Demographic consequences of changes in environmental periodicity

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Abstract

The fate of natural populations is mediated by complex interactions among vital rates, which can vary within and among years. While the effects of random, among-year variation in vital rates have been studied extensively, relatively little is known about how periodic, nonrandom variation in vital rates affects populations. This knowledge gap is potentially alarming as global environmental change is projected to alter common periodic variations, such as seasonality. We investigated the effects of changes in vital-rate periodicity on populations of three species representing different forms of adaptation to periodic environments: the yellowbellied marmot (Marmota flaviventer), adapted to strong seasonality in snowfall; the meerkat (Suricata suricatta), adapted to inter-annual stochasticity as well as seasonal patterns in rainfall; and the dewy pine (*Drosophyllum lusitanicum*), adapted to fire regimes and periodic post-fire habitat succession. To assess how changes in periodicity affect population growth, we parameterized periodic matrix population models and projected population dynamics under different scenarios of perturbations in the strength of vital-rate periodicity. We assessed the effects of such perturbations on various metrics describing population dynamics, including the stochastic growth rate, $\log \lambda_{\rm S}$. Overall, perturbing the strength of periodicity had strong effects on population dynamics in all three study species. For the marmots, $\log \lambda_S$ decreased with increased seasonal differences in adult survival. For the meerkats, density dependence buffered the effects of perturbations of periodicity on log λ_s . Finally, dewy pines were negatively affected by changes in natural post-fire succession under stochastic or periodic fire regimes with fires occurring every 30 years, but were buffered by density dependence from such changes under presumed more frequent fires or large-scale disturbances. We show that changes in the strength

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of vital-rate periodicity can have diverse but strong effects on population dynamics across different life histories. Populations buffered from inter-annual vital-rate variation can be affected substantially by changes in environmentally-driven vital-rate periodic patterns; however, the effects of such changes can be masked in analyses focusing on inter-annual variation. As most ecosystems are affected by periodic variations in the environment such as seasonality, assessing their contributions to population viability for future global-change research is crucial.

Introduction

Effects of inter-annual changes in vital rates on population dynamics have been widely studied (e.g., Aberg 1992; Frederiksen et al. 2008; Keith et al. 2008; Frick et al. 2010; Hunter et al. 2010). However, there remains a knowledge gap regarding how populations respond to changes in the periodic, non-random patterns of vital-rate variation. This is despite the fact that a majority of species live in periodically varying environments and show demographic responses and adaptations to such periodicity, with vital-rate patterns recurring predictably through time (Panda, Hogenesch, and Kay 2002; Marra et al. 2015; Varpe 2017). Seasonality is one important source of non-random vital-rate variation. In numerous ecosystems, reproduction and survival strongly depend on seasonal rainfall (Dickman, Letnic, and Mahon 1999; Altwegg and Anderson 2009) or temperature (Oli and Armitage 2004; Lebl et al. 2011; McNutt, Groom, and Woodroffe 2019; Cordes et al. 2020; Paniw et al. 2020). Changes in such seasonal weather patterns can strongly affect population dynamics. For example, perturbations in rainfall patterns led to immediate and strong changes in the population size of the Serengeti lions (*Panthera leo*) (Packer et al. 2005). Additionally, increases in seasonal rainfall (Buettner et al. 2007) and temperature (Woodroffe, Groom, and McNutt 2017) have been found to negatively affect reproduction in wild dogs (*Lycaon pictus*). Other forms of vital-rate periodicity can also strongly influence population dynamics. For instance, disturbance-adapted species typically show lifecycle adaptation to the periodic occurrence of extreme climatic events (Silva et al. 1991; Caswell and Kaye 2001; Beissinger 1995) and to periodic changes in habitat structure after disturbances (Lennartsson and Oostermeijer 2001; Evans, Holsinger, and Menges 2010; Paniw, Quintana-Ascencio et al. 2017). Vital-rate periodic patterns can also occur on a much longer time scale

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(Park 2019). For example, as a consequence of both abiotic and biotic factors, many populations of rodents, such as voles and lemmings, display periodic cycles in vital rates and consequently abundances (see Oli 2019 and references therein).

Despite increasing evidence that assessing periodic changes in vital rates is critical to gaining a mechanistic understanding of population dynamics (Hostetler, Sillett, and Marra 2015; Marra et al. 2015; Paniw et al. 2019), most structured population models use annual data to project populations through time and assume random inter-annual variation in demography when projecting population fates (e.g., Hunter et al. 2010) or assessing which taxa are most vulnerable to environmental variation (e.g., Pfister 1998; Franco and Silvertown 2004; Doak et al. 2005; McDonald et al. 2017). This is predominantly due to a lack of high-resolution data, both on species demography because of inaccessible periods of the life cycle (e.g., hibernation or migration), and on environmental covariates accurately representing conditions in given periods (Kleiven et al. 2018). However, vital rates often change non-linearly across different states of the environment, often as a result of environment-density interactions (Hostetler, Sillett, and Marra 2015; Paniw et al. 2019). For example, Bassar et al. (2016) showed that brook trout (Salvelinus fontinalis) population decline was mainly caused by higher mean summer temperatures decreasing the survival of young trout, and that density feedbacks could buffer the decline. Therefore, pooling vital rates across seasons or across years for species inhabiting periodic environments, or omitting multi-year periodic changes in population dynamics might obscure underlying processes affecting population dynamics, with possible implications for management (Caswell 2001; Hostetler, Sillett, and Marra 2015). Understanding such underlying processes is

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increasingly important given the predicted changes in environmental periodicity under global environmental change (Donat and Alexander 2012; Xu et al. 2013).

