to capture, and ii) the time elapsed between hatching and handling,
188 either as a nestling (mean = 9.9 ± 2.0 days) or as a fledgling (mean = 26 ± 3.4 days). Mean values were
189 calculated for temperature and wind, and the cumulative total across this period was calculated for
190 rainfall.

191

192 **Statistical analysis**

193 The effects of local weather variation on the body masses of nestling and fledgling Swallows were
194 investigated using linear mixed-effects models (LMMs), fitted using the R package “lme4” (Bates et al.
195 2015). All analysis was undertaken using R statistical software, version 3.5.1 (R Development Core
196 Team 2017).

197 We fitted four LMMs to test the effects of weather variation upon body mass: each model
198 examined a different combination of the two life stages (nestling and fledgling) and two timescales
199 (day of handling and period since hatching). Collinearity between variables was assessed using pair
200 plots and variance inflation factors (VIF), with a threshold of $VIF < 3$ considered to represent sufficiently
201 low levels of collinearity (Zuur *et al.* 2010). Each of the four starting models contained mean ambient
202 temperature, mean wind speed and total rainfall, either for the day of handling or the period between
203 hatching and handling, and all possible two-way interactions. In addition, age, date of handling (day 1
204 = 1st April), time of day, brood size and nesting attempt (first or second) were included in the starting
205 models, to control for heterogeneity introduced by seasonal and diurnal changes, and changes
206 between successive nesting attempts. With the exception of nesting attempt, all variables were
207 standardised to have a mean of zero and a standard deviation of one, prior to model fitting. While
208 nesting attempt and day of handling could both be considered proxies for seasonal effects, both were
209 included in the starting models as parent birds can make different investment decisions in relation to
210 first and second broods (Møller 1991, Gruebler & Naef-Daenzer 2010) and weather effects on first
211 and second attempts reared in the same nest have been shown to vary seasonally (Salaberria *et al.*
212 2014), both of which may impact chick mass, for example through reduce provisioning rates. Adult
213 female identity was used as a random factor in each model, to account for repeated observations
214 (chicks and nesting attempts) from the same female; of the 48 females in the data set for the ‘chick’
215 models, ten were represented by more than one breeding attempt within the same year across the
216 whole study period, but only three were represented in more than one season (one in three years and
217 two in two years). None of the 27 adult females in the ‘fledgling’ models were represented in more
218 than one year, and only two within the same year. Year was considered for inclusion in all models to

219 account for other sources of temporal variation (e.g. food abundance), but was highly co-linear with
220 other fixed effects (VIF >4, maximum VIF = 40), so was excluded from the models.

221 In all cases, the final models were selected using stepwise removal of explanatory variables until
222 there was no further reduction in the AIC (Burnham & Anderson 2002). Model validation procedures
223 followed Zuur *et al.* (2007) and Thomas *et al.* (2017). The explanatory power of the model was
224 assessed using the marginal R^2 (Nakagawa & Schielzeth 2013), which is based solely on the fixed
225 effects in the model (cf. the conditional R^2 which is based on the whole model fixed and random effects
226 combined), calculated using the 'MuMin' package (Bartón 2019).

227

228 RESULTS

229 Mean \pm sd brood size across the study period was $4.33 \text{ g} \pm 0.92$ (range 3 - 6), mean nestling mass (all
230 ages combined) was $21.88 \text{ g} \pm 2.79$ (11.3-28.7g), and mean fledgling mass $18.0 \text{ g} \pm 1.34$ (15.4 – 22.0).

231 Daily weather variation across the period can be seen in **Error! Reference source not found.** .

232

233 **The effects of weather on nestling mass**

234 Nestling mass was sensitive to local weather variation at both the daily and lifetime temporal scales.

235 At both the daily time-scale (LMM; marginal $R^2 = 0.339$; Table 1) and lifetime scale (LMM; marginal R^2
236 = 0.265;

