

Multiple coping strategies maintain stability of a small mammal population in resource-restricted environments

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Abstract - In semi-arid environments, aperiodic rainfall pulses determine cycles of plant production and resource availability for higher trophic levels, creating strong bottom-up regulation. The influence of climatic factors on population vital rates often shapes the dynamics of small mammal populations in such resource-restricted environments. Using a 21-year biannual capture-recapture dataset (1993 to 2014), we examined the impacts of climatic factors on the population dynamics of the brush mouse (*Peromyscus boylii*) in semi-arid oak woodland of coastal-central California. We applied Pradel's temporal symmetry model to estimate capture probability (p), apparent survival (ϕ), recruitment (f), and realized population growth rate (λ) of the brush mouse, and examined the effects of temperature, rainfall, and El Niño on these demographic parameters. The population was stable during the study period with a monthly realized population growth rate of $0.993 \pm \text{SE } 0.032$, but growth varied over time from 0.680 ± 0.054 to 1.450 ± 0.083 . Monthly survival estimates averaged 0.817 ± 0.005 and monthly recruitment estimates averaged 0.175 ± 0.038 . Survival probability and realized population

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growth were positively correlated with rainfall and negatively correlated with temperature. In contrast, recruitment was negatively correlated with rainfall and positively correlated with temperature. Brush mice maintained their population through multiple coping strategies, investing in high recruitment during warmer and drier periods and allocating more energy towards survival during cooler and wetter conditions. Although climatic change in coastal-central California will favor recruitment over survival, varying strategies may serve as a mechanism by which brush mice maintain resilience in the face of climate change. Our results indicate that rainfall and temperature are both important drivers of brush mouse population dynamics and will play a significant role in predicting the future viability of brush mice under a changing climate.

Introduction - Changes in abundance of small mammal populations can result from complex interactions among multiple factors, such as climate, plant production, food supply, vegetative cover, predation, and competition (Oli and Dobson 2003). The debate over the relative roles of endogenous (e.g., competition, predation) and exogenous (e.g., temperature, rainfall) factors in population dynamics has resulted in a general agreement that both influence population fluctuations (Turchin 2003). However, some studies in semi-arid systems show that exogenous factors outweigh endogenous factors in driving small mammal population dynamics and are key to understanding fluctuations (Gutierrez et al. 2010, Previtali et al. 2009), particularly for evaluating the persistence of populations on the margins of a species' distribution (Gillespie et al. 2008).

Semi-arid landscapes are highly variable in seasonal and annual rainfall patterns, typically with hot, dry summers and cool, wet winters. These systems are also resource-restricted, exhibiting pulse-like patterns of annual rainfall (averaging 25–50 cm) and large seasonal

54 fluctuations, with nearly all rainfall occurring in the fall and winter months (Peel et al. 2007).
 55 Fluctuations in rainfall may also be erratic, with some years of high and above-average
 56 precipitation (due to the El Niño effect in some areas), and other years of very little precipitation,
 57 leading to drought-like conditions (Previtali et al. 2009). In such systems, precipitation typically
 58 drives plant productivity, primarily through seed production and foliage growth (Brown and
 59 Ernest 2002, Heske et al. 1994, Meserve et al. 2003, Lima et al. 2002).

60 Many studies show that dramatic changes in precipitation have strong effects on
 61 population dynamics of small mammals, with rainfall pulses driving rodent dynamics indirectly
 62 through primary production, such as food availability and cover (Brown and Ernest 2002, Heske
 63 et al. 1994, Knapp et al. 2008, Meserve et al. 2003, Yates et al. 2002). Conversely, drought can
 64 have a detrimental effect on rodent population dynamics by reducing plant productivity (Brown
 65 and Ernest 2002, Meserve et al 2003), sometimes leading to population collapse (Facka et al.
 66 2010). However, we know relatively little about the effect of temperature on small mammal
 67 population dynamics in semi-arid climates, although some studies suggest that the effects of
 68 temperature are seasonal, showing a negative correlation with survival and recruitment in
 69 summer and a positive correlation in winter (Myers et al. 1985, Luis et al. 2010).

70 Due to their short life cycles, small mammals serve as ideal study systems for long-term,
 71 multi-generational studies. Short life spans and fast reproduction also translate to quick responses
 72 to changes in climatic conditions (Previtali et al. 2009). The brush mouse *Peromyscus boylii* has
 73 a wide distribution in the United States, occurring throughout much of the southwest and most of
 74 California, except for major grassland and desert areas (Baker 1968). This species is typically
 75 found in mature chaparral, oak woodland and hardwood conifer communities (Baker 1968). As
 76 its name suggests, the brush mouse prefers significant amounts of tree cover, dense and shrubby

vegetation, rock cover, and logs, which are important habitat structures that provide shelter from weather and predators, as well as nesting sites (Bradley and Schmidly 1999, Brehme et al. 2011, Gottesman et al. 2004). The brush mouse plays an important role in ecosystem function as a key prey species for the federally threatened Mexican spotted owl, *Strix occidentalis lucida* (Boyett 2001). In the southwestern United States, the brush mouse is also a reservoir host for hantavirus (Abbott et al. 1999), making studies of population dynamics important for predicting rates of disease prevalence and spread. Anthropogenic impacts on brush mouse habitat include exurban development and increasing wildfire intensity (Brehme et al. 2011). From our knowledge, no study has yet provided estimates of apparent survival, recruitment, and realized population growth rate of the brush mouse, essential for understanding population dynamics of this species.

Our goal was to examine the effects of temperature, precipitation and El Niño on the population dynamics of the brush mouse in a coastal-central California mixed-oak-woodland. We applied temporal symmetry capture-mark-recapture (CMR) models (Pradel 1996; Nichols et al. 2000; Williams et al. 2002) to a long-term (1993–2014) dataset to (1) estimate overall and seasonal patterns of capture probability, apparent survival, recruitment, and realized growth rate of the brush mouse in a coastal-central California mixed-oak woodland, (2) determine the relative contributions of survival and recruitment to population growth rate, and (3) explore the role of rainfall and temperature in explaining variations in population vital rates. Our results provide information on potential impacts of climate change on brush mouse population ecology, and provide important management information for the species.