In spite of an increasing effort to include periodic vital rates into population models (e.g., Hostetler, Sillett, and Marra 2015; Paniw et al. 2019; Guimarães et al. 2020), the effects of changes in periodicity in vital rates per se on population dynamics remain largely unexplored. To bridge this knowledge gap, we assessed the effects of changes in vital-rate periodicity in three different species with a periodic life cycle: (i) the yellow-bellied marmot (Marmota flaviventer), adapted to strong seasonality in snowfall which determines the hibernation period; (ii) the meerkat (Suricata suricatta), a social mongoose living in the Kalahari desert where seasonality and inter-annual stochasticity in rainfall affect vital rates; and (iii) the dewy pine (Drosophyllum *lusitanicum*), a fire-adapted carnivorous plant, in which vital rates are affected by changes in fire periodicity and vary across post-fire habitat states following fire. While the life history of dewy pines is not strictly periodic (i.e., following a pattern recurring predictably across years) under stochastic fire regimes, the succession of environmental states 4–5 years post fire leads to periodic patterns in vital rates. These three species show different forms of adaptations to periodic environmental patterns that are broadly representative of a large number of taxa. In addition, they represent different life-history strategies to cope with inter-annual environmental variation, with the two animal species buffering to various degrees vital rates strongly influencing population fitness from environmental variations (Maldonado-Chaparro et al. 2018; Paniw et al. 2019); and natural dewy-pine populations relying heavily on seed germination from the seed bank induced by fire disturbance, with rather weak consequences for population dynamics of inter-annual fluctuations in vital rates (Paniw, Quintana-Ascencio et al. 2017).

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Consequently, studying their responses to perturbations in the strength of periodic patterns will help clarify the importance of considering periodic variation in vital rates when studying the dynamics and viability of populations. For each species, we estimated period-specific vital rates and subsequently built periodic demographic models. We then performed stochastic simulations in which we used several perturbations of vital-rate periodicity to assess the effects of these perturbations on the stochastic population growth rate.

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Material and methods

Study systems and data collection

We studied the effect of perturbations in the strength of vital-rate periodicity on the population dynamics of three species inhabiting different periodic environments: yellow-bellied marmots, meerkats, and dewy pines. The yellow-bellied marmot population thrives at high altitudes in the Rocky Mountains, where winters are long—seven to eight months on average (Inouye et al. 2000; Edic, Martin, and Blumstein 2020). Marmots survive the winter (mid-September to mid-April/May) in hibernation and reproduce during the short summer growing season (Armitage 2014). Long winters are responsible for a great part of marmot mortality, but over-winter mortality is largely dependent on summer mass gain (Cordes et al. 2020), which is influenced by age and the location of the marmot colony in the valley where marmots live (Heissenberger et al. 2020). Mortality in marmots is also driven by predation, especially in early spring, when marmots emerge from burrows to mate (Armitage 2014). Mortality due to predation depends on various factors, including sociality (Montero et al. 2020), but can be hard to dissociate from

mortality caused by climatic factors (Van Vuren 2001; Schwartz and Armitage 2002; Schwartz and Armitage 2005; Armitage 2014). The between-year variation in these biotic and abiotic factors can lead to important fluctuations in winter survival, while summer survival generally remains high, particularly for adult females (Armitage and Downhower 1974; Armitage 1991). Additionally, while marmot vital rates vary strongly among seasons (Van Vuren and Armitage 1991), previous studies on the marmot population have found no effect of population density on vital rates (Armitage 1973; Armitage et al. 2011; Paniw et al. 2020). This makes marmots an ideal system in which to study the effects of seasonal perturbations on vital rates, independent of density-dependent mechanisms.

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The meerkat population inhabits an arid environment characterized by a dry and a wet season and is adapted to seasonal patterning but also to high inter-annual variability in rainfall (Clutton-Brock, Gaynor et al. 1999). This stochasticity in the rainfall pattern has led to a bet-hedging strategy in which reproduction, although highest in the wet season, can happen throughout the year in particularly wet years and may cease altogether in particularly dry years (Clutton-Brock, Maccoll et al. 1999; Bateman et al. 2013). Therefore, unlike in the marmot population, no demographic processes in the meerkat population are restricted to a certain season, but some vary seasonally (e.g., higher pup survival, individual growth, and emigration in the wet season; Russell et al. 2002; English, Bateman, and Clutton-Brock 2012; Ozgul et al. 2014). Meerkat groups are characterized by a dominant pair monopolizing reproduction (Clutton-Brock et al. 2010) and subordinates helping to raise the young and guarding the territory (Clutton-Brock et al. 2001; Clutton-Brock, Hodge, and Flower 2008). Consequently, vital rates strongly differ between social statuses (Sharp and Clutton-Brock 2011; Paniw et al. 2019). Moreover, the

population dynamics of the meerkats are strongly density dependent. Dominant female reproductive success increases with population density, while helper emigration is highest at lower densities (Bateman et al. 2013; Paniw et al. 2019). At the same time, meerkat population dynamics are largely influenced by interactions between the environment and density (Paniw et al. 2019), with vital rates displaying season-specific responses to density-dependent factors (Bateman et al. 2012; Ozgul et al. 2014; Paniw et al. 2022). The presence of both strong density feedbacks and environment-density interactions in meerkats enabled us to study how density dependence can mediate population responses to vital-rate seasonality.

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Finally, the dewy pine is an early-successional carnivorous subshrub. Dewy pines in natural heathland habitat have adapted to recurrent fire regimes, where the seed bank is a key life-history stage and its dynamics vary strongly with fire occurrence; and all remaining vital rates vary strongly with inter-annual periodic post-fire habitat succession, while inter-annual weather fluctuations have a relatively small effect on this variation (Paniw, Quintana-Ascencio et al. 2017). Aboveground plants are killed by fire, while heat and vegetation removal trigger the germination of a persistent soil seed bank (Cross et al. 2017; Paniw, Quintana-Ascencio et al. 2017; Gómez-González et al. 2018). Seedlings then mature and do not reproduce until at least two years after fire. Similar to meerkats, density dependence mediates responses to vital-rate periodicity in dewy pines. Sprouting shrubs increase seedling survival and flowering probability of mature individuals in early post-fire stages (Paniw, Salguero-Gómez, and Ojeda 2017). However, in later post-fire stages, aboveground density of dewy pines and other plant species negatively affects the number of dewy-pine seedlings and seed germination rates (Correia and Freitas 2002; Gómez-González et al. 2018). As dewy pines are inferior competitors in heathlands

(Garrido et al. 2003), resprouting shrubs rapidly overgrow them after a fire. Aboveground dewy pines thus die out 4–6 years after fire, and the population persists through a soil seed bank (Paniw, Quintana-Ascencio et al. 2017). However, natural dewy-pine populations are facing changes in both fire regimes and post-fire habitat succession due to anthropogenic pressures, including a combination of periodic vegetation removal (through frequent illegal burning and mechanistic means) and heavy browsing following fires. These latter, typically persistent, small-scale perturbations remove competing vegetation and allow aboveground individuals to persist over a longer period and recruit continuously, thus decreasing the importance of seed-bank dynamics (Paniw, Quintana-Ascencio et al. 2017). These perturbations therefore effectively delay post-fire habitat succession and increase population sensitivity to year-to-year environmental fluctuations. Such anthropogenic perturbations to the periodicity of fire regimes are common (e.g. Menges and Dolan 1998; Quintana-Ascencio, Menges, and Weekley 2003; Breininger et al. 2018; see also Pausas and Keeley 2014 and references therein), but their consequences for population viability remain relatively unexplored.

