# 1 Assessing seasonal demographic covariation to understand environmental-

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## change impacts on a hibernating mammal

- 4 <u>Authors</u>: Maria Paniw<sup>1,2</sup>, Dylan Childs<sup>3</sup>, Kenneth B Armitage<sup>4</sup>, Daniel T Blumstein<sup>5,6</sup>, Julien
- 5 Martin<sup>7,8</sup>, Madan K. Oli<sup>9</sup>, Arpat Ozgul<sup>1</sup>
- 6 1 Department of Evolutionary Biology and Environmental Studies, University of Zurich,
- 7 Winterthurerstrasse 190, CH-8057 Zurich, Switzerland, <u>arpat.ozgul@ieu.uzh.ch</u>
- 8 2 Ecological and Forestry Applications Research Centre (CREAF), Campus de Bellaterra (UAB) Edifici
- 9 C, ES-08193 Cerdanyola del Vallès, Spain, <u>m.paniw@creaf.uab.cat</u>
- 10 *3 Department of Animal and Plant Sciences, University of Sheffield, Western Bank, Sheffield S10 2TN,*
- 11 UK, <u>d.childs@sheffield.ac.uk</u>
- 12 4 Ecology & Evolutionary Biology Department, The University of Kansas, Lawrence, KS 66045-7534,
- 13 USA, <u>marmots@ku.edu</u>
- 14 5 Department of Ecology and Evolutionary Biology, University of California Los Angeles, Los Angeles,
- 15 CA 90095, USA, <u>marmots@ucla.edu</u>
- 16 6 The Rocky Mountain Biological Laboratory, Crested Butte, CO 81224, USA
- 17 7 School of Biological Sciences, University of Aberdeen, Aberdeen, AB24 2TZ, UK,
- 18 8 Department of Biology, University of Ottawa, Ottawa, K1N 9A7, Canada, julien.martin@uottawa.ca
- 19 9 Department of Wildlife Ecology, University of Florida, Gainesville, FL 32611, USA, <u>olim@ufl.edu</u>
- 20
   21 \*<u>Corresponding author</u>: Tel.: +34-671-246-338; email: maria.paniw@ieu.uzh.ch; ORCID ID: 0000-0002-
- **22** 1949-4448
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### 33 ABSTRACT

34 Natural populations are exposed to seasonal variation in environmental factors that 35 simultaneously affect several demographic rates (survival, development, reproduction). The 36 resulting covariation in these rates determines population dynamics, but accounting for its 37 numerous biotic and abiotic drivers is a significant challenge. Here, we use a factor-analytic 38 approach to capture partially unobserved drivers of seasonal population dynamics. We use 40 39 years of individual-based demography from yellow-bellied marmots (Marmota flaviventer) to fit 40 and project population models that account for seasonal demographic covariation using a latent 41 variable. We show that this latent variable, by producing positive covariation among winter 42 demographic rates, depicts a measure of environmental quality. Simultaneous, negative 43 responses of winter survival and reproductive-status change to declining environmental quality 44 result in a higher risk of population quasi-extinction, regardless of summer demography where 45 recruitment takes place. We demonstrate how complex environmental processes can be 46 summarized to understand population persistence in seasonal environments.

### 47 INTRODUCTION

Effects of environmental change on survival, growth, and reproduction are typically investigated 48 49 based on annual transitions among life-history stages in structured population models (Salguero-50 Gómez et al., 2016; Paniw et al., 2018). However, all natural ecosystems show some level of 51 seasonal fluctuations in environmental conditions, and numerous species have evolved life cycles 52 that are cued to such seasonality (Ruf et al., 2012; Varpe, 2017). For example, most temperate-53 and many arid-environment species show strong differences in survival and growth among 54 seasons, with reproduction being confined mostly to one season (Childs et al., 2011; Rushing et 55 al., 2017; Woodroffe et al., 2017). Species with highly adapted, seasonal life cycles are likely to 56 be particularly vulnerable to environmental change, even if they are relatively long-lived 57 (Jenouvrier et al., 2012; Campos et al., 2017; Paniw et al., 2019). This is because adverse 58 environmental conditions in the non-reproductive season may carry-over and negate positive 59 environmental effects in the reproductive season in which key life-history events occur (Marra et 60 al., 2015). For instance, in species where individual traits such as body mass determine 61 demographic rates, environment-driven changes in the trait distribution in one season can affect 62 trait-dependent demographic rates in the next season (Bassar et al., 2016; Paniw et al., 2019). 63 Investigating annual dynamics, averaged over multiple seasons, may, therefore, obscure the mechanisms that allow populations to persist under environmental change. 64 Despite the potential to gain a more mechanistic view of population dynamics, modeling 65 66 the effects of seasonal environmental change is an analytically complex and data-hungry 67 endeavor (Benton et al., 2006; Bassar et al., 2016). This is in part because multiple 68 environmental factors that change throughout the year can interact with each other and 69 individual-level (e.g., body mass) or population-level factors (e.g., density dependence) to

70 influence season-specific demographic rates (Benton et al., 2006; Lawson et al., 2015; Ozgul et 71 al., 2007; Paniw et al., 2019; Töpper et al., 2018). One major analytical challenge for ecologists 72 is that typically only a small subset of the numerous biotic and abiotic drivers of important life-73 history processes are known and measured continuously (Teller et al., 2016); and this challenge 74 is amplified in seasonal models where more detail on such drivers may be required while 75 biological processes such as hibernation are cryptic to researchers (van de Pol et al., 2016). 76 Assessing whether the available information provides meaningful measures of biological processes is another challenge. Nonlinear interactions among the myriad of biotic and abiotic 77 78 factors are common in nature, and teasing apart their effects on natural populations requires 79 detailed and long-term data (Benton et al., 2006; Paniw et al., 2019), which is not available for 80 most systems (Salguero-Gómez et al., 2015; 2016).

