

1 **Neglecting low season nest protection exacerbates female biased sea turtle hatchling**
2 **production through the loss of male producing nests.**

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19

20 **Abstract**

21

22 In the eastern Pacific, peak olive ridley sea turtle (*Lepidochelys olivacea*) nesting occurs
23 during the warmest months which coincide with the rainy season, yet as nesting takes
24 place year-round, the small proportion of the nests laid during dry-low season are exposed
25 to contrasting environmental conditions. Most of the studies on Pacific coast sea turtles
26 have estimated sex ratios produced during the rainy-high season when the majority of
27 conservation activities take place. Thus, dry-low season nests have on the whole been
28 overlooked. Here we compared sex ratios and hatchling fitness for offspring produced
29 during the dry and rainy seasons during 2015. We found that protected olive ridley
30 clutches incubated during the dry-low season were exposed to lower temperatures, yielded

31 higher hatchling success, produced 100% male offspring and larger, heavier hatchlings
32 with better locomotor abilities. Our results highlight the critical value of monitoring and
33 protecting sea turtle nests beyond the peak season (when nests can be protected more
34 efficiently) to include low season nests, albeit at much lower densities, but which by
35 yielding higher proportions of males and with greater locomotor capacities may be the key
36 to population viability and adaptation to anthropogenic climate change.

37

38 **1. Introduction**

39

40 Reproductive seasonality is present across species and phyla. Even in tropical regions
41 where climatic variations may be less apparent, species maintain some level of seasonal
42 pattern. In marine species, reproductive seasonality may be linked to marine productivity
43 (Afán et al. 2015), local environmental features and large-scale environmental cues.

44

45 In the eastern Pacific, peak olive ridley sea turtle (*Lepidochelys olivacea*) nesting occurs
46 during the warmest months which coincides with the rainy season. However, nesting can
47 and does take place year-round, exposing the comparatively small number of nests laid in
48 the dry and cold months to environmental conditions that contrast with those of the
49 majority of nests incubating during the summer. For example, incubation temperature and
50 humidity are markedly different between peak and low season. Temperature is one of the
51 critical factors for the successful embryonic development of sea turtles (Miller 1985), in
52 part because these species exhibit temperature-dependent sex determination (Mrosovsky
53 and Pieau 1991; Broderick et al. 2000; Charruau and Hénaut 2012). Turtle embryos can
54 develop a thermal tolerance range of between 25°C and 35°C (Howard, Bell, and Pike
55 2014). However, olive ridley clutches can survive higher temperatures (>37.9°C) but only
56 over short durations but with detrimental effects on overall emergence success (Maulany,
57 Booth, and Baxter 2012). Olive ridley turtles also present latitudinal variation in reported
58 pivotal temperatures which produce 50 per cent of each sex within a clutch (Costa Rica:
59 31°C (Wibbels, Rostal, and Byles 1998); Mexico: 29.9°C (Sandoval, Gómez-Muñoz, and
60 Porta-Gándara 2017). As incubation temperature rises above the pivotal within a sea turtle

61 clutch, the proportion of females increases to a point of producing all females. The opposite
62 is true as temperature falls below the pivotal and all-male production can occur in the
63 lower viable temperature scale. Additionally, rainfall is a factor that varies greatly between
64 seasons, especially in the tropics. Humidity within the nest environment influences
65 moisture uptake by embryos, resulting in longer incubation durations and larger hatchlings
66 (Delmas et al. 2007) and may also affect the sex ratio (Godfrey, Barreto, and Mrosovsky
67 1996; Wyneken and Lolavar 2015).

68
69 These factors make sea turtles particularly vulnerable to climate change (Fuller et al. 2013;
70 Refsnider and Janzen 2016) which is predicted to not only cause increased incubation
71 temperatures but also in sea level (IPCC 2007). Additionally, storms which are expected to
72 become stronger and more frequent will further impact and modify turtle nesting habitat
73 (L. Hawkes et al. 2009; L. A. Hawkes et al. 2013; Fuentes, Hamann, and Limpus 2010;
74 Fuentes, Limpus, and Hamann 2011). Nonetheless, a female turtle can influence
75 reproductive success through the choice of nesting location and depth at which she lays her
76 eggs (David T. Booth and Freeman 2006; Santidrián Tomillo et al. 2017). However, even
77 with the existence of female plasticity, sea turtles may have difficulty adapting to rapid
78 climate change (L. Hawkes et al. 2009; Tilley et al. 2019). Olive ridleys may be the most
79 adept of sea turtles to cope with environmental change due to their multiple reproductive
80 strategies and observed flexibility in their degree of nesting site fidelity (Tripathy and
81 Pandav 2007) and therefore may be able to choose sites that are less impacted by
82 environmental change and which result in healthy offspring.