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The yellow-bellied marmot (Marmota flaviventer)

Demographic data

Demographic data were collected since 1962 in a continuously-monitored population living at 2900 masl in the upper East River Valley near Gothic, Colorado, United States (38°58' N, 106°59' W). In this study, we used 41 years (1976-2016) of individual data from nine colonies located at the center of this area (Armitage 2014). Individuals were live-trapped each year

throughout their summer active season, and ear-marked in the first capture event (Armitage 1991). Sex, age, mass, and reproductive status were recorded for each individual (Armitage and Downhower 1974; Armitage, Downhower, and Svendsen 1976; Schwartz, Armitage, and Van Vuren 1998). Following previous studies, we used data for females only, because most young males disperse from their natal colony, and knowledge on maternity (and consequently number of recruits) is more accurate than on paternity (Ozgul et al. 2010).

Life cycle and vital rates

We considered four life-history stages: juvenile (J; 0–1 year old), yearling (Y; 1–2 years old), non-reproductive adult (N; >2 years and not reproducing), and reproductive adult (R; >2 years and reproducing) (Ozgul et al. 2009; Fig. 1a). In the winter period (August-June), juveniles and yearlings respectively grow to yearlings and adults, and adults can change reproductive status. Reproductive adults then breed during the summer period (June-August). Therefore, we considered the following seasonal vital rates: seasonal survival, transitions to and between adult stages (from winter to summer only), and recruitment (from summer to winter only; see Appendix S1: Fig. S1 for further details).

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The meerkat (Suricata suricatta)

Demographic data

Data on birth, death, emigration, recruitment and social status have been collected by frequently visiting (one to three times per week) wild groups of individually-marked meerkats in the Kuruman River Reserve, South Africa (26°58' S, 21°49' E) (Clutton-Brock et al. 1998; Clutton-Brock, Hodge, and Flower 2008). For this study, we used 20 years of individual data (1997–2016) to estimate stage-specific vital rates (Bateman, Coulson, and Clutton-Brock 2011; Ozgul et al. 2014). We used data on females only, because data on males (especially male dispersal) is limited. However, this should not introduce any bias into the analysis, given the even sex ratio in a meerkat population, and lack of sexual dimorphism (Ozgul et al. 2014). Population density was calculated as the number of individuals per km² of population range at each census (see Bateman, Coulson, and Clutton-Brock 2011 and Cozzi et al. 2018 for more details).

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Life cycle and vital rates

Following previous studies (Ozgul et al. 2014), the meerkat life history was characterized by the following stages: juvenile (J; 0–6 months), subadult (S; 7–12 months), adult helper (H; >12 months with a subordinate status) and dominant (D; >12 months with a dominant status) (Fig. 1b). We used six-month intervals in order to represent the dry (April-October) and wet (October-April) seasons characterizing the meerkats habitat. The life cycle is therefore comprised of six-month seasonal transitions, determined by the following vital rates: seasonal survival, helper

emigration, probability of transition from helper to dominant status, and recruitment, all occurring in both seasons (see Appendix S1: Fig. S2 for more details).

The dewy pine (Drosophyllum lusitanicum)

Demographic data

In this study, we used data collected during nine annual censuses between April 2011 and April 2019 on dewy-pine populations occurring in three sites of southern Spain and facing different types of post-fire disturbance: human-disturbed (i.e., heavy persistent browsing; hereafter disturbed populations; Sierra Retin A: 36°10' N, 5°51' W) or natural (i.e., little browsing; hereafter natural populations; Sierra Carbonera: 36°12' N, 5°21' W and Sierra Retin B: 36°11' N, 5°49' W). Both types of populations burn, although fires may occur less frequently in heavily human-disturbed populations (see Paniw, Quintana-Ascencio et al. 2017). The seed bank-related vital rates (seed germination or stasis) were estimated from seed-burial and greenhouse germination experiments (see Paniw, Quintana-Ascencio et al. 2017 for details). In natural populations, most seeds (93%) go into the seed bank and survive (85%) until the next fire. On the other hand, in disturbed populations, a substantial proportion of seeds (13%) does not enter the seed bank but rather goes into continuous recruitment, while the seeds entering the seed bank have a lower survival (60%) (see Appendix S2: Table S7 for more details). Population density was calculated as the number of aboveground dewy pines per 1-m² square within a study transect in each site and each post-fire habitat state.

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The life cycle of the dewy pine consists of one-year transitions characterized by time since last fire (TSF) (Ojeda, Maranon, and Arroyo 1996; Paniw, Quintana-Ascencio et al. 2017; Fig. 1c). After a fire (TSF₀) seeds germinate from the seed bank (SB) and become seedlings (SD) or juveniles (J). During the year following the fire (TSF₁), surviving seedlings and juveniles reach their adult size (small, SR, or large, LR, reproductive) and are able to reproduce from the second year after fire (TSF₂). We estimated the following vital rates: seed-bank transitions, survival of aboveground stages and transitions among them, and reproductive parameters (i.e., flowering probability, number of flowering stalks, and number of flowers per stalk) (see Appendix S1: Fig. S4 for more details).

