

1 **Breeding in the pandemic: short-term lockdown restrictions do not alter reproductive**  
2 **decisions and avian life-history traits in a European capital city**

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28  
29 **Abstract**

30 Humans are transforming natural habitats into managed urban green areas and impervious surfaces with  
31 unprecedented pace. Yet the effects of human presence *per se* on animal life-history traits are rarely  
32 tested. This is particularly true in cities, where human presence is often indissociable from urbanisation  
33 itself. The onset of the SARS-CoV-2 outbreak, along with the resulting lockdown restrictions, offered a  
34 unique, “natural experiment” context to investigate wildlife responses to a sudden reduction of human  
35 activities. We analysed four years of avian breeding data collected in a European capital city to test  
36 whether lockdown measures altered nestbox occupancy and life-history traits in two urban adapters:  
37 great tits (*Parus major*) and blue tits (*Cyanistes caeruleus*). Lockdown measures, which modulated  
38 human presence, did not influence any of the life-history traits inferred. In contrast, tree cover, a distinct  
39 ecological attribute of the urban space, positively influenced clutch size, a key avian life-history and  
40 reproductive trait. This highlights the importance of habitat and food webs over human activity on  
41 animal reproduction in cities. We discuss our results in the light of other urban wildlife studies carried

42 out during the pandemic, inviting the scientific community to carefully interpret all lockdown -  
43 associated shifts in biological traits.

44 **Keywords:** lockdown, SARS-CoV-2, urbanisation, human presence, avian life-history traits, tree cover  
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46

## 47 **1. Introduction**

48 Humans, the ecosystem engineers *par excellence*, are capable of quickly transforming original habitats  
49 into managed green areas and impervious surfaces – such as buildings, infrastructural networks and  
50 other built-up structures<sup>1</sup>. Hence, human-driven ecological impacts are pervasive globally, and are  
51 amplified in size relative to human biomass: for this reason, humans are also identified as the “hyper-  
52 keystone species”<sup>2</sup>.

53 Ever since the Industrial Revolution, and especially over the past few decades, human ecosystems were  
54 characterised by an exponential growth of cities and towns worldwide, along with a parallel migration  
55 of people from semi-natural, rural and marginal areas, to more urbanised settlements<sup>3,4</sup>. Along with the  
56 urbanisation process, the footprint of human activities is now influencing all dimensions of the natural  
57 world, and is an undeniable threat to biodiversity<sup>3,5-7</sup>. As such, cities are a valuable case study of  
58 ecological and evolutionary change as they rapidly induce novel and selective pressures on animal and  
59 plant communities<sup>8</sup>. These may respond by disappearing (urban avoiders), spreading (urban exploiters)  
60 or thriving / surviving (urban adapters) within these novel environments<sup>9-11</sup>. Urban adapters, such as  
61 great tits (*Parus major*) and blue tits (*Cyanistes caeruleus*), became valuable study systems to determine,  
62 on one hand, whether urban populations differ from their rural counterparts in terms of genotype,  
63 physiology or behaviour and - on the other - to define the main components of the urban landscape  
64 causing such variation<sup>12</sup>. Earlier studies reported pronounced differences in terms of life-history traits  
65 and reproductive success between urban and rural populations<sup>12</sup>, often identifying chemical<sup>13,14</sup>, light  
66<sup>15,16</sup> and sound pollution<sup>17,18</sup> as main drivers of these differences. Other studies emphasized the negative  
67 and pervasive effect of built up areas, infrastructural networks and, more generally, impervious surfaces

68 on avian fitness<sup>19-21</sup>. Yet, only a handful of studies tested whether human presence *per se* was linked to  
69 evolutionary traits in urbanised contexts<sup>21,22</sup>.

70 A considerable limitation in studying the effects of human presence *per se* on wildlife across the urban  
71 mosaic stems from the unfeasibility to disassociate human presence from urbanisation in general, which  
72 is a wider and more complex ecological process. Consequently, it was impossible to date to exclude the  
73 constant presence of humans from urban areas – where “crowds” are the norm, and where fine-scale  
74 heterogeneity of human presence in the urban mosaic is also known to be repeatable over time and space  
75<sup>23</sup> (but see<sup>24-26</sup>). Nevertheless, the presence of humans in urban green areas overlaps with the breeding  
76 season of many avian species able to thrive within these novel environments. Given such overlap in  
77 terms of space use between humans and wildlife across the urban mosaic, how would free living -  
78 populations respond in terms of life-history strategy to a sudden disappearance of the “human  
79 component” from normally highly frequented areas? Even though such question could be perceived as  
80 utopian until recently, 2020 proved us wrong.

81 Along with the spread of the novel coronavirus disease, the World Health Organization (WHO) declared  
82 the SARS-CoV-2 – zoonotic pandemic on the 11th of March 2020<sup>27</sup>. This kick-started a cascade of  
83 governmental actions worldwide aimed at containing the virus transmission<sup>28</sup>. Most of these were  
84 realised through the cancellation of public events and the immediate interruption of any type of  
85 gatherings characterised by high human densities, be it commercial or social events. Although the timing  
86 and strength of lockdown restrictions imposed by each government differed between countries,  
87 quarantine and stay-at-home orders considerably reduced the use of public transports and the flow of  
88 people within and outside of cities during the first pandemic wave of infections, creating newly emptied  
89 soundscapes even where crowds and chaos were the *routine*<sup>29</sup>. This new realm, defined as the  
90 “*Anthropause*”, offered a unique opportunity for scientists to investigate wildlife-responses to  
91 lockdown-measures in urban landscapes, while – for the first time ever - retaining humans indoors,  
92 leaving the outdoors emptied from their hyper key-stone species<sup>30</sup> (**Table 1**).

93 Shortly after the SARS-CoV-2 outbreak, media outlets started to report unusual sightings of animal  
94 species never observed in cities; similarly, social media were flooded with photos of wildlife in the

95 urban space. An equally remarkable effort was made by the scientific community, which investigated,  
96 (to the best of lockdown regulations for any specific region), the possible impact of the pandemic on  
97 wildlife biology by collecting data in the field or through the observations of volunteers (i.e. citizen-  
98 science projects and online platforms, **Table 1**). To date, the majority of studies here reported (9 out of  
99 13, **Table 1**) conducted on the effect of the SARS-CoV-2 lockdown focused on behavioural patterns of  
100 animal communities, specifically in terms of sightings<sup>31-33</sup>. Analyses were generally performed by  
101 comparing pre-lockdown and post-lockdown periods for the recorded observations, and emphasized an  
102 increased trend for uncommon “species occurrence” in areas where humans suddenly disappeared (e.g.  
103 <sup>31,32,34</sup>). However, these reports were not uniform across all species: in some cases, no difference pre-  
104 and during lockdown was noted<sup>31,32,34</sup>, while in other cases, the directionality of the association was  
105 opposite (e.g., fewer sightings were reported during than before lockdown)<sup>31,34</sup>. For instance, some  
106 urban exploiters during lockdown decreased in number within certain urban areas: such changes may be  
107 related to the “absence” of human-generated food resources caused by this novel circumstance<sup>34</sup>.  
108 Moreover, along with the discoveries on SARS-CoV-2 origin, other studies reported a negative attitude  
109 of people towards bats<sup>35</sup>. This aspect turned into a direct persecution of this animal taxon across China,  
110 which was subsequently defined as “Ecological culling”<sup>35</sup>. These results suggests that more data is  
111 needed to delineate trait - and species-specific responses to SARS-CoV-2 lockdown restrictions across  
112 human-modified landscapes.

113 As the majority of studies reporting the impact of human lockdown on wildlife during the SARS-CoV-  
114 2 pandemic relate to behavioural traits, data on the impact on animal life-history and / or reproductive  
115 traits remains very scarce<sup>32,33,36</sup>: in fact, despite the presumed beneficial effects of lockdown on urban  
116 wildlife, only two studies (out of the 13 here described) to date report a positive association between  
117 reproductive traits and implemented lockdown measures (e.g., increased hatching success in  
118 Leatherback sea turtles *Dermochelys coriacea*<sup>33</sup>, and increased clutch size in common swifts *Apus apus*  
119 <sup>32</sup>). The implications of the “Anthropause” on wildlife life-history variation in urban populations remain  
120 therefore largely unexplored. To address this knowledge gap, we tested whether lockdown restrictions  
121 introduced during the SARS-CoV-2 pandemic in a European capital city (Warsaw, Poland) were

122 associated with changes in occupancy patterns and life-history trait variation in two nestbox-breeding  
123 passerines: great tits *Parus major* and blue tits *Cyanistes caeruleus*. Thanks to a legal framework  
124 allowing scientists to work when needed during the pandemic, and to ascertain the possible role of  
125 lockdown measures on free-living populations, the same data collection protocols were used in 3 years  
126 prior to the SARS-CoV-2 pandemic (2017-2019) and during the pandemic (2020).

