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3 **1 Environmental change reduces body mass, but not population growth, in a high-arctic**
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5 **2 herbivore**
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10 4 Kate Layton-Matthews¹, Vidar Grøtan¹, Brage B. Hansen¹, Maarten J. J. E. Loonen², Eva
11
12 5 Fuglei³, Dylan Z. Childs⁴
13

14
15 6 kate.l.matthews@ntnu.no, vidar.grotan@ntnu.no, brage.b.hansen@ntnu.no

16
17 7 m.j.j.e.loonen@rug.nl

18
19 8 eva.fuglei@npolar.no

20
21 9 d.childs@sheffield.ac.uk
22
23

24
25
26 11 ¹Centre for Biodiversity Dynamics, Department of Biology, Norwegian University of Science
27
28 12 and Technology, Trondheim, Norway

29
30 13 ²Arctic Centre, University of Groningen, Groningen, the Netherlands

31
32 14 ³Norwegian Polar Institute, Tromsø, Norway

33
34 15 ⁴Department of Animal and Plant Sciences, University of Sheffield, Sheffield, UK
35
36
37
38
39

40 17 *Corresponding author:*

41
42 18 Kate Layton-Matthews

43
44 19 +47 941 565 75

45
46 20 kate.l.matthews@ntnu.no
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3 24 **Running title:** population-growth responses to declining mass
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8 26 **Data accessibility statement:** We (the authors) confirm that, on acceptance of the manuscript,
9
10 27 data supporting the results will be archived in Dryad data repository and a DOI will be included
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12 28 at the end of the article.
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15 29

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17 30 **Key words**

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19 31 Arctic, climate change, population dynamics, barnacle goose, trait-mediated and modified
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21 32 effects, integral projection models, life table response experiments, transient LTRE
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Abstract

Environmental change influences fitness-related traits and demographic rates, which in herbivores are often linked to resource-driven variation in body mass. Coupled body mass-demographic responses may therefore be important for herbivore population dynamics in fluctuating environments, such as the Arctic. We applied a transient Life-Table Response Experiment ('transient-LTRE') to demographic data from Svalbard barnacle geese (*Branta leucopsis*), to quantify their population-dynamic responses to changes in body mass. We partitioned contributions from direct and delayed demographic and body mass-mediated processes to variation in population growth. Declines in body mass (1980-2017), which positively affected reproduction and fledgling survival, had negligible consequences for population growth. Instead, population growth rates were largely reproduction-driven, in part through positive responses to rapidly advancing spring phenology. The virtual lack of body mass-mediated effects indicates that herbivore population dynamics may be more resilient to changing body condition than previously expected, with implications for their persistence under environmental change.

47 **Introduction**

48 Fluctuations in fitness-related traits and population size are jointly affected by environmental
49 stochasticity and density dependence (Lande *et al.* 2003; Sæther *et al.* 2016). Body condition, often
50 measured as proxies e.g., body mass or mass/tarsus ratio (Schamber *et al.* 2009), is a key fitness-
51 related trait, reflecting energy reserves available to survive, grow and reproduce (Labocha & Hayes
52 2012). Individual body condition is constantly responding to weather and density-dependent
53 processes, as they influence food availability and energy expenditure (Sæther 1997; Parker *et al.*
54 2009). Particularly in herbivores, this can directly influence reproduction and survival (Festa-
55 Bianchet *et al.* 1997; Sæther 1997; Post & Stenseth 1999). Short-term effects of weather and
56 density can also lead to cohort effects on body mass, with lasting impacts on reproduction (Albon
57 *et al.* 1987; Choudhury *et al.* 1996) and population size (Beckerman *et al.* 2002). Simultaneous
58 changes in body mass and vital rates occur when both respond to variation in weather or density
59 (Parmesan 2006), with potentially complex population-growth consequences (Post *et al.* 1997;
60 Ozgul *et al.* 2010). However, this coupling remains largely unexplored. Linking changes in fitness-
61 related traits to variation in population growth is particularly complex when environment-trait-
62 demography associations vary temporally (e.g., seasonally, Paniw *et al.* 2019b) or among life-
63 history components (e.g., Douhard *et al.* 2013).

64 Arctic environments are seasonal and stochastic. Consequently, Arctic herbivores are exposed
65 to variable resource availability, causing annual fluctuations in body mass and population size
66 (Forchhammer *et al.* 2002; Couturier *et al.* 2008; Albon *et al.* 2017). Weather patterns are being
67 modified by climate change (Scheffer *et al.* 2001), which is occurring most rapidly in the Arctic
68 (Serreze & Barry 2011). Accordingly, climate change effects on body condition (Albon *et al.*
69 2017), reproduction (Post & Forchhammer 2008; Layton-Matthews *et al.* 2019a), survival (Aubry

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2
3 70 *et al.* 2013), and population size (Forchhammer *et al.* 2002; Albon *et al.* 2017) have been
4
5 71 documented in Arctic herbivores. However, climate effects on fitness-related traits and
6
7 72 demographic rates do not act independently, and relatively little is known about the linkages
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10 73 among them due to the challenge of quantifying these - often complex – relationships (McLean *et*
11
12 74 *al.* 2016; Visser *et al.* 2016; Jenouvrier *et al.* 2018). Additionally, traits can influence environment-
13
14 75 demography relationships via two mechanisms: trait-mediating (Ozgul *et al.* 2010; Plard *et al.*
15
16 76 2015; Albon *et al.* 2017) or trait-modifying effects (Herfindal *et al.* 2006; Harrison *et al.* 2013). A
17
18 77 mediating trait effect *explains* a relationship between environmental conditions and vital rates,
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20 78 e.g., temperature affects body mass, which in turn affects survival, whereas a modifying effect
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22 79 requires a body mass-temperature interaction effect on survival.
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26 80 Since body condition is so influential on life-history processes in Arctic herbivores, we could
27
28 81 expect large population-level responses to changes in this trait (Albon *et al.* 2017). However,
29
30 82 changes in fitness-related traits do not necessarily affect population growth (McLean *et al.* 2020),
31
32 83 since three conditions must be met for trait-mediated effects on population growth to arise; (1) the
33
34 84 trait must fluctuate at the relevant life-history stage for a given, potentially age-specific,
35
36 85 demographic rate, (2) the demographic rate must be sensitive to changes in the trait, and (3) the
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38 86 population growth rate must, in turn, be sensitive to variation in the demographic rate. If any of
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40 87 these conditions are not met, then no pathway exists from trait variation to population growth
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42 88 variation (Jenouvrier *et al.* 2018).
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46 89 Populations are constantly being perturbed by short-term, temporal variation in the
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48 90 environment (Bierzychudek 1999; Clutton–Brock & Coulson 2002). This can lead to ‘transient
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50 91 population dynamics’ (Hastings 2004; Koons *et al.* 2005; Ezard *et al.* 2010), as fluctuating
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52 92 environments cause changes in underlying population structure (e.g., age structure, Koons *et al.*
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3 93 2016) or trait distributions (e.g., body mass, Ozgul *et al.* 2010). Changes in population structure
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5 94 can have delayed, transient effects on future population growth, especially when there is
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8 95 substantial variation in the vital rates of different classes of individuals (Beckerman *et al.* 2002;
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10 96 De Roos *et al.* 2003; Hansen *et al.* 2019). If poor conditions reduce cohort body mass, vital rates
11
12 97 can be affected for several subsequent years through delayed effects, mediated by early-life body
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15 98 mass (e.g., Albon *et al.* 1987). Recent extensions of matrix (MPM) and integral (IPM) projection
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17 99 models have attempted to quantify population-growth consequences of such delayed ('lagged')
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19 100 effects (Koons *et al.* 2005; Kuss *et al.* 2008). Transient life-table response experiments (transient-
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21 101 LTREs) partition variance in the realised population growth rate into contributions from
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24 102 demographic rates. Furthermore, they can be used to separate temporal variation in λ into direct
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26 103 demographic effects versus delayed effects from transient changes in population structure/trait
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28 104 distributions (e.g., cohort effects), thereby explicitly incorporating past environments
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31 105 (Maldonado-Chaparro *et al.* 2018).

