# Demographic buffering in natural populations: multi-level perspective

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#### Abstract

Environmental stochasticity impacts population dynamics and their viability. As such, understanding how organisms cope with this variability is crucial. Here, we investigate demographic buffering, the ability of populations to maintain stable growth despite environmental fluctuations. We integrate well-established stochastic and deterministic approaches to investigate characteristics of demographic buffering, analysing stochastic elasticities and self-second derivatives of deterministic population growth rate. We test the hypothesis that buffered species exhibit low stochastic elasticity to temporal variability and signs of concave selection (i.e. negative second derivatives of population growth rate with respect to demographic processes), reducing variance in key demographic processes. Analysing 43 natural populations of 37 mammal species, we find limited support for this hypothesis. Indeed, while primates often show low stochastic elasticity, concave selection is less prevalent than expected. Our findings highlight the complex and dynamic relationship between demographic processes, environmental variability, and selection pressures in determining population persistence.

#### Demographic buffering in natural populations: multi-level perspective

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**Abstract** (147/150 words)

Environmental stochasticity impacts population dynamics and their viability. As such, understanding how organisms cope with this variability is crucial. Here, we investigate demographic buffering, the ability of populations to maintain stable growth despite environmental fluctuations. We integrate well-established stochastic and deterministic approaches to investigate characteristics of demographic buffering, analysing stochastic elasticities and self-second derivatives of deterministic population growth rate. We test the hypothesis that buffered species exhibit low stochastic elasticity to temporal variability and signs of concave selection (*i.e.* negative second derivatives of population growth rate with respect to demographic processes), reducing variance in key demographic processes. Analysing 43 natural populations of 37 mammal species, we find limited support for this hypothesis. Indeed, while primates often show low stochastic elasticity, concave selection is less prevalent than expected. Our findings highlight the complex and dynamic relationship between demographic processes, environmental variability, and selection pressures in determining population persistence.

#### Introduction

Environmental stochasticity shapes organisms' life histories (Bonsall & Klug 2011; Stearns 1992; Tuljapurkar 1990, 2010). Nonetheless, how organisms will cope with the changing variation in environmental conditions (Bathiany *et al.* 2018; Boyce *et al.* 2006; Morris *et al.* 2008) remains an intriguing ecological and evolutionary question (Sutherland *et al.* 2013). Evolutionary demography offers a range of explanations for how evolutionary processes influence demographic responses to environmental variability (Charlesworth 1994; Healy *et al.* 2019; Hilde *et al.* 2020; Pfister 1998; Tuljapurkar *et al.* 2009). However, it is stochastic demography that explicitly addresses the impacts of fluctuating environments on wild populations of plants and animals (Boyce *et al.* 2006).

Stochastic demography is grounded in the powerful approximation introduced by Tuljapurkar (Tuljapurkar 1982). This approximation posits that the long-term stochastic population growth rate ( $\lambda_{\varsigma}$ ) is directly related to the geometric mean of population growth rates over time ( $\lambda_{\tau}$ ) and the variance-covariance structure of

demographic processes (Boyce *et al.* 2006; Tuljapurkar 1982). An increase in the geometric mean of  $\lambda_{\tau}$  over time leads to a corresponding rise  $in\lambda_{\varsigma}$ . Conversely, higher variance  $in\lambda_{\tau}$  reduces  $\lambda_{\varsigma}$  (Morris & Doak 2004; Tuljapurkar 1982), thereby influencing population persistence (Lefèvre *et al.* 2016).

The ability of a population to diminish the effects of environmental stochasticity on  $\lambda_{\varsigma} - \beta \psi \kappa \epsilon \epsilon \pi \nu \gamma \sigma \sigma \mu \epsilon \delta \epsilon \mu o \gamma \rho a \pi \eta \varsigma \pi \rho \sigma \varsigma \epsilon \sigma \epsilon \varsigma (a \varsigma \mu \sigma \varsigma \eta \sigma \sigma \sigma \sigma \beta \lambda \epsilon) \varsigma o \sigma \sigma \tau a \tau \sigma \epsilon \rho \tau \mu \epsilon - \iota \varsigma \varsigma \sigma \lambda \epsilon \delta \delta \epsilon \mu o \gamma \rho a \pi \eta \varsigma \beta \sigma \phi \phi \epsilon \rho \nu \gamma$ (Bjørkvoll et al. 2016; Gascoigne et al. 2023a, 2024b, a; Hilde et al. 2020; McDonaldet al. 2016; Reed & Slade 2012; Rodríguez-Caro et al. 2021). A way to test for demographic buffering is outlined by the demographic buffering hypothesis (Pfister 1998) (Box 1). The demographic buffering hypothesis extends Tuljapurkar's approximation to state that negative covariance between  $\tau \eta \epsilon \mu \pi a \varsigma \tau \sigma \phi a \delta \epsilon \mu o \gamma \rho a \pi \eta \varsigma \sigma \sigma \sigma \sigma \lambda_{\tau}$  (see Box 1 for details) and how much a demographic process varies through time would be optimal if such negative covariance could evolve (Le Coeur et al. 2022; Gaillard & Yoccoz 2003; Morris & Doak 2004; Pélabon et al. 2020; Pfister 1998). Evidence exists supporting the demographic buffering hypothesis (e.g., Gaillard & Yoccoz 2003; Rotella et al. 2012) or not (McDonald et al. 2017). However, generalisation of demographic buffering patterns across species remains challenging for several reasons (Doak et al. 2005; Morris & Doak 2004).

One of the challenges surrounding demographic buffering are the different interpretations of results from correlational analyses, as in Pfister (1998) and Hilde *et al.* (2020). Some authors rank species' life histories along a continuum from buffered to labile (see Box 1 for definition) using the correlation coefficient (Spearman's correlation  $\rho$ ) between the impact of demographic processes on the population growth rate and the temporal variance of said demographic processes (McDonald *et al.* 2017; Salguero-Gómez 2021). There, negative correlation coefficient values indicate demographic buffering. Alternatively, the absence of statistical support for buffering may suggest a preference for demographic variance to track environmental conditions, a phenomenon coined demographic lability (Drake 2005; Hilde*et al.* 2020; Jäkäläniemi *et al.* 2013; Koons *et al.* 2009; Reed & Slade 2012) (Box 1).

Demographic buffering can be measured in different ways (Gascoigne *et al.* 2023a, 2024a; Haridas & Tuljapurkar 2005; Hilde *et al.* 2020). One way to address demographic buffering is based on the 'penalisation term' of Tuljapurkar's approximation (Box 1), the variance-covariance structure (Tuljapurkar 1982). This approach measures how much temporal variability in demographic processes penalises the population relative to the value of its arithmetic population growth rate. This method uses stochastic elasticities ( $E_{a_{ij}}^S$ , Haridas & Tuljapurkar 2005) and, as such, explicitly considers temporal variation in demographic processes. We use this method to compare the demographic buffering patterns across species and identify the populations displaying buffering signatures.

A buffered population is one where  $\lambda_{\varsigma}$  is robust to penalty attributable to temporal variation of demographic processes. Assessing the said robustness relies on a *summed* effect of temporal variability. The summed effect of demographic process variability on population growth rate is related to the extent of impact that a demographic process has over  $\lambda_{\varsigma}$  (Haridas & Tuljapurkar 2005). Given so, we might expect for buffered populations — robust to the aforementioned penalty — to exhibit evidence of restricted temporal variability in the most impacting demographic process for  $\lambda_{\tau}$ .

To address this prediction, here we propose that, in addition to measuring the  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^S$  for each population, one should also examine the effects of each demographic process within a population's life cycle on  $\lambda_{\tau}$  (e.g. , Caswell 1978, 1996, 2001; Ebert 1999; de Kroon et al. 1986). Furthermore, we propose that alongside this step, an analysis of nonlinear selection pressures acting on the temporal variance of each demographic process (Box 1) is essential.

The sign (>0, <0) of the self-second derivatives determines the type of nonlinear selection acting on demographic process temporal variability. Negative values (concave selection, [?]-shaped) reduce temporal variance, characteristic of buffering (Caswell 1996, 2001; Shyu & Caswell 2014). Positive values (convex selection, [?]-shaped) indicate selection forces that amplify the temporal variance, revealing a lack of selection pressures on demographic process variance (Bruijning *et al.* 2020; Caswell 1996, 2001; Le Coeur *et al.* 2022; Koons et al. 2009; Shyu & Caswell 2014; Vinton et al. 2022).

Here, we show a novel combination of existing demographic methods to test the following hypothesis: buffered species with low summed effect of temporal variability on their fitness should show signatures of concave selection acting to reduce the variance in their most impacting demographic process(es) (see Box 1 for definitions). Concave selection pressures favour features that contribute to reducing temporal variance (Caswell 2001; Shyu & Caswell 2014), thereby enhancing population persistence in the face of environmental stochasticity. We test our hypothesis and demonstrate the applicability and challenges of our framework using 43 populations of 37 mammal species.

#### Methods

#### The summed effects of demographic process variability measured by stochastic elasticities

Current evidence for demographic buffering has primarily been assessed using Matrix Population Models (MPMs), hereafter) (Pfister 1998; Rotella *et al.* 2012). However, Integral Projection Models (IPMs) (Easterling *et al.* 2000; Ellner *et al.* 2016; Gascoigne *et al.* 2023b; Rodríguez-Caro *et al.* 2021; Wang*et al.* 2023) can also identify demographic buffering. MPMs and IPMs are structured, discrete-time demographic models (Caswell 2001; Ellner *et al.* 2016). For simplicity, here we focus on MPMs, but note that the same proposed approach applies to IPMs (Doak *et al.* 2021; Griffith 2017). Hereafter, we refer to demographic processes in the MPM A as its entries  $a_{ij}$  (*i.e.*, upper-level parameters *sensu* Zuidema & Franco 2001) and the vital rates composing those matrix elements (*i.e.*, lower-level parameters, *ditto*). The conversion between matrix elements and vital rates is straightforward (Franco & Silvertown 2004).

We obtain the stochastic elasticities (Haridas & Tuljapurkar 2005) of  $\lambda_s$  to place species on a variance continuum. The variance continuum represents the *summed* effects of proportional increases in temporal variability across all demographic processes  $(a_{ij})$  of the MPM A on the population growth rate  $\lambda_{\varsigma}$ , operating at the *between-populations level*. The  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^S$  can be partitioned into two components: i) the sum of stochastic elasticities with respect to variability11Standard deviation ( $\sigma$ ) stands for a measure of variability.\* $(\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}})$  — assessing how variability in  $a_{ij}$  affects  $\lambda_{\varsigma}$  —and ii) the sum of stochastic elasticities with respect to the arithmetic mean of demographic processes ( $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\mu}}$ ) — assessing the impact of a change in mean values of demographic processes on  $\lambda_{\varsigma}$  (Haridas & Tuljapurkar 2005). A weak (*i.e.*, near zero) summed effect of variability means that the population growth rate is relatively unaffected by the variability in demographic processes (Haridas & Tuljapurkar 2005), and this lack of effect by demographic process variability is consistent with demographic buffering. As such, a summed effect of variability offers a good proxy to evidence demographic buffering (Gascoigne *et al.* 2024b; Haridas & Tuljapurkar 2005) and enables the classification of populations along a continuum.

Species or populations are positioned along the variance continuum based on the impact of demographic process variance  $\operatorname{on}_{\mathcal{S}}$ . Species highly sensitive to environmental variability are on the left (potentially unbuffered22<sup>1</sup>Increased variance does not necessarily imply demographic lability, defined as an increase in *mean value* of a demographic process in response to improved environmental conditions (Le Coeur *et al.* 2022). By examining stochastic elasticities, we can assess changes in the contribution of demographic process variability  $\operatorname{to}_{\mathcal{S}}$ , while mean values remain unchanged.), while species less sensitive are on the right (potentially buffered) end (Fig. 1A). Although the position on the continuum provides insight into how environmental variation affects  $\lambda_{\mathcal{S}}$ ,  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$  does not consider covariances between demographic processes and serial correlations, crucial for a full comprehension of demographic buffering (Haridas & Tuljapurkar 2005). Thus, species' position at the buffered end of the variance continuum is a *necessary but not sufficient* condition for evidence of demographic buffering. To address this second criterion, as well as to test our hypothesis, we use second derivatives of population growth rate with respect to demographic processes to elucidate the impact of selection on the temporal variability of said demographic processes.

# Δεμογραπηις προςεσσες, τη<br/>ειρ φιρστ- ανδ σεςονδ-ορδερ εφφεςτς ονλ $_{\rm S}$ , ανδ τψπες <br/>οφ σελεςτιον ον τεμποραλ αριανςε

The following method delves into within-population level by calculating the partial derivatives of  $\lambda_I$  (obtained by averaging sequential MPMs across the study duration) concerning each separate matrix element  $a_{ij}$  of the MPMA (Fig. 1B). This step reveals a first-order effect of demographic process variation on fitness — the elasticities of $\lambda_I$  to changes in demographic processes. We then evaluate a second-order effect using self-second derivatives of $\lambda_I$  for each  $a_{ij}$  (Fig. 1C) (Caswell 1996; Shyu & Caswell 2014).

First- and second-order effects of the variation in demographic processes on fitness are evidence of *average* selection pressures over time (Carslake *et al.* 2008; Caswell 2001; Kajin *et al.* 2023; Shyu & Caswell 2014; Tuljapurkar *et al.* 2023). While elasticities can be considered a proxy for selection gradients (Lande 1982), a second-order effect (measured as a self-second derivative of

# λ<sub>1</sub> ωιτη ρεσπεςτ το εαςη δεμογραπηις προςεσς) ρεεαλς τηε τψπε οφ σελεςτιον αςτινγ ον τεμποραλ αριαβιλιτψ οφ δεμογραπηις παττερνς.

A strong first-order effect of variation on fitness implies in a linear relationship between a demographic process and fitness. When linearity is assumed, the self-second derivatives are near zero, which means selection changes the mean of demographic processes, but not their variance (Shyu & Caswell 2014). Nonzero self-second derivatives indicate *nonlinear* relationships between fitness and a demographic process, revealing additional aspects of selection on the variances and covariances of demographic processes (Brodie *et al.* 1995; Carslake *et al.* 2008; Shyu & Caswell 2014). Furthermore, the second-order derivatives measure how sensitive the population growth rate is to temporal autocorrelation of demographic processes.

We argue that the joint interpretation of first- and second-order effects of variation on  $\lambda_1$  provides the needed platform to address our prediction of demographically buffered populations displaying concave selection pressures. To address our hypothesis, we:

- 1. Place populations along a continuum defined by  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$  values.
- 2. Identify the demographic processes with highest elasticities for each population.
- 3. Associate the same demographic processes identified in (2) with negative self-second derivatives, indicating concave selection.

We showcase these steps on an imaginary wolf population (Fig. 1B). In this wolf population, individuals remaining in the fourth stage (MPM element  $a_{4,4}$ ) have the most impact over $\lambda_1$ , with the highest elasticity value (Fig. 1B, yellow square). However, Figure 1C reveals a weak second-order effect of element  $a_{4,4}$  on  $\lambda_1$ , thus implying a weak selection pressure to reduce  $a_{4,4}$  temporal variance. A combination of a strong first-order and near zero second-order effects on fitness coincides with a strong linear influence of a change in the mean of  $a_{4,4}$  on  $\lambda_1$ . However, in this example, there is no evidence of concave selection on  $a_{4,4}$ , as we expected based on the positioning of wolf population on the left (unbuffered) side of the variance continuum (Fig. 1A).

We found evidence of concave selection in the fertility of individuals in the second and third stages of the hypothetical wolf species (Fig. 3C, MPM elements  $a_{1,2}$  and  $a_{1,3}$ , respectively, large black dots). Both fertility elements in this wolf population reveal low elasticities (Fig. 3B), but highly negative self-second derivatives. Such a pattern coincides with strong concave selection acting to reduce temporal variance in wolves' second-and third-stage fertilities. These patterns also reveal that temporal autocorrelation in second- and third-stage fertilities affect population fitness. Nonetheless, the absence of concave selection in the fertility of individuals in the fourth stage (Fig. 3C, MPM element  $a_{1,4}$ , small black dot) might suggests a pattern consistent with senescence.

Although not our primary goal, we briefly introduce steps to evidence demographic lability. Compelling lability evidence requires sufficient data across environments [over time or space; but see Perret et al. (2024)] to construct reaction norms depicting demographic responses to environmental changes (Drake 2005; Koons *et al.* 2009; Morris*et al.* 2008). Non-linear relationships between demographic processes and the environment must be established based on the reaction norms. Demographic processes where an increase in the mean value has a stronger positive impact on population growth rate than the detrimental effect of increased variance

need to be identified. The latter condition is only met when the process-environment reaction norms are convex (Drake 2005, Koons *et al*. 2009, Morris *et al*. 2008). However, Barraquand & Yoccoz (2013) show that even with log-concave reaction norms, environmental variability can positively affect population growth under certain conditions, such as constant survival or density-dependent growth. Importantly, species may not be purely buffered or labile some processes may be buffered, others labile, and others insensitive to environmental variability (*e.g.*, Doak*et al*. 2005). Deciphering these patterns is a primary research interest in the field.

#### Demographic buffering in mammals: A case study

We examine the performance of our framework and test the hypothesis, that is that species at the buffered end of the variance continuum display highly negative self-second derivatives for the governing demographic processes. We use 43 MPMs from 37 mammal species (16 species at the within-populations level). Mammals are of special interest in the context of demographic buffering for two reasons: (1) mammalian life histories have been well studied (Beccari *et al.* 2024; Bielby*et al.* 2007; Gillespie 1977; Jones 2011; Stearns 1983) and (2) some of their populations have already been assessed in terms of demographic buffering, particularly for primates (Campos *et al.* 2017; Morris *et al.* 2008, 2011; Reed & Slade 2012; Rotella*et al.* 2012). Together, the well-studied life histories and previous information about the occurrence of buffering in mammals allow us to make accurate predictions and validate the performance of our framework.

We used MPMs (Caswell 2001) from 43 out of 139 studies with mammals available in the COMADRE Animal Matrix Database v.3.0.0 (Salguero-Gómez *et al.* 2016). These 43 populations encompass 37 species from eight taxonomic orders. We carefully selected these MPMs in our analyses because their models contain values of demographic processes  $(a_{ij})$  for three or more contiguous time periods, thus allowing us to obtain the stochastic elasticity of each $a_{ij}$ . Although we are aware that not all possible temporal variation in demographic processes may have been expressed within this period, we assumed three or more transitions are enough to provide sufficient variation for population comparison (Compagnoni *et al.* 2023). To mitigate bias in variance estimates, we randomly extracted three MPMs from the existing data for each species (Supplementary Material, Table S1), calculated the mean of these three MPMs, and repeated this process 50 times to obtain their original sources are detailed in Table S1. *Finally, we included MPMs of Homo sapiens* to cross-check our estimates of second-order derivatives, as it is the only mammalian species where these have been calculated (Caswell 1996). The data for *H. sapiens* were gathered from 26 modern populations (Keyfitz & Flieger 1990).

At the within-populations level, we used a subset of 16 populations (including *H. sapiens*) whose MPMs were age-based. We specifically selected these populations because their life cycles can be summarised by two main demographic processes: survival and contribution to the recruitment of new individuals (Caswell 2010; Ebert 1999).

To quantify the variance continuum and calculate  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$  for between-populations level comparisons, we followed Tuljapurkar *et al.* (2003) and Haridas & Tuljapurkar (2005). Next, at the within-populations level, we calculated the deterministic elasticities to each demographic process using the *popbio* package (Stubben *et al.* 2020). The self-second derivatives were adapted from *demogR* (Jones 2007) following (Caswell 1996) and applied to the mean MPM of each study. All analyses were performed using R version 4.4.1 (R Core Team 2024).

#### Results

We ranked 43 populations from 37 mammal species into a continuum of variance according to the summed impact of variation in demographic processes on  $\lambda_{\rm s}$  (Fig. 2). Most of the analysed taxonomic orders were placed on the low or zero variance end of the variance continuum (Fig. 2), coinciding with demographically buffered populations. The smallest contributions of variability in demographic processes (note that  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$  ranges from 0 to -1), suggesting buffered populations, were assigned to Primates: northern muriqui (*Brachyteles hyphoxantus*,  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}} = -5.31 \times 10^{-5} \pm 2.09 \times 10^{-5}$ ) (mean  $\pm$  S.E.) (Fig. 2 silhouette a), mountain gorilla (Gorilla beringei ,  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}} = -1.28 \times 10^{-5} \pm 1.32 \times 10^{-5}$ ) (Fig. 2 silhouette b), followed by the blue monkey (Cercopithecus mitis ,  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}} = -4.43 \times 10^{-5} \pm 1.18 \times 10^{-5}$ ) (Fig. 2 silhouette c). The first non-primate species placed near the buffered end of the continuum was the Columbian ground squirrel (Urocitellus columbianus , Rodentia,  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}} = -3.38 \times 10^{-3} \pm 6.96 \times 10^{-4}$ ) (Fig. 2 silhouette d). On the other opposite, the species with the highest contribution of variation in demographic processes – placed at the high-variance end of the continuum – was the stoat (Mustela erminea , Carnivora,  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}} = -0.310 \pm 0.0162$ ) (Fig. 2 silhouette e). All the 14 primate populations occupied the buffered side of the variance continuum, with the exception of the Patas monkey (Erythrocebus patas , Primates,  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}} = -0.0521 \pm 5.38 \times 10^{-3}$ ) (Fig. 2 silhouette f). The snowshoe hare (Lepus americanus , Lagomorpha,  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}} = -0.262 \pm 0.0233$ ) (Fig. 2 silhouette g) and the Bush rat (Rattus fuscipes , Rodentia,  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}} = -0.245 \pm 4.29 \times 10^{-3}$ ) (Fig. 2 silhouette h) were positioned on the non-buffered end of the variance continuum. Additional information (including standard errors of the elasticity estimates) is provided in Table S1. A posteriori , we quantified the impact of phylogenetic relatedness on the estimates of the sum of stochastic elasticities (Fig. 2), and then for the correlation between those estimates and the number of MPMs available per species. For the former, we estimated Blomberg's K, a measure of phylogenetic signal that ranges between 0 (weak signal) to positive values 1 (strong) (Münkemüller et al. 2012).Blomberg's K in our analyses was 0.23. The correlation between the number of available MPMs per study and the sum of stochastic elasticities (post jack-knifing) raised a weakly negative coefficient (-0.002), though significant (P = 0.017).

We found evidence in support of our hypothesis in only one of the studied species, the Columbian ground squirrel (Urocitellus columbianus). This species is placed near the buffered end of the variance continuum (Fig. 2, silhouette d) and its most impactful demographic process shows signs of concave selection. The strongly negative self-second derivative with respect to growth from first to the second stage (Fig. 3B, MPM element  $a_{2,1}$ ) indicates that  $a_{2,1}$  is both important, and at the same time, kept constant through time in this population of U. columbianus.

In humans, the support for our hypothesis was present, but weaker, as humans are placed further away from the buffered end of the variance continuum (Fig. 2, silhouette j). However, the demographic parameters representing growth from the first to second age class and growth from second to third age class (matrix elements  $a_{2,1}$  and  $a_{3,2}$ , respectively) displayed high elasticities alongside negative self-second derivatives (Fig. 3D), corroborating with demographically buffered population.

For the remaining studied species the demographic processes with the highest elasticity values did not display strong negative self-second derivatives (Fig. 3). Particularly for the majority of primates, placed on the buffered end of the variance continuum, demographic processes with high elasticities had positive values for the self-second derivatives (indicated by yellow squares with white dots in Figure 3). Examples of primate species exhibiting high elasticities and positive values for their self-second derivatives include northern muriqui (*Brachyteles hypoxanthus*), mountain gorilla (*Gorilla beringei*), white-faced capuchin monkey (*Cebus capucinus*), rhesus monkey (*Macaca mulatta*), blue monkey (*Cercopithecus mitis*), Verreaux's sifaka (*Propithecus verreauxi*) and olive baboon (*Papio cynocephalus*) (Fig. 3). This implies that the key demographic processes influencing  $\lambda_1$  do not show evidence of selective pressure for reducing their variability.

The killer whale (*Orcinus orca*) showed similar lack of support for our hypothesis as primates. Indeed, *O. orca* was positioned at the buffered end of the variance continuum (Cetacea,  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}} = -4.72 \times 10^{-4} \pm 1.53 \times 10^{-4}$ ) (Fig. 2 silhouette not shown). However, the first- and second-order effects show that the governing three demographic processes in the killer whale life cycle (namely, matrix elements  $a_{2,2}$ ,  $a_{3,3}$ , and  $a_{4,4}$ ) are not under selection pressures for reducing their temporal variance, but the opposite (yellow and green squares with white dots, Fig. 3).

The primary governing demographic process for Soay sheep (*Ovis aries*) displayed convex selection signatures. For *O. aries* (Fig. 2, silhouette i), remaining in the third age class (Fig. 3,  $a_{3,3}$ ,) impacts  $\lambda_{\tau}$  most and is under selection pressure to have its variance increased. These characteristics suggest potential conditions for lability, despite the species being positioned closer to the buffered end of the variance continuum.

Adding the second-order effect of variation on fitness to the toolbox for demographic buffering is an important addition. The high absolute values of self-second derivatives (large dots, either black or white, Fig. 3) suggest  $\lambda_{\tau}$  is sensitive to autororrelation in those demographic processes. This pattern also means that if, for example, the mean value of  $a_{5,4}$  for *U. maritimus* increased, the sensitivity of  $\lambda_{\tau}$  to  $a_{5,4}$  would decrease because the self-second derivative of  $a_{5,4}$  is highly negative (depicted by the largest black dot in polar bear, Fig. 3 silhouette j). The opposite holds for the  $a_{4,4}$ , where an increase in the value of  $a_{4,4}$  would increase the sensitivity of  $\lambda_{\tau}$  to  $a_{4,4}$ , because the self-second derivative of  $a_{4,4}$  is highly positive (the largest white dot in the polar bear MPM).

#### Discussion

We explore demographic buffering patterns through the integration of established demographic techniques. Our framework merges insights from both stochastic and deterministic demographic approaches, which revealed only limited support for our hypothesis. Specifically, we had anticipated that species exhibiting minimal influence from temporal variability in demographic processes on their stochastic growth rates would demonstrate concave selection affecting the demographic processes with the highest deterministic elasticities. However, using stochastic elasticities alongside the first- and second- order perturbation analysis of the deterministic population growth rate and applying these analyses to mammal species, we found that only the Columbian ground squirrel fully supported our hypothesis; humans showed partial support; other species did not.

Evidencing demographic buffering is not straightforward. Indeed, through the analysis of stochastic population growth rate ( $\lambda_{\rm S}$ ) in our application of the framework to 43 populations of 37 mammal species, we identify the highest density of natural populations near the buffered end of the variance continuum. However, we show that most of the species then fail to exhibit signs of concave ([?]-shaped) selection on impacting demographic parameters, opposed to our hypothesis. Such results suggest discordance between two features of demographic buffering, namely: 1) the stochastic population growth rate having a low sensitivity to temporal variability in demographic processes, and 2) demographic processes having their temporal variability reduced by selection.

The lack of association between the non-linear selection patterns (concave/convex) and species positioning on the variance continuum for the studied mammal species may have several explanations. Firstly, nonlinear selection on demographic process variability is *dynamic* (Kajin *et al.* 2023). Within a life cycle, even minor changes in key demographic processes can trigger a domino effect, affecting not only the process itself but also the sensitivity of $\lambda_1$  to changes in said process (Stearns 1992). Consequently, correlations between demographic processes (negative correlations known as trade-offs) are influenced by minor alterations in the governing demographic processes (Doak *et al.* 2005). Because of these characteristics, second-order derivatives reveal "fine scale" fitness behaviour compared to sums of stochastic elasticities. Evolutionary demography still requires new tools to connect second-order fitness effects with stochastic elasticities in a biologically interpretable manner similar as in Tuljapurkar *et al.* 2023.

The stochastic elasticities explicitly account for the demographic process variation in time, while the firstand second- order effects on fitness are obtained from temporally averaged population matrices. Because a mean environment rarely characterizes the natural variation in demographic process typical of stochastic environments (Boyce *et al.* 2006), any metric derived from averaged matrix population models represent only an averaged realisation and could only rarely be representative of a pattern emerged from explicitly accounting for temporal variation.

Our original assumptions regarding demographically buffered populations, however, remain valid. We assumed that: 1) a buffered population is one with a weak summed effect of temporal variability on the long-term stochastic population growth rate, and 2) if a population is buffered, there should be signs of concave selection acting on the demographic process with the highest deterministic elasticity. The lack of support for our hypothesis supports the idea that the patterns of first- and second-order effects of demographic process variation on fitness are dynamic and can change rapidly in natural environments. Even if a given demographic process is primarily governing the population growth rate in one year, a different one might take over next year (Evers *et al.* 2021).

When placing our study species along a variance continuum, primates tend to be located on the buffered end. However, most primates displayed convex – instead of the expected concave – selection on adult survival. Similar results, where the key demographic process failed to display reduced temporal variability, have been reported for long-lived seabirds (Doherty *et al.* 2004). One explanation for the unexpected convex selection on adult survival involves trade-offs, as suggested by (Doak *et al.* 2005). When two demographic parameters are negatively correlated, the variance of population growth rate can be increased or decreased (Compagnoni *et al.* 2016; Evans & Holsinger 2012).

Correlations among demographic processes (positive and negative) inherently influence the biological limits of variance (Haridas & Tuljapurkar 2005). This is because the magnitude of variation in a particular demographic process is restrained by the variation of other demographic processes. Not surprisingly, correlations among demographic processes have been shown to be strongly subjected to ecological factors (Fay *et al.* 2022). Therefore, future studies may benefit from deeper insights using *cross* -second derivatives (Caswell 1996, 2001) to investigate correlations among demographic processes.

Biological variance estimates are inevitably subjected to several sources of bias (Simmonds & Jones 2024). To minimise bias, we randomly sampled the available matrices before obtaining the estimates. Despite the significant correlation between  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$  and the number of available matrices per species, the relative positioning of species remains meaningful for between-population level comparisons, as the correlation is very weak (-0.002). Still, researchers carrying out macroecological comparisons of demographic buffering might want to be even more stringent than we have been here with their datasets, as these grow longer with time (Compagnoni et al. 2021; Salguero-Gómezet al. 2021).

Regarding phylogenetic effects, our tests revealed a mild signal, but we note that future work regressing  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$  values against potential independent variables (e.g., climate values) may want to correct for this phylogenetic dependence. By having carefully chosen studies from a database that contains >400 species and retained only those that passed through a set of selection criteria (Che-Castaldo *et al.* 2020; Gascoigne *et al.* 2023b; Kendall *et al.* 2019; Römer *et al.* 2024; Simmonds & Jones 2024), we mitigate those biases a priori . Furthermore, we are using an elasticity-based approach, meaning we are comparing proportional variances. At present, the available methods still do not account for constraints in variance nor performing a perturbation approach disproportionately.

The analyses at both between- and within-populations levels are fundamentally interconnected. This connection is grounded on the fact that large summed elasticities to variability are intrinsically linked to high elasticity values, as demonstrated in equation 6 in (Haridas & Tuljapurkar 2005). This finding robustly endorses the perspective that species' positions along the variance continuum should be interpreted with consideration of first and second-order effects, and additionally, in the context of selection pressures acting on the variability of demographic processes, as revealed by second-order derivatives.

Demographic processes within our study populations often face a mix of convex and concave selection. This mix of selection patterns was suggested by Doak et al. (2005), who noted that dramatic changes in population growth rate sensitivities are influenced by correlations among demographic processes. Here, only two of the 16 mammal species revealed concave selection on the key demographic processes: Columbian ground squirrel (*Urocitellus columbianus*), and humans (*Homo sapiens*). These two species were placed near (or relatively near) the buffered end of the variance continuum, supporting (partially) our hypothesis. Evidence of buffering has been reported across 22 ungulate species (Gaillard & Yoccoz 2003). However, in the one ungulate we examined, the moose (*Alces alces*), we found only partial support for our hypothesis, as it is near the buffered end of the variance continuum but lacks concave selection pressures on the most important demographic process.

Our overall findings reveal varying levels of support for the notion that adult survival in long-lived species tends to be buffered. Indeed, Gaillard et al. (1998) found that adult female survival varied considerably less

than juvenile survival in large herbivores. This finding was also supported by further studies in ungulates (Gaillard & Yoccoz 2003), turtles (Heppell 1998), vertebrates and plants (Pfister 1998), and more recently across nine species of plants (McDonald*et al.* 2017). Gaillard and Yoccoz (2003) reported unexpectedly high adult survival in small mammals, even though the studied small mammals were annual, and as such, comparable to large mammal model. Seasonality, frequency and method of sampling all influence survival estimates and their estimated variability, thus, when comparing multiple species/studies, all the latter characteristics should be taken into account when interpreting the results.

Examining the drivers of demographic buffering has become an important piece of the ecological and evolutionary puzzle of demography. As such, understanding buffering can help us better predict population responses to environmental variability, climate change, and direct anthropogenic disturbances (Boyce *et al.* 2006; Gascoigne *et al.* 2024a; McDonald *et al.* 2017; Pfister 1998; Vázquez *et al.* 2017). By setting demographic buffering into a broader and more integrated frameworks, we hope to enhance comprehension and prediction of the implications of heightened environmental stochasticity on the evolution of life history traits. This understanding is crucial in mitigating the risk of extinction for the most vulnerable species.

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**Data availability** The demographic data used in this paper are open-access and available in the COMADRE Animal Matrix Database (https://compadre-db.org/Data/Comadre). A list of the studies and species used here is available in Supplementary Material (Table S1). The data and code supporting the results can be accessed here: https://github.com/SamuelGascoigne/Demographic\_buffering\_

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#### Figure 1







Figure 3



#### Figure legends

**Figure 1**. A) The variance continuum for 37 hypothetical species based on the summed stochastic elasticities  $(\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}})$  at the between populations hierarchical level. The closer the  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$  is to zero, the weaker the impact of variation in demographic processes on the stochastic population growth rate,  $\lambda_{\varsigma}$ . The variance continuum ranges from potentially buffered (right-hand side) to less buffered (left-hand side) populations. The yellow-dotted populations can be classified as having potentially *buffered life cycles*. The left-hand side of the graph represents populations where variability in demographic processes results in strong impact on $\lambda_{\varsigma}$  (blue dots). Thus, the blue-dotted populations can be classified as having potentially *unbuffered life cycles*. The vertical axis delineates the values of the probability density function, indicating the frequency of populations at each value of  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$ . The placement of data points (species/populations) along the horizontal axis corresponds

to their calculated values of  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$  and is arranged linearly, while the placement along the y-axis is random for improved visual comprehension. B) First-order effects or elasticities for separate populations at withinspecies level. Shown are the elasticities of the deterministic population growth rate ( $\lambda_I$ ) for a hypothetical population of wolves and revealing the most important demographic process(es) in the life cycle (yellow cells: high elasticity, blue cells: low elasticity). C) Combined results for first- (yellow and blue cells) and secondorder effects (black dots), where the latter reveals the nonlinear selection pressures at the within-species level.

Figure 2. The variance continuum for 43 populations from 37 species of mammals from the COMADRE database based on the summed stochastic elasticities of  $\lambda_{\varsigma}$  to temporal variability in demographic processes  $(\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}})$  at the between-populations hierarchical level. Colors represent different taxonomic orders with Primates occupying the right-hand side. Silhouettes: a) *Brachyteles hyphoxantus*, b) *Gorilla beringhei*, c) *Cercopithecus mitis*, d) *Urocitellus columbianus*, e) *Mustela erminea*, f) *Erythrocebus patas*, g) *Lepus americanus*, h) *Rattus fuscipes*, i) *Ovis aries*, j)*Homo sapiens*, k) *Macropus eugenii*, and l) *Felis catus*. The vertical axis delineates the values of the probability density function, indicating the frequency of populations at each value of  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$ . The placement of data points (species/populations) along the horizontal axis corresponds to their calculated values of  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$  and is arranged linearly, while the placement along the y-axis is random for improved visual comprehension.