127 The life-history traits investigated here included nestboxes occupancy, laying date, clutch size and  
128 incubation duration: we focused on these traits because all of them occurred within the period of the  
129 strictest lockdown measures in Poland, which lasted from the 1<sup>st</sup> until the 20<sup>th</sup> of April, 2020<sup>37-39</sup>. In  
130 parallel to testing the effect of lockdown measures on avian trait variation, we also analysed the role of  
131 tree cover in nestbox surroundings – a considerably less labile attribute of the urban space than human  
132 presence, and vital in providing shelter and food resources (*i.e.* caterpillars as favourite prey item<sup>40</sup>) in  
133 these two species.

134 Based on previous work on human presence carried out in natural and urbanised contexts<sup>21,22</sup>, but in  
135 contrast to media reports on the impact of lockdown on urban wildlife, we did not expect any association  
136 between lockdown measures and avian reproductive life-history traits. Conversely, we predicted that  
137 the percentage of tree cover in nestbox surroundings would maintain its influence on great tit and blue  
138 tit life-history trait variation regardless of the pandemic.

139

## 140 **2. Methods**

141

### 142 **2.1 Study sites and lockdown restrictions in Poland**

143 Avian life-history and reproductive data were collected from 2017 to 2020 across seven study sites set  
144 in a gradient of urbanisation in the capital city of Warsaw, Poland. Each study site is characterised by  
145 an assigned number of Schwegler woodcrete nestboxes (type 1b, with a 32 mm entrance hole and erected  
146 in a 50m-distance grid) suitable for great tits and blue tits. The study system here described aims to

147 accurately reflect the urban matrix, as it comprises a wide range of diverse and contrasted habitat patches  
148 <sup>41</sup>.

149 While a state of epidemic was officially declared in Poland on March 20<sup>th</sup>, a series of increasingly  
150 restrictive measures limiting human presence outdoors were subsequently introduced. A strict lockdown  
151 period forbidding the use of urban green areas was introduced between the 1<sup>st</sup> of April and 20<sup>th</sup> of April  
152 included. During this time, city dwellers were not allowed to access urban green areas, recreational  
153 locations, natural reserves or protected areas within and outside city borders. The only allowed activities  
154 outside of homes included the purchase of food supplies and other essentials items, caring duties and  
155 work, which enabled the authors of this study to access green areas within the remit of their work.

156 Study areas in our urban study system were thus subjected to contrasted levels of access restrictions  
157 during the SARS-CoV-2 lockdown. We consequently assigned each study site to the following  
158 categories:

- 159 • “Lockdown - Entrance Allowed” (LEA) – pertains to 4 sites and a total of 173 nestboxes;  
160 included streets and residential areas where residents were allowed outdoors to fulfil their  
161 essential needs during the pandemic
- 162 • “Lockdown – Entrance Not Allowed” (LENA) – pertains to 3 sites and a total of 236 nestboxes;  
163 included parks, woodlands and forest reserves, all of which were closed to the public during the  
164 strict lockdown period. All these sites re-opened to the public on the 20<sup>th</sup> of April 2020.

165 We provide a brief description with lockdown information (as “LEA” or “LENA”) below; sites are listed  
166 from the most distant to the closest to Warsaw city centre. More details on each study site can be found  
167 in Corsini et al <sup>21,42</sup> and Szulkin et al. <sup>41</sup>.

168 **A. Suburban village (n=47 nestboxes, LEA).** Palmiry village (20°46’48.9748’’E - 52°22’11.3382’’N)  
169 is located c. 20 km away from Warsaw city centre and borders Kampinos National Park (Site B). Palmiry  
170 is a typical suburban village, where residential homes with gardens are interconnected by tree-lined  
171 avenues.

172 **B. Natural forest (n=110, LENA).** Kampinos National Park (20°47'14.3867''E - 52°21'22.5409''N) is  
173 a large forest located c. 20 km from Warsaw city center. The area is characterised by pine and mixed  
174 oak-pine forest habitats.

175 **C. Residential area II (n=52, LEA).** Osiedle Olszyna neighbourhood (20°57'39.37097''E -  
176 52°16'23.71883''N) is a block of flats intermixed with green spaces and recreational facilities. It borders  
177 with the urban woodland "Las Olszyna" (site D).

178 **D. Urban woodland (n=21, LENA).** Las Olszyna (20°57'33.93652''E - 52°16'10.55093''N) is a green  
179 space that includes a deciduous, wet alder forest and an open space with an adjacent playground.

180 **E. Office area (n=28, LEA).** The Warsaw University "Ochota" Campus (20°59'8.85224''E -  
181 52°12'43.77676''N) is located next to the urban park Pole Mokotowskie (site G) and belongs to one of  
182 the central districts of the city. Buildings consist of university offices, laboratories and other student  
183 facilities.

184 **F. Residential area I (n=46, LEA).** The "Muranow" neighbourhood (20°59'5.74332''E -  
185 52°14'52.17925''N) is a residential area, similar in design to Residential area II (site C).

186 **G. Urban park (n=105, LENA).** Pole Mokotowskie (21°0'6.98321''E - 52°12'46.66874''N) is an  
187 extensive urban green area located close to the city center. With its alternation of meadows, tree-covered  
188 areas and recreational structures (i.e. playgrounds and sport facilities), it provides a centrally-located  
189 recreational area for city dwellers.

190

## 191 **2.2 Avian life-history traits data collection**

192 From the end of March, we checked nestboxes weekly to identify those occupied by great tits and blue  
193 tits. A nestbox was considered as "occupied" when at least one egg was laid on a completed nest. Weekly  
194 checks allowed to record the date of the first egg laid (e.g. laying date recorded from the 1<sup>st</sup> of April,  
195 corresponding to the value of 1), incubation duration (given in days and calculated as: hatch date – first  
196 egg laid date – clutch size – 1, <sup>43</sup>, though incubation occasionally starts earlier or later than clutch

197 completion in tits <sup>44</sup>) and clutch size (total number of eggs in the nest). Only first broods were included  
198 in the analyses <sup>45</sup>.

199

### 200 **2.3 Tree-cover measurements**

201 We measured the percentage of tree cover in a 100m radius around each nestbox following Szulkin et  
202 al. <sup>41</sup>. Briefly, after downloading a raster layer from Copernicus Land Monitoring Services  
203 ([https://land.copernicus.eu/sitemap/Forests/Tree Cover Density](https://land.copernicus.eu/sitemap/Forests/Tree%20Cover%20Density)), we processed the data in qGIS  
204 (v.2.18.25). The map of tree cover was generated in 2015 and contained a 20m-pixel resolution layer.  
205 After creating a 100m radius buffer around each nestbox, we obtained the averaged value of tree cover  
206 (in %) at the nestbox level using the function *Zonal Statistics* in qGIS.

207

### 208 **2.4 Statistical analyses**

209 Statistical analyses were performed within the computing environment R (v.3.6.2), separately for great  
210 tits and blue tits, in order to directly assess species-specific trait variation.

211

#### 212 **2.4.1 Association between avian life-history traits and lockdown restrictions**

213 To test associations between avian life-history traits and lockdown restrictions, all tests were run in a  
214 model averaging framework <sup>46</sup>. To test the effect of lockdown on avian traits investigated in this study,  
215 we specifically focused on the interaction between *year* and *lockdown status* (LEA - Lockdown Entrance  
216 Allowed vs. LENA - Lockdown Entrance Not Allowed sites), the latter explicitly reflecting a lack of  
217 outdoors human activity in LENA sites in 2020.

218 To model nestbox occupancy, we fitted generalised linear models (GLMs) with binomial distribution  
219 ("*glm*" function in the R-package "*lme4*" v.1.1-21-<sup>47</sup>). A nestbox was considered occupied (1) only if a  
220 great tit or a blue tit (analysed separately) was breeding in the nestbox. Nestbox occupancy (0/1) was  
221 fitted as binomial-response variable in each model, while the interaction between the two categorical

222 variables *year* (four levels: 2017, 2018, 2019 and 2020) and *lockdown status* (two levels: LEA and  
223 LENA study sites) were fitted as predictors.

224 To model variation in egg laying date (“Lay date”; the egg laying date of a nest where the first egg was  
225 laid on the 1<sup>st</sup> of April would be coded with the value of 1), we fitted Linear Mixed Effects models  
226 (LMMs) with Gaussian distribution (“*lmer*” function in the R-package “*lme4*”). As for the analysis of  
227 nestboxes occupancy, the interaction between the two categorical variables *year* and *lockdown status*  
228 were fitted as explanatory variable. To control for variation associated with site specificity, the  
229 categorical variable *study site* (sites A-G) was fitted as random effect. The same model structure was  
230 used to model variation in clutch size, where we additionally fitted *lay date* as explanatory variable to  
231 control for the fact that earlier clutches in the season are often larger than later ones <sup>48</sup>.