Overcoming the challenges in parameterizing seasonal population models is important 81 82 because a robust projections of such models require assessing the simultaneous effects of biotic 83 and abiotic factors on several demographic rates, causing the latter to covary within and among 84 seasons (Maldonado-Chaparro et al., 2018; Paniw et al., 2019). Positive environment-driven 85 covariation in demographic rates can amplify the population-level effects of environmental 86 change. For instance, Jongejans et al. (2010) demonstrated that positive covariation in survival 87 and reproduction in several plant populations magnified the effect of environmental variability 88 on population dynamics and increased extinction risk. On the other hand, antagonistic 89 demographic responses, either due to intrinsic tradeoffs or opposing effects of biotic/abiotic 90 factors, can buffer populations from environmental change (Knops et al., 2007; Van de Pol et al., 91 2010); for instance, when population-level effects of decreased reproduction are offset by 92 increases in survival or growth (Connell & Ghedini, 2015; Reed et al., 2013; Villellas et al.,

2015). Thus, explicit consideration of patterns in demographic covariation can allow for a fuller
picture of population persistence in a changing world. Such a consideration remains scarce
(Ehrlén & Morris, 2015; Ehrlén et al., 2016; but see Bassar et al., 2016; Compagnoni et al.,
2016).

97 Here, we investigated the population-level effects of seasonal covariation among trait-98 mediated demographic rates (*i.e.*, collectively referred to as demographic processes), capitalizing 99 on 40 years (1976-2016) of individual-based data from a population of yellow-bellied marmots 100 (Marmota flaviventer). Our main aims were to (i) efficiently model demographic covariation in 101 the absence of knowledge on its underlying drivers and (ii) characterize the seasonal mechanisms 102 through which this covariation affects population viability. Yellow-bellied marmots have 103 adapted to a highly seasonal environment; individuals spend approximately eight months in 104 hibernation during the cold winter (September/October-April/May), and use the short summer 105 season (April/May-September/October) to reproduce and replenish fat reserves (Fig. 1). One 106 challenge that the marmot study shares with numerous other natural systems is the identification 107 of key proximal biotic and abiotic factors driving population dynamics. In marmots such factors 108 are numerous and affect population dynamics through complex, interactive pathways 109 (Maldonado-Chaparro et al., 2017; Oli & Armitage, 2004), which include interactions with 110 phenotypic-trait structure (Ozgul et al., 2010). As a result, measures of environmental covariates 111 (e.g., temperature or resource availability) have previously shown little effect on the covariation 112 of marmot demographic processes (Maldonado-Chaparro et al., 2018). To address this challenge, 113 we used a novel method, a hierarchical factor analysis (Hindle et al., 2018), to model the 114 covariation of demographic processes as a function of a shared latent variable, quantified in a 115 Bayesian modeling framework. We then built seasonal stage-, mass-, and environment-specific

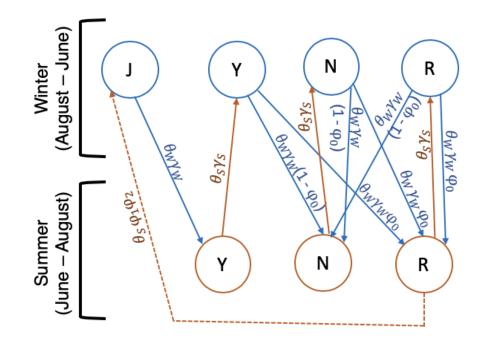
integral projection models (IPMs; Ellner et al., 2016) for the marmot population, which allowed
us to simultaneously project trait distributions and population dynamics across seasons. We used
prospective stochastic perturbation analyses and population projections to assess how the
observed demographic covariation mediated population viability.

#### 120 METHODS

121 *Study species* 

122 Yellow-bellied marmots are an ideal study system to assess the effects of seasonal covariation in 123 demographic rates on population viability. These large, diurnal, burrow-dwelling rodents 124 experience strong seasonal fluctuations in environmental conditions, and their seasonal 125 demography has been studied for > 40 years (Armitage, 2014). Our study was conducted in the 126 Upper East River Valley near the Rocky Mountain Biological Laboratory, Gothic, Colorado (38° 127 57' N. 106° 59' W). Climatic conditions in both winter and summer have been shown to 128 influence reproduction and survival in the subsequent season (Lenihan & Van Vuren, 1996; Van 129 Vuren & Armitage, 1991). In addition, predation is major cause of death in the active summer 130 season (Van Vuren, 2001; Maldonado-Chaparro et al., 2017) and may be particularly severe 131 shortly before (Bryant & Page, 2005) or after hibernation (Armitage, 2014), especially in year 132 with heavy snow (Blumstein, pers. obs.). The effects of these factors on the demography of 133 yellow-bellied marmots are mediated through body mass, with heavier individuals more likely to 134 survive hibernation, reproduce in summer, and escape predation (Armitage et al., 1976; Ozgul et 135 al., 2010). Population dynamics of marmots are therefore likely to be susceptible to changes in 136 seasonal patterns of biotic and abiotic drivers. However, numerous interacting climatic factors, 137 such as temperature extremes and length of snow cover, determine both winter and summer 138 environmental conditions. The effects on marmot demography of these climatic factors, and of

- 139 interactions between climate and predation (the latter mostly a cryptic process) have been shown
- to be difficult to disentangle (Schwartz & Armitage, 2002; Schwartz & Armitage, 2005).
- 141
- 142 Seasonal demographic rates and trait transitions
- 143 For this study, we focused on the population dynamics of eight major colonies continuously
- 144 monitored since 1976 (Armitage, 2014; Supporting Material S1). Each year, marmots were live-
- trapped throughout the growing season in summer (and ear-tagged upon first capture), and their
- sex, age, mass, and reproductive status were recorded (Armitage & Downhower, 1974; Schwartz
- 147 et al., 1998). All young males disperse from their natal colonies, and female immigration into
- 148 existing colonies is extremely rare; as such, local demography can be accurately represented by
- 149 the female segment of the population (Armitage, 2010). Thus, we focused on seasonal
- 150 demographic processes of females only. We classified female marmots by age and reproductive
- status: juveniles (< 1 year old), yearlings (1 year old), and non-reproductive ( $\geq 2$  years old; not
- 152 observed pregnant or with offspring) and reproductive adults ( $\geq 2$  years old; observed pregnant
- 153 or with offspring) (Armitage & Downhower, 1974).