237 Table 2), chick body mass showed a negative relationship with temperature, although this was
238 mediated by the interactive effects of wind speed (both time-scales) and rainfall (daily time-scale
239 only). At the daily time-scale, nestling body mass declined with ambient temperature, but the rate of
240 decline was negatively related to both wind speed and rainfall; mass decreased with temperature at
241 twice the rate under calm compared to windy conditions, and declined at three times the rate under
242 wet compared to dry conditions (Fig. 1). At the lifetime scale, nestling body mass was negatively
243 related to temperature under calm conditions (at a rate of $-0.89 \text{ g/}^\circ\text{C}$); however, as wind speed
244 increased, the relationship between body mass and temperature was no longer evident (Fig. 2). In the
245 lifetime model, there was a small positive, seasonal effect; there was a 0.01 g difference between
246 different individuals of the same age, and from the same sized brood, but weighed on consecutive
247 days. Breeding attempt was not retained in any of the chick models. Both the daily and lifetime model
248 showed effects of a similar magnitude for the increase in body mass with time of day (1.11 g and 1.18
249 g per hour, respectively) and a negative effect of brood size (-0.76 g and -0.89 g per additional chick in
250 the brood). Predictably, chick mass was shown to increase with age, at a rate of approximately 1g per
251 day of age (1.1 g/day and 0.8 g/day). Chick mass declined with brood size at a rate of approximately
252 0.8-0.9 g per chick increase in brood size.

253

254 **The effects of weather on fledgling mass**

255 In contrast to the nestling stage, fledgling mass was only sensitive to weather at the daily scale (LMM;
256 marginal $R^2 = 0.293$; Table 1). At this timescale, fledgling mass was negatively related to temperature
257 under wet conditions, but the relationship between mass and temperature was reversed under dry
258 conditions (Fig. 3). The two-way interaction between temperature and wind was included in the final
259 model but the relationship with fledgling mass was non-significant ($P = 0.063$,

260 Table 2). At the chick-lifetime scale, fledgling age was the only significant predictor of fledgling mass
261 (LMM; marginal $R^2 = 0.195$;

262 Table 2), with no evidence of any effects of weather across the fledglings' lifetime influencing body
263 mass. Fledgling mass was predicted to decline by a rate of 0.1 g per day of age.

264

265 DISCUSSION

266 We examined the effects of temperature, rainfall and wind-speed on the mass of nestling and fledgling
267 Swallows over two temporal scales: the daily scale (short-term) and at the scale of the individual
268 chick's lifetime (long-term). Mass variations during both the nestling and post-fledging stages were
269 associated with short-term (daily) variation in ambient temperature, rainfall and wind speed, but only
270 nestling mass was found to be affected by weather conditions at the lifetime scale. The current study
271 provides evidence of the complex effects of multiple weather variables on an individual's
272 development, and specifically that these effects vary with the stage of development.

273 We found a complex relationship between nestling mass, and temperature, rainfall and wind
274 speed, with evidence of interactive effects between temperature and rainfall, and temperature and
275 wind speed. In the short-term, increased rainfall and increased wind speed both had a negative effect
276 on nestling mass. While this study was unable to evaluate invertebrate prey abundance concurrently
277 with the growth of nestlings, these interactive relationships are consistent with how weather changes
278 the distribution and density of invertebrate prey in the landscape (Grüebler *et al.* 2008). For example,
279 aerial insect densities are higher along hedgerows and trees, compared to adjacent fields, at low
280 temperatures coupled with high wind speeds (Grüebler *et al.* 2008). This is probably the reason that
281 Swallows show a preference for foraging near boundary features in poor weather (Evans *et al.* 2010);
282 by exploiting this 'honey pot' effect of concentrated food availability, parent Swallows may be able to
283 provision their chicks effectively, even under cold and windy conditions (Pérez *et al.* 2008). The
284 boundary effect is reduced by higher temperatures, lower wind speeds and higher rainfall, as insects
285 become more active and more evenly distributed across the landscape (Grüebler *et al.* 2008).

286 Parent Swallows do not appear to increase their energy expenditure sufficiently to maintain
287 provisioning rates to compensate for low insect availability (Turner 2006, Schifferli *et al.* 2014). This

288 could explain the negative relationships between nestling mass and temperature, which is especially
289 strong under calm conditions; the combination of low wind speed and higher temperatures reduces
290 the 'honey pot' of concentrated food abundance, while potentially increasing the difficulty of catching
291 invertebrates due to increased insect activity at higher temperatures. The effect of rainfall only at the
292 shorter temporal scale is suggestive that it is the duration, rather than the quantity, of rain that is
293 most disruptive to foraging Swallows. At the timescale of the chick's lifetime, Swallows appear to be
294 able to organise their foraging bouts to take advantage of good foraging opportunities when weather
295 conditions allow.