Figure 3: First- and second-order effects on population growth rate,  $\lambda_1$  (corresponding to elasticities and self-second derivatives of population growth rate, respectively) for 16 mammal species. The 16 plots represent populations where the MPMs built by ages were available in the COMADRE Animal Matrix Database. The yellow-blue colour scale represents elasticity values for each of the demographic processes in the MPM, where yellow cells represent high and blue cells low elasticity of deterministic population growth rate to changes in demographic processes. No colour means elasticity=0. The black dots represent negative self-second derivatives of  $\lambda_1$  - corresponding to concave selection - and the white dots represent positive self-second derivatives, where the smaller the dot, the closer a self-second derivative is to 0, indicating weak or no nonlinearity. Thus, large dots indicate strong nonlinear selection forces, either concave (black) or convex (white). Since the derivatives of population growth rate are confounded by eigen-structure (Kroon *et al.* 2000), the scaling of the elasticity values and second-derivative values is species specific - *i.e.*, each plot has its own scale. Species-specific scales can be found in Supplementary material (Table S2).

#### BOX 1:

The demographic buffering hypothesis : Stemming from Tuljapurkar's approximation (Tuljapurkar 1982), Pfister (1998) showed that the penalisation term representing the variance-covariance structure, tends to be reduced when elasticities of demographic processes and their coefficients of variation covary negatively. *However, the term demographic buffering was only coined later* (*sensu* Morris & Doak 2004). The demographic buffering hypothesis is also referred to as "adaptive buffering" (*sensu* Le Coeur et al. 2022), suggesting that *selection* acts to minimize the negative impacts of environmental variation by reducing the temporal variance of key demographic processes (*e.g.*, survival, development, reproduction) that have the highest sensitivity/elasticity to population growth rate, a fitness proxy (Gaillard & Yoccoz 2003; Pfister 1998).

**Demographic buffering** is a broader concept than the demographic buffering hypothesis; it refers to a population's capacity to withstand environmental variability by keeping essential demographic processes stable over time (Gascoigne *et al.* 2024a, b; Hilde *et al.* 2020; Morris & Doak 2004; Pfister 1998). It is worth noting that this term does not explicit allude to the evolutionary mechanisms that include selection, which are predicted by the demographic buffering hypothesis (Le Coeur *et al.* 2022).

**Demographic lability** : A population's ability to accommodate fluctuations in demographic processes in response to temporal variations in environmental conditions (Le Coeur *et al.* 2022; Jäkäläniemi*et al.* 2013; Koons *et al.* 2009). The relationship between the labile demographic process and the environment can be

convex, concave, or linear. A labile vital rate in a variable environment will have an average value that is greater than, less than, or equal to the vital rate estimated in the mean environment, depending on the shape of the relationship. Similar as for the demographic buffering hypothesis, the demographic lability hypothesis relies on *selection* for demographic process to track environmental fluctuations in a way that increases the long-term fitness ( $\lambda_{\varsigma}$ ). This process occurs when the increase in demographic process mean — due to convexity — overcomes the detrimental effect of temporal variance in annual population growth rates (Le Coeur *et al.* 2022).

**Sensitivity**: Represented by a first-order partial derivative of population growth rate with respect to each demographic process (Caswell 1978, 2001; Ebert 1999), sensitivity measures the absolute change in fitness that a change in a demographic process would cause.

**Elasticity**: Proportional sensitivity. A measure of proportional change in fitness caused by a proportional change in demographic process. Elasticities can be of different types (Grant *et al.* 2007; Haridas *et al.* 2009; Haridas & Tuljapurkar 2005, 2007; de Kroon *et al.* 1986; Kroon *et al.* 2000; Van Tienderen 2000; Tuljapurkar *et al.* 2003) and with respect to both, the stochastic and the deterministic population growth rates.

**Tuljapurkar's approximation**: To overcome dealing with complex probability distributions that describe demographic fluctuations through time, the approximation captures the essence of the effect of temporal variability, at least for small amounts of variability (*i.e.* small noise). It states that the logarithm of the long-term stochastic population growth rate equals the geometric mean growth rate plus a penalty term containing the demographic process variance-covariance structure (Tuljapurkar 1982).

# Supplementary material – Data available in COMADRE Version 3.0.0 and results from Step 1 of the framework

**Table S1.** The metadata used and the respective results presented in the main text. The first four columns represent the information from where Matrix Populations Models (MPMs) were extract precisely as presented in COMADRE 3.0.0.

Species	Common name	Species (COMADRE)	Order
Homo sapiens sapiens	Human	Homo_sapiens_subspsapiens	Primat
Alces alces	Moose	Alces_alces	Artiod
Antechinus agilis	Agile antechinus	Antechinus_agilis	Dasyu
Bos primigenius	Cattle	Bos_primigenius	Artiod
Brachyteles hypoxanthus	Northern muriqui	Brachyteles_hypoxanthus	Primat
Callospermophilus lateralis	Golden-mantled ground squirrel	Callospermophilus_lateralis	Rodent
Cebus capucinus	White faced capuchin monkey	Cebus_capucinus	Primat
Cercopithecus mitis	Blue monkey	Cercopithecus_mitis	Primat
Cervus canadensis subsp. nelsoni	Rocky Mountain elk	Cervus_canadensis_subspnelsoni	Artiod
Eumetopias jubatus	Northern sea lion; Steller sea lion	Eumetopias_jubatus	Carniv
Felis catus	Feral cat	Felis_catus	Carniv
Gorilla beringei	Mountain gorilla	Gorilla_beringei	Primat
Hippocamelus bisulcus	Huemul deer	Hippocamelus_bisulcus	Artiod
Leopardus pardalis	Ocelot	Leopardus_pardalis	Carniv
Lepus americanus	Snowshoe hare	Lepus_americanus	Lagom
Lycaon pictus	African wild dog	Lycaon_pictus	Carniv
Macaca mulatta	Rhesus macaque	Macaca_mulatta_3	Primat
Macropus eugenii	Tammar wallaby	Macropus_eugenii	Diprot
Marmota flaviventris	Yellow-bellied marmot	Marmota_flaviventris_2	Rodent
Marmota flaviventris	Yellow-bellied marmot	Marmota_flaviventris_3	Rodent
Microtus oeconomus	Root vole	Microtus_oeconomus	Rodent
Mustela erminea	Stoat	Mustela_erminea	Carniv

Orcinus orca	Killer whale	Orcinus_orca_2	Cetace
Ovis aries	Soay sheep	Ovis_aries_2	Artiod
Pan troglodytes subsp. schweinfurthii	Eastern chimpanzee	Pan_troglodytes_subspschweinfurthii	Primat
Papio cynocephalus	Olive baboon	Papio_cynocephalus	Primat
Peromyscus maniculatus Deer mouse Peromyscus_max		Peromyscus_maniculatus_2	Rodent
Phascolarctos cinereus	Koala	Phascolarctos_cinereus_2	Diprote
Phocarctos hookeri	New Zealand sea lion	Phocarctos_hookeri	Carniv
Propithecus verreauxi	Verreaux's sifaka	Propithecus_verreauxi	Primat
Rattus fuscipes	Bush rat	Rattus_fuscipes	Rodent
Urocitellus armatus	Uinta ground squirrel	Spermophilus_armatus	Rodent
Urocitellus armatus	Uinta ground squirrel	Spermophilus_armatus_2	Rodent
Urocitellus columbianus	Columbian ground squirrel	$Spermophilus\_columbianus$	Rodent
Urocitellus columbianus	Columbian ground squirrel	Spermophilus_columbianus_3	Rodent
Ursus americanus subsp. floridanus	Florida black bear	Ursus_americanus_subspfloridanus	Carniv
Ursus arctos subsp. horribilis	Grizzly bear	Ursus_arctos_subsphorribilis_5	Carniv
Ursus maritimus	Polar bear	Ursus_maritimus_2	Carniv
Brachyteles hypoxanthus	Northern muriqui	Brachyteles_hypoxanthus_2	Primat
Cebus capucinus	White-faced capuchin monkey	Cebus_capucinus_2	Primat
Chlorocebus aethiops	Vervet	Chlorocebus_aethiops_2	Primat
Erythrocebus patas	Patas monkey	Erythrocebus_patas	Primat
Gorilla beringei subsp. beringei	Mountain gorilla	Gorilla_beringei_subspberingei	Primat

Table S2. The species-specific scales for the elasticity of  $\lambda_1$  to changes in demographic processes and for the self-second derivatives of  $\lambda_1$  with respect to demographic processes for the 16 mammal species studied.

Figure 3 reference	Species common name	$E_{\min}$ =elasticity minimum value	$E_{max}$ =elasticity maximum value	S
А	Blue monkey	0	0.52	-
В	Columbian ground squirrel	0	0.23	-
$\mathbf{C}$	Eastern chimpanzee	0	0.60	-
D	Human	0	0.18	-
E	Killer whale	0	0.55	-
F	Moose	0	0.55	-
G	Mountain gorilla	0	0.81	-
Н	Northern muriqui	0	0.72	-
Ι	Olive baboon	0	0.54	_
J	Polar bear	0	0.26	-
Κ	Rhesus macaque	0	0.51	-
L	Root vole	0	0.86	-
М	Soay sheep	0	0.56	_
Ν	Tammar wallaby	0	0.55	_
0	Verreaux's sifaka	0	0.60	-
Р	White faced capuchin monkey	0	0.66	-

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Santos Gascoigne\_Towards a unified framework for buffering \_FINAL\_TRACKED.docx available at https://authorea.com/users/640983/articles/1247163-demographic-buffering-in-natural-populations-multi-level-perspective

1 2	Towards an integrated framework for evidencing demographic buffering in natural populations
3 4	A manuscript in preparation for submission to ECOLOGY LETTERS Type of article: METHOD
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### 50 **Abstract** (146/150 words)

51 The demographic buffering hypothesis predicts that natural selection reduces the temporal 52 fluctuations in demographic processes (survival, development, and reproduction) due to their 53 negative impacts of temporal variation on population dynamics. However, evidencing 54 buffering patterns at different hierarchical levels – between and within populations – and 55 understanding how selection shapes those patterns, remains a challenge in Ecology and 56 Evolution. Here, we introduce a framework that allows for the evidencing of demographic 57 buffering between and within populations. The framework uses the sum of stochastic 58 elasticities for between-populations comparisons along with first- and second-order effects of 59 demographic process variability on fitness for within-population comparisons. We apply this 60 framework to 43 populations of 37 mammal species to test the hypothesis that buffered 61 species are under strong concave selection pressures. Using our framework, we show that demographically buffered species do not necessarily have strong concave selection pressures 62 63 in their most impactful demographic processes.

64

66 Environmental stochasticity shapes organisms' life histories (Bonsall & Klug 2011; Stearns 67 1992; Tuljapurkar 1990, 2010). Nonetheless, how organisms will cope with the changing 68 variation in environmental conditions (Bathiany et al. 2018; Boyce et al. 2006; Morris et al. 69 2008) remains an intriguing ecological and evolutionary question (Sutherland et al. 2013). 70 Evolutionary demography provides diverse explanations for how evolutionary processes 71 shape demographic responses to environmental stochasticity (Charlesworth 1994; Healy et al. 72 2019; Hilde et al. 2020; Pfister 1998; Tuljapurkar et al. 2009). The long-term stochastic 73 population growth rate ( $\lambda_s$ ) representing the geometric mean of population growth rates over 74 time ( $\lambda_t$ ; Tuljapurkar 1982), forms the basis of the Demographic Buffering Hypothesis 75 (Morris & Doak 2004; Pélabon et al. 2020). 76 Increasing the geometric mean of  $\lambda_t$  over time corresponds to a rise in the long-term 77 stochastic population growth rate. Conversely, higher variance in  $\lambda_t$  reduces  $\lambda_s$  (Morris & 78 Doak 2004; Tuljapurkar 1982), impacting population persistence (Lefèvre et al. 2016). The 79 demographic buffering hypothesis (Pfister 1998) suggests life histories are selected to

80 minimize the negative impacts of environmental variation by constraining the temporal variance of key demographic processes (e.g., survival, development, reproduction) that have 81 82 the highest sensitivity/elasticity to population growth rate, a fitness proxy (Gaillard & Yoccoz 2003; Pfister 1998). Demographic buffering describes the selection-driven constraint on the 83 84 temporal variance of these key demographic processes (Gascoigne et al. 2024a, b; Hilde et al. 85 2020; Morris & Doak 2004; Pfister 1998). Here, we focus on the emerging patterns of 86 demographic buffering in different animal life histories rather than on the demographic 87 buffering hypothesis itself.

An integrative approach to evidence demographic buffering is still missing. Indeed, identifying demographic buffering remains challenging (Doak *et al.* 2005; Morris & Doak 2004) for several reasons, one of them being different interpretations of results from

91 correlational analyses, as in Pfister (1998) and Hilde et al. (2020). Some authors rank species' 92 life histories on a continuum from buffered to labile using the correlation coefficient 93 (Spearman's correlation  $\rho$ ) between the impact of demographic processes on the population 94 growth rate and the temporal variance of said demographic processes (McDonald et al. 2017; 95 Salguero-Gómez 2021). There, negative correlation coefficient values indicate buffering. 96 Alternatively, the absence of statistical support for buffering may suggest a preference for 97 demographic variance to track environmental conditions, a phenomenon supported by the 98 Demographic Lability Hypothesis (Drake 2005; Hilde et al. 2020; Jäkäläniemi et al. 2013; 99 Koons et al. 2009; Reed & Slade 2012). However, increased variability alone is not enough 100 to constitute demographic lability; it must also result in significant changes in the mean value 101 of the demographic process (Le Coeur et al. 2022).

102 Another obstacle to generalising a measure of demographic buffering across 103 populations and species is the targeted hierarchical level of examination. Some studies focus 104 on characteristics drawn from the entire population model (McDonald et al. 2017; Reed & 105 Slade 2012). At this between-populations level (hereafter), a life history is considered 106 demographically buffered if the governing demographic processes have low temporal 107 variance (Le Coeur et al. 2022; Hilde et al. 2020; Morris & Doak 2004; Pfister 1998). 108 However, to fully grasp how and why demographic buffering occurs, and how patterns might 109 change in response to the environment, we must also consider characteristics within an 110 individual population model (within-populations level hereafter). Within a population, one 111 demographic process may be buffered against climatic variability while another may be labile 112 (Barraquand & Yoccoz 2013; Jongejans et al. 2010; Koons et al. 2009). Furthermore, even if 113 a given demographic process is primarily governing the population growth rate in one year, a different one might take over next year (Evers et al. 2021). Despite the relevance of within-114 115 and between-populations level processes, thus far studies have focused on evidencing

116 demographic buffering at the within- and between-population levels separately. To integrate 117 these two levels of analysis, here we investigate demographic buffering signatures together.

118 To examine demographic buffering at the between-populations level, we use the 119 summed effect of the variability of all demographic processes on the population growth rate. 120 A weak summed effect means that the population growth rate is relatively unaffected by the 121 variability in demographic processes (Haridas & Tuljapurkar 2005), and this lack of effect by 122 demographic process variability is consistent with demographic buffering. As such, a 123 summed effect of variability offers a good proxy to evidence demographic buffering 124 (Gascoigne et al. 2024b; Haridas & Tuljapurkar 2005) and enables the classification of 125 populations along a continuum. The within-populations level requires a separate approach. 126 Thus, there we use the relative contribution of each demographic process and how variability 127 in the governing demographic process(es) affects the population growth rate (e.g., Caswell 128 1978, 1996, 2001; Ebert 1999; de Kroon et al. 1986). Importantly, by exploring the governing 129 demographic processes, we also investigate how natural selection affects them (e.g., Caswell 130 1996; Shyu & Caswell 2014). Understanding the interplay between demographic variability 131 and natural selection thus not only elucidates population dynamics but also provides insight 132 into the evolutionary pressures shaping the life-history strategies (Charlesworth 1994;

133 Salguero-Gómez 2024; Sanghvi et al. 2024).

A powerful approach to reveal the role of natural selection acting on the variability of demographic processes is through measuring a first and second order effect on population growth rate (Carslake *et al.* 2008). First-order effects of demographic processes on population growth rate, such as elasticities, show how *variation* in demographic processes affects population growth rate, and relies on the *linear* relation between demographic processes and the growth rate. A second-order effect, on the other hand, reveals the sensitivity of population growth rate to temporal *autocorrelation* in variable environments (Tuljapurkar 1990), and

identifies where demographic processes have a *nonlinear* effect on population growth rate.
Combining both approaches into a single framework consolidates our understanding of
fitness behaviour near local maxima and minima, among other advantages discussed below.
This approach and has started to pave its way into Ecology (Kajin *et al.* 2023; Tuljapurkar *et al.* 2023).

146 Here, we propose that an additional metric to examine demographic buffering: the 147 second-order effect of demographic process variation on population growth rate. We show 148 that each hierarchical level is best studied with a different method. Moreover, we hypothesise 149 that buffered species, those where perturbing the variance of demographic processes has little 150 impact on their fitness, are under strong concave selection pressures (*i.e.*, the force that aims 151 to diminish temporal variance of a trait, sensu Shyu & Caswell 2014) on the governing 152 demographic processes. Indeed, the summed effect of demographic process variability on 153 population growth rate and elasticities are related (Haridas & Tuljapurkar 2005). Concave 154 selection pressures favour traits that contribute to reducing temporal variance, thereby 155 enhancing population stability and resilience in the face of environmental volatility. We 156 discuss the validity of our hypothesis and demonstrate the applicability and advantages of our 157 framework by testing it with 43 populations of 37 mammal species.

158

## 159 Towards an integrated framework to assess evidence of demographic buffering

160 Current evidence for demographic buffering has primarily been assessed using Matrix

161 Population Models (MPMs) (Pfister 1998; Rotella et al. 2012). However, Integral Projection

- 162 Models (*IPMs*) (Easterling *et al.* 2000; Ellner *et al.* 2016; Gascoigne *et al.* 2023a, 2024b;
- 163 Rodríguez-Caro et al. 2021; Wang et al. 2023) can also identify demographic buffering.
- 164 MPMs and IPMs are structured, discrete-time demographic models (Caswell 2001; Ellner et
- 165 *al.* 2016). For simplicity, here we focus on MPMs, but the same approaches apply to IPMs

(Doak *et al.* 2021; Griffith 2017). We refer to demographic processes as MPM *A* entries *a<sub>ij</sub>*(*i.e.*, upper-level parameters *sensu* Zuidema & Franco 2001) and the vital rates composing the

168 matrix elements (*i.e.*, lower-level parameters, *ditto*). The conversion between matrix elements

and vital rates is straightforward (Franco & Silvertown 2004).

170 We first place species on a variance continuum. The variance continuum represents

171 the summed effects of proportional increases in temporal variance across all demographic

172 processes  $(a_{ij})$  of the MPM A on the population growth rate  $\lambda_s$ , operating at the *between*-

173 populations level. It is based on partitioning the sum of all the stochastic elasticities ( $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^S$ )

174 into two components: i) the sum of stochastic elasticities with respect to the variance  $(\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}})$ ,

175 which assesses how variability in  $a_{ij}$  affects  $\lambda_s$ , and ii) the sum of stochastic elasticities with

176 respect to the arithmetic mean of demographic processes ( $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\mu}}$ ), which evaluates the impact

177 of a change in mean values of demographic processes on  $\lambda_s$  (Haridas & Tuljapurkar 2005).

178 The equal perturbation of both  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S}$  components assumes that the CV of demographic

179 processes remains constant (Haridas & Tuljapurkar 2005). Higher absolute value of  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$ 

180 indicates greater sensitivity of  $\lambda_s$  to demographic process variability, suggesting the absence

181 of demographic buffering. Conversely, lower  $\Sigma E_{a_{ii}}^{S^{\sigma}}$  values support the demographic buffering

182 hypothesis, with  $\lambda_s$  being is less sensitive to variability (Haridas & Tuljapurkar 2005;

183 Tuljapurkar et al. 2003) (Fig. 1A).

184 Species or populations are positioned along the variance continuum based on the 185 impact of variance on the stochastic population growth rate. Species highly sensitive to 186 environmental variability are on the left (potentially unbuffered<sup>1</sup>), while species less sensitive

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Unconstrained variance does not necessarily imply demographic lability, defined as an increase in *mean value* of a demographic process in response to improved environmental conditions (Le Coeur *et al.* 2022). By examining stochastic elasticities, we can assess changes in the contribution of demographic process variance to  $\lambda_s$ , while mean values remain unchanged.

187 are on the right (potentially buffered) end (Fig. 1A). We expect buffered species to exhibit concave selection signatures. Although the position on the continuum provides insight into 188 how environmental variation affects  $\lambda_s$ ,  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{s^{\sigma}}$  does not consider covariances between 189 demographic processes and serial correlations, crucial for fully diagnosing buffering (Haridas 190 191 & Tuljapurkar 2005). Thus, species' position at the buffered end of the variance continuum is 192 a necessary but not sufficient condition for evidence of demographic buffering. To address 193 this second criterion, we use second derivatives of population growth rate with respect to 194 demographic processes to elucidate the impact of selection on variance (below).

195 Next, we delve into within-population level by calculating the partial derivatives of  $\lambda_1$ 196 (obtained by averaging sequential MPMs across the study duration) concerning all matrix 197 elements  $a_{ij}$  of the MPM *A* (Fig. 1B). This step reveals a first-order effect on fitness – how 198 each demographic process influences  $\lambda_1$ . We then evaluate nonlinear selection patterns using 199 self-second derivatives of  $\lambda_1$  for each  $a_{ij}$  (Fig. 1C), revealing potential nonlinear selection 200 pressures (Brodie *et al.* 1995). Failure to consider these evolutionary processes may lead to 201 misinterpretation of patterns (*e.g.*, Lawler et al. 2009).

202 First- and second-order effects on fitness show average selection pressures over time. 203 Self-second derivatives of population growth rate with respect to demographic processes 204 measure second-order effects (Carslake et al. 2008; Caswell 2001; Kajin et al. 2023; Shyu & 205 Caswell 2014; Tuljapurkar et al. 2023). Linear fitness relationships (zero self-second 206 derivatives) mean selection changes mean demographic values, not variance (Shyu & 207 Caswell 2014). Nonzero self-second derivatives indicate nonlinear relationships between 208 fitness and a demographic process, revealing additional aspects of selection on the variances 209 and covariances of demographic processes (Brodie et al. 1995; Carslake et al. 2008; Shyu & 210 Caswell 2014). Interpreting both first- and second-order effects offers insights into population 211 placement on the variance continuum.

212	The sign $(>0, =0, <0)$ of the self-second derivatives determines the selection type.
213	Negative values (concave selection, ∩-shaped) reduce temporal variance, providing evidence
214	of buffering (Caswell 1996, 2001; Shyu & Caswell 2014). Positive values (convex selection,
215	U-shaped) indicate amplified variance, revealing a lack of selection constraints on
216	demographic variance (Bruijning et al. 2020; Caswell 1996, 2001; Le Coeur et al. 2022;
217	Koons et al. 2009; Shyu & Caswell 2014; Vinton et al. 2022).
218	Following the above steps allows evidencing demographic buffering at the between-
219	and within-populations levels. The joint interpretation of first- and second-order effects
220	offers insights into why a population is on either end of the variance continuum. Evidence
221	supporting buffering includes:
222	1. A population positioned near the 0 end of the $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$ continuum.
223	2. Identifying the demographic processes with highest elasticity values within the
224	life cycle.
225	3. The same processes from (2) associated with negative self-second derivatives,
226	indicating concave selection.
227	Figure 1B shows that, for an imaginary wolf population, the governing demographic process
228	is the fourth stage stasis (MPM element $a_{4,4}$ ), with the highest elasticity value (Fig. 1B yellow
229	square). However, Figure 1C reveals little selection on $a_{4,4}$ for variance reduction. Hence,
230	there is no concave selection on $a_{4,4}$ , explaining the positioning on the left-side variance
231	continuum (Fig. 1A).
232	Although not our primary goal, we briefly introduce steps to evidence demographic
233	lability. Compelling lability evidence requires sufficient data across environments [over time
234	or space; but see Perret et al. (2024)] to construct reaction norms depicting demographic
235	responses to environmental changes (Drake 2005; Koons et al. 2009; Morris et al. 2008).
236	Non-linear relationships between demographic processes and the environment must be

237 established based on the reaction norms. Demographic processes where an increase in the 238 mean value has a stronger positive impact on population growth rate than the detrimental 239 effect of increased variance need to be identified. The latter condition is only met when the 240 process-environment reaction norms are convex (Drake 2005, Koons et al. 2009, Morris et al. 241 2008) – but see Barraquand & Yoccoz (2013) for an alternative result. Importantly, species 242 may not be purely buffered or labile some processes may be buffered, others labile, and 243 others insensitive to environmental variability (e.g., Doak et al. 2005). Deciphering these 244 patterns is a primary research interest in the field.

245

# 246 Demographic buffering in mammals: A case study

247 Here, we examine the performance of our framework and test our hypothesis, that is that 248 species at the buffered end of the variance continuum display highly negative self-second 249 derivatives for the governing demographic processes. We use 43 MPMs from 37 mammal 250 species (16 species at the within-populations level). Mammals are of special interest in the 251 context of demographic buffering for two reasons: (1) mammalian life histories have been 252 well studied (Beccari et al. 2024; Bielby et al. 2007; Gillespie 1977; Jones 2011; Stearns 253 1983) and (2) some of their populations have already been assessed in terms of demographic buffering, particularly for primates (Campos et al. 2017; Morris et al. 2008, 2011; Reed & 254 255 Slade 2012; Rotella et al. 2012). Together, the well-studied life histories and previous 256 information about the occurrence of buffering in mammals allow us to make accurate 257 predictions and validate the performance of our framework. 258 We used MPMs (Caswell 2001) from 43 out of 139 studies with mammals available 259 in the COMADRE Animal Matrix Database v.3.0.0 (Salguero-Gómez et al. 2016). These 43 260 populations encompass 37 species from eight taxonomic orders. We carefully selected these

261 MPMs in our analyses because their models contain values of demographic processes  $(a_{ij})$ 

262 for three or more contiguous time periods, thus allowing us to obtain the stochastic elasticity of each  $a_{ii}$ . Although we are aware that not all possible temporal variation in demographic 263 264 processes may have been expressed within this period, we assumed three or more transitions 265 are enough to provide sufficient variation for population comparison (Compagnoni et al. 266 2023). To mitigate bias in variance estimates, we randomly extracted three MPMs from the 267 existing data for each species (Supplementary Material, Table S1), calculated the mean of these three MPMs, and repeated this process 50 times to obtain estimates of  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$  and their 268 corresponding standard errors. A detailed description of the analysed data and their original 269 270 sources are detailed in Table S1. Finally, we included MPMs of Homo sapiens to cross-check 271 our estimates of second-order derivatives, as it is the only mammalian species where these 272 have been calculated (Caswell 1996). The data for H. sapiens were gathered from 26 modern populations (Keyfitz & Flieger 1990). 273 274 At the within-populations level, we used a subset of 16 populations (including H. 275 sapiens) whose MPMs were age-based. We specifically selected these populations because 276 their life cycles can be summarised by two main demographic processes: survival and 277 contribution to the recruitment of new individuals (Caswell 2010; Ebert 1999). To quantify the variance continuum and calculate  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$  for between-populations level 278 comparisons, we followed Tuljapurkar et al. (2003) and Haridas & Tuljapurkar (2005). Next, 279 280 at the within-populations level, we calculated the deterministic elasticities to each 281 demographic process using the popbio package (Stubben et al. 2020). The self-second 282 derivatives were adapted from *demogR* (Jones 2007) following (Caswell 1996) and applied to 283 the mean MPM of each study. All analyses were performed using R version 4.4.1 (R Core 284 Team 2024). 285 Results

286 We ranked 43 populations from the 37 identified mammal species into a variance continuum according to the cumulative impact of variation in demographic processes on  $\lambda_s$  (Fig. 2). Most 287 288 of the analysed taxonomic orders were placed on the low or zero variance end of the variance 289 continuum (Fig. 2), corroborating with demographically buffered populations. The smallest contributions of variation in demographic processes (note that  $\Sigma E_{a_{ii}}^{S^{\sigma}}$  ranges from 0 to -1), 290 291 suggesting buffered populations, were assigned to Primates: northern muriqui (Brachyteles hyphoxantus,  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}} = -5.31 \times 10^{-5} \pm 2.09 \times 10^{-5}$ ) (mean  $\pm$  S.E.) (Fig. 2 silhouette a), mountain 292 gorilla (*Gorilla beringei*,  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}} = -1.28 \times 10^{-5} \pm 1.32 \times 10^{-5}$ ) (Fig. 2 silhouette b), followed by 293 the blue monkey (*Cercopithecus mitis*,  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}} = -4.43 \times 10^{-5} \pm 1.18 \times 10^{-5}$ ) (Fig. 2 silhouette 294 295 c). The first non-primate species placed near the buffered end of the continuum was the Columbian ground squirrel (*Urocitellus columbianus*, Rodentia,  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}} = -3.38 \times 10^{-3} \pm 6.96 \times 10^{-3} \times 10^{-3} \pm 6.96 \times 10^{-3} \times 10^{-$ 296 297 10<sup>-4</sup>) (Fig. 2 silhouette d). On the other opposite, the species with the highest contribution of variation in demographic processes - placed at the high-variance end of the continuum -298 was the stoat (*Mustela erminea*, Carnivora,  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}} = -0.310 \pm 0.0162$ ) (Fig. 2 silhouette e). All 299 300 the 14 primate populations occupied the buffered side of the variance continuum, with the exception of the Patas monkey (*Erythrocebus patas*, Primates,  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}} = -0.0521 \pm 5.38 \times 10^{-3}$ ) 301 (Fig. 2 silhouette f). The snowshoe hare (*Lepus americanus*, Lagomorpha,  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}} = -0.262 \pm$ 302 0.0233) (Fig. 2 silhouette g) and the Bush rat (*Rattus fuscipes*, Rodentia,  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}} = -0.245 \pm$ 303  $4.29 \times 10^{-3}$ ) (Fig. 2 silhouette h) were positioned on the non-buffered end of the variance 304 continuum. Additional information (including standard errors of the elasticity estimates) is 305 306 provided in Table S1. A posteriori, we quantified the impact of phylogenetic relatedness on 307 the estimates of the sum of stochastic elasticities (Fig. 2), and then for the correlation between those estimates and the number of MPMs available per species. For the former, we 308 estimated Blomberg's K, a measure of phylogenetic signal that ranges between 0 (weak 309

signal) to positive values 1 (strong) (Münkemüller *et al.* 2012). Blomberg's K in our analyses was 0.23. The correlation between the number of available MPMs per study and the sum of stochastic elasticities (post jack-knifing) raised a weakly negative coefficient (-0.002), though significant (P = 0.017).

314 We found little evidence in support of our hypothesis. Specifically, the demographic 315 processes with the highest elasticity values failed to display strong negative self-second 316 derivatives (Fig. 3). Particularly for the majority of primates, demographic processes with 317 high elasticities had positive values for the self-second derivatives (indicated by yellow 318 squares with white dots in Figure 3). Examples of primate species exhibiting high elasticities 319 and positive values for their self-second derivatives include northern muriqui (Brachyteles 320 hypoxanthus), mountain gorilla (Gorilla beringei), white-faced capuchin monkey (Cebus 321 capucinus), rhesus monkey (Macaca mulatta), blue monkey (Cercopithecus mitis), 322 Verreaux's sifaka (Propithecus verreauxi) and olive baboon (Papio cynocephalus) (Fig. 3). 323 This implies that the key demographic processes influencing  $\lambda_l$  do not show evidence of

# 324 selective pressure for reducing their variability.

The killer whale (*Orcinus orca*) showed similar lack of support for our hypothesis as primates. Indeed, *O. orca* was positioned at the buffered end of the variance continuum (Cetacea,  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}} = -4.72 \times 10^{-4} \pm 1.53 \times 10^{-4}$ ) (Fig. 2 silhouette not shown). However, the firstand second-order effects show that the governing three demographic processes in the killer whale life cycle (namely, matrix elements  $a_{2,2}$ ,  $a_{3,3}$ , and  $a_{4,4}$ ) are not under selection pressures for reducing their temporal variance, but the opposite (yellow and green squares with white dots, Fig. 3).

Only two species supported our hypothesis: humans and the Columbian ground
squirrel (*Urocitellus columbianus*). In humans, demographic parameters representing survival
from the first to second age class (matrix element *a*<sub>2,1</sub>) displayed high elasticities and negative

335 self-second derivatives (depicted as yellow squares with black dots in Fig. 3). In U. 336 *columbianus*, survival from the first to the second age class  $(a_{2,1})$  too showed evidence of 337 selection reducing the variance of this demographic process. Accordingly, U. columbianus 338 was positioned near the buffered end of the variance continuum, providing consistent 339 evidence supporting our hypothesis by displaying first- and second-order effects indicative of 340 temporal variance reduction in the key demographic process. Conversely, the primary 341 governing demographic process for Soay sheep (Ovis aries) displayed convex selection signatures. For O. aries (Fig. 2, silhouette i), remaining in the third age class (a<sub>3,3</sub>, Fig. 3) 342 343 governs the influence on  $\lambda_t$  and is under selection pressure to have its variance increased. 344 These characteristics suggest potential conditions for lability, despite the species being 345 positioned closer to the buffered end of the variance continuum.

The first- and second-order effects illustrate the importance of examining buffering evidence at the within-populations level. These effects can identify the simultaneous contributions of concave and convex selection on different demographic processes within a single life cycle. In the polar bear (*Ursus maritimus*), the key demographic process ( $a_{4,4}$ ) is under convex selection, as depicted by a yellow square with a white dot in Figure 3. However, the demographic process with the second highest elasticity value ( $a_{5,4}$ ) is under strong concave selection (depicted by a light green square with a black dot in Figure. 3).

By adding the second-order effect to the toolbox for demographic buffering, another important inference was made possible. The high absolute values of self-second derivatives (large dots, either black or white, Fig. 3) indicate where the sensitivity of  $\lambda_1$  to demographic parameters is itself prone to environmental changes. For instance, if the value of  $a_{5,4}$  for *U. maritimus* increased, the sensitivity of  $\lambda_t$  to  $a_{5,4}$  would decrease because the self-second derivative of  $a_{5,4}$  is highly negative (depicted by the largest black dot in polar bear, Fig. 3 silhouette j). The opposite holds for the  $a_{4,4}$  demographic process, where an increase in the

value of  $a_{4,4}$  would increase the sensitivity of  $\lambda_t$  to  $a_{4,4}$ , because the self-second derivative of a<sub>4,4</sub> is highly positive (the largest white dot in the polar bear MPM). Thus, sensitivities (or equally elasticities) of demographic processes with high absolute values for self-second derivatives are dynamic and can easily change.

364

### 365 **Discussion**

We report evidence of demographic buffering assessed at the between and within populations level. We used stochastic elasticities alongside the first- and second- order perturbation analysis and applied these analyses to mammal species to test our hypothesis. Here, we find weak support for said hypothesis, since most populations placed at the buffered end of variance continuum failed to display concave selection signatures.

371 Evidencing demographic buffering is not straightforward. Indeed, through the 372 analysis of stochastic population growth rate ( $\lambda_s$ ) in our application of the framework to 43 373 populations of 37 mammal species, we identify the highest density of natural populations 374 near the buffered end of the variance continuum. However, we show that the same species 375 then fail to exhibit signs of concave ( $\cap$ -shaped) selection on key demographic parameters, 376 opposed to our hypothesis. Such results suggest discordance between two features of demographic buffering, namely: 1) the stochastic population growth rate having a low 377 378 sensitivity to temporal variability in demographic processes, and 2) demographic processes 379 having variability constrained by selection.

The lack of correlation between non-linear selection patterns (concave/convex) and species positioning on the variance continuum for the studied mammal species may have several explanations. Firstly, non-linear selection on demographic process variability is *dynamic* (Kajin *et al.* 2023). Within a life cycle, even minor changes in key demographic processes can trigger a domino effect, affecting not only the process itself but also the

385 sensitivity of  $\lambda_l$  to changes in said process (Stearns 1992). Consequently, correlations 386 between demographic processes (negative correlations known as trade-offs) are influenced by 387 minor alterations in the governing demographic processes (Doak et al. 2005). Therefore, the 388 observed self-second derivative of the population growth rate represents a momentum that 389 can be influenced by small changes in any demographic process within the life cycle. Because of these characteristics, second-order derivatives reveal "fine scale" fitness 390 391 behaviour compared to sums of stochastic elasticities. Evolutionary demography still requires 392 a tool to connect second-order fitness effects with stochastic elasticities in a biologically 393 interpretable manner (but see Tuljapurkar et al. 2023).

