# Demographic buffering of life histories? 1 Implications of the choice of measurement scale 2 3 Eirin Bjørkvoll<sup>1\*</sup>, Aline M. Lee<sup>1,2</sup>, Vidar Grøtan<sup>1</sup>, Bernt-Erik Sæther<sup>1</sup>, Audun Stien<sup>3</sup>, 4 Steinar Engen<sup>1</sup>, Steve Albon<sup>4</sup>, Leif Egil Loe<sup>5</sup>, Brage Bremset Hansen<sup>1</sup> 5 6 <sup>1</sup> Centre for Biodiversity Dynamics, Norwegian University of Science and Technology, NO-7 7491 Trondheim, Norway. <sup>2</sup> Department of Environmental Science, Policy & Management, 8 University of California, Berkeley, CA 94720-3114, USA. <sup>3</sup> Arctic Ecology Department, 9 Norwegian Institute for Nature Research, Fram Centre, NO-9296 Tromsø, Norway. <sup>4</sup> The 10 James Hutton Institute, Craigiebuckler, Aberdeen AB15 8QH, UK. 5 Ecology and Natural 11 Resource Management, Norwegian University of Life Sciences, NO-1432 Ås, Norway. \* 12 Present address: Norwegian Environmental Agency, NO-7485 Trondheim, Norway. 13 14 Article type: Statistical report 15 16 17 Corresponding author: Eirin Bjørkvoll, Department of Biology, Realfagbygget, NTNU, N-7491 Trondheim, Norway. Phone: +4799004482, fax: +4773596100, e-mail 18 eirin.bjorkvoll@miljodir.no. 19

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### **ABSTRACT**

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Life-history theory predicts that vital rates that influence population growth the most should be buffered against environmental fluctuations through selection for reduced variation. However, it remains unclear whether populations actually are influenced by such "demographic buffering," because variation in vital rates can be compared on different measurement scales, and there has been little attempt to investigate if the choice of scale influences the chance of detecting demographic buffering. We compared two statistical approaches to examine whether demographic buffering has influenced vital rates limited between 0 and 1 in wild Svalbard reindeer. To account for statistical variance constraints on such vital rates in analyses of demographic buffering, a previously suggested approach is to scale observed variation with statistical maximum possible variation on the arithmetic scale. When applying this approach, the results suggested that demographic buffering was occurring. However, when we applied an alternative approach that identified statistical variance constraints on the logit scale, there was no evidence for demographic buffering. Thus, the choice of measurement scale must be carefully considered before one can fully understand whether demographic buffering influences life histories. Defining the appropriate scale requires an understanding of the mechanisms through which demographic buffering may have evolved.

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Key words: age structure, demographic buffering, elasticity, integrated population modeling,

life history, matrix modeling, measurement scale, Svalbard reindeer, variance constraints.

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## INTRODUCTION

- Several comparative studies indicate that there is a relationship between how influential
- 45 fitness components are on population growth and how much they vary over time. More

specifically, vital rates whose variation would have a large effect on population growth, as measured by their sensitivity or elasticity, often show less temporal variation than components with a lower influence (Pfister 1998, Sæther and Bakke 2000, Gaillard and Yoccoz 2003, Morris et al. 2011).

Models describing stochastic population dynamics suggest that vital rate variation generally reduces population growth rates (Tuljapurkar and Orzack 1980, Lande et al. 2003). Tuljapurkar (1982) provided an approximation for the stochastic population growth rate in age-structured populations which included environmental variances and covariances among vital rates, as well as the sensitivities of the vital rates. He showed that, not only the magnitude of variability, but also the impact of the demographic trait on the population growth rate was important to include when assessing the effects of demographic variation. Pfister (1998) specifically hypothesized that natural selection should favor a negative correlation between vital rates' influence on population growth and their variation in order to minimize variation in population growth rate. Gaillard and Yoccoz (2003) subsequently suggested that we may expect that influential vital rates would be subject to a canalization process (environmental canalization) reducing their variance, mediated through selection against variability. Later studies assessing whether influential vital rates are subject to selection for low variability have often referred to the term "demographic buffering" (e.g. Morris and Doak 2004).