232 For incubation duration, we ran Generalised Linear Models with Gaussian distribution (“*glm*” function  
233 in R; the random effect of *study site* was not added here due to singularity problems in the model and a  
234 lack of model convergence when the random effect was added). Incubation duration was fitted as  
235 response variable while the interaction between *year* and *lockdown status*, and the continuous-variable  
236 *lay date* (to control for seasonal differences in each breeding event, as incubation duration decreases  
237 later in the season <sup>21</sup>) were fitted as predictors.

238

#### 239 **2.4.2 Association between avian life-history traits and tree cover**

240 To test whether tree cover in a 100 m radius around each nestbox (in %) covaries with avian life-history  
241 traits, the following models were run:

242 For nestbox occupancy, we used the same structure as described in 2.4.1, but for the variable *lockdown*  
243 *status*, which was replaced by the continuous variable *tree cover*.

244 In lay date and clutch size models, we used Generalised Linear Models (GLM) fitting each response  
245 with a Gaussian distribution. Similarly to the models ran on occupancy detailed above, the interaction  
246 between *year* and *tree cover* were fitted as predictors. Additionally, the explanatory variable *lay date*  
247 was added to clutch size and incubation duration analyses to mirror analyses performed on the same

248 response variables as detailed in 2.4.1. In contrast to analyses described in the section 2.4.1, *site* was not  
249 included as random effect, as it covaries with the variable *tree cover* (here fitted as key explanatory  
250 variable).

251

### 252 **2.4.3 Does lockdown influence tree cover preferences in occupied nestboxes?**

253 To test whether tit tree cover preferences in occupying specific nestboxes changed due to the reduced  
254 human presence that occurred in 2020, we performed a one-way ANOVA test to model *tree cover* as a  
255 function of year among occupied great tit and blue tit nestboxes..

256

## 257 **3. Results**

258

### 259 **3.1 No association between lockdown restrictions and avian life-history traits**

260 There was no significant association between pandemic-related human space use (tested as the  
261 interaction *lockdown status\*year*) and any of the life-history traits inferred (Table S1, Table 2, Figure  
262 2). In contrast, year and lockdown status (but not their interaction) influenced blue tit and great tit life-  
263 history traits, bearing in mind that lockdown status largely reflected sites that are either places of work  
264 or residence *vs.* green spaces (LEA *vs.* LENA sites, respectively; Table 2; Table S3).

265

266 Nestbox occupancy rates, measured in percentage, were significantly lower in “Lockdown - Entrance  
267 Allowed” (LEA ) sites relative to “Lockdown – Entrance Not Allowed (LENA) sites in blue tits (Figure  
268 2, Table S4). Considerable year to year variation was detected, with occupancy rates significantly higher  
269 in 2018 and 2019 relative to 2017 in great tits (Table 2). An equally strong year-effect was confirmed  
270 for *lay date* in both species: in fact, in 2018, 2019 and 2020, lay date was delayed relative to 2017 (Table  
271 2). Even though the averaged model kept the interaction between lockdown categories and year in both  
272 species, confidence intervals for the lockdown effect (*lockdown status \* Year 2020*) always included  
273 zero (Table S1, Table 2). Moreover, there was a significant reduction in clutch size later in the season  
274 in both species (Table 2) and in great tits, the number of eggs per breeding attempt was also significantly

275 lower in 2020 relative to 2017. The only significant interaction included the categorical variables “*Year*  
276 *2019*” and “*Lockdown (LEA)*”, which was positively associated with clutch size in great tits (Table S1,  
277 Table 2). In both species, incubation duration was shorter in 2018, 2019 and 2020 relative to 2017, and  
278 decreased later in the season (Table S1, Table 2).

### 279 **3.2 Tree cover as driver of avian life-history traits**

280 In both great tits and blue tits, tree cover around the nestbox positively covaried with clutch size, but  
281 not with other traits (Figure 3; Table 3, Table S2). For all traits, *tree cover \* year* interactions were either  
282 dropped from the final models or overlapped zero, confirming a lack of between-year variation of the  
283 effect of tree cover on life-history traits in both species. In blue tits, clutches were initiated later in the  
284 season in areas with the highest percentage of tree cover (Table S2, Table 3): a similar trend, yet not  
285 significant, was found in great tits. Mirroring results reported in 3.1, there was also considerable  
286 variation in life-history traits induced by year, and a reduction in incubation duration later in the season  
287 for both species (Table S2, Table 3).

288

### 289 **3.3 Averaged tree cover around occupied nestboxes did not change in the pandemic**

290 Tree cover surrounding occupied nestboxes did not differ in the pandemic year when compared to other  
291 years (Table S5).

292

## 293 **4. Discussion**

294 We did not detect any significant *lockdown status\*year* interaction on occupancy or on any reproductive  
295 life-history traits investigated. In line with earlier work demonstrating limited effects of human presence  
296 on avian reproduction in the urban space <sup>21</sup>, this study finds no evidence for an effect of the 2020  
297 pandemic lockdown on blue tit or great tit life-history reproductive variation (Table 2). Instead, year  
298 effects were the key drivers of occupancy and life-history trait variation in these two urban adapters  
299 (Table 2), suggesting the overarching role played by other biotic and abiotic factors on reproductive trait  
300 variation during the pandemic. In contrast to a lack of effects of human presence (previously

301 demonstrated in Corsini et al. <sup>21</sup>, and, here, “experimentally” through the testing of the *lockdown status*  
302 \* *year* interaction in this study), we established that tree cover consistently covaried positively with  
303 clutch size in both great tits and blue tits (Figure 3; Table 3). The most likely proximate factors  
304 underlying this relationship are tree-dwelling lepidopteran larvae and other insects, which remain the  
305 main food items used by adult tits to feed their offspring in urban-dominated landscapes <sup>40</sup> (but see <sup>49</sup>  
306 reporting that blue tits may occasionally use human-generated food resources to feed their nestlings <sup>6</sup>).  
307 Consequently, tree cover appears to act as cue for resource allocation in reproductive decisions.

308 The absence of lockdown-related effects in terms of avian life-history traits in our study system mirrors  
309 the findings of a study of human presence performed at a fine spatial scale in 2017 within two areas of  
310 the same study setup <sup>21</sup>. The authors reported how human presence in a 15 meters radius around the  
311 nestbox was not associated with any of the avian life-history traits inferred. In contrast, other elements  
312 of the urban landscape (such as distance to roads and paths) influenced incubation duration and nestlings  
313 body mass 15 days after hatching <sup>21</sup>; see also <sup>19</sup>. Here, we used the “*Anthropause*” <sup>30</sup> triggered by  
314 the SARS-CoV-2 pandemic, and set in the context of avian breeding data collected across multiple years  
315 in a heterogeneous urban landscape, to confirm the limited role of human presence with a “quasi”  
316 experimental approach, strengthening the above-mentioned findings. Interestingly, the extent of tree  
317 cover surrounding occupied nestboxes did not change in the pandemic year relative to previous years.  
318 As humans disappeared from LENA sites in 2020, these unique circumstances could have prompted  
319 birds to settle in nestboxes that would have otherwise been avoided because of too high human densities,  
320 which are also known to covary with low levels of tree cover in the urban space <sup>41</sup>. This suggests that  
321 birds are selecting their breeding locations irrespective of human physical presence, and that the  
322 ecological cues such as tree cover used by tits in their reproductive decisions remains unchanged  
323 irrespective of the *Anthropause* (Table 3, Figure 3).

324 Recent studies to date report a mixed picture of the impact of the SARS-CoV-2 pandemic lockdown on  
325 wildlife biological variation (Table 1). Out of a prevalence of behavioural studies (largely reporting a  
326 presence or absence of particular species during the lockdown period, Table1), only three studies present  
327 phenotype or fitness data, specifically in the leatherback turtle <sup>33</sup>, the greater snow goose <sup>36</sup> and the

328 common swift<sup>32</sup>. Thus, Manenti et al.<sup>32</sup> report an increase in clutch size in the common swift in Italy  
329 during the pandemic. The authors attribute this positive trend in reproductive success to the drastic drop  
330 of air pollution recorded in 2020 in the country (specifically, nitrogen dioxide, benzene and sulphur  
331 dioxide<sup>50</sup>). In particular, nitrogen dioxide is known to reduce insects' biomass and to directly affect  
332 birds fitness by inhalation exposure<sup>50,51</sup>. Differently to tits, which feed on canopy invertebrates during  
333 the breeding season<sup>40</sup>, common swifts are aerial Afro-Palearctic migratory birds, which exclusively feed  
334 on aerial insects<sup>52</sup>, and may thus be more likely to changes in aerial insect abundance in the urban space,  
335 though this relationship remains speculative. Another study reported possible pandemic-driven changes  
336 in the body condition of the greater snow goose (Table 1). Variation in body condition was discussed in  
337 the context of a reduction of the hunting activity in the area of study during the lockdown period<sup>36</sup>.  
338 Consequently, the reduced stress generated by the lower number of scaring events, contributed to the  
339 increased body condition in greater snow geese in 2020<sup>36</sup>, with possible downstream consequences on  
340 reproductive success (e.g., number of fledglings) later in the season<sup>36</sup>. Other wildlife studies carried out  
341 in the SARS-CoV-2 pandemic period (Table 1) highlight the role of food availability in species  
342 occurrence<sup>34,53</sup>: thus, species such as Feral pigeons (*Columba livia*) and Torresian crows (*Corvus orru*)  
343 (often referred to as "urban exploiters" as they rely on waste, bread, seeds and other anthropogenic food  
344 resources<sup>9,53</sup>) decreased in number within the urban space since the pandemic started, moving to more  
345 natural areas to feed on native invertebrate communities, with serious (and, to some extent, destructive)  
346 consequences on local ecosystems<sup>53</sup>. All in all, results reported to date highlight a species-specific  
347 response to lockdown restrictions (Table 1).