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Assessing the effects of perturbations in the strength of vital-rate periodicity on population dynamics

For each species, we used the demographic data to model periodic differences in vital rates for each life-cycle stage using generalized linear models and mixed models (GLMs for the deterministic vital rates in dewy pines and GLMMs for all other vital rates; with the *glm* and *glmer* functions of the R packages *stats* (R Core Team 2020) and *lme4* (Bates et al. 2015), respectively; see Appendix S2 and Appendix S3). We then used the predictions of these models to parameterize periodic matrix population models (MPMs) and project the population dynamics for 100 years according to two scenarios—control and perturbed—to assess the effect of changes in vital-rate periodicity on the stochastic growth rate (log λ_s), the variance of 100 annual growth

rates (var(log λ)), and the probability of quasi-extinction (p_{qext} , i.e., the ratio of simulations leading to quasi-extinction out of 500 simulations, with a threshold set at 15% of the minimum observed abundance or number of reproductive individuals for the marmot and meerkat populations, and at 50% of the minimum observed aboveground or seed bank abundance for the dewy pines; see Appendix S4). These three metrics have been shown to provide a good approximation of the potential fate of populations under environmental change (e.g., Hunter et al. 2010; Trotter, Krishna-Kumar, and Tuljapurkar 2013). Below, we provide an overview of the modeling process, the details of which can be found in Appendix S2 and Appendix S3.

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Modeling the vital rates

To assess how vital rates differed among periodic environmental states, we modeled vital rates as functions of season for the marmots and meerkats and of post-fire habitat states (time since fire, TSF) for the dewy pines. For all three study systems, we estimated stage-specific survival, probability of transition to another stage (binomial distribution), and reproductive output (Poisson distribution). Moreover, we estimated the helper emigration probability in the meerkat population, as well as the dewy-pine flowering probability (binomial distribution). System-specific details can be found in Appendix S2. We incorporated stochastic year effects as random effects in all appropriate models. These random effects modeled year-specific differences among vital-rate averages for the dewy pines and among season-specific averages (i.e., random slopes) for the marmots and meerkats. For the meerkats and dewy pines, we also incorporated the fixed effect of density on vital rates (Appendix S2). We did not do so for the marmots, as no density

dependence has been found in previous studies (Armitage 1973; Armitage et al. 2011; Paniw et al. 2020).

For each modeled vital rate, we first used the *r.squaredGLMM* function of the *MuMIn* R package (Bartoń 2020) to select the best random-effect structure where appropriate (i.e., testing whether a random effect on the average vital rate and the slope between seasons outperformed a random effect on the average vital rate only). We subsequently selected the best fixed-effect variables using the Akaike Information Criterion corrected for small sample size (AICc) (AICctab function of the bbmle R package; Bolker and R Development Core Team 2020). This enabled us to determine the most parsimonious model, accounting for the number of model parameters (Burnham, Anderson, and Huyvaert 2010). In case of a non-significant difference in AICc values between two models (i.e., dAICc<2), we picked the model with fewer parameters, unless another model was more biologically relevant (see Appendix S3: Fig. S1). Appendix S2 shows the details of the model selection approach. For models using a Poisson distribution, we tested for over- and under-dispersion in the best model according to the AICc and subsequently fitted overand under-dispersed models with a quasi-Poisson distribution (see Appendix S2). All analyses were performed using R 4.0.3 (R Core Team 2020) via RStudio 1.4.1103 (RStudio Team 2021). Data (Conquet et al. 2022a) are available in Dryad and R scripts (Conquet et al. 2022b) are available in Zenodo.

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Projecting population dynamics

Marmot and meerkat populations – Seasonal dynamics

For the meerkats and marmots, we projected population dynamics under changing patterns of vital rates which differed among seasons in a given year. That is, regardless of the fixed effect, vital rates for which the year random effect in the GLMM was applied both on the mean vital-rate estimate (i.e., the model intercept) and the difference between seasons. For the marmots, we therefore assessed the population responses to changes in the seasonal patterns of yearling and non-reproductive and reproductive adult survival. For the meerkats, we did so for subadult, helper, and dominant survival, helper emigration, transition from helper to dominant, and helper and dominant recruitment.

We used year-specific vital-rate predictions from the most parsimonious model to build periodic matrix population models (MPMs) for each season (as described in Caswell 2001; ch. 13). The matrix product of these periodic MPMs enabled us to compute the annual population projection matrix and subsequently the stochastic realized population growth rate, $\log \lambda_s$ (Appendix S4). We then simulated population dynamics by projecting MPMs representing low- (LS) and high-seasonality (HS) years for each of the aforementioned vital rates. Half of all years in which a vital rate was estimated were considered as LS and the other half as HS. That is, for a given vital rate, we defined the threshold between LS and HS years as the 50th percentile of all year-specific absolute differences between seasons (see Appendix S5 for details). In addition, we used a control scenario, where we projected the population dynamics using MPMs representing both high- and low-seasonality years indistinctly (i.e., using all years; see Appendix S6: Fig. S1a for an overview of the seasonal simulations workflow).

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We performed 500 simulations, each starting with the same population vector, and projected the population dynamics for 100 years (see Appendix S4). For each simulation, we randomly selected 100 years corresponding to each scenario (LS, HS, or control). In each step of the simulation, all vital rates were predicted based on the same randomly selected year. This allowed us to maintain within-year vital-rate correlation. The predicted vital rates were then used to build the corresponding period-specific MPM.

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Dewy-pine population – Multi-year habitat succession and periodicity in fire regimes

We characterized transitions among life-history stages and demographic parameters in dewy pines following a succession of five post-fire habitat states (TSF₀ to TSF_{>3}), where plants remained in TSF_{>3} until a fire disturbance set the population back to TSF₀. We simulated two distinct types of fire regimes, each with two frequencies: (1) periodic burning occurring systematically every 15 or 30 years, and (2) stochastic fires occurring on average every 15 or 30 years. In all simulations, dewy pines transition deterministically through the first four post-fire states, TSF₀ to TSF₃. Under periodic fires, once in the fifth state, TSF_{>3}, the population remains in that state until the next fire (15 or 30 years after the previous fire) and then transitions to TSF₀. Under stochastic fires, the population can transition from TSF_{>3} to TSF₀ conditional on fire frequency (*p*) (Paniw, Quintana-Ascencio et al. 2017). Under stochastic fire regimes, and after TSF₃, the dewy pine life history is therefore not strictly periodic. However, studying the consequences of perturbations in vital-rate patterns on dewy pines can be done employing tools such as periodic matrix population models and Markov chains, which are commonly used to study periodic population dynamics (Caswell 2001, ch. 13). The Markov-chain approach to

model the sequence of post-fire habitats (see Appendix S7) has been applied in a wide range of systems to model the probability of recurrent disturbance regimes, for example in the case of hurricanes or fires (e.g., Pascarella and Horvitz 1998; Quintana-Ascencio, Menges, and Weekley 2003; Horvitz, Tuljapurkar, and Pascarella 2005; Morris et al. 2006; Tuljapurkar and Haridas 2006; Evans, Holsinger, and Menges 2010; Trauernicht et al. 2016). In addition to the different periodic patterns in fire regimes, we perturbed periodic patterns in habitat succession in natural heathlands by introducing an additional human disturbance (i.e., using vital rates from populations under a browsing-induced disturbance) first only in the years of the last post-fire state (TSF>3), and then increasingly in the previous states (i.e., in TSF3 and >3, in TSF2, 3, and >3, etc.) until all post-fire states of a natural population were perturbed.