83
84 In recent years, phenotypical variation has been used to study the way changes in abiotic
85 conditions affect hatchling fitness (Fisher, Godfrey, and Owens 2014; Liles et al. 2019). In
86 warmer nests, hatchlings hatch sooner and consequently are smaller as less yolk is
87 converted into tissue. Smaller hatchlings are slower during the crawl towards the ocean
88 and during initial displacement from coastal zones (David T. Booth and Evans 2011) when
89 compared with their larger counterparts. Larger hatchlings have the advantage of being too
90 large a prey for certain predators. Furthermore, hatchlings must be able to maintain a 24-
91 72 hour frenzied swimming period upon entering the ocean. Larger hatchlings which are

92 stronger swimmers than smaller individuals could be more capable of avoiding the large
93 aggregations of predators offshore of the nesting beach. Turtles in poor condition upon
94 hatching have a reduced probability of avoiding predation (D. T. Booth et al. 2004;
95 Wyneken and Salmon 1992; D. T. Booth 2009). The phenotype has also been used to
96 evaluate the practice of nest relocation to hatcheries (Liles et al. 2019).

97

98 Since Mexico's 1990 ban on sea turtle use and consumption, multiple nesting beach
99 conservation programs have been created to protect clutches from illegal take and
100 predation. However, due to limited resources, many sea turtle conservation projects are
101 not able to continually monitor nesting beaches year-round. For species such as the olive
102 ridley that nest along the Mexican Pacific, limits in resources forces conservation programs
103 to focus on the rainy season months when nesting is significantly higher (García, Ceballos,
104 and Adaya 2003), leaving nests laid during the dry season without protection. Dry season
105 nests are often not monitored or counted leading to an impression from regional reports
106 that nesting does not occur or is insignificant during this period. Registering dry season
107 nesting is extremely important as their different abiotic conditions may affect hatchling sex
108 ratio, phenotype, and fitness. Also, as sea turtle nesting seasons have been shown to shift in
109 response to changes in temperatures (Weishampel et al. 2004; Pike et al. 2006; Witt et al.
110 2010), corresponding changes in phenology may be an adaptive strategy used by nesting
111 turtles as a response to temperature increases due to climate change.

112

113 Nesting at Majahuas beach is part of the Playón de Mismaloya rookery which is notable for
114 being the only known *arribada* rookery to collapse in the late 1970s due to high harvests of
115 nesting females. The rookeries collapse resulted from a 99% reduction in nesting females
116 (Abreu-Grobois and Plotkin 2008), which also resulted in the loss of genetic diversity
117 (Rodríguez-Zárate, Rocha-Olivares, and Beheregaray 2013). Despite conservation efforts,
118 there has been no *arribada* since the collapse. That said, solitary olive ridley nesting
119 density is high in the area (García, Ceballos, and Adaya 2003).

120

121 Our goals were to 1) monitor nesting during a 12-month period; 2) compare incubation
122 temperatures for nests incubated during the dry and rainy season; 3) determine if hatching

123 success varied between these two seasons; 4) estimate sex ratios produced in monitored
124 nests; 5) determine if incubation season had an effect on hatchling fitness and phenotypes;
125 and, 6) discuss the conservation implications of the results.

126

127 **2. Materials and methods**

128 ***2.1 Study site***

129 Majahuas beach is located in Jalisco between 19°50'41"N 105°22'40"W and 19°46'14"N
130 105°19'38"W on the Pacific coast of Mexico. Majahuas is southernmost 11 km of the Playón
131 de Mismaloya sea turtle sanctuary. A RAMSAR mangrove wetland backs the beach.

132

133 The dry season lasts up to 8 months from November to June with a rainy season between
134 July to October. Mean annual rainfall varies between 748 to 1000 mm with a mean
135 temperature of 25°C (Bullock 1986).

136

137 ***2.2 Nest collection and incubation***

138

139 We analyzed data collected by the fishing cooperative Roca Negra recorded during beach
140 monitoring activities in 2015. Nests were protected via relocation to a hatchery (see
141 below). We selected 71 nests at random (dry season: N = 37; rainy season: N = 34) for
142 monitoring of incubation temperature and hatching success. Of these nests, 38 hatched and
143 we conducted fitness tests on the hatchlings from these nests (dry season: N=28 nests;
144 rainy season: N=10 nests).

145

146 Nests were collected during nightly beach patrols by either locating the recently laid nest
147 via tracks or by encountering the nesting turtle. On encountering a female, we waited until
148 she entered a trance-like state before taking morphometric measurements. Curved
149 carapace length (CCL) and curved carapace width (CCW) were taken using a metric tape
150 marked in 0.1 cm intervals. CCL was defined as the distance measured between the nuchal

151 scute and the outer border of the post-central scutes and CCW was taken from the widest
152 part of the carapace with the tape following the curvature of the carapace.