348 As mentioned above, another example of species-specific responses related to breeding preferences in  
349 tits, includes the nesting behaviour: in fact, great tits and blue tits are cavity-nesters and as such, are not  
350 directly exposed to humans or dogs (often associated with human presence in urban areas<sup>23</sup>) during the  
351 breeding season. It is possible that data from open and/or ground-nester birds could reveal a more  
352 complex picture of lockdown-effects associated with human presence on avian breeding success. On  
353 one hand, human presence may expose certain ground and open nesting birds to predation by domestic  
354 animals especially in urban green areas, where cats and dogs are often left free to roam. Consequently,

355 their absence from urban green areas during the SARS-CoV-2 pandemic could lead to a lower number  
356 of dog-related predation events. Conversely - the presence of humans in cities may acts as a deterrent  
357 towards other urban predators such as foxes *Vulpes vulpes*, squirrels *Sciurus vulgaris*, martens *Martes*  
358 *foina* or birds of prey, etc). Undoubtedly, lockdown timing, combined with biological attributes of  
359 species biology (e.g. diet or breeding preferences), might have played a role in the contrasted breeding  
360 output recorded during the pandemic. More lockdown studies would be valuable to reliably explore the  
361 fine-scale dynamics between human presence and wildlife biological variation in this unusual period of  
362 cities under lockdown.

363 Scientists worldwide used ground-based and citizen-science data to quantify behavioural, phenotypic  
364 and fitness responses of urban wildlife to the outdoors absence of humans in cities (Table 1), which  
365 ultimately demonstrated even far-reaching downstream relationships between the two: for example, the  
366 SARS-CoV-2 pandemic led to a decrease of road kill events across multiple taxa (see <sup>32,54</sup>, Table 1).  
367 This is most likely caused by the lower number of vehicles allowed to travel during the lockdown  
368 periods. Moreover, while, in some cases, reduced hunting activity improved animals body condition <sup>36</sup>,  
369 in other cases the pandemic increased poaching events <sup>55</sup>. Thus, human activities responses to the  
370 lockdown measures were also context-related.

## 371 **5. Conclusions**

372 The short-term restrictions imposed by the SARS COV2 pandemic lockdown did not alter variation in  
373 occupancy rates or reproductive life-history variation in great tits and in blue tits in the capital city of  
374 Warsaw. Our results, together with those reported in recent studies (Table 1), point to a complex picture  
375 of lockdown consequences on urban wildlife, which are likely to be species-specific (e.g related to diet  
376 or breeding preferences), and context-related (e.g. dependent on the location and timing of lockdown or  
377 of human responses to it).

378 We argue that a replicated attempt to analyse long-term studies in the specific context of the  
379 “*Anthropause*” generated by the SARS-CoV-2 pandemic would reveal a fuller and more balanced  
380 picture of the diverse urban wildlife responses than what was reported in media outlets. Ultimately, such

381 studies would pave the way to i) a better understanding of rapid life-history and behavioural responses  
382 of wildlife to human activities and ii) the implementation of new conservation strategies to preserve  
383 biodiversity, even in areas where human presence is now the norm.

384

385 **Data accessibility:**

386 In case of manuscript acceptance, data here analysed will be available in Dryad public repository.

387

388 **Authors' contribution:**

389 MC: conceptualization, data collection, data curation, formal analysis, visualization, writing original  
390 draft. ZJ, MW, MR, IS, EM: data collection, data curation, manuscript editing. MS: conceptualization,  
391 data collection, data curation, manuscript editing.

392 All authors gave final approval for publication and agreed to be held accountable for the work performed  
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532



**Table 1. Overview of studies examining the impact of Covid19-lockdown restrictions on wildlife and on human wildlife-related activities.**

Study species	Traits/ human actions tested <sup>a</sup>	Effect <sup>b</sup>	Study area / habitat type	Methods <sup>c</sup>	Lockdown period <sup>d</sup>	Ref.
Greater snow goose ( <i>Chen caerulescens atlantica</i> )	Scaring events (HA) Body condition (PH&F) Hunting activities (HA)	(-) (+) (-)	Small agricultural island Saint-Lawrence estuary [Canada]	G G G	16 <sup>th</sup> of March – 4 <sup>th</sup> of May 2020	<sup>36</sup>
Avian species	Presence (B) Morning detectability (B)	(nd) (+)	Urban and rural areas [north eastern Spain] Urban and rural areas [north eastern Spain]	CZS CZS	15 <sup>th</sup> of March – 13 <sup>th</sup> of April 2020	<sup>56</sup>
Avian species	Submission of protocol lists to SABAP2 (HA) Participation to “Lockdown-gardens” surveys (HA)	(-) (+)	[South Africa]	CZS CZS	27 <sup>th</sup> of March – 30 <sup>th</sup> of April 2020	<sup>57</sup>
Eurasian tree sparrow ( <i>Passer montanus</i> )	Flight Initiation Distance (B)	(-)	Urban areas [China]	G	[ns]	<sup>58</sup>
Puma ( <i>Puma concolor</i> )	Presence (B)	(+)	[North American urban centres]	CZS	[1 <sup>st</sup> of March – 31 <sup>st</sup> of July 2020]	<sup>31</sup>
Coyote ( <i>Canis latrans</i> ),	Presence (B)	(nd)	[North American urban centres]	CZS		
Moose ( <i>Alces alces</i> )	Presence (B)	(nd)	[North American urban centres]	CZS		
American black bear ( <i>Ursus americanus</i> )	Presence (B)	(nd)	[North American urban centres]	CZS		
Bobcat ( <i>Lynx rufus</i> )	Presence (B)	(nd)	[North American urban centres]	CZS		
Feral pigeons ( <i>Columba livia</i> )	Presence (B)	(-)	Urban - open food centres - Singapore	G	7 <sup>th</sup> of April – 1 <sup>st</sup> of June 2020	<sup>34</sup>
Feral pigeons ( <i>Columba livia</i> )	Foraging and moving (B)	(+)	Urban – foraging hotspots - Singapore	G		
Feral pigeons ( <i>Columba livia</i> )	Resting (B)	(-)	Urban – foraging hotspots - Singapore	G		
Javan myna ( <i>Acridotheres javanicus</i> )	Presence (B)	(+)	Urban – refuse collection centre - Singapore	G		
Javan myna ( <i>Acridotheres javanicus</i> )	Presence (B)	(-)	Urban – green areas - Singapore	G		
Common myna ( <i>Acridotheres tristis</i> )	Presence (B)	(nd)	Urban - open food centres - Singapore	G		
House crow ( <i>Corvus splendens</i> )	Presence (B)	(nd)	Urban – foraging hotspots - Singapore	G		
Torresian crows ( <i>Corvus orru</i> )	Presence (B)	(-)	Urban	G	2 <sup>nd</sup> of April – 30 <sup>th</sup> of June 2020	<sup>53</sup>

	Presence (B)	(+)	Rural / natural	G		
White crowned sparrow ( <i>Zonotrichia leucophrys</i> )	Amplitude of song (B)	(-)	San Francisco Bay [United States of America]	G	1 <sup>st</sup> of April – 31 <sup>st</sup> of May 2020	<sup>29</sup>
	Noise levels (HA)	(-)	San Francisco Bay [United States of America]	G		
	Song performance (B)	(+)	San Francisco Bay [United States of America]	G		
Leatherback sea turtle ( <i>Dermochelys coriacea</i> )	Presence (B)	(+)	Beach on the North Caribbean coast [Costa Rica]	G	1 <sup>st</sup> of March – 31 <sup>st</sup> of August 2020	<sup>33</sup>
	Hatching success (PH&F)	(+)	Beach on the North Caribbean coast [Costa Rica]	G		
Crested porcupine ( <i>Hystrix cristata</i> )	Presence (B)	(+) / (nd)	Urban areas / non – urban areas [Italy]	CZS	11 <sup>th</sup> of March – 4 <sup>th</sup> of May 2020	<sup>32</sup>
Kentish plover ( <i>Charadrius alexandrinus</i> )	Presence (B)	(+)	Seaside [Italy]	G		
Water birds	Species richness (B)	(+)	Artificial lake [northern Italy]	G		
Common swift ( <i>Apus apus</i> )	Clutch size (PH&F)	(+)	[Italy]	G		
Common toads ( <i>Bufo bufo</i> )	Road kill (HA)	(-)	[Italy]	G		
Agile frog ( <i>Rana dalmatina</i> )	Road kill (HA)	(-)	[Italy]	G		
Common wall lizard ( <i>Podarcis muralis</i> )	Road kill (HA)	(-)	[Italy]	G		
Western green lizard ( <i>Lacerta bilineata</i> )	Road kill (HA)	(-)	[Italy]	G		
Eastern cottontail ( <i>Sylvilagus floridanus</i> )	Diurnal activity (B)	(+)	[northern Italy]	G		
Wildlife	Poaching activities (HA)	(+)	Protected areas [Nepal]	G	24 <sup>th</sup> of March – 21 <sup>st</sup> of June 2020	<sup>55</sup>
	Presence (B)	(+)	Protected areas [Nepal]	G		
Bats species	Negative attitude from the public (HA)	(+)	[China]	CZS	[ns]	<sup>35</sup>
Hedgehog ( <i>Erinaceus roumanicus</i> )	Road kill (HA)	(-)	Chełm [Poland]	G	[ns]	<sup>54</sup>