#### 154

155 Figure 1: Seasonal life-cycle transitions modelled for yellow-bellied marmots. The two seasons correspond to the 156 main periods of mass loss (winter) and gain (summer). Solid and dashed arrows represent discrete-time stage 157 transitions and recruitment, respectively. Transitions among winter (W) and summer (S) stages (marked by arrows 158 in different colors) depend on demographic rates (survival  $[\theta]$ , reproduction  $[\varphi_0]$ , and recruitment  $[\varphi_1]$ ) and trait 159 transitions (mass change [ $\gamma$ ], and offspring mass [ $\varphi_2$ ]). Stages are: juveniles, J, yearlings, Y, non-reproductive 160 adults, N, and reproductive adults, R. All stage-specific demographic rates and trait transitions are modeled using 161 generalized linear mixed effects models in a Bayesian framework and include body mass and a common latent 162 variable representing environmental quality as covariates.

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164 We determined demographic rates (survival, reproduction, and recruitment) for two discrete 165 growing seasons: winter (August - June) and summer (June - August) (Fig. 1), delineating the 166 main periods of mass loss and gain, respectively (Maldonado-Chaparro et al., 2017). We 167 assumed that females that permanently disappeared from a colony had died. This measure of 168 apparent survival may overestimate the death of yearlings in the summer, which disperse from 169 their natal colonies (Van Vuren & Armitage, 1994). At the same time, the intensive trapping 170 protocol ensured a high capture probability of yearlings (Oli & Armitage, 2004), decreasing the 171 discrepancies between their apparent and true survival.

172 Female marmots give birth to one litter from mid-May to mid-June. In our population 173 model, females  $\geq 2$  year of age that survived the winter were considered reproductive adults at 174 the beginning of summer if they were observed to be pregnant or with pups, or non-reproductive 175 adults otherwise (Fig. 1). Upon successful reproduction, weaned offspring emerge from burrows 176 ca. 35 days after birth (Armitage et al., 1976); we therefore defined recruitment as the number of 177 female juveniles weaned by reproductive females that survive the summer (Fig. 1). The sex ratio 178 of female:male recruits was assumed to be 1:1 (Armitage & Downhower, 1974). Observations 179 and pedigree analyses allowed us to determine the mother of each new juvenile recruited into the population (Ozgul et al., 2010). 180 181 To assess changes in body mass from one season to the next, we estimated body mass of 182 every female at the beginning of each season: June 1 (beginning of the summer season when 183 marmots begin foraging) and August 15 (beginning of the winter season in our models when foraging activity decreases). Mid-August is the latest that body mass for the vast majority of 184 185 individuals can be measured and has been shown to be a good estimate of pre-hibernation mass 186 (Maldonado-Chaparro et al., 2017). Body-mass estimates on the two specific dates were 187 estimated using linear mixed effect models. These models were fitted for each age class and 188 included the fixed effect of day-of-year on body mass, and the random effects of year, site and 189 individual identity on the intercept and on the day-of-year slope (for details see Ozgul *et al.*, 190 2010; Maldonado-Chaparro et al., 2017). Body mass of juvenile females was estimated for 191 August 15.

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193 Modelling covariation in demographic processes – latent-variable approach

194 We jointly modeled all seasonal demographic and mass change rates (*i.e.*, demographic 195 processes) as a function of stage and body mass - or mother's mass in the case of juvenile mass -196 at the beginning of a season, using a Bayesian modeling framework (Table 1; Supporting 197 Material S1). All mass estimates were cube-root transformed to stabilize the variance and 198 improve the normality of the residuals in the Gaussian submodels (Maldonado-Chaparro et al., 199 2017). We fitted all demographic-process submodels as generalized linear mixed effects models 200 (GLMMs). We assumed a binomial error distribution (logit link function) for the probability of 201 winter  $(\theta_{\rm W})$  and summer  $(\theta_{\rm S})$  survival and of probability of reproducing (*i.e.*, being in the 202 reproductive adult stage at the beginning of summer;  $\varphi_0$ ); a Poisson error distribution (log link 203 function) for the number of recruits ( $\varphi_1$ ); and a Gaussian error distribution (identity link) for the 204 masses  $(z^*)$  at the end of each season (Table 1). Mass-change (*i.e.*, mass gain or loss) rates  $(\gamma)$ 205 were then defined as functions of current (z) and next ( $z^*$ ) mass using a normal probability 206 density function. For the juvenile mass distribution ( $\varphi_2$ ), the density function depended on the 207 mother's mass  $(z_M)$  (see below; Supporting Material S2).