394 When placing our study species along a variance continuum, primates tend to be 395 located on the buffered end. However, most primates displayed convex - instead of the 396 expected concave - selection on adult survival. Similar results, where the key demographic 397 process failed to display constrained temporal variability, have been reported for long-lived 398 seabirds (Doherty et al. 2004). One explanation for the unexpected convex selection on adult 399 survival involves trade-offs, as suggested by (Doak et al. 2005). When two demographic 400 parameters are negatively correlated, the variance of population growth rate can be increased 401 or decreased (Compagnoni et al. 2016; Evans & Holsinger 2012).

402 Correlations among demographic processes (positive and negative) inherently 403 influence the biological limits of variance (Haridas & Tuljapurkar 2005). This is because the 404 magnitude of variation in a particular demographic process is constrained by the variation of 405 other demographic processes. Not surprisingly, correlations among demographic processes 406 have been shown to be strongly subjected to ecological factors (Fay *et al.* 2022). Therefore, 407 future studies may benefit from deeper insights using *cross*-second derivatives (Caswell 408 1996, 2001) to investigate correlations among demographic processes.

409 Biological variance estimates are inevitably subjected to several sources of bias 410 (Simmonds & Jones 2024). To minimise bias, we randomly sampled the available matrices before obtaining the estimates. Despite the significant correlation between  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$  and the 411 412 number of available matrices per species, the relative positioning of species remains 413 meaningful for between-population level comparisons, as the correlation is very weak (-0.002). Still, researchers carrying out macroecological comparisons of demographic buffering 414 415 might want to be even more restringent than we have been here with their datasets, as these 416 grow longer with time (Compagnoni et al. 2021; Salguero-Gómez et al. 2021). Regarding phylogenetic effects, our tests revealed a mild signal, but we note that 417 future work regressing  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$  values against potential independent variables (*e.g.*, climate 418 419 values) may want to correct for this phylogenetic dependence. By having carefully chosen 420 studies from a database that contains >400 species and retained only those that passed 421 through a set of selection criteria (Che-Castaldo et al. 2020; Gascoigne et al. 2023b; Kendall 422 et al. 2019; Römer et al. 2024; Simmonds & Jones 2024), we mitigate those biases a priori. 423 Furthermore, we are using an elasticity-based approach, meaning we are comparing 424 proportional variances. At present, the available methods still do not account for constraints 425 in variance nor performing a perturbation approach disproportionately. 426 The analyses at both between- and within-populations levels are fundamentally

interconnected. This connection is grounded on the fact that large summed elasticities with respect to variance are intrinsically linked to high elasticity values, as demonstrated in equation 6 in (Haridas & Tuljapurkar 2005). This finding robustly endorses the perspective that species' positions along the variance continuum should be interpreted with consideration of first and second-order effects, and additionally, in the context of selection pressures acting on the variability of demographic processes, as revealed by a second order effect.
433 Combining first- and second-order analyses is crucial for understanding the factors 434 shaping demographic buffering patterns. The second-order effect reveals that the role of 435 natural selection in shaping temporal variation in demographic processes is more complex 436 than initially thought. Indeed, demographic processes within our study populations often face 437 a mix of convex and concave selection. This mix of selection patterns was suggested by Doak 438 et al. (2005), who noted that dramatic changes in population growth rate sensitivities are 439 influenced by correlations among demographic processes. Here, only two of the 16 mammal 440 species revealed concave selection on the key demographic processes: Columbian ground 441 squirrel (Urocitellus columbianus), and humans (Homo sapiens). These two species were 442 placed near the buffered end of the variance continuum, supporting our hypothesis. Evidence 443 of buffering has been reported across 22 ungulate species (Gaillard & Yoccoz 2003). 444 However, in the one ungulate we examined, the moose (Alces alces), we found only partial 445 support for our hypothesis, as it is near the buffered end of the variance continuum but lacks 446 concave selection pressures.

447 Our overall findings reveal varying levels of support for the notion that adult survival 448 in long-lived species tends to be buffered. Indeed, Gaillard et al. (1998) found that adult 449 female survival varied considerably less than juvenile survival in large herbivores. This 450 finding was also supported by further studies in ungulates (Gaillard & Yoccoz 2003), turtles 451 (Heppell 1998), vertebrates and plants (Pfister 1998), and more recently across nine species 452 of plants (McDonald et al. 2017). However, an alternative result was also reported by 453 Gaillard and Yoccoz (2003) for small mammals, where variability in adult survival was 454 unexpectedly high, even though the studied small mammals were annual, and as such 455 comparable to large mammal model. Seasonality, frequency and method of sampling all 456 influence survival estimates and their estimated variability, thus, when comparing multiples

457 species/studies, all of the latter characteristics should be taken into account when interpreting458 the results.

459 Examining the drivers of demographic buffering has become an important piece of the 460 ecological and evolutionary puzzle of demography. As such, understanding buffering can 461 help us better predict population responses to environmental variability, climate change, and 462 direct anthropogenic disturbances (Boyce et al. 2006; Gascoigne et al. 2024a; McDonald et 463 al. 2017; Pfister 1998; Vázquez et al. 2017). By setting demographic buffering into a broader 464 and integrated framework, we hope to enhance comprehension and prediction of the 465 implications of heightened environmental stochasticity on the evolution of life history traits. 466 This understanding is crucial in mitigating the risk of extinction for the most vulnerable 467 species.

468

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476

# 477 Data availability

478 The demographic data used in this paper are open-access and available in the COMADRE

479 Animal Matrix Database (https://compadre-db.org/Data/Comadre). A list of the studies and

480 species used here is available in Supplementary Material (Table S1). The data and code

- 481 supporting the results can be accessed here:
- 482 https://github.com/SamuelGascoigne/Demographic\_buffering\_unified\_framework.

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- 710 Figure legends
- 711 712

stochastic elasticities ( $\Sigma E_{a_{ii}}^{S^{\sigma}}$ ) at the between populations hierarchical level. The closer the 713  $\Sigma E_{a_{ii}}^{S^{\sigma}}$  is to zero, the weaker the impact of variation in demographic processes on the 714 stochastic population growth rate,  $\lambda_s$ . The variance continuum ranges from potentially 715 716 buffered (right-hand side) to less buffered (left-hand side) species/populations. The yellow-717 dotted species/populations can be classified as having potentially *buffered life cycles*. The 718 left-hand side of the graph represents species/populations where variability in demographic 719 processes results in strong impact on  $\lambda_s$  (blue dots). Thus, the blue-dotted species/populations 720 can be classified as having potentially unbuffered life cycles. The vertical axis delineates the 721 values of the probability density function, indicating the number of species/populations at each value of  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$ . The placement of data points (species/populations) along the horizontal 722 axis corresponds to their calculated values of  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$  and is arranged linearly, while the 723 724 placement along the y-axis is random for improved visual comprehension. B) First-order 725 effects or linear selection pressures for individual species/populations at within-species level 726 (see text). Shown are the elasticities of the deterministic population growth rate  $(\lambda_l)$  for a 727 hypothetical population of wolves and revealing the governing demographic process(es) in 728 the life cycle (yellow cells: high elasticity, blue cells: low elasticity). C) Combined results for first (yellow and blue cells) and second order effects (black dots), where the latter reveals the 729

Figure 1. A) The variance continuum for 37 hypothetical species based on the summed

- 730 nonlinear selection pressures at the within-species level.
- 731

Figure 2. The variance continuum for 43 populations from 37 species of mammals from the COMADRE database based on the summed stochastic elasticities ( $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$ ) at the between populations hierarchical level. Colors represent different taxonomic orders with Primates occupying the right-hand side. Silhouettes: a) *Brachyteles hyphoxantus*, b) *Gorilla beringhei*, c) Cercopithecus mitis, d) Urocitellus columbianus, e) Mustela erminea, f) Erythrocebus

737 patas, g) Lepus americanus, h) Rattus fuscipes, i) Ovis aries, j) Homo sapiens, k) Macropus

*eugenii*, and 1) *Felis catus*. The vertical axis delineates the values of the probability density function, indicating the number of species/populations at each value of  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$ . The placement of data points (species/populations) along the horizontal axis corresponds to their calculated values of  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$  and is arranged linearly, while the placement along the y-axis is random for

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improved visual comprehension.

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744 **Figure 3:** First- and second-order effects on population growth rate,  $\lambda_1$  (corresponding to 745 elasticities and self-second derivatives of population growth rate, respectively) for 16 746 mammal species. The 16 plots represent populations where the MPMs built by ages were 747 available in the COMADRE Animal Matrix Database. The yellow-blue colour scale 748 represents elasticity values for each of the demographic processes in the MPM, where yellow 749 cells represent high and blue cells low elasticity of population growth rate to changes in 750 demographic processes. No colour means elasticity=0. The black dots represent negative self-751 second derivatives of  $\lambda_1$  - corresponding to concave selection - and the white dots represent positive self-second derivatives of  $\lambda_l$  - ditto convex selection. The dot sizes are scaled by the 752 753 absolute value of self-second derivatives, where the smaller the dot, the closer a self-second 754 derivative is to 0, indicating weak or no nonlinearity. Thus, large dots indicate strong 755 nonlinear selection forces, either concave (black) or convex (white). Since the derivatives of 756 population growth rate are confounded by eigen-structure (Kroon et al. 2000), the scaling of the elasticity values and second-derivative values is species specific - *i.e.*, each plot has its 757 758 own scale. Species-specific scales can be found in Supplementary material (Table S2).

# Supplementary material – Data available in COMADRE Version 3.0.0 and results from Step 1 of the framework 761

762 **Table S1.** The metadata used and the respective results presented in the main text. The first four columns represent the information from where

763 Matrix Populations Models (MPMs) were extract precisely as presented in COMADRE 3.0.0.

Species	Common name	Species (COMADRE)	Order	# matrices	$\lambda_{I}$	$\lambda_s$	$\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$	$\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{s^{\sigma}}(SE)$
Homo sapiens sapiens	Human	Homo_sapiens_sub spsapiens	Primates	26	1.063707	1.061537	-2.24E-03	3.15E-04
Alces alces	Moose	Alces_alces	Artiodactyla	14	1.205368	1.205161	-6.69E-04	8.42E-05
Antechinus agilis	Agile antechinus	Antechinus_agilis	Dasyuromorphia	3	0.931076	0.885919	-1.11E-01	1.62E-03
Bos primigenius	Cattle	Bos_primigenius	Artiodactyla	8	1.002505	1.000493	-2.83E-03	2.96E-04
Brachyteles hypoxanthus	Northern muriqui	Brachyteles_hypox anthus	Primates	25	1.05122	1.051273	-5.31E-05	2.09E-05
Callospermophil us lateralis	Golden-mantled ground squirrel	Callospermophilus _lateralis	Rodentia	18	2.052345	1.970253	-6.68E-02	8.72E-03
Cebus capucinus	White faced capuchin monkey	Cebus_capucinus	Primates	22	1.020887	1.020868	-2.04E-04	4.75E-05
Cercopithecus mitis	Blue monkey	Cercopithecus_miti s	Primates	28	1.036082	1.036075	-4.43E-05	1.18E-05

Cervus canadensis subsp. nelsoni	Rocky Mountain elk	Cervus_canadensis _subspnelsoni	Artiodactyla	10	1.107412	1.099838	-8.55E-03	1.09E-03
Eumetopias jubatus	Northern sea lion; Steller sea lion	Eumetopias_jubatu s	Carnivora	4	0.904383	0.902155	-4.52E-03	2.44E-04
Felis catus	Feral cat	Felis_catus	Carnivora	3	1.948471	1.8259	-1.34E-01	1.89E-03
Gorilla beringei	Mountain gorilla	Gorilla_beringei	Primates	41	1.026827	1.02682	-1.28E-05	1.32E-05
Hippocamelus bisulcus	Huemul deer	Hippocamelus_bis ulcus	Artiodactyla	3	0.996197	0.995462	-1.80E-03	1.09E-04
Leopardus pardalis	Ocelot	Leopardus_pardalis	Carnivora	4	1.086146	1.086122	-2.94E-04	3.89E-05
Lepus americanus	Snowshoe hare	Lepus_americanus	Lagomorpha	5	0.811904	0.707678	-2.62E-01	2.33E-02
Lycaon pictus	African wild dog	Lycaon_pictus	Carnivora	3	1.500429	1.430517	-9.70E-02	9.91E-04
Macaca mulatta	Rhesus macaque	Macaca_mulatta_3	Primates	24	1.127496	1.12735	-3.84E-04	6.83E-05
Macropus eugenii	Tammar wallaby	Macropus_eugenii	Diprotodontia	15	0.981097	0.970794	-1.43E-02	1.62E-03
Marmota flaviventris	Yellow-bellied marmot	Marmota_flavivent ris_2	Rodentia	8	0.89031	0.886098	-8.80E-03	6.98E-04
Marmota flaviventris	Yellow-bellied marmot	Marmota_flavivent ris_3	Rodentia	8	0.920541	0.916392	-7.00E-03	7.04E-04

Microtus oeconomus	Root vole	Microtus_oeconom us	Rodentia	28	1.027531	1.027095	-5.60E-04	1.06E-04
Mustela erminea	Stoat	Mustela_erminea	Carnivora	4	1.258462	1.074391	-3.10E-01	1.62E-02
Orcinus orca	Killer whale	Orcinus_orca_2	Cetacea	50	0.998658	0.998351	-4.72E-04	1.53E-04
Ovis aries	Soay sheep	Ovis_aries_2	Artiodactyla	6	1.09877	1.080656	-3.45E-02	2.96E-03
Pan troglodytes subsp. schweinfurthii	Eastern chimpanzee	Pan_troglodytes_su bspschweinfurthii	Primates	45	0.982286	0.982191	-1.94E-04	5.06E-05
Papio cynocephalus	Olive baboon	Papio_cynocephalu s	Primates	37	1.053872	1.053789	-2.41E-04	6.97E-05
Peromyscus maniculatus	Deer mouse	Peromyscus_manic ulatus_2	Rodentia	4	1.10686	1.101117	-9.41E-03	6.88E-04
Phascolarctos cinereus	Koala	Phascolarctos_cine reus_2	Diprotodontia	4	1.064011	1.062744	-2.53E-03	2.16E-04
Phocarctos hookeri	New Zealand sea lion	Phocarctos_hooker i	Carnivora	16	1.023016	1.020083	-3.56E-03	4.15E-04
Propithecus verreauxi	Verreaux's sifaka	Propithecus_verrea uxi	Primates	24	0.985592	0.985399	-3.06E-04	6.29E-05
Rattus fuscipes	Bush rat	Rattus_fuscipes	Rodentia	3	1.304662	1.188931	-2.45E-01	4.29E-03
Urocitellus armatus	Uinta ground squirrel	Spermophilus_arm atus	Rodentia	6	1.125011	1.113416	-1.73E-02	1.68E-03

Urocitellus armatus	Uinta ground squirrel	Spermophilus_arm atus_2	Rodentia	6	1.094693	1.084304	-1.47E-02	1.56E-03
Urocitellus columbianus	Columbian ground squirrel	Spermophilus_colu mbianus	Rodentia	6	1.008949	0.984575	-3.80E-02	3.26E-03
Urocitellus columbianus	Columbian ground squirrel	Spermophilus_colu mbianus_3	Rodentia	6	1.200353	1.197473	-3.38E-03	6.96E-04
Ursus americanus subsp. floridanus	Florida black bear	Ursus_americanus_ subspfloridanus	Carnivora	4	1.01989	1.018094	-3.68E-03	3.97E-04
Ursus arctos subsp. horribilis	Grizzly bear	Ursus_arctos_subs phorribilis_5	Carnivora	7	1.025712	1.024785	-1.38E-03	1.26E-04
Ursus maritimus	Polar bear	Ursus_maritimus_2	Carnivora	5	0.940646	0.931697	-1.91E-02	9.23E-04
Brachyteles hypoxanthus	Northern muriqui	Brachyteles_hypox anthus_2	Primates	25	1.110953	1.110983	1.22E-05	5.05E-06
Cebus capucinus	White-faced capuchin monkey	Cebus_capucinus_ 2	Primates	22	1.059311	1.059248	-1.03E-04	2.85E-05
Chlorocebus aethiops	Vervet	Chlorocebus_aethi ops_2	Primates	8	1.187136	1.148862	-8.03E-02	1.31E-02
Erythrocebus patas	Patas monkey	Erythrocebus_patas	Primates	9	1.127974	1.092178	-5.21E-02	5.38E-03
Gorilla beringei subsp. beringei	Mountain gorilla	Gorilla_beringei_s ubspberingei	Primates	41	1.052588	1.05255	-6.81E-05	1.11E-05

**Table S2**. The species-specific scales for the elasticity of  $\lambda_1$  to changes in demographic processes and for the self-second derivatives of  $\lambda_1$  with respect to demographic processes for the 16 mammal species studied.

Figure 3 reference	Species common name	E <sub>min</sub> =elasticity minimum value	E <sub>max</sub> =elasticity maximum value	SSD <sub>min</sub> =self-second derivative minimum value	SSD <sub>max</sub> =self-second derivative maximum value
А	Blue monkey	0	0.52	-1.25	1.27
В	Columbian ground squirrel	0	0.23	-1.48	0.01
С	Eastern chimpanzee	0	0.60	-4.39	2.59
D	Human	0	0.18	-0.15	0.08
E	Killer whale	0	0.55	-5.72	3.43
F	Moose	0	0.55	-0.66	0.36
G	Mountain gorilla	0	0.81	-1.46	0.28
Н	Northern muriqui	0	0.72	-1.17	0.35
Ι	Olive baboon	0	0.54	-0.57	1.13
J	Polar bear	0	0.26	-0.73	0.54
Κ	Rhesus macaque	0	0.51	-0.54	0.71
L	Root vole	0	0.86	-2.54	0.22
Μ	Soay sheep	0	0.56	-0.22	0.40
Ν	Tammar wallaby	0	0.55	-0.64	0.34
Ο	Verreaux's sifaka	0	0.60	-2.64	1.34
Р	White faced capuchin monkey	0	0.66	-2.66	1.21

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2	populations		Deleted: unified
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5 6 7	Gabriel Silva Santos <sup>1,2*</sup> , Samuel J L Gascoigne <sup>3*</sup> , André Tavares Corrêa Dias <sup>4</sup> , Maja Kajin <sup>3,5**</sup> ◆, Roberto Salguero-Gómez <sup>3</sup> ◆		
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21	final figures. A TCD as advised the president and an other versions of the manuscript, and generated		
20	the manuscript MK developed and managed the project contributed to the first draft and all		
29	other versions of the manuscript, and generated final figures, PSG developed and managed		
31	the project and contributed to the first draft and all other versions of the manuscript. All		
32	authors made substantial contributions to editing the manuscript and further refining ideas		
33	and interpretations.		
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35	RUNNING TITLE: Demographic buffering framework (32/45 characters)		
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37	KEYWORDS: COMADRE Animal Matrix Database, elasticity, life-history evolution,		
38	natural selection, second-order derivative, sensitivity, stochasticity, variance.		
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	59	Abstract (146/150 words)
	60	The demographic huffering hypothesis predicts that natural selection reduces the temporal
	61	fluctuations in demographic processes (survival, development, and reproduction) due to their
	62	negative impacts of temporal variation on population dynamics. However, evidencing
	63	buffering patterns at different hierarchical levels – between and within populations – and
	64	understanding how selection shapes those patterns, remains a challenge in Ecology and
	65	Evolution, Here, we introduce a framework that allows for the evidencing of demographic
	66	buffering between and within populations. The framework uses the sum of stochastic
	67	elasticities for between-populations comparisons along with first- and second-order effects of
	68	demographic process variability on fitness for within-population comparisons. We apply this
	69	framework to 43 populations of 37 mammal species to test the hypothesis that buffered
	70	species are under strong concave selection pressures. Using our framework, we show that
	71	demographically buffered species do not necessarily have strong concave selection pressures
	72	in their most impactful demographic processes.
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**Deleted:** categorize species along a continuum of variance based on the sums of stochastic elasticities. Secondly, we examine the linear selection gradients, followed by the examination of nonlinear selection gradients as the third step. With these three steps, our framework overcomes existing limitations of conventional approaches to quantify demographic buffering, allows for multi-species comparisons, and offers insight into the evolutionary forces that shape demographic buffering. We apply this framework to mammal species and discuss both the shortagesadvantages and potential of our framework.¶

102	Environmental stochasticity shapes organisms' life histories (Bonsall & Klug 2011; Stearns
103	1992; Tuljapurkar 1990, 2010). Nonetheless, how organisms will cope with the changing
104	variation in environmental conditions (Bathiany et al. 2018; Boyce et al. 2006; Morris et al.
105	2008) remains an intriguing ecological and evolutionary question (Sutherland et al. 2013).
106	Evolutionary demography provides diverse explanations for how evolutionary processes
107	shape demographic responses to environmental stochasticity (Charlesworth 1994; Healy et al.
108	2019; Hilde et al. 2020; Pfister 1998; Tuljapurkar et al. 2009). The long-term stochastic
109	population growth rate, $(\lambda_s)$ representing the geometric mean of population growth rates over
110	time $(\lambda_i; Tuljapurkar 1982)$ , forms the basis of the Demographic Buffering Hypothesis,
111	(Morris & Doak 2004; Pélabon <i>et al.</i> 2020).
112	Increasing the geometric mean of $\lambda_t$ over time corresponds to a rise in the long-term
113	stochastic population growth rate, Conversely, higher variance in $\lambda_l$ reduces $\lambda_s$ (Morris &
114	Doak 2004; Tuljapurkar 1982), impacting population persistence (Lefèvre et al. 2016). The
115	demographic buffering hypothesis (Pfister 1998) suggests life histories are selected to
116	minimize the negative impacts of environmental variation by constraining the temporal
117	variance of key demographic processes (e.g., survival, development, reproduction) that have
118	the highest sensitivity/elasticity to population growth rate, a fitness proxy, (Gaillard & Yoccoz
119	2003; Pfister 1998), Demographic buffering describes the selection-driven constraint on the
120	temporal variance of these key demographic processes (Gascoigne et al. 2024a, b; Hilde et al.
121	2020; Morris & Doak 2004; Pfister 1998), Here, we focus on the emerging patterns of
122	demographic buffering in different animal life histories, rather than on the demographic
123	buffering hypothesis itself.
124	An integrative approach to evidence demographic buffering is still missing. Indeed,
125	identifying demographic buffering remains challenging (Doak et al. 2005; Morris & Doak
126	2004) for several reasons, one of them being different interpretations of results from

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<b>Deleted:</b> predicts that life histories are under selection pressure to minimise the negative impacts of environmental variation by constraining the temporal variance of those demographic processes ( <i>e.g.</i> , survival, development, reproduction) to which population growth rate ( <i>i.e.</i> , a proxy for fitness)
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<b>Deleted:</b> The <i>demographic pattern strategy</i> operating the DBH, <i>i.e.</i> , demographic buffering, describes the selection-driven constraint on the temporal variance of the most impacting demographic processes for the population growth rate
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158	correlational analyses, as in Pfister (1998) and Hilde et al. (2020). Some authors rank species'	
159	life histories on a continuum from buffered to labile using the correlation coefficient	
160	(Spearman's correlation $\rho$ ) between the impact of demographic processes on the population	
161	growth rate and the temporal variance of said demographic processes (McDonald et al. 2017;	
162	Salguero-Gómez 2021). There, negative correlation coefficient values indicate buffering,	*****
163	Alternatively, the absence of statistical support for buffering may suggest a preference for	
164	demographic variance to track environmental conditions, a phenomenon supported by the	
165	Demographic Lability Hypothesis, (Drake 2005; Hilde et al. 2020; Jäkäläniemi et al. 2013;	
166	Koons et al. 2009; Reed & Slade 2012). However, increased variability alone is not enough	
167	to constitute demographic lability; it must also result in significant changes in the mean value	
168	of the demographic process (Le Coeur <i>et al.</i> 2022).	
169	Another obstacle to generalising a measure of demographic buffering across	$\langle$
170	populations and species is the targeted hierarchical level of examination. Some studies focus	
171	on characteristics drawn from the entire population model (McDonald et al. 2017; Reed &	
172	Slade 2012), At this between-populations level (hereafter), a life history is considered	/
173	demographically buffered if the governing demographic processes have low temporal	
174	variance (Le Coeur et al. 2022; Hilde et al. 2020; Morris & Doak 2004; Pfister 1998).	
175	However, to fully grasp how and why demographic buffering occurs, and how patterns might	
176	change in response to the environment, we must also consider characteristics within an	
177	individual population model (within-populations level hereafter). Within a population, one	
178	demographic process may be buffered against climatic variability while another may be labile	
179	(Barraquand & Yoccoz 2013; Jongejans et al. 2010; Koons et al. 2009). Furthermore, even if	
180	a given demographic process is primarily governing the population growth rate in one year, a	
181	different one might take over next year (Evers et al. 2021). Despite the relevance of within-	
182	and between-populations level processes, thus far studies have focused on evidencing	
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203	demographic buffering at the within- and between-population levels separately. To integrate
204	these two levels of analysis, here we investigate demographic buffering signatures together.
205	To examine demographic buffering at the between-populations level, we use the
206	summed effect of the variability of all demographic processes on the population growth rate.
207	A weak summed effect means that the population growth rate is relatively unaffected by the
208	variability in demographic processes (Haridas & Tuljapurkar 2005), and this lack of effect by
209	demographic process variability is consistent with demographic buffering. As such, a
210	summed effect of variability offers a good proxy to evidence demographic buffering
211	(Gascoigne et al. 2024b; Haridas & Tuljapurkar 2005) and enables the classification of
212	populations along a continuum. The within-populations level requires a separate approach.
213	Thus, there we use the relative contribution of each demographic process and how variability
214	in the governing demographic process(es) affects the population growth rate (e.g., Caswell
215	1978, 1996, 2001; Ebert 1999; de Kroon et al. 1986). Importantly, by exploring the governing
216	demographic processes, we also investigate how natural selection affects them (e.g., Caswell
217	1996; Shyu & Caswell 2014). Understanding the interplay between demographic variability
218	and natural selection thus not only elucidates population dynamics but also provides insight
219	into the evolutionary pressures shaping the life-history strategies (Charlesworth 1994;
220	Salguero-Gómez 2024; Sanghvi <i>et al.</i> 2024),
221	A powerful approach to reveal the role of natural selection acting on the variability of
222	demographic processes is through measuring a first and second order effect on population
223	growth rate (Carslake et al. 2008). First-order effects of demographic processes on population
224	growth rate, such as elasticities, show how variation in demographic processes affects
225	population growth rate, and relies on the linear relation between demographic processes and
226	the growth rate. A second-order effect, on the other hand, reveals the sensitivity of population
227	growth rate to temporal autocorrelation in variable environments (Tuljapurkar 1990), and
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251	identifies where demographic processes have a <i>nonlinear</i> effect on population growth rate.
252	Combining both approaches into a single framework consolidates our understanding of
253	fitness behaviour near local maxima and minima, among other advantages discussed below.
254	This approach and has started to pave its way into Ecology (Kajin et al. 2023; Tuljapurkar et
255	<u>al. 2023)</u>
256	Here, we propose that an additional metric to examine demographic buffering: the
257	second-order effect of demographic process variation on population growth rate. We show
258	that each hierarchical level is best studied with a different method. Moreover, we hypothesise
259	that buffered species, those where perturbing the variance of demographic processes has little
260	impact on their fitness, are under strong concave selection pressures ( <i>i.e.</i> , the force that aims
261	to diminish temporal variance of a trait, sensu Shyu & Caswell 2014) on the governing
262	demographic processes. Indeed, the summed effect of demographic process variability on
263	population growth rate and elasticities are related (Haridas & Tuljapurkar 2005). Concave
264	selection pressures favour traits that contribute to reducing temporal variance, thereby
265	enhancing population stability and resilience in the face of environmental volatility. We
266	discuss the validity of our hypothesis and demonstrate the applicability and advantages of our
267	framework by testing it with 43 populations of 37 mammal species
268	
269	<u>Towards an integrated framework</u> to assess evidence of demographic buffering
270	<u>Current</u> evidence for demographic buffering has primarily been assessed using Matrix
271	Population Models (MPMs) (Pfister 1998; Rotella et al. 2012). However, Integral Projection
272	Models (IPMs) (Easterling et al. 2000; Ellner et al. 2016; Gascoigne et al. 2023a, 2024b;
273	Rodríguez-Caro et al. 2021; Wang et al. 2023) can also identify demographic buffering.
274	MPMs and IPMs are structured, discrete-time demographic models, (Caswell 2001; Ellner et
275	al. 2016), For simplicity, here we focus on MPMs, but the same approaches apply to IPMs
1	

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413	(Doak et al. 2021; Griffith 2017). We refer to demographic processes as MPM $\underline{A}$ entries, $a_{ij}$	
414	( <i>i.e.</i> , upper-level parameters sensu Zuidema & Franco 2001) and the vital rates composing the	
415	matrix elements ( <i>i.e.</i> , lower-level parameters, <i>ditto</i> ). The conversion between matrix elements	
416	and vital rates is straightforward (Franco & Silvertown 2004).	
417	We first place species on a variance continuum. The variance continuum represents	
418	the summed effects of proportional increases in temporal variance across all demographic	
419	processes $(a_{ij})$ of the MPM A on the population growth rate $\lambda_3$ , operating at the <i>between</i> -	
420	<i>populations level.</i> It is based on partitioning the sum of all the stochastic elasticities ( $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^S$ )	
421	into two components: i) the sum of stochastic elasticities with respect to the variance $(\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}})$ ,	
422	which assesses how variability in $a_{ij}$ affects $\lambda_s$ , and ii) the sum of stochastic elasticities with	
423	respect to the arithmetic mean of demographic processes ( $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\mu}}$ ), which evaluates the impact	
424	of a change in mean values of demographic processes on $\lambda_s$ (Haridas & Tuljapurkar 2005).	/
425	<u>The equal perturbation of both <math>\Sigma E^{S}_{a_{ij}}</math> components assumes that the CV of demographic</u>	
426	processes remains constant (Haridas & Tuljapurkar 2005). Higher absolute value of $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$	V
427	indicates greater sensitivity of $\lambda_s$ to demographic process variability, suggesting the absence	
428	of <u>demographic</u> buffering. Conversely, lower $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$ values support the demographic buffering	
429	hypothesis, with $\lambda_s$ being is less sensitive to variability (Haridas & Tuljapurkar 2005;	
430	Tuljapurkar et al. 2003) (Fig. 1A).	
431	Species or populations are positioned along the variance continuum based on the	
432	impact of variance on the stochastic population growth rate. Species highly sensitive to	
433	environmental variability are on the left (potentially unbuffered <sup>1</sup> ), while species less sensitive	

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Unconstrained variance does not necessarily imply demographic lability, defined as an increase in *mean value* of a demographic process in response to improved environmental conditions (Le Coeur *et al.* 2022). By examining stochastic elasticities, we can assess changes in the contribution of demographic process variance to  $\lambda_s$ , while mean values remain unchanged.

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processes on the stochastic growth rate, $\lambda_s$ , known as stochastic elasticities $F_s^S$ (Figure 1A). This calculation
separates the sum of all stochastic elasticities into two
components: one for assessing how temporal variance affects
$\lambda_s$ ( ), and the other for assessing the impact of mean
values of demographic processes on $\lambda_s$ , (
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**Deleted:** Stochastic elasticities  $(E^{S})$  are calculated through equal perturbations to mean and variances in demographic processes across. This equal perturbation is an important assumption as the impacts of means and variances in demographic processes are inferred under the assumption that the coefficient of variaton of said processes remains constant. Importantly, stochastic elasticities can be decomposed into contributions from means  $(\Sigma E_{aij}^{s\mu})$  and variances  $(E_{aij}^{S\mu})$  of demographic process.

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477	are on the right (potentially buffered) end (Fig. 1A), We expect buffered species to exhibit
478	concave selection signatures. Although the position on the continuum provides insight into
479	how environmental variation affects $\lambda_s$ , $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{s^{\sigma}}$ does not consider covariances between
480	demographic processes and serial correlations, crucial for fully diagnosing buffering (Haridas
481	& Tuljapurkar 2005). Thus, species' position at the buffered end of the variance continuum is
482	a necessary but not sufficient condition for evidence of demographic buffering. To address
483	this second criterion, we use second derivatives of population growth rate with respect to
484	demographic processes to elucidate the impact of selection on variance (below).
485	Next, we delve into within-population level by calculating the partial derivatives of $\lambda_1$
486	(obtained by averaging sequential MPMs across the study duration) concerning all matrix
487	elements $a_{ij}$ of the MPM <u>A (Fig. 1B)</u> , This step reveals a first-order effect on fitness – how
488	each demographic process influences $\lambda_{\underline{\mu}}$ , We then evaluate nonlinear selection patterns using
489	self-second derivatives of $\lambda_{\underline{l}}$ for each $\underline{a_{ij}}$ (Fig. 1C), revealing potential nonlinear selection
490	pressures (Brodie et al. 1995), Failure to consider these evolutionary processes may lead to
491	misinterpretation of patterns (e.g., Lawler et al. 2009),
492	First- and second-order effects on fitness show average selection pressures over time.
493	Self-second derivatives of population growth rate with respect to demographic processes
494	measure second-order effects (Carslake et al. 2008; Caswell 2001; Kajin et al. 2023; Shyu &
495	Caswell 2014; Tuljapurkar et al. 2023). Linear fitness relationships (zero self-second
496	derivatives) mean selection changes mean demographic values, not variance (Shyu &
497	Caswell 2014). Nonzero self-second derivatives indicate nonlinear relationships between
498	fitness and a demographic process, revealing additional aspects of selection on the variances
499	and covariances of demographic processes (Brodie et al. 1995; Carslake et al. 2008; Shyu &
500	Caswell 2014). Interpreting both first- and second-order effects offers insights into population
501	placement on the variance continuum.