**Table 1.** Overview of studies conducted in 2020 testing the influence of lockdown restrictions on wildlife. <sup>(a)</sup> categorises the examined traits as behavioural (B; note that here, “behaviour” is not qualified as phenotype as this category is largely constituted of species sightings rather than individual-specific attributes), individual-level phenotype and fitness (PH&F) or to wildlife-related human activities (HA). Effects <sup>(b)</sup> reports the directionality of the association driven by the

lockdown period, denoted as an increase (+), decrease (-) or no significant difference (nd). Methods of data collection detailed in (°) categorise data collection as performed by scientists during fieldwork (FW) while CZS relates to the contributions of volunteers (e.g. a citizen science approach), which recorded daily-based observations through online or other social media platforms . (d) indicates the length of the lockdown period, where “ns” indicates “not specified” in the study).

Species	Response	Variable	Estimate	se	CI 95%	Relative importance
Great tit n = 1636 (1 = 364; 0 = 1272) Family: Binomial	Occupancy	(Intercept)	-1.794	0.158	-2.103; -1.484	
		<i>Year</i>				1.00
		<b>Year 2018</b>	<b>0.510</b>	<b>0.190</b>	<b>0.137; 0.882</b>	
		<b>Year 2019</b>	<b>0.479</b>	<b>0.191</b>	<b>0.106; 0.853</b>	
		Year 2020	0.336	0.194	-0.045; 0.717	
		Lockdown status (LEA)	-0.249	0.133	-0.510; 0.012	0.68
Blue tit n = 1636 (1 = 251; 0 = 1385) Family: Binomial	Occupancy	(Intercept)	-1.471	0.125	-1.716; -1.225	
		<i>Year</i>				0.3
		Year 2018	-0.070	0.188	-0.438; 0.298	
		Year 2019	-0.391	0.199	-0.782; 0	
		Year 2020	-0.163	0.191	-0.537; 0.211	
		<b>Lockdown status (LEA)</b>	<b>-0.505</b>	<b>0.146</b>	<b>-0.791; -0.220</b>	1.0
Species	Response	Variable	Estimate	se	CI 95%	Relative importance
Great tit n = 290 Family: Gaussian Random: Study site	Lay date	(Intercept)	10.542	1.113	8.497; 12.589	
		<i>Year</i>				-
		<b>Year 2018</b>	<b>9.108</b>	<b>1.194</b>	<b>6.737; 11.392</b>	
		<b>Year 2019</b>	<b>6.540</b>	<b>1.202</b>	<b>4.176; 8.853</b>	
		<b>Year 2020</b>	<b>7.574</b>	<b>1.220</b>	<b>5.191; 9.937</b>	
		Lockdown status (LEA)	2.707	1.684	-0.384; 5.917	-
		<i>Lockdown status * Year</i>				-
		Lockdown status * Year 2018	-2.688	1.932	-6.460; 1.047	
<b>Lockdown status * Year 2019</b>	<b>-5.232</b>	<b>1.938</b>	<b>-9.077; -1.537</b>			
		Lockdown status * Year 2020	-3.673	1.988	-7.574; 0.150	
Blue tit n = 251 Family: Gaussian Random: Study site	Lay date	(Intercept)	11.868	1.095	9.815; 13.956	
		<i>Year</i>				-
		<b>Year 2018</b>	<b>6.578</b>	<b>1.011</b>	<b>4.609; 8.536</b>	
		<b>Year 2019</b>	<b>3.000</b>	<b>1.066</b>	<b>0.905; 5.048</b>	
		<b>Year 2020</b>	<b>3.562</b>	<b>1.017</b>	<b>1.572; 5.523</b>	
		Lockdown status (LEA)	-1.192	1.591	-4.191; 1.790	-
		<i>Lockdown status * Year</i>				-

Lockdown status * Year 2018	-0.674	1.702	-3.975; 2.635
Lockdown status * Year 2019	-0.349	1.902	-4.032; 3.351
Lockdown status * Year 2020	-1.175	1.778	-4.628; 2.272

Species	Response	Variable	Estimate	se	CI 95%	Relative importance	
Great tit n = 278 Family: Gaussian Random: Study site	Clutch size	(Intercept)	8.813	0.556	7.723; 9.903	1.00	
		<i>Year</i>					
		Year 2018	0.416	0.329	-0.229; 1.060		
		Year 2019	-0.291	0.311	-0.900; 0.318		
		<b>Year 2020</b>	<b>-0.599</b>	<b>0.303</b>	<b>-1.193; -0.004</b>		
		<b>Lay date</b>	<b>-0.043</b>	<b>0.015</b>	<b>-0.072; -0.014</b>		0.44
		Lockdown status (LEA)	-0.641	0.749	-2.108; 0.827		0.52
		<i>Lockdown status * Year</i>					0.14
		Lockdown status * Year 2018	0.540	0.487	-0.414; 1.495		
<b>Lockdown status * Year 2019</b>	<b>1.063</b>	<b>0.490</b>	<b>0.103; 2.023</b>				
Lockdown status * Year 2020	0.543	0.501	-0.440; 1.526				

Blue tit	Clutch size	(Intercept)	10.821	0.352	10.125; 11.513	
n = 245		<b>Lay date</b>	<b>-0.076</b>	<b>0.016</b>	<b>-0.107; -0.043</b>	-
Family: Gaussian						
Random: Study site						

Species	Response	Variable	Estimate	se	CI 95%	Relative importance	
Great tit n = 245 Family: Gaussian	Incubation duration	(Intercept)	15.947	0.624	14.724; 17.170	1.00	
		<i>Year</i>					
		<b>Year 2018</b>	<b>-3.364</b>	<b>0.642</b>	<b>-4.622; -2.106</b>		
		<b>Year 2019</b>	<b>-2.509</b>	<b>0.589</b>	<b>-3.663; -1.355</b>		
		<b>Year 2020</b>	<b>-1.255</b>	<b>0.599</b>	<b>-2.428; -0.082</b>		
		<b>Lay date</b>	<b>-0.101</b>	<b>0.037</b>	<b>-0.174; -0.028</b>		1.00
		Lockdown status (LEA)	-0.517	0.385	-1.270; 0.237		0.47
Blue tit	Incubation duration	(Intercept)	15.759	0.419	14.937; 16.581		
n = 232		<i>Year</i>				1.00	

Family: Gaussian	<b>Year 2018</b>	<b>-3.483</b>	<b>0.413</b>	<b>-4.293; -2.673</b>	
	<b>Year 2019</b>	<b>-3.060</b>	<b>0.404</b>	<b>-3.852; -2.268</b>	
	<b>Year 2020</b>	<b>-1.991</b>	<b>0.382</b>	<b>-2.741; -1.242</b>	
	<b>Lay date</b>	<b>-0.096</b>	<b>0.028</b>	<b>-0.150; -0.042</b>	1.00
	Lockdown status (LEA)	-0.366	0.298	-0.950; 0.218	0.43

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1 **Table 2. Model - averaged summary statistics of best fitting GLMs and LMMs testing the effect**  
2 **of lockdown restrictions on great tit and blue tit life - history trait variation.**

3 **Table 2. (caption):** Model – averaged summary statistics of Generalised Linear Models (GLMs) and  
4 Linear Mixed Effects Models (LMMs) testing the association between lockdown and life – history traits  
5 in great tits and blue tits. The effect of “Lockdown status” is reported for “LEA” relative to “LENA”  
6 sites. “Year” effects are reported for each year relative to 2017. Details on model structures are specified  
7 in the methodological section 2.4.1. Parameters with confidence intervals not overlapping “0” are  
8 highlighted **in bold**. The symbol (\*) indicates the interaction tested between “Year” and “Lockdown  
9 status” categories.