208 To model temporal covariation in seasonal demography in the absence of explicit 209 knowledge on key biotic or abiotic drivers of this covariation, we used a factor-analytic 210 approach. This approach has recently been proposed by Hindle and coauthors (2018) as a 211 structured alternative to fit and project unstructured covariances among demographic processes 212 when factors explaining these covariances are not modeled. We implemented this novel 213 approach parameterizing a model-wide latent variable  $(Q_{\nu})$  which affected all demographic 214 processes in a given year (y) (for details see Supporting Material S1 and Hindle *et al.*, 2018).  $Q_y$ 215 was incorporated as a covariate in all seven demographic-process submodels (Table 1). Year-216 specific values of  $Q_y$  were drawn from a normal distribution with mean = 0 and SD =1. The

associated  $\beta_q$  slope parameters then determine the magnitude and sign of the effect of  $Q_y$  on a given, season-specific demographic process (Table 1). To make the Bayesian model identifiable, we constrained the standard deviation of  $Q_y$  to equal 1 and arbitrarily set the  $\beta_q$  for summer survival ( $\theta_s$ ) to be positive. The  $\beta_q$  of the remaining submodels can, therefore, be interpreted as correlations of demographic processes with  $\theta_s$ .

Aside from the latent variable  $Q_y$  simultaneously affecting all demographic processes, we included a random year effect ( $\varepsilon_{Ysubmodel}$ ) as a covariate in each submodel. While  $Q_y$  captured demographic covariation, the year effect accounted for additional temporal variation of each demographic process not captured by  $Q_y$ . We also tested for the effect of population density (measured as total abundance, abundance of adults, or abundance of yearling and adults) in all submodels. However, like previous studies, we could not detect any clear density effects (Armitage, 1984; Maldonado-Chaparro et al., 2018).

The prior distributions of the Bayesian model and posterior parameter samples obtained are detailed in Supporting Material S1. For each demographic-process submodel, we chose the most parsimonious model structure by fitting a full model that included all covariates (mass, stage, and  $Q_y$ ) and two-way interactions between mass and stage and stage and  $Q_y$ , and retaining only those parameters for which the posterior distribution (± 95 % C.I.) did not overlap 0 (Table 1; Table S1.1).

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- **Table 1:** Parameterization of the most parsimonious models describing winter (W) and summer (S)
- 241 demographic processes in marmots. The distributions B, N, and P correspond to the Bernoulli, normal,
- and Poisson distributions, respectively. Stage life cycle stage. Q latent environmental variable. z –
- 243 season-specific mass.  $z_M$ -mass of the mother.
- 244

Demographic process	Function	Likelihood
		distribution
Winter (W):		
Survival ( $\theta_{W}$ )	$\begin{split} \text{logit}(\theta_{\text{W}}) &= \alpha_{0\theta\text{W}} + \alpha_{a\theta\text{W}}[\text{stage}] + \beta_{z\theta\text{W}} \times z \\ &+ \beta_{q\theta\text{W}} \times Q_{y}[\text{year}] + \varepsilon_{y\theta\text{W}}[\text{year}] \end{split}$	$B(\theta_W)$
Mass next $(z_W^*)$	$ \begin{aligned} \mathbf{z}_W^* &= \alpha_{0z*W} + \alpha_{az*W}[\text{stage}] + (\beta_{zz*W} + \\ \beta_{zaz*W}[\text{stage}]) \times z \\ &+ \beta_{qz*W} \times \mathbf{Q}_y[\text{year}] + \varepsilon_{yz*W}[\text{year}] \end{aligned} $	$\aleph(z_W^*\tau_{z^*W})$
Reproduction ( $\varphi_0$ )	$\begin{aligned} \text{logit}(\varphi_0) &= \alpha_{0\phi0} + \alpha_{a\phi0}[\text{stage}] + \beta_{z\phi0} \times z \\ &+ \beta_{q\phi0} \times \text{Q}_y[\text{year}] + \varepsilon_{y\phi0}[\text{year}] \end{aligned}$	$B(\varphi_0)$
Summer (S):		
Survival ( $\theta_{\rm S}$ )	$\begin{aligned} \text{logit}(\theta_{\text{S}}) &= \alpha_{0\text{\theta}\text{S}} + \alpha_{\text{a}\text{\theta}\text{S}}[\text{stage}] + \beta_{\text{z}\text{\theta}\text{S}} \times z \\ &+ \beta_{\text{q}\text{\theta}\text{S}} \times \text{Q}_{y}[\text{year}] + \varepsilon_{\text{y}\text{\theta}\text{S}}[\text{year}] \end{aligned}$	$B(\theta_S)$
Mass next $(z_{S}^{*})$	$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{z}_{S}^{*} &= \alpha_{0z*S} + \alpha_{az*S}[\text{stage}] + (\beta_{zz*S} + \\ \beta_{zaz*S}[\text{stage}]) \times z + \beta_{qz*S} \times \mathbf{Q}_{y}[\text{year}] \\ &+ \varepsilon_{yz*S}[\text{year}] \end{aligned}$	$\aleph(z_{S}^{*},\tau_{z*S})$
Number of recruits $(\varphi_1)$	$log(\varphi_1) = \alpha_{0\varphi_1} + \beta_{z\varphi_1} \times z + \beta_{q\varphi_1} \times Q_y[year] + \varepsilon_{y\varphi_1}[year]$	$P(\varphi_1)$
Juvenile mass $(z_J^*)$	$z_{J}^{*} = \alpha_{0z*J} + \beta_{zz*J} \times z_{M} + \beta_{qz*J} \times Q_{y}[year] + \varepsilon_{yz*J}[year]$	$\bigstar(z_J^*,\tau_{z*J})$