Evaluation of the demographic buffering hypothesis involves a comparison of the temporal variation among vital rates that differ in their influence on population growth. If there is a difference in the level of variation, the question is whether some of that difference can be explained by natural selection favoring traits that buffer influential vital rates against fluctuations in the environment. A fundamental methodological challenge is that the hypothesis is based on population dynamics theory, which raises the question of appropriate

scale for comparing temporal variation. For instance, Gaillard and Yoccoz (2003) found that in long-lived species, in which adult survival is high (often close to 1) and juvenile survival is lower (e.g. ~0.5), adult survival was more stable over time and had a larger influence on population growth compared to juvenile survival. However, they also pointed out that since survival probability is limited between 0 and 1, its potential variability is related to the mean survival over time (e.g. if mean survival is close to one, as for adults, large fluctuations over time are impossible). Thus, vital rates that are bounded by 0 and 1 have a ceiling on the variance, statistically constraining the temporal variance and the coefficient of variation (CV) in relation to the mean over time.

Because of such variance constraints on many vital rates, it is still not well understood whether the demographic buffering hypothesis provides a mechanistic explanation for the empirical pattern that influential fitness components tend to be less variable over time. One alternative or co-occurring explanation is that vital rates may be subject to directional selection, possibly resulting in high mean values (Morris and Doak 2004). If this is the case for influential vital rates limited between 0 and 1, the temporal variation in such vital rates would be constrained to be low. Accordingly, both theoretical (Morris and Doak 2004) and empirical (Morris and Doak 2004, Jongejans et al. 2010) studies have suggested that fitness components with a large influence on population growth may exhibit low temporal variation without demographic buffering occurring. Thus, the observation that influential fitness components exhibit little temporal variation is *per se* insufficient to accept the demographic buffering hypothesis.

Gaillard and Yoccoz (2003) and several later studies have attempted to account for the effects of statistical variance constraints when assessing effects of environmental canalization or demographic buffering on vital parameters bounded by 0 and 1 in analyses of agestructured populations. This is, however, challenging. First, age-specific estimates of

variances of the vital rate have to be obtained while accounting for observation error and sampling variance (the latter, for instance in small populations, resulting from demographic stochasticity). This requires long time series of high quality data and often complex models that can handle several sources of variability in order to estimate the necessary parameters (Lande et al. 2003). Second, one must identify the statistical influence of the mean values of vital rates on their variation pattern, and examine whether demographic buffering has an effect beyond the effect of statistical constraints.

Based on statistical-distribution theory, Morris and Doak (2004) suggested that one should measure the variance (or CV) of vital rates relative to their statistical maximum possible variance (referred to as "relativized variance"), and then examine whether influential rates are less variable relative to this maximum value compared to less influential rates.

Using this approach, studies have indicated that selection for reduced variance in influential vital rates occurs in some species (e.g. Morris and Doak 2004, Burns et al. 2010, Morris et al. 2011, Rotella et al. 2012), but not that demographic buffering is a universal pattern (Burns et al. 2010, Jakalaniemi et al. 2013). A challenge with this approach is that the maximum possible variance of a survival probability would be the variance obtained if the survival probability in different years is either 0 or 1. This is not an ecologically realistic maximum as it is unlikely that none, or all individuals, die in a given year. Thus, what is statistically and ecologically the "maximum possible variance" (or the "maximum possible CV") is likely to differ. It is therefore difficult to interpret the biological meaning of "relativized" variances and how it relates to selection for reduced variance.

Given the lack of an underlying evolutionary theory in studies of demographic buffering, choices of measurement scales for detecting selection for reduced variability are based on statistical theory. Since temporal variation in vital rates can be compared on a number of different measurement scales, we examine if the choice of scale affects the

alternative approach to compare temporal variation among vital rates. We develop an alternative approach to compare temporal variation among vital rates that also handles statistical variance constraints. We assume that vital rates that are limited between 0 and 1 are affected by environmental variation similarly across age classes on the logit scale in the absence of demographic buffering. Given this null-model, the signal from demographic buffering should be evident in the residual variance, when the common environmental variance is accounted for. Thus, we can accurately identify the contribution of differences in mean vital rates to the differences in temporal variation (i.e. the statistical constraint on the variation of vital rates), without measuring variation relative to theoretical maximum possible values. This allows us to estimate how much vital rates, with different influences on the population growth rate, deviate in their temporal variation beyond that expected from differences in their means. If the deviation in temporal variation is larger than one would expect from differences in their mean values, the demographic buffering hypothesis would be supported.