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Species	Response	Variable	Estimate	se	CI 95%	Relative importance
Great tit	Occupancy	(Intercept)	-1.961	0.168	-2.291; -1.631	
n = 1636		<i>Year</i>				1.00
(1 = 294; 0 = 1342)		<b>Year 2018</b>	<b>0.510</b>	<b>0.190</b>	<b>0.137; 0.882</b>	
		<b>Year 2019</b>	<b>0.480</b>	<b>0.191</b>	<b>0.106; 0.853</b>	
Family: Binomial		Year 2020	0.336	0.194	-0.045; 0.717	
		Tree cover	0.004	0.002	0; 0.008	0.73
Blue tit	Occupancy	(Intercept)	-1.661	0.110	-1.877; -1.446	
n = 1636		<i>Year</i>				0.223
(1 = 251; 0 = 1385)		Year 2018	-0.070	0.187	-0.436; 0.297	
		Year 2019	-0.388	0.199	-0.778; 0.001	
Family: Binomial		Year 2020	-0.162	0.190	-0.534; 0.211	
		Tree cover	-0.002	0.002	-0.006; 0.003	0.258

Species	Response	Variable	Estimate	se	CI 95%	Relative importance
Great tit	Lay date	(Intercept)	11.478	0.843	9.826; 13.131	
n = 290		<i>Year</i>				1.00
Family: Gaussian		<b>Year 2018</b>	<b>7.926</b>	<b>0.954</b>	<b>6.055; 9.797</b>	
		<b>Year 2019</b>	<b>4.420</b>	<b>0.959</b>	<b>2.541; 6.299</b>	
		<b>Year 2020</b>	<b>6.078</b>	<b>0.979</b>	<b>4.159; 7.996</b>	
		Tree cover	0.015	0.011	-0.006; 0.037	0.49
Blue tit	Lay date	(Intercept)	9.872	0.682	8.536; 11.208	
n = 251		<i>Year</i>				-
Family: Gaussian		<b>Year 2018</b>	<b>6.327</b>	<b>0.825</b>	<b>4.710; 7.944</b>	
		<b>Year 2019</b>	<b>2.676</b>	<b>0.889</b>	<b>0.933; 4.418</b>	
		<b>Year 2020</b>	<b>3.176</b>	<b>0.842</b>	<b>1.525; 4.827</b>	
		<b>Tree cover</b>	<b>0.037</b>	<b>0.012</b>	<b>0.014; 0.061</b>	-

Species	Response	Variable	Estimate	se	CI 95%	Relative importance
Great tit	Clutch size	(Intercept)	8.238	0.357	7.538; 8.939	
n = 278		<i>Year</i>				1.00
Family: Gaussian		Year 2018	0.212	0.428	-0.626; 1.050	
		Year 2019	-0.209	0.356	-0.907; 0.489	
		Year 2020	-0.525	0.374	-1.258; 0.208	
		<i>Tree cover * Year</i>				0.48

		Tree cover * Year 2018	0.014	0.009	-0.004; 0.031	
		Tree cover * Year 2019	-0.005	0.009	-0.022; 0.013	
		Tree cover				
		Tree cover * Year 2020	-0.003	0.009	-0.021; 0.015	
		<b>Tree cover</b>	<b>0.017</b>	<b>0.005</b>	<b>0.007; 0.027</b>	
		Lay date	-0.030	0.017	-0.062; 0.003	0.64
Blue tit	Clutch size	(Intercept)	10.567	0.260	10.057; 11.078	
n = 245		<i>Year</i>				0.31
Family: Gaussian		Year 2018	-0.068	0.267	-0.590; 0.455	
		Year 2019	0.094	0.261	-0.418; 0.607	
		Year 2020	-0.425	0.250	-0.916; 0.066	
		<b>Tree cover</b>	<b>0.014</b>	<b>0.004</b>	<b>0.007; 0.021</b>	1.00
		<b>Lay date</b>	<b>-0.079</b>	<b>0.017</b>	<b>-0.113; -0.045</b>	1.00
<b>Species</b>	<b>Response</b>	<b>Variable</b>	<b>Estimate</b>	<b>se</b>	<b>CI 95%</b>	<b>Relative importance</b>
Great tit	Incubation	(Intercept)	15.830	0.631	14.593; 17.068	
	duration					
		<i>Year</i>				1.00
n = 245		<b>Year 2018</b>	<b>-3.432</b>	<b>0.649</b>	<b>-4.705; -2.160</b>	
Family: Gaussian		<b>Year 2019</b>	<b>-2.557</b>	<b>0.593</b>	<b>-3.720; -1.394</b>	
		<b>Year 2020</b>	<b>-1.252</b>	<b>0.602</b>	<b>-2.433; -0.072</b>	
		<b>Lay date</b>	<b>-0.097</b>	<b>0.038</b>	<b>-0.171; -0.023</b>	1.00
		Tree cover	-0.008	0.007	-0.021; 0.005	0.42
Blue tit	Incubation	(Intercept)	15.686	0.399	14.905; 16.467	
	duration					
n = 232		<i>Year</i>				-
Family: Gaussian		<b>Year 2018</b>	<b>-3.492</b>	<b>0.411</b>	<b>-4.297; -2.686</b>	
		<b>Year 2019</b>	<b>-3.046</b>	<b>0.402</b>	<b>-3.833; -2.259</b>	
		<b>Year 2020</b>	<b>-1.983</b>	<b>0.380</b>	<b>-2.728; -1.238</b>	
		<b>Lay date</b>	<b>-0.094</b>	<b>0.027</b>	<b>-0.148; -0.041</b>	-

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12 **Table 3. Model - averaged summary statistics of best fitting GLMs testing the effect of Tree**  
13 **cover and other covariates on great tit and blue tit life- history trait variation.**

14 **Table 3.** Model – averaged summary statistics of Generalised Linear Models (GLMs) testing the  
15 association between tree cover (in %) and life – history traits in great tits and blue tits. “Year” effects  
16 were reported for each year relative to 2017. Details on model structures are specified in the  
17 methodological section 2.4.2. Parameters with confidence intervals not overlapping “0” are highlighted  
18 **in bold**. The symbol (\*) indicates the interaction tested between “Year” and “Tree cover”.

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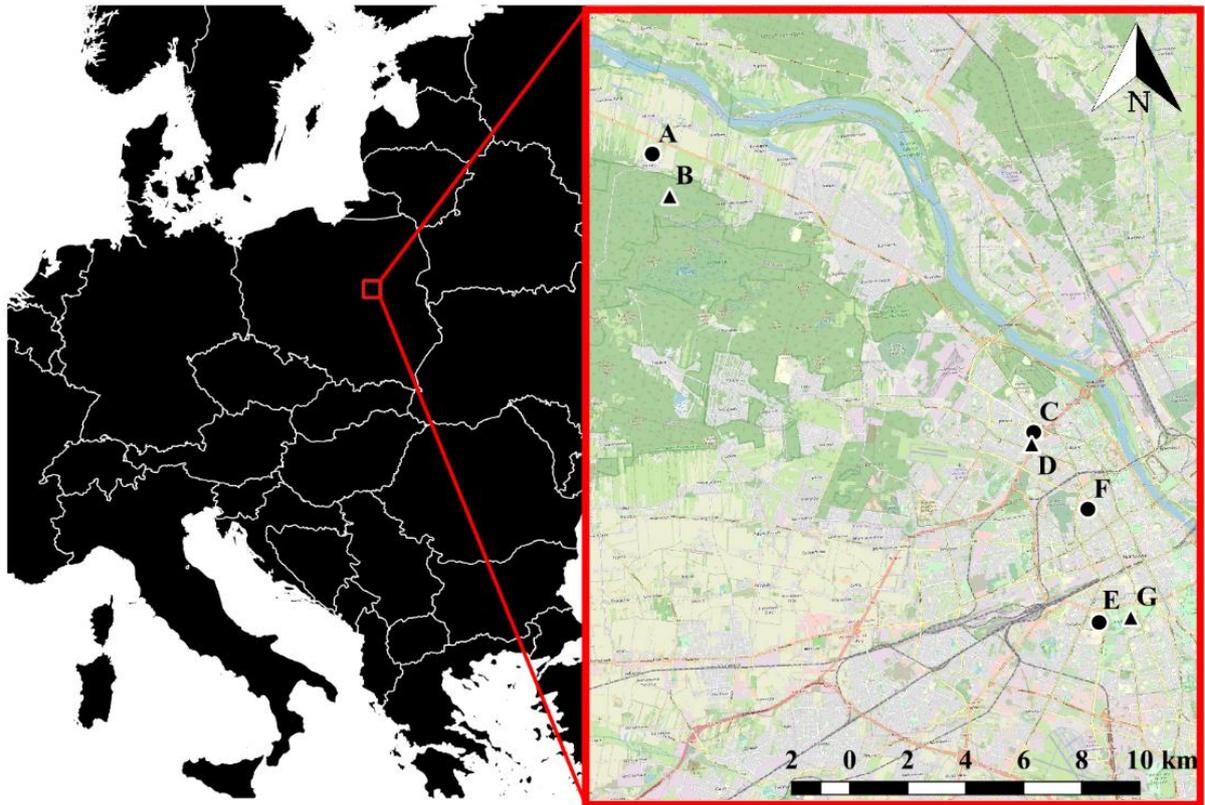
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28 **FIGURES:**

29 **Figure 1.** Study sites locations in the capital city of Warsaw, Poland.