153

154 On locating a nest, the eggs were carefully removed from the egg chamber and counted.
155 Nest depth was measured by placing a pole across the top of the mouth of the nest and the
156 distance as taken from the pole to the bottom of the nest chamber. For each nest, we
157 recorded the beach section and zone where it was laid (Intertidal (beach face to the berm)
158 = A, Open beach (the berm to the vegetation line) = B and Beach (vegetation line to the
159 dune) = C). Eggs were transferred to a plastic bag and transported to the hatchery using a
160 quad bike located at km 2 of Majahuas beach. Each nest was reconstructed using a manual
161 tree planter to achieve a standardized depth of 45cm and then the nest chamber was
162 formed by hand to imitate the shape of a natural nest made by a female turtle. Eggs were
163 transferred into the artificially dug chamber and a temperature logger (HOBO UA-001-08,
164 Onset USA) was placed in the center of each clutch before being covered with sand.
165 Temperature loggers measured 5.8 x 3.3 x 2.3 cm and were programed to measure the
166 hourly temperature (accuracy of $\pm 0.5^{\circ}\text{C}$). Meteorological observations (daily maximum,
167 minimum and mean air temperature) were obtained from the Universidad Autonoma de
168 Mexico's Biological Research Center in Cuixmala, Jalisco from 1 January 2015 to 31
169 December 2015.

170

171 ***2.3 Hatchling phenotype and fitness***

172

173 We selected 20 hatchlings at random upon emergence to partake in fitness tests and for
174 phenotype measurements. When hatching success was too low to provide a total of 20
175 hatchlings, we conducted phenotype and fitness tests on those that were available.
176 Hatchlings were weighed using an electronic balance (± 0.1 g) and their straight carapace
177 length (SCL), straight carapace width (SCW) and carapace depth were measured using an
178 electronic calliper (± 0.1 mm). Crawling speed (cm s^{-1}) was recorded by measuring the time
179 taken by each hatchling to crawl along a raceway of 3 m, 100 mm wide dug into the
180 hatchery's sand. We assigned hatchlings that failed to move within 300 s of being placed on
181 the raceway to a failed to crawl category. We installed a LED light at one end of the raceway

182 and care was taken to ensure that the track was flat. The time taken for hatchlings to self-
183 right themselves was measured by placing the turtle upside down on their carapace and
184 taking the time it took to right itself. This was repeated six times for each hatchling. If an
185 individual took more than 60 s for any righting attempt, they were given a 5 s rest period
186 on their plastron before the next attempt. After the tests, hatchlings were returned to the
187 container with their siblings and then released into the ocean.

188

189 **2.4 Sex ratio estimation**

190

191 We used the R package *embryogrowth* v.6.4 (Girondot and Kaska 2014) to account for the
192 effects of varying field temperatures on the dynamics of embryonic development and
193 correctly identify the dates of the thermal sensitive period (TSP) when gonad
194 differentiation occurred. With this, mean incubation temperatures during the true TSP
195 were estimated for each nest and sex ratios derived using the thermal reaction norm for
196 the species (Abreu-Grobois et al., in review). Sex ratio estimates are presented as mean \pm
197 SD unless stated otherwise.

198 **2.4 Statistical analysis**

199 Reported statistics are arithmetic means \pm standard deviation (SD). All statistical were
200 analyzed using Minitab® 18.1. (Minitab Inc., State College, Pennsylvania, USA).
201 Kolmogorov-Sminov test was used as a normality test. Statistical test ANOVA with Tuckey's
202 method were carried out to examine mean differences among neonate fitness data
203 obtained. A simple linear regression model for correlating the size of the adult females with
204 number of eggs, and the incubation temperature with effect hatchling morphology. The *p*
205 values of ≤ 0.05 were used to determine significant differences.

206 **2.5 Ethics Statement**

207 Permits were granted in Mexico by Dirección General de Vida Silvestre/Secretaría para el
208 Medio Ambiente y los Recursos Naturales (SEMARNAT). Field Permits:
209 SGPA/DGVS/05366/15.

210

211 **3. Results**

212

213 **3.1 Nesting**

214

215 We registered a total of 1954 nests over 12 months (1st January 2015 - 30th December
216 2015). Nesting occurred year-round with highest levels registered in October when the
217 conservation project relocated 605 nests to the beach hatchery and lowest levels in May
218 (n= 22 nests) (Fig. 1a). The majority of nests (n = 1573, 80.5%) were laid in rainy season
219 while 19.5% of nests (n = 381) occurred during the dry season. Nesting was predominately
220 on beach berm or zone B where 79.3% of nests were laid (n = 1547 nests) (zone A: 7.3%,
221 143 nests; zone C: 13.4%, 261 nests). Proportionally a greater number of nests were laid in
222 intertidal zone C during the dry season (9.0% n=34 nests) than during the rainy season
223 (6.9% n = 109). We measured 25 nesting females and found that the mean curved carapace
224 length (CCL) and width (CCW) was 67.6 cm (range: 63–76 cm) and 73.8 cm (range: 68–82
225 cm), respectively (Supplementary table 1). There was no significant relationship between
226 the size of the adult females and number of eggs laid ($R^2=0.26$; $p=0.36$) or size of hatchlings.