We analyze vital rates of a long-lived ungulate, as an example of a group of animals for which environmental canalization (Gaillard and Yoccoz 2003) or demographic buffering (Morris et al. 2011) has been suggested to influence the life history. Our analysis is based on an integrated population model (Kéry and Schaub 2012) that provides age-specific estimates of vital rates over time while accounting for sampling variance (Lee et al. 2015). We first apply our approach to examine whether demographic buffering occurs in our population. Then we apply the previously suggested approach comparing relativized variation among vital rates that differ in their influence on population growth. Both approaches analyze vital rates on the arithmetic scale, but they deviate in the scale used for detecting demographic buffering (logit scale versus "relativized arithmetic scale"). Thus, this will enable us to

examine if the choice of measurement scale for detecting demographic buffering affects the interpretation of whether demographic buffering influences populations.

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## **METHODS**

Model system. The Svalbard reindeer (Rangifer tarandus platyrhynchus) is a high Arctic wild ungulate endemic to Svalbard, and is characterized by a "slow" life history (cf. Sæther and Bakke 2000). Data were collected in the Reindalen-Semmeldalen-Colesdalen valley system (approx. 78N, 16E). The size of our study population (1200 female individuals on average within the study period) are subject to temporal fluctuations caused by a combination of winter climate (snow, rain, and ice formation), summer climate (vegetation growth), and density dependence (Solberg et al. 2001, Stien et al. 2012, Hansen et al. 2013). Females can give birth to one calf per year. Thus, both survival probability and fecundity are vital rates bounded by 0 and 1 in our system, which minimizes the chance of "spurious correlations" resulting from combining vital rates that differ greatly in their statistical distributions (cf. Morris and Doak 2004, Jakalaniemi et al. 2013). Model for vital rates. We estimated female annual survival and fecundity rates by using a modified version of an integrated population model developed for our study population of Svalbard reindeer (Lee et al. 2015). This model provides a framework for estimating age-specific time series of annual survival, fecundity and population sizes, as well as other population parameters, based on capture-mark-recapture data (CMR, n = 512individuals) and census data (years 1996-2014). The model incorporates temporal variation in vital rates (resulting from e.g. fluctuations in population size or environmental stochasticity)

as well as effects of demographic stochasticity. Moreover, the hierarchical model structure,

combining a population process model with an observation model within a Bayesian

framework, allows for uncertain observations and provides uncertainty estimates for all

parameters. More details about the modelling framework can be found in Lee et al. (2015) and information about additional details relevant for this study is provided in online appendix A.

The demographic rates were estimated with age-specific means and variance components accounting for temporal variation. Such temporal variation can arise because of fluctuations in the environment or in population size. In our system, positive correlations among age-specific survival rates and among age-specific fecundity rates (Lee et al. 2015) indicate that individual responses to such fluctuations are quite similar across age classes. Since survival rates and fecundity rates are bounded by 0 and 1 in our population, they were modelled as logit-normally distributed variables. The demographic rate z of an individual in age class a at time t was then

$$\log \operatorname{it}(z_{a,t}) = \mu_a^z + \varepsilon_t^z + \gamma_{a,t}^z \tag{1}$$

where  $\mu_a^z$  is the mean for age class a. The first variance component ( $\varepsilon_t^z$ ) accounts for synchronous fluctuations in the demographic rate among age classes over time. The second variance component ( $\gamma_{a,t}^z$ ) is a residual term accounting for age-specific deviations from the common temporal fluctuations. It was assumed that  $\varepsilon_t^z \,\Box\, N\!\left(0,\sigma_{\varepsilon(z)}^2\right)$  and  $\gamma_{a,t}^z \sim N\!\left(0,\sigma_{\gamma(z)}^2\right)$ .