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246 Interpreting demographic covariation: latent variable as a measure of environmental quality 247 The latent variable,  $Q_y$ , effectively captured the covariation among the demographic processes 248 (Supporting Material S1); therefore, using one latent variable across both seasons was sufficient. 249 Our GLMMs showed a strong effect of  $Q_y$  on winter but not summer demographic processes. 250 This effect was positive for all winter demographic processes, as evidenced by the positive  $\beta_q$ 251 (Table S1.1). The  $\beta_q$  for demographic processes in the summer, however, were comparatively 252 small and were not significantly different from 0 (95 % posterior C.I.s overlapped 0). The 253 positive  $\beta_q$  indicate that  $Q_y$  effectively estimates the overall annual environmental quality or 254 suitability, capturing both biotic and abiotic processes. A positive value of  $Q_{y}$  then depicts an 255 environmental condition at a given time point that increases winter survival and probability of 256 reproducing and decreases mass loss (Hindle et al., 2018). The variation in  $Q_y$  was in part 257 explained by environmental variables measured at the study site, but was unrelated to population 258 density (Supporting Material S1). Negative values of  $Q_{\nu}$  were associated with longer and more 259 severe winters and a higher snow cover, while positive  $Q_y$  indicated warmer winters and springs. 260 However, as the environmental variables explained < 50 % of the variation in  $Q_{y}$  the latent 261 variable captures multivariate, partly unobserved biotic and abiotic processes into a simple, 262 univariate measure of how bad  $(Q_v < 0)$  or good  $(Q_v > 0)$  environmental conditions are likely to 263 affect marmot demography.

Aside from the effects of environmental quality, our models are consistent with previous findings on the importance of body mass and stage on yellow-bellied marmot demography (Maldonado-Chaparro et al., 2017; Ozgul et al., 2010). The most parsimonious GLMMs (Table S1.1) showed a positive effect of mass on all demographic processes, with the weakest effect of mass on summer survival ( $\theta_s$ ) of reproductive adults. Survival, in particular  $\theta_s$ , was highest for reproductive adults; reproduction was also highest for adults that reproduced before (Fig. S1.5).

## 271 Seasonal Integral Projection Models

272 We used the most parsimonious models of demographic processes (Table 1) to parameterize

273 density-independent, stage-mass-structured, seasonal and environment-specific Integral

274 Projection Models (IPMs) (Easterling et al., 2000; Ellner et al., 2016). For each stage *a*, the IPMs

275 track the number of individuals  $(n_a)$  in the mass range [z, z+dz] at time t. The fate of these 276 individuals at time t+1 is described by a set of coupled integral equations, which differ for each season and are a function of the latent environmental variable  $Q_y$ . In the winter season, 277 278 individuals can survive ( $\theta_w$ ) and change mass ( $\gamma_w$ ) according to their stage, mass, and 279 environment. Conditional on survival, juveniles (J) transition to yearlings (Y), while all other 280 stages are distributed to either the reproductive (R) or non-reproductive (N) adult stage at the 281 beginning of summer, depending on the stage-specific probability of reproducing ( $\varphi_0$ ). During 282 the summer season, individuals in stages Y, N, and R survive ( $\theta_{\rm S}$ ) and change mass ( $\gamma_{\rm S}$ ) 283 according to their stage and mass at the beginning of summer and according to the environment; 284 but, in summer, transitions to another stage do not occur. Reproductive individuals (R) of a given 285 mass also produce  $\varphi_1/2$  female juveniles (J), *i.e.*, half of the total number of recruits. Female 286 recruits are distributed across z mass classes by the end of summer, given by  $\varphi_2$ . The 287 mathematical descriptions of the IPMs for the winter and summer seasons are provided in 288 Supporting Material S2. Our population model assumes that past conditions affecting individuals 289 are captured by the current mass distribution and are propagated through time, allowing us to 290 assess trait- and stage-mediated demographic processes (Ozgul et al., 2010). 291 We numerically integrated the summer and winter IPMs using the 'midpoint rule' 292 (Easterling et al., 2000) with upper and lower integration limits of 7.8 (472 g) and 17.1 (5000 g), 293 respectively. To avoid unintended eviction of individuals from the model (i.e., for a given mass 294 class z, the sum of the probabilities to transition to  $z^* < 1$ ), we applied a constant correction (*i.e.*, 295 equally redistributing evicted individuals among all  $z^*$ ) when constructing the IPMs as suggested 296 in Merow et al., (2014) (see also Williams et al., 2012). For each stage-specific IPM, we chose a

bin size of 100 (*i.e.*, dividing masses into 100 classes), as further increasing the bin size did not

significantly improve the precision of estimates of the long-term population growth rate. The
IPMs we constructed accurately reproduced observed population dynamics from 1976-2016
(Supporting Material S2).

301

302 Sensitivity of population dynamics to seasonal demographic processes: prospective

303 *perturbations* 

304 Changes in population dynamics in response to changes in environmental fluctuations are 305 determined by the response of demographic processes to the environment and, in turn, of 306 population dynamics to demographic processes (Maldonado-Chaparro et al., 2018). To explore 307 these two sources of variation in the long-term fitness of the marmot population, we first 308 quantified the proportional change in the demographic processes (Table 1) to changes in  $Q_y$ , *i.e.*, 309  $\partial(\log \rho)/\partial Q_{\nu}$ , where  $\rho$  is a demographic process. We calculated these elasticities for different 310 values of  $Q_y$  (from -1 to 1), increasing each value by 0.01 and keeping mass at its stage-specific 311 average and  $\varepsilon_Y$  fixed to 0. To assess the effect of parameter uncertainty on our estimates, we 312 repeated these calculations for a sample of 1000 parameter values drawn from the posterior 313 distribution (Paniw et al., 2017).

We next assessed which demographic processes most affected the stochastic population fitness under observed (1976-2016) environmental fluctuations. We used a simulation of 100,000 years to assess the stochastic population growth rate,  $\log \lambda s$ , a measure of fitness (see Supporting Material S3 for details; see section below for short-term viability simulations). During the simulation, we calculated the elasticity of  $\log \lambda s$  to changes in the 40-year observed mean  $(e_s^{\mu})$ and standard deviation  $(e_s^{\sigma})$  of stage-specific demographic processes; we adapted the approach described in Ellner *et al.* (2016; chapter 7) to evaluate the relative effects of these changes on log *λs* (see S3 for details). The two elasticities quantify the strength of selection pressures on lowerlevel vital rates in stochastic environments (Haridas & Tuljapurkar, 2005; Rees & Ellner, 2009).
We repeated the elasticity calculations for a sample of 100 parameter values from the posterior
distribution.