We expected that brush mouse survival, recruitment, and realized population growth rate would exhibit seasonal fluctuations in response to the strongly seasonal patterns of rainfall on our study site. Specifically, we hypothesized that brush mouse population parameters would be

positively influenced by rainfall, because water is a limiting resource in semi-arid environments (Gutierrez et al. 2010, Previtali et al. 2009) and plant cover is an important habitat attribute for the brush mouse. We expected that temperature would negatively influence brush mouse vital rates due to higher energetic costs associated with foraging (Chen et al. 2015), although temperature could positively affect recruitment by creating more favorable conditions for reproduction (Andreo et al. 2009). We expected brush mouse vital rates to exhibit multi-annual fluctuations corresponding to El Niño, which affects rainfall pattern in California. Finally, we hypothesized that the population growth rate of the brush mouse would be influenced more by recruitment than by survival because of the fast life history of the species (Heppell et al. 2000; Oli and Dobson 2003; 2005; Oli 2004).

Study Area - We conducted the study at the Camp Roberts National Guard Post, a 17,000-ha military facility located in coastal-central California (Figure 1). Our study area was located in the backcountry of the Post, a roughly 4,000-ha matrix of undisturbed grassland, chaparral, and woodland. Climate of the study area is Mediterranean, with cool, wet winters and warm, dry summers. Annual rainfall is highly variable and is influenced by El Niño-La Niña oscillations. More than 95% of the rainfall typically falls between October and April. During the study, mean monthly rainfall during May to September was 0.33 cm (range: 0–4.75 cm, standard deviation: 5.36 cm) compared to a monthly mean of 5.26 cm during October to April (range: 0–31.27 cm, standard deviation: 5.24 cm). The study area consisted of pure stands of blue oak (*Quercus douglassii*), or on the more mesic sites, a mix of blue oak and coast live oak (*Q. agrifolia*). The more mesic areas usually included a shrub layer of up to 35% cover (Tietje et al. 1997) and a ground layer of introduced Mediterranean annual grasses (*Avena* spp.) and forbs.

Field Methods - In summer 1993, we laid out nine square 5.8-ha plots in areas with at least 60% tree canopy cover. On each plot, we established with compass and tape a 17 x 17 grid with 15-m intersections. We marked each of the 289 intersections per plot with a stake and a survey flag with alphanumeric grid location. We trapped small mammals at each intersection in May and in October. From October 1993 to October 1996, we trapped for 5 nights each session for 7 trapping sessions (9 plots with 289 traps * 5 nights * 7 sessions = 91,035 trap nights). To increase the number of sampling grids on the study area, in winter of 1997 we established twelve 1.1-ha plots with 8 x 8 trapping grid (Figure 1). Starting in May 1997, we trapped on these 12 plots and on 8 x 8 corners (1.1 ha) or two diagonal corners of six of the 5.8-ha plots. From May 1997 until May 2013, we sampled exclusively on these twenty-two 8 x 8 sampling grids for a total of 22 plots with 8 x 8 traps * 3 nights * 33 sessions = 139,392 trap nights. In October 2013, we trapped on 21 of the 22 plots for a total of 4,032 trap nights. Finally, in May 2014, we trapped on 9 of the 22 plots for a total of 1,728 trap nights. We will refer to the period between the October and May trapping sessions as a “season,” which is either a summer season (5-month period from May to September; the warm, dry season) or a winter season (the 7-month period from October to April; the cool, wet season).

During each May and October sampling session, we placed one Sherman live trap (3 x 3.5 x 30-cm; H.B. Sherman Traps, Inc.) within 2 m of each grid intersection. To insulate trapped animals from overnight cold and from the heating of the interior of the trap by early morning sunshine, traps were placed in shade and covered with grass and other litter from the vicinity of the trap. We baited traps with a mixture of rolled oats, corn, and barley laced with molasses. On initial capture, we placed a laser-etched Monel 1005-1L1 animal tag and extra-long model XLK, 7.7 x 9.5 x 30.5 cm trap (National Band and Tag Co., Newport, Kentucky) in the animal’s right

ear, and recorded trap location, tag number, species, sex, and age. Animals were released at site of capture. All handling of animals followed the guidelines of the University of California, Berkeley, Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (UCB Permit # R-166). Trapping also met the guidelines of the American Society of Mammalogists (Sikes et al., 2011).

Capture-mark-recapture (CMR) Analysis - We used Pradel's (1996) temporal symmetry model to estimate apparent survival (ϕ), recapture (p) probabilities, and realized population growth rate (λ). First, we fitted a series of base models where we allowed ϕ , p , and λ to be affected by time (trapping session), year, season, and sex, and by the additive and interactive effects of these variables; we estimated model parameters using the most parsimonious model in the set (based on Akaike's information criterion corrected for small sample size AIC_c; Burnham and Anderson 2002; Williams et al. 2002). After selecting the base model for each parameter, we tested for the effect of individual climatic covariates on that parameter using the base model. This second set of models allowed the model parameters to be affected by temperature, rainfall, and sea-surface temperature anomaly (a measure of El Niño Southern Oscillation). We used a similar modeling approach to test for the effects of climatic covariates on f using the ϕ - f parameterization of Pradel's model (Williams et al. 2002). Since λ is based on the ratio of the population sizes between two sampling periods, the measured population size must represent the same sampled area. Otherwise, a bigger sampled area will yield a larger λ simply due to sampling a bigger area. Since sampling in our study area varied slightly over the study period and only remained constant from fall 1998 to spring 2013, we ran the ϕ - λ parametrization of Pradel's model to obtain λ estimates for fall 1998 to spring 2012. In addition, because the first estimate of λ is typically inestimable in time-specific models, we omitted the first estimate of λ . We determined the relative contribution of ϕ and f to λ by calculating the proportional contribution

parameter γ (Nichols and Hines 2002, Schorr 2012). If γ is greater than 0.5, ϕ influences λ more than f . We did not consider spatial grid-to-grid variation and conducted a single analysis that combined data from all grids into one large population.