If  $\gamma_{a,t}^z=0$  it means that temporal fluctuations in a type of vital rate z are equal among the age classes on the logit scale. On the arithmetic scale, however, fluctuations are synchronous among age classes but the magnitude varies when  $\mu_a^z$  differs among age classes. Since the coefficient of variation on the arithmetic scale (CV = standard deviation/mean) decreases with increasing mean for logit-normally distributed variables, age classes with the lowest mean of z will exhibit proportionally larger fluctuations in z (measured by the CV of z on the arithmetic scale). As long as  $\gamma_{a,t}^z=0$ , these age-differences in the CV of z are purely a result of different means among the age classes, provided that our model (eq. 1) is

appropriate (i.e. the "statistical" effect). In contrast, if  $\gamma_{a,t}^z \neq 0$ , the differences in the CV of z among age classes are different from those expected based purely on age-differences in the mean of z. Thus, this situation could allow demographic buffering to occur.

The integrated population model was fitted to the data in a Bayesian framework using MCMC techniques (Kéry and Schaub 2012). Thus, all estimates of vital rates and associated parameters were represented by a joint posterior distribution (more details about model implementation can be found in online appendix A). The following analyses were performed for each sample of the posterior distribution so that all resulting estimates were associated with an uncertainty estimate (i.e. 95% credible intervals (CrI)).

Influence of vital rates. The elasticity of the deterministic growth rate to changes in the mean of vital rates are often negatively related to the CV of vital rates in analyses of demographic buffering (e.g. Pfister 1998, Morris and Doak 2004, Jongejans et al. 2010). We therefore conducted an elasticity analysis to estimate the influence of each rate on the population growth rate in our study population (Caswell 2001). Based on the estimates of annual vital rates on the arithmetic scale provided by the integrated population model, we constructed an average projection matrix parameterized according to a post breeding census (Caswell 2001). This was done for each sample of the joint posterior distribution of vital rates (for details see online appendix B). The elasticity (E) of  $\lambda$  to the vital rate z was then estimated as the proportional change in  $\lambda$  resulting from a proportional change in the mean of vital rate z on the arithmetic scale (Caswell 2001). Since the dimension of the projection matrix influences estimates of elasticities (e.g. by how population structure is defined, Pfister 1998), we performed the analysis for complete age structure as well as for the aggregated age classes for which the vital rates originally were estimated (see online appendix B for the different projection matrices).

Relation between temporal variation and influence of vital rates. The temporal variation of a vital rate was estimated as the CV of annual estimates of the vital rate on the arithmetic scale. Based on the matrix model with full age structure we performed linear regressions between ln(E) and CV for survival rates (A) and fecundity rates (B) separately, in addition to a pooled analysis with all rates (C). Based on the aggregated age classes we performed one regression with survival and fecundity rates combined (D), since separate analyses for survival and fecundity would include only 6 and 5 vital rates each. The analyses were carried out for each sample of the posterior distribution. This provided a total of 9090 samples of the regression coefficients. If the CrI of the estimated regression slopes did not span zero, we considered a relationship between ln(E) and CV to be present.

Examining the demographic buffering hypothesis. We expected the CV of vital rates to be negatively related to  $\ln(E)$ . This is because elasticity generally increases whereas CV decreases with the mean of a vital rate bounded by 0 and 1 (Morris and Doak 2004). To assess whether demographic buffering may have additionally contributed to this negative relationship, we examined whether differences in the magnitude of temporal variation among more or less influential vital rates were larger than we would expect from the differences in their means given our model (eq. 1). We therefore carried out a second elasticity and regression analysis with a new set of vital rates simulated from the previous estimates of survival and fecundity. In these simulations, the variance components accounting for deviations from common fluctuations among age classes were set to zero (i.e.  $\gamma_{a,t}^z = 0$ ). Thus, age-differences in temporal variation on the arithmetic scale were solely a result of the age-differences in the mean of vital rates (mimicking the absence of demographic buffering). In the presence of demographic buffering, we would expect the slope of the observed relationship between CV and  $\ln(E)$  to be steeper than that obtained from the simulated data. In contrast, if the observed and simulated relationships were equal, it would indicate that

demographic buffering is not needed to explain the negative relationship between the influence of vital rates and their temporal variation.

