Long-term demographic dynamics of a keystone scavenger disrupted by human-induced shifts in food availability

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Open Research statement: The code for the model described in the paper is included as DataS1. All data, code, and scripts needed for reproducing the results presented here is archived in Dryad, Zenodo and GitHub https://github.com/palmaraz/SaniVult.

Running Head: Keystone scavengers and sanitary policy

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Abstract.Scavenging is a key ecological process controlling energy flow in ecosys-1 tems and providing valuable ecosystem services worldwide. As long-lived species, the demographic dynamics of vultures can be disrupted by spatio-temporal fluctuations in food availability, with dramatic impacts on their population viability and the ecosystem services provided. In Europe, the outbreak of Bovine Spongiform Encephalopathy (BSE) in 2001 prompted a restrictive sanitary legislation banning the presence of livestock carcasses in the wild at a continental scale. In long-lived vertebrate species the buffering hypothesis predicts that the demographic traits with the largest contribution to population growth rate should be less temporally variable. The BSE outbreak provides a unique opportunity to test for the impact of demographic buffering in a keystone scavenger suf-10 fering abrupt but transient food shortages. We study the 42-year dynamics (1978-2020) of one of the world's largest breeding colonies of Eurasian griffon vultures (Gyps fulvus). We 12 fitted an inverse Bayesian state-space model with density-dependent demographic rates to the time-series of stage-structured abundances to investigate shifts in vital rates and population dynamics before, during and after the implementation of a restrictive sanitary 15 regulation. Prior to the BSE outbreak the dynamics was mainly driven by adult sur-16 vival: 83% of temporal variance in abundance was explained by variability in this rate. 17 Moreover, during this period the regulation of population size operated through density-18 dependent fecundity and sub-adult survival. However, after the onset of the European 19 ban, a one-month delay in average laying date, a drop in fecundity and a reduction in 20 the number of fledglings induced a transient increase in the impact of fledgling and sub-21 adult recruitment on dynamics. Although adult survival rate remained constantly high, 22 as predicted by the buffering hypothesis, its relative impact on the temporal variance 23 in abundance dropped to 71% during the sanitary legislation and to 54% after the ban 24 was lifted. A significant increase in the relative impact of environmental stochasticity on 25 dynamics was modeled after the BSE outbreak. These results provide empirical evidence 26 on how abrupt environmental deterioration may induce dramatic demographic and dy-27 namic changes in the populations of keystone scavengers, with far-reaching impacts on 28 ecosystem functioning worldwide.

Key words: carrion; inverse demographic modelling; mad cow disease; matrix modelling; state-space modelling; scavenging; vultures.

INTRODUCTION

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Predictable food subsidies from humans are increasingly altering ecosystem structure and functioning in multiple ways, with far-reaching consequences for environmental conserva-34 tion worldwide (Oro et al. (2013)). Such food subsidies are known to influence the pop-35 ulation size and trends of different generalist vertebrate species. For example, seabirds 36 usually benefit from fisheries discards (e.g., Bicknell et al. (2013)), garden birds from 37 supplementary feeding in urban areas (e.g. Fuller et al. (2008)) or game species including 38 mammals and birds from diversionary and management feeding (e.g. Putman & Staines 39 (2004)). Scavengers are among these vertebrates that are tightly linked to food subsidies derived from human activities including shepherding, hunting and supplementary feed-41 ing (Donázar (1993); Mateo-Tomás & Olea (2010); Blanco (2014); Cortés-Avizanda et al. (2016)). Interactions between humans and scavengers have been closely connected since 43 the Late Pliocene when early hominids probably competed for food with other scavengers (Moleón et al. (2014a)). Nowadays, even if wild ungulate carcasses from hunting are an 45 important source of food for scavengers, these species mostly rely on livestock for food worldwide (Donázar (1993); Mateo-Tomás et al. (2015); Lambertucci et al. (2009, 2018)). 47 Indeed, beyond the ecological function of eliminating wild ungulate carcasses, vertebrate scavengers provide an important ecosystem service by eliminating both domestic ungu-49 late carcasses from agricultural waste, and carcasses derived from hunting (Moleón et al. (2014b); Morales-Reyes et al. (2015); DeVault, T. L., Beasley, J. C., Olson, Z. H., Moleón, 51 M., Carrete, M., Margalida, A., Sánchez-Zapata (2016)) 52