We performed all analyses with the program MARK (White and Burnham 1999) v. 6.2 through RMark (Laake 2013) in program R v. 2.2.0 (R Core Team 2014). We determined the effect of climatic covariates by comparing AIC_c for models with and without a covariate, based on 95% confidence intervals for the slope parameter defining the relationship between a demographic parameter and the covariate(s).

Climatic Covariates - We extracted average daily temperature and precipitation for 1993–2015 from the Paso Robles City NACC weather station (NOAA 2016), located in Paso Robles, California, approximately 11 km southeast of the study area. We explored whether climatic conditions during the current season or the previous season (one-lag) affected California mouse vital rates (survival, recruitment, and growth). We used the following climatic variables: (i) average temperature (temp_avg) (ii) coefficient of variation (CV) of temperature (temp_cv), and CV of temperature with a one season lag (temp_cv_onelag), (iii) total seasonal rainfall (rain_sum) and total seasonal rainfall with a one-season lag (rain_sum_onelag), and (iv) CV of rainfall (rain_cv), and the CV of rainfall with a one-season lag (rain_cv_onelag). We reported the estimates of slope parameters (β) based on the most parsimonious model that included a given covariate (temperature, rain) for each vital rate (survival, recruitment, growth), regardless of model structure for other demographic rates.

To examine effects of the El Niño Southern Oscillation (ENSO) on small mammal population dynamics, we used the Oceanic Niño Index (ONI), the standard used by NOAA to identify El Niño and La Niña events in the Pacific Ocean. An El Niño or La Niña is characterized

191 by five consecutive 3-month sea surface temperatures means above (for El Niño) or below (for
 192 La Niña) a threshold of $+0.5^{\circ}\text{C}$ (-0.5°C), measured above the equatorial Pacific. We extracted
 193 ONI values from the NOAA National Weather Service Climate Prediction Center
 194 (http://www.cpc.noaa.gov/products/analysis_monitoring/ensostuff/ensoyears.shtml) and
 195 information pertaining to the ENSO cycle from NOAA's Climate website
 196 (<https://www.climate.gov/enso>).
 197

198 *Results* - During the study (1993–2014), we captured 3,258 (1,634 female and 1,624 male)
 199 brush mice 6,351 times. Per 1,000 trap nights, the highest number of mice trapped per session
 200 was 80.73 in October 1998, and the lowest number of mice trapped was 1.15 in October 1996
 201 (Figure 2).

202 *Demographic parameters without covariate effects*—Pradel's models indicated some
 203 level of temporal variation in all demographic parameters: capture probability (p), apparent
 204 monthly survival (ϕ), apparent monthly recruitment (f), and apparent monthly growth rate (λ).
 205 Average capture probability was higher for females than for males, and higher in summer than in
 206 winter for both sexes (Table 1). Average ϕ was 0.789 ± 0.005 , and ϕ was higher in winter (0.848
 207 ± 0.009) than in summer (0.764 ± 0.011 ; Table 1). Estimates for ϕ ranged from 0.620 ± 0.030
 208 (summer 1994) to 0.946 ± 0.034 (winter 2005), and showed small fluctuations over the study
 209 period, except when ϕ decreased from 0.924 (winter 2006) to 0.528 (summer 2007), a 57%
 210 decrease (Figure 3). Monthly recruitment (f) varied substantially over time, ranging from $0.029 \pm$
 211 0.047 to 0.538 ± 0.063 with an average of 0.175 ± 0.038 , and was higher in summer ($0.240 \pm$
 212 0.014) than in winter (0.137 ± 0.009 ; Table 1). The largest estimated f (0.538 ± 0.063) occurred in
 213 winter 1996, and other high f rates occurred in summer 2005 (0.511 ± 0.097) and winter 2011

214 (0.414 ± 0.107) . Estimated recruitment was lowest in the winters of 2009 (0.029 ± 0.047) , 2005
 215 (0.050 ± 0.037) , and 2010 (0.068 ± 0.086) , and time-specific f parameters were un-estimable
 216 (confidence intervals from 0 to 1) during three seasons (Figure 3).

217 Our study population was stable during the 21 years of study ($\lambda = 0.993 \pm 0.032$, ϕ - f
 218 parametrization; Table 1), but estimated λ exhibited strong time-variation, particularly during
 219 winter 1993 to summer 1997. The largest variation in estimated λ occurred when growth rate
 220 increased from its lowest point during the 21-year period, 0.672 ± 0.052 in summer 1996, to 1.46
 221 ± 0.08 in winter 1996 — a 118% increase (Figure 3). The most parsimonious model (based on
 222 AIC_c) included an additive effect of sex and season for p , and a time effect on f , ϕ , and λ (Table
 223 2a). Estimates for the proportional contribution parameter (γ) ranged from 0.515 to 0.969, with a
 224 mean of 0.794 (SD = 0.097), and γ was consistently > 0.5 .

225 *Individual climatic covariate effects on demographic parameters*—The most
 226 parsimonious model for single covariate effects exhibited 92% of the AIC_c weight and included
 227 the effect of variation in rainfall on ϕ and average temperature on f (Table 2b). Although the top
 228 five models for ϕ included only variation in rainfall, rainfall with a one season lag, and average
 229 temperature, all other variables except El Niño had significant effects on ϕ . Rainfall and variation
 230 in rainfall with a one season lag had positive effects on ϕ , while average temperature, variation in
 231 temperature, variation in rainfall, and rainfall with a one season lag had negative effects on ϕ
 232 (Table 3; Figure 4c, 4d).