We used TFS-specific vital-rate predictions from our models and rates on seed-bank dynamics described in previous studies (Paniw, Quintana-Ascencio et al. 2017) to build MPMs for each TSF. We used these MPMs to project population dynamics for 100 years using 500 simulations, in each iteration randomly sampling among MPMs describing one of the two natural populations. In addition, for each iteration in the stochastic post-fire state TSF>3, we randomly sampled a year-specific MPM. We increased browsing pressure by replacing MPMs associated with natural habitat conditions by MPMs parameterized with vital rates estimated from human-disturbed populations, for any given TSF (see Appendix S6: Fig. S1b for an overview of the periodic simulations workflow). We compared scenarios of increasing anthropogenic pressures to the control scenario (i.e., natural populations with no browsing perturbation) in each fire regime.

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Population responses to vital-rate periodic patterns under density dependence

For the meerkats and dewy pines, projections of population dynamics incorporated density dependence. That is, at each iteration of the simulations, population density was estimated and used to predict vital rates and parameterize an MPM from these predictions at the next iteration (see Appendix S4 for more details). To better understand the contribution of variation in population density on the population responses to perturbations in vital-rate seasonal patterns, we also compared density-dependent projections to ones where the density input during parameter estimation was fixed at constant average values obtained from the observed data (see Appendix S4).

Analysis of the simulations results

For all three systems and for each simulation, we recorded the stochastic growth rate $\log \lambda_8$ (Tuljapurkar, Horvitz, and Pascarella 2003). We also investigated the effect of changes in vital-rate patterns on the variance in 100 annual $\log \lambda$, $\operatorname{var}(\log \lambda)$, and the quasi-extinction probability p_{qext} (see Appendix S4 for more details). We checked the overlap of the distributions of each metric (i.e., the mean and the 2.5th and 97.5th percentiles) across the 500 simulations between two scenarios. We considered a metric to differ between scenarios when 95% of the distributions (i.e., between the 2.5th and 97.5th percentiles) did not overlap.

Comparing population sensitivity to changes in periodic environmental patterns vs. stochastic environmental variation

We compared our results from periodic population models to "classic" assessments of population fitness sensitivity to stochastic environmental variation (Morris et al. 2008). To do so, for marmots and meerkats, we computed the stochastic elasticities of the population growth rate to changes in the mean and standard deviation of vital rates (Tuljapurkar, Horvitz, and Pascarella 2003; Appendix S8). We then calculated the relative importance of the stochastic elasticity of the growth rate due to changes in the variability of vital rates compared to changes in their mean (Morris et al. 2008; Appendix S8).

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For dewy pines, as the effects of periodic patterns consisted of changing the sequences of post-fire habitat states, we explored the link between the effects of human-induced disturbances in various post-fire habitat states and the role of these states in shaping population dynamics. We thus used the megamatrix approach to calculate the elasticity of the population growth rate to each post-fire habitat state (Pascarella and Horvitz 1998).

Results

Periodic patterns in vital rates of three study populations

Most vital rates of marmots, meerkats, and dewy pines showed significant, non-random periodic variation (Fig. 2; for details, see Appendix S3). In marmots, survival of reproductive adults was high in summer, but dropped more than 20% in winter (Fig. 2a), due to the harsh conditions marmots are exposed to during hibernation (Armitage 2017; Cordes et al. 2020; Paniw et al. 2020). For meerkats, helper survival was lower during the wet season (Fig. 2b). Reproduction

and emigration mainly happen in the wet season (Doolan and Mcdonald 2009; Ozgul et al. 2014), and this seasonal pattern in helper survival is likely due to an increase in the number of evictions by dominant females to reduce reproductive competition (Young et al. 2006; Dubuc et al. 2017), as evicted meerkats have a lower survival rate than resident individuals (Maag 2019). In addition, while most meerkat vital rates responded negatively to population density, subadult survival increased with density, and low densities had negative effects on juvenile survival and dominant recruitment in the wet season (Appendix S3: Table S1, Fig. S1, and Fig. S2a). Finally, in a natural population of dewy pines, the survival probability of juvenile individuals decreased by about 80% between the third and fourth year after fire (Fig. 2c), characteristic of the short lifespan of the plant in natural habitats (Paniw, Salguero-Gómez, and Ojeda 2015); whereas in human-disturbed populations, despite strong between-year fluctuation, juvenile survival remained high on average. The rate of continuous germination in late TSFs was also higher in human-disturbed populations (i.e., fewer seeds entering and remaining in the seed bank; Appendix S2: Table S7). However, survival of smaller plants and the reproductive output of all adults decreased on average under human disturbances (Appendix S3: Tables S3 and S4). In both natural and perturbed dewy-pine populations, density affected most density-dependent vital rates negatively across TSFs, although the effect was stronger in perturbed habitats (Appendix S3: Tables S3 and S4, and Fig. S2b). At the same time, under a browsing perturbation, survival of seedlings and small individuals increased with dewy-pine density, suggesting a facilitation mechanism in perturbed environmental conditions (Paniw, Salguero-Gómez, and Ojeda 2017).

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Effects perturbations in the strength of vital-rate periodicity on population dynamics

Population dynamics ($\log \lambda_S$) of all three species were significantly affected by perturbations of the periodic pattern of at least one vital rate (Fig. 3; see Appendix S4 for results on variance of $\log \lambda_S$). Higher periodic fluctuations in vital rates could affect population dynamics positively (in the case of yellow-bellied marmots), be strongly mediated by density feedbacks (for meerkats), or may only show an effect in a specific environmental context (in the case of dewy pines).