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33 106 We explored how a substantial change in body mass contributed to variation in population
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35 107 growth in a high-arctic herbivore, the barnacle goose (*Branta leucopsis*). We analysed female
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37 108 mark-recapture and body mass data (1990-2017) to quantify environmental and density effects on
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39 109 survival, reproduction, growth, and fledgling body mass. Using the regression models we
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42 110 constructed an environmentally-driven, stochastic IPM (Rees & Ellner 2009; Metcalf *et al.* 2015).
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44 111 Using a recently developed transient-LTRE (Maldonado-Chaparro *et al.* 2018), we decomposed
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46 112 variation in the realised population growth rate (λ_t) into vital rate contributions through
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48 113 demographic and trait-mediated pathways, separated into direct and delayed effects. This
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50 114 methodology revealed that while variation in λ_t was largely reproduction-driven, through direct
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53 115 and delayed effects (i.e., changes in age structure), body mass-mediated pathways contributed

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3 116 negligibly to population growth. Thus, herbivore populations appear more resilient to substantial
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5 117 changes in body condition than previously anticipated, with implications for their persistence
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8 118 under future environmental change.
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12 120 **Material and methods**

13 121 *Study species*

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17 122 Arctic geese are migratory capital breeders, relying, to some extent, on accumulated body reserves
18
19 123 for reproduction (Jönsson 1997; Hahn *et al.* 2011). Therefore, an individual's body condition prior
20
21 124 to the breeding season affects their reproductive success (Ankney & MacInnes 1978; Ebbinge &
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24 125 Spaans 1995). Svalbard barnacle geese overwinter in Scotland, UK (55° N, 3.30° W). They fly to
25
26 126 Svalbard for breeding in summer, stopping over in spring along the coast of mainland Norway.
27
28 127 The study population breeds close to Ny-Ålesund, western Spitsbergen (78°55' N, 11°56' E).
29
30
31 128 Geese arrive at the end of May and nest on islands in the fjord, Kongsfjorden. Hatching occurs
32
33 129 from late June. Families leave the nesting islands to forage thereafter, until offspring fledge at the
34
35 130 end of August and geese migrate back to Scotland by October.
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38 132 *Demographic data*

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42 133 All analyses were female based. Over the main study period (i.e. mark-recapture period: 1990-
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44 134 2017), 1669 females in total were caught in July-August and ringed with unique colour and metal
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47 135 identification bands. Recapture data were based on daily observations of ringed individuals around
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49 136 Ny-Ålesund during the foraging period from late June to August ($n_{\text{obs}} = 7280$). Some years were
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51 137 missing recapture or body mass data (see Appendix 1 for annual sample sizes). Reproduction was
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54 138 assessed based on observations of sexually mature adults with offspring at the beginning of August
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3 139 - when offspring fledge. Birds were divided into two age classes, individuals ringed in their first
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5 140 year of life as ‘fledglings’ (*fl*) and older individuals as ‘adults’ (*ad*) - a pooled age class of up to
6
7 141 28 years old. Body mass was measured during a catch ($n_{\text{measurements}}$: *fl* = 696, *ad* = 2108). We
8
9 142 analysed body mass rather than other body condition proxies since body mass is a reliable measure
10
11 143 of condition in geese (Schmutz 1993; Lindholm *et al.* 1994). We tested for a temporal trend in
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13 144 cohort body mass (1980-2017) by fitting a linear regression with year as an explanatory variable.
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17 145

19 146 *Analytical approach*

21 147 First, we fitted (generalised) linear mixed-effects models ((G)LMMs) to describe fledgling body
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23 148 mass (C_0), growth (i.e., change in body mass from t to $t+1$, G), overwinter survival (ϕ) and
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25 149 reproduction: the probability of reproducing (R) and fledged brood size (fec). For each model, we
26
27 150 quantified effects of age class, body mass and covariates, using model selection. Based on the best-
28
29 151 approximating models, we constructed an IPM to model temporal dynamics of population size and
30
31 152 body mass distribution. We decomposed variation in the population growth rate (λ_t), using a
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33 153 transient-LTRE, into direct effects of demographic rates versus indirect effects through
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35 154 fluctuations in age class structure and body mass distribution. Contributions were further
36
37 155 decomposed into variation from modelled covariates versus random effects.
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44 157 *Regression models*