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**Deleted:** of the framework analyse averaged selection pressures over time periods. They These steps offer insights into how perturbations in demographic processes affect  $\lambda_{t_{r}}$  obtained by averaging sequential Matrix Population Models (MPMs) across the study duration. Therefore, they step(...[9])

558	The sign (>0, $=0$ , <0) of the self-second derivatives determines the selection type.
559	Negative values (concave selection, ∩-shaped) reduce temporal variance, providing evidence
560	of buffering (Caswell 1996, 2001; Shyu & Caswell 2014). Positive values (convex selection,
561	U-shaped) indicate amplified variance, revealing a lack of selection constraints on
562	demographic variance (Bruijning et al. 2020; Caswell 1996, 2001; Le Coeur et al. 2022;
563	Koons et al. 2009; Shyu & Caswell 2014; Vinton et al. 2022).
564	Following the above steps allows evidencing demographic buffering at the between-
565	and within-populations levels. The joint interpretation of first- and second-order effects
566	offers insights into why a population is on either end of the variance continuum. Evidence
567	supporting buffering includes;
568	<u>1. A population positioned near the 0 end of the <math>\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}</math> continuum.</u>
569	2. Jdentifying the demographic processes with highest elasticity values within the
570	Life cycle
571	3. The same processes from (2) associated with negative self-second derivatives,
572	indicating concave selection.
573	Figure 1B shows that, for an imaginary wolf population, the governing demographic process
574	is the fourth stage stasis (MPM element $a_{4,4}$ ), with the highest elasticity value (Fig. 1B yellow
575	square). However, Figure 1C reveals little selection on a4,4 for variance reduction. Hence,
576	there is no concave selection on $a_{4.4}$ , explaining the positioning on the left-side variance
577	continuum (Fig. 1A)
578	Although not our primary goal, we briefly introduce steps to evidence demographic
579	lability. Compelling lability evidence requires sufficient data across environments [over time
580	or space; but see Perret et al. (2024)] to construct reaction norms depicting demographic
581	responses to environmental changes (Drake 2005; Koons et al. 2009; Morris et al. 2008).
582	Non-linear relationships between demographic processes and the environment must be
1	

**Deleted:** In step 3, it is important to note that the importance of demographic processes shifts with changing environments . This dynamic sensitivity of  $\lambda_i$  to specific processes , indicated by self-second derivatives, helps pinpoint which processes are most likely to induce changes in  $\lambda_s$ . For instance, in the hypothetical wolf species (Fig. 1), a decline in reproduction among third age-class individuals (matrix element  $a_{l,3}$ ) would heighten sensitivity to that process. Consequently, with increased environmental variability, the key demographic process might change from remaining in the fourth age class (matrix element  $a_{l,3}$ , Fig. 1B) to reproduction of the third age-class (matrix element  $a_{l,3}$ , Fig. 1C).¶ Combining

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649	established based on the reaction norms. Demographic processes where an increase in the	
650	mean value has a stronger positive impact on population growth rate than the detrimental	
651	effect of increased variance need, to be identified. The latter condition is only met when the	
652	process-environment reaction norms are convex (Drake 2005, Koons et al. 2009, Morris et al	
653	2008) – but see Barraquand & Yoccoz (2013) for an alternative result, Importantly, species	
654	may not be purely buffered or labile some processes may be buffered, others labile, and	
655	others insensitive to environmental variability (e.g., Doak et al. 2005). Deciphering these	
656	patterns is a primary research interest in the field,	
657		
658	Demographic buffering in mammals: A case study	
659	Here, we examine the performance of our framework and test our hypothesis, that is that	
660	species at the buffered end of the variance continuum display highly negative self-second	
661	derivatives for the governing demographic processes. We use 43 MPMs from 37 mammal	
662	species (16 species at the within-populations level). Mammals are of special interest in the	
663	context of demographic buffering, for two reasons: (1) mammalian life histories have been	
664	well studied (Beccari et al. 2024; Bielby et al. 2007; Gillespie 1977; Jones 2011; Stearns	
665	1983) and (2) some of their populations have already been assessed in terms of demographic	
666	buffering, particularly for primates (Campos et al. 2017; Morris et al. 2008, 2011; Reed &	
667	Slade 2012; Rotella et al. 2012). Together, the well-studied life histories and previous	
668	information about the occurrence of buffering in mammals <u>allow us</u> to make accurate	
669	predictions and validate the performance of <u>our</u> framework.	
670	We used <u>MPMs (Caswell 2001)</u> from 4 <u>3</u> out of 139 studies with mammals available	
671	in the COMADRE Animal Matrix Database v.3.0.0 (Salguero-Gómez et al. 2016), These 43,	
672	populations encompass 37, species from eight taxonomic orders. We <u>carefully selected</u> these	
673	MPMs in our analyses because their models contain values of demographic processes $(a_{ij})$	

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	<b>Deleted:</b> Importantly, we note that more likely than previously thought ( $e.g.$ , Pfister 1998), species do not exist as purely buffering or labile, but that within populations, some vital rates may be buffered, others labile, and others insensitive to the environment ( $e.g.$ , (Doak <i>et al.</i> 2005). Deciphering generality in this likely complex pattern should attract much research attention going forward, in our opinion.
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718	for three or more contiguous time periods, thus allowing us to obtain the stochastic elasticity
719	of each $a_{ij}$ . Although we are aware that not all possible temporal variation in demographic
720	processes may have been expressed within this period, we assumed three or more transitions
721	are enough to provide sufficient variation for population comparison (Compagnoni et al.
722	2023), To mitigate bias in variance estimates, we randomly extracted three MPMs from the
723	existing data for each species (Supplementary Material, Table S1), calculated the mean of
724	these three MPMs, and repeated this process 50 times to obtain estimates of $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$ and their
725	corresponding standard errors. A detailed description of the analysed data and their original
726	sources are detailed in Table S1, Finally, we included MPMs of Homo sapiens to cross-check
727	our estimates of second-order derivatives, as it is the only mammalian species where these
728	have been calculated (Caswell 1996). The data for $H_{\pi}$ sapiens were gathered from 26 modern
729	populations (Keyfitz & Flieger 1990).
730	At the within-populations level, we used a subset of 16 populations (including H.
731	sapiens) whose MPMs were age-based. We specifically selected these populations because
732	their life cycles can be summarised by two main demographic processes: survival and
733	contribution to the recruitment of new individuals (Caswell 2010; Ebert 1999).
734	To quantify the variance continuum and calculate $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$ for between-populations level
735	comparisons, we followed <u>Tuljapurkar et al. (2003)</u> and <u>Haridas &amp; Tuljapurkar (2005)</u> . Next,
736	at the within-populations level, we calculated the deterministic elasticities to each
737	demographic process using the <i>popbio</i> package (Stubben et al. 2020). The self-second
738	derivatives were adapted from <i>demogR</i> (Jones 2007) following (Caswell 1996) and applied to
739	the mean MPM of each study. All analyses were performed using R version 4.4.1 (R Core
740	<u>Team 2024).</u>
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741 Results

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estimates of the sum of stochastic elasticities (Fig. 2	2), and
then for the correlation between those estimates and	1 the
number of MPMs available per species. For the forr	ner, we
estimated Blomberg's K, (nestimate	[33]
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937	signal) to positive values 1 (strong) (Münkemüller <i>et al.</i> 2012). Blomberg's K in our analyses
938	was 0.23. The correlation between the number of available MPMs per study and the sum of
939	stochastic elasticities (post jack-knifing) raised a weakly negative coefficient (-0.002), though
940	significant (P = $0.017$ ),
941	We found little evidence in support of our hypothesis, Specifically, the demographic
942	processes with the highest elasticity values failed to display strong negative self-second
943	derivatives (Fig. 3). Particularly for the majority of primates, demographic processes with
944	high elasticities had positive values for the self-second derivatives (indicated by yellow
945	squares with white dots in Figure 3). Examples of primate species exhibiting high elasticities
946	and positive values for their self-second derivatives include northern muriqui (Brachyteles
947	hypoxanthus), mountain gorilla (Gorilla beringei), white-faced capuchin monkey (Cebus
948	capucinus), rhesus monkey (Macaca mulatta), blue monkey (Cercopithecus mitis),
949	Verreaux's sifaka (Propithecus verreauxi) and olive baboon (Papio cynocephalus) (Fig. 3).
950	This implies that the key demographic processes influencing $\lambda_{1,2}$ do not show evidence of
951	selective pressure for reducing their variability.
952	The killer whale (Orcinus orca) showed similar lack of support for our hypothesis as
953	primates. Indeed, O. orca, was positioned at the buffered end of the variance continuum
954	(Cetacea, $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}} = -\frac{4.72}{2} \times 10^{-4} \pm 1.53 \times 10^{-4}$ ) (Fig. 2 silhouette not shown). However, the first-
955	and second-order effects show that the governing three demographic processes in the killer
956	whale life cycle (namely, matrix elements $a_{2,2}$ , $a_{3,3}$ and $a_{4,4}$ ) are not under selection pressures
957	for reducing their temporal variance, but the opposite (yellow and green squares with white
958	dots, Fig. 3).
959	Only two species supported our hypothesis: humans and the Columbian ground
960	squirrel (Urocitellus columbianus), In humans, demographic parameters representing survival

from the first to second age class (matrix element  $a_{2,1}$ ) displayed high elasticities and negative

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	<b>Deleted:</b> However, even though the primates were positioned closer to the low-variance end of the continuum in step 1, the evidence from steps 2 and 3 does do not support the occurrence of buffering in the most influential demographic processes.
	<b>Deleted:</b> controversy between the results of step 1 and steps 2-3 results as most primates. In step 1, t
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	<b>Deleted:</b> The only primate species exhibiting evidence of buffering in steps 2 and 3corroborating our hypothesis was the human

1000	self-second derivatives (depicted as yellow squares with black dots in Fig. 3). In U.
1001	<u>columbianus</u> , survival from the first to the second age class $(a_{2,1})$ too showed evidence of
1002	selection reducing the variance of this demographic process, Accordingly, U. columbianus,
1003	was positioned near the buffered end of the variance continuum, providing consistent
1004	evidence supporting our hypothesis by displaying first- and second-order effects indicative of
1005	temporal variance reduction in the key demographic process, Conversely, the primary
1006	governing demographic process for Soay sheep (Ovis aries) displayed convex selection
1007	signatures. For $Q$ . aries (Fig. 2, silhouette i), remaining in the third age class $(q_{3,3}, \text{Fig. 3})$
1008	<u>governs</u> the influence on $\lambda_t$ and is under selection pressure to have its variance increased.
1009	These characteristics suggest potential conditions for lability, despite the species being
1010	positioned closer to the buffered end of the variance continuum,
1011	The first- and second-order effects illustrate the importance of examining buffering
1012	evidence at the within-populations level. These effects can identify the simultaneous
1013	contributions of concave and convex selection on different demographic processes within a
1014	single life cycle. In the polar bear, (Ursus maritimus), the key demographic process $(a_{4,4})$ is
1015	under convex selection, as depicted by a yellow square with a white dot in Figure 3.
1016	However, the demographic process with the second highest elasticity value $(a_{5,4})$ is under
1017	strong concave selection (depicted by a light green square with a black dot in Figure. 3).
1018	By adding the second-order effect to the toolbox for demographic buffering, another
1019	important inference was made possible. The high absolute values of self-second derivatives
1020	(large dots, either black or white, Fig. 3) indicate where the sensitivity of $\lambda_{\underline{l}}$ to demographic
1021	parameters is itself prone to environmental changes. For instance, if the value of $a_{5,4}$ for $U_{-}$
1022	<u>maritimus</u> increased, the sensitivity of $\lambda_t$ to $a_{5,4}$ would decrease because the self-second
1023	derivative of $a_{5,4}$ is highly negative (depicted by the largest black dot in polar bear, Fig. 3
1024	silhouette j). The opposite holds for the $a_{4,4}$ demographic process, where an increase in the

	<b>Deleted:</b> Evidence supporting buffering our hypothesis was also found in the Columbian ground squirrel
1	<b>Deleted:</b> ( <i>Urocitellus columbianus</i> ), where, similar tolike in humans
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	<b>Deleted:</b> The Soay sheep ( <i>Ovis aries</i> ) was the species furthest from the buffered end of the variance continuum that enabled to perform steps 2 and 3.
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1068	value of $a_{4,4}$ would increase the sensitivity of $\lambda_4$ to $a_{4,4}$ , because the self-second derivative of		Deleted: 's sensitivity
1060	$q_{\rm ev}$ is highly positive (the largest white dot in the polar hear MPM). Thus, sensitivities (or		Dalatadi -
1007	and is nightly positive (and largest white dot in the polar ocar with wi). Thus, sensitivities (of		Deleted: depicted by
1070	equally elasticities) of demographic processes with high absolute values for self-second		
1071	derivatives are dynamic and can, easily change.		Deleted: can
1072			
1073	Discussion		
1074	We report evidence of demographic buffering assessed at the between and within populations		
1075	level. We used stochastic elasticities alongside the first- and second- order perturbation		
1076	analysis and applied these analyses to mammal species to test our hypothesis. Here, we find		
1077	weak support for said hypothesis, since most populations placed at the buffered end of		
1078	variance continuum failed to display concave selection signatures.		
1079	Evidencing demographic buffering is not straightforward. Indeed, through the	*****	<b>Deleted:</b> In the Anthropocene, identifying and quantifying mechanisms of species responses to stochastic environments
1080	analysis of stochastic population growth rate ( $\lambda_s$ ) in our application of the framework to 43,		holds crucial importance. This importance is particularly tangible in the context of the unprecedented environmental
1081	populations of <u>37 mammal</u> species, we identify the highest density of natural populations		persistence of natural populations . Correlational demographic analysis, whereby the importance of
1082	near the buffered end of the variance continuum. However, we show that the same species		demographic processes and their temporal variability is examined, has attempted to identify how species may buffer against the negative effects of environmental stochasticity.
1083	then fail to exhibit signs of concave ( $\cap$ -shaped) selection on key demographic parameters.		However, these widely used approaches have important limitations (see Introduction and Hilde <i>et al.</i> 2020). One significant limitation is the issue of measurement code
1084	opposed to our hypothesis, Such results suggest discordance between two features of		concerning demographic processes . Demographic processes,
1085	demographic buffering, namely: 1) the stochastic population growth rate having a low		operate at various temporal and spatial scales. The choice of scale at which these processes are measured can impact the outcomes of correlational demographic analysis. Our novel
1086	sensitivity to temporal variability in demographic processes, and 2) demographic processes		framework overcomes said limitations by providing a rigorous approach to quantify demographic buffering (. ¶
1087	having variability constrained by selection		Deleted: 44
1007	naving variability constrained by selection.		Deleted: 34
1088	The lack of correlation between non-linear selection patterns (concave/convex) and		Deleted: (step 1)
1000	anonics monitioning on the variance continuum for the studied momental anonics may have		Deleted: the
1089	species positioning on the variance continuum for the studied mammal species may have		Deleted: Swhen further analyses are performed averaging the
1090	several explanations. Firstly, non-linear selection on demographic process variability is		variation across the duration of each study (steps 2 and 3)
1091	dynamic (Kajin et al. 2023). Within a life cycle, even minor changes in key demographic		Deteteu. 1ms
1092	processes can trigger a domino effect, affecting not only the process itself but also the		

11	25	sensitivity of $\lambda_1$ to changes in said process (Stearns 1992). Consequently, correlations
11	26	between demographic processes (negative correlations known as trade-offs) are influenced by
11	27	minor alterations in the governing demographic processes (Doak et al. 2005). Therefore, the
11	28	observed self-second derivative of the population growth rate represents a momentum that
11	29	can be influenced by small changes in any demographic process within the life cycle.
11	30	Because of these characteristics, second-order derivatives reveal "fine scale" fitness
11	31	behaviour compared to sums of stochastic elasticities. Evolutionary demography still requires
11	32	a tool to connect second-order fitness effects with stochastic elasticities in a biologically
11	33	interpretable manner (but see Tuljapurkar et al. 2023).
11	34	When placing our study species along a variance continuum, primates tend to be
11	35	located on the buffered end. However, most primates displayed convex - instead of the
11	36	expected concave - selection on adult survival. Similar results, where the key demographic
11	37	process failed to display constrained temporal variability, have been reported for long-lived
11	38	seabirds (Doherty et al. 2004). One explanation for the unexpected convex selection on adult
11	39	survival involves trade-offs, as suggested by (Doak et al. 2005). When two demographic
11	40	parameters are negatively correlated, the variance of population growth rate can be increased
11	41	or decreased (Compagnoni et al. 2016; Evans & Holsinger 2012).
11	42	Correlations among demographic processes (positive and negative) inherently
11	43	influence the biological limits of variance (Haridas & Tuljapurkar 2005). This is because the
11	44	magnitude of variation in a particular demographic process is constrained by the variation of
11	45	other demographic processes. Not surprisingly, correlations among demographic processes
11	46	have been shown to be strongly subjected to ecological factors (Fay et al. 2022). Therefore,
11	47	future studies may benefit from deeper insights using cross-second derivatives (Caswell
11	48	1996, 2001) to investigate correlations among demographic processes.

**Deleted:** finding confirms that placing the species near the buffered end of the variance continuum is *necessary* but not *sufficient* to diagnose demographic buffering. Indeed, buffering occurs when concave selection forces act on the key demographic parameter . ¶

Biological variance estimates are inevitably subjected to several sources of bias
(Simmonds & Jones 2024). To minimise bias, we randomly sampled the available matrices
before obtaining the estimates. Despite the significant correlation between $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{s\sigma}$ and the
number of available matrices per species, the relative positioning of species remains
meaningful for between-population level comparisons, as the correlation is very weak (-
0.002). Still, researchers carrying out macroecological comparisons of demographic buffering
might want to be even more restringent than we have been here with their datasets, as these
grow longer with time (Compagnoni et al. 2021; Salguero-Gómez et al. 2021).
Regarding phylogenetic effects, our tests revealed a mild signal, but we note that
future work regressing $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{s^{\sigma}}$ values against potential independent variables (e.g., climate
values) may want to correct for this phylogenetic dependence. By having carefully chosen
studies from a database that contains >400 species and retained only those that passed
through a set of selection criteria (Che-Castaldo et al. 2020; Gascoigne et al. 2023b; Kendall
et al. 2019; Römer et al. 2024; Simmonds & Jones 2024), we mitigate those biases a priori.
Furthermore, we are using an elasticity-based approach, meaning we are comparing
proportional variances. At present, the available methods still do not account for constraints
in variance nor performing a perturbation approach disproportionately.
The analyses at both between- and within-populations levels are fundamentally
interconnected. This connection is grounded on the fact that large summed elasticities with
respect to variance are intrinsically linked to high elasticity values, as demonstrated in
equation 6 in (Haridas & Tuljapurkar 2005). This finding robustly endorses the perspective
that species' positions along the variance continuum should be interpreted with consideration
of first and second-order effects, and additionally, in the context of selection pressures acting
on the variability of demographic processes, as revealed by a second order effect.

1178	Combining first- and second-order analyses is crucial for understanding the factors
1179	shaping demographic buffering patterns. The second-order effect reveals that the role of
1180	natural selection in shaping temporal variation in demographic processes is more complex
1181	than initially thought. Indeed, demographic processes within our study populations often face
1182	a mix of convex and concave selection. This mix of selection patterns was suggested by Doak
1183	et al. (2005), who noted that dramatic changes in population growth rate sensitivities are
1184	influenced by correlations among demographic processes. Here, only two of the 16 mammal
1185	species revealed concave selection on the key demographic processes: Columbian ground
1186	squirrel (Urocitellus columbianus), and humans, (Homo sapiens), These two species were
1187	placed near the buffered end of the variance continuum, supporting our hypothesis. Evidence
1188	of buffering has been reported across 22 ungulate species (Gaillard & Yoccoz 2003).
1189	However, in the one ungulate we examined, the moose (Alces alces), we found only partial
1190	support for our hypothesis, as it is near the buffered end of the variance continuum but Jacks
1191	concave selection pressures
1192	Our overall findings reveal varying levels of support for the notion that adult survival
1193	in long-lived species tends to be buffered. Indeed, Gaillard et al. (1998) found that adult
1194	female survival varied considerably less than juvenile survival in large herbivores. This
1195	finding was also supported by further studies in ungulates (Gaillard & Yoccoz 2003), turtles
1196	(Heppell 1998), vertebrates and plants (Pfister 1998), and more recently across nine species
1197	of plants (McDonald et al. 2017). However, an alternative result was also reported by
1198	Gaillard and Yoccoz (2003) for small mammals, where variability in adult survival was
1199	unexpectedly high, even though the studied small mammals were annual, and as such
1200	comparable to large mammal model. Seasonality, frequency and method of sampling all
1201	influence survival estimates and their estimated variability, thus, when comparing multiples

**Deleted:** Combining the three steps into a unified framework is of outmost importance. In steps 2 and 3 of the framework, we find relatively limited overall evidence of buffering in the examination of our 16 (out of 34 in step 1) studied animal species (out of 34 in step 1). Step 3 of our framework reveals that the role of natural selection shaping temporal variation in demographic processes is more complex than expected. Indeed, demographic processes within our study populations are often under a mix of convex and concave selection. This mix of selection patterns was already suggested by Doak *et al.* (2005).

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**Deleted:** It is worth noting that a varying number of matrices per species were employed, ranging from 1 to 21, with an average of 8.1 matrices per species (as shown in Table S1). Naturally, having a greater number of matrices is preferred in such analyses. Furthermore, while the size of matrices (matrix dimensions) does not directly bias the results of our framework in any way – since steps 2 and 3 are shown for all the demographic processes independent of matrix dimension – potential implications of varying matrix dimensions should

1242	species/studies, all of the latter characteristics should be taken into account when interpreting	
1243	the results.	
1244	Examining the drivers of demographic buffering has become an important piece of the	
1245	ecological and evolutionary puzzle of demography. As such, understanding buffering can	
1246	help us better predict population responses to environmental variability, climate change, and	
1247	direct anthropogenic disturbances (Boyce et al. 2006; Gascoigne et al. 2024a; McDonald et	
1248	al. 2017; Pfister 1998; Vázquez et al. 2017). By setting demographic buffering into a broader	
1249	and integrated framework, we hope to enhance comprehension and prediction of the	
1250	implications of heightened environmental stochasticity on the evolution of life history traits.	
1251	This understanding is crucial in mitigating the risk of extinction for the most vulnerable	
1252	species.	
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1234	Acknowledgements	$\backslash$
1254	Acknowledgements This study was financed in part by the <i>Coordenação de Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Nível</i>	
1254 1255 1256	Acknowledgements This study was financed in part by the <i>Coordenação de Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Nível</i> <i>Superior</i> - Brasil (CAPES) - Finance Code 001. GSS was supported by CAPES and CNPq	
1255 1256 1257	Acknowledgements This study was financed in part by the <i>Coordenação de Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Nível</i> <i>Superior</i> - Brasil (CAPES) - Finance Code 001. GSS was supported by CAPES and CNPq (301343/2023-3). MK was supported by the European Commission through the Marie	
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1254 1255 1256 1257 1258 1259	Acknowledgements This study was financed in part by the <i>Coordenação de Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Nível</i> <i>Superior</i> - Brasil (CAPES) - Finance Code 001. GSS was supported by CAPES and CNPq (301343/2023-3). <u>MK was supported by the European Commission through the Marie</u> <u>Skłodowska-Curie fellowship (MSCA MaxPersist #101032484) hosted by RSG.</u> RS-G was supported by a NERC Independent Research Fellowship (NE/M018458/1) and a	
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1254 1255 1256 1257 1258 1259 1260 1261 1262 1263	Acknowledgements This study was financed in part by the <i>Coordenação de Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Nível Superior</i> - Brasil (CAPES) - Finance Code 001. GSS was supported by CAPES and CNPq (301343/2023-3). <u>MK was supported by the European Commission through the Marie</u> <u>Skłodowska-Curie fellowship (MSCA MaxPersist #101032484) hosted by RSG.</u> RS-G was supported by a NERC Independent Research Fellowship (NE/M018458/1) and a <u>NERC Pushing the Frontiers (NE/X013766/1)</u> . Data availability The demographic data used in this paper are open-access and available in the COMADRE	

1265 species used here is available in Supplementary Material (Table S1). The data and code

**Deleted:** When placing our study species along a variance continuum (step 1), primates tend to be located on the buffered end. However, most primates displayed convex instead of the expected concave- selection on adult survival. Similar results, where the key demographic process failed to display constrained temporal variability, have been reported for long-lived seabirds . One explanation for the unexpected convex selection on adult survival involves trade-offs, as suggested by . When two demographic parameters are negatively correlated, the variance of population growth rate (() can be increased or decreased . The well-established tradeoff between survival and fecundity might explain the observed deviation of our results. Because variation in primate recruitment is already constrained by physiological limitations, when adult survival and recruitment are engaged in a trade-off, this trade-off might lead to our unexpected result. Correlations among demographic processes (positive and negative) inherently influence the biological limits of variance (Haridas & Tuljapurkar, 2005). This is because the magnitude of variation in a particular demographic process is constrained by (the variation of) other demographic processes that exert an influence on it. Not surprisingly, correlations among demographic processes have been shown to be strongly subjected to ecological factors . HereTherefore, future studies may benefit from deeper insights via using cross-second derivatives to investigate correlations among demographic processes.

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#### Moved (insertion) [1]

Moved up [1]: MK was supported by the European Commission through the Marie Skłodowska-Curie fellowship (MSCA MaxPersist #101032484) hosted by RSG.
1313	8	supporting	the results	s can	be accessed	here:
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1319 https://github.com/SamuelGascoigne/Demographic buffering unified framework.

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1321 References

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1553 1554	Figure legends
1555	Figure 1. A), The, variance continuum for 37, hypothetical species based on the summed
1556	stochastic elasticities ( $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{s^{\sigma}}$ ) at the between populations hierarchical level. The closer the
1557	$\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$ is to zero, the weaker the impact of variation in demographic processes on the
1558	stochastic population growth rate, $\lambda_{g}$ . The variance continuum ranges from potentially
1559	buffered (right-hand side) to less buffered (left-hand side) species/populations. The yellow-
1560	dotted species/populations can be classified as having potentially buffered life cycles. The
1561	left-hand side of the graph represents species/populations, where variability in demographic
1562	processes results in strong impact on $\lambda_s$ (blue dots). Thus, the blue-dotted species/populations,
1563	can be classified as having potentially unbuffered life cycles, The vertical axis delineates the
1564	values of the probability density function, indicating the number of species/populations at
1565	each value of $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$ . The placement of data points (species/populations) along the horizontal
1566	axis corresponds to their calculated values of $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{s^{\sigma}}$ and is arranged linearly, while the
1567	placement, along the y-axis is random, for improved visual comprehension. B) First-order
1568	effects or linear selection pressures for individual species/populations at within-species level
1569	(see text), Shown are the elasticities of the deterministic population growth rate ( $\lambda_{J}$ ) for a
1570	hypothetical population of wolves, and revealing, the governing demographic process(es), in
1571	the life cycle (yellow cells: high elasticity, blue cells: low elasticity), C) Combined results for
1572	first (yellow and blue cells) and second order effects (black dots), where the latter reveals the
1573	nonlinear selection pressures at the within-species level,
1574 1575	Figure 2. The variance continuum for 43 populations from 37 species of mammals from the
1576	<u>COMADRE</u> database based on the summed stochastic elasticities ( $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$ ) at the between
1577	populations hierarchical level. Colors represent different taxonomic orders with Primates
1578	occupying the right-hand side. Silhouettes: a) Brachyteles hyphoxantus, b) Gorilla beringhei,

/	Deleted: A three-step framework proposed to: Step
_	Deleted: 1 - allocate species and/or populations on a
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/	<b>Deleted:</b> The variance continuum operates at the between- populations level (see text) and is represented by partitioning the sum of all the stochastic elasticities into two
	compounds: i) sums of stochastic elasticities with resp [34]
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	Deleted: 34
	Deleted: Results for step 1 of our framework showing [37]

1649	c) Cercopithecus mitis, d) Urocitellus columbianus, e) Mustela erminea, f) Erythrocebus
1650	patas, g) Lepus americanus, h) Rattus fuscipes, i) Ovis aries, j) Homo sapiens, k) Macropus
1651	eugenii, and l) Felis catus. The vertical axis delineates the values of the probability density
1652	function, indicating the number of species/populations at each value of $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$ . The placement
1653	of data points (species/populations) along the horizontal axis corresponds to their calculated
1654	values of $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$ and is arranged linearly, while the placement along the y-axis is random for
1655	improved visual comprehension.

1656

1657	Figure 3: First and second order effects on population growth rate, $\lambda_l$ (corresponding to
1658	elasticities and self-second derivatives of population growth rate, respectively) for 16
1659	mammal species. The 16 plots represent populations where the MPMs built by ages were
1660	available in the COMADRE Animal Matrix Database. The yellow-blue colour scale
1661	represents elasticity values for each of the demographic processes in the MPM, where yellow
1662	cells represent high and blue cells low elasticity of population growth rate to changes in /
1663	demographic processes. No colour means elasticity=0. The black dots represent negative self-
1664	second derivatives of $\lambda_{\underline{l}}$ - corresponding to concave selection - and the white dots represent
1665	positive self-second derivatives of $\lambda_{\underline{l}}$ - ditto convex selection. The dot sizes are scaled by the
1666	absolute value of self-second derivatives, where the smaller the dot, the closer a self-second
1667	derivative is to 0, indicating weak or no nonlinearity. Thus, large dots indicate strong
1668	nonlinear selection forces, either concave (black) or convex (white). Since the derivatives of
1669	population growth rate are confounded by eigen-structure (Kroon et al. 2000), the scaling of
1670	the elasticity values and second-derivative values is species specific - i.e., each plot has its
1671	own scale. Species-specific scales can be found in Supplementary material (Table S2).
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<b>Deleted:</b> The black dots represent negative self-second derivatives of $\lambda_i$ - thus concave selection - and the white dots represent positive self-second derivatives of $\lambda_i$ - thus convex selection. The dot sizes are scaled by the absolute value of self-second derivatives, where the smaller the dot, the closer a self-second derivatives, where the smaller the dot, the closer a self-second derivatives, where the smaller the dot, the closer a self-second derivative is to 0, indicating weak or no nonlinearity. Large dots indicate strong nonlinear selection forces. Scales (Emin-max=elasticity minimum and maximum value, SSD <sub>min-max</sub> =elasticity minimum and maximum value): Blue monkey Emin-max=0.00-0.52, SSD <sub>min-max</sub> =-1.25-1.27; Columbian ground squirrel: Emin-max=0.00-0.60, SSD <sub>min-max</sub> =-4.39-2.59; Human: Emin-max=0.00-0.60, SSD <sub>min-max</sub> =-0.15-0.08; Killer whale: Emin-max=0.00-0.65, SSD <sub>min-max</sub> =-0.15-0.08; Killer whale: Emin-max=0.00-0.51, SSD <sub>min-max</sub> =-1.46-0.28; Northern muriqui: Emin-max=0.00-0.54, SSD <sub>min-max</sub> =-0.73-0.54; Rhesus macaque: Emin-max=0.00-0.56, SSD <sub>min-max</sub> =-0.54-0.71; Root vole: Emin-max=0.00-0.56, SSD <sub>min-max</sub> =-0.54-0.21; Root vole: Emin-max=0.00-0.56, SSD <sub>min-max</sub> =-0.64-0.34; Verreaux's sifaka: Emin-max=0.00-0.60, SSD <sub>min-max</sub> =-0.64-0.34; Ve

# 1/715Supplementary material – Data available in COMADRE Version 3.0.0 and results from Step 1 of the framework1716

1717 **Table S1.** The metadata used and the respective results presented in the main text. The first four columns represent the information from where

1718 Matrix Populations Models (MPMs) were extract precisely as presented in COMADRE <u>3,0.0,</u>

1719

Species	<u>Common name</u>	<u>Species</u> (COMADRE)	<u>Order</u>	<u># matrices</u>	λ,	$\lambda_s$	$\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$	$\Sigma \overline{E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}(\mathrm{SE})}$
<u>Homo sapiens</u> <u>sapiens</u>	Human	Homo_sapiens_sub spsapiens	Primates	<u>26</u>	<u>1.063707</u>	<u>1.061537</u>	<u>-2.24E-03</u>	<u>3.15E-04</u>
<u>Alces alces</u>	Moose	Alces_alces	Artiodactyla	<u>14</u>	<u>1.205368</u>	<u>1.205161</u>	<u>-6.69E-04</u>	<u>8.42E-05</u>
Antechinus agilis	Agile antechinus	Antechinus_agilis	<u>Dasyuromorphia</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>0.931076</u>	<u>0.885919</u>	<u>-1.11E-01</u>	<u>1.62E-03</u>
Bos primigenius	Cattle	Bos_primigenius	Artiodactyla	<u>8</u>	<u>1.002505</u>	<u>1.000493</u>	<u>-2.83E-03</u>	<u>2.96E-04</u>
<u>Brachyteles</u> hypoxanthus	Northern muriqui	Brachyteles_hypox anthus	Primates	<u>25</u>	<u>1.05122</u>	<u>1.051273</u>	<u>-5.31E-05</u>	<u>2.09E-05</u>
<u>Callospermophil</u> <u>us lateralis</u>	Golden-mantled ground squirrel	Callospermophilus lateralis	Rodentia	<u>18</u>	<u>2.052345</u>	<u>1.970253</u>	<u>-6.68E-02</u>	<u>8.72E-03</u>
<u>Cebus capucinus</u>	White faced capuchin monkey	Cebus_capucinus	Primates	<u>22</u>	<u>1.020887</u>	<u>1.020868</u>	<u>-2.04E-04</u>	<u>4.75E-05</u>
Cercopithecus mitis	Blue monkey	<u>Cercopithecus_miti</u> <u>s</u>	Primates	<u>28</u>	<u>1.036082</u>	<u>1.036075</u>	<u>-4.43E-05</u>	<u>1.18E-05</u>

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**Deleted:** Column titles differ from the database as "SpeciesAuthorComadre" is equivalent to "SpeciesAuthor" and "SpeciesName" is equivalent to "SpeciesAccepted" in COMADRE 3.0.0. The remaining columns present the results of step 1, where we present the raw values 0 a, their respective standard deviation, the stochastic population growth rate  $\lambda_s$ , and the number of available matrices (# matrices).