227

228 **3.2 Nest Temperature**

229

230 Nest temperatures presented significant seasonal differences ($F_{(1,69)}=143.26$; $p<0.001$) with
231 those incubated during the dry season ($29.09^{\circ}\text{C} \pm 0.52$) being an mean of 3.89°C cooler
232 than those incubated in the rainy season ($32.98^{\circ}\text{C} \pm 0.58$). Temperature within the 71 nests
233 (Table 1) ranged between 22.8°C and 37.8°C . The most frequent temperature interval for
234 dry season nests was $27\text{-}28^{\circ}\text{C}$ with 24% of recorded values, while in the rainy season, the
235 most frequent temperature interval was $33\text{-}34^{\circ}\text{C}$ with 28% of records (fig. 1b).

236

237 Within the hatchery, mid-nest depth temperature was lower than atmospheric
238 temperature with tropical storms and hurricanes causing a visible drop in temperature
239 (Supplemental fig. 1). However, mean incubation temperature within nests was not found
240 to effect hatchling morphology (SCL ($R^2=0.32964$), SCW ($R^2=0.05564$), carapace depth

241 ($R^2=0.32831$), weight ($R^2=0.06795$) or locomotor ability (righting propensity ($R^2=0.01263$)
242 righting time ($R^2=0.01982$) or run speed ($R^2=0.01415$)).

243

244 **3.3 Sex ratio**

245

246 We monitored the temperature inside 71 nests but were only able to estimate sex ratios in
247 57 due to 14 nests failing to hatch. All nests incubated in the dry season produced 100%
248 male hatchlings, whereas those incubated during the rainy season (hatched nests: $n=31$)
249 were female-biased with all but two nests producing 100% female offspring (Table 1).

250

251 **3.4 Hatchling morphology and locomotor performance**

252

253 Hatchling morphology was significantly affected by season, with dry season hatchlings
254 presenting both larger SCL, (*Dry*: 40.62 mm \pm 1.82; *Rainy*: 40.15 mm \pm 2.53; $F_{(1,758)}=7.16$;
255 $p=0.008$) SCW (*Dry*: 32.84 mm \pm 1.714 ; *Rainy*: 32.12 mm \pm 2.104; $F_{(1,758)}=20.71$; $p<0.001$)
256 weight (*Dry*: 16.23g \pm 1.686; *Rainy*: 14.93g \pm 2.317; $F_{(1,758)}=64.55$; $p<0.001$) than those
257 hatched in rainy season. Significant differences in terrestrial locomotor performance were
258 observed between seasons ($F_{(1,758)}=60.17$; $p<0.001$), with dry season hatchlings having
259 faster mean crawl speed (0.97 cm s⁻¹ \pm 0.594) than those hatched in the rainy season (0.55
260 cm s⁻¹ \pm 0.359). Rainy season hatchlings also presented slower mean righting response (3.33
261 s \pm 2.11) than those hatched in the dry season (3.87 s \pm 2.41) (Table 2). Overall hatching
262 success was 52.7% and presented a significant difference between dry season hatchling
263 success 74.3% and rainy season hatchling success 24.2% ($F_{(1,1952)}=38.08$; $p<0.001$). Data for
264 each nest studied can be found in Supplementary table 2.

265

266 **4. Discussion**

267

268

269 **Hatchling fitness**

270

271 Seasonal effects were present in our study with dry season hatchlings having superior
272 locomotor abilities and larger body size and weight than their rainy season counterparts.
273 This is similar to other studies which have looked at the effect of nest temperature finding
274 that cooler nests produce larger hatchlings (Booth, Freeney & Shibata 2013; Maulny et al
275 2013; Wood et al 2014) that may be better equipped (larger carapaces and flippers) to
276 crawl and swim faster than their smaller counterparts from warmer nests (Ischer et al
277 2009). The phenotype and fitness advantages received from cooler incubation
278 temperatures highlights the importance of protecting dry season nests which occur when
279 nesting levels are low, as these nests produce have higher hatching success and the
280 resulting hatchlings may have increased chance of survival as they may be quicker to exit
281 predator rich coastal waters due to their larger size and better fitness characteristics.

282

283 Temperature is not the only factor that presents seasonal changes. Hatchlings entering the
284 sea at different times of the year can encounter seasonal changes in oceanic circulation.
285 Ocean currents can change in both intensity and direction. Therefore, neonates hatching at
286 different times can end up in vastly different locations and be exposed to different
287 conditions (Mansfield et al. 2017).