46 158 We fitted an LMM to fledgling body mass data, to model the mean and distribution of fledgling
47
48 159 body masses (C_0), including catch date as a predictor since gosling growth exhibited a seasonal
49
50 160 trend (Appendix 2). We also fitted an LMM to body mass data of both age classes (fledglings and
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52 161 adults), describing body mass-dependent growth between years, due to ontogeny and phenotypic
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3 162 plasticity (G). Reproduction and mark-recapture data were modelled with GLMMs. To estimate
4
5 163 apparent survival (ϕ), mark-recapture data were modelled with a Cormack-Jolly-Seber framework
6
7 164 using the *RMark* interface (Laake 2013) for program MARK (White & Burnham 1999).
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10 165 Reproduction was modelled as two response parameters. R describes the annual reproduction
11
12 166 probability i.e., whether or not a female had at least one fledgling (0/1), fitted as a binomial
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14 167 response. Fledged brood size (fec) describes the number of fledglings per mother, fitted as a
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17 168 Poisson response. Only observations from 2 year-olds onwards (the age of sexual maturity,
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19 169 Forslund & Larsson 1992; Fjellidal *et al.* 2020) were included in the reproductive models, and the
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21 170 model of fec only included successfully reproducing individuals ($R = 1$). All (G)LMM's were fitted
22
23 171 with year as a random effect in the package *lme4* (Bates *et al.* 2015).
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26 172 We identified effects of age class, body mass, density and external covariates (see below,
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28 173 *Covariates*) on C_0 , G , R , fec and ϕ , using Akaike's Information Criterion corrected for small
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30 174 sample sizes (AICc, Burnham & Anderson 2002) to identify the most parsimonious model. Body
31
32 175 mass was de-trended for model selection of G and C_0 , to avoid spurious correlations caused by
33
34 176 declining trends. A set of candidate models were fitted for each rate including all possible subsets
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36 177 of covariates and interactions between age class, body mass and covariates (global models shown
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38 178 in Appendix 3, Table S1). If competing models had $\Delta AICc < 2$, the one with least parameters was
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42 179 considered most parsimonious. Model selection of survival rates was performed in *RMark*, but the
43
44 180 final model was fitted in a Bayesian framework to model age class-, and year-, specific random
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46 181 effects. Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) simulations were implemented in JAGS via the *rjags*
47
48 182 package (Plummer 2013), assuming annual variation in survival originated from a random process
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50 183 with zero mean and age class-specific deviations (see Schaub *et al.* 2013; Layton-Matthews *et al.*
51
52 184 2019b for details). All priors were non-informative. Missing body mass observations were imputed
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3 185 by drawing from a normal distribution, where priors were set at the age class-specific mean body
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5 186 mass and variance (Gimenez *et al.* 2006). While the Bayesian framework allows for estimation of
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7 187 age- and year-specific random effects, sampling missing body mass data can lead to under-
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9 188 estimation of individual heterogeneity (McCarthy & Masters 2005).
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14 190 *Covariates*

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17 191 Covariates reflecting weather and population density over the annual cycle, and predator
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19 192 abundance effects on barnacle goose demography (Layton-Matthews *et al.* 2019a) were included
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21 193 in the regression models of reproduction (R , fec), survival (ϕ), growth (G) and fledgling body mass
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23 194 (C_0). From the overwintering grounds at Solway Firth, Scotland (*win*, i.e., winter: October_{*t*} –
24
25 195 March_{*t+1*}), we included annual mean winter temperature (T_{win}) and total flyway population counts
26
27 196 (N_{win}). From the spring staging grounds at Helgeland, (*spr*, i.e., spring: April–May), we included
28
29 197 spring precipitation (P_{spr}) using data from the Vega weather station (65°38' N, 11°52' E). Climate
30
31 198 covariates from the breeding grounds in Svalbard (*sum*, i.e., summer) included the date of spring
32
33 199 onset (SO_{sum}), i.e., the ordinal day when the 10-day smoothed daily temperature crossed 0°C and
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35 200 remained above for at least 10 days (Le Moullec *et al.* 2019), temperature (mid-June–mid-July,
36
37 201 T_{sum}) and precipitation (mid-July–mid-August, P_{sum}). Estimated adult population size in
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39 202 Kongsfjorden (N_{sum} , Layton-Matthews *et al.* 2019b) was also included, and also the proportion of
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41 203 occupied known dens as an index of Arctic fox (*Vulpes lagopus*) abundance (fox_{sum}), since
42
43 204 predation by Arctic foxes affects pre-fledging survival (Fuglei *et al.* 2003; Layton-Matthews *et al.*
44
45 205 2019a). More details on covariates can be found in Layton-Matthews *et al.* (2019a).
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53 207 *Stochastic integral projection model*

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208 We constructed a stochastic IPM, describing temporal dynamics of population size and body mass
 209 distribution, $n(z, t)$, of fledglings (fl) and adults (ad), following the life cycle in Fig. 1. The growth
 210 kernel, $G^{(t)}(z', z)$, describes the probability density function of body masses z' in August in year
 211 $t+1$ of an individual of body mass z in year t . Annual age-class specific survival, $\phi^{(t)}(z, a)$, describes
 212 the probability of an individual, of age class a (fl or ad) and body mass z at year t , surviving to
 213 year $t+1$. $P_{ad}^{(t)}(z', z)$ and $P_{fl}^{(t)}(z', z)$ represent survival-growth kernels for adults and fledglings
 214 describing how individuals of body mass z at time t , survive and grow to reach mass z' at $t+1$,
 215 given by:

$$216 \quad P_a^{(t)}(z', z) = \phi^{(t)}(z, a) G^{(t)}(z', z) \quad \text{for } a = \textit{fledgling} \text{ or } \textit{adults} \quad (1)$$

217 Annual reproduction probability, $R^{(t)}(z)$, describes the probability of a >1 -year-old female
 218 of body mass z producing at least one fledgling at $t+1$, given she survives. Fledged brood size,
 219 $fec^{(t)}$, describes the number of fledglings per mother at $t+1$, conditional on reproduction. Fledgling
 220 body mass kernel, $C_0^{(t)}(z')$, describes the probability distribution of fledgling body masses in
 221 August at $t+1$. This was assumed to be independent of mother body mass, since a pedigree was not
 222 available, which is likely a fair assumption since offspring body mass has not been linked to mother
 223 body mass, rather to structural size (e.g., head size, Larsson *et al.* 1998). $F_{ad}^{(t)}(z', z)$ is the
 224 reproduction kernel, describing the density of fledglings of body mass z' that adults of body mass
 225 z can contribute to the population at year $t+1$;

$$226 \quad F_{ad}(z', z) = \phi^{(t)}(z, ad) R^{(t)}(z) fec^{(t)} C_0^{(t)}(z') / 2 \quad (2)$$

227 Reproduction was divided by 2 since the model was female based. The structure of the IPM was:

$$228 \quad n_{fl}(z', t+1) = \int_L^U F_{ad}^{(t)}(z', z) n_{ad}(z, t) dz \quad (3)$$

$$229 \quad n_{ad}(z', t+1) = \int_L^U P_{ad}^{(t)}(z', z) n_{ad}(z, t) dz + \int_L^U P_{fl}^{(t)}(z', z) n_{fl}(z, t) dz \quad (4)$$