<u>Cervus</u> <u>canadensis</u> <u>subsp. nelsoni</u>	Rocky Mountain elk	<u>Cervus canadensis</u> <u>subsp. nelsoni</u>	<u>Artiodactyla</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>1.107412</u>	<u>1.099838</u>	<u>-8.55E-03</u>	<u>1.09E-03</u>
<u>Eumetopias</u> jubatus	Northern sea lion; Steller sea lion	<u>Eumetopias_jubatu</u> <u>s</u>	<u>Carnivora</u>	4	<u>0.904383</u>	<u>0.902155</u>	<u>-4.52E-03</u>	<u>2.44E-04</u>
Felis catus	Feral cat	Felis_catus	<u>Carnivora</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>1.948471</u>	<u>1.8259</u>	<u>-1.34E-01</u>	<u>1.89E-03</u>
Gorilla beringei	Mountain gorilla	Gorilla_beringei	Primates	<u>41</u>	<u>1.026827</u>	<u>1.02682</u>	<u>-1.28E-05</u>	<u>1.32E-05</u>
Hippocamelus bisulcus	Huemul deer	<u>Hippocamelus_bis</u> <u>ulcus</u>	<u>Artiodactyla</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>0.996197</u>	<u>0.995462</u>	<u>-1.80E-03</u>	<u>1.09E-04</u>
<u>Leopardus</u> pardalis	<u>Ocelot</u>	Leopardus pardalis	<u>Carnivora</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>1.086146</u>	<u>1.086122</u>	<u>-2.94E-04</u>	<u>3.89E-05</u>
Lepus americanus	Snowshoe hare	Lepus americanus	Lagomorpha	5	<u>0.811904</u>	<u>0.707678</u>	<u>-2.62E-01</u>	<u>2.33E-02</u>
Lycaon pictus	African wild dog	Lycaon pictus	<u>Carnivora</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>1.500429</u>	<u>1.430517</u>	<u>-9.70E-02</u>	<u>9.91E-04</u>
Macaca mulatta	Rhesus macaque	Macaca_mulatta_3	Primates	<u>24</u>	<u>1.127496</u>	<u>1.12735</u>	<u>-3.84E-04</u>	<u>6.83E-05</u>
<u>Macropus</u> eugenii	Tammar wallaby	Macropus_eugenii	<u>Diprotodontia</u>	<u>15</u>	<u>0.981097</u>	<u>0.970794</u>	<u>-1.43E-02</u>	<u>1.62E-03</u>
<u>Marmota</u> <u>flaviventris</u>	Yellow-bellied marmot	<u>Marmota_flavivent</u> <u>ris_2</u>	Rodentia	<u>8</u>	<u>0.89031</u>	<u>0.886098</u>	<u>-8.80E-03</u>	<u>6.98E-04</u>
<u>Marmota</u> <u>flaviventris</u>	Yellow-bellied marmot	<u>Marmota_flavivent</u> <u>ris_3</u>	Rodentia	<u>8</u>	<u>0.920541</u>	<u>0.916392</u>	<u>-7.00E-03</u>	<u>7.04E-04</u>

Microtus oeconomus	Root vole	<u>Microtus_oeconom</u> <u>us</u>	<u>Rodentia</u>	<u>28</u>	<u>1.027531</u>	<u>1.027095</u>	<u>-5.60E-04</u>	<u>1.06E-04</u>
Mustela erminea	Stoat	Mustela erminea	<u>Carnivora</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>1.258462</u>	<u>1.074391</u>	<u>-3.10E-01</u>	<u>1.62E-02</u>
Orcinus orca	Killer whale	Orcinus_orca_2	<u>Cetacea</u>	<u>50</u>	<u>0.998658</u>	<u>0.998351</u>	<u>-4.72E-04</u>	<u>1.53E-04</u>
Ovis aries	Soay sheep	<u>Ovis_aries_2</u>	<u>Artiodactyla</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>1.09877</u>	<u>1.080656</u>	<u>-3.45E-02</u>	<u>2.96E-03</u>
Pan troglodytes subsp. schweinfurthii	Eastern chimpanzee	Pan_troglodytes_su bspschweinfurthii	Primates	<u>45</u>	<u>0.982286</u>	<u>0.982191</u>	<u>-1.94E-04</u>	<u>5.06E-05</u>
Papio cynocephalus	<u>Olive baboon</u>	<u>Papio_cynocephalu</u> <u>s</u>	Primates	<u>37</u>	<u>1.053872</u>	<u>1.053789</u>	<u>-2.41E-04</u>	<u>6.97E-05</u>
Peromyscus maniculatus	Deer mouse	Peromyscus_manic ulatus_2	Rodentia	<u>4</u>	<u>1.10686</u>	<u>1.101117</u>	<u>-9.41E-03</u>	<u>6.88E-04</u>
Phascolarctos cinereus	<u>Koala</u>	Phascolarctos_cine reus_2	<u>Diprotodontia</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>1.064011</u>	<u>1.062744</u>	<u>-2.53E-03</u>	<u>2.16E-04</u>
<u>Phocarctos</u> <u>hookeri</u>	<u>New Zealand sea</u> <u>lion</u>	<u>Phocarctos_hooker</u> <u>i</u>	<u>Carnivora</u>	<u>16</u>	<u>1.023016</u>	<u>1.020083</u>	<u>-3.56E-03</u>	<u>4.15E-04</u>
Propithecus verreauxi	Verreaux's sifaka	Propithecus_verrea uxi	Primates	<u>24</u>	<u>0.985592</u>	<u>0.985399</u>	<u>-3.06E-04</u>	<u>6.29E-05</u>
Rattus fuscipes	Bush rat	Rattus fuscipes	Rodentia	3	<u>1.304662</u>	<u>1.188931</u>	<u>-2.45E-01</u>	<u>4.29E-03</u>
<u>Urocitellus</u> <u>armatus</u>	<u>Uinta ground</u> squirrel	<u>Spermophilus_arm</u> <u>atus</u>	Rodentia	<u>6</u>	<u>1.125011</u>	<u>1.113416</u>	<u>-1.73E-02</u>	<u>1.68E-03</u>

<u>Urocitellus</u> armatus	<u>Uinta ground</u> squirrel	<u>Spermophilus_arm</u> <u>atus_2</u>	<u>Rodentia</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>1.094693</u>	<u>1.084304</u>	<u>-1.47E-02</u>	<u>1.56E-03</u>
<u>Urocitellus</u> columbianus	<u>Columbian ground</u> <u>squirrel</u>	<u>Spermophilus colu</u> <u>mbianus</u>	Rodentia	<u>6</u>	<u>1.008949</u>	<u>0.984575</u>	<u>-3.80E-02</u>	<u>3.26E-03</u>
<u>Urocitellus</u> columbianus	<u>Columbian ground</u> <u>squirrel</u>	<u>Spermophilus_colu</u> <u>mbianus_3</u>	Rodentia	<u>6</u>	<u>1.200353</u>	<u>1.197473</u>	<u>-3.38E-03</u>	<u>6.96E-04</u>
<u>Ursus</u> <u>americanus</u> subsp. floridanus	<u>Florida black bear</u>	<u>Ursus americanus</u> subspfloridanus	<u>Carnivora</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>1.01989</u>	<u>1.018094</u>	<u>-3.68E-03</u>	<u>3.97E-04</u>
<u>Ursus arctos</u> subsp. horribilis	Grizzly bear	<u>Ursus_arctos_subs</u> phorribilis_5	<u>Carnivora</u>	2	<u>1.025712</u>	<u>1.024785</u>	<u>-1.38E-03</u>	<u>1.26E-04</u>
<u>Ursus maritimus</u>	Polar bear	<u>Ursus_maritimus_2</u>	<u>Carnivora</u>	5	<u>0.940646</u>	<u>0.931697</u>	<u>-1.91E-02</u>	<u>9.23E-04</u>
<u>Brachyteles</u> hypoxanthus	Northern muriqui	Brachyteles hypox anthus 2	Primates	<u>25</u>	<u>1.110953</u>	<u>1.110983</u>	<u>1.22E-05</u>	<u>5.05E-06</u>
Cebus capucinus	<u>White-faced</u> capuchin monkey	<u>Cebus_capucinus_</u> 2	Primates	<u>22</u>	<u>1.059311</u>	<u>1.059248</u>	<u>-1.03E-04</u>	<u>2.85E-05</u>
<u>Chlorocebus</u> aethiops	<u>Vervet</u>	<u>Chlorocebus_aethi</u> ops_2	Primates	<u>8</u>	<u>1.187136</u>	<u>1.148862</u>	<u>-8.03E-02</u>	<u>1.31E-02</u>
Erythrocebus patas	Patas monkey	Erythrocebus patas	Primates	2	<u>1.127974</u>	<u>1.092178</u>	<u>-5.21E-02</u>	<u>5.38E-03</u>
Gorilla beringei subsp. beringei	<u>Mountain gorilla</u>	<u>Gorilla_beringei_s</u> <u>ubspberingei</u>	<u>Primates</u>	<u>41</u>	<u>1.052588</u>	<u>1.05255</u>	<u>-6.81E-05</u>	<u>1.11E-05</u>

Figure 3 reference	Species common name	<u>E<sub>min</sub>=elasticity</u> minimum value	<u>E<sub>max</sub>=elasticity</u> maximum value	<u>SSD<sub>min</sub>=self-second</u> <u>derivative minimum</u> <u>value</u>	<u>SSD<sub>max</sub>=self-second</u> derivative maximum <u>value</u>
<u>A</u>	Blue monkey	<u>0</u>	<u>0.52</u>	<u>-1.25</u>	<u>1.27</u>
<u>B</u>	Columbian ground squirrel	<u>0</u>	<u>0.23</u>	<u>-1.48</u>	<u>0.01</u>
<u>C</u>	Eastern chimpanzee	<u>0</u>	<u>0.60</u>	<u>-4.39</u>	<u>2.59</u>
<u>D</u>	<u>Human</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>0.18</u>	<u>-0.15</u>	<u>0.08</u>
<u>E</u>	Killer whale	<u>0</u>	<u>0.55</u>	<u>-5.72</u>	<u>3.43</u>
<u>F</u>	Moose	<u>0</u>	<u>0.55</u>	<u>-0.66</u>	<u>0.36</u>
<u>G</u>	<u>Mountain gorilla</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>0.81</u>	<u>-1.46</u>	<u>0.28</u>
<u>H</u>	Northern muriqui	<u>0</u>	<u>0.72</u>	<u>-1.17</u>	<u>0.35</u>
Ī	Olive baboon	<u>0</u>	<u>0.54</u>	<u>-0.57</u>	<u>1.13</u>
<u>J</u>	Polar bear	<u>0</u>	<u>0.26</u>	<u>-0.73</u>	<u>0.54</u>
<u>K</u>	Rhesus macaque	<u>0</u>	<u>0.51</u>	<u>-0.54</u>	<u>0.71</u>
L	Root vole	<u>0</u>	<u>0.86</u>	<u>-2.54</u>	<u>0.22</u>
<u>M</u>	Soay sheep	<u>0</u>	<u>0.56</u>	<u>-0.22</u>	<u>0.40</u>
<u>N</u>	Tammar wallaby	<u>0</u>	<u>0.55</u>	<u>-0.64</u>	<u>0.34</u>
<u>O</u>	Verreaux's sifaka	<u>0</u>	<u>0.60</u>	<u>-2.64</u>	<u>1.34</u>
<u>P</u>	White faced capuchin monkey	<u>0</u>	<u>0.66</u>	<u>-2.66</u>	<u>1.21</u>

**Table S2.** The species-specific scales for the elasticity of  $\lambda_l$  to changes in demographic processes and for the self-second derivatives of  $\lambda_l$  with

1733 respect to demographic processes for the 16 mammal species studied.

- 1 A unified framework to quantify demographic buffering in natural populations
- 2 A manuscript in preparation for submission to ECOLOGY LETTERS
- 3 Type of article: METHOD
- 4
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- 24 AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS: GSS developed the initial concept, performed the statistical 25 analyses, and contributed to the first draft of the manuscript. SJLG developed the initial 26 concept, contributed to the first draft and all other versions of the manuscript, and generated 27 28 final figures. ATCD co-advised the project and contributed significantly to final versions of the manuscript. MK developed and managed the project, contributed to the first draft and all 29 other versions of the manuscript, and generated final figures. RSG developed and managed 30 31 the project and contributed to the first draft and all other versions of the manuscript. All authors made substantial contributions to editing the manuscript and further refining ideas 32
- 33 and interpretations.
- 34
- 35 RUNNING TITLE: Demographic buffering framework (32/45 characters)
- 36
- 37 KEYWORDS: COMADRE Animal Matrix Database, elasticity, life-history evolution,
- natural selection, second-order derivative, sensitivity, stochasticity, variance.
- 39
- 40 NUMBER OF WORDS: Abstract 143/150 words, main text (excluding abstract,
- 41 acknowledgements, references, table, and figure legends) 4966/5000 words
- 42
- 43 NUMBER OF REFERENCES: 60
- 44
- 45 NUMBER OF TABLES: 1 (in Supplementary Material)46
- 47 NUMBER OF FIGURES: 3
- 48
- 49

#### 50 **Abstract** (143/150 words)

The Demographic Buffering Hypothesis (DBH) predicts that natural selection reduces the 51 temporal fluctuations in demographic processes (such as survival, development, and 52 53 reproduction), due to their negative impacts on population dynamics. However, a comprehensive approach that allows for the examination of demographic buffering patterns 54 across multiple species is still lacking. Here, we propose a three-step framework aimed at 55 quantifying demographic buffering. Firstly, we categorize species along a continuum of 56 variance based on the sums of stochastic elasticities. Secondly, we examine the linear 57 58 selection gradients, followed by the examination of nonlinear selection gradients as the third step. With these three steps, our framework overcomes existing limitations of conventional 59 approaches to quantify demographic buffering, allows for multi-species comparisons, and 60 61 offers insight into the evolutionary forces that shape demographic buffering. We apply this 62 framework to mammal species and discuss both the advantages and potential of our framework. 63

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67	Environmental stochasticity shapes organisms' life histories (Bonsall & Klug 2011).
68	Nonetheless, how organisms will cope with the increasing variation in environmental
69	conditions (Boyce et al. 2006; Morris et al. 2008) remains an intriguing ecological and
70	evolutionary question (Sutherland et al. 2013). Evolutionary demography provides diverse
71	explanations for how evolutionary processes shape demographic responses to environmental
72	stochasticity (Charlesworth 1994; Healy et al. 2019; Hilde et al. 2020; Pfister 1998;
73	Tuljapurkar et al. 2009). The long-term stochastic population growth rate, expressed as the
74	geometric mean of annual growth rates (Tuljapurkar 1982), forms the basis of the
75	Demographic Buffering Hypothesis (DBH) (Morris & Doak 2004; Pélabon et al. 2020).
76	Increasing the geometric mean of $\lambda$ corresponds to a rise in the long-term stochastic
77	population growth rate ( $\lambda_s$ , hereafter). Conversely, higher variance in $\lambda$ reduces $\lambda_s$ (Morris &
78	Doak 2004; Tuljapurkar 1982), impacting population persistence. The DBH predicts that life
79	histories are under selection pressure to minimise the negative impacts of environmental
80	variation by constraining the temporal variance of those demographic processes (e.g.,
81	survival, development, reproduction) to which population growth rate ( <i>i.e.</i> , fitness) is most
82	sensitive to (Gaillard & Yoccoz 2003; Pfister 1998). The demographic pattern operating the
83	DBH, <i>i.e.</i> , demographic buffering, describes the selection-driven constraint on the temporal
84	variance of the most impacting demographic processes for the population growth rate (Hilde
85	et al. 2020; Morris & Doak 2004; Pfister 1998). Here, we focus on the latter - on the
86	emerging pattern of demographic buffering in different animal life histories – rather than on
87	the DBH itself.
88	A unified approach to unambiguously quantify demographic buffering is still missing.

Indeed, identifying demographic buffering remains challenging (Doak *et al.* 2005; Morris &
Doak 2004) for several reasons, one of them being different interpretation of results from
correlational analyses (*e.g.*, as in Pfister, 1998). Some authors rank species' life histories on a

92 continuum from buffered to labile using the correlation coefficient (Spearman's correlation  $\rho$ ), where negative values indicate buffering (McDonald *et al.* 2017). Alternatively, the 93 absence of statistical support for buffering may suggest a preference for demographic 94 variance to track environmental conditions, known as the Demographic Lability Hypothesis 95 (DLH) (Hilde et al. 2020; Jäkäläniemi et al. 2013; Koons et al. 2009; Reed & Slade 2012). 96 However, increased temporal variance alone is not enough to constitute demographic lability; 97 98 it must also result in significant changes in the mean value of the demographic process (Le 99 Coeur et al. 2022).

100 Another obstacle to achieving generalization across species' populations regarding demographic buffering is the typical hierarchical level of examination. Some studies focus on 101 characteristics drawn from the *entire population model* (*between-populations level*) 102 103 (McDonald et al. 2017; Reed & Slade 2012). At this level, a life history is considered demographically buffered if key demographic processes have low temporal variance (Le 104 Coeur et al. 2022; Hilde et al. 2020; Morris & Doak 2004; Pfister 1998). However, to fully 105 grasp how and why demographic buffering occurs, and how patterns might change in 106 response to the environment, we must also consider characteristics at the level of separate 107 components of population model (within-populations level). Within a population, one 108 demographic process may be buffered while another may be labile (Barraquand & Yoccoz 109 2013; Jongejans et al. 2010; Koons et al. 2009). Thus far, studies have focused on either one 110 111 of the hierarchical levels, however, for a mechanistic understanding of how environmental stochasticity shapes life histories, both between- and within-population levels need to be 112 addressed at the same time. 113

The complexity of examining the underlying mechanisms of demographic buffering
presents additional challenge. Evidence suggests buffering in both long-lived (Doak *et al.*2005; Gaillard & Yoccoz 2003; McDonald *et al.* 2017; Pfister 1998; Rotella *et al.* 2012), and

short-lived species (Ferreira *et al.* 2013; Pfister 1998; Reed & Slade 2012). However, these
patterns alone do not fully reveal how life histories are shaped by natural selection. Firstorder effects, such as elasticities, show how variation in demographic processes affects
population growth rate, while second-order effects reveal sensitivity to autocorrelation
(Tuljapurkar 1990). Integrating both allows a better understanding of fitness function
behaviour near local maxima and minima.

123 In linear relationships between fitness and demographic processes, second-order derivatives of population growth rate are zero, indicating natural selection acts on mean 124 125 values (Shyu & Caswell 2014). Nonzero second derivatives suggest nonlinear relationships between fitness and a demographic process, revealing additional aspects of selection on the 126 variances and covariances of demographic processes (Brodie et al. 1995; Carslake et al. 127 2008; Shyu & Caswell 2014). The sign (>0, =0, <0) of the self-second derivative of  $\lambda$  with 128 respect to demographic processes determines the type of selection. Negative values describe 129 concave (∩-shaped) selection, reducing temporal variance (Caswell 1996, 2001; Shyu & 130 Caswell 2014) and thus, indicating demographic buffering. Positive values indicate convex 131 (U-shaped) selection, amplifying variance (Caswell 1996, 2001; Shyu & Caswell 2014) and 132 potentially indicating demographic lability (Le Coeur et al. 2022; Koons et al. 2009). To 133 confirm lability, increased variance must shift the mean value of a demographic process, 134 outweighing its negative effect on population growth rate (Le Coeur et al. 2022). 135

The diverse demographic strategies across species result from evolutionary processes shaping variance in demographic processes over time. Integrating demographic buffering into the context of linear and nonlinear selection enables quantification of the evolutionary forces driving these patterns, shedding light on how environmental variability shapes existing and novel strategies. Despite this, a unified approach to characterize demographic buffering signatures remains lacking.

Here, we introduce a framework to quantify demographic buffering, offering insight 142 into temporal variance patterns affected by environmental stochasticity. This framework 143 involves categorizing species or populations along a variance continuum based on the degree 144 of natural selection buffering key demographic processes, with three steps incorporating well-145 known methods applied to stage-structured demographic data (e.g., matrix population models 146 [Caswell 2001]; integral projection models [(Easterling et al. 2000]). First, species or 147 148 populations are positioned on the continuum to assess cumulative effects of variance in demographic processes on population growth rate. Second, linear selection forces within the 149 150 life cycle of each species or population are investigated at the within-populations level. Third, non-linear selection forces within the life cycle are explored at the within-populations level. 151 These steps provide quantitative evidence of demographic buffering occurrence. Lastly, 152 further analyses are proposed to identify demographic lability. 153 To demonstrate the applicability of our framework, we apply it to 40 populations of 154 34 mammal species sourced from the COMADRE database (Salguero-Gómez et al. 2016). 155 We showcase how the framework can provide valuable insights into the patterns of 156

demographic buffering across species. The framework offers novel, detailed insights into the
selection pressures that act within species' life cycles, thus allowing for a thorough
understanding of the evolutionary selection forces that shape the patterns of demographic
buffering across species. Beyond providing a quantitative, systematic toolset to quantify
buffering through three steps, we have also offered an alternative fourth step that briefly
outlines how to evidence lability.

163

## 164 A unified framework to assess evidence of demographic buffering

165 The evidence for demographic buffering has been mainly assessed using Matrix Population

166 Models (MPM; Pfister 1998; Rotella et al. 2012)). However, Integral Projection Models

(IPM; Rodríguez-Caro et al. 2020; Wang et al. 2023) can be equally applied for identifying 167 the demographic buffering signatures. Both MPMs and IPMs are stage-structured, discrete-168 169 time demographic models (Caswell 2001; Ellner et al. 2016). For simplicity, here we focus on MPMs, but note that the same approaches are as equally applicable to IPMs (Doak et al. 170 171 2021; Griffith 2017). Throughout this manuscript, we refer to demographic processes as both 172 matrix entries  $a_{ii}$  (*i.e.*, upper-level parameters) and the vital rates that underline the matrix elements (i.e., lower-level parameters), and note that their conversion is straightforward and 173 described elsewhere (Franco & Silvertown 2004). The framework operates on three steps. 174 175 In the first step of our framework, we calculate the impact of variation in demographic processes on the stochastic growth rate,  $\lambda_s$ , known as stochastic elasticities  $E_{ij}^S$  (Haridas & 176 Tuljapurkar 2005) (Figure 1A). This calculation separates the sum of all stochastic elasticities 177  $(\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S})$  into two components: one for assessing how temporal variance affects  $\lambda_s$  ( $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$ ), and 178 the other for assessing the impact of mean values of demographic processes on  $\lambda_s$ ,  $(\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\mu}})$ 179 (Haridas & Tuljapurkar 2005). A higher absolute value of the sum of stochastic elasticity 180 with respect to variance ( $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$ ), indicates greater sensitivity of  $\lambda_s$  to changes in demographic 181 process variance, suggesting absence of buffering. Conversely, a lower absolute value 182 suggests demographic buffering, where  $\lambda_s$  is less sensitive to such perturbations (Haridas & 183 Tuljapurkar 2005; Tuljapurkar et al. 2003) (Fig. 1A). This step places species or populations 184 along a continuum based on variance in demographic processes, with unconstrained variance 185 on the left (possibly unbuffered) and constrained variance on the right (possibly buffered). 186 However, unconstrained variance does not necessarily imply demographic lability, defined as 187 an increase in *mean value* of a demographic process in response to improved environmental 188 conditions (Le Coeur *et al.* 2022). By examining  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$ , we can assess changes in the 189 contribution of demographic process variance to  $\lambda_s$ , while mean values remain unchanged. 190

Although this step provides insight into how environmental variation affects  $\lambda_s$ , it does not 191 consider covariances between demographic processes and serial correlations, which are 192 193 important for fully diagnosing buffering (Haridas & Tuljapurkar 2005). Instead, our approach focuses on second derivatives of population growth rate with respect to demographic 194 processes to elucidate selection's impact on variance (step 3, below). 195 Steps 2 and 3 of the framework delve into within-population analysis. After step 1 196 197 positions species or populations along the variance continuum for  $\lambda_s$ , each life cycle undergoes scrutiny. Step 2 (Fig. 1B) involves calculating the partial derivatives of  $\lambda_t$ 198 199 concerning all matrix elements of the MPM. This step reveals how each demographic process influences  $\lambda_t$ . In step 3, one evaluates nonlinear selection patterns using self-second 200 derivatives of  $\lambda_t$  for each demographic process (Fig. 1C). This step unveils potential nonlinear 201 202 selection pressures on demographic processes, crucial for understanding their evolutionary dynamics. Failure to consider these evolutionary processes in step 1 may lead to 203 misinterpretation of patterns (e.g., Lawler et al. 2009). 204 Steps 2 and 3 of the framework analyse averaged selection pressures over time 205

obtained by averaging sequential Matrix Population Models (MPMs) across the study
duration. Therefore, they enhance our understanding of selection pressures' role in shaping
demographic patterns across various species.

periods. They offer insights into how perturbations in demographic processes affect  $\lambda_t$ ,

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In step 3, it is important to note that the importance of demographic processes shifts with changing environments (Stearns 1992). This dynamic sensitivity of  $\lambda_t$  to specific processes (Kroon *et al.* 2000), indicated by self-second derivatives, helps pinpoint which processes are most likely to induce changes. For instance, in the hypothetical wolf species (Fig. 1), a decline in reproduction among third age-class individuals (matrix element  $a_{1,3}$ ) would heighten sensitivity to that process. Consequently, with increased environmental

variability, the key demographic process might change from remaining in the fourth age class (matrix element  $a_{4,4}$ , Fig. 1B) to reproduction of the third age-class (matrix element  $a_{1,3}$ , Fig. 1C).

Combining the three steps of our framework allows for a quantitative identification of 219 buffering. Steps 2 and 3 offer key insights as to why a given species or population is placed 220 on either the buffered or the non-buffered end of the variance continuum. A clear and 221 222 unequivocal evidence for support towards buffering consists of: (1) a species or population being positioned near the 0 end of the continuum (the right-hand side) in step 1; (2) this 223 224 species' or populations' life cycle having one or more demographic processes with highest elasticity values in step 2; and (3) the same demographic process displaying the highest 225 elasticity in step 2 with negative self-second derivative values in step 3. In this sense, Figure 226 227 1B shows that, for the chosen population of a hypothetical wolf species, the most important demographic process is remaining in the fourth stage (MPM element  $a_{4,4}$ ), as this 228 demographic process results in highest elasticity value (Fig. 1B yellow square). However, 229 Fig. 1C reveals that  $a_{4,4}$  is under little selection pressure for variance reduction. Thus, there is 230 no clear evidence of buffering from the third step of the framework (*i.e.*, no concave selection 231 forces). This way, the lack of concave selection forces on the key demographic process 232 within wolf's life cycle explains why this species is placed on the left-hand side of the 233 variance continuum (Fig. 1A). 234

Although not our primary goal here, we briefly introduce said step 4. To establish compelling evidence of lability, it is essential to fulfil several further criteria. First, sufficient data across various environments (over time or space) are required to construct reaction norms that depict how a demographic process responds to environmental changes (Koons *et al.* 2009; Morris *et al.* 2008), which can be challenging in terms of sufficient and high-quality demographic and environmental data. Second, non-linear relationships between demographic

processes and the environment must be established based on the demographic process-241 environment reaction norms. Lastly, demographic processes where an increase in the mean 242 243 value has a stronger positive impact on population growth rate than the detrimental effect of increased variance needs to be identified. The latter condition is only met when the 244 demographic process-environment reaction norm takes a convex shape (resembling a "U" 245 shape), as described by Koons et al. (2009) and Morris et al. (2008). However, a study by 246 Barraquand & Yoccoz (2013) reported diverging results in this regard. Importantly, we note 247 that more likely than previously thought (e.g., Pfister 1998), species do not exist as purely 248 249 buffering or labile, but that within populations, some vital rates may be buffered, other labile, and others insensitive to the environment (e.g., Doak et al. 2005). Deciphering generality in 250 this likely complex pattern should attract much research attention going forward, in our 251 opinion. 252

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## 254 Demographic buffering in mammals: a case study using the unified framework

We demonstrate the performance of our framework using 44 MPMs from 34 mammal 255 species. Mammals are of special interest here for two reasons: (1) mammalian life histories 256 have been well studied (Bielby et al. 2007; Gillespie 1977; Jones 2011; Stearns 1983); and 257 (2) some of their populations have already been assessed in terms of buffering, particularly 258 for primates (Campos et al. 2017; Morris et al. 2008, 2011; Reed & Slade 2012; Rotella et al. 259 260 2012). Together, the well-studied life histories and previous information about the occurrence of buffering in mammals provide the necessary information to make accurate predictions and 261 validate the performance of the proposed framework. 262

We used Matrix Population Models from 40 out of 139 studies with mammals available in the COMADRE database v.3.0.0 (Salguero-Gómez *et al.* 2016). These 40 populations encompass 34 species from eight taxonomic orders. We included these MPMs in our analyses because they provide values of demographic processes  $(a_{ij})$  for three or more

contiguous time periods, thus allowing us to obtain the stochastic elasticity of each  $a_{ii}$ . 267 Although we are aware that not all possible temporal variation in demographic processes may 268 have been expressed within this period, we assumed three or more transitions are enough to 269 provide sufficient variation for population comparison. At least three contiguous time periods 270 271 - a common selection criteria in comparative studies of stochastic demography (Compagnoni et al. 2023) - also allowed to test and showcase our framework. Fortunately, several long-272 lived species, characterized by low variation in their demographic processes, were studied for 273 a long time (e.g., some primates in our dataset have been studied for over 20 years – Morris 274 et al. 2011). We removed the populations where either only survival or only reproduction 275 276 rates were reported, because of the impossibility to calculate the stochastic growth rate. A detailed description of the analysed data and their original sources are available in 277 278 supplementary material (Supplementary Material, Table S1).

Homo sapiens was included in our analyses because it is the only mammalian species in which second-order derivatives have been applied (Caswell 1996). Therefore, *Homo* sapiens provides an ideal basis for comparisons among species. The data for *Homo sapiens* were gathered from 26 modern populations located in various cities, allowing us to construct a spatiotemporal variance. It is important to note that in this case, we are not working with true temporal variance but rather a variance that encompasses both spatial and temporal aspects.

For steps 2 and 3 of our framework, we utilized a subset of 16 populations (including *Homo sapiens*) whose population projection matrices (MPMs) were organized by age. We specifically selected these populations because their life cycles can be summarized by two main demographic processes: survival and contribution to recruitment of new individuals. The contribution to recruitment can be interpreted as either the mean reproductive output for each age class or an approximation thereof, depending on how the matrices are structured

(Ebert 1999). One advantage of using such matrices is that they encompass only two types of
demographic processes, namely survival and recruitment, eliminating the need to account for
multiple transitions between different life stages.

To perform the step 1 of our framework and obtain the  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$  (and  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\mu}}$ ), we followed Tuljapurkar et al. (2003) and Haridas & Tuljapurkar (2005). To perform step 2 of our framework, we calculated the deterministic elasticities of each demographic process extracted using the *popbio* package. All analyses were performed using R version 3.5.1 (R Core team, 2018). Finally, to perform the step 3 of our framework the self-second derivatives were adapted from *demogR* (Jones 2007) following (Caswell 1996) and applied for the mean MPM.

302 Results

We ranked 40 populations from the 34 identified mammal species according to the 303 cumulative impact of variation in demographic processes on  $\lambda_s$  using the step 1 of our 304 305 framework (Fig. 2). Additional information (including standard deviations of the elasticity estimates and number of matrices available) is provided in the supplementary material (Table 306 S1). Most of the analysed orders were placed on the low-variance end of the variance 307 continuum (Fig. 2). The smallest contributions of variation in demographic processes (i.e., 308 maximum value of  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$ , note that  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$  ranges from 0 to -1), suggesting more buffered 309 populations, were assigned to Primates: northern muriqui (*Brachyteles hyphoxantus*,  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}} = -$ 310  $0.09 \times 10^{-4} \pm 0.12 \times 10^{-4}$ ) (mean ± standard deviation) (Fig. 2 silhouette a), mountain gorilla 311 (*Gorilla beringhei*,  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{s^{\sigma}} = -0.24 \times 10^{-4} \pm 0.08 \times 10^{-4}$ ) (Fig. 2 silhouette b), followed by the 312 blue monkey (*Cercopithecus mitis*,  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{s^{\sigma}} = -0.63 \times 10^{-4} \pm 0.06 \times 10^{-4}$ ) (Fig. 2 silhouette c). 313 The first non-primate species placed near the low-variance end of the continuum was the 314 Columbian ground squirrel (*Urocitellus columbianus*, Rodentia,  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}} = -0.003 \pm 0.002$ ) (Fig. 315

2 silhouette d). The species with the highest contribution of variation in demographic 316 processes placed at the high-variance end of the continuum was the stoat (Mustela erminea, 317 Carnivora,  $\Sigma E_{a_{ii}}^{S^{\sigma}} = -0.35 \pm 0.02$ ) (Fig. 2 silhouette e). All the 14 primate populations 318 displayed potential evidence of buffering, occupying the right-hand side of the variance 319 continuum, with the exception of the Patas monkey (*Erythrocebus patas*, Primates,  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}} = -$ 320  $0.05 \pm 0.03$ ) (Fig. 2 silhouette f). The snowshoe hare (*Lepus americanus*, Lagomorpha,  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$ 321 = -0.29 ± 0.16) (Fig. 2 silhouette g) and the Bush rat (*Rattus fuscipes*, Rodentia,  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$  = -0.25 322  $\pm$  0.03) (Fig. 2 silhouette h) appear on the high-variance end of the continuum. 323

As predicted for the steps 2 and 3, we could not observe a clear pattern in support of 324 buffering. This finding means that the demographic processes with the highest elasticity 325 values failed to display strongly negative self-second derivatives (Fig. 3). Particularly for 326 majority of primates - with the lack or minor temporal variation in demographic processes -327 demographic processes with high elasticities had positive values for the self-second 328 derivatives (indicated by yellow squares with white dots in Fig. 3). Examples of primate 329 species exhibiting high elasticities and positive values for the self-second derivatives and 330 include northern muriqui (Brachyteles hypoxanthus), mountain gorilla (Gorilla beringei), 331 white-faced capuchin monkey (Cebus capucinus), rhesus monkey (Macaca mulatta), blue 332 monkey (Cercopithecus mitis), Verreaux's sifaka (Propithecus verreauxi) and olive baboon 333 (Papio cynocephalus) (Fig. 3). This implies that the key demographic processes influencing 334  $\lambda_t$  are not subject to selective pressure for reducing their temporal variability. However, even 335 336 though the primates were positioned closer to the low-variance end of the continuum in step 1, the evidence from steps 2 and 3 does not support the occurrence of buffering in the most 337 influential demographic processes. 338

The killer whale showed similar controversy between step 1 and steps 2-3 results as most primates. In step 1, the killer whale was positioned at the buffered end of the variance continuum (*Orcinus orca*, Cetacea,  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}} = -0.70 \times 10^{-4} \pm 1.04 \times 10^{-5}$ ) (Fig. 2 silhouette not shown). However, steps 2 and 3 show that the three demographic processes in killer whale life cycle with highest elasticity values (matrix elements  $a_{2,2}$ ,  $a_{3,3}$  and  $a_{4,4}$ ) are not under selection pressures for reducing their temporal variance, but the opposite (depicted by yellow and green squares with white dots, Fig. 3).

The only primate species exhibiting evidence of buffering in steps 2 and 3 was 346 human. In human, demographic parameters representing survival from first to second age 347 class (matrix element  $a_{2,1}$ ) displayed high elasticities and negative self-second derivatives 348 (depicted as yellow squares with black dots in Fig. 3). Evidence supporting buffering was 349 also found in the Columbian ground squirrel (Urocitellus columbianus), where, similar to 350 351 humans, survival from the first to the second age class (matrix element  $a_{2,1}$ ) showed indications of selection acting to reduce  $a_{2,1}$  variance. Accordingly, the Columbian ground 352 squirrel was positioned close to the buffered end of the variance continuum in step 1. Hence, 353 the Columbian ground squirrel was the sole species with consistent evidence of buffering 354 across all three steps of the framework. 355

The Soay sheep (*Ovis aries*) was the species furthest from the buffered end of the variance continuum that enabled to perform steps 2 and 3. For the Soay sheep, remaining in the third age class (matrix element  $a_{3,3}$ ) has the major influence on  $\lambda_t$  and is under selection pressure to have its variance increased. The latter characteristics reveal potential conditions for lability even though the species is placed closer to the buffered end of the variance continuum. Steps 2 and 3 illustrate the importance of examining buffering evidence on the withinpopulations level. These two steps of the framework identify the simultaneous acting of concave and convex selection on different demographic processes within a single life cycle. In polar bear (*Ursus maritimus*), the key demographic process (matrix element  $a_{4,4}$ ) is under convex selection, as depicted by a yellow square with a white dot in Fig. 3. However, the demographic process with the second highest elasticity value (matrix element  $a_{5,4}$ ) is under strong concave selection (depicted by a light green square with a black dot in Fig. 3).

By adding step 3 to the framework, another important information was accessed. The 369 high absolute values of self-second derivatives (large dots, either black or white, Fig. 3) 370 indicate where the sensitivity of  $\lambda_i$  to demographic parameters is itself prone to environmental 371 changes. For instance, if the value of  $a_{5,4}$  for polar bear increased, the sensitivity of  $\lambda_t$  to  $a_{5,4}$ 372 would decrease because the self-second derivative of  $a_{5,4}$  is highly negative (depicted by the 373 largest black dot in polar bear MPM). Vice versa holds for the  $a_{4,4}$  demographic process, 374 375 where an increase in the value of  $a_{4,4}$  would increase  $\lambda_t$ 's sensitivity to  $a_{4,4}$ , because the selfsecond derivative of  $a_{5,4}$  is highly positive (depicted by the largest white dot in polar bear 376 MPM). Thus, sensitivities (or equally elasticities) of demographic processes with high 377 absolute values for self-second derivatives can easily change. 378

379

#### 380 Discussion

In the Anthropocene, identifying and quantifying mechanisms of species responses to stochastic environments holds crucial importance. This importance is particularly tangible in the context of the unprecedented environmental changes and uncertainties that impact the dynamics and persistence of natural populations (Boyce *et al.* 2006). Correlational demographic analysis, whereby the importance of demographic processes and their temporal variability is examined (Pfister 1998), has attempted to identify how species may buffer

against the negative effects of environmental stochasticity. However, these widely used 387 approaches have important limitations (see Introduction and Hilde et al. 2020). One 388 389 significant limitation is the issue of measurement scale concerning demographic processes (Hilde et al. 2020; Morris & Doak 2004). Demographic processes, such as birth rates, death 390 rates, immigration, and emigration, operate at various temporal and spatial scales. The choice 391 of scale at which these processes are measured can impact the outcomes of correlational 392 393 demographic analysis (Bjørkvoll et al. 2016). Our novel framework overcomes said limitations by providing a rigorous approach to quantify demographic buffering (Hilde et al. 394 395 2020; Pfister 1998).