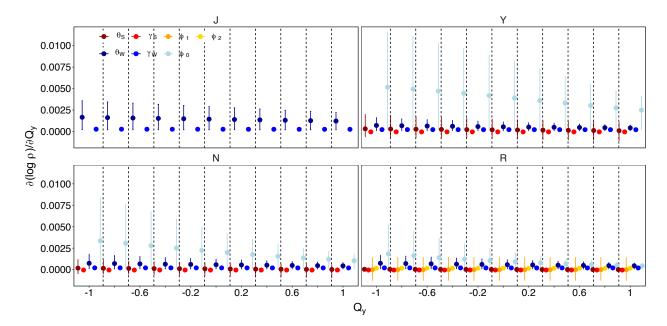
325 *Population viability under changes in environmental quality* 

326 To assess how the combined effects of (i) seasonal demographic responses to environmental 327 fluctuations and (ii) population sensitivity to seasonal demography impact population viability, 328 we simulated population dynamics under environmental change. We ran 200 independent 329 simulations each projecting population dynamics for 50 years. The projections were based on 330 several scenarios of changes in the distribution of environmental quality,  $Q_y$ , corresponding to 331 changes in the average and standard deviation of winter length and harshness as well as 332 unobserved environmental drivers. We first created base simulations (*i.e.*, no environmental 333 change) where  $Q_y$  was picked from a normal distribution with  $\mu_0 = 0$  and  $\sigma_0 = 1$  across all 334 demographic processes. This was appropriate, as we found no indication of temporal 335 autocorrelation in  $Q_{y}$  (Supporting Material S1). Next, we approximated random future 336 fluctuations in  $Q_{y}$  under different average environmental conditions. To do so, we sampled  $Q_{y}$ 337 from a normal distribution fixing the average environmental quality ( $\mu_0 = -1, -0.5, 0.5, 1$ ) and its 338 variation ( $\sigma_0 = 0.6, 1.2$ ) over the 50 years of projections. We then explored how a trend in  $\mu_0$ 339 would affect viability and mass distribution. To do so, we decreased the four  $\mu_0$  by 0.01 in each 340 year of the projections, keeping  $\sigma_0$  unaltered. We also explored population-level effects of future 341 increases in the temporal autocorrelation in  $Q_y$  as detailed in Supporting Material S4. All 342 simulations were repeated for a random sample of 1,000 parameters from the posterior 343 distribution to account for parameter uncertainty.

- 344 For all environmental-change scenarios, we recorded the probability of quasi-extinction
- across the 200 simulations. Quasi-extinction was defined conservatively as the number of non-
- juvenile individuals (*i.e.*, yearlings and non-reproductive and reproductive individuals) in the
- 347 population to be < 4, which corresponded to 10 % of their lowest observed number.

### 348 RESULTS

- 349 Sensitivity of population dynamics to seasonal demographic processes
- 350 In accordance with the posterior distribution of  $\beta_q$  parameters, which did not cross 0 for winter
- demographic processes, only winter demographic processes were significantly affected by small
- 352 changes in  $Q_y$  (Fig. 2). Among the winter demographic processes, changes in  $Q_y$  affected
- 353 reproduction across stages the most, followed by survival of juveniles (Fig. 2).



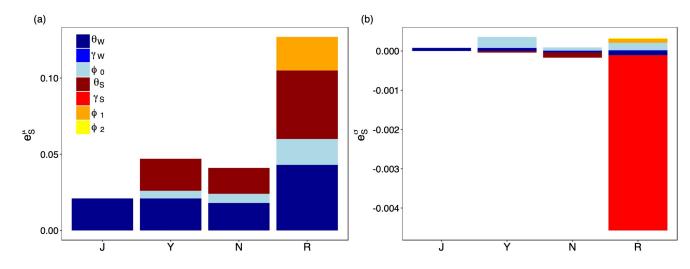
**Figure 2:** The sensitivity of seasonal demographic processes to environmental quality in marmots. Sensitivity is assessed as proportional changes in demographic processes,  $\rho$ , as environmental quality,  $Q_y$ , increases slightly. This sensitivity is measured with respect to different average values of  $Q_y$  and across four different life-cycle stages:

- 358 juveniles (J), yearlings (Y), non-reproductive adults (N), and reproductive adults (R). The demographic processes
- include winter (W; blue color tones) and summer (S; red color tones) survival ( $\theta$ ) and mass change ( $\gamma$ ); and

360 probability of reproducing ( $\varphi_0$ ), recruitment ( $\varphi_1$ ), and juvenile mass ( $\varphi_2$ ). Points and error bars show averages  $\pm$  95 361 % C.I. across 1,000 posterior parameter samples obtained from the Bayesian population model.