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2
3 230 We numerically integrated the IPM using the ‘midpoint rule’ (Easterling *et al.* 2000) with
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5 231 lower (L) and upper (U) integration limits of body mass 400 and 2500 grams, to avoid eviction of
6
7 232 individuals from the model. The IPM assumed density-independent population growth, since
8
9 233 density effects on survival exhibited a linear temporal trend that would have imposed extreme
10
11 234 restrictions on the model. Stochastic population dynamics were simulated over 100,000 years
12
13 235 using a two-step MCMC resampling approach (Metcalf *et al.* 2015). For each year, a set of
14
15 236 environment/density covariate values was sampled from 28 observations in this study (1990–2017).
16
17 237 For each function (C_0 , G , R , fec , ϕ_{fl} and ϕ_{ad}) values were sampled from their respective distributions
18
19 238 (i.e., distribution sampling, Metcalf *et al.* 2015). We used estimates of intercept and yearly random
20
21 239 effects to calculate a variance-covariance matrix and sampled parameter sets assuming a
22
23 240 multivariate normal distribution (Gelman & Hill 2006), to account for potential correlations
24
25 241 (Compagnoni *et al.* 2016). Trends in demographic rates, growth or fledgling body mass were
26
27 242 captured as random effects but were not explicitly included in the simulation, since temporal
28
29 243 variation was assumed to be independent and identically distributed (i.i.d.) over time. Transition
30
31 244 kernels for each annual projection were constructed by combining both sets of sampled parameters
32
33 245 to calculate realised intercepts and slopes for each function.
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43 247 *Transient life table response experiment*

44
45 248 We used an extension of the Monte Carlo random LTRE, introduced by Rees and Ellner (2009),
46
47 249 to incorporate transient fluctuations in age class-structure and body mass distribution
48
49 250 (Maldonado-Chaparro *et al.* 2018). Rather than assuming the population was always close to its
50
51 251 stable structure, i.e., focusing on the yearly asymptotic growth rates ($\tilde{\lambda}_t$), we decomposed variance
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53 252 in the realised population growth rate at time t (λ_t). We included lagged parameter effects in the
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3 253 model of λ_t , to quantify delayed effects of parameters (i.e., parameter i at time t , $\theta_{i,t}$), acting through
4
5 254 changes in age structure or body mass distribution. Variance decompositions of λ_t were modelled
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7
8 255 assuming either linear (linear model, LM) or non-linear (generalised additive model, GAM)
9
10 256 dependencies of λ_t . Following Maldonado-Chaparro *et al.* (2018), we decomposed variance in $\log(\lambda_t)$. We compared the R^2 of LMs and GAMs and incorporated delayed effects with increasing
11
12 257 λ_t). We compared the R^2 of LMs and GAMs and incorporated delayed effects with increasing
13
14
15 258 numbers of year lags. We also tested whether interaction effects between parameters (pairwise
16
17 259 smooths for GAMs) contributed to substantial variation in $\log(\lambda_t)$. We considered a model of $\log(\lambda_t)$ to be a better fit when the amount of variance explained increased by at least 1%
18
19
20 260 λ_t) to be a better fit when the amount of variance explained increased by at least 1%
21
22 261 (Maldonado-Chaparro *et al.* 2018).

23
24 262 Vital rate contributions were further partitioned into variation from modelled covariates
25
26 263 effects versus random effects. In this case, (net) contributions of covariates to λ_t depended on; (1)
27
28 264 temporal covariances among covariates, (2) their effect size on $\theta_{i,t}$ and (3) the sensitivity of λ_t to
29
30 265 $\theta_{i,t}$. We assumed linear dependencies of λ_t on $\theta_{i,t}$ for the environmental decomposition. In the IPM,
31
32 266 trait-mediated effects could contribute to intercept variation in each function (e.g., G or ϕ), while
33
34 267 trait-modified effects would cause variation in the slope describing the relationship between body
35
36 268 mass and a function. Consequently, we decomposed variation in $\log(\lambda_t)$ at three hierarchical levels:
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39 269 (1) overall contributions from C_0 , G , R , fec and ϕ , (2) modelled environment versus random effects
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41
42 270 and (3) slope versus intercept variation.
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272 **Results**

273 *Body mass and life history processes*

274 The best-approximating model of overwinter survival (ϕ) included an interaction effect between
275 age class and body mass, with a much stronger positive effect on fledglings (Fig. 1a), and additive

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2
3 276 effects of overwintering population size (N_{win} , negative effect) and winter temperature (T_{win} ,
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5 277 positive effect) (Table 1). The best growth model (G), estimating body mass at year $t+1$, included
6
7
8 278 a positive effect of body mass at t (Fig. 1b). The best model of reproduction probability (i.e., of an
9
10 279 adult female producing fledglings, R) included spring precipitation (positive effect, P_{spr}) and date
11
12 280 of spring onset (negative effect, SO_{sum}), and an interaction effect between mother body mass and
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14
15 281 SO_{sum} , with a strong, positive body mass effect in late springs and no effect in early springs (Fig.
16
17 282 1c-e). For fledged brood size (fec), the best model included negative effects of Arctic fox
18
19 283 abundance (fox_{sum}) and summer precipitation (P_{sum}). The best model of fledgling body mass (C_0)
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21 284 included an interaction effect of fox_{sum} and adult population density at the breeding grounds (N_{sum}),
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23
24 285 where N_{sum} tended to have a negative effect only at high fox abundance (Fig. 1f-h). Further
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26 286 description of the model selection and associated tables (Tables S2.1-2.5) can be found in
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29 287 Appendix 3.

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31 288 Over the study period, average cohort body mass declined significantly (slope = -8.3 g per
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33 289 cohort, SE = 0.8 g, $p < 0.001$). Inter-annual changes in body mass were relatively small for adults,
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35 290 but larger for fledglings (Fig. 2).
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39 292 *Transient LTRE*

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42 293 The mean stochastic population growth rate $\hat{\lambda}_t$ was 1.07 (confidence interval: 0.77, 1.59)
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44 294 (Appendix S4, Fig. S1), which was similar to the observed growth rate (1.05; 0.65, 1.53). The
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46 295 stable body mass-age class distribution reflected the bimodal distribution of fledgling and adult
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49 296 body mass (Appendix S4, Fig. S2). 94% of the variation in λ_t was explained by main effects of the
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51 297 functions, including a one-year time lag, with the transient linear LTRE (LM-LTRE), which
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54 298 increased to 98% with a generalised additive model (GAM-LTRE). The only pairwise smooth
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299 (interaction between parameters) explaining more than 1% variance was between the intercept and
300 slope terms of reproduction probability (R) - since SO_{sum} was a predictor in both terms. Parameter
301 effects with more than a one-year lag explained <1% of the variance in λ_t .

302 Sensitivity surfaces were estimated using the GAM-LTRE for $\log(\lambda_t)$, illustrating the
303 influence of each function through direct (Fig. 3a) and delayed effects (Fig. 3b). Direct effects of
304 variation operating through reproduction probability (R) was larger than survival (ϕ) or fledged
305 brood size (fec). λ_t was sensitive to variation through survival rates, especially adult survival (Fig.
306 3a). Note that direct effects of variation through changes in growth and fledgling body mass are
307 not included in Fig. 3a since changes in body mass only affect λ the following year (i.e., delayed
308 effects). The population growth rate was insensitive to delayed effects (Fig. 3b) through G and C_0
309 (i.e., trait-mediated effects). The sensitivity of λ_t to delayed effects (i.e., at $t-1$) through R and fec
310 reflects how increased reproduction in a given year had a negative impact the following year, via
311 a shift in the age structure towards a larger proportion of non-reproductive individuals.