Finally, we examined whether we would reach the same conclusion using relativized CV as the scale for comparing temporal variation among vital rates following suggestions of Morris and Doak (2004). Thus, we tested the demographic buffering hypothesis as if we only had point estimates of vital rates (i.e. the means of posterior distributions provided by the integrated population model), disregarding the estimate uncertainty and the information of the underlying process of vital rates. For the four combinations of vital rates described above (A-D) the "relativized" CV was related to the elasticity of vital rates using Spearman's correlation analyses (Pfister 1998, Morris and Doak 2004). The correlation coefficients (r) were estimated with significance levels calculated for one-tail test of the hypothesis r < 0.

# **RESULTS**

The estimated mean annual survival was largest for 1 and 2-year-olds, followed by 3-8-year-olds (Table 1). Calves, 9-11-year-olds, and individuals of 12 years and older had significantly lower mean survival. The estimated mean fecundity (only including female offspring) was highest for 4-9-year-olds, whereas the lowest offspring production was found among 2-year-olds followed by individuals older than 12 years (Table 1). Temporal fluctuations in survival and fecundity were highly correlated among age classes (online appendix C). Thus the contribution from the common variance component to the total variance in each of the vital rates was large compared to the residual variance (annual survival,  $\sigma_{\varepsilon(\text{survival})} = 1.86$  (CrI 1.21, 2.84) vs.  $\sigma_{\gamma(\text{survival})} = 0.45$  (0.06, 0.93); fecundity (including female and male offspring),  $\sigma_{\varepsilon(\text{fecundity})} = 1.08$  (0.75, 1.56) vs.  $\sigma_{\gamma(\text{fecundity})} = 0.25$  (0.01, 0.56)). On the arithmetic scale, fecundity rates were proportionally more variable than survival rates (shown by larger CVs, Table 1). In addition, the age classes with lower annual survival and fecundity (younger and

older individuals) exhibited proportionally larger fluctuations over time than age classes with higher annual survival and fecundity (prime-aged individuals).

The estimated elasticities were in general larger for survival rates than for fecundity rates (Table 1). Moreover, prime-aged individuals had the largest E within each of the two types of vital rates. Relatively large estimates of E were also obtained for the mean annual survival of calves, yearlings, and two year-olds. The two oldest age classes (9-11, and 12+) had smaller influence on population growth than younger age classes.

There was a negative relationship between CV and  $\ln(E)$  of vital rates, indicating that vital rates with a large influence on population growth were less variable than vital rates with smaller influence (Fig. 1). This was true irrespective of matrix dimension and whether or not survival and fecundity rates were pooled. The simulated relationships in which demographic buffering was absent were not statistically different from the observed relationships, as indicated by overlapping CrIs for observed and simulated slopes (Fig. 1). This was due to the large estimate of the common variance components ( $\varepsilon_t^z$ ) compared to the residual components ( $\gamma_{a,t}^z$ ). Thus, demographic buffering was not required to explain the observed negative relationships between CV and  $\ln(E)$ .

Finally we checked whether we would obtain the same conclusions using Spearman's correlations between E and temporal variation of vital rates measured by relativized CV. There were significant negative correlations in the three analyses including full age structure (A-C, r = -0.57, -0.61, and -0.66 respectively, all p-values < 0.003). The correlation with aggregated age classes was also negative but not significant (D, r = -.22, p-value = 0.25). Thus, using relativized CV as a measure of variation gave some support for the demographic buffering hypothesis.