233 Although the top five most parsimonious models for f included average temperature,
 234 rainfall, and variation in rainfall with a one season lag, all other variables except El Niño had a
 235 significant effect on f . Average temperature, variation in temperature, variation in rainfall, and
 236 rainfall with a one season lag had a positive effect on recruitment, while rainfall, rainfall with a

two season lag, and variation in rainfall with a one season lag had negative effects on f (Table 3; Figure 4a, 4b). The effect of climatic covariates on λ was similar to the effect of climatic covariates on ϕ . However, the overall strength of these effects was lower for λ than for ϕ . Rainfall and variation in rainfall with a one season lag had a positive effect on λ , while average temperature and variation in temperature had a negative effect on λ (Table 3).

Discussion - Effect of rainfall on ϕ .—Although the brush mouse population was stable throughout the study period, there was substantial temporal variation in survival and recruitment, and we posit that these fluctuations could be driven by climatic factors. Single-covariate models showed a positive effect of rainfall on ϕ , and fluctuations in ϕ were highly correlated with rainfall ($r = 0.44, p = 0.005$). The effects of precipitation on small mammal population vital rates in semi-arid systems are generally well studied (Heske et al. 1994, Brown and Ernest 2002, Lima et al. 2002, Meserve et al. 2003, Letnic and Dickman 2005), and a widely accepted hypothesis posits that higher precipitation in semi-arid systems increases primary production, leading to an increase in survival of small mammal populations (Heske et al. 1994, Lima et al. 2002, Shenbrot and Krasnov 2001, Letnic and Dickman 2005, Yates et al 2002). Studies have associated increased rodent densities with higher precipitation in various habitats (Brown and Ernest 2002, Kuenzi et al. 2007, Meserve et al. 1995). Because the brush mouse is a shrub-habitat specialist, its survival will be especially affected by precipitation and its effect on primary production, which directly impacts food availability and refuge from predators (Bradley and Schmidly 1999, Baker 1968, Kalcounis-Ruppell and Millar 2002). As an omnivore, the brush mouse consumes fruits and seeds of a wide variety of plant species as well as insects, which are positively affected by rainfall in resource-restricted semi-arid environments (Fuentes and Campusano 1985, Yang et

al. 2011). The brush mouse also depends on closed and dense cover for foraging and refuge from weather and predators (Bradley and Schmidly 1999, Baker 1968, Kalcounis-Ruppell and Millar 2002). Emphasizing the crucial importance of vegetative cover for this species, a wildfire that appreciably consumed brush cover led to a 90% decrease in brush mouse populations (Brehme et al. (2011). Rainfall typically increases the amount of understory shrub and chaparral cover, suggesting that the ability of the brush mouse to find food, survive in inclement weather, and evade predators will increase with higher precipitation and lead to higher survival rates, suggesting that abundance and access to food during high precipitation events could directly lead to an increase in survival. Survival is thus an important population driver for the brush mouse during periods of high rainfall.

Effect of rainfall on f.— In contrast to its effect on survival, covariate models showed a negative influence of rainfall on recruitment. In our study, rainfall may have had a negative effect on recruitment due to increased energetic costs incurred by reproductive females, or the destruction of food stores and nesting sites used by reproductive females during times of heavy precipitation. Although this is contrary to the general expectation that typically shows higher recruitment in response to increasing precipitation (e.g., see Previtali et al. 2009, Shenbrot et al. 2010, Thibault et al. 2010b), the effect of precipitation is not necessarily linear or simple. Extreme rainfall events can lead to catastrophic declines of small mammals, attributed to the destruction of food stores and nesting sites (Valone and Brown 1995, Thibault and Brown 2008), especially when located underground or just above the ground (shrubs or logs), habitats typically utilized by brush mice for nesting. High rainfall, especially during cold periods, can also cause abrupt declines in mouse populations (Calisher et al. 2005, Mills 2005, Llewellyn and Vessey 1998, Garsd and Howard 1981, de Villafane and Bonaventura 1987, Mills et al. 1992). Such

unfavorable climatic conditions affect reproduction through mortality from direct exposure or lack of access to food or shelter. Furthermore, exposure to heavy rainfall can result in populations with smaller and fewer litters, possibly due to the higher energetic costs of microclimate regulation for the female (Myers et al. 1985). It is important to note that in our semi-arid study area, 96% of all precipitation occurred in the winter, and rainfall and temperature showed high negative correlation ($r = -0.81$, $p < 0.001$). This indicates that precipitation primarily occurred when it was colder, which could have had direct and indirect adverse effects on recruitment as recruitment was positively correlated with temperature. Although the effect of precipitation in winter could potentially be diluted by the lack of precipitation in summer, conversely, a small amount of rain in summer can potentially have a big effect because of such low amounts of precipitation in summer.

Effect of temperature on ϕ and f .—Temperature was negatively correlated with ϕ . We suspect this is because foraging and juvenile dispersal would become energetically costly and difficult to perform with higher temperatures, potentially leading to decreased ϕ (Bradley and Schmidly 1999). Interestingly, average temperature had a significant positive effect on f . This could be attributed to two plausible reasons: (1) f could likely increase with warmer temperatures because brush mice can breed more frequently, especially during the winter (California Department of Fish and Wildlife 2014, Bradley and Schmidly 1999); (2) higher temperatures in spring and early summer increase primary productivity and allow female mice to expend less energetic costs for foraging and ensuring a favorable microclimate for litters (through increased vegetative cover for nests, which are typically found in trees and shrubs). Season and temperature are known to have interactive and sometimes contradictory effects on small mammal

populations (Luis et al. 2010), however our results did not support an interactive effect of season and temperature on brush mouse recruitment.