Evidencing demographic buffering is not straightforward. Indeed, through the 396 analysis of stochastic population growth rate ( $\lambda_s$ ) in our application of the framework to 44 397 398 populations of 34 species, we identify the highest density of natural populations near the buffered end of the variance continuum (step 1). However, we show that the same species 399 then fail to exhibit signs of concave ( $\cap$ -shaped) selection on the key demographic parameters 400 when further analyses are performed averaging the variation across the duration of each study 401 (steps 2 and 3). This finding confirms that placing the species near the buffered end of the 402 variance continuum is *necessary* but not *sufficient* to diagnose demographic buffering. 403 Indeed, buffering occurs when concave selection forces act on the key demographic 404 parameter (Caswell 1996, 2001; Shyu & Caswell 2014). 405

Combining the three steps into a unified framework is of outmost importance. In steps 2 and 3 of the framework, we find relatively limited overall evidence of buffering in the examination of our 16 (out of 34 in step 1) studied animal species. Step 3 of our framework reveals that the role of natural selection shaping temporal variation in demographic processes is more complex than expected. Indeed, demographic processes within our study populations are often under a mix of convex and concave selection. This mix of selection patterns was

already suggested by Doak et al. (2005). Here, only two out of 16 mammal species revealed 412 concave selection acting on the key demographic processes (Columbian ground squirrel 413 [Urocitellus columbianus], and humans, [Homo sapiens sapiens]). These two species were 414 also placed near the buffered end of the variance continuum, therefore meeting all the 415 necessary conditions to diagnose buffering. However, finding 12.5% (two out of 16) species 416 that meet the criteria for demographic buffering is not in concordance with previous studies. 417 418 Evidence of buffering has been reported across 22 ungulate species (Gaillard & Yoccoz 2003). In the one ungulate we examined, the moose (Alces alces), we find only partial 419 420 support for buffering in adult survival, since this species is placed near the buffered end of the variance continuum in step 1 but does not show concave selection pressures on adult 421 survival in step 2/3, as would be necessary to confirm the occurrence of buffering. 422

It is worth noting that a varying number of matrices per species were employed, ranging from 1 to 21, with an average of 8.1 matrices per species (as shown in Table S1). Naturally, having a greater number of matrices is preferred in such analyses. Furthermore, while the size of matrices (matrix dimensions) does not directly bias the results of our framework in any way – since steps 2 and 3 are shown for all the demographic processes independent of matrix dimension – potential implications of varying matrix dimensions should be further investigated in the future.

Our overall findings reveal varying levels of support for the notion that adult survival
in long-lived species tends to be buffered. Indeed, (Gaillard *et al.* 1998) found that adult
female survival varied considerably less than juvenile survival in large herbivores. This
finding was also supported by further studies in ungulates and small rodents (Gaillard &
Yoccoz 2003), turtles (Heppell 1998), vertebrates and plants (Pfister 1998), and more
recently across nine (out of 73) species of plants (McDonald *et al.* 2017).

When placing our study species along a variance continuum (step 1), primates tend to 436 be located on the buffered end. However, most primates displayed convex -instead of the 437 expected concave- selection on adult survival. Similar results, where the key demographic 438 process failed to display constrained temporal variability, have been reported for long-lived 439 seabirds (Doherty et al. 2004). One explanation for the unexpected convex selection on adult 440 survival involves trade-offs, as suggested by (Doak et al. 2005). When two demographic 441 parameters are negatively correlated, the variance of population growth rate ( $\lambda$ ) can be 442 increased or decreased (Compagnoni et al. 2016; Evans & Holsinger 2012). The well-443 established trade-off between survival and fecundity (Roff & Fairbairn 2007; Stearns 1992) 444 might explain the observed deviation of our results. Because variation in primate recruitment 445 is already constrained by physiological limitations (Campos et al. 2017), when adult survival 446 and recruitment are engaged in a trade-off, this trade-off might lead to our unexpected result. 447 448 Correlations among demographic processes (positive and negative) inherently influence the biological limits of variance (Haridas & Tuljapurkar, 2005). This is because the magnitude of 449 variation in a particular demographic process is constrained by (the variation of) other 450 451 demographic processes that exert an influence on it. Not surprisingly, correlations among demographic processes have been shown to be strongly subjected to ecological factors (Fay 452 et al. 2022). Here, future studies may benefit from deeper insights via cross-second 453 derivatives (Caswell 1996, 2001) to investigate correlations among demographic processes. 454 Examining the drivers of demographic buffering has become an important piece of the 455 ecological and evolutionary puzzle of demography. As such, quantifying buffering can help 456 us better predict population responses to environmental variability, climate change, and direct 457 anthropogenic disturbances (Boyce et al. 2006; McDonald et al. 2017; Pfister 1998; Vázquez 458 et al. 2017). By setting demographic buffering into a broader and integrated framework, we 459 hope to enhance comprehension and prediction of the implications of heightened 460

461	environmental	stochasticity of	the evolution	of life history	/ traits. T	This understan	ding	is
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462 crucial in mitigating the risk of extinction for the most vulnerable species.

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470

## 471 Data availability

- 472 The demographic data used in this paper are open-access and available in the COMADRE
- 473 Animal Matrix Database (https://compadre-db.org/Data/Comadre). A list of the studies and
- 474 species used here is available in Supplementary Material (Table S1). The data and code
- 475 supporting the results can be accessed here:
- 476 https://github.com/SamuelGascoigne/Demographic\_buffering\_unified\_framework.

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- 629





633 Figure 2









Figure 1. A three-step framework proposed to: Step 1 - allocate species and/or populations 642 on a variance continuum (plot A, dots representing 50 hypothetical species). The variance 643 continuum operates at the between-populations level (see text) and is represented by 644 partitioning the sum of all the stochastic elasticities ( $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^S$ ) into two compounds: i) sums of 645 stochastic elasticities with respect to the variance  $(\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}})$ , and ii) sums of stochastic 646 elasticities with respect to the mean  $(\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\mu}})$ . The first step of our framework shows the 647 variance compound of the sums of stochastic elasticities forming a continuum where the 648 right-hand side of the plot represents species (or populations) where a perturbation of 649 650 variance in demographic processes results in weak or no impact on  $\lambda_s$  (yellow dots). The yellow-dotted species (or populations) can be classified as having potentially buffered life-651 cycles - based on all the demographic processes. The left-hand side of the graph represents 652 species (or populations) where a perturbation of the variance in demographic processes 653 results in strong impact on  $\lambda_s$  (blue dots). Thus, the blue-dotted species (or populations) can 654 be classified as having potentially unbuffered life cycles - based on all the demographic 655 processes. The vertical axis delineates the values of the density distribution function, 656 indicating the number of species/populations at each value of  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{s^{\sigma}}$ . The placement of data 657 points (species/populations) along the horizontal axis corresponds to their calculated values 658 of  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{s^{\sigma}}$  and is arranged linearly, while the breadth along the y-axis is solely for improved 659 visual comprehension. Step 2 - Access the linear selection pressures for individual species or 660 populations at within-species level (see text) (plot B). Step 2 displays the elasticities of the 661 deterministic population growth rate  $(\lambda_i)$  for a hypothetical population of wolf and reveals the 662 linear selection gradients, and which demographic processes are the most influential for  $\lambda_t$ . 663 Step 3 - Access the nonlinear selection pressures at the within-species level (see text) (plot 664

665 C). In the third step self-second derivatives for the corresponding demographic processes666 from step 2 are displayed.

667

668 Figure 2. Results for step 1 of our framework showing the sum of stochastic elasticities with respect to the variance  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$ . The closer the  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$  is to zero, the weaker the impact of 669 variation in demographic processes on  $\lambda_s$ . The 40 populations from 34 species of mammals 670 from the COMADRE database are ranked into the variance continuum from potentially 671 buffered (right-hand side) to less buffered (left-hand side), since any variation in 672 demographic processes would strongly impact  $\lambda_s$ . Colors represent different taxonomic orders 673 with Primates occupying the right-hand side. Silhouettes: a) Brachyteles hyphoxantus, b) 674 Gorilla beringhei, c) Cercopithecus mitis, d) Urocitellus columbianus, e) Mustela erminea, f) 675 *Erythrocebus patas*, g) *Lepus americanus*, h) *Rattus fuscipes*, i) *Ovis aries*, j) *Homo sapiens*, 676 k) Macropus eugenii, and l) Felis catus. The vertical axis delineates the values of the density 677 distribution function, indicating the number of species/populations at each value of  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$ . 678 The placement of data points (species/populations) along the horizontal axis corresponds to 679 their calculated values of  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$  and is arranged linearly, while the breadth along the y-axis is 680 solely for improved visual comprehension. 681

682

**Figure 3:** Results from steps 2 and 3 of the proposed framework (see Fig. 2B, C). The 16 plots represent populations where the MPMs built by ages were available in the COMADRE database (see text). The color scale represents elasticity values for each of the demographic processes in the MPM, where yellow represents high and blue low elasticity values. No color means elasticity=0. Because the aim of step 2 is to identify the most impacting demographic process within each species' life cycle (the within-populations level, see text) - not to

compare the elasticity values among species - each plot has its own scale (see end of legend). 689 The black dots represent negative self-second derivatives of  $\lambda_t$  - thus concave selection - and 690 691 the white dots represent positive self-second derivatives of  $\lambda_t$  - thus convex selection. The dot sizes are scaled by the absolute value of self-second derivatives, where the smaller the dot, 692 the closer a self-second derivative is to 0, indicting weak or no nonlinearity. Large dots 693 indicate strong nonlinear selection forces. Scales (Emin-max=elasticity minimum and maximum 694 695 value, SSD<sub>min-max</sub>=self-second derivative minimum and maximum value): Blue monkey E<sub>min-</sub> max=0.00-0.52, SSDmin-max=-1.25-1.27; Columbian ground squirrel: Emin-max=0.00-0.23, 696 697 SSD<sub>min-max</sub>=-1.48-0.01; Eastern chimpanzee: E<sub>min-max</sub>=0.00-0.60, SSD<sub>min-max</sub>=-4.39-2.59; Human: Emin-max=0.00-0.18, SSDmin-max=-0.15-0.08; Killer whale: Emin-max=0.00-0.55, 698 SSD<sub>min-max</sub>=-5.72-3.43; Moose: E<sub>min-max</sub>=0.00-0.55, SSD<sub>min-max</sub>=-0.66-0.36; Mountain gorilla: 699 E<sub>min-max</sub>=0.00-0.81, SSD<sub>min-max</sub>=-1.46-0.28; Northern muriqui: E<sub>min-max</sub>=0.00-0.72, SSD<sub>min-</sub> 700 max=-1.17-0.35; Olive baboon: Emin-max=0.00-0.54, SSDmin-max=-0.57-1.13; Polar bear: Emin-701 max=0.00-0.26, SSDmin-max=-0.73-0.54; Rhesus macaque: Emin-max=0.00-0.51, SSDmin-max=-702 0.54-0.71; Root vole: Emin-max=0.00-0.86, SSDmin-max=-2.54-0.22; Soay sheep: Emin-max=0.00-703 0.56, SSD<sub>min-max</sub>=-0.22-0.40; Tammar wallaby: E<sub>min-max</sub>=0.00-0.55, SSD<sub>min-max</sub>=-0.64-0.34; 704 White faced capuchin monkey: E<sub>min-max</sub>=0.00-0.66, SSD<sub>min-max</sub>=-2.66-1.21. 705 706

# Supplementary material – Data available in COMADRE Version 2.0.1 and results from Step 1 of the framework

**Table S1.** The metadata used in step 1 of our framework and the respective results presented

- 710 in the main text. The first four columns represent the information from where Matrix
- 711 Populations Models (MPMs) were extract precisely as presented in COMADRE 2.0.1.
- 712 Column titles differ from the database as "SpeciesAuthorComadre" is equivalent to
- 713 "SpeciesAuthor" and "SpeciesName" is equivalent to "SpeciesAccepted" in COMADRE
- 2.0.1. The remaining columns present the results of step 1, where we present the raw values

- of  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\mu}}$  and  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$ , their respective standard deviation, the stochastic population growth rate
- 716  $\lambda_s$ , and the number of available matrices (# matrices). For ByAge, "TRUE" was assigned for

717 MPMs built by age or "FALSE" if otherwise.

SpeciesAuthorComadre	SpeciesName	CommonName	Order	ΣΕ
Homo_sapiens_subspsapiens	Homo sapiens sapiens	Human	Primates	1.003
Alces_alces	Alces alces	Moose	Artiodactyla	1.001
Antechinus_agilis	Antechinus agilis	Agile antechinus	Dasyuromorphia	1.111
Brachyteles_hypoxanthus	Brachyteles hypoxanthus	Northern muriqui	Primates	1.000
Callospermophilus_lateralis	Callospermophilus lateralis	Golden-mantled ground squirrel	Rodentia	1.054
Cebus_capucinus	Cebus capucinus	White faced capuchin monkey	Primates	1.000
Cercopithecus_mitis	Cercopithecus mitis	Blue monkey	Primates	1.000
Eumetopias_jubatus	Eumetopias jubatus	Northern sea lion; Steller sea lion	Carnivora	1.005
Felis_catus	Felis catus	Feral cat	Carnivora	1.136
Gorilla_beringei	Gorilla beringei	Mountain gorilla	Primates	1.000
Hippocamelus_bisulcus	Hippocamelus bisulcus	Huemul deer	Artiodactyla	1.002
Lepus_americanus	Lepus americanus	Snowshoe hare	Lagomorpha	1.294
Lycaon_pictus	Lycaon pictus	African wild dog	Carnivora	1.100
Macaca_mulatta_3	Macaca mulatta	Rhesus macaque	Primates	1.000
Macropus eugenii	Macropus eugenii	Tammar wallaby	Diprotodontia	1.013
Marmota_flaviventris_2	Marmota flaviventris	Yellow-bellied marmot	Rodentia	1.007
Marmota_flaviventris_3	Marmota flaviventris	Yellow-bellied marmot	Rodentia	1.008
Microtus_oeconomus	Microtus oeconomus	Root vole	Rodentia	1.000
Mustela_erminea	Mustela erminea	Stoat	Carnivora	1.334
Orcinus_orca_2	Orcinus orca	Killer whale	Cetacea	1.001
Ovis_aries_2	Ovis aries	Soay sheep	Artiodactyla	1.033
Pan_troglodytes_subspschweinfurthii	Pan troglodytes	Eastern chimpanzee	Primates	1.000
Papio_cynocephalus	Papio cynocephalus	Olive baboon	Primates	1.000
Peromyscus_maniculatus_2	Peromyscus maniculatus	Deer mouse	Rodentia	1.010
Phocarctos_hookeri	Phocarctos hookeri	New Zealand sea lion	Carnivora	1.005
Propithecus_verreauxi	Propithecus verreauxi	Verreaux's sifaka	Primates	1.000

Puma_concolor_8	Puma concolor	Cougar	Carnivora	NA
Rattus_fuscipes	Rattus fuscipes	Bush rat	Rodentia	1.246
Spermophilus_armatus	Urocitellus armatus	Uinta ground squirrel	Rodentia	1.016
Spermophilus_armatus_2	Urocitellus armatus	Uinta ground squirrel	Rodentia	1.017
Spermophilus_columbianus	Urocitellus columbianus	Columbian ground squirrel	Rodentia	1.036
Spermophilus_columbianus_3	Urocitellus columbianus	Columbian ground squirrel	Rodentia	1.003
Ursus_americanus_subspfloridanus	Ursus americanus	Florida black bear	Carnivora	1.003
Ursus_arctos_subsphorribilis_5	Ursus arctos	Grizzly bear	Carnivora	1.001
Ursus_maritimus_2	Ursus maritimus	Polar bear	Carnivora	1.019
Brachyteles_hypoxanthus_2	Brachyteles hypoxanthus	Northern muriqui	Primates	1.000
Cebus_capucinus_2	Cebus capucinus	WhiteNAfaced capuchin monkey	Primates	1.000
Chlorocebus_aethiops_2	Chlorocebus aethiops	Vervet	Primates	1.075
Erythrocebus_patas	Erythrocebus patas	Patas monkey	Primates	1.051
Gorilla_beringei_subspberingei 718	Gorilla beringei	Mountain gorilla	Primates	1.000

- 1 A unified framework to quantify demographic buffering in natural populations
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- 4
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#### 50 **Abstract** (143/150 words)

The Demographic Buffering Hypothesis (DBH) predicts that natural selection reduces the 51 temporal fluctuations in demographic processes (such as survival, development, and 52 53 reproduction), due to their negative impacts on population dynamics. However, a comprehensive approach that allows for the examination of demographic buffering patterns 54 across multiple species is still lacking. Here, we propose a three-step framework aimed at 55 quantifying demographic buffering. Firstly, we categorize species along a continuum of 56 variance based on the sums of stochastic elasticities. Secondly, we examine the linear 57 58 selection gradients, followed by the examination of nonlinear selection gradients as the third step. With these three steps, our framework overcomes existing limitations of conventional 59 approaches to quantify demographic buffering, allows for multi-species comparisons, and 60 61 offers insight into the evolutionary forces that shape demographic buffering. We apply this 62 framework to mammal species and discuss both the advantages and potential of our framework. 63

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65

Environmental stochasticity plays a pivotal role in shaping organisms' life histories (Bonsall 67 & Klug 2011). Nonetheless, how organisms will cope with the increasing variation in 68 69 environmental conditions expected under climate change (Boyce et al. 2006; Morris et al. 70 2008) is one of the most intriguing questions of ecology and evolution (Sutherland et al. 2013). Evolutionary demography offers a wide array of explanations for the evolutionary 71 processes that shape the diversity of demographic responses to environmental stochasticity 72 73 (Charlesworth 1994; Healy et al. 2019; Hilde et al. 2020; Pfister 1998; Tuljapurkar et al. 2009). The Demographic Buffering Hypothesis (DBH, hereafter) (Morris & Doak 2004; 74 75 Pélabon et al. 2020) is based on the fact that long-term stochastic population growth rate can be expressed in terms of the geometric mean of the annual population growth rates 76 (Tuljapurkar 1982). As the geometric mean of  $\lambda$  increases, so does the long-term stochastic 77 population growth rate ( $\lambda_s$ , hereafter). However, increases in variance of  $\lambda$  decrease  $\lambda_s$ 78 (Morris & Doak 2004; Tuljapurkar 1982), and thus population persistence. This theoretical 79 context sets the stage for the DBH. The DBH predicts that life histories are under selection 80 pressure to minimise the negative impacts of environmental variation by constraining the 81 82 temporal variance of those demographic processes (*e.g.*, survival, development, reproduction) 83 to which population growth rate (*i.e.*, fitness) is most sensitive to (Gaillard & Yoccoz 2003; Pfister 1998). The demographic pattern operating the DBH, *i.e.*, demographic buffering, 84 describes the selection-driven constraint on the temporal variance of the most impacting 85 86 demographic processes for the population growth rate (Hilde et al. 2020; Morris & Doak 87 2004; Pfister 1998). Here, we focus on the latter - on the emerging pattern of demographic buffering in different animal life histories - rather than on the DBH itself. 88 A unified approach to unambiguously quantify demographic buffering is still missing. 89 Indeed, identifying demographic buffering remains challenging (Doak et al. 2005; Morris & 90

91 Doak 2004) for at least three reasons. First is the different interpretation of results from

92 correlational analyses (e.g., as in Pfister, 1998). Some authors have used the correlation coefficient as an index to order species' life histories in a continuum ranging from buffered 93 (Spearman's correlation  $\rho = <0$  between the sensitivity of  $\lambda$  to demographic processes and 94 their temporal variance) to labile ( $\rho = >0$ ), regardless of the fit of the linear regression to 95 96 more or less scattered data (McDonald et al. 2017). In contrast, other researchers interpret the absence of statistical support for demographic buffering as an alternative strategy where 97 variance in demographic process(es) is favoured to track environmental conditions (the so-98 called Demographic Lability Hypothesis, *DLH* (e.g., Koons et al. 2009; Reed & Slade 2012; 99 Jäkäläniemi et al. 2013; Hilde et al. 2020). However, the increased temporal variance is a 100 necessary but not sufficient condition to constitute demographic lability - the increased 101 temporal variance needs to lead to (often high) change in the demographic process mean 102 value (Le Coeur et al. 2022). 103

104 The second obstacle to obtain generalisation across species' populations regarding demographic buffering is the hierarchical level at which this phenomenon is typically 105 examined. Some studies base their investigations of demographic buffering on a 106 107 characteristic drawn from the entire population model (between-populations level, hereafter) (McDonald et al. 2017; Reed & Slade 2012). At the between-populations level, a life history 108 is referred to as demographically buffered if the most important demographic process(es) 109 has(ve) low temporal variance (Le Coeur et al. 2022; Hilde et al. 2020; Morris & Doak 2004; 110 Pfister 1998). However, to understand how, why, and where demographic buffering occurs -111 or not- and how buffering patterns might be modified in response to the environment, it is 112 essential to also consider the characteristics of the separate components of population model 113 (within-populations level, hereafter). Within a population, a given demographic process can 114 be buffered against while another can be labile to the environment (Barraquand & Yoccoz 115 2013; Jongejans et al. 2010; Koons et al. 2009). Thus far, studies have focused on either one 116

of the hierarchical levels, however, for a mechanistic understanding of how environmental
stochasticity shapes life histories, both between- and within-population levels need to be
addressed at the same time.

The third reason limiting a holistic understanding of demographic strategies in 120 stochastic environments are the challenges inherent to examining their underlying 121 mechanisms. Evidence for demographic buffering exists across some long-lived organisms 122 123 with complex life cycles, (Doak et al. 2005; Gaillard & Yoccoz 2003; McDonald et al. 2017; Pfister 1998; Rotella et al. 2012), but also in short-lived species (Ferreira et al. 2013; Pfister 124 125 1998; Reed & Slade 2012). Importantly, these patterns of variation do not inform entirely on how the life histories were shaped by natural selection. The beforementioned patterns of 126 variation are represented by *first-order* effects that perturbations in demographic processes 127 cause on the population growth rate (*i.e.*, elasticities). A first order effect informs us 128 regarding the population growth rate's sensitivity to variation in demographic processes. 129 While a second-order effect of perturbations in demographic processes reveals the population 130 growth rate's sensitivity to *autocorrelation* (Tuljapurkar 1990). Given so, integrating both, 131 first and second-order effects of perturbations in demographic processes on the population 132 growth rate, allows us to understand the behaviour of the fitness function at the vicinity of the 133 local maxima and/or minima. 134

When the relationship between fitness and a demographic process is linear, the second-order derivatives of population growth rate with respect to demographic processes equal zero. In such cases, natural selection acts on the mean value of a demographic process (Shyu & Caswell 2014). However, nonzero second derivatives indicate a nonlinear relationship between fitness and a demographic process (either concave if <0, or convex if >0) and thus provide additional and often overlooked characteristics of selection acting on

demographic processes – not only their mean values, but also their variances and covariances
(Brodie *et al.* 1995; Carslake *et al.* 2008; Shyu & Caswell 2014).

The sign (*i.e.*, >0, =0, <0) of the self-second derivative of  $\lambda$  with respect to 143 demographic processes determines the type of (non)linear selection acting on a demographic 144 process. For instance, a negative self-second derivative for a given demographic process 145 describes a concave form of selection, commonly referred to as the  $\cap$ -shaped selection 146 (Caswell 1996, 2001; Shyu & Caswell 2014). This form of selection reduces the temporal 147 variance in said demographic process, thereby providing evidence of demographic buffering. 148 Conversely, a demographic process yielding a positive self-second derivative identifies a 149 convex, or U-shaped selection (Caswell 1996, 2001; Shyu & Caswell 2014). Such a selection 150 mechanism acts upon demographic processes amplifying their temporal variance, thus 151 potentially evidencing demographic lability (Le Coeur et al. 2022; Koons et al. 2009). The 152 evidence of lability is only potential, because to constitute demographic lability, the increased 153 variance needs to shift the mean value of a demographic process. The shift in the mean value 154 155 of a demographic process needs to overweight the negative effect of variance on the population growth rate (Le Coeur et al. 2022). 156

The rich variation in demographic strategies across the Tree of Life is a result of 157 evolutionary processes that have shaped variance in demographic processes through time. In 158 this context, setting demographic buffering into the adaptive landscape context of linear and 159 nonlinear selection enables us to identify and quantify the evolutionary processes that 160 generate said demographic patterns. In this way, one will better understand how increased 161 variability of environmental conditions might act on the existing -and shape novel-162 demographic strategies. However, we still lack a unified approach to constitute the signatures 163 of demographic buffering. 164

Here, we present a framework that quantifies demographic buffering. Our framework 165 provides a rich insight into the patterns of temporal variance in demographic processes 166 affected by environmental stochasticity. This framework involves categorizing species or 167 populations along a variance continuum based on the extent to which key demographic 168 processes are buffered by natural selection, thereby limiting their temporal variability. The 169 framework consists of four steps with a mix of well-known methods applied to stage-170 171 structured demographic information (e.g., matrix population models [Caswell 2001]; integral projection models [Easterling et al. 2000]). First, we position species or populations on the 172 173 aforementioned continuum to assess the cumulative effect of the variance in their key demographic processes on population growth rate at the between-populations level (see 174 below). Second, we investigate the presence of linear selection forces operating within the 175 176 life cycle of each species or population at the within-populations level (below). Third, we explore the impact of non-linear selection forces acting within the life cycle of each species 177 or population, also at the within-populations level. The combination of these three steps 178 provides quantitative evidence for the occurrence of demographic buffering. Step four 179 suggests the further necessary analyses to identify demographic lability. 180

To demonstrate the applicability of our framework, we apply it to 40 populations of 181 34 mammal species sourced from the COMADRE database (Salguero-Gómez et al. 2016). 182 We showcase how the framework can provide valuable insights into the patterns of 183 184 demographic buffering across species. The framework offers novel, detailed insights into the selection pressures that act *within* species' life cycles, thus allowing for a thorough 185 understanding of the evolutionary selection forces that shape the patterns of demographic 186 buffering across species. Beyond providing a quantitative, systematic toolset to quantify 187 buffering through three steps, we have also offer an alternative fourth step that briefly 188 outlines how to evidence lability. 189

191

# 1 A unified framework to assess evidence of demographic buffering

192 The evidence for demographic buffering has been mainly assessed using Matrix Population Models (MPM; Pfister 1998; Rotella et al. 2012)). However, Integral Projection 193 Models (IPM; Rodríguez-Caro et al. 2020; Wang et al. 2023) can be equally applied for 194 identifying the demographic buffering signatures. Both MPMs and IPMs are stage-structured, 195 196 discrete-time demographic models (Caswell 2001; Ellner et al. 2016). For simplicity, here we focus on MPMs, but note that the same approaches are as equally applicable to IPMs (Doak 197 198 et al. 2021; Griffith 2017). Throughout this manuscript, we refer to demographic processes as both matrix entries  $a_{ii}$  (*i.e.*, upper-level parameters) and the vital rates that underline the 199 matrix elements (i.e., lower-level parameters), and note that their conversion is 200 straightforward and described elsewhere (Franco & Silvertown 2004). The framework 201 operates on three steps. 202

The first step of our framework involves acquiring the relative impact of variation in 203 demographic processes on the stochastic growth rate,  $\lambda_s$ , the so-called stochastic elasticities, 204  $E_{ij}^{s}$  (Haridas & Tuljapurkar 2005) (Figure 1A). The sum of all stochastic elasticities ( $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{s}$ ), 205 206 can be separated into two components to assess how temporal variance and mean values of each demographic process impact  $\lambda_s$ . The first component represents the sum of stochastic 207 elasticity of  $\lambda_s$  with respect to the variance  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$ , and the second represents the sum of 208 stochastic elasticity of  $\lambda_s$  with respect to the mean  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\mu}}$ , where  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S} = \Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}} + \Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\mu}}$ 209 (Haridas & Tuljapurkar 2005). Thus, the summation  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$  quantifies the summed effect to 210 which the stochastic population growth rate  $(\lambda_s)$  is influenced by changes in the variances of 211 the demographic processes within the population matrix. 212

A higher sum of stochastic elasticity of  $\lambda_s$  with respect to the variance of demographic 213 processes (*i.e.*, higher absolute value;  $|\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}|$ ) indicates that small changes in the variance of 214 demographic processes would have a substantial impact on  $\lambda_s$ . In other words, the variance of 215 that demographic process is not constrained by selection, indicating absence of demographic 216 buffering. On the other hand, a lower (absolute) stochastic elasticity of  $\lambda_s$  with respect to the 217 variance of a given demographic process suggests that  $\lambda_s$  is less sensitive to such 218 perturbations, or, that variance of such demographic process is being constrained by natural 219 220 selection, thus pointing to demographic buffering (Haridas & Tuljapurkar 2005; Tuljapurkar et al. 2003) (Fig. 1A). 221

The first step of the framework thus features the between-populations level and places 222 species or populations alongside a continuum. Species exhibiting unconstrained variance in 223 demographic processes (*i.e.*, possibly not buffered, Fig. 1A, blue dots) are positioned on the 224 left-hand side of the continuum. In contrast, species with constrained variance in 225 demographic processes (*i.e.*, possibly buffered, Fig. 1A, yellow dots) are positioned on the 226 right-hand side of the continuum. However, the left-hand side of the continuum does not 227 necessarily imply evidence of demographic lability. This is so because demographic lability 228 is defined as an increase in the mean value of a demographic process in response to improved 229 environmental conditions (Le Coeur *et al.* 2022). By examining  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$ , we can visualize an 230 increase or decrease of the contribution that variance of demographic processes has on the 231 long-term population growth rate, while the mean value of a demographic process does not 232 change. 233

Step 1 of our framework examines the impacts that environmental variation has on the long-term population growth rate,  $\lambda_s$  (Tuljapurkar *et al.* 2003). This means that the resulting variance continuum in this step of the framework is based on how  $\lambda_s$  was affected by variation in the key demographic parameter across all contiguous time periods. However,

Haridas & Tuljapurkar (2005) explicitly acknowledge that covariances between demographic
processes and serial correlations need to be investigated to diagnose buffering entirely. Our
approach does not use covariances neither serial correlation, but rather focuses on the second
derivatives of the population growth rate with respect to demographic processes and
elucidates how selection is acting on variance (step 3, below).

Steps 2 and 3 of the framework are conducted at the within-populations level. Once 243 244 species or populations are positioned along the variance continuum regarding the summed effect of variation on  $\lambda_s$ , (step 1), one needs to zoom into each life cycle separately, analysing 245 246 the selection pressures acting on each one of the demographic processes composing the life cycle (*i.e.*, population model). In doing so, one can inspect the selection pressures that have 247 generated the patterns found in step 1. Step 2 (Fig. 1B) requires obtaining the partial 248 249 derivatives of the deterministic population growth rate,  $\lambda_b$  relative to all matrix elements of the MPM of interest (*i.e.*, elasticities of  $\lambda_t$  w.r.t each demographic process in the MPM). Step 250 2 therefore informs on the impact that each of the demographic processes has on  $\lambda_t$ 251

Finally, in step 3, one assesses the pattern of nonlinear selection by using the selfsecond derivatives of  $\lambda_t$  with respect to each demographic process (Fig. 1C). This step reveals the potential nonlinear selection pressures on each of the demographic processes within a life cycle. This step is key to understanding the evolutionary processes (*i.e.*, types of nonlinear selection) that the demographic processes are subjected to. Without understanding the evolutionary processes operating on the demographic processes, the pattern observed in step 1 might be artefactual. (e.g., Lawler et al. 2009)

Steps 2 and 3 of the framework feature selection pressures that have been averaged over the contiguous time periods. This means that the resulting patterns are based on how  $\lambda_t$ (obtained from averaging all sequential MPMs across the duration of the study) would be affected if a demographic process were perturbed. Therefore, steps 2 and 3 are based on a different information than step 1 and can thus complete our understanding of the role ofselection pressures on shaping demographic patterns across multiple species.

265 Another important asset of step 3 above includes the notion that the relative importance (elasticity) of demographic processes themselves changes with changing 266 environment (Stearns 1992). In other words, the extent to which  $\lambda_t$  is sensitive to 267 perturbations in a specific demographic process is dynamic (Kroon et al. 2000). Thus, the 268 269 self-second derivatives generate information on how the sensitivity (or elasticity) of  $\lambda_t$  might change. If the sensitivity (or elasticity) of  $\lambda_l$  can change, then it is important to know which 270 271 demographic processes are most prone to trigger such a change. In the example of a hypothetical wolf species (Fig. 1), this means that if the reproduction of the third age-class 272 individuals (matrix element  $a_{1,3}$ ) decreased, the sensitivity of  $\lambda_t$  to  $a_{1,3}$  would increase (square 273 274 with the largest black dot, Fig. 1C). Consequently, with increased environmental variability, the key demographic process might change from remaining in the fourth age class (matrix 275 element  $a_{4,4}$ , Fig. 1B) to reproduction of the third age-class (matrix element  $a_{1,3}$ , Fig. 1C). 276 Combining the three steps of our framework allows for a quantitative identification of 277 buffering. Steps 2 and 3 offer key insights as to why a given species or population is placed 278 on either the buffered or the non-buffered end of the variance continuum. A clear and 279 unequivocal evidence for support towards buffering consists of: (1) a species or population 280 being positioned near the 0 end of the continuum (the right-hand side) in step 1; (2) this 281 species' or populations' life cycle having one or more demographic processes with highest 282 elasticity values in step 2; and (3) the same demographic process displaying the highest 283 elasticity in step 2 with negative self-second derivative values in step 3. In this sense, Figure 284

1B shows that, for the chosen population of a hypothetical wolf species, the most important

demographic process is remaining in the fourth stage (MPM element  $a_{4,4}$ ), as this

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287 demographic process results in highest elasticity value (Fig. 1B yellow square). However,

Fig. 1C reveals that  $a_{4,4}$  is under little selection pressure for variance reduction. Thus, there is no clear evidence of buffering from the third step of the framework (*i.e.*, no concave selection forces). This way, the lack of concave selection forces on the key demographic process within wolf's life cycle explains why this species is placed on the left-hand side of the variance continuum (Fig. 1A).

Species placed on the non-buffered end of the continuum is a necessary but not
sufficient condition for evidence demographic lability. It is key highlighting here that
demographic buffering and lability do not represent two extremes of the same continuum.
The variance continuum allocates the species or populations from strongly buffered to nonbuffered, but to test the for lability, a further step is needed.

Although not our primary goal here, we briefly introduce said step 4. To establish 298 299 compelling evidence of lability, it is essential to fulfil several further criteria. First, sufficient data across various environments (over time or space) are required to construct reaction 300 norms that depict how a demographic process responds to environmental changes (Morris et 301 al., 2008; Koons et al., 2009), which can be challenging in terms of sufficient and high-302 quality demographic and environmental data. Second, non-linear relationships between 303 demographic processes and the environment must be established based on the demographic 304 process-environment reaction norms. Lastly, demographic processes where an increase in the 305 mean value has a stronger positive impact on population growth rate than the detrimental 306 effect of increased variance needs to be identified. The latter condition is only met when the 307 demographic process-environment reaction norm takes a convex shape (resembling a "U" 308 309 shape), as described by Koons et al. (2009) and Morris et al. (2008). However, a study by Barraquand and Yoccoz (2013) reported diverging results in this regard. Importantly, we note 310 that more likely than previously thought (e.g., Pfister 1998), species do not exist as purely 311 312 buffering or labile, but that within populations, some vital rates may be buffered, other labile,

and others insensitive to the environment (*e.g.*, (Doak *et al.* 2005). Deciphering generality in
this likely complex pattern should attract much research attention going forward, in our
opinion.

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### 317 Demographic buffering in mammals: a case study using the unified framework

We demonstrate the performance of our framework using 44 MPMs from 34 mammal 318 species. Mammals are of special interest here for two reasons: (1) mammalian life histories 319 have been well studied (Bielby et al. 2007; Gillespie 1977; Jones 2011; Stearns 1983); and 320 321 (2) some of their populations have already been assessed in terms of buffering, particularly for primates (Campos et al. 2017; Morris et al. 2008, 2011; Reed & Slade 2012; Rotella et al. 322 2012). Together, the well-studied life histories and previous information about the occurrence 323 324 of buffering in mammals provide the necessary information to make accurate predictions and 325 validate the performance of the proposed framework.

We used Matrix Population Models from 40 out of 139 studies with mammals 326 available in the COMADRE database v.3.0.0 (Salguero-Gómez et al. 2016). These 40 327 populations encompass 34 species from eight taxonomic orders. We included these MPMs in 328 our analyses because they provide values of demographic processes  $(a_{ii})$  for three or more 329 contiguous time periods, thus allowing us to obtain the stochastic elasticity of each  $a_{ij}$ . 330 Although we are aware that not all possible temporal variation in demographic processes may 331 have been expressed within this period, we assumed three or more transitions are enough to 332 provide sufficient variation for population comparison. At least three contiguous time periods 333 - a common selection criteria in comparative studies of stochastic demography (Compagnoni 334 et al. 2023) - also allowed to test and showcase our framework. Fortunately, several long-335 lived species, characterized by low variation in their demographic processes, were studied for 336 a long time (e.g., some primates in our dataset have been studied for over 20 years – Morris 337 338 et al. 2011). We removed the populations where either only survival or only reproduction

rates were reported, because of the impossibility to calculate the stochastic growth rate. A
detailed description of the analysed data and their original sources are available in
supplementary material (Supplementary Material, Table S1).