### **DISCUSSION**

We found no evidence of demographic buffering of the vital rates with the largest influence on population growth when we identified their variance constraints on the logit scale. Vital rates with greater elasticity did indeed exhibit lower temporal variation than vital rates with smaller elasticity. However, using detailed information about the underlying process of the vital rates measured on the logit scale, we found that the deviations in temporal variation among more or less influential vital rates were not larger than we would expect from their different means. This indicates that demographic buffering did not contribute to the temporal stability of influential vital rates in the Svalbard reindeer. If we did not have the same amount of information about the pattern of variation of the vital rates, the opposite conclusion could have been made based on commonly applied methods (i.e. by scaling the observed temporal variation by the statistical maximum variation). It is already recognized that estimates of elasticity and its relationship with temporal variation hinge on the methodology used (Morris and Doak 2004). Here, the key difference between the two methods, yielding contrasting conclusions, is how the mean and the variance of vital rates are assumed to be related in the absence of demographic buffering. Both approaches can be reasonable argued for, indicating that we need to better understand the underlying mechanisms, through which demographic buffering may have evolved, to define a meaningful measurement scale.

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Survival of prime-aged individuals (3-8 years) had a large influence on population growth and exhibited little temporal variation compared to fecundity and juvenile survival in the Svalbard reindeer. This confirms previous patterns found in long-lived organisms (Gaillard et al. 2000, Sæther and Bakke 2000, Gaillard and Yoccoz 2003). However, identifying variance constraints on the logit scale generated results that contradict previous studies on ungulates suggesting that these patterns cannot be fully explained by the high mean value of adult survival (Gaillard and Yoccoz 2003, Morris et al. 2011). This contrasting result could be caused by natural selection favoring a high mean survival of prime-aged

individuals in this species, which can only occur if temporal variation in annual survival is low. Still, there was no evidence of selection against variability in adult survival given our model.

The age-specific means of vital rates influence both the temporal variation of vital rates and the elasticities (or sensitivities) of vital rates through the stable age structure and reproductive values. Negative correlations between variability and influence of vital rates on population growth rates in comparative studies may consequently arise simply because of interspecific life-history variation reflected by tradeoffs between survival and reproduction (cf. Sæther and Bakke 2000, Gaillard and Yoccoz 2003).

In the Svalbard reindeer, major population declines have occurred following winters with large population size and ice covering the feeding grounds, causing increased competition for food (Solberg et al. 2001, Stien et al. 2012). These declines are associated with low reproductive rates in all age classes, leading to relatively large temporal variation in fecundity, whereas survival of prime-aged individuals remains high (our study; Lee et al. 2015). At the same time, the high mean survival of prime-aged individuals combined with lower mean survival of calves and low mean fecundity in the population, result in an age structure with a large proportion of adult individuals with high reproductive value (results on estimated age structure and reproductive values of Svalbard reindeer can be found in online appendix D). Thus, this life-history pattern generates high elasticity of survival of prime-aged individuals (which has low variability) and lower elasticity of fecundity and calf survival rates (which have higher variability) (cf. Gaillard et al. 2000, Sæther and Bakke 2000, Gaillard and Yoccoz 2003, Oli 2004).

Survival seems to be protected against effects of variation in environmental conditions by reduced fecundity when resources are limited, leaving opportunities for reproduction in later years. This is described, in the environmental canalization hypothesis, as a risk avoiding

tactic reducing variability of influential vital rates (Gaillard and Yoccoz 2003). Thus, our study supports some of the demographic processes previously suggested to cause observed patterns of variation in vital rates, but still reveals challenges in approaching the underlying evolutionary mechanisms.

In order to understand how demographic buffering may contribute to shaping life histories we need to better understand evolutionary processes reducing temporal variation in influential vital parameters. There are many traits that affect the means and variances of vital rates, and there are likely some tradeoffs in those traits. For instance, low variability in adult survival and higher variability in juvenile survival found in ungulates (Gaillard et al. 1998) may be explained by tradeoffs in energy allocation to offspring investment and to the probability of own survival. A precise formulation of such tradeoffs, including the interaction between ecological and evolutionary processes, is required to obtain meaningful measurements of demographic buffering (cf. Boyce et al. 2006, Houle et al. 2011). Our study indicates that how we measure reduction in variation is of great importance in ecological interpretations of demographic buffering based on analyses of population dynamics.

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Table 1. Estimates of annual survival and fecundity of Svalbard reindeer.