288

289 **Hurricane season**

290

291 Hurricane season runs from May 15th to November 30th in the Eastern North Pacific
292 (NHC), coinciding with peak olive ridley sea turtle nesting activity. The 2015 storm season
293 was particularly active with 22 storms registered for the east Pacific of which 13 were
294 hurricanes, six were tropical storms and three were tropical depressions. Seven storms
295 (Supplementary Fig 1) affected Majahuas nesting beach during this study. This resulted in
296 the loss of hundreds of nests due to beach erosion and wash-out of hatcheries. However,
297 these storms also have the effect of lowering incubation temperatures, which help lower
298 sand temperature in some cases below pivotal temperature. During August and much of
299 September sand temperature remained above 34°C which has been identified as the lethal
300 superior incubation temperature for some olive ridley populations. For example, when the
301 effects of Hurricane Kevin and Linda occurred within the same week a fall in mid-nest

302 depth temperature of 3°C (35°C to 32°C) occurred taking incubation temperatures out of
303 lethal limits.

304

305 **Sex ratio**

306

307 Dry season nests were estimated to be produce entirely male hatchlings, the increased
308 hatch rate and survival of males may help balance out female biased sex ratios at Majahuas
309 beach. Sandoval Espinoza (2012) estimated sex ratios for olive ridleys along the Mexican
310 Pacific coast and found that ratios varied greatly with beaches in Jalisco (Chalacatepec and
311 Playon de Mismaloya) producing 23% male sex ratios. For the Mexican Pacific, they
312 estimated that temperatures would have resulted in male hatchling throughout the study
313 period (July-Dec 2010) with 31% of males in September, 11% in August, 17% in October,
314 20% in November and 19% in December. They did not monitor temperatures in dry
315 season. This is contrary to our results where the 2015 high rainy season temperatures
316 resulted in very low levels of male hatchling production.

317

318 When we compare our results with those of a study in 1993 (Valadez González, Silva Bátiz,
319 and Hernández Vázquez 2000) at a beach 5km north of Majahuas we find similar variations
320 in sex ratio with 100% females produced in October and 100% males in December.
321 However, the overall sex ratio of 7:3 in the 1993 in study is not the same as that found in
322 Majahuas during our research. Incubation period in 1993 (Valadez González, Silva Bátiz,
323 and Hernández Vázquez 2000) was 44 to 65 days, which is similar to our results where we
324 recorded the longest incubation duration in February (64.2d) and the shortest in August
325 (44.8d). However, temperature registered in the La Gloria beach hatchery ranged from
326 27°C ±0.10 (December) to 34°C ±0.36 (August) even when considering a higher
327 temperature within nests due to metabolic heat (Sandoval et al. 2011) the 1993 study nests
328 would not have experienced the extreme superior temperatures (max 37.8°C) that we
329 registered within clutches. As expected from our 12-month study period, we registered
330 lower temperatures than in the La Gloria study which did not monitor temperature during
331 the dry winter season. Although Valadez-González et al. (2000) only recorded the hatchery

332 sand temperature at 12-hour intervals at nest depth but not from within clutches, the study
333 allows us to compare our results with data taken two decades ago.

334

335 **Benefits of low season nesting for females**

336

337 Olive ridleys have been found to present the highest levels of multiple paternity in clutches
338 than in any other sea turtle species, this is especially prominent in *arribada* breeding
339 populations with 92% of nests having two or more fathers which led to the hypothesis that
340 population size has a dominant effect on multiple paternity (Jensen et al. 2006). Yet the
341 benefits of polyandry to female sea turtles have not been identified and multiple paternity
342 was found to result in smaller clutches in Green turtles (Wright et al. 2013). Females that
343 nest in times of low abundance are likely to encounter fewer males and therefore, benefit
344 by a lower chance of multiple encounters with aggressive males (Jensen et al. 2006).
345 However, small solitary breeding populations have also been found to present high levels
346 of multiple paternity (Duran et al. 2015) and this could be a result of the low breeding and
347 feeding site fidelity (Plotkin 2010) as well as a result of sea turtle females' ability to store
348 sperm for over a multiple years. During surveys in the Mexican Pacific in 2010, (Zepeda-
349 Borja et al. 2017) observed olive ridleys mating only during October (autumn).

350

351 **Implications of current conservation effort**

352

353 Concentrating effort and money on the peak nesting season may seem the best use of
354 limited funds however nests laid during peak nesting season have lower possibilities of
355 hatching than those laid in the low season due to lethally high temperatures and beach
356 erosion due to storms. When protected from predation in hatcheries, the comparatively
357 small number of nests laid in low season have higher hatch rates and produce male
358 hatchlings which are a rare occurrence during the high rainy season. Although in 2015 the
359 number of nests laid during low season represented just 19.5% of overall nesting, these
360 nests are of high conservation value as they produce the rarer sex and could help
361 population viability. It is important to note that patrols between February and May 2015
362 were limited due to mechanical problems with the projects quad bike on which patrols are

363 made of the 11 km beach. This resulted in shorter foot patrols during dry season and
364 therefore nesting levels may have been higher than those reported here. Despite this, our
365 study highlights the fact that viable nests are laid year-round and that these nests produce
366 valuable male hatchlings. The majority of these nests are left on the beach and are predated
367 by raccoons and coatis during the first night after laying.