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For marmots, in the control scenario (i.e., simulations that sample randomly from low- and high-seasonality years), $\log \lambda_S$ was above 0 (0.056 [0.032, 0.078] on average; Fig. 3a), suggesting a slightly increasing population (Paniw et al. 2020). In addition, perturbing the strength of the seasonal pattern in survival of reproductive adults strongly affected the stochastic growth rate of the population compared to the control scenario, as expected from the key role of reproductive-adult survival in shaping marmot population dynamics (Maldonado-Chaparro et al. 2018; Appendix S8: Fig. S1a). A high seasonality in reproductive-adult survival, which was driven largely by decreases in winter survival compared to summer survival (Appendix S4), decreased $\log \lambda_S$ to 0.0093 [-0.024, 0.036] on average and slightly elevated extinction risk (Appendix S4). In turn, $\log \lambda_S$ considerably increased to 0.10 [0.084, 0.12] with low seasonality in adult survival (Fig. 3a). Lastly, contrary to the substantial effects of intra-annual vital-rate variability, marmot population dynamics seem buffered against inter-annual variation in all vital rates, as indicated by low elasticity of the marmot population growth rate to inter-annual standard deviation in vital rates (Appendix S8: Fig. S1a and b).

For meerkats, density dependence strongly mediated the effect of vital-rate seasonality on population growth. In the control scenario (i.e., selecting years randomly among both highly- and

little-seasonal years), compared to $\log \lambda_S$ obtained at constant, average density (0.15 [0.14, 0.17]), $\log \lambda_S$ in the density-dependent simulations was much lower (0.014 [0.0083, 0.021] on average; Fig. 3b). When we included density dependence, $\log \lambda_S$ was not affected by any perturbations of vital-rate seasonality. On the other hand, at constant, average density, a low seasonality in most vital rates had negative effects on $\log \lambda_S$, except for helper and dominant survival. Additional analyses, where we projected population dynamics assuming no seasonality in vital rates, confirmed that environment-density interactions shape population dynamics (Appendix S4: Fig. S4; see also Paniw et al. 2019).

The strength of seasonality effects under average density depended on the vital rate but were largest for subadult survival and dominant recruitment, without leading to population extinction. Compared to an average stochastic growth rate of 0.15 in the control scenario, a low seasonality in subadult survival strongly decreased $\log \lambda_S$ to 0.097 [0.082, 0.11] on average; and a low seasonality in dominant recruitment decreased it to 0.10 [0.082, 0.12]. On the other hand, a high seasonality in subadult survival increased $\log \lambda_S$ to 0.20 [0.19, 0.21] on average, while an increased seasonality in dominant recruitment increased the population growth rate to 0.19 [0.18, 0.20] on average (Fig. 3b). These two vital rates strongly influence meerkat population dynamics (Paniw et al. 2019). Indeed, dominant recruitment is responsible for the greater part of meerkats' reproductive output (Clutton-Brock et al. 2010), and most subadults become helpers and thus contribute importantly to increasing the survival of young (Clutton-Brock et al. 2001; Groenewoud and Clutton-Brock 2020). However, in contrast with previous findings identifying emigration as a key driver of meerkat dynamics (Bateman et al. 2012; Bateman et al. 2013; Paniw et al. 2019), changes in emigration seasonality did not have strong effects on the

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population growth rate. As in the case of the marmots, while intra-annual vital-rate variation under constant densities could substantially affect meerkats, changes in the standard deviation of none of the vital rates led to large changes in the population growth rate (Appendix S8: Fig. S1c and d), indicating buffering.

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For dewy pines, the differences in vital rates between natural and perturbed habitats led to substantial changes in growth rates under projections altering the post-fire periodic pattern of vital rates and density dependence, compared to assuming a natural habitat succession after fires (control scenario) under periodic and stochastic fire regimes (Fig. 3c). Under density dependence, introducing a browsing perturbation in a natural dewy-pine population decreased the average population growth rate slightly to negative values, increasing extinction risk (Appendix S4: Fig. S3b), compared to the control scenario (without browsing), where growth rates were largely positive. The changes in growth rates were similar whether the fire regime was stochastic or periodic when it occurred with a frequency of 1/15 years. More specifically, $\log \lambda_{\rm S}$ decreased to -0.049 [-0.12, 0.013] and -0.066 [-0.14, 0.012] on average when perturbing all TSFs under a periodic and stochastic regime, respectively, compared to $\log \lambda_S$ of 0.014 [0.014, 0.015] and 0.013 [0.0017, 0.019] in the control scenario (Fig. 3c). Changes in $\log \lambda_s$ were more substantial in projections of browsing perturbations at constant average density. Here, on average, $\log \lambda_S$ was -0.11 [-0.21, -0.067] and -0.12 [-0.20, -0.059] under a periodic and stochastic fire regime, respectively, compared to 0.015 [0.014, 0.017] and 0.015 [0.0038, 0.020] in the control scenario.

Negative effects of browsing combined with frequent large-scale fires on dewy-pine populations have been reported previously, but previous analyses omitted density feedbacks (Paniw, Quintana-Ascencio et al. 2017). Our results however demonstrate that density dependence somewhat buffered populations from the effects of the browsing perturbation under higher fire frequencies, especially under periodic fire regimes (every 15 years; Fig. 3c and Appendix S4: Fig. S3b). At the same time, under less frequent periodic burning (every 30 years), populations were consistently negatively affected by browsing perturbations; and the effects of density dependence disappeared (Fig. 3c). Under this fire regime, $\log \lambda_S$ was -0.097 [-0.16, -0.039] and -0.089 [-0.16, -0.0081] at average density and with density dependence, respectively, for perturbation starting in TSF_{>3}, compared to 0.015 [0.014, 0.016] and 0.014 [0.013, 0.015] under natural conditions. The browsing perturbation had similar effects under stochastic fires occurring every 30 years on average (Fig. 3c). This was because populations spent more years in TSF>3 under less frequent fires, where density feedbacks are less important (Appendix S3: Table S4). The substantial effects of long-term perturbations to the period of post-fire habitat succession, starting in early postfire years, stands in contrast to megamatrix elasticity analyses assuming no browsing and stochastic fire regimes (Pascarella and Horvitz 1998). These latter revealed that the dewy-pine population growth rate was largely only sensitive to perturbations in the last post-fire habitat state (TSF>3) under natural disturbances (Appendix S8: Fig. S2).