Trade-offs between ϕ and f in the maintenance of population stability.— Brush mouse population growth rate (λ) was stable throughout the study ($\lambda = 0.993 \pm 0.032$). While ϕ was positively affected by rainfall and negatively affected by temperature, f was positively affected by temperature and negatively affected by rainfall (Figure 4). These contrasting effects of climatic factors on vital rates suggests that the brush mouse employs alternating strategies in maintaining population stability dependent on climatic conditions. Additionally, ϕ and f estimates were highly negatively correlated ($r = -0.61$, $p = 0.002$), implying a trade-off between ϕ and f . During hotter, drier seasons, the brush mouse invests in higher f as a means of maintaining the population, whereas during cooler, wetter seasons, the brush mouse allocates more energy towards ϕ to maintain population λ . Considered together, the brush mouse appears to adopt a combination of coping mechanisms to ensure population stability.

The contribution of ϕ to λ was consistently higher than f , as inferred from the proportional contribution parameter (Nichols and Hines 2002, Schorr 2012). The estimate of γ averaged 0.82, i.e., on average, 82% of individuals in the current season are individuals that survived from the previous season. Although small mammals are typically r-selected, where population increase is fueled more by f than ϕ (Heppell et al. 2000b, Oli and Dobson 2003), the brush mouse seems to be less r-selected than other small mammal species (Schorr 2012), due to the relatively higher contribution of ϕ to λ for the species. This is interesting considering that brush mouse life expectancy is typically less than one year (Abbott et al. 1999). The relatively higher contribution of ϕ towards λ was also supported by the overall climatic effects on vital rates. The effects of rainfall and temperature were similar for ϕ and λ (a positive effect of rainfall,

and a negative effect of temperature on both parameters). However, these effects were reversed for f (a negative effect of rainfall, a positive effect of temperature). The relatively higher contribution of ϕ towards λ than what is typically observed for small mammals is also supported by the fact that the brush mouse prioritizes ϕ as a coping strategy in addition to f , and does not rely primarily on f to ensure population stability.

Climate change.—Climate change forecast models suggest that climatic conditions will become increasingly hotter and drier, with long dry periods punctuated by dramatic rainfall events (Masson-Delmotte et al. 2018). These changes in climatic conditions will have differing effects on brush mouse vital rates. Increasingly hotter and drier conditions may not bode well for brush mice survival, especially because dry conditions typically worsen the effect of increased temperatures. Our results suggest that brush mouse survival might decrease with climatic change. Recruitment, on the other hand, might increase with hotter and drier conditions and become the more dominant coping strategy in maintaining population stability. However, dramatic rainfall events might have a negative effect on brush mouse recruitment, suggesting that an increase in recruitment due to hotter and drier conditions might be tempered by more frequent, heavy rainfall. Brush mice are also particularly dependent on ground and vegetative cover, mesic environments and shrubs and trees for foraging and nesting (California Department of Fish and Wildlife 2014). Since primary productivity is negatively affected by an increase in dry conditions, climate change associated with more frequent and more intense droughts could be detrimental to structural habitats that are important for the species. Climate models also predict an increase in the frequency and magnitude of wildfires, especially in southern California and the western Sierras (Westerling and Bryant 2008), which are extremely detrimental to brush mouse populations. In addition to these, the invasive pathogen *Phytophthora ramorum*, which causes

Sudden Oak Death in tanoak and other oak species (McPherson et al. 2010), is one of the pathogens that may become more widespread and harder to control with changing climatic conditions (Brown and Allen-Diaz 2006). The spread of this pathogen could be especially problematic for brush mice, which rely on tanoak acorns (Reid et al. 2013) and coast live oak acorns (Kalcounis and Ruppell 2002), as a primary food source. However, the varying coping strategies employed by the brush mouse in response to varying environmental conditions may serve as a mechanism by which the species maintains resilience in the face of climate change.

Conclusions - Our study was the first to apply Pradel's temporal symmetry models to brush mouse populations and demonstrated the implementation of a modern demographic modeling framework to quantify the effect of f and ϕ on population λ for a brush mouse population. Although brush mouse population dynamics were influenced by localized climatic effects, the overall population size remained stable and appeared resilient to annual and multi-annual fluctuations. The brush mouse utilized a trade-off between survival and recruitment to maintain population stability, using high f during warmer, drier seasons and high ϕ during cooler, wetter seasons to sustain population size. Our results suggest that brush mouse survival might decrease with climate change, while recruitment might increase with climate change and become the more dominant coping strategy in maintaining population stability. However, since dramatic rainfall events negatively affect brush mouse recruitment, an increase in recruitment due to hotter and drier conditions might be tempered by more frequent, heavy rainfall. The varying coping strategies employed by the brush mouse in response to varying environmental conditions may serve as a mechanism by which the species maintains resilience in the face of climate change. Brush mice play an important role in ecosystem processes, as they are extremely important prey

for a large variety of terrestrial and avian predators, including the federally threatened Mexican spotted owl (Boyett 2001). Brush mouse are also reservoir hosts for the hantavirus, raising important health concerns associated with rates of spread. Future investigations are needed to build on our findings and examine other aspects such as predation, intra-guild competition and the potential influence of spatial attributes on population dynamics, factors that, in addition to our results, will likely have implications for the management and conservation of the species. Furthermore, the trade-off between survival and recruitment could pose important consequences for broader small mammal population dynamics and understanding mechanisms of species resilience with climate change.

Authors' contributions: WDT and MKO conceived the ideas and designed methodology; WDT collected the data; AYP, AS, MKO, JEH, and VR analyzed the data; AYP and WDT led the writing of the manuscript. All authors contributed critically to the drafts and gave final approval for publication.

Resource Availability: The dataset and code for this study will be made available at a Harvard Dataverse repository.

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Table 1. Overall, sex-specific and season-specific estimates of monthly apparent survival (ϕ), capture probability (p), monthly recruitment (f), and realized monthly growth rate (λ) without covariate effects estimated using Pradel's model fitted to brush mice capture-mark-recapture data. Overall, sex-specific and season-specific estimates of ϕ were based on the third and fifth-ranked model from Table 2a. Sex-specific and season-specific estimates of f were based on the first, fourth, and twenty-fifth ranked model from Table 2a. Sex-specific and season-specific estimates of λ were based on the first and third-ranked model from Supplementary Table S1.