368

369 **CONCLUSION**

370

371 Conservation projects that concentrate effort solely on peak sea turtle nesting season may
372 be inadvertently favouring the production of female hatchlings and leaving male producing
373 nests without protection from illegal take by humans as well as predation by animals.
374 Although it may be tempting to concentrate limited funds to peak season, winter nests are
375 of high value in areas such as Majahuas beach where summer nests do not produce male
376 offspring and are subject to erosion due to tropical storms and hurricanes.

377

378 **Authors' contributions.** CEH conceived the study, participated in data collection and
379 analysis and drafted the manuscript; CPLQ carried out the statistical analyses and
380 participated in writing the manuscript; LATS and CEH collected field data; MG analysed the
381 sex ratio data. All authors gave final approval for publication.

382

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384

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391

392

393

394 **FIGURE LEGEND**

395
 396 **Figure 1.** (a) Temporal distribution of nests protected at Majahuas beach during 2015 (b)
 397 Temperature frequency registered in the centre of hatched clutches during incubation.
 398

399 **TABLES**

400 **Table 1.** Results summary for data from 71 olive ridley clutches with ranges of incubation temperatures and
 401 estimated sex ratios (as proportion of males).
 402

Field code	Season	Starting incubation date	Incubation duration (d)	Clutch size	Hatching success	%>34°C	%<26°C	Mean °C ±SD (range)	Sex ratio
MJ1	Dry	18 Feb	61.0	79	0.22	0.0	4.6	28.3 ± 1.6 (23.2-31.2)	1.0
MJ2	Dry	18 Feb	60.1	87	0.95	0.0	4.6	28.9 ± 2.1 (23.6-32.9)	1.0
MJ3	Dry	18 Feb	59.5	100	0.62	0.0	4.5	28.9 ± 2.1 (23.7-32.9)	1.0
MJ4	Dry	16 Feb	62.0	104	1.00	0.0	4.5	28.8 ± 2.3 (23.2-33.2)	1.0
MJ5	Dry	16 Feb	61.6	93	0.85	0.0	5.5	28.5 ± 2.3 (23.3-33.0)	1.0
MJ6	Dry	16 Feb	60.4	103	1.00	2.6	4.4	29.2 ± 2.5 (23.8-34.7)	1.0
MJ7	Dry	16 Feb	61.1	85	0.94	0.0	4.4	29.0 ± 2.2 (23.8-33.3)	1.0
MJ8	Dry	16 Feb	60.3	96	0.85	0.0	4.6	28.8 ± 2.4 (22.8-33.3)	1.0
MJ9	Dry	16 Feb	62.6	77	0.13	0.0	6.3	27.8 ± 1.6 (23.1-30.5)	1.0
MJ10	Dry	16 Feb	59.9	92	0.92	0.0	4.7	28.9 ± 2.1 (24.0-32.8)	1.0
MJ11	Dry	19 Feb	57.6	157	0.90	1.8	5.2	29.1 ± 2.7 (23.4-34.3)	1.0
MJ13	Dry	22 Feb	62.5	87	0.67	0.0	6.1	28.5 ± 1.9 (24.2-31.5)	1.0
MJ14	Dry	24 Feb	64.2	74	0.50	0.0	7.9	28.2 ± 1.9 (23.0-31.1)	1.0
MJ15	Dry	24 Feb	59.1	123	0.89	0.0	6.2	28.8 ± 2.5 (24.0-33.1)	1.0
MJ16	Dry	25 Feb	57.5	94	0.80	0.0	5.9	28.8 ± 2.3 (23.1-32.9)	1.0
MJ17	Dry	25 Feb	57.5	96	0.85	0.0	5.1	29.1 ± 2.3 (23.9-33.2)	1.0
MJ18	Dry	25 Feb	57.3	84	0.61	0.7	4.8	29.2 ± 2.5 (24.2-34.6)	1.0
MJ19	Dry	25 Feb	60.8	113	0.85	0.0	4.5	28.8 ± 1.9 (24.4-32.0)	1.0
MJ20	Dry	25 Feb	60.7	97	0.93	0.0	4.8	29.3 ± 2.4 (23.9-33.2)	1.0
MJ21	Dry	02 Mar	58.1	102		0.0	6.3	29.0 ± 2.2 (23.6-32.4)	1.0
MJ22	Dry	02 Mar	58.2	77		0.0	8.3	28.6 ± 2.2 (23.4-32.1)	1.0
MJ24	Dry	04 Mar	63.5	92	0.90	0.0	7.5	28.8 ± 2.1 (23.5-32.0)	1.0
MJ25	Dry	04 Mar	56.5	112	0.97	0.0	6.5	29.3 ± 2.3 (23.4-32.9)	1.0
MJ26	Dry	04 Mar	56.5	79	0.81	0.0	5.3	29.3 ± 2.1 (24.3-32.2)	1.0
MJ27	Dry	04 Mar	56.4	112	0.89	0.0	5.0	29.6 ± 2.3 (24.3-33.2)	1.0