312 Vital rate contributions from variances and covariances in $\log(\lambda_t)$, separating variance
313 explained by covariates versus random effects, indicated large contribution from variation in the
314 reproductive probability (R) (Fig. 4). R contributed 69% through direct effects and 12% through
315 delayed effects (i.e., changes in age structure). The remaining ~20% was largely explained by
316 direct and delayed contributions from variation in adult survival (ϕ_{ad} , total contribution = 6%),
317 fledged brood size (fec , 6%), and fledgling survival (ϕ_f , 2%). Changes in body mass acting through
318 fledgling body mass and growth functions (i.e., trait-mediated effects) made negligible
319 contributions to variance in λ (0.04% through G and 0.5% through C_0). Reproduction (R, fec) was
320 negatively correlated with adult survival (ϕ_{ad}), resulting in a total contribution of -7% to $\log(\lambda_t)$,
321 i.e., high adult survival in one year meant lower reproduction, thereby reducing temporal variation

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3 322 in λ . Both reproductive parameters (R and fec) and survival parameters (ϕ_{fl} and ϕ_{ad}) positively
4
5 323 covaried, and both covariations contributed ca. 3% to $\log(\lambda_t)$.

6
7 324 58% of the variation in $\log(\lambda_t)$ acting through reproduction probability (R) was attributed
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9 325 to modelled covariates (Fig. 4). Precipitation at the spring stopover site (P_{spr}) contributed to 26%
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11 326 of the variation, while date of spring onset at the breeding grounds (SO_{sum}) contributed 16%
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13 327 through intercept and slope variance. 59% of the variation in $\log(\lambda_t)$ that was attributed to adult
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15 328 survival (ϕ_{ad}) was explained by temperature (T_{win}) and population size (N_{win}) at the wintering
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17 329 grounds, accounting for 1% and 2% of the overall variation in $\log(\lambda_t)$. In contrast, < 1% of the
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19 330 variation in fledgling survival was attributed to T_{win} and N_{win} although these covariates explained
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21 331 95% of the positive covariation between fledgling and adult survival, leading to a positive
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23 332 contribution of ca. 1% to variation in $\log(\lambda_t)$ (Fig. 4). Finally, 65% of the variation in $\log(\lambda_t)$
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25 333 through fledged brood size (fec) was explained by Arctic fox abundance and summer precipitation,
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27 334 each contributing 3% to variation in $\log(\lambda_t)$.

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34 336 **Discussion**

35
36 337 Coupled trait-demography responses to environmental change may be key to understand and
37
38 338 predict short- and long-term population dynamics, especially in Arctic herbivores. Here, we have
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40 339 explored population growth responses to a substantial decline in body mass in an Arctic goose
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42 340 population, using a recently developed transient-LTRE. Body mass at fledging was density-
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44 341 dependent (Fig. 1f-h), supporting previous findings that the temporal decline in body mass – a
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46 342 phenomenon observed across Arctic goose species (Cooch *et al.* 1991b; Larsson *et al.* 1998) – was
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48 343 caused by habitat degradation at the breeding grounds. However, population growth appeared
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50 344 buffered against these changes in body mass (Fig. 3b, Table 2), despite the strong influence of this
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3 345 body condition proxy on reproduction and survival (Fig. 1a, c-e). Instead, variation in population
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5 346 growth rates was largely explained by direct and delayed effects operating through reproduction,
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7 347 partly caused by annual variation in spring phenology at the breeding grounds (Fig. 4).
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10 348 Both resident and migrant Arctic herbivores are exposed to highly variable weather conditions,
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12 349 which can lead to variation in body condition and population size (Festa-Bianchet *et al.* 1997;
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14 350 Sæther 1997). Although effects of population density and weather on body mass are well
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16 351 documented in herbivores, whether these effects extend to variation in population growth remains
17
18 352 largely unanswered. Goose populations have expanded across the Arctic, as a result of increasing
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20 353 numbers caused by hunting bans and agricultural change at overwintering grounds (Madsen &
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22 354 Cracknell 1999; Fox & Madsen 2017). Density-dependent processes associated with overgrazing
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24 355 by geese have degraded the Arctic breeding grounds, leading to declining cohort body size and
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26 356 mass of Arctic geese (Cooch *et al.* 1991b; Loonen *et al.* 1997; Reed & Plante 1997; Larsson *et al.*
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28 357 1998). Average cohort body mass of the study population has declined by 10% from 1980–2017.
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31 358 We documented density dependence in fledgling body mass, although this was only evident at
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33 359 high Arctic fox abundance, i.e. the main predator of the goslings and, occasionally, adults (Fuglei
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35 360 *et al.* 2003). Foxes therefore influenced geese both through lethal effects on fledged brood size
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37 361 (*fec*) and non-lethal effects on fledgling body mass, by inducing density-dependent restrictions on
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39 362 their ability to utilise all available foraging areas (Loonen *et al.* 1998).
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45 363 Despite the temporal decline in (cohort) body mass, between-year fluctuations in adult body
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47 364 mass were rather small. Fledgling body mass exhibited more inter-annual variation, likely a result
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49 365 of strong resource dependence during gosling growth (Cooch *et al.* 1991a; Lindholm *et al.* 1994).
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51 366 Body mass, in turn, positively influenced survival and reproduction. The reserves first-year-geese
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53 367 accumulate at the breeding grounds affect survival during migration (Owen & Black 1989; Menu
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3 368 *et al.* 2005), reflected in the strong positive effect of body mass on fledgling overwinter survival
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5 369 found here. Adult survival, however, was largely unaffected by body mass and varied less inter-
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8 370 annually.