	Survival (ϕ)	Recruitment (f)	Growth Rate (λ)	Capture probability (p)
Female	0.815 ± 0.005	0.177 ± 0.038	0.993 ± 0.033	0.700 ± 0.055
Male	0.815 ± 0.005	0.173 ± 0.038	0.993 ± 0.033	0.468 ± 0.046
Winter	0.848 ± 0.009	0.137 ± 0.009	1.009 ± 0.010	0.526 ± 0.048
Summer	0.764 ± 0.011	0.240 ± 0.014	0.973 ± 0.014	0.641 ± 0.053
Overall	0.817 ± 0.005	0.175 ± 0.038	0.993 ± 0.032	0.584 ± 0.051

Table 2a-b. Model selection results for the Pradel's model fitted to capture-mark-recapture data for brush mice (*Peromyscus boylii*), testing for the effect of time (trapping session), year, season (winter or summer), and sex (male or female). Parameters are: ϕ = apparent survival probability; p = capture probability; and λ = realized population growth rate. The number of parameters (K), difference in Akaike's information criterion corrected for small sample size between a given model and the top-ranked model (ΔAICc), and the relative model weight are also given. The five best-supported models are presented. A plus sign (+) indicates additive and an asterisk (*) indicates both additive and interactive effects of the covariates involved. (A) Models for monthly apparent survival (ϕ) and recruitment (f) rates without covariate effects. (B) Models testing for the singular effect of climatic covariates on ϕ and f .

Table 2a.

Model	K	ΔAICc	Weight
$\phi(\sim\text{time}) p(\sim\text{season} + \text{sex}) f(\sim\text{time})$	85	0	0.441
$\phi(\sim\text{time}) p(\sim\text{season} * \text{sex}) f(\sim\text{time})$	86	1.808	0.179
$\phi(\sim\text{time} + \text{sex}) p(\sim\text{season} + \text{sex}) f(\sim\text{time})$	86	2.182	0.148
$\phi(\sim\text{time} + \text{sex}) p(\sim\text{time}) f(\sim\text{time})$	86	3.772	0.067
$\phi(\sim\text{season}) p(\sim\text{season} * \text{sex}) f(\sim\text{time})$	87	3.8528	0.064

Table 2b.

Model	K	ΔAICc	Weight
$\phi(\sim\text{rain_cv}) p(\sim\text{season} + \text{sex}) f(\sim\text{temp_avg})$	46	0	0.921
$\phi(\sim\text{rain_cv}) p(\sim\text{season} + \text{sex}) f(\sim\text{rain_sum})$	46	5.977	0.046389
$\phi(\sim\text{rain_sum_onelag}) p(\sim\text{season} + \text{sex}) f(\sim\text{rain_cv_onelag})$	46	7.172	0.025523
$\phi(\sim\text{rain_sum_onelag}) p(\sim\text{season} + \text{sex}) f(\sim\text{temp_avg})$	46	12.822	0.001514
$\phi(\sim\text{temp_avg}) p(\sim\text{season} + \text{sex}) f(\sim\text{temp_avg})$	46	13.057	0.001346

Table 3. The effect of climatic covariates on apparent survival (ϕ), recruitment (f), and realized population growth rate (λ) of brush mice (*Peromyscus boylii*) in a coastal-central California mixed-oak woodland. We report the estimate of slope parameters ($\beta \pm \text{SE}$) based on the most parsimonious model that included a given covariate for each demographic rate, regardless of model structure for other demographic rates. Estimates in bold indicate that 95% CI for β do not include zero.

Demographic parameter	Climate covariate	$\beta \pm \text{SE}$
Survival (ϕ)	Temp_avg	-0.12 \pm 0.05
	Temp_cv	-0.07 \pm 0.03
	Rain_sum	0.15 \pm 0.04
	Rain_sum_onelag	-0.13 \pm 0.03
	Rain_cv	-0.14 \pm 0.03
	Rain_cv_onelag	0.08 \pm 0.04
	El Niño	-0.03 \pm 0.02
Demographic parameter	Climate covariate	$\beta \pm \text{SE}$
Recruitment (f)	Temp_avg	0.27 \pm 0.05
	Temp_cv	0.076 \pm 0.037
	Rain_sum	-0.17 \pm 0.045
	Rain_sum_onelag	0.193 \pm 0.031
	Rain_cv	0.147 \pm 0.034
	Rain_cv_onelag	-0.091 \pm 0.034
	El Niño	-0.004 \pm 0.02
Demographic parameter	Climate covariate	$\beta \pm \text{SE}$
Growth rate (λ)	Temp_avg	0.008 \pm 0.009
	Temp_cv	-0.003 \pm 0.003
	Rain_sum	0.033 \pm 0.005
	Rain_sum_onelag	0.070 \pm 0.006
	Rain_cv	-0.014 \pm 0.004
	Rain_cv_onelag	-0.019 \pm 0.004
	El Niño	0.009 \pm 0.01

Figure 1. Map of the study area. Trapping was carried out on nine 5.8-ha 17x17 trapping grids (open, larger squares) from 1993 to 1996, and on twenty two 1.1-ha 8 ×8 trapping grids (solid, smaller squares) from 1997 to 2014. Inset map of California (adapted from California wildlife habitat relationships system range maps, California Department of Fish and Wildlife, California Interagency Wildlife Task Group, 2018). Location of the study area (solid circle) and the distribution of the brush mouse (*Peromyscus boylii*; grey shading) in California, USA