MJ28	Dry	04 Mar	63.4	83	0.93	0.0	3.1	29.6 ± 1.9 (25.7-32.5)	1.0
MJ30	Dry	05 Mar	62.5	78	0.62	0.0	5.9	28.9 ± 1.7 (24.3-31.3)	1.0
MJ31	Dry	19 Mar	52.9	89	0.85	0.0	0.2	30.3 ± 1.6 (25.0-32.9)	1.0
MJ32	Dry	21 Mar	54.9	106	0.92	0.0	0.0	29.8 ± 1.7 (26.3-32.8)	1.0
MJ33	Dry	21 Mar	54.8	64	0.61	0.0	0.2	29.3 ± 1.3 (25.1-32.0)	1.0
MJ34	Dry	21 Mar	54.8	103	0.95	0.0	0.2	30.0 ± 2.0 (25.5-33.3)	1.0
MJ35	Dry	21 Mar	56.4	85	0.95	0.0	0.1	29.4 ± 1.8 (25.2-32.5)	1.0
MJ36	Dry	21 Mar	57.8	128	0.86	3.2	0.3	29.7 ± 2.3 (25.1-36.4)	1.0
MJ37	Dry	21 Mar	56.7	86	0.91	0.0	0.4	29.0 ± 1.9 (25.8-32.7)	1.0
MJ38	Dry	22 Mar	57.7	86		0.0	0.4	29.0 ± 1.4 (25.0-31.9)	1.0
MJ39	Dry	22 Mar	53.8	76	0.89	0.0	0.2	29.6 ± 1.7 (25.3-33.0)	1.0
MJ40	Dry	22 Mar	51.0	107	0.93	0.0	0.1	30.1 ± 1.9 (25.3-33.4)	1.0
MJ42	Rainy	02 Jun	47.7	92	0.54	41.1	0.0	33.5 ± 1.6 (29.5-36.5)	0.0
MJ43	Rainy	02 Jun	47.7	81		5.2	0.0	32.2 ± 1.1 (30.0-34.2)	0.0
MJ44	Rainy	02 Jun	47.7	98		0.0	0.0	32.0 ± 1.0 (30.2-33.6)	0.0
MJ45	Rainy	03 Jun	47.7	123	0.60	0.1	0.0	32.0 ± 1.2 (29.0-34.1)	0.0
MJ47	Rainy	10 Jun	50.8	121	0.92	8.2	0.0	32.3 ± 1.3 (29.7-35.2)	0.0
MJ48	Rainy	20 Jun	46.5	90		50.1	0.0	33.6 ± 1.5 (28.2-35.6)	0.0
MJ49	Rainy	20 Jun	46.7	109	0.93	1.5	0.0	31.8 ± 1.2 (28.3-34.1)	1.0
MJ50	Rainy	21 Jun	46.5	97	0.88	50.9	0.0	33.7 ± 1.5 (28.5-35.9)	0.0
MJ51	Rainy	26 Jun	42	80		3.1	0.0	31.9 ± 1.3 (28.4-34.3)	1.0
MJ52	Rainy	26 Jun	52.6	103		53.9	0.0	33.7 ± 1.6 (27.8-36.6)	0.0
MJ53	Rainy	02 Jul	46.1	93	0.69	40.0	0.0	33.7 ± 1.9 (28.8-37.8)	0.0
MJ55	Rainy	02 Jul	46.7	91	0.41	16.0	0.0	32.7 ± 1.5 (28.3-34.9)	0.0
MJ57	Rainy	05 Jul	47.6	98		40.4	0.0	33.4 ± 2.0 (28.1-37.7)	0.0
MJ59	Rainy	05 Jul	49.7	106		11.4	0.0	32.6 ± 1.5 (27.9-35.1)	0.0
MJ63	Rainy	14 Jul	46.2	105		17.1	0.0	33.5 ± 0.7 (30.4-34.9)	0.0
MJ67	Rainy	14 Jul	59.6	109	0.25	0.0	0.0	32.0 ± 1.4 (27.4-34.0)	0.0
MJ69	Rainy	14 Jul	59.6	111		2.8	0.0	32.5 ± 1.4 (27.9-34.4)	0.0
MJ71	Rainy	23 Aug	47.9	100		27.5	0.0	33.1 ± 1.5 (29.0-35.9)	0.0
MJ73	Rainy	24 Aug	47.8	87		28.8	0.0	33.2 ± 1.5 (29.0-36.0)	0.0
MJ74	Rainy	24 Aug	47.8	86	0.69	28.2	0.0	33.1 ± 1.6 (28.9-36.2)	0.0
MJ75	Rainy	24 Aug	44.8	56	0.88	0.4	0.0	33.9 ± 0.7 (31.2-36.1)	0.0
MJ77	Rainy	24 Aug	Did not hatch	68	0.00	0.3	0.0	33.2 ± 1.5 (29.0-36.7)	NA