296 Contrary to hypothesis one, and to previous studies (e.g. Fernaz *et al.* 2012), we found that nestling
297 mass had a negative relationship with ambient temperature. Temperature may influence nestling
298 mass indirectly, by affecting insect activity/availability - and thus parental provisioning rates - over a
299 daily timescale, or over the lifetime of a nestling, as discussed above. Overall, invertebrate activity and
300 abundance tends to be reduced under cooler conditions (Bryant 1973, Turner 1983, Jenni-Eiermann
301 *et al.* 2008); a higher body mass under cool conditions is consistent with the use of strategic deposition
302 of fat reserves as a buffer against starvation under conditions with low or unpredictable food
303 availability (Witter *et al.* 1994, Witter *et al.* 1995, Ratikainen & Wright 2013, Vafidis *et al.* 2014).

304 A second, but not mutually exclusive, possibility is that weather affects chick mass via the nest-
305 microclimate. Warmer nest environments can reduce the cost of self-maintenance activities, allowing
306 individual nestlings to invest more in growth (Podlesak & Blem 2001, Dawson *et al.* 2005; Ambrosini
307 *et al.* 2006). For example, Dawson *et al.* (2005) found that by experimentally warming Tree Swallow
308 *Tachycineta bicolor* nests to reduce chicks' energetic demands, chicks had greater survival rates during
309 the nestling stage, faster feather development and were heavier, compared to chicks in control nests.
310 The body heat from livestock in the buildings in which Swallows breed, or the buildings themselves,
311 can provide a thermal advantage to the nest environment in cold weather (Grüebler *et al.* 2010, Imlay
312 *et al.* 2018). Conversely, very high nest temperatures may reduce nestling mass through evaporative
313 heat loss and dehydration (Ardia 2013, Rodríguez & Barba 2016, Andreasson *et al.* 2018, Imlay *et al.*

2019). This may be particularly pertinent for species nesting in anthropogenic structures, such as
hirundines. For example, Imlay *et al.* (2019) found that Cliff Swallow *Petrochelidon pyrrhonota* nests
under barn roofs were subject to higher peak ambient temperatures, with chicks reared during periods
of high temperatures having lower mass. This effect was greater under metal than under wooden
roofs. The population studied here nests in a similar context – nesting within stables 10-15cm
immediately below corrugated bitumen sheet roofing which reaches high temperatures under direct
sunlight – and while temperature data were not collected from within the stables throughout the
entire study period, the temperature within the stables was substantially warmer than ambient
temperature outside (6th to 18th May 2014, mean ambient temperature inside stable = 23.92 ± 5.98
 $^{\circ}\text{C}$, outside = 12.74 ± 1.64 $^{\circ}\text{C}$). Increased ventilation of the buildings and nests as a result of higher
wind speeds (Gray & Deeming 2017, Heenan & Seymour 2012) would be expected to prevent or at
least reduce thermal stress in nestlings.

Taken together, our results are consistent with the negative effect of temperature being the result
of increased evaporative heat loss, especially as nestling mass only had a negative relationship with
temperature at low wind speeds. However, our results are in keeping with Schifferli *et al.* (2014), who
found the body mass of nestling Barn Swallows to be higher on colder days, likely as a buffer against
lower adult provisioning under colder conditions. Further work is therefore recommended to
investigate weather-mediated effects on the nest-microclimate, and the implications of nest
microclimate for chick growth.

Consistent with hypothesis two, fledgling mass was less sensitive to weather in the long term.
Fledgling mass was only significantly affected by weather at a daily timescale; specifically by the
interactive effects of daily temperature and rainfall. In contrast, weather over the lifetime of fledged
Swallows had no effect on fledgling mass, suggesting that body mass is more likely to be driven by a
need to maintain a wing-loading appropriate for an active, aerial insectivore (Møller 2016, Ricklefs
1967, Ricklefs 1968). Consistent with previous studies, brood size was a significant predictor of nestling
mass (Lotem 1998, Saino *et al.* 2001, Saino *et al.* 2003) at both time scales, but was not a predictor of

340 fledgling mass. This is suggestive of mechanisms that allow smaller siblings to compete with larger
341 nest-mates, and thus facilitate similar mass at fledging (Lepczyk & Karasov 2000, Schifferli *et al.* 2014,
342 Stier *et al.* 2015, Honarmand *et al.* 2017). Synchronised fledging can result in a higher level of adult
343 provisioning for all juveniles, compared to those nestlings that remain in the nest after their siblings
344 have fledged (Nilsson & Svensson 1996; Nilsson & Gårdmark 2001). As skeletal development cannot
345 be compensated for later in life, due to early bone ossification (Schew & Ricklefs 1998), it is more
346 advantageous for smaller (i.e. later-hatched) siblings to prioritise increasing body mass and skeletal
347 development over wing-feather development (Mainwaring *et al.* 2001) which can be compensated for
348 during the post-fledging stage.