*Homo sapiens* was included in our analyses because it is the only mammalian species in which second-order derivatives have been applied (Caswell 1996). Therefore, *Homo sapiens* provides an ideal basis for comparisons among species. The data for *Homo sapiens* were gathered from 26 modern populations located in various cities, allowing us to construct a spatiotemporal variance. It is important to note that in this case, we are not working with true temporal variance but rather a variance that encompasses both spatial and temporal aspects.

For steps 2 and 3 of our framework, we utilized a subset of 16 populations (including 349 Homo sapiens) whose population projection matrices (MPMs) were organized by age. We 350 specifically selected these populations because their life cycles can be summarized by two 351 main demographic processes: survival and contribution to recruitment of new individuals. 352 The contribution to recruitment can be interpreted as either the mean reproductive output for 353 each age class or an approximation thereof, depending on how the matrices are structured 354 (Ebert 1999). One advantage of using such matrices is that they encompass only two types of 355 demographic processes, namely survival and recruitment, eliminating the need to account for 356 multiple transitions between different life stages. 357

To perform the step 1 of our framework and obtain the  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$  (and  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\mu}}$ ), we followed Tuljapurkar *et al.* (2003) and Haridas & Tuljapurkar (2005). To perform step 2 of our framework, we calculated the deterministic elasticities of each demographic process extracted using the *popbio* package. All analyses were performed using R version 3.5.1 (R Core team, 2018). Finally, to perform the step 3 of our framework the self-second derivatives were

adapted from *demogR* (Jones 2007) following (Caswell 1996) and applied for the meanMPM.

365 *Results* 

We ranked 40 populations from the 34 identified mammal species according to the 366 cumulative impact of variation in demographic processes on  $\lambda_s$  using the step 1 of our 367 framework (Fig. 2). Additional information (including standard deviations of the elasticity 368 estimates and number of matrices available) is provided in the supplementary material (Table 369 S1). Most of the analysed orders were placed on the low-variance end of the variance 370 continuum (Fig. 2). The smallest contributions of variation in demographic processes (i.e., 371 maximum value of  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$ , note that  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$  ranges from 0 to -1), suggesting more buffered 372 populations, were assigned to Primates: northern muriqui (*Brachyteles hyphoxantus*,  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}} = -$ 373  $0.09 \times 10^{-4} \pm 0.12 \times 10^{-4}$ ) (mean ± standard deviation) (Fig. 2 silhouette a), mountain gorilla 374 (*Gorilla beringhei*,  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}} = -0.24 \times 10^{-4} \pm 0.08 \times 10^{-4}$ ) (Fig. 2 silhouette b), followed by the 375 blue monkey (*Cercopithecus mitis*,  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}} = -0.63 \times 10^{-4} \pm 0.06 \times 10^{-4}$ ) (Fig. 2 silhouette c). 376 The first non-primate species placed near the low-variance end of the continuum was the 377 Columbian ground squirrel (*Urocitellus columbianus*, Rodentia,  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}} = -0.003 \pm 0.002$ ) (Fig. 378 2 silhouette d). The species with the highest contribution of variation in demographic 379 processes placed at the high-variance end of the continuum was the stoat (Mustela erminea, 380 Carnivora,  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}} = -0.35 \pm 0.02$ ) (Fig. 2 silhouette e). All the 14 primate populations 381 displayed potential evidence of buffering, occupying the right-hand side of the variance 382 continuum, with the exception of the Patas monkey (*Erythrocebus patas*, Primates,  $\Sigma E_{a_{ii}}^{S^{\sigma}} = -$ 383  $0.05 \pm 0.03$ ) (Fig. 2 silhouette f). The snowshoe hare (*Lepus americanus*, Lagomorpha,  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$ 384

 $= -0.29 \pm 0.16)$  (Fig. 2 silhouette g) and the Bush rat (*Rattus fuscipes*, Rodentia,  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}} = -0.25$  $\pm 0.03)$  (Fig. 2 silhouette h) appear on the high-variance end of the continuum.

As predicted for the steps 2 and 3, we could not observe a clear pattern in support of 387 buffering. This finding means that the demographic processes with the highest elasticity 388 389 values failed to display strongly negative self-second derivatives (Fig. 3). Particularly for majority of primates - with the lack or minor temporal variation in demographic processes -390 demographic processes with high elasticities had positive values for the self-second 391 derivatives (indicated by yellow squares with white dots in Fig. 3). Examples of primate 392 species exhibiting high elasticities and positive values for the self-second derivatives and 393 include northern muriqui (Brachyteles hypoxanthus), mountain gorilla (Gorilla beringei), 394 white-faced capuchin monkey (Cebus capucinus), rhesus monkey (Macaca mulatta), blue 395 monkey (Cercopithecus mitis), Verreaux's sifaka (Propithecus verreauxi) and olive baboon 396 397 (*Papio cynocephalus*) (Fig. 3). This implies that the key demographic processes influencing  $\lambda_t$  are not subject to selective pressure for reducing their temporal variability. However, even 398 though the primates were positioned closer to the low-variance end of the continuum in step 399 1, the evidence from steps 2 and 3 does not support the occurrence of buffering in the most 400 influential demographic processes. 401

The killer whale showed similar controversy between step 1 and steps 2-3 results as most primates. In step 1, the killer whale was positioned at the buffered end of the variance continuum (*Orcinus orca*, Cetacea,  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}} = -0.70 \times 10^{-4} \pm 1.04 \times 10^{-5}$ ) (Fig. 2 silhouette not shown). However, steps 2 and 3 show that the three demographic processes in killer whale life cycle with highest elasticity values (matrix elements  $a_{2,2}$ ,  $a_{3,3}$  and  $a_{4,4}$ ) are not under selection pressures for reducing their temporal variance, but the opposite (depicted by yellow and green squares with white dots, Fig. 3).

The only primate species exhibiting evidence of buffering in steps 2 and 3 was 409 human. In human, demographic parameters representing survival from first to second age 410 class (matrix element  $a_{2,1}$ ) displayed high elasticities and negative self-second derivatives 411 (depicted as yellow squares with black dots in Fig. 3). Evidence supporting buffering was 412 also found in the Columbian ground squirrel (Urocitellus columbianus), where, similar to 413 humans, survival from the first to the second age class (matrix element  $a_{2,1}$ ) showed 414 415 indications of selection acting to reduce  $a_{2,1}$  variance. Accordingly, the Columbian ground squirrel was positioned close to the buffered end of the variance continuum in step 1. Hence, 416 417 the Columbian ground squirrel was the sole species with consistent evidence of buffering across all three steps of the framework. 418

The Soay sheep (*Ovis aries*) was the species furthest from the buffered end of the variance continuum that enabled to perform steps 2 and 3. For the Soay sheep, remaining in the third age class (matrix element  $a_{3,3}$ ) has the major influence on  $\lambda_t$  and is under selection pressure to have its variance increased. The latter characteristics reveal potential conditions for lability even though the species is placed closer to the buffered end of the variance continuum.

Steps 2 and 3 illustrate the importance of examining buffering evidence on the withinpopulations level. These two steps of the framework identify the simultaneous acting of concave and convex selection on different demographic processes within a single life cycle. In polar bear (*Ursus maritimus*), the key demographic process (matrix element  $a_{4,4}$ ) is under convex selection, as depicted by a yellow square with a white dot in Fig. 3. However, the demographic process with the second highest elasticity value (matrix element  $a_{5,4}$ ) is under strong concave selection (depicted by a light green square with a black dot in Fig. 3).

By adding step 3 to the framework, another important information was accessed. The 432 high absolute values of self-second derivatives (large dots, either black or white, Fig. 3) 433 434 indicate where the sensitivity of  $\lambda_t$  to demographic parameters is itself prone to environmental changes. For instance, if the value of  $a_{5,4}$  for polar bear increased, the sensitivity of  $\lambda_t$  to  $a_{5,4}$ 435 would decrease because the self-second derivative of  $a_{5,4}$  is highly negative (depicted by the 436 largest black dot in polar bear MPM). Vice versa holds for the  $a_{4,4}$  demographic process, 437 438 where an increase in the value of  $a_{4,4}$  would increase  $\lambda_t$ 's sensitivity to  $a_{4,4}$ , because the selfsecond derivative of  $a_{5,4}$  is highly positive (depicted by the largest white dot in polar bear 439 440 MPM). Thus, sensitivities (or equally elasticities) of demographic processes with high absolute values for self-second derivatives can easily change.. 441

## 442 **Discussion**

In the Anthropocene, identifying and quantifying mechanisms of species responses to 443 stochastic environments holds crucial importance. This importance is particularly tangible in 444 445 the context of the unprecedented environmental changes and uncertainties that impact the dynamics and persistence of natural populations (Boyce et al. 2006). Correlational 446 demographic analysis, whereby the importance of demographic processes and their temporal 447 variability is examined (Pfister 1998), has attempted to identify how species may buffer 448 against the negative effects of environmental stochasticity. However, these widely used 449 approaches have important limitations (see Introduction and Hilde et al. 2020). One 450 significant limitation is the issue of measurement scale concerning demographic processes 451 (Hilde et al. 2020; Morris & Doak 2004). Demographic processes, such as birth rates, death 452 453 rates, immigration, and emigration, operate at various temporal and spatial scales. The choice of scale at which these processes are measured can impact the outcomes of correlational 454 demographic analysis (Bjørkvoll et al. 2016). Our novel framework overcomes said 455

456 limitations by providing a rigorous approach to quantify demographic buffering (Hilde et al.
457 2020; Pfister 1998).

458 Evidencing demographic buffering is not straightforward. Indeed, through the analysis of stochastic population growth rate ( $\lambda_s$ ) in our application of the framework to 44 459 populations of 34 species, we identify the highest density of natural populations near the 460 buffered end of the variance continuum (step 1). However, we show that the same species 461 462 then fail to exhibit signs of concave ( $\cap$ -shaped) selection on the key demographic parameters when further analyses are performed averaging the variation across the duration of each study 463 464 (steps 2 and 3). This finding confirms that placing the species near the buffered end of the variance continuum is *necessary* but not *sufficient* to diagnose demographic buffering. 465 Indeed, buffering occurs when concave selection forces act on the key demographic 466 parameter (Caswell 1996, 2001; Shyu & Caswell 2014). 467

Combining the three steps into a unified framework is of outmost importance. In steps 468 2 and 3 of the framework, we find relatively limited overall evidence of buffering in the 469 examination of our 16 (out of 34 in step 1) studied animal species. Step 3 of our framework 470 reveals that the role of natural selection shaping temporal variation in demographic processes 471 is more complex than expected. Indeed, demographic processes within our study populations 472 are often under a mix of convex and concave selection. This mix of selection patterns was 473 already suggested by Doak et al. (2005). Here, only two out of 16 mammal species revealed 474 475 concave selection acting on the key demographic processes (Columbian ground squirrel [Urocitellus columbianus], and humans, [Homo sapiens sapiens]). These two species were 476 also placed near the buffered end of the variance continuum, therefore meeting all the 477 necessary conditions to diagnose buffering. However, finding 12.5% (two out of 16) species 478 that meet the criteria for demographic buffering is not in concordance with previous studies. 479 Evidence of buffering has been reported across 22 ungulate species (Gaillard & Yoccoz 480

2003). In the one ungulate we examined, the moose (Alces alces), we find only partial 481 support for buffering in adult survival, since this species is placed near the buffered end of 482 483 the variance continuum in step 1 but does not show concave selection pressures on adult survival in step 2/3, as would be necessary to confirm the occurrence of buffering. 484 It is worth noting that a varying number of matrices per species were employed, ranging from 485 1 to 21, with an average of 8.1 matrices per species (as shown in Table S1). Naturally, having 486 487 a greater number of matrices is preferred in such analyses. Furthermore, while the size of matrices (matrix dimensions) does not directly bias the results of our framework in any way -488 489 since steps 2 and 3 are shown for all the demographic processes independent of matrix dimension - potential implications of varying matrix dimensions should be further 490 investigated in the future. 491

Our overall findings reveal varying levels of support for the notion that adult survival
in long-lived species tends to be buffered. Indeed, Gaillard *et al.* (1998) found that adult
female survival varied considerably less than juvenile survival in large herbivores. This
finding was also supported by further studies in ungulates and small rodents (Gaillard &
Yoccoz 2003), turtles (Heppell 1998), vertebrates and plants (Pfister 1998), and more
recently across nine (out of 73) species of plants (McDonald *et al.* 2017).

When placing our study species along a variance continuum (step 1), primates tend to 498 be located on the buffered end. However, most primates displayed convex -instead of the 499 500 expected concave- selection on adult survival. Similar results, where the key demographic process failed to display constrained temporal variability, have been reported for long-lived 501 seabirds (Doherty et al. 2004). One explanation for the unexpected convex selection on adult 502 survival involves trade-offs, as suggested by (Doak et al. 2005). When two demographic 503 504 parameters are negatively correlated, the variance of population growth rate ( $\lambda$ ) can be increased or decreased (Compagnoni et al. 2016; Evans & Holsinger 2012). The well-505

established trade-off between survival and fecundity (Roff & Fairbairn 2007; Stearns 1992) 506 might explain the observed deviation of our results. Because variation in primate recruitment 507 is already constrained by physiological limitations (Campos et al. 2017), when adult survival 508 and recruitment are engaged in a trade-off, this trade-off might lead to our unexpected result. 509 Correlations among demographic processes (positive and negative) inherently influence the 510 biological limits of variance (Haridas & Tuljapurkar, 2005). This is because the magnitude of 511 512 variation in a particular demographic process is constrained by (the variation of) other demographic processes that exert an influence on it. Not surprisingly, correlations among 513 514 demographic processes have been shown to be strongly subjected to ecological factors (Fay et al. 2022). Here, future studies may benefit from deeper insights via cross-second 515 derivatives (Caswell 1996, 2001) to investigate correlations among demographic processes.

Examining the drivers of demographic buffering has become an important piece of the 517 ecological and evolutionary puzzle of demography. As such, quantifying buffering can help 518 us better predict population responses to environmental variability, climate change, and direct 519 anthropogenic disturbances (Boyce et al. 2006; McDonald et al. 2017; Pfister 1998; Vázquez 520 et al. 2017). By setting demographic buffering into a broader and integrated framework, we 521 hope to enhance comprehension and prediction of the implications of heightened 522 environmental stochasticity on the evolution of life history traits. This understanding is 523 crucial in mitigating the risk of extinction for the most vulnerable species. 524

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532

#### 533 Data availability

- 534 The demographic data used in this paper are open-access and available in the COMADRE
- 535 Animal Matrix Database (https://compadre-db.org/Data/Comadre). A list of the studies and
- species used here is available in Supplementary Material (Table S1). The data and code

537 supporting the results can be accessed here:

538 https://github.com/SamuelGascoigne/Demographic\_buffering\_unified\_framework.

539

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687 Figure 2









Figure 1. A three-step framework proposed to: Step 1 - allocate species and/or populations 696 on a variance continuum (plot A, dots representing 50 hypothetical species). The variance 697 continuum operates at the between-populations level (see text) and is represented by 698 partitioning the sum of all the stochastic elasticities ( $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^S$ ) into two compounds: i) sums of 699 stochastic elasticities with respect to the variance  $(\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{s^{\sigma}})$ , and ii) sums of stochastic 700 elasticities with respect to the mean  $(\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\mu}})$ . The first step of our framework shows the 701 variance compound of the sums of stochastic elasticities forming a continuum where the 702 right-hand side of the plot represents species (or populations) where a perturbation of 703 704 variance in demographic processes results in weak or no impact on  $\lambda_s$  (yellow dots). The 705 yellow-dotted species (or populations) can be classified as having potentially buffered lifecycles - based on all the demographic processes. The left-hand side of the graph represents 706 707 species (or populations) where a perturbation of the variance in demographic processes results in strong impact on  $\lambda_s$  (blue dots). Thus, the blue-dotted species (or populations) can 708 be classified as having potentially unbuffered life cycles - based on all the demographic 709 processes. The vertical axis delineates the values of the density distribution function, 710 indicating the number of species/populations at each value of  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{s^{\sigma}}$ . The placement of data 711 points (species/populations) along the horizontal axis corresponds to their calculated values 712 of  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{s^{\sigma}}$  and is arranged linearly, while the breadth along the y-axis is solely for improved 713 visual comprehension. Step 2 - Access the linear selection pressures for individual species or 714 populations at within-species level (see text) (plot B). Step 2 displays the elasticities of the 715 deterministic population growth rate  $(\lambda_i)$  for a hypothetical population of wolf and reveals the 716 linear selection gradients, and which demographic processes are the most influential for  $\lambda_t$ . 717 Step 3 - Access the nonlinear selection pressures at the within-species level (see text) (plot 718

C). In the third step self-second derivatives for the corresponding demographic processesfrom step 2 are displayed.

721

722 Figure 2. Results for step 1 of our framework showing the sum of stochastic elasticities with respect to the variance  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$ . The closer the  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$  is to zero, the weaker the impact of 723 variation in demographic processes on  $\lambda_s$ . The 40 populations from 34 species of mammals 724 725 from the COMADRE database are ranked into the variance continuum from potentially buffered (right-hand side) to less buffered (left-hand side), since any variation in 726 demographic processes would strongly impact  $\lambda_s$ . Colors represent different taxonomic orders 727 with Primates occupying the right-hand side. Silhouettes: a) Brachyteles hyphoxantus, b) 728 Gorilla beringhei, c) Cercopithecus mitis, d) Urocitellus columbianus, e) Mustela erminea, f) 729 *Erythrocebus patas*, g) *Lepus americanus*, h) *Rattus fuscipes*, i) *Ovis aries*, j) *Homo sapiens*, 730 k) Macropus eugenii, and l) Felis catus. The vertical axis delineates the values of the density 731 distribution function, indicating the number of species/populations at each value of  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$ . 732 The placement of data points (species/populations) along the horizontal axis corresponds to 733 their calculated values of  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$  and is arranged linearly, while the breadth along the y-axis is 734 solely for improved visual comprehension. 735

736

Figure 3: Results from steps 2 and 3 of the proposed framework (see Fig. 2B, C). The 16
plots represent populations where the MPMs built by ages were available in the COMADRE
database (see text). The color scale represents elasticity values for each of the demographic
processes in the MPM, where yellow represents high and blue low elasticity values. No color
means elasticity=0. Because the aim of step 2 is to identify the most impacting demographic
process within each species' life cycle (the within-populations level, see text) - not to

compare the elasticity values among species - each plot has its own scale (see end of legend). 743 The black dots represent negative self-second derivatives of  $\lambda_t$  - thus concave selection - and 744 the white dots represent positive self-second derivatives of  $\lambda_t$  - thus convex selection. The dot 745 sizes are scaled by the absolute value of self-second derivatives, where the smaller the dot, 746 the closer a self-second derivative is to 0, indicting weak or no nonlinearity. Large dots 747 748 indicate strong nonlinear selection forces. Scales (Emin-max=elasticity minimum and maximum 749 value, SSD<sub>min-max</sub>=self-second derivative minimum and maximum value): Blue monkey E<sub>min-</sub> max=0.00-0.52, SSD<sub>min-max</sub>=-1.25-1.27; Columbian ground squirrel: E<sub>min-max</sub>=0.00-0.23, 750 751 SSD<sub>min-max</sub>=-1.48-0.01; Eastern chimpanzee: E<sub>min-max</sub>=0.00-0.60, SSD<sub>min-max</sub>=-4.39-2.59; Human: Emin-max=0.00-0.18, SSDmin-max=-0.15-0.08; Killer whale: Emin-max=0.00-0.55, 752 SSD<sub>min-max</sub>=-5.72-3.43; Moose: E<sub>min-max</sub>=0.00-0.55, SSD<sub>min-max</sub>=-0.66-0.36; Mountain gorilla: 753 Emin-max=0.00-0.81, SSDmin-max=-1.46-0.28; Northern muriqui: Emin-max=0.00-0.72, SSDmin-754 max=-1.17-0.35; Olive baboon: Emin-max=0.00-0.54, SSDmin-max=-0.57-1.13; Polar bear: Emin-755 756 <sub>max</sub>=0.00-0.26, SSD<sub>min-max</sub>=-0.73-0.54; Rhesus macaque: E<sub>min-max</sub>=0.00-0.51, SSD<sub>min-max</sub>=-0.54-0.71; Root vole: Emin-max=0.00-0.86, SSDmin-max=-2.54-0.22; Soay sheep: Emin-max=0.00-757 0.56, SSD<sub>min-max</sub>=-0.22-0.40; Tammar wallaby: E<sub>min-max</sub>=0.00-0.55, SSD<sub>min-max</sub>=-0.64-0.34; 758 White faced capuchin monkey: E<sub>min-max</sub>=0.00-0.66, SSD<sub>min-max</sub>=-2.66-1.21. 759

# 761 Supplementary material – Data available in COMADRE Version 2.0.1 and results from Step 1 of the framework

- **Table S1.** The metadata used in step 1 of our framework and the respective results presented in the main text. The first four columns represent the information from where Matrix Populations Models (MPMs) were extract precisely as presented in COMADRE 2.0.1. Column titles differ from the database as "SpeciesAuthorComadre" is equivalent to "SpeciesAuthor" and "SpeciesName" is equivalent to "SpeciesAccepted" in COMADRE 2.0.1. The remaining columns present the results of step 1, where we present the raw values of  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\mu}}$  and  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$ , their respective standard deviation, the stochastic population growth rate  $\lambda_s$ , and the number of available matrices (# matrices). For ByAge, "TRUE" was
- 767 assigned for MPMs built by age or "FALSE" if otherwise.

SpeciesAuthorComadre	SpeciesName	CommonName	Order	$\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\mu}}$	$\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\mu}}$ (sd)	$\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$	$\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^0}$ (sd)	# matrices	λ
Homo_sapiens_subspsapiens	Homo sapiens sapiens	Human	Primates	1.003	0.003	1.003	0.004	13	1.064
Alces_alces	Alces alces	Moose	Artiodactyla	1.001	0.001	1.001	0.001	13	1.205
Antechinus_agilis	Antechinus agilis	Agile antechinus	Dasyuromorphia	1.111	0.111	1.111	0.011	2	0.931
Brachyteles_hypoxanthus	Brachyteles hypoxanthus	Northern muriqui	Primates	1.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	12	1.051
Callospermophilus_lateralis	Callospermophilus lateralis	Golden-mantled ground squirrel	Rodentia	1.054	0.054	1.054	0.055	9	2.052
Cebus_capucinus	Cebus capucinus	White faced capuchin monkey	Primates	1.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	11	1.021
Cercopithecus_mitis	Cercopithecus mitis	Blue monkey	Primates	1.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	14	1.036
Eumetopias_jubatus	Eumetopias jubatus	Northern sea lion; Steller sea lion	Carnivora	1.005	0.005	1.005	0.002	2	0.904
Felis_catus	Felis catus	Feral cat	Carnivora	1.136	0.136	1.136	0.012	1	1.948
Gorilla_beringei	Gorilla beringei	Mountain gorilla	Primates	1.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	21	1.027

Hippocamelus_bisulcus	Hippocamelus bisulcus	Huemul deer	Artiodactyla	1.002	0.002	1.002	0.001	1	0.996
Lepus_americanus	Lepus americanus	Snowshoe hare	Lagomorpha	1.294	0.294	1.294	0.165	2	0.812
Lycaon_pictus	Lycaon pictus	African wild dog	Carnivora	1.100	0.100	1.100	0.008	1	1.500
Macaca_mulatta_3	Macaca mulatta	Rhesus macaque	Primates	1.000	0.000	1.000	0.001	12	1.127
Macropus_eugenii	Macropus eugenii	Tammar wallaby	Diprotodontia	1.013	0.013	1.013	0.012	7	0.981
Marmota_flaviventris_2	Marmota flaviventris	Yellow-bellied marmot	Rodentia	1.007	0.007	1.007	0.006	4	0.890
Marmota_flaviventris_3	Marmota flaviventris	Yellow-bellied marmot	Rodentia	1.008	0.008	1.008	0.005	4	0.921
Microtus_oeconomus	Microtus oeconomus	Root vole	Rodentia	1.000	0.000	1.000	0.001	14	1.028
Mustela_erminea	Mustela erminea	Stoat	Carnivora	1.334	0.334	1.334	0.117	2	1.258
Orcinus_orca_2	Orcinus orca	Killer whale	Cetacea	1.001	0.001	1.001	0.001	24	0.999
Ovis_aries_2	Ovis aries	Soay sheep	Artiodactyla	1.033	0.033	1.033	0.020	3	1.099
Pan_troglodytes_subspschweinfurthii	Pan troglodytes	Eastern chimpanzee	Primates	1.000	0.000	1.000	0.001	22	0.982
Papio_cynocephalus	Papio cynocephalus	Olive baboon	Primates	1.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	19	1.054
Peromyscus_maniculatus_2	Peromyscus maniculatus	Deer mouse	Rodentia	1.010	0.010	1.010	0.005	2	1.107
Phocarctos_hookeri	Phocarctos hookeri	New Zealand sea lion	Carnivora	1.005	0.005	1.005	0.003	8	1.023
Propithecus_verreauxi	Propithecus verreauxi	Verreaux's sifaka	Primates	1.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	12	0.986
Puma_concolor_8	Puma concolor	Cougar	Carnivora	NA	NA	NA	NA	10	1.115
Rattus_fuscipes	Rattus fuscipes	Bush rat	Rodentia	1.246	0.246	1.246	0.029	2	1.305
Spermophilus_armatus	Urocitellus armatus	Uinta ground squirrel	Rodentia	1.016	0.016	1.016	0.011	4	1.125
Spermophilus_armatus_2	Urocitellus armatus	Uinta ground squirrel	Rodentia	1.017	0.017	1.017	0.010	3	1.095

Spermophilus_columbianus	Urocitellus columbianus	Columbian ground squirrel	Rodentia	1.036	0.036	1.036	0.025	3	1.009
Spermophilus_columbianus_3	Urocitellus columbianus	Columbian ground squirrel	Rodentia	1.003	0.003	1.003	0.006	3	1.200
Ursus_americanus_subspfloridanus	Ursus americanus	Florida black bear	Carnivora	1.003	0.003	1.003	0.003	2	1.020
Ursus_arctos_subsphorribilis_5	Ursus arctos	Grizzly bear	Carnivora	1.001	0.001	1.001	0.001	4	1.026
Ursus_maritimus_2	Ursus maritimus	Polar bear	Carnivora	1.019	0.019	1.019	0.007	2	0.941
Brachyteles_hypoxanthus_2	Brachyteles hypoxanthus	Northern muriqui	Primates	1.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	12	1.111
Cebus_capucinus_2	Cebus capucinus	WhiteNAfaced capuchin monkey	Primates	1.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	11	1.059
Chlorocebus_aethiops_2	Chlorocebus aethiops	Vervet	Primates	1.075	0.075	1.075	0.087	5	1.187
Erythrocebus_patas	Erythrocebus patas	Patas monkey	Primates	1.051	0.051	1.051	0.038	5	1.128
Gorilla_beringei_subspberingei 768	Gorilla beringei	Mountain gorilla	Primates	1.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	21	1.053

- 1 A unified framework to identify demographic buffering in natural populations
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### 50 **Abstract** (146/150 words)

The Demographic Buffering Hypothesis (DBH) predicts that natural selection reduces the 51 52 temporal fluctuations in demographic processes (such as survival, development, and reproduction), due to their negative impacts on population dynamics. However, a 53 comprehensive approach that allows for the examination of demographic buffering patterns 54 across multiple species is still lacking. Here, we propose a three-step framework aimed at 55 56 identifying and quantifying demographic buffering. Firstly, we categorize species along a continuum of variance based on their stochastic elasticities. Secondly, we examine the linear 57 58 selection gradients, followed by the examination of nonlinear selection gradients as the third step. With these three steps, our framework overcomes existing limitations of conventional 59 approaches to identify and quantify demographic buffering, allows for multi-species 60 comparisons, and offers insight into the evolutionary forces that shape demographic 61 buffering. We apply this framework to mammal species and discuss both the advantages and 62 63 potential of our framework. 64

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Environmental stochasticity plays a pivotal role in shaping organisms' life histories (Bonsall 67 & Klug 2011). Nonetheless, how organisms will cope with the increasing variation in 68 69 environmental conditions expected under climate change (Boyce et al. 2006; Morris et al. 2008) 70 is one of the most intriguing questions of ecology and evolution (Sutherland *et al.* 2013). Evolutionary demography offers a wide array of explanations for the evolutionary processes 71 that shape the diversity of demographic responses to environmental stochasticity 72 73 (Charlesworth 1994; Pfister 1998; Tuljapurkar et al. 2009; Healy et al. 2019; Hilde et al. 2020). The 74 Demographic Buffering Hypothesis (DBH, hereafter) (Morris & Doak 2004; Pélabon et al. 2020) 75 predicts a negative relationship between the contribution of a demographic processes (e.g., 76 survival, development, reproduction) to the population growth rate ( $\lambda$ ) and their temporal variance (Pfister 1998). The emerging demographic strategy, demographic buffering, 77 accommodates variance of demographic processes to cope with the otherwise negative effects 78 of stochastic environments on  $\lambda$  (Pfister 1998; Morris & Doak 2004; Hilde *et al.* 2020). 79 A unified approach to unambiguously quantify demographic buffering is still missing. 80 Indeed, identifying demographic buffering remains challenging (Morris & Doak 2004; Doak et 81 82 al. 2005) for at least three reasons. First is the different interpretation of results from 83 correlational analyses (e.g., as in Pfister, 1998). Some authors have used the correlation coefficient as an index to order species' life histories in a continuum ranging from buffered 84 85 (Spearman's correlation  $\rho = <0$  between the sensitivity of  $\lambda$  to demographic processes and their temporal variance) to labile ( $\rho = >0$ , regardless of the "scatterness" around the 86 87 regression (McDonald et al. 2017). In contrast, other researchers interpret the absence of statistical support for demographic buffering as an alternative strategy where variance in 88 demographic process(es) is favoured to track environmental conditions (the so-called 89 90 Demographic Lability Hypothesis (DLH, hereafter; e.g., (Koons et al. 2009; Reed & Slade 2012; Jäkäläniemi et al. 2013; Hilde et al. 2020). 91

The second obstacle to obtain generalisation across species' populations regarding 92 demographic buffering is the hierarchical level at which this phenomenon is typically 93 94 examined. Some studies base their investigations of demographic buffering on the whole life history at the level of species or populations (interspecific level, hereafter), focusing on the 95 one demographic process that is the most influential for  $\lambda$  (Reed & Slade 2012; McDonald *et al.* 96 2017). At the interspecific level, a life history is referred to as demographically buffered if the 97 most important demographic process has low temporal variance (Pfister 1998; Morris & Doak 98 2004; Hilde et al. 2020; Le Coeur et al. 2022). Thus, the associated strategy is commonly 99 decided based on a *single* demographic process (e.g., adult survival), ignoring the selection 100 pressures on the rest of the demographic processes within the life cycle. However, to 101 understand how, why, and where demographic buffering occurs -or not- and how buffering 102 patterns might be modified in response to the environment, it is essential to also consider the 103 104 features within a single species' life cycle (intraspecific level, hereafter). Within a single life cycle one demographic process can be buffered against while another can be labile to the 105 environment - supporting the DLH (Koons et al. 2009; Jongejans et al. 2010; Barraquand & 106 Yoccoz 2013). Thus, for a mechanistic understanding of how environmental stochasticity 107 shapes life histories, both inter- and intra-specific levels need to be addressed. 108 The third reason limiting a holistic understanding of demographic strategies in 109

stochastic environments are the challenges inherent to examining their underlying
mechanisms. Evidence for demographic buffering exists across some long-lived organisms
with complex life cycles, (Pfister 1998; Gaillard & Yoccoz 2003; Doak *et al.* 2005; Rotella *et al.*2012; McDonald *et al.* 2017), but also in short-lived species (Pfister 1998; Reed & Slade 2012;
Ferreira *et al.* 2013). Importantly, these patterns of variation do not inform on how the life
histories were shaped by natural selection. To do so, one would need to identify the type
(linear or nonlinear) and strength of selection acting on demographic processes. Linear

selection acts on changing *the mean* value of a demographic process via a linear function
between the fitness and the demographic process. In contrast, nonlinear selection acts on *the variance* of demographic processes either increasing it, decreasing it, or
increasing/decreasing *the covariance* between two demographic processes (Brodie et al.

121 1995; Carslake et al. 2008).

The sign of the self-second derivative of  $\lambda$  determines the type of nonlinear selection 122 acting on a demographic process. For instance, a negative self-second derivative for a given 123 demographic process describes a concave form of selection, commonly referred to as the  $\cap$ -124 shaped selection (Caswell 1996, 2001; Shyu & Caswell 2014). This form of selection reduces the 125 temporal variance in said demographic process, thereby providing support for the DBH. 126 Conversely, a demographic process yielding a positive self-second derivative identifies a 127 128 convex, or U-shaped selection (Caswell 1996, 2001; Shyu & Caswell 2014). Such a selection 129 mechanism acts upon demographic processes amplifying their temporal variance, thus supporting the DLH (Koons et al. 2009; Le Coeur et al. 2022). The cross-second derivatives (not 130 discussed here, see Caswell 1996, 2001 for further details) quantify selection pressures acting 131 on the strength of correlation among different demographic processes. 132

The rich variation in demographic strategies across the Tree of Life is a result of 133 134 evolutionary processes that have shaped variance in demographic processes through time. In this context, setting demographic buffering into the adaptive landscape context of linear and 135 nonlinear selection enables us to identify and quantify the evolutionary processes that 136 generate said demographic patterns. In this way, one will better understand how increased 137 variability of environmental conditions might act on the existing -and shape novel-138 demographic strategies. However, we still lack a unified approach to quantify DBH. 139 140 Here, we present a framework that identifies and quantifies demographic buffering. Our framework provides a thorough analysis of temporal variance in demographic processes 141

affected by environmental stochasticity. This framework involves categorizing species or 142 populations along a variance continuum based on the extent to which key demographic 143 144 processes are buffered by natural selection, thereby limiting their temporal variability. The framework consists of four steps with a mix of well-known methods applied to stage-145 structured demographic information (e.g., matrix population models [Caswell 2001]; integral 146 projection models [Easterling et al. 2000]). First, we position species or populations on the 147 148 aforementioned continuum to assess the cumulative effect of the variance on their key 149 demographic processes at the interspecific level (see below). Second, we investigate the 150 presence of linear selection forces operating within the life cycle of each species or population at the intraspecific level (below). Third, we explore the impact of non-linear 151 selection forces acting within the life cycle of each species or population, also at the 152 intraspecific level. The combination of these three steps provides quantitative evidence 153 for/against the DBH, while in step four we describe how to test the DLH. 154

To demonstrate the applicability of our framework, we apply it to 40 populations of 155 34 mammal species sourced from the COMADRE database (Salguero-Gómez et al. 2016). We 156 showcase how the framework can provide valuable insights into the patterns of demographic 157 buffering across species. The framework offers novel, detailed insights into the selection 158 pressures that act within species' life cycles, thus allowing for a thorough understanding of 159 the evolutionary selection forces that shape the patterns of demographic buffering across 160 species. Beyond providing a quantitative, systematic toolset to test the DBH through three 161 steps, we have also offer an alternative fourth step that briefly outlines how to test for the 162 DLH. 163

### 165 A unified framework to assess evidence of DBH

The evidence for demographic buffering has been mainly assessed using Matrix 166 Population Models (Pfister 1998; Rotella et al. 2012). However, Integral Projection Models 167 (IPM; Rodríguez-Caro et al. 2020; Wang et al. 2023) can be equally applied for identifying 168 169 the demographic buffering signatures. Both MPMs and IPMs are stage-structured, discretetime demographic models (Caswell 2001; Ellner et al. 2016). For simplicity, here we focus on 170 MPMs, but note that the same approaches are as equally applicable to IPMs (Griffith 2017; 171 Doak et al. 2021). Throughout this manuscript, we refer to demographic processes as both 172 matrix entries  $a_{ii}$  (*i.e.*, upper-level parameters) and the vital rates that underline the matrix 173 elements (*i.e.*, lower-level parameters), and note that their conversion is straightforward and 174 described elsewhere (Franco & Silvertown 2004). The framework operates on three steps: 175

The first step of our framework involves acquiring the relative contribution of each 176 demographic process to the stochastic growth rate,  $\lambda_s$ , the so-called stochastic elasticities,  $E_{ii}^S$ 177 (Tuljapurkar *et al.* 2003) (Figure 1A). The sum of all stochastic elasticities  $(\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^S)$ , can be 178 separated into two components to assess how temporal variance and mean values of each 179 demographic process contributes to  $\lambda_s$ . The first component represents the *sum of stochastic* 180 elasticity of  $\lambda_s$  with respect to the variance  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$ , and the second represents the sum of 181 stochastic elasticity of  $\lambda_s$  with respect to the mean  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\mu}}$ , where  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}} = \Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}} + \Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\mu}}$ . Thus, 182 the summation  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$  quantifies the extent to which the stochastic population growth rate ( $\lambda_s$ ) 183 is influenced by changes in the variances of the demographic processes within the population 184 matrix. 185

186 A higher sum of stochastic elasticity of  $\lambda_s$  with respect to the variance (*i.e.*, higher 187 absolute value;  $|\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}|$ ) indicates that small changes in the variance of demographic processes 188 would have a substantial impact on  $\lambda_s$ . In other words, the variance of that demographic process is not constrained by selection, supporting the DLH. On the other hand, a lower (absolute) stochastic elasticity of  $\lambda_s$  with respect to the variance suggests that  $\lambda_s$  is less sensitive to such perturbations, or, that variance of such demographic process is being constrained by natural selection, supporting the DBH (Tuljapurkar *et al.* 2003; Haridas & Tuljapurkar 2005) (Fig. 1A).