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Discussion

Using three study systems that represent a range of life-history adaptations to periodic environments, we highlight the complex effects that changes in vital-rate periodic patterns can have on population dynamics. In each of our three study species, perturbing the strength of periodicity in various vital rates led to large changes in population dynamics, especially for vital rates strongly influencing population dynamics (Fig. 3 and Appendix S8). Our results suggest that, while according to classic sensitivity analyses our study populations are buffered from interannual environmental variation leading to vital-rate fluctuations (Paniw et al. 2020; Appendix S8), these populations appear to be sensitive to perturbations in the strength of vital-rate periodicity. This variety of population responses to periodic changes in environmental states—leading to periodic patterns in critical vital rates—suggests that quantifying and taking such periodicity into account when projecting population dynamics should receive more consideration in population ecology and is particularly important given widespread changes in climatic variability.

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Among the various types of environmental patterning, seasonality is one of the most common forms (Boyce 1979; Panda, Hogenesch, and Kay 2002; Park 2019). Numerous species have adapted to seasonal environmental patterning and show various degrees of seasonal variation in vital rates (Varpe 2017). In general, variation in vital rates is expected to negatively affect the population growth rate (Tuljapurkar 1990; Doak et al. 2005); but such expectations are largely based on assuming random inter-annual vital-rate variation (Tuljapurkar 1990). Our results agree with previous studies pointing to the importance of seasonal vital-rate variation in driving population dynamics (Wichmann et al. 2003; Kanno et al. 2015; Bassar et al. 2016) depending on the direction of vital-rate responses to increasing or decreasing seasonality. For example, in

species exposed to harsh winters, like marmots, an increase in environmental seasonality can be associated with large increases in winter mortality, thus leading to population decreases and increased extinction risks (Appendix S4; Albon et al. 2016), while a decrease in seasonality could have positive effects on populations living in such environmental conditions (van de Pol et al. 2010). Strong effects of changes in seasonal environmental patterns can also arise due to and be amplified by seasonal correlations between key vital rates (Jongejans et al. 2010; but see Compagnoni et al. 2016). For example, in meerkats, highly seasonal years in subadult survival mostly corresponded to years where dominant recruitment was high and helper emigration particularly low in the wet season, positively affecting the population growth rate. These important seasonal relationships in vital rates are not picked up in classic sensitivity analyses, where inter-annual vital-rate variation shows a consistently small effect on population growth rates (Appendix S8). In sum, population responses to changes in environmentally-driven vital-rate patterns are largely context dependent (Töpper et al. 2018), and these contexts are masked in analyses focusing on inter-annual variation only.

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Seasonality is perhaps the most known and studied form of environmental and vital-rate periodicity, but periodic patterns in vital rates occur on other scales as well (Park 2019). The dewy pines represent a common form of such periodicity: adaptations to disturbance regimes (Denslow 1980; Brawn, Robinson, and Thompson 2001; Pausas et al. 2004). Although many studies on disturbance-adapted plants have shown strong effects of changes in the periodic pattern of these disturbance regimes on population dynamics (Evans, Holsinger, and Menges 2010; Miller et al. 2019; Keith, Bunker, and Driscoll et al. 2020), we found no differences in dewy-pine stochastic growth rates among different fire regimes considered. Instead, dewy-pine

populations were negatively affected by introducing human perturbations in the form of heavy browsing after fires, especially when starting in the early post-fire habitat states (Fig. 3c; Paniw, Quintana-Ascencio et al. 2017). Such perturbations, continuously removing aboveground vegetation, effectively alter the patterning of the post-fire life cycle in dewy pines by allowing continuous seed germination (depleting the seed bank) and longer aboveground persistence of dewy pines (increasing intraspecific competition) (Paniw, Quintana-Ascencio et al. 2017; Brewer, Paniw, and Ojeda 2021). This then makes populations less resilient to fire disturbances. Such detrimental effects of herbivory on populations of plants in fire-prone habitats have been found in various species (e.g., Groenendijk et al. 2011; Mandle, Ticktin, and Zuidema 2015; Giljohann et al. 2017; Sühs et al. 2021). In other systems, plant population persistence may be enhanced by a combination of frequent burning and herbivory (Baeza et al. 2007; Fuhlendorf et al. 2009; Galíndez et al. 2013). While past research on disturbance-adapted plant species has focused on natural systems, our results highlight the importance of understanding complex interactions between disturbance regimes and environmental and anthropogenic pressures after the disturbances in human-dominated landscapes.

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Regardless of the nature of periodic variation in vital rates, density-dependent processes may mediate effects of this variation on population dynamics. In our case, this occurred for both meerkats (density feedbacks buffered both negative and positive effects of vital-rate seasonality; Fig. 3b) and dewy pines (density feedbacks buffered negative effects of a browsing perturbation under more frequent than usual periodic and stochastic fires Fig. 3c). Density dependence is expected to stabilize population dynamics in the long term (Sinclair and Pech 1996; Boyce et al. 2006); but on a shorter time frame (within the length of our projections), density dependence can

be a major driver of population cycles (Radchuk, Ims, and Andreassen 2016). Numerous studies have shown the key role of density dependence in mediating vital-rate response to inter-annual variations in the environment (Vøllestad and Olsen 2008; Bonenfant et al. 2009), making it an important factor shaping population dynamics (Coulson et al. 2001; Gamelon et al. 2017; Hansen et al. 2019). Our results on meerkats and dewy pines suggest that the role of density dependence in buffering population dynamics from inter-annual environmentally-driven variation in vital rates similarly applies at the intra-annual scale.

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Interactions between density and periodic environmental variation can be important drivers of context-dependent population responses to the environment, and are common in nature (e.g., Coulson et al. 2001; Barbraud and Weimerskirch 2003; Gamelon et al. 2017). For instance, in meerkats, many vital rates show seasonal differences in their responses to important social factors such as the number of dispersing males (Paniw et al. 2022) or group size, which interact with population density but do not strongly correlate with it (Bateman et al. 2012; Ozgul et al. 2014). For disturbance-adapted species, density feedbacks may stabilize population dynamics under periodic environmental change. For dewy pines, such feedbacks may slow population declines under the most intense browsing pressures, when natural habitat succession and fire regimes are most perturbed, but have little effects on populations otherwise. Our case studies therefore suggest that across a wide range of environmental settings, including periodic environmental variation, the effects of environment-density interactions on populations are quite context-dependent (Wang et al. 2009). Nonetheless, the key role of such interactions between periodicity and density in shaping population responses to changes in periodic patterns

emphasizes the need to understand the effects of environmental variation beyond assuming random stochastic environments in density-independent population projections.