9
10 371 Several studies have stressed the potential importance of coupled trait-demography responses
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12 372 in predicting population persistence under environmental change (Ozgul *et al.* 2009; 2010; Plard
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14 373 *et al.* 2014; Jenouvrier *et al.* 2018). However, some studies have indicated that changes in traits
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16 374 may lead to more limited population-level responses than expected (Wilson & Arcese 2003;
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18 375 Maldonado-Chaparro *et al.* 2018; McLean *et al.* 2020). Here, despite the potential for coupled
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20 376 body mass-demography responses, changes in the body mass of Arctic geese did not incur
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22 377 population-level responses through trait-mediated effects. Over the study period, body mass
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24 378 underwent a temporal decline and positively influenced demographic rates. However, fluctuations
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26 379 in body mass did not translate into effects on population growth because all three conditions
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28 380 required for trait-mediated pathways to arise were not met for any age class-specific demographic
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30 381 rate (Table 2). Although fledging survival (ϕ_{fl}) was influenced by body mass, variance in ϕ_{fl} only
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32 382 made a negligible contribution to λ since fledglings represent only a small fraction of the
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34 383 population. In contrast, population growth was sensitive to changes in adult survival, but body
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36 384 mass had close to no effect on adult survival (ϕ_{ad}). Variation in λ through ϕ_{ad} was attributed to
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38 385 overwinter temperature and population density. Population growth was highly sensitive to changes
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40 386 in reproduction probability, which was only weakly influenced by adult body mass (at mean
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42 387 environmental conditions), showing a pronounced long-term decline yet limited inter-annual
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44 388 variation. This resulted in a lack of trait-mediated effects through reproduction (R). Nevertheless,
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46 389 further changes in body mass could have large effects on λ , operating through R . According to the
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48 390 demographic buffering hypothesis, variability in λ reduces fitness (Tuljapurkar 1982), leading to
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3 391 selection for reduced variation (Gaillard & Yoccoz 2003; Jongejans *et al.* 2010). Therefore,
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5 392 buffering of population growth against trait-mediated variation may have occurred via such
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8 393 mechanisms.

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10 394 Quantifying demographic - and associated trait - responses to climate change is necessary for
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12 395 a mechanistic and predictive understanding of population-level consequences (Jenouvrier 2013;
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14 396 Paniw *et al.* 2019a). Arctic warming is advancing snow melt, with widespread effects on plant
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17 397 phenology, while rising summer temperatures are influencing plant productivity (Bjorkman *et al.*
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19 398 2020). For migrating Arctic geese, spring phenology at the breeding grounds also dictates when
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22 399 nesting sites become snow-free as well as the onset of plant growth: both important determinants
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24 400 of breeding success (Reed *et al.* 2004; Madsen *et al.* 2007). The positive effect of earlier spring
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26 401 onset on fledgling production in our study population has previously been attributed to females
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28 402 laying bigger clutches with improved hatching success (Layton-Matthews *et al.* 2019a).
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31 403 Advancing spring phenology could therefore benefit reproduction and population growth, which
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33 404 appears unhampered by the temporal decline in body mass (i.e., since effects of body mass on
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35 405 reproduction diminish with earlier springs). However, neither R nor fec exhibited positive temporal
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38 406 trends (Appendix 5) likely due to contrasting direct versus indirect climate change effects, as the
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40 407 number of Arctic foxes – and thus gosling predation rates – are generally increasing (Layton-
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42 408 Matthews *et al.* 2019a; unpublished data, E. Fuglei).

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45 409 In capital breeders, such as Arctic geese, accumulating body stores is beneficial in
46
47 410 unpredictable environments, and this strategy is therefore typical at higher latitudes (Varpe *et al.*
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49 411 2009; Sainmont *et al.* 2014). Storing resources along their flyway allows geese to initiate
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52 412 reproduction without immediate food access (Klaassen *et al.* 2017). Consequently, several
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54 413 reproductive stages are dependent on fat reserves (Bêty *et al.* 2003; Guillemain *et al.* 2008; Aubry

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3 414 *et al.* 2013), reflected here in the positive relationship between body mass and reproduction
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5 415 probability. Heavier individuals were more likely to reproduce than lighter ones under poor
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7 416 (delayed) spring conditions, since they have more ‘capital’ to initiate reproduction (i.e., a trait-
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9 417 modified climate effect). However, in earlier springs (i.e. typically in more recent years), possibly
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11 418 with excess nesting sites and food resources, benefits of accumulating fat reserves were reduced
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13 419 and the influence of body mass on reproduction was weaker. Further advanced springs due to
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15 420 continued climate change could therefore tip the balance in favour of accumulating fewer resources
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17 421 for reproduction, potentially relaxing selection on body mass if individuals gain a survival
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19 422 advantage by requiring fewer fat reserves for migration (Larsson *et al.* 1998).
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24 423 Overall, population dynamics of Arctic migratory geese appear largely unaffected by the
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26 424 decline in body mass, thus far. Buffering population growth against changes in body condition –
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28 425 which is essential for survival and reproduction in Arctic herbivores - has clear implications for
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30 426 their resilience to future environmental change. However, as the Arctic continues to change,
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32 427 further body mass declines could potentially have big effects on population growth, in this case
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34 428 via trait-mediated effects through reproduction.
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38 429 This work emphasises the importance of holistic approaches fully capturing pathways from
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40 430 environmental variation to individual and population-level responses. Even when environmental
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42 431 change substantially alters trait distributions that are correlated with vital rates, we cannot assume
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44 432 this will have consequences for population persistence.
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48 433

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50
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440 **Tables**

441 **Table 1.** Linear predictors for best-approximating regression models of each function, with mean
 442 parameter estimates, used to parameterise the integral projection model (IPM). Functions included
 443 the covariates; winter temperature (T_{win}) and overwinter population size (N_{win}) in Scotland, Arctic
 444 fox abundance (fox_{sum}), adult population size (N_{sum}), the date of spring onset (SO_{sum}) and summer
 445 precipitation (P_{sum}) at the breeding grounds on Svalbard, and spring precipitation at the spring
 446 stopover site at Helgeland (P_{spr}). a is a dummy variable equal to 0 for fledglings (fl) and 1 for
 447 adults (ad), and z refers to body mass and $catch$ refers to catch date.

IPM function	Model	Best-fitting regression model
Survival	$\text{logit}(\phi_{fl,ad})$	$-2.67 + 4.32a + 0.004z - 0.003a:z + 0.22T_{win} - 0.21N_{win}$
Growth	G	$648.50 + 0.60z$
Fledgling body mass	C_0	$-3357.40 + 19.46catch - 2.37fox_{sum} - 46.30N_{sum} - 7.70fox_{sum}:N_{sum}$
Reproductive rate	$\text{logit}(R)$	$-3.76 + 0.002z + 0.86P_{spr} - 3.52SO_{sum} + 0.002z:SO_{sum}$
Fledged brood size	$\text{log}(fec)$	$0.77 - 0.16fox_{sum} - 0.10P_{sum}$