362

363 While environmental quality affected winter demographic processes only, our 364 prospective perturbation analyses showed that winter and summer demography equally determine long-term population fitness. Stochastic elasticity analyses ( $e_s^{\mu}$  and  $e_s^{\sigma}$ ) showed that 365 366 relative increases in the mean ( $\mu$ ) of winter ( $\theta_W$ ) and summer ( $\theta_S$ ) survival for reproductive 367 adults (R), would lead to substantial relative increases of the stochastic population growth rate, log $\lambda$ s (Fig. 3a). Highest, positive  $e_{s}^{\mu}$  were found at intermediate and large mass classes, and  $e_{s}^{\mu}$ 368 369 was negative for small masses when mass changes ( $\gamma$ ) and offspring mass ( $\varphi_2$ ) were perturbed (Fig. S3.1a in Supporting Material S3). This explained the overall small  $e_{\rm S}^{\mu}$  for  $\gamma$  and  $\varphi_2$  summed 370 371 over all mass classes (Fig. 3a). Overall, relative changes in  $\log \lambda s$  due to increases in the standard deviation of demographic processes  $(e_S^{\sigma})$  were much smaller compared to  $e_S^{\mu}$  (Fig. 3b) and didn't 372 differ significantly between vital rates, as 95 % posterior C.I. crossed 0 (Fig. S3.1b). 373



<sup>374</sup> 

**Figure 3** Sensitivity of the average long-term population fitness to changes in the average and variability of

demographic processes modeled for the yellow-bellied marmots. The sensitivity measure is obtained analytically as

377 elasticities (e) of the stochastic population growth rate,  $\log \lambda s$ , to changes in (a) the mean ( $\mu$ ) and (b) standard

378 deviation ( $\sigma$ ) of stage-specific demographic processes summed over all mass classes. Stages are juveniles (J),

379 yearlings (Y), non-reproductive adults (N), and reproductive adults (R). Demographic processes include winter (W)

and summer (S) survival ( $\theta$ ) and mass change ( $\gamma$ ); reproduction ( $\varphi_0$ ); recruitment ( $\varphi_1$ ), and offspring mass

distribution (φ<sub>2</sub>). Elasticities were calculated at the mean posterior values of parameters obtained from the Bayesian
 demographic model.

383

384 *Population viability under changes in environmental quality* 

385 While population fitness was equally sensitive to demographic processes over winter and

summer, environmental fluctuations strongly affected viability through winter demography.

Using base simulations (*i.e.*, obtaining  $Q_y$  from a normal distribution with  $\mu_Q = 0$  and  $\sigma_Q = 1$ ),

the probability of quasi-extinction, at an average of 0.1 [0.0, 0.3 C.I.] across posterior

389 parameters, were relatively low. Simulations of population dynamics based on scenarios of

390 environmental change, corresponding in part to changes in winter length and harshness, resulted

in substantial changes to viability. Quasi-extinction decreased (0 at  $\mu_Q = 1$ ) and increased (0.9

392 [0.6, 1.0 C.I.] at  $\mu_Q = -1$ ), compared to base simulations, when the population experienced a high

and low average environmental quality  $(Q_y)$ , respectively (Fig. 4). Average quasi-extinction

394 further increased and its uncertainty across posterior parameters decreased when a declining

trend in  $Q_y$  was simulated (Fig. S4.1). Changes in the standard deviation (Fig. 4) and

autocorrelation (Fig. S4.2) of  $Q_y$  had comparatively little effect on quasi-extinction.

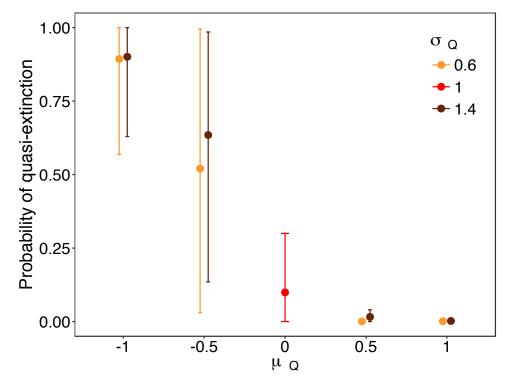


Figure 4: Probability of quasi-extinction (*i.e.*, < 4 non-juveniles in the population) of yellow-bellied marmots under different scenarios of environmental change. The scenarios consisted of projecting population dynamics for 50 years fixing a different mean ( $\mu$ ) and standard deviation ( $\sigma$ ) of environmental quality (Q) in all demographic processes. Points and error bars show averages ± 95 % C.I. across 1,000 posterior parameter samples obtained from the Bayesian population model. Base simulations ( $\mu Q = 0$ ;  $\sigma Q = 1$ ) are depicted in red.

#### 403

### 404 **DISCUSSION**

One important pathway through which environmental change can act on population dynamics is
through seasonal direct and carry-over effects on survival, development, and reproduction
(Harrison et al., 2010; Paniw et al., 2019). These effects, however, are often cryptic and therefore
difficult to quantify in ecological models (Hindle et al., 2019). We use a novel, factor-analytic
approach to efficiently quantify partially unobserved environment-demography relationships.
This approach allows us to investigate how positive responses in several demographic processes
to winter environmental conditions can drive annual population dynamics in a winter-adapted

mammal. The sensitivity to winter conditions occurs despite the fact that offspring are recruited
in summer and both summer and winter demographic processes determine population fitness. As
whole-year, population-level effects of environmental change can be filtered by season-specific
processes in the absence of density-dependent feedbacks, we highlight that the assessment of
such processes allows for a mechanistic understanding of population persistence (Picó et al.,
2002; Paniw et al., 2019).