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32 **Figure 1.** Map of sites locations in the Warsaw gradient of urbanisation, Poland. These include: a  
33 suburban village (A), a natural forest (B), two residential areas (C and F), an urban woodland (D), an  
34 office area (E), and an urban park (G). Dots and triangles indicate whether study sites were categorised  
35 as “Lockdown – Entrance Allowed (LEA)” or “Lockdown – Entrance Not Allowed (LENA)” sites  
36 during the 2020 SARS-CoV-2 pandemic.

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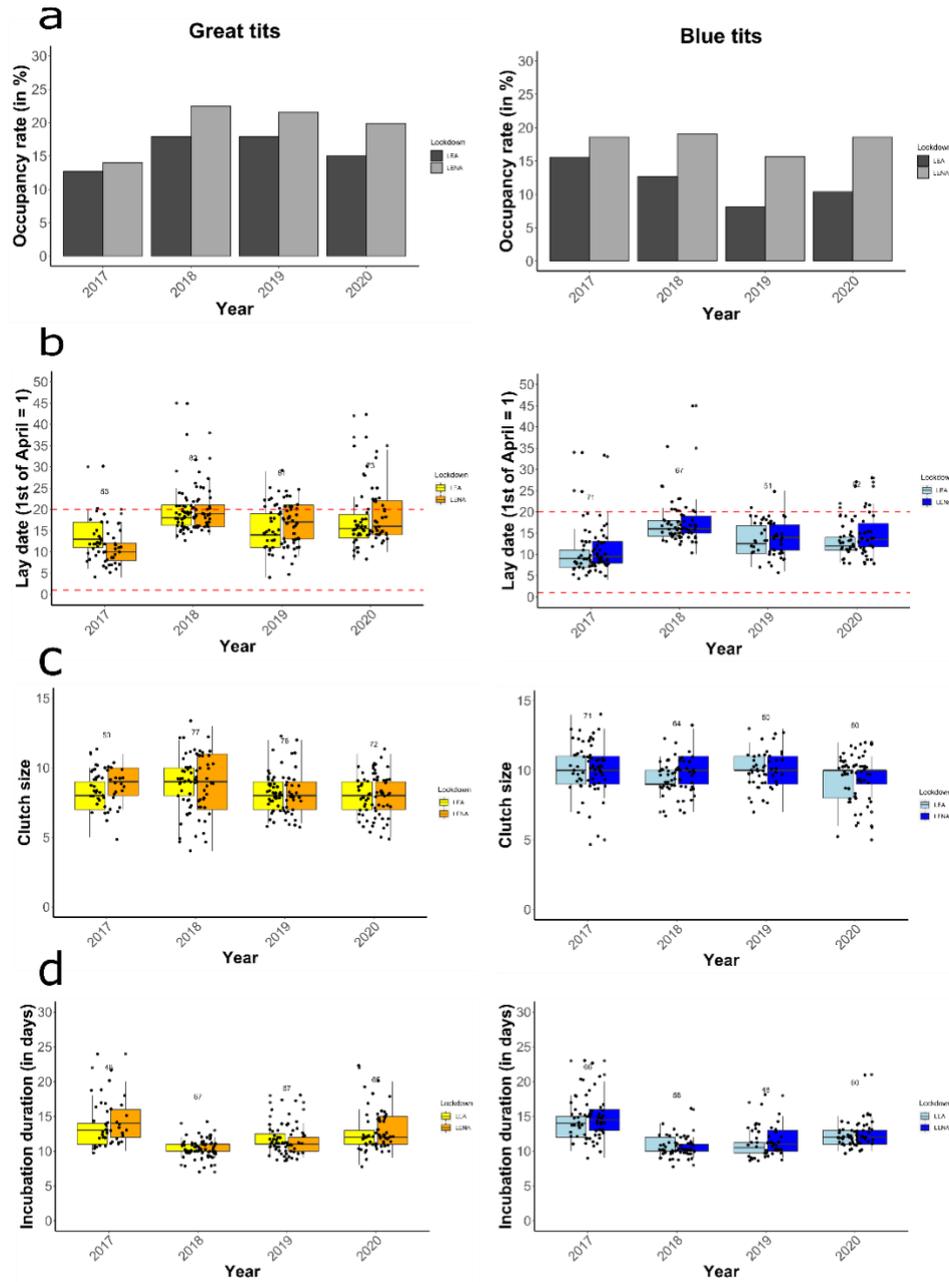
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46 **Figure 2.** Great tit and blue tit life-history traits: a comparison between “Lockdown - Entrance Allowed”  
47 (LEA) and “Lockdown-Entrance Not Allowed” (LENA) sites across four years of investigation.

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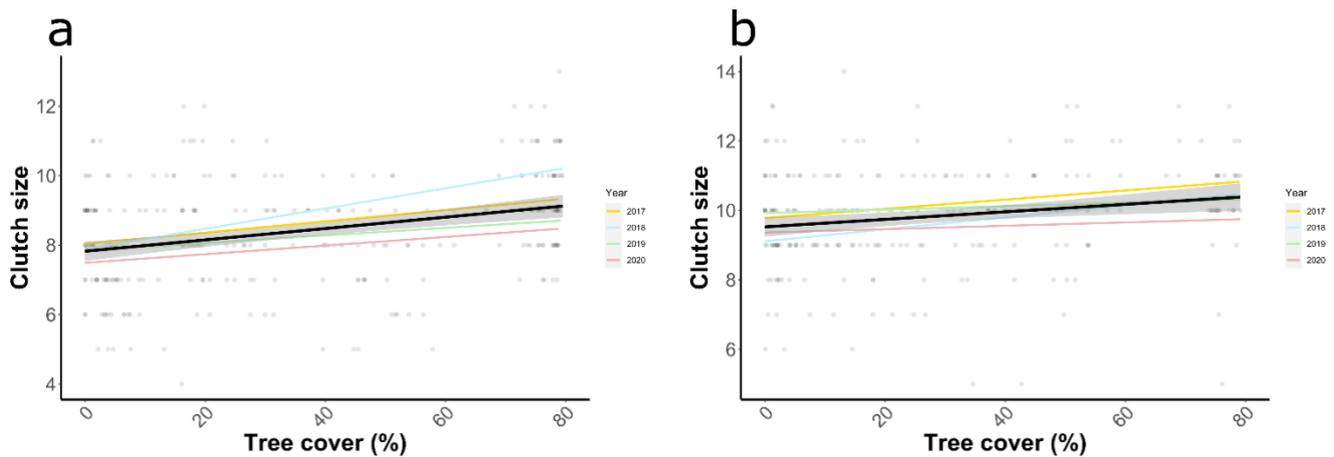
54 **Figure 2.** Great tit (left) and blue tit (right) life-history traits comparisons between “Lockdown –  
55 Entrance Allowed” (LEA) and “Lockdown – Entrance Not Allowed” (LENA) sites across the four years.  
56 No significant differences between LEA and LENA sites were reported in terms of nestboxes occupancy  
57 (a), lay date (b), clutch size (c) and incubation duration (d) in both species. In (b), the red-dashed line  
58 indicates the duration of lockdown restrictions implemented in Poland [from the 1<sup>st</sup> of April until the  
59 20<sup>th</sup> of April 2020].

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62 **Figure 3. Positive association between tree cover and clutch size in great tits and blue tits**

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66 **Figure 3.** Linear regression plots reporting the original relationship between clutch size and the extent  
67 of tree cover in a 100m radius surrounding the nestbox in (a) great tits and (b) blue tits. Full models  
68 confirming the significant relationship between the two variables are reported in Table 3.

# Supplementary Information

## Breeding in the pandemic: short-term lockdown restrictions do not alter reproductive decisions and avian life-history traits in a European capital city

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### **Abstract**

Humans are transforming natural habitats into managed urban green areas and impervious surfaces with unprecedented pace. Yet the effects of human presence *per se* on animal life-history traits are rarely tested. This is particularly true in cities, where human presence is often indissociable from urbanisation itself. The onset of the SARS-CoV-2 outbreak, along with the resulting lockdown restrictions, offered a unique, “natural experiment” context to investigate wildlife responses to a sudden reduction of human activities. We analysed four years of avian breeding data collected in a European capital city to test whether lockdown measures altered nestbox occupancy and life-history traits in two urban adapters: great tits (*Parus major*) and blue tits (*Cyanistes caeruleus*). Lockdown measures, which modulated human presence, did not influence any of the life-history traits inferred. In contrast, tree cover, a distinct ecological attribute of the urban space, positively influenced clutch size, a key avian life-history and reproductive trait. This highlights the importance of habitat and food webs over human activity on animal reproduction in cities. We discuss our results in the light of other urban wildlife studies carried

out during the pandemic, inviting the scientific community to carefully interpret all lockdown - associated shifts in biological traits.