194 The first step of the framework thus features the interspecific level and places species or populations alongside a continuum. Species exhibiting unconstrained variance in the most 195 important demographic process (i.e., not buffered/potentially DLH suggesting, Fig. 1A, blue 196 197 dots) are positioned on the left-hand side of the continuum. In contrast, species with constrained variance in the most important demographic process (*i.e.*, supporting the DBH, 198 Fig. 1A, yellow dots) are positioned on the right-hand side of the continuum. However, the 199 left-hand side of the continuum does not necessarily imply evidence of demographic lability. 200 This is so because demographic lability is defined as an increase in the mean value of a 201 202 demographic process in response to improved environmental conditions (Le Coeur et al. 2022). By examining  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$ , we can visualize an increase or decrease in *variance* of demographic 203 processes, while the mean value of a demographic process does not change. The right-hand 204 side (near 0 values for  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$ ) supports the DBH, while the opposite end represents the lack 205 of support for the DBH, and potentially support for the DLH. However, to undoubtedly 206 provide support for the DLH, further investigation of demographic parameters is needed, as 207 described below. 208

Step 1 of our framework examines the impacts that environmental variation has on the long-term population growth rate,  $\lambda_s$  (Tuljapurkar *et al.* 2003). This means that the resulting variance continuum in this step of the framework is based on how  $\lambda_s$  was affected by variation in the key demographic parameter across all contiguous time periods.

Steps 2 and 3 of the framework are conducted at the intraspecific level. Once species 213 or populations are positioned along the variance continuum regarding the most important 214 215 demographic process for  $\lambda_s$ , (step 1), one needs to zoom into each life cycle separately, analysing the selection pressures acting on each one of the demographic processes composing 216 217 the life cycle. In doing so, one can inspect the selection pressures that have generated the 218 patterns found in step 1. Step 2 (Fig. 1B) requires obtaining the partial derivatives of the 219 deterministic population growth rate,  $\lambda_t$ , relative to all matrix elements of the MPM of interest (*i.e.*, elasticities of  $\lambda_t$  w.r.t each demographic process in the MPM). Step 2 therefore informs 220 221 on the strength of the natural selection on each of the demographic processes.

Finally, in step 3, one assesses the pattern of nonlinear selection by using the self-222 second derivatives of  $\lambda_t$  with respect to each demographic process (Fig. 1C). This final step 223 reveals the potential nonlinear selection pressures on all the demographic processes within a 224 life cycle, rather than only the most important one. This final step is key to understanding the 225 226 evolutionary processes (*i.e.*, types of nonlinear selection) that the demographic processes are subjected to. Without understanding the evolutionary processes operating on the demographic 227 processes, the pattern observed in step 1 might be artefactual. Moreover, step 1 is founded on 228 229 the assumption that the importance of a demographic process, as indicated by its elasticity, remains unchanged over time. However, stochastic environments can substantially alter 230 elasticity patterns throughout a life cycle (e.g., Lawler et al. 2009). 231

Steps 2 and 3 of the framework feature selection pressures that have been averaged over the contiguous time periods. This means that the resulting patterns are based on how  $\lambda_t$ (obtained from averaging all sequential MPMs across the duration of the study) would be affected if a demographic process were perturbed. Therefore, steps 2 and 3 are based on a different information than step 1, and can thus complete our understanding of the role of selection pressures on shaping demographic patterns across multiple species.

238	Another important asset of step 3 above includes the notion that the relative
239	importance (elasticity) of demographic processes themselves changes with changing
240	environment (Stearns 1992). In other words, the extent to which $\lambda_t$ is sensitive to
241	perturbations in a specific demographic process is dynamic (Kroon, Hans et al. 2000). Thus, the
242	self-second derivatives generate information on how the sensitivity (or elasticity) of $\lambda_t$ –
243	based on which the entire variance continuum of species is produced in step $1 - might$
244	change. If the sensitivity (or elasticity) of $\lambda_t$ can change, then it is important to know which
245	demographic processes are most prone to trigger such a change. In the example of a
246	hypothetical wolf species (Fig. 1), this means that if the reproduction of the third age-class
247	individuals (matrix element $a_{1,3}$ ) decreased, the sensitivity of $\lambda_t$ to $a_{1,3}$ would increase (square
248	with the largest black dot, Fig. 1C). Consequently, with increased environmental variability,
249	the key demographic process used to place this species onto the variance continuum in step 1
250	might change from remaining in the fourth age class (matrix element $a_{4,4}$ , Fig. 1B) to
251	reproduction of the third age-class (matrix element $a_{1,3}$ , Fig. 1C).
252	Combining the three steps of our framework allows for the clear, quantitative, holistic
253	identification of evidence to support (or reject) the DBH. Steps 2 and 3 offer key insights as
254	to why a given species or population is placed on either the buffered or the non-buffered
255	(potentially labile) end of the variance continuum. A clear and unequivocal evidence for
256	support towards the DBH consists of: (1) a species or population being positioned near the 0
257	end of the continuum (the right-hand side) in step 1; (2) this species' or populations' life
258	cycle having one or more demographic processes with highest elasticity values in step 2; and
259	(3) the same demographic process displaying the highest elasticity in step 2 with negative
260	self-second derivative values in step 3. In this sense, Figure 1B shows that, for the chosen
261	population of a hypothetical wolf species, the most important demographic process is
262	remaining in the fourth stage (MPM element $a_{4,4}$ ), as this demographic process results in

highest elasticity value (Fig. 1B yellow square). However, Fig. 1C reveals that  $a_{4,4}$  is under little selection pressure for variance reduction. Thus, there is no evidence for DBH from the third step of the framework (*i.e.*, no concave selection forces), therefore, the lack of concave selection forces on the key demographic process within wolf's life cycle explains why this species is placed on the left-hand side of the variance continuum (Fig. 1A).

Species placed on the non-buffered end of the continuum is the first but not last step to evidence demographic lability. Indeed, locating a species on the non-buffered end of the variance continuum is a necessary but not sufficient condition for evidence in favour of the DLH. It is key highlighting here that demographic buffering and lability do not represent two extremes of the same continuum. The variance continuum allocates the species or populations from strongly buffered to non-buffered, but to test the DLH, a further step is needed.

Although not our primary goal here, we briefly introduce said step 4. To establish 274 compelling evidence for or against the DLH, it is essential to fulfil several criteria. First, 275 276 sufficient data across various environments (over time or space) are required to construct reaction norms that depict how a demographic process responds to environmental changes 277 (Morris et al., 2008; Koons et al., 2009). Second, non-linear relationships between 278 279 demographic processes and the environment must be established based on these reaction norms. Lastly, to identify demographic processes where an increase in the mean value has a 280 stronger positive impact on population growth rate than the detrimental effect of increased 281 variance. This latter condition is only achieved when the vital rate-environment reaction 282 norm is convex (U-shaped; Morris et al. 2008; Koons et al. 2009). Importantly, we note that 283 more likely than previously thought (e.g., Pfister 1998), species do not exist as purely 284 buffering or labile, but that within species, some vital rates may be buffered, other labile, and 285 others insensitive to the environment (e.g., Doak et al. 2005). Deciphering generality in this 286 likely complex pattern should attract much research attention going forward, in our opinion. 287

#### Demographic buffering in mammals: a case study using the unified framework

We demonstrate the performance of our framework using 44 MPMs from 34 mammal 290 species. Mammals are of special interest here for two reasons: (1) mammalian life histories 291 have been well studied (Gillespie 1977; Stearns 1983; Bielby et al. 2007; Jones 2011); and (2) 292 some of their populations have already been assessed in terms of buffering, particularly for 293 primates (Morris et al. 2008, 2011; Reed & Slade 2012; Rotella et al. 2012; Campos et al. 2017). 294 Together, the well-studied life histories and previous information about the occurrence of 295 296 buffering in mammals provide the necessary information to make accurate predictions and validate the performance of the proposed framework. 297 We used Matrix Population Models from 40 out of 139 studies with mammals 298 available in the COMADRE database v.3.0.0 (Salguero-Gómez et al. 2016). These 40 299 populations encompass 34 species from eight taxonomic orders. We included these MPMs in 300 our analyses because they provide values of demographic processes  $(a_{ij})$  for three or more 301 contiguous time periods, thus allowing us to obtain the stochastic elasticity of each  $a_{ii}$ . 302 303 Although we are aware that not all possible temporal variation in demographic processes may 304 have been expressed within this period, we assumed three or more transitions are enough to provide sufficient variation for population comparison. At least three contiguous time periods 305 - a common selection criteria in comparative studies of stochastic demography (Compagnoni 306 307 et al. 2023) - also allowed to test and showcase our framework. Fortunately, several long-lived species, characterized by low variation in their demographic processes, were studied for a 308 309 long time (e.g., some primates in our dataset have been studied for over 20 years – Morris et al. 2011). We removed the populations where either only survival or only reproduction rates 310 were reported, because of the impossibility to calculate the stochastic growth rate. A detailed 311 description of the analysed data and their original sources are available in supplementary 312 material (Supplementary Material, Table S1). 313

Homo sapiens was included in our analyses because it is the only mammalian species in which second-order derivatives have been applied (Caswell 1996). Therefore, *Homo sapiens* provides an ideal basis for comparisons among species. The data for *Homo sapiens* were gathered from 26 modern populations located in various cities, allowing us to construct a spatiotemporal variance. It is important to note that in this case, we are not working with true temporal variance but rather a variance that encompasses both spatial and temporal aspects.

321 For steps 2 and 3 of our framework, we utilized a subset of 16 populations (including 322 Homo sapiens) whose population projection matrices (MPMs) were organized by age. We specifically selected these populations because their life cycles can be summarized by two 323 main demographic processes: survival and contribution to recruitment of new individuals. 324 The contribution to recruitment can be interpreted as either the mean reproductive output for 325 each age class or an approximation thereof, depending on how the matrices are structured 326 327 (Ebert 1999). One advantage of using such matrices is that they encompass only two types of demographic processes, namely survival and recruitment, eliminating the need to account for 328 multiple transitions between different life stages. 329

To perform the step 1 of our framework and obtain the  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$  (and  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\mu}}$ ), we followed Tuljapurkar *et al.* (2003). To perform step 2 of our framework, we calculated the deterministic elasticities of each demographic process extracted using the *popbio* package. All analyses were performed using R version 3.5.1 (R Core team, 2018). Finally, to perform the step 3 of our framework the self-second derivatives were adapted from *demogR* (Jones 2007) following Caswell 1996 and applied for the mean MPM.

336 *Results* 

We ranked 40 populations from the 34 identified mammal species according to the 337 cumulative impact of variation in demographic processes on  $\lambda_s$  using the step 1 of our 338 framework (Fig. 2). Additional information is provided in the supplementary material (Table 339 S1). Most of the analysed orders were placed on the low-variance end of the variance 340 continuum (Fig. 2). The smallest contributions of variation in demographic processes (i.e., 341 maximum value of  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$ , note that  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$  ranges from 0 to -1), suggesting more buffered 342 populations, were assigned to Primates: northern muriqui (*Brachyteles hyphoxantus*,  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}} = -$ 343  $0.09 \times 10^{-4} \pm 0.12 \times 10^{-4}$ ) (mean ± standard deviation) (Fig. 2 silhouette a), mountain gorilla 344 (*Gorilla beringhei*,  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}} = -0.24 \times 10^{-4} \pm 0.08 \times 10^{-4}$ ) (Fig. 2 silhouette b), followed by the 345 blue monkey (*Cercopithecus mitis*,  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}} = -0.63 \times 10^{-4} \pm 0.06 \times 10^{-4}$ ) (Fig. 2 silhouette c). 346 The first non-primate species placed near the low-variance end of the continuum was the 347 Columbian ground squirrel (*Urocitellus columbianus*, Rodentia,  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}} = -0.003 \pm 0.002$ ) (Fig. 348 2 silhouette d). The species with the highest contribution of variation in demographic 349 processes placed at the high-variance end of the continuum was the stoat (Mustela erminea, 350 Carnivora,  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}} = -0.35 \pm 0.02$ ) (Fig. 2 silhouette e). All the 14 primate populations 351 supported the DBH, occupying the right-hand side of the variance continuum, with exception 352 of the Patas monkey (*Erythrocebus patas*, Primates,  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{s^{\sigma}} = -0.05 \pm 0.03$ ) (Fig. 2 silhouette 353 f). The snowshoe hare (*Lepus americanus*, Lagomorpha,  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}} = -0.29 \pm 0.16$ ) (Fig. 2 354 silhouette g) and the Bush rat (*Rattus fuscipes*, Rodentia,  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}} = -0.25 \pm 0.03$ ) (Fig. 2 355 silhouette h) appear on the high-variance end of the continuum. 356

As predicted for the steps 2 and 3, we could not observe a clear pattern in support of the DBH. This finding means that the demographic processes with the highest elasticity values failed to display strongly negative self-second derivatives (Fig. 3). Particularly for

majority of primates - with the lack or minor temporal variation in demographic processes -360 demographic processes with high elasticities had positive values for the self-second 361 362 derivatives (indicated by yellow squares with white dots in Fig. 3). Examples of primate species exhibiting high elasticities and positive values for the self-second derivatives and 363 include northern muriqui (Brachyteles hypoxanthus), mountain gorilla (Gorilla beringei), 364 white-faced capuchin monkey (Cebus capucinus), rhesus monkey (Macaca mulatta), blue 365 monkey (Cercopithecus mitis), Verreaux's sifaka (Propithecus verreauxi) and olive baboon 366 (Papio cynocephalus) (Fig. 3). This implies that the key demographic processes influencing 367  $\lambda_t$  are not subject to selective pressure for reducing their temporal variability. However, even 368 though the primates were positioned closer to the low-variance end of the continuum in step 369 1, the evidence from steps 2 and 3 does not support DBH. 370

The killer whale showed similar controversy between step 1 and steps 2-3 results as most primates. In step 1, the killer whale was positioned at the buffered end of the variance continuum (*Orcinus orca*, Cetacea,  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}} = -0.70 \times 10^{-4} \pm 1.04 \times 10^{-5}$ ) (Fig. 2 silhouette not shown). However, steps 2 and 3 show that the three demographic processes in killer whale life cycle with highest elasticity values (matrix elements  $a_{2,2}$ ,  $a_{3,3}$  and  $a_{4,4}$ ) are not under selection pressures for reducing their temporal variance, but the opposite (depicted by yellow and green squares with white dots, Fig. 3).

The only primate species exhibiting DBH evidence in steps 2 and 3 was human. In human, demographic parameters representing survival from first to second age class (matrix element  $a_{2,1}$ ) displayed high elasticities and negative self-second derivatives (depicted as yellow squares with black dots in Fig. 3). Evidence supporting the DBH was also found in the Columbian ground squirrel (*Urocitellus columbianus*), where, similar to humans, survival from the first to the second age class (matrix element  $a_{2,1}$ ) showed indications of selection acting to reduce its variance. Accordingly, the Columbian ground squirrel was positioned

close to the buffered end of the variance continuum in step 1. Hence, the Columbian ground
squirrel was the sole species with consistent DBH support across all three steps of the
framework.

The Soay sheep (*Ovis aries*) was the species furthest from the buffered end of the variance continuum that enabled to perform steps 2 and 3. For the Soay sheep, remaining in the third age class (matrix element  $a_{3,3}$ ) has the major influence on  $\lambda_t$  and is under selection pressure to have its variance increased. The latter characteristics reveal conditions for the DLH support even though the species is placed closer to the buffered end of the variance continuum.

Steps 2 and 3 illustrate the importance of examining DBH evidence on the intraspecific level. These two steps of the framework identify the simultaneous acting of concave and convex selection on different demographic processes but within a single life cycle. In polar bear (*Ursus maritimus*), the key demographic process (matrix element  $a_{4,4}$ ) is under convex selection, as depicted by a yellow square with a white dot in Fig. 3. However, the demographic process with the second highest elasticity value (matrix element  $a_{5,4}$ ) is under strong concave selection (depicted by a light green square with a black dot in Fig. 3).

By adding step 3 to the framework, another important information was added. The 401 high absolute values of self-second derivatives (large dots, either black or white, Fig. 3) 402 indicate where the sensitivity of  $\lambda_i$  to demographic parameters is itself prone to environmental 403 changes. For instance, if the value of  $a_{5,4}$  for polar bear increased, the sensitivity of  $\lambda_t$  to  $a_{5,4}$ 404 would decrease because the self-second derivative of  $a_{5,4}$  is highly negative (depicted by the 405 largest black dot in polar bear MPM). Vice versa holds for the  $a_{4,4}$  demographic process, 406 where an increase in the value of  $a_{4,4}$  would increase  $\lambda_t$ 's sensitivity to  $a_{4,4}$ , because the self-407 second derivative of  $a_{5,4}$  is highly positive (depicted by the largest white dot in polar bear 408

MPM). Thus, sensitivities (or equally elasticities) of demographic processes with high
absolute values for self-second derivatives can easily change - potentially changing the key
demographic process used for allocating species into the variance continuum in step 1 of the
framework.

### 413 Discussion

414 In the Anthropocene, identifying and quantifying mechanisms of species responses to stochastic environments holds crucial importance. This importance is particularly tangible in 415 the context of the unprecedented environmental changes and uncertainties that impact the 416 dynamics and persistence of natural populations (Boyce et al. 2006). Correlational 417 demographic analysis, whereby the importance of demographic processes and their temporal 418 419 variability is examined (e.g., Pfister 1998), has attempted to identify how species may buffer against the negative effects of environmental stochasticity. However, these widely used 420 approaches have important limitations (see Introduction and Hilde et al. 2020). Our novel 421 422 framework overcomes said limitations by providing a rigorous approach to test the demographic buffering hypothesis (DBH; Pfister 1998; Hilde et al. 2020). 423 Evidencing demographic buffering is not straightforward. Indeed, through the 424 analysis of stochastic population growth rate ( $\lambda_s$ ) in our application of the framework to 44 425

populations of 34 species, we identify the highest density of natural populations near the 426 427 buffered end of the variance continuum (step 1), indicating possible support for the DBH. However, we show that the same species then fail to exhibit signs of concave ( $\cap$ -shaped) 428 selection on the key demographic parameters when further analyses are performed averaging 429 430 the variation across the duration of each study (steps 2 and 3). This finding confirms that placing the species near the buffered end of the variance continuum is *necessary* but not 431 sufficient to test the DBH. Indeed, buffering occurs when concave selection forces act on the 432 433 key demographic parameter (Caswell 1996, 2001; Shyu & Caswell 2014).

Combining the three steps into a unified framework is of outmost importance. In steps 434 2 and 3 of the framework, we find relatively limited overall support for the DBH in the 435 436 examination of our 16 (out of 34 in step 1) studied animal species. Step 3 of our framework reveals that the role of natural selection shaping temporal variation in demographic processes 437 438 is more complex than expected by the DBH alone. Indeed, demographic processes within our 439 study populations are often under a mix of convex and concave selection. This mix of selection patterns was already suggested by Doak et al. (2005). Here, only two out of 16 440 mammal species revealed concave selection acting on the key demographic processes 441 442 (Columbian ground squirrel [Urocitellus columbianus], and humans, [Homo sapiens *sapiens*]). These two species were also placed near the buffered end of the variance 443 continuum, therefore meeting all the necessary conditions to diagnose clear support in favour 444 of DBH. However, finding 12.5% (two out of 16) species that meet the criteria for 445 demographic buffering is not in concordance with previous studies. Support for the DBH has 446 447 been reported across 22 ungulate species (Gaillard & Yoccoz 2003). In the one ungulate we examined, the moose (Alces alces), we find only partial support for DBH in adult survival, 448 since this species is placed near the buffered end of the variance continuum in step 1 but does 449 450 not show concave selection pressures on adult survival in step 2/3, as predicted by the DBH. Our overall findings reveal varying levels of support for the notion that adult survival 451 in long-lived species tends to be buffered. Indeed, Gaillard et al. (1998) found that adult 452 female survival varied considerably less than juvenile survival in large herbivores. This 453 finding was also supported by further studies in ungulates (Gaillard & Yoccoz 2003), turtles 454 (Heppell 1998), vertebrates and plants (Pfister 1998), and more recently across nine (out of 455 73) species of plants (McDonald et al. 2017). 456 When placing our study species along a variance continuum (step 1), primates tend to 457

458 be located on the buffered end. However, most primates displayed convex –instead of the

expected concave- selection on adult survival. Similar results, where the key demographic 459 process failed to display constrained temporal variability, have been reported for long-lived 460 461 seabirds (Doherty et al. 2004). One explanation for the unexpected convex selection on adult survival involves trade-offs, as suggested by Doak et al. (2005). When two demographic 462 parameters are negatively correlated, the variance of population growth rate ( $\lambda$ ) can be 463 increased or decreased (Evans & Holsinger 2012; Compagnoni et al. 2016). The well-established 464 trade-off between survival and fecundity (e.g., Stearns 1992; Roff & Fairbairn 2007) might 465 explain the observed concave selection signatures on late fecundity and convex selection on 466 adult survival. Because variation in primate recruitment is already constrained by 467 468 physiological limitations (Campos et al. 2017), when adult survival and recruitment are engaged in a trade-off, this trade-off might lead to our unexpected result. Here, future studies 469 may benefit from deeper insights via cross-second derivatives (Caswell 1996, 2001) to 470 471 investigate correlations among demographic processes.

Examining the drivers of demographic buffering has become an important piece of the 472 ecological and evolutionary puzzle of demography. As such, testing the DBH can help us 473 better predict population responses to environmental variability, climate change, and direct 474 anthropogenic disturbances (Pfister 1998; Boyce et al. 2006; McDonald et al. 2017; Vázquez et al. 475 2017). By setting the DBH into a broader and integrated framework, we hope to enhance 476 comprehension and prediction of the implications of heightened environmental stochasticity 477 on the evolution of life history traits. This understanding is crucial in mitigating the risk of 478 extinction for the most vulnerable species. 479

480

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- 487

#### 488 Data availability

- 489 The demographic data used in this paper are open-access and available in the COMPADRE
- 490 Plant Matrix Database (v. 5.0.1; https://compadre-db.org/Data/ Compadre). A list of the
- 491 studies and species used here is available in Supplementary Material (Table S1). If the
- 492 manuscript is accepted, the data and code supporting the results will be archived on Zenodo.
- 493 The data and code specific DOI will then be included in our "Data availability" statement.
- 494

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- 620





624 Figure 2







633	Figure 1. A three-step framework proposed to: Step 1 - allocate species and/or populations
634	on a variance continuum (plot A, dots representing 50 hypothetical species). The variance
635	continuum operates at the interspecific level (see text) and is represented by partitioning the
636	sum of all the stochastic elasticities ( $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^S$ ) into two compounds: i) sums of stochastic
637	elasticities with respect to the variance ( $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$ ), and ii) sums of stochastic elasticities with
638	respect to the mean $(\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\mu}})$ . The first step of our framework shows the variance compound of
639	the sums of stochastic elasticities forming a continuum where the right-hand side of the plot
640	represents species (or populations) where a perturbation of variance of the most important
641	demographic process results in weak or no impact on $\lambda_s$ (yellow dots). The yellow-dotted
642	species (or populations) can be classified as having buffered life-cycles (supporting the DBH)
643	– based on the most important demographic process for the $\lambda_s$ . The left-hand side of the graph
644	represents species (or populations) where a perturbation of the variance of the most important
645	demographic process results in strong impact on $\lambda_s$ (blue dots). Thus, the blue-dotted species
646	(or populations) can be classified as having unbuffered life cycles (potentially supporting
647	<i>DLH</i> , see text) – based on the most important demographic process for the $\lambda_s$ . The jitter
648	applied on the y-axis has no biological meaning. Step 2 - Access the linear selection
649	pressures for individual species or populations at intraspecific level (see text) (plot B). Step 2
650	displays the elasticities of the deterministic population growth rate ( $\lambda_t$ ) for a hypothetical
651	population of wolf and reveals the linear selection gradients. Step 3 - Access the nonlinear
652	selection pressures at the intraspecific level (see text) (plot C). In the third step self-second
653	derivatives for the corresponding demographic processes from step 2 are displayed.
654	
Figure 2. Results for step 1 of our framework showing the sum of stochastic elasticities with 655 respect to the variance  $\Sigma E_{a_{ii}}^{S^{\sigma}}$  increase caused by a perturbation in the most relevant 656 demographic process. The 40 populations from 34 species of mammals from the COMADRE 657 database are ranked into the variance continuum from strongly buffered (right-hand side, 658 659 supporting the DBH) to more variable, less buffered (left-hand side, potentially supporting the DLH, see text). Colors represent different taxonomic orders with Primates occupying the 660 right-hand side. Silhouettes: a) *Brachyteles hyphoxantus*, b) *Gorilla beringhei*, c) 661 662 *Cercopithecus mitis*, d) *Urocitellus columbianus*, e) *Mustela erminea*, f) *Erythrocebus patas*, g) Lepus americanus, h) Rattus fuscipes, i) Ovis aries, j) Homo sapiens, k) Macropus eugenii, 663 and 1) Felis catus. The jitter applied on the y-axis has no biological meaning. 664

665

Figure 3: Results from steps 2 and 3 of the proposed framework (see Fig. 2B, C). The 16 666 plots represent populations where the MPMs built by ages were available in the COMADRE 667 database (see text). The color scale represents elasticity values for each of the demographic 668 processes in the MPM, where yellow represents high and blue low elasticity values. No color 669 means elasticity=0. Because the aim of step 2 is to identify the most important demographic 670 process within each species' life cycle (the intraspecific level, see text) - not to compare the 671 elasticity values among species - each plot has its own scale (see end of legend). The black 672 dots represent negative self-second derivatives of  $\lambda_t$  - thus concave selection - and the white 673 dots represent positive self-second derivatives of  $\lambda_t$  - thus convex selection. The dot sizes are 674 scaled by the absolute value of self-second derivatives, where the smaller the dot, the closer a 675 self-second derivative is to 0, indicting weak or no selection. Large dots indicate strong 676 selection forces. Scales (Emin-max=elasticity minimum and maximum value, SSDmin-max=self-677 second derivative minimum and maximum value): Blue monkey Emin-max=0.00-0.52, SSDmin-678 679 max=-1.25-1.27; Columbian ground squirrel: Emin-max=0.00-0.23, SSDmin-max=-1.48-0.01;

- 680 Eastern chimpanzee:  $E_{min-max}$ =0.00-0.60, SSD<sub>min-max</sub>=-4.39-2.59; Human:  $E_{min-max}$ =0.00-0.18,
- 681 SSD<sub>min-max</sub>=-0.15-0.08; Killer whale:  $E_{min-max}$ =0.00-0.55, SSD<sub>min-max</sub>=-5.72-3.43; Moose:
- 682  $E_{min-max}=0.00-0.55$ , SSD<sub>min-max</sub>=-0.66-0.36; Mountain gorilla:  $E_{min-max}=0.00-0.81$ , SSD<sub>min-</sub>
- 683  $_{max}$ =-1.46-0.28; Northern muriqui:  $E_{min-max}$ =0.00-0.72, SSD<sub>min-max</sub>=-1.17-0.35; Olive baboon:
- 684  $E_{min-max}=0.00-0.54$ , SSD<sub>min-max</sub>=-0.57-1.13; Polar bear:  $E_{min-max}=0.00-0.26$ , SSD<sub>min-max</sub>=-
- 685 0.73-0.54; Rhesus macaque:  $E_{min-max}=0.00-0.51$ , SSD<sub>min-max</sub>=-0.54-0.71; Root vole:  $E_{min-max}=0.50-0.51$ , SSD<sub>min-max</sub>=-0.54-0.71; Root vole:  $E_{min-max}=0.50-0.51$ , SSD<sub>min-max</sub>=-0.54-0.71; Root vole:  $E_{min-max}=0.50-0.51$ , SSD<sub>min-max</sub>=-0.51, SS
- 686 max=0.00-0.86, SSD<sub>min-max</sub>=-2.54-0.22; Soay sheep: E<sub>min-max</sub>=0.00-0.56, SSD<sub>min-max</sub>=-0.22-
- 687 0.40; Tammar wallaby:  $E_{min-max}=0.00-0.55$ , SSD<sub>min-max</sub>=-0.64-0.34; White faced capuchin
- 688 monkey:  $E_{min-max}=0.00-0.66$ ,  $SSD_{min-max}=-2.66-1.21$ .
- 689

## 690 Supplementary material – Data available in COMADRE Version 2.0.1 and results from Step 1 of the framework

**Table S1.** The metadata used in step 1 of our framework and the respective results presented in the main text. The first four columns represent the information from where Matrix Populations Models (MPMs) were extract precisely as presented in COMADRE 2.0.1. Column titles differ from the database as "SpeciesAuthorComadre" is equivalent to "SpeciesAuthor" and "SpeciesName" is equivalent to "SpeciesAccepted" in COMADRE 2.0.1. The remaining columns present the results of step 1, where we present the raw values of  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\mu}}$  and  $\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$ , their respective standard deviation, the stochastic population growth rate  $\lambda_s$ , and the number of available matrices (# matrices). For ByAge, "TRUE" was assigned for MPMs built by age or "FALSE" if otherwise.

SpeciesAuthorComadre	SpeciesName	CommonName	Order	$\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\mu}}$	$\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\mu}}$ (sd)	$\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^{\sigma}}$	$\Sigma E_{a_{ij}}^{S^o}$ (sd)	# matrices	λ
Homo_sapiens_subspsapiens	Homo sapiens sapiens	Human	Primates	1.003	0.003	1.003	0.004	13	1.064
Alces_alces	Alces alces	Moose	Artiodactyla	1.001	0.001	1.001	0.001	13	1.205
Antechinus_agilis	Antechinus agilis	Agile antechinus	Dasyuromorphia	1.111	0.111	1.111	0.011	2	0.931
Brachyteles_hypoxanthus	Brachyteles hypoxanthus	Northern muriqui	Primates	1.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	12	1.051
Callospermophilus_lateralis	Callospermophilus lateralis	Golden-mantled ground squirrel	Rodentia	1.054	0.054	1.054	0.055	9	2.052
Cebus_capucinus	Cebus capucinus	White faced capuchin monkey	Primates	1.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	11	1.021
Cercopithecus_mitis	Cercopithecus mitis	Blue monkey	Primates	1.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	14	1.036
Eumetopias_jubatus	Eumetopias jubatus	Northern sea lion; Steller sea lion	Carnivora	1.005	0.005	1.005	0.002	2	0.904
Felis_catus	Felis catus	Feral cat	Carnivora	1.136	0.136	1.136	0.012	1	1.948
Gorilla_beringei	Gorilla beringei	Mountain gorilla	Primates	1.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	21	1.027
Hippocamelus_bisulcus	Hippocamelus bisulcus	Huemul deer	Artiodactyla	1.002	0.002	1.002	0.001	1	0.996
Lepus_americanus	Lepus americanus	Snowshoe hare	Lagomorpha	1.294	0.294	1.294	0.165	2	0.812
Lycaon_pictus	Lycaon pictus	African wild dog	Carnivora	1.100	0.100	1.100	0.008	1	1.500
Macaca_mulatta_3	Macaca mulatta	Rhesus macaque	Primates	1.000	0.000	1.000	0.001	12	1.127
Macropus_eugenii	Macropus eugenii	Tammar wallaby	Diprotodontia	1.013	0.013	1.013	0.012	7	0.981

Marmota_flaviventris_2	Marmota flaviventris	Yellow-bellied marmot	Rodentia	1.007	0.007	1.007	0.006	4	0.890
Marmota_flaviventris_3	Marmota flaviventris	Yellow-bellied marmot	Rodentia	1.008	0.008	1.008	0.005	4	0.921
Microtus_oeconomus	Microtus oeconomus	Root vole	Rodentia	1.000	0.000	1.000	0.001	14	1.028
Mustela_erminea	Mustela erminea	Stoat	Carnivora	1.334	0.334	1.334	0.117	2	1.258
Orcinus_orca_2	Orcinus orca	Killer whale	Cetacea	1.001	0.001	1.001	0.001	24	0.999
Ovis_aries_2	Ovis aries	Soay sheep	Artiodactyla	1.033	0.033	1.033	0.020	3	1.099
Pan_troglodytes_subspschweinfurthii	Pan troglodytes	Eastern chimpanzee	Primates	1.000	0.000	1.000	0.001	22	0.982
Papio_cynocephalus	Papio cynocephalus	Olive baboon	Primates	1.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	19	1.054
Peromyscus_maniculatus_2	Peromyscus maniculatus	Deer mouse	Rodentia	1.010	0.010	1.010	0.005	2	1.107
Phocarctos_hookeri	Phocarctos hookeri	New Zealand sea lion	Carnivora	1.005	0.005	1.005	0.003	8	1.023
Propithecus_verreauxi	Propithecus verreauxi	Verreaux's sifaka	Primates	1.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	12	0.986
Puma_concolor_8	Puma concolor	Cougar	Carnivora	NA	NA	NA	NA	10	1.115
Rattus_fuscipes	Rattus fuscipes	Bush rat	Rodentia	1.246	0.246	1.246	0.029	2	1.305
Spermophilus_armatus	Urocitellus armatus	Uinta ground squirrel	Rodentia	1.016	0.016	1.016	0.011	4	1.125
Spermophilus_armatus_2	Urocitellus armatus	Uinta ground squirrel	Rodentia	1.017	0.017	1.017	0.010	3	1.095
Spermophilus_columbianus	Urocitellus columbianus	Columbian ground squirrel	Rodentia	1.036	0.036	1.036	0.025	3	1.009
Spermophilus_columbianus_3	Urocitellus columbianus	Columbian ground squirrel	Rodentia	1.003	0.003	1.003	0.006	3	1.200
Ursus_americanus_subspfloridanus	Ursus americanus	Florida black bear	Carnivora	1.003	0.003	1.003	0.003	2	1.020
Ursus_arctos_subsphorribilis_5	Ursus arctos	Grizzly bear	Carnivora	1.001	0.001	1.001	0.001	4	1.026
Ursus_maritimus_2	Ursus maritimus	Polar bear	Carnivora	1.019	0.019	1.019	0.007	2	0.941
Brachyteles_hypoxanthus_2	Brachyteles hypoxanthus	Northern muriqui	Primates	1.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	12	1.111
Cebus_capucinus_2	Cebus capucinus	WhiteNA faced capuchin monkey	Primates	1.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	11	1.059
Chlorocebus_aethiops_2	Chlorocebus aethiops	Vervet	Primates	1.075	0.075	1.075	0.087	5	1.187
Erythrocebus_patas	Erythrocebus patas	Patas monkey	Primates	1.051	0.051	1.051	0.038	5	1.128
Gorilla_beringei_subspberingei	Gorilla beringei	Mountain gorilla	Primates	1.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	21	1.053
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