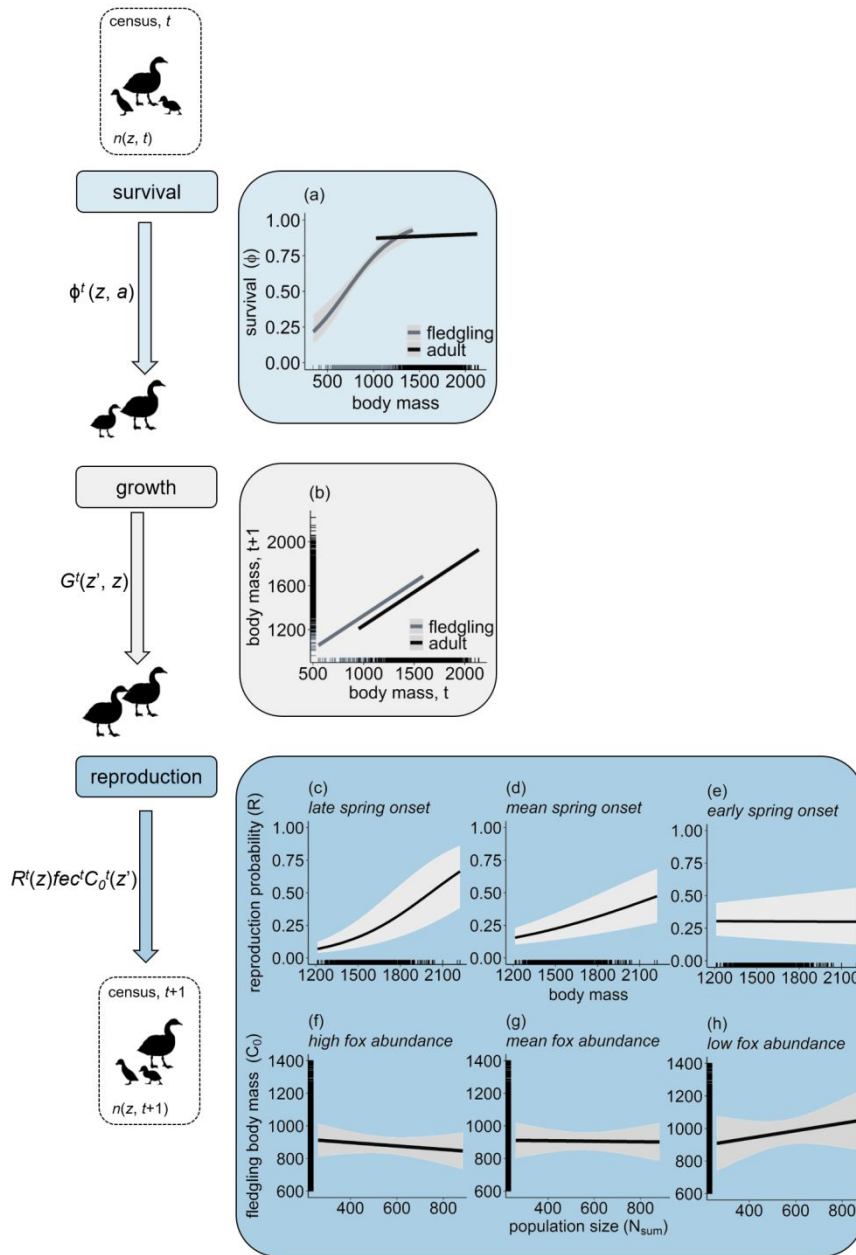
449 **Table 2.** Summary of which conditions for body mass-mediated effects on the population growth
 450 rate (for each demographic rate) that were met or not (✓ = condition met).

Condition	Fledgling survival (ϕ_{fl})	Adult survival (ϕ_{ad})	Reproduction probability (R)	Fledged brood size (fec)
Body mass fluctuates at the relevant stage	✓			
Demographic rate sensitive to body mass change	✓		✓	
λ sensitive to variation in demographic rate		✓	✓	✓

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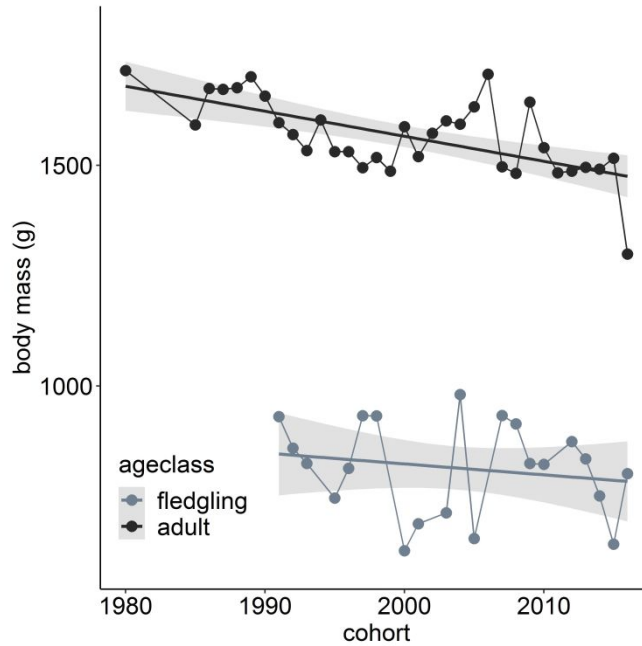
453 **Figures**