Age	Mean	CV	E
Survival			
0	0.80(0.75, 0.84)	0.28 (0.24, 0.32)	0.14 (0.14, 0.15)
1	0.99 (0.97, 1.00)	0.02(0.00, 0.04)	0.14 (0.14, 0.15)
2	0.99 (0.99, 1.00)	0.01 (0.00, 0.02)	0.14 (0.13, 0.14)
3-8	0.98(0.97, 0.99)	0.03(0.02, 0.04)	0.50 (0.49, 0.52)
9-11	0.89 (0.85, 0.92)	0.16 (0.1.0, 0.21)	0.06(0.05, 0.06)
12+	0.74 (0.67, 0.79)	0.31 (0.25, 0.38)	0.01 (0.01, 0.02)
Fecundity			
2	0.07 (0.05, 0.10)	0.62(0.52, 0.79)	$0.01 \ (0.00, 0.01)$
3	0.27 (0.24, 0.30)	0.39 (0.33, 0.45)	0.02(0.02, 0.02)
4-9	0.32 (0.31, 0.33)	0.33 (0.30, 0.35)	0.09 (0.09, 0.10)
10-12	0.29(0.25, 0.32)	0.36 (0.31, 0.42)	0.02 (0.02, 0.02)
13+	0.17 (0.11, 0.22)	0.52 (0.42, 0.68)	0.01 (0.00, 0.01)

Note: Mean and CV of survival is estimated for 1996-2013. Mean and CV of fecundity is estimated for 1997-2014 and includes only female offspring. The deterministic population growth rate's elasticity (*E*) with respect to the mean survival and fecundity rates are estimated from the average projection matrix. Uncertainties of estimates are represented by the 95% credible interval (parenthesis).

## FIGURE LEGENDS

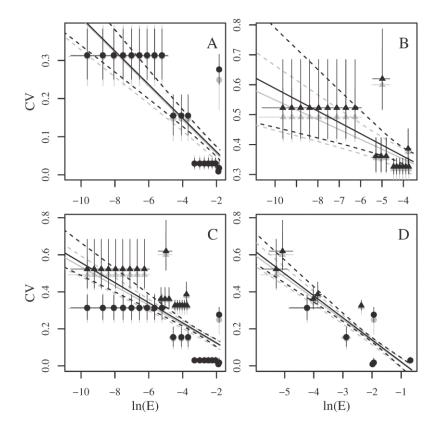
(0.71, 0.79).

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Fig. 1. Relationships between the influence of vital rates on population growth rate (ln(E))439 and their temporal variation (CV). The observed relationships (black solid lines) are not 440 significantly different from simulated regressions in which demographic buffering is absent 441 442 (grey solid lines). The uncertainty (95% CrI) in regression lines is displayed with dashed lines. Points (survival rates) and triangles (fecundity rates) are the means of posterior 443 distributions of estimated (black) and simulated (grey) vital rates. The uncertainties (95% 444 CrI) in the estimates are displayed with vertical and horizontal lines. Observed relationships: 445 A) Only survival rates with full age structure, slope = -0.044 (-0.053, -0.035),  $R^2 = 0.67$ 446 (0.58, 0.74), n = 21. B) Only fecundity rates with full age structure, slope = -0.038 (-0.070, -447 0.017),  $R^2 = 0.54$  (0.21, 0.77), n = 20. C) Survival and fecundity rates combined with full age 448 structure, slope = -0.054 (CrI -0.070, -0.045),  $R^2 = 0.52$  (0.43, 0.61), n = 41. D) Survival and 449 fecundity rates combined with aggregated age classes, slope = -0.12 (-0.14, -0.10),  $R^2 = 0.74$ 450 (0.69, 0.79), n = 11. Simulated relationships: A) Slope = -0.052 (CrI -0.060, -0.045),  $R^2$  = 451 0.52 (0.44, 0.61). B) Slope = -0.033 (-0.051, -0.017),  $R^2 = 0.52 (0.25, 0.70)$ . C) Slope = -0.033 (-0.051, -0.017)452  $0.044 (-0.054, -0.035), R^2 = 0.70 (0.60, 0.78). D) Slope = -0.12 (-0.13, -0.10), R^2 = 0.75$ 453



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