MJ78	Rainy	24 Aug	Did not hatch	117	0.00	0.2	0.0	33.0 ± 1.5 (28.8-36.0)	NA
MJ79	Rainy	24 Aug	Did not hatch	120	0.00	0.3	0.0	33.2 ± 1.5 (29.2-36.0)	NA
MJ98	Rainy	25 Sep	Did not hatch	93	0.00	0.3	0.0	33.2 ± 1.8 (28.8-36.2)	NA
MJ99	Rainy	25 Sep	Did not hatch	66	0.00	0.4	0.0	33.3 ± 1.8 (28.6-36.3)	NA
MJ100	Rainy	25 Sep	Did not hatch	113	0.00	0.4	0.0	33.6 ± 2.0 (28.9-38.5)	NA
MJ101	Rainy	25 Sep	Did not hatch	87	0.00	0.3	0.0	33.1 ± 1.6 (29.1-35.9)	NA
MJ103	Rainy	25 Sep	Did not hatch	112	0.00	0.3	0.0	33.2 ± 1.5 (28.6-35.6)	NA
MJ105	Rainy	25 Sep	Did not hatch	92	0.00	0.2	0.0	32.8 ± 1.6 (28.3-35.3)	NA
MJ106	Rainy	25 Sep	Did not hatch	111	0.00	0.3	0.0	33.1 ± 1.7 (28.6-35.8)	NA
MJ107	Rainy	25 Sep	Did not hatch	98	0.00	0.3	0.0	33.2 ± 1.6 (28.9-35.8)	NA
MJ108	Rainy	25 Sep	Did not hatch	85	0.00	0.4	0.0	33.3 ± 1.7 (28.8-35.8)	NA
MJ110	Rainy	25 Sep	Did not hatch	93	0.00	0.4	0.0	33.5 ± 1.6 (29.5-36.0)	NA

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Table 2. Mean temperature for 71 nests (37 in Dry season and 34 in Rainy season) and mean phenotype measurements (straight carapace length (SCL: mm), straight carapace width (SCW: mm) and weight (g)) and crawl speed and righting response for olive ridley sea turtle hatchlings from 38 nests at Majahuas beach by season (Rainy: n = 10; Dry: n = 28) in 2015.

Parameter	Season				Statistical Test
	Dry		Rainy		
	Mean ± SD	Min-Max	Mean ± SD	Min-Max	
Temperature (°C)	24.94 ± 1.858 (a)	22.80- 28.50	29.07 ± 0.807 (b)	27.80- 32.00	$F_{(1,69)}=143.26$; $p<0.001$
Hatching Success (%)	74.2 ± 2.97 (a)	0.000- 100.0	24.1 ± 3.56 (b)	0.00-92.70	$F_{(1,1952)}=38.08$; $p<0.001$
SCL (mm)	40.62 ± 1.823 (a)	34.00- 47.50	40.15 ± 2.535 (b)	30.00- 49.00	$F_{(1,758)}=7.16$; $p=0.008$
SCW (mm)	32.84 ± 1.714 (a)	26.40- 38.00	32.12 ± 2.104 (b)	26.00- 29.50	$F_{(1,758)}=20.71$; $p<0.001$
Weight (g)	16.23 ± 1.686 (a)	12.00- 24.00	14.93 ± 2.317 (b)	8.020- 19.88	$F_{(1,758)}=64.55$; $p<0.001$
Crawl Speed (cm s ⁻¹)	0.977 ± 0.594 (a)	0.132- 3.600	0.550 ± 0.359 (b)	0.086- 1.597	$F_{(1,758)}=60.17$; $p<0.001$
Righting Response (s)	3.870 ± 2.412 (a)	0.980- 19.00	3.336 ± 2.110 (b)	0.830- 18.00	$F_{(1,758)}=04.641$; $p=0.032$
Righting Propensity	4.471 ± 2.174 (a)	0.000- 6.000	4.598 ± 2.139 (a)	0.000- 6.000	$F_{(1,758)}=0.352$; $p=0.553$

N.B.: The statistical test used is the analysis of variance (ANOVA); statistical test data as mean ± SD followed by Tukey's test in parentheses if significant differences were found. Hatching success data in percentage.

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