**Table S1. Subset of GLMs and LMMs ( $\Delta AIC_c < 2$ ) with binomial and Gaussian distribution testing the association between lockdown restrictions and avian breeding occupancy and life – history traits.**

<b>Occupancy rate – binomial distribution – Lockdown categories</b>				
<b>Species</b>	<b>Model subset</b>	<b>AIC<sub>c</sub></b>	<b><math>\Delta AIC_c</math></b>	<b>AIC<sub>c</sub> weight</b>
Great tit n = 1636 1 = 294; 0 = 1342 Family: binomial	(Intercept) + Lockdown status + Year	1538.4	0.0	0.684
	(Intercept) + Year	1539.9	1.54	0.316
Blue tit n = 1636 1 = 251; 0 = 1385 Family: binomial	(Intercept) + Lockdown status	1393.9	0.0	0.697
	(Intercept) + Lockdown status + Year	1395.5	1.67	0.303
<b>Laying date – Gaussian distribution – Lockdown categories</b>				
<b>Species</b>	<b>Model subset</b>	<b>AIC<sub>c</sub></b>	<b><math>\Delta AIC_c</math></b>	<b>AIC<sub>c</sub> weight</b>
Great tit n = 290 Family: Gaussian	(Intercept) + Year + Lockdown status + Lockdown status * Year	1795.1	0	1
	(Intercept) + Year + Lockdown status + Lockdown status * Year	1502.1	0	1
Blue tit n = 251 Family: Gaussian	(Intercept) + Year + Lockdown status + Lockdown status * Year	1502.1	0	1
	(Intercept) + Year + Lockdown status + Lockdown status * Year	1502.1	0	1
<b>Clutch size – Gaussian distribution – Lockdown categories</b>				
<b>Species</b>	<b>Model subset</b>	<b>AIC<sub>c</sub></b>	<b><math>\Delta AIC_c</math></b>	<b>AIC<sub>c</sub> weight</b>
Great tit n = 278 Family: Gaussian	(Intercept) + Year	974.3	0.0	0.538
	(Intercept) + Year + Lay date	974.6	0.3	0.462
Blue tit n = 245 Family: Gaussian	(Intercept) + Lay date	866.7	0	1
<b>Incubation duration – Gaussian distribution - Lockdown categories</b>				
<b>Species</b>	<b>Model subset</b>	<b>AIC<sub>c</sub></b>	<b><math>\Delta AIC_c</math></b>	<b>AIC<sub>c</sub> weight</b>
Great tit n = 245 Family: Gaussian	(Intercept) + Year + Lay date	1226.4	0.0	0.534
	(Intercept) + Year + Lay date + Lockdown status	1226.7	0.28	0.466
Blue tit n = 232 Family: Gaussian	(Intercept) + Year + Lay date	1006.7	0.0	0.57
	(Intercept) + Year + Lay date + Lockdown status	1007.3	0.57	0.43

**Table S1.** Subset of Generalised Linear Models and Linear Mixed Effects Models with binomial and Gaussian distribution partitioning variation in great tit and blue tit breeding occupancy and life-history traits ( $\Delta AIC_c < 2$ ). Data were collected for four years (from 2017 to 2020), models were run for great tits and blue tits separately. Model structures are described in section 2.4.1.

**Table S2. Subset of GLMs ( $\Delta AIC_c < 2$ ) with binomial and Gaussian distribution testing the association between tree cover (in %) and avian breeding occupancy and life-history traits.**

<b>Occupancy rate - % Tree cover</b>				
<b>Species</b>	<b>Model subset</b>	<b>AIC<sub>c</sub></b>	<b><math>\Delta AIC_c</math></b>	<b>AIC<sub>c</sub> weight</b>
Great tit n = 1636 1 = 294; 0 = 1342 Family: binomial	(Intercept) + Tree cover + Year	1537.9	0.0	0.73
	(Intercept) + Year	1539.9	1.99	0.27
Blue tit n = 1636 1 = 251; 0 = 1385 Family: binomial	(Intercept)	1404.4	0.0	0.519
	(Intercept) + Tree cover	1405.8	1.40	0.258
	(Intercept) + Year	1406.1	1.69	0.223
<b>Laying date - % Tree cover</b>				
<b>Species</b>	<b>Model subset</b>	<b>AIC<sub>c</sub></b>	<b><math>\Delta AIC_c</math></b>	<b>AIC<sub>c</sub> weight</b>
Great tit n = 290 Family: Gaussian	(Intercept) + Year	1807.8	0.0	0.506
	(Intercept) + Year + Tree cover	1807.8	0.05	0.494
Blue tit n = 251 Family: Gaussian	(Intercept) + Year + Tree cover	1511.5	0.0	1
<b>Clutch size - % Tree cover</b>				
<b>Species</b>	<b>Model subset</b>	<b>AIC<sub>c</sub></b>	<b><math>\Delta AIC_c</math></b>	<b>AIC<sub>c</sub> weight</b>
Great tit n = 278 Family: Gaussian	(Intercept) + Year + Tree cover + Lay date	1010.3	0.0	0.334
	(Intercept) + Year + Tree cover + Lay date + Tree cover * Year	1010.5	0.17	0.307
Blue tit n = 245 Family: Gaussian	(Intercept) + Tree cover + Lay date	861.1	0.0	0.687
	(Intercept) + Year + Tree cover + Lay date	862.7	1.57	0.313
<b>Incubation duration - % Tree cover</b>				
<b>Species</b>	<b>Model subset</b>	<b>AIC<sub>c</sub></b>	<b><math>\Delta AIC_c</math></b>	<b>AIC<sub>c</sub> weight</b>
Great tit n = 245 Family: Gaussian	(Intercept) + Year + Lay date	1226.4	0.0	0.581
	(Intercept) + Year + Tree cover + Lay date	1227.1	0.66	0.419
Blue tit n = 232 Family: Gaussian	(Intercept) + Year + Lay date	1006.7	0.0	1

**Table S2.** Subset of Generalised Linear Models with binomial and Gaussian distribution partitioning great tit and blue tit variation in breeding occupancy and life-history traits ( $\Delta AIC_c < 2$ ). Data were collected for four years (from 2017 to 2020), models were run for great tits and blue tits. Model structures are described in section 2.4.2.

**Table S3. Summary statistics of percentage tree cover in nestboxes occupied by great tits and blue tits from 2017 to 2020. For the entire dataset (n=409 nestboxes), the overall average tree cover (mean  $\pm$  se) was 6.6% ( $\pm$  0.64) and 49.1% ( $\pm$  1.84) in LEA (n = 173) and LENA (n = 236) study sites, respectively.**

Species	Year	n	Mean ( $\pm$ se)
Great tit	2017	53	36.1 ( $\pm$ 4.2)
	2018	84	31.8 ( $\pm$ 3.1)
	2019	81	32.7 ( $\pm$ 3.3)
	2020	73	38.4 ( $\pm$ 3.4)
Blue tit	2017	71	30.3 ( $\pm$ 3.0)
	2018	67	30.3 ( $\pm$ 3.1)
	2019	51	30.6 ( $\pm$ 3.6)
	2020	62	27.7 ( $\pm$ 3.3)

**Table S3.** Average tree cover in a 100m radius around each nestbox: “n” refers to the number of occupied nests within each year. Only first broods were included in the table. LEA stands for “Lockdown – Entrance Allowed”, LENA stands for “Lockdown – Entrance Not Allowed”

**Table S4. Z-tests for equality of proportions of occupied nestboxes in LEA and LENA study sites by year.**

Species	Year	N <sub>LEA</sub>	N <sub>LENA</sub>	$\chi^2$	DF	p-value
Great tit	2017	22	33	0.050	1	0.8
	2018	31	53	0.997	1	0.3
	2019	31	51	0.634	1	0.4
	2020	26	47	1.309	1	0.2
Blue tit	2017	27	44	0.447	1	0.5
	2018	22	45	2.494	1	0.1
	<b>2019</b>	14	37	<b>4.590</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0.03</b>
	<b>2020</b>	18	44	<b>4.648</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0.03</b>

**Table S4.** The total number of nestboxes available in LEA and LENA study sites was 173 and 236, respectively.  $N_{LEA}$  and  $N_{LENA}$  refers to the total number of nestboxes occupied within each lockdown status category.

**Table S5. No year effects in tree-cover variation among occupied nestboxes.**

<b>Great tit</b>					
	<b>Df</b>	<b>Sum sq</b>	<b>Mean sq</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>p</b>
Year	3	2111	703.8	0.824	0.481
Residuals	287	244992	853.6		

<b>Blue tit</b>					
	<b>Df</b>	<b>Sum sq</b>	<b>Mean sq</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>p</b>
Year	3	333	111.1	0.171	0.916
Residuals	247	160338	649.1		