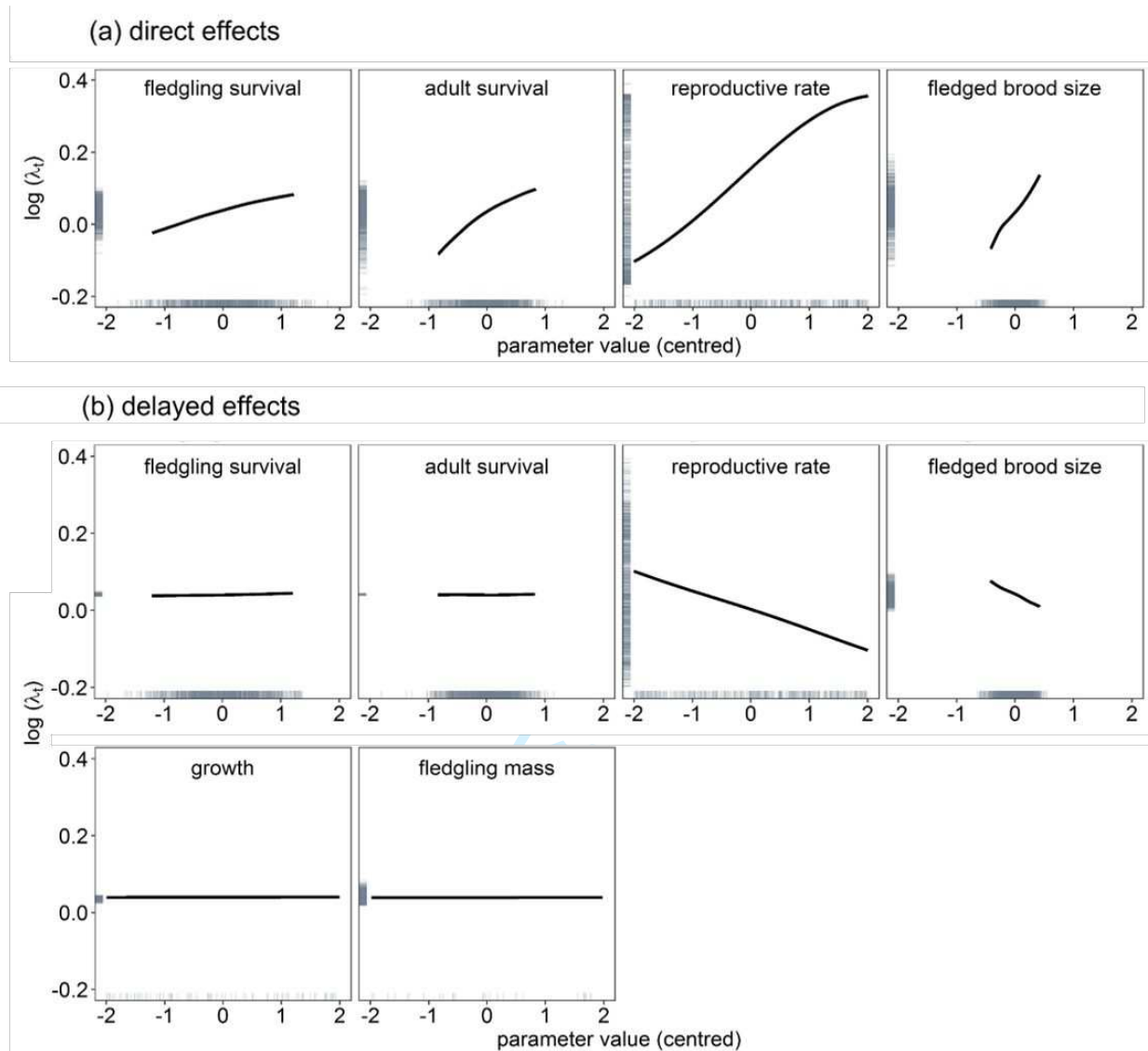
454 **Figure 1.** Life cycle of barnacle geese based on a post-breeding census (i.e., breeding occurs just
 455 before a census). Individuals in age class a must survive with a body mass-dependent probability
 456 ($\phi(z, a)$) and grow to the next year ($G(z', z)$) in order to reproduce ($R(z), fec$) and contribute
 457 fledglings of body mass ($C_0(z')$) to the population. Model predictions of body mass effects at t on;
 458 (a) fledgling (ϕ_{fl}) and adult (ϕ_{ad}) survival, (b) body mass at $t+1$, reproduction probability (R) of

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3 459 adult females at the (c) 20th quantile, (d) mean and (e) 80th quantile of the date of spring onset
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5 460 (SO_{sum}). Effects of adult population size at Ny-Ålesund (N_{sum}) on fledgling body mass (C_0) at the
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7 461 (f) 20th, (g) mean and (h) 80th quantile of Arctic fox abundance (fox_{sum}).
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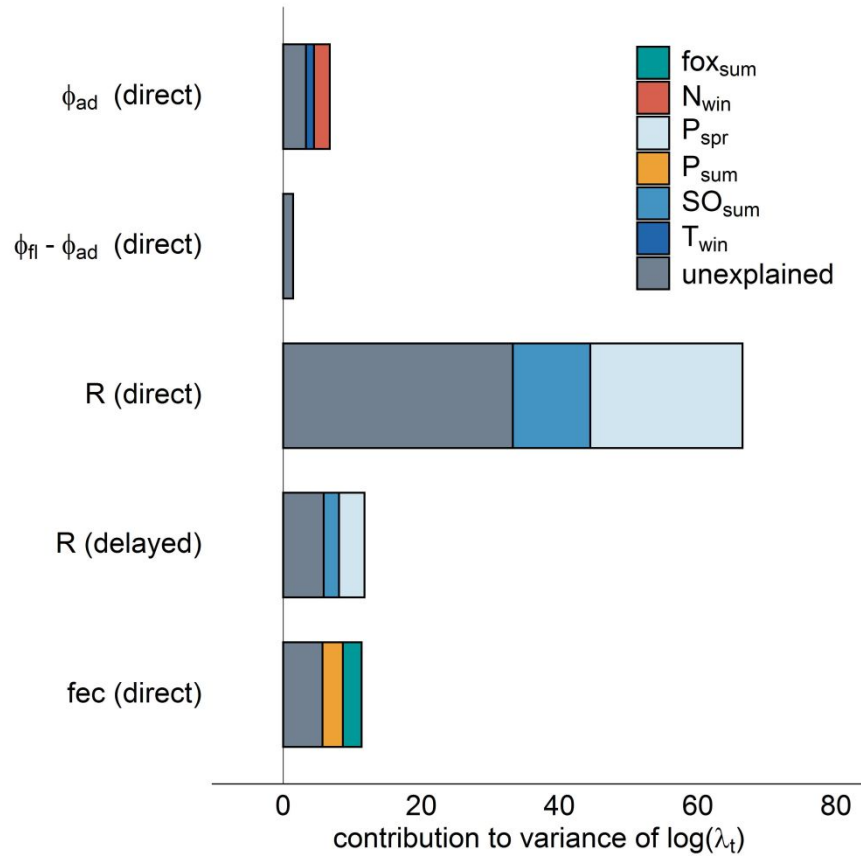
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462 **Figure 2.** Temporal trends in average cohort adult (black, 1980-2016) and annual fledgling
463 (grey, 1991-2016) body mass. Slope (bold line) with 95% confidence intervals (shading) were
464 calculated based on a linear regression.



466 **Figure 3.** Sensitivity surfaces illustrating the effects of fledgling (ϕ_{fl}) and adult (ϕ_{ad}) survival,
 467 reproductive rate (R), fledged brood size (fec), growth (G), and fledgling body mass (C_0) on the
 468 population growth rate, $\log(\lambda_t)$. Contributions from each vital rate parameter were separated into
 469 (a) direct and (b) delayed contributions, i.e., parameter effects at t and $t-1$, respectively, on $\log(\lambda_t)$.
 470 The x-axis and y-axis rugs show distributions of parameters (centred values) and $\log(\lambda_t)$,
 471 respectively.



472 **Figure 4.** Percentage contributions of the largest demographic contributions (through adult
 473 survival, ϕ_{ad} , fledgling survival, ϕ_{fl} , reproduction probability, R and fledged brood size, fec) to
 474 variance in the population growth rate, $\log(\lambda_t)$. Contributions were decomposed into direct and
 475 delayed variances and covariances. Colours represent contributions from modelled covariates
 476 versus unexplained variation (random effects).

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