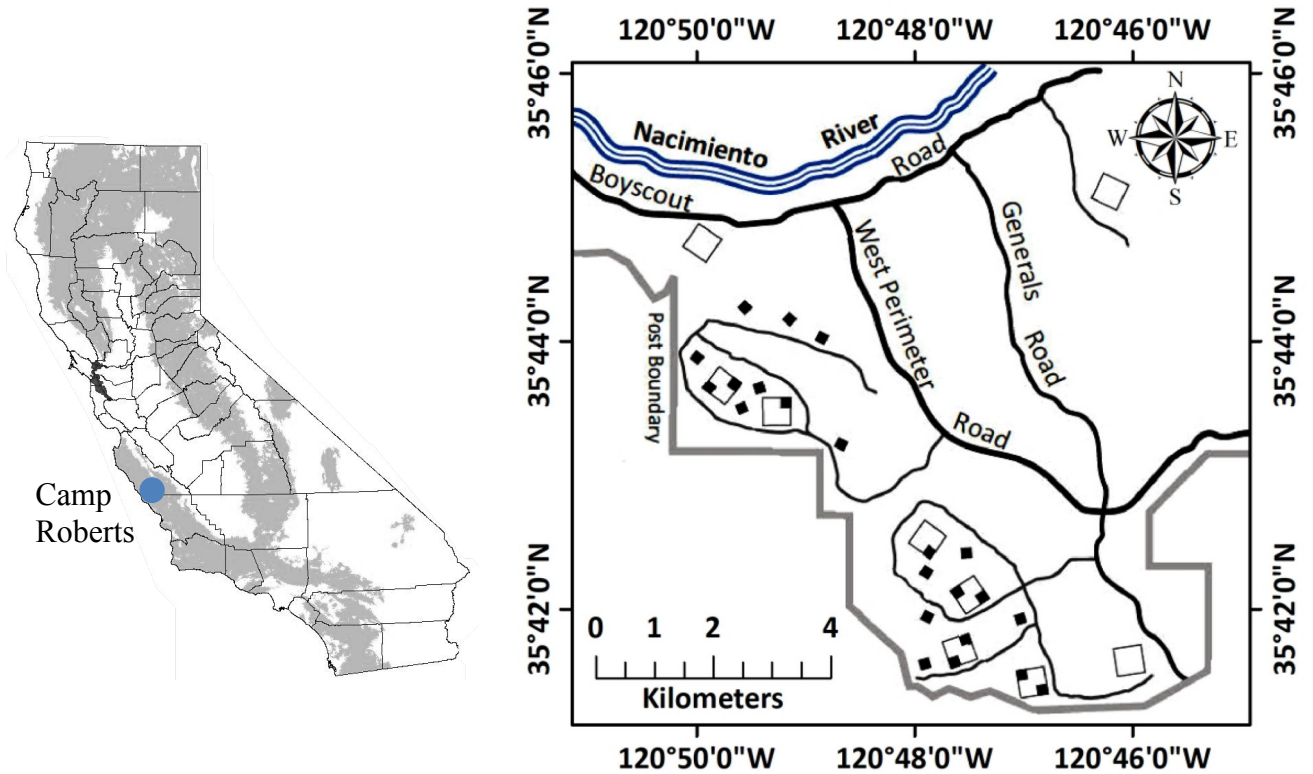
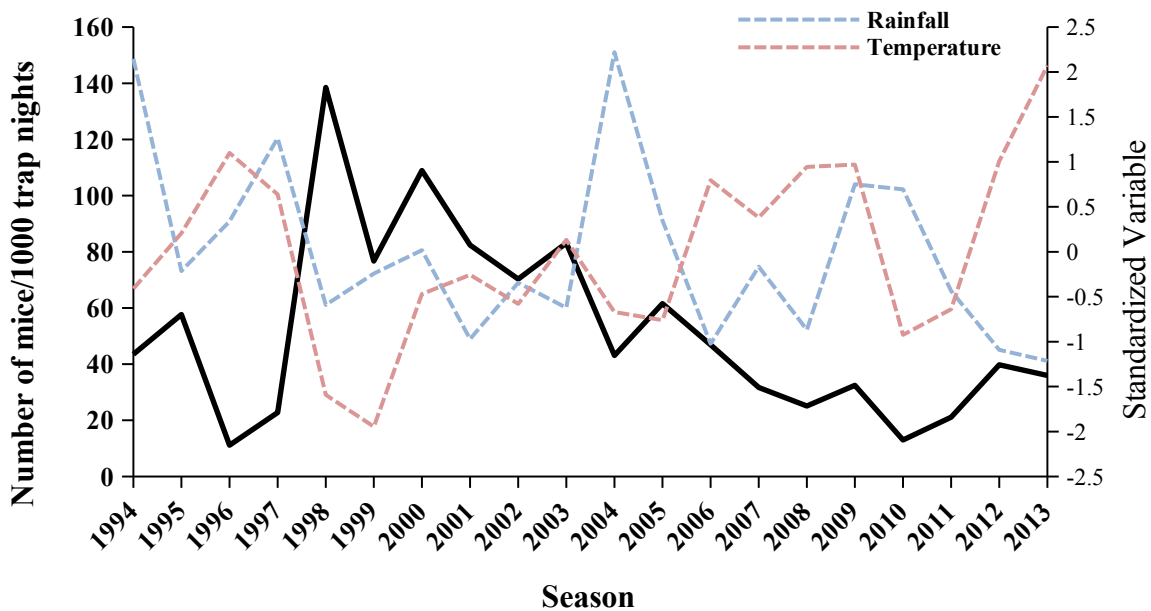
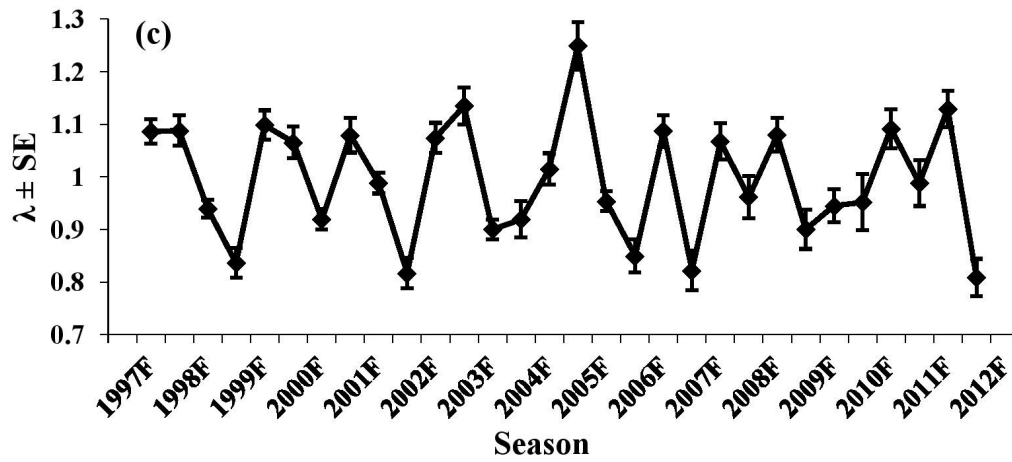
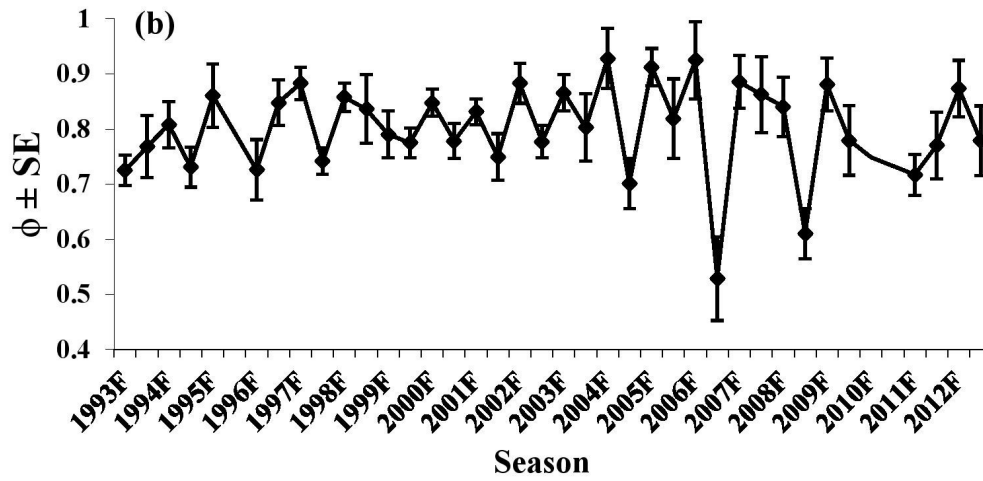
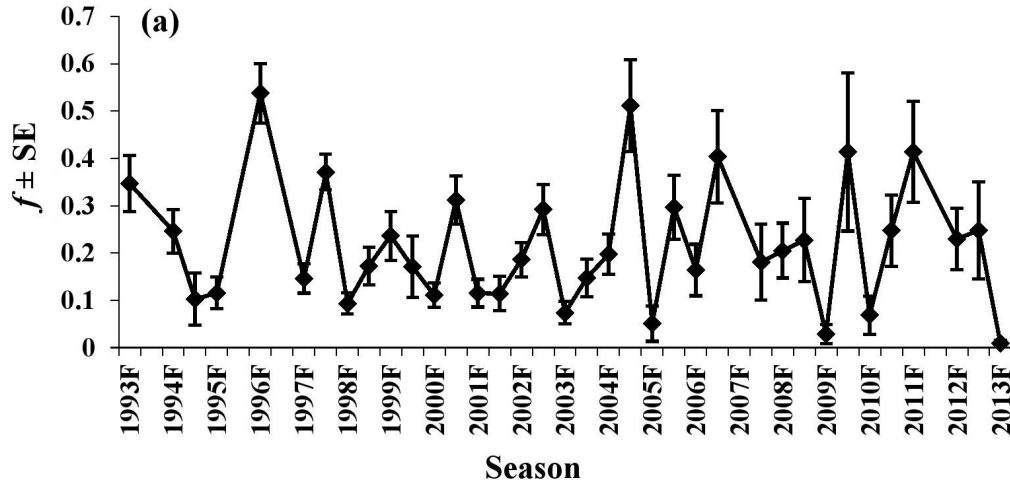