In sum, our results suggest that periodic patterns in vital rates play a key role in population dynamics across a wide range of life histories, with strong population responses to changes in periodicity arising because of particularly favorable or adverse conditions in critical periods of the life cycle (Burant, Betini, and Norris 2019), which can be buffered or emphasized by environment-density interactions (Paniw et al. 2019). Further perturbations in vital-rate patterning are expected under global change (IPCC 2014), potentially strongly affecting species population dynamics and persistence (Beissinger 1995; Flockhart et al. 2015; Bassar et al. 2016). Analyses of periodic vital-rate patterns have thus far primarily focused on species where vital rates strongly differ between periods, such as migratory and seasonally breeding species (e.g., Reid et al. 2018). However, some populations experience periodic environments that do not necessarily translate into sharp periodic differences in vital rates (e.g., Viñals-Domingo et al. 2020), and accounting for periodicity in vital-rate fluctuations in these populations may help reveal sensitivities to changes in periodic patterns when there appears to be no effect of changes in stochastic inter-annual vital-rate variations. In conclusion, our results highlight the need for studies investigating the sensitivity of populations to changes in vital-rate patterns beyond classic analyses relying on inter-annual variations, as sensitivities to environmental periodicity will be masked in such frameworks.

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(31003A 182286) to A.O.

Author Contributions

M.P., A.O., and E.C. designed the study. The data and insights on the study species were provided by K.B.A., D.T.B., M.K.O., and J.G.A.M. for the marmots, T.H.C.B. for the meerkats, and M.P. for the dewy pines. The analyses were performed by E.C., with input from M.P. and A.O. The manuscript was written by E.C., with substantial contribution to revisions from all authors.

Conflict of Interest Statement

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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Figure captions

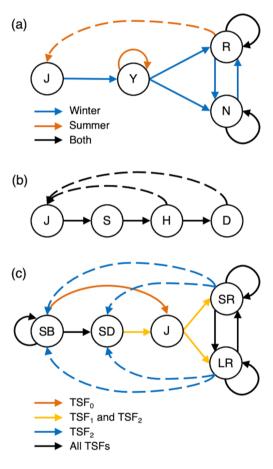
Figure 1 – Periodic life cycles of the three study systems. The three life cycles represent the periodic transitions among life-history stages (solid arrows) and reproduction (dashed arrows) of our study systems. Different arrow colors indicate whether transitions/reproduction occur in a specific period (season or time-since-fire (TSF) state) or in all seasons or TSFs. (a) The marmot life cycle was split between the winter hibernation period (winter-to-summer transition, August-June) and the summer breeding season (summer-to-winter transition, June-August). Individuals can transition between juvenile (J), yearling (Y), and non-reproductive (N) and reproductive adult (R) stages. (b) The meerkat life cycle was split into the dry fall/winter (dry-to-wet transition, April-October) and wet spring/summer (wet-to-dry transition, October-April) seasons. Individuals can transition between juvenile (J), subadult (S), helper (H), and dominant (D) stages. (c) The dewy pine life cycle consists of yearly transitions between time-since-fire habitat states (TSF₀ to TSF₁, TSF₁ to TSF₂, etc.). Individuals germinate from the seed bank (SB) and can transition among seedling (SD), juvenile (J), small (SR), and large reproductive individual (LR) stages.

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Figure 2 – Vital-rate periodicity across time. (a) In marmots, reproductive adult survival greatly varies between summer and winter, with a stable pattern across the 40 years of study. (b) In meerkats, vital rates, including helper survival, are not strictly seasonal as in marmots but can vary strongly between the dry and wet season as a response to stochastic inter-annual rainfall patterns. Lines show the average estimates, shaded areas show the 95% confidence intervals and were obtained using the *predictInterval* function from the *merTools* R package (Knowles and

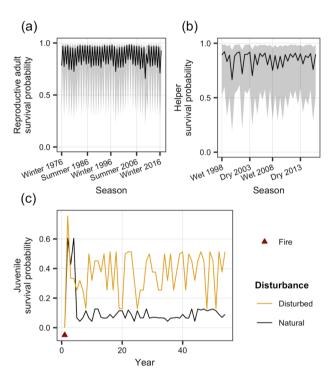
Frederick 2020). (c) In natural dewy-pine populations under stochastic fires occurring on average every 30 years, individuals (here juveniles) typically have a lower survival rate, and survival decreases predictably with time.

Figure 3 – Effect of perturbations in the strength of vital-rate periodic patterns on the population dynamics of marmots, meerkats, and dewy pines. We assessed the effect of a perturbation in the strength of vital-rate periodicity on the stochastic population growth rate log $\lambda_{\rm S}$ of three species: (a) For the marmots, we assessed the effect of a high or low seasonality in yearling (Y) and non-reproductive (N) and reproductive (R) adult survival on log λ_S . (b) For the meerkats, we assessed the effect of a high or low seasonality in subadult (S), helper (H), and dominant (D) survival, helper emigration, helper to dominant transition, as well as helper and dominant recruitment. (c) For the dewy pines, we assessed the effect of changing periodic habitat succession by projecting the population under four different fire regimes: periodic or stochastic fires occurring every 15 or 30 years. In addition, to assess the consequences of changing post-fire vital-rate periodicity, we introduced a human-induced disturbance in various combinations of the five post-fire habitat states (from TSF_{>3} only to all TSFs). For meerkats and dewy pines, simulations were performed including density dependence in vital rates ((b) and (c), left panels) or keeping density constant at its average value ((b) and (c), right panels). The triangle on each boxplot represents the mean, and the boxplot whiskers the 2.5th and 97.5th percentiles.

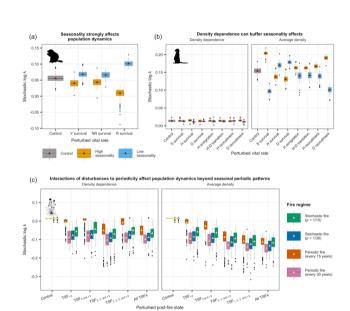


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