418 In marmots, as in numerous other populations (Bassar et al., 2016; Jenouvrier et al., 419 2018), seasonal demographic processes play an important role in life-cycle dynamics (Armitage, 420 2017). Our prospective perturbations show that changes in both mean winter and summer 421 survival of reproductive adults have the strongest effect on population fitness, confirming the 422 critical role of this life-cycle stage (Ozgul et al., 2009). At the same time, environmental 423 conditions do not affect adult survival or other demographic processes in the same way 424 throughout the year. That is, although the environment has been shown to drive particularly 425 recruitment in numerous temperate species (e.g., Bonardi et al., 2017; Nouvellet et al., 2013), 426 such effects are not evident in marmots; here, a higher annual environmental quality, which 427 increases all winter demographic processes, shows little impact on summer demography, 428 including recruitment. In turn, only these joint responses of winter demographic processes to 429 environmental quality determine population persistence under environmental change. 430 The complex, partially unmeasured environmental processes that cause positive 431 covariation in seasonal demographic processes can be effectively captured using a univariate, 432 latent measure of environmental quality. In our study, this latent quality correlated better with

434 Material S1). In part, a good quality depicts shorter and milder winters. Milder winters increase

observed annual population growth than any measured environmental variable (Supporting

433

435 food availability and the time available for vigilance, thereby decreasing predation risk (Van 436 Vuren, 2001), especially just before or after hibernation (*i.e.*, within our winter season) when 437 such risk is severe (Armitage, 2014). Predation risk in early spring also increases under high 438 snow cover, as marmots, including more experienced adult females, cannot easily retreat to their 439 burrows (Blumstein, pers. obs.). Predation is however cryptic in the system (Van Vuren, 2001). 440 Capturing the effects of unobserved environmental variation, including predation, the latent-441 variable approach appears to be a promising alternative to modeling seasonal demographic 442 processes under limited knowledge of their drivers (Evans & Holsinger, 2012; Hindle et al., 443 2019; Hindle et al., 2018). We note that this approach may find limited applications in cases 444 where environment-demography relationships are more complex than in the yellow-bellied 445 marmots and include negative demographic covariation (e.g., due to opposing environmental 446 effects on demographic rates or tradeoffs between these rates). However, positive covariation in 447 demographic patterns is common (Jongejans et al., 2010; Paniw et al., 2019); and, given the short 448 time series of most demographic datasets (Salguero-Gómez et al., 2015; 2016) or little 449 knowledge on the actual environmental drivers of population dynamics (van de Pol et al., 2016; 450 Teller et al., 2016), the factor-analytic approach can be particularly useful in comparative 451 studies.

The seasonal effects of environmental quality on population persistence must be understood in terms of the role of reproductive females in the marmot population (Ozgul et al., 2009). In our simulations, shorter and less sever winters (*i.e.*, a good winter quality), would result in more reproductive females in the summer (Armitage et al., 2003). In turn, summer survival and recruitment by these females are important to long- and short-term demography (Ozgul et al., 2009; Maldonado-Chaparro et al., 2018), but are not driven by environmental

458 conditions. That is, although predation affects individuals in summer (Van Vuren, 2001), its 459 effects are strongest on juveniles and yearlings, while adult females are little affected (Ozgul et 460 al., 2006). At the same time, as is the case in other socially complex mammals (Morris et al., 461 2011), reproduction in yellow-bellied marmots is governed primarily by social interactions, in 462 particular the behavior of dominant adult females (Armitage, 2010; Blumstein & Armitage, 463 1998). Even under optimal summer conditions, the reproductive output of the population may 464 not increase as dominant females suppress reproduction in younger subordinates and therefore 465 regulate the size of colonies (Armitage, 1991). Dominant females, in addition, may skip 466 reproduction themselves if they enter hibernation with a relatively low mass (Armitage, 2017). 467 Thus, the necessity of meeting the physiological requirements of hibernation profoundly affects 468 life-history traits of yellow-bellied marmots that are expressed during the active season. 469 Unlike the effects of seasonal survival and reproduction, trait transitions between seasons 470 had a smaller effect on annual population dynamics, even if winter mass changes were mediated 471 by environmental quality. These relatively small effects are likely due to the fact that marmots 472 compensate for winter mass loss with increased growth in the summer, creating a zero-net effect 473 on annual trait change (Maldonado-Chaparro et al., 2017; 2018). Although the strength of 474 compensatory effects may differ within seasons or among life-history stages (Monclús et al., 475 2014), such effects are common in rodents and other species that have a short window for mass 476 gain (Morgan & Metcalfe, 2001; Orizaola et al., 2014), and highlight how assessing seasonal 477 dynamics can provide a mechanistic understanding of population-level global-change effects 478 (Bassar et al., 2016).

Under environmental change, the persistence of marmots was mostly affected by changesin mean environmental quality, whereas changes in the variance and temporal autocorrelation of

481 the mean showed little effects. This supports previous conclusions that yellow-bellied marmots 482 are partly buffered against increases in environmental variation (Maldonado-Chaparro et al., 483 2018; Morris et al., 2008) or autocorrelation (Engen et al., 2013). Further support for 484 demographic buffering comes from the fact that changes in the mean environmental quality most 485 strongly affected those demographic processes to which the stochastic population growth rate 486 was least sensitive, *i.e.*, yearlings gaining reproductive status. It is well known that in species 487 where vital rates of adults are relatively buffered, juveniles are much more sensitive to 488 environmental variation (Gaillard & Yoccoz, 2003; Jenouvrier et al., 2018). Our results indicate 489 that demographic buffering (Pfister, 1998; Morris et al., 2008) likely persists across the seasonal 490 environments and different masses for a high-altitude specialist.

491 Our results emphasize that declines in environmental quality in the non-reproductive 492 season alone can strongly affect annual population dynamics of a mammal highly adapted to 493 seasonal environments. Therefore, positive demographic covariation under environmental 494 change may threaten populations even if it affects demographic process to which the stochastic 495 growth rate is least sensitive, *i.e.*, processes that are under low selection pressure (Coulson et al., 496 2005; Iles et al., 2019). Studies that focus on the effects of environmental factors on single 497 demographic processes that strongly affect both short- and long-term population dynamics may 498 therefore underestimate the important role of seasonal demographic covariation.

Most species inhabit seasonal environments. Under global environmental change, it may
 therefore be critical to understand how seasonal patterns mediate persistence of natural
 populations. Novel methods such as the factor analytic approach allow researchers to overcome
 some challenges associated with more mechanistic approaches assessing population responses to

environmental change, and we encourage more seasonal demographic analyses across differenttaxa.

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