Figure 2. The minimum number of brush mice/1000 trap nights captured during spring and fall sessions on nine 5.8-ha study plots (17 x 17 sampling grid) during October 1993 to October 1996, on 22 1.1-ha study plots (8 x 8 sampling grid) during May 1997 to May 2014 for a total of 232,155 total trap nights at Camp Roberts, CA. The blue and orange dotted lines represent a standardized rainfall and temperature index.



656 **Figure 3a-c.** Estimates of (a) monthly apparent survival (ϕ) (b) recruitment rate (f), and (c)
657 realized population growth rate (λ) of brush mice (*Peromyscus boylii*) at Camp Roberts,
658 California, from winter 1993 to winter 2013 for ϕ and f , and from summer 1997 to winter 2012
659 for λ , based on the most parsimonious model (Table 2a, 2b). Sampled area varied over the course
660 of the study, but was constant from winter 1997 to summer 2012. Thus, estimates for λ were
661 produced for a shorter time interval because λ must be based on constant-size areas. The first
662 estimate for λ is excluded because it is typically inestimable in time-specific models. Spring
663 season estimates follow winter seasons and are not labeled on the axis.



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Figure 4. Effects of climatic variables (z-transformed) on survival and recruitment of brush mice (*Peromyscus boylii*) at Camp Roberts, California based on the most parsimonious model that included the given covariate for each demographic rate; (a) relationship between rainfall and recruitment (f); (b) relationship between temperature and recruitment (f); (c) relationship between rainfall and survival (ϕ); (d) relationship between temperature and survival (ϕ).