349 The results presented here demonstrate the importance of considering the interactive effects of
350 multiple weather variables over multiple timescales when examining the impacts of weather on chick
351 growth. In this study, we have interpreted these effects on nestling and fledgling body mass in relation
352 to likely changes in nest micro-climate, and food availability and distribution. Further studies could
353 examine the effects of weather during the nestling and fledgling stages on subsequent survival and
354 recruitment into the breeding population. Determining the relative importance of these effects in
355 relation to population size and persistence may be an important and fruitful avenue of future research,
356 given current climatic trends.

357

358 Data Availability

359 Data will be made available via the Dryad Digital Repository (weblink to be included).

360

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368

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573 **Error! Reference source not found.**

		2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Temperature	Mean ± sd	15.84 ± 2.12	15.62 ± 2.70	15.73 ± 3.05	14.60 ± 2.13	14.75 ± 2.80	15.58 ± 3.65	15.73 ± 2.81
	Minimum	9.90	8.25	6.80	9.80	8.10	7.63	9.91
	Maximum	20.55	21.75	20.50	19.55	21.65	23.82	22.93
Rainfall	Mean ± sd	3.80 ± 5.97	3.68 ± 8.37	2.30 ± 5.60	2.80 ± 4.66	3.63 ± 5.64	1.83 ± 4.75	3.59 ± 6.91
	Minimum	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
	Maximum	29.70	78.10	41.10	27.20	31.40	36.80	46.80
Wind Speed	Mean ± sd	9.71 ± 3.65	9.00 ± 3.46	7.97 ± 2.50	9.33 ± 3.56	8.96 ± 3.60	8.86 ± 3.44	8.47 ± 3.56
	Minimum	3.04	3.42	3.25	3.33	3.42	3.25	3.21
	Maximum	24.00	19.38	16.42	18.88	25.79	17.88	21.04

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578 **Table 1.** Model outputs for daily effects of local weather on nestling and fledgling mass. All main
 579 effects for each of the weather variables were included in the global models, but only the interaction
 580 terms are shown here. Significant weather-related terms are shown in bold ($P \leq 0.05$); non-
 581 significant terms retained in the final model are shown for completeness.

Life Stage	Response variable	parameter			
		estimate	se	t value	P value
Nestling	Age ¹	1.332	0.208	6.409	<0.001
	Brood size	-0.699	0.192	-3.641	<0.001
	Time of day ²	0.877	0.194	4.532	<0.001
	Temperature x Rainfall	-1.858	0.808	-2.299	0.023
	Temperature x Wind speed	0.552	0.227	2.429	0.016
Fledgling	Age ¹	-0.419	0.152	-2.748	0.008
	Day handled ³	0.392	0.177	2.222	0.033
	Temperature x Rainfall	-1.022	0.311	-3.285	0.002
	Temperature x Wind speed	0.596	0.310	1.922	0.063

¹ Days after hatching where day of hatching = day 0

² 17:00-20:00hrs

³ Day 1 = 1 April

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583 **Table 2.** Model outputs for long-term (lifetime) effects of local weather on nestling and fledgling mass.
 584 All main effects for each of the weather variables were included in the global models, but only the
 585 interaction terms are shown here. Significant weather-related terms are shown in bold ($P \leq 0.05$);
 586 non-significant terms retained in the final model are shown for completeness.

Life Stage	Response variable	parameter			
		estimate	se	t value	P value
Nestlings	Age ¹	0.906	0.204	4.443	<0.001
	Day handled ³	0.663	0.236	2.810	0.006
	Brood size	-0.803	0.200	-4.012	<0.001
	Time of day ²	0.785	0.195	4.025	<0.001
	Temperature x Wind Speed	-1.135	0.234	-4.857	<0.001
Fledglings	Age ¹	-0.4653	0.1738	-2.677	0.013
	Day handled	0.3245	0.1792	1.811	0.107
	Brood size	-0.3539	0.1846	-1.917	0.072
	Nesting attempt	-0.6358	0.4321	-1.471	0.153
	Temperature x Wind speed	0.5316	0.2638	2.015	0.072

¹ Days after hatching where day of hatching = day 0

² 17:00-20:00hrs

³ Day 1 = 1 April

587