Among vertebrates, vultures are one of the most threatened scavengers worldwide (Buechley & Şekercioğlu (2016)). The main extrinsic threats for vultures include dietary

pollutants (i.e. poisoning and veterinary drugs such as diclofenac and antibiotics), collision and electrocution with electric infrastructures, direct persecution and reduction in 57 food availability (Ogada, Keesing & Virani (2012); Blanco et al. (2016); Buechley & Şekercioğlu (2016)). Carcass availability might be subject to changes related to socioeconomic 59 shifts in livestock production and management (e.g. the abandonment of traditional farming practices; Olea & Mateo-Tomás (2009)), rewilding processes (e.g. increase of 61 wild ungulate populations; Cortés-Avizanda, Donázar & Pereira (2015)) or sanitary regulations (Margalida et al. (2010); Blanco (2014)). Thus, these changes might affect not 63 only resource availability but also their predictability and quality (Donázar, Margalida & Campión (2009); Cortés-Avizanda et al. (2012); Blanco (2014); Blanco, Junza & Barrón (2017); Blanco et al. (2019)). These factors can have a profound influence on population dynamics by driving key demographic parameters ultimately determining population 67 dynamics, age structure and reproductive performance. The life-history strategies of longlived species in fluctuating environments are predicted to evolve to reduce the temporal variability of population growth rate (Roff (2002); Doak et al. (2005)). In particular, the demographic buffering hypothesis (Pfister (1998)) predicts that those demographic rates with a larger contribution to growth rate, and hence with a larger impact on extinction probability, should be less variable across time. Since population growth rate is particularly sensitive to adult survival in long-lived species (Sæther & Bakke (2000); Gaillard & Yoccoz (2003)), canalized adult survival is predicted to stabilize long term dynamics 75 (e.g., Rotella et al. (2012)). In unpredictable environments, in particular in the presence 76 of abrupt perturbations on demographic rates induced by human activities, the ability of populations of long-lived species to buffer those rates more strongly affecting population growth will determine their extinction probability. Nevertheless, there is little evidence on the magnitude of the effects of changes in food availability on the long-term demogra-80 phy and population dynamics of long-lived scavenger species (Margalida, Colomer & Oro 81 (2014)). 82

In Europe, the outbreak of Bovine Spongiform Encephalopathy (BSE) led to the sub-

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sequent application of a restrictive sanitary legislation that critically limited the use of animal by-products not intended for human consumption (Regulation EC 1774/2002). 86 This legislation banned the disposal of livestock carcasses in the field, which originated a major conservation problem, namely a new source of greenhouse gases emissions associ-88 ated with the destruction of carcasses in authorized plants (Morales-Reyes et al. (2015)), and further affected the ecosystem services provided by scavengers (Margalida & Colomer 90 (2012); Blanco (2014); Moleón et al. (2014b); Morales-Reyes et al. (2015)). This conflict between sanitary and environmental policies led to an intense debate about the Euro-92 pean dispositions that regulated the use of animal by-products and their implications for conservation of necrophagous birds (Tella (2001); Donázar, Margalida & Campión (2009); Margalida et al. (2010)). In particular, virtual population modelling predicts that food shortage derived from sanitary regulations may induce rapid population declines in 96 the Eurasian griffon vulture (Gyps fulvus) (Margalida & Colomer (2012)). This colonial species is by far the most abundant and widespread obligate scavenger in Europe, and is 98 also considered the dominant species in scavenger guilds (Cortés-Avizanda et al. (2012)). Roughly, 30000-37000 pairs currently breed in Spain (> 95% of the EU population (Del 100 Moral & Molina (2018)). However, there is a lack of knowledge on the long-term breeding 101 biology and on the demographic consequences of sanitary regulation on vultures' popula-102 tion dynamics and conservation. 103

Here, we take advantage of the long-term monitoring of one of the largest colonies of 105 Eurasian griffon vultures in Europe to analyse multi-decadal changes in the demographic 106 dynamics of this species. The different trophic scenarios that arose after the dramatic 107 change in food availability derived from the European sanitary regulations provides an 108 excellent opportunity to conduct a natural experiment to study aspects of demography 109 and population dynamics directly dependent on food availability that can be hardly re-110 produced experimentally. The main goal of this analysis will be to model the long-term 111 dynamics of vital rates before, during and after the implementation of the European 112 sanitary regulation EC 1774/2002, in order to explore potential temporal shifts in the 113

demographic structure induced by abrupt environmental deterioration. According to the buffering hypothesis (Pfister (1998)) we predict that adult survival of vultures remained constant in spite of the abrupt food shortage. In particular, within this scenario we evaluated how a large shift in food availability derived from the application of sanitary regulations affected, i) the population size, ii) stage structure, iii) laying dates and iv) breeding success of Eurasian griffon vultures, and how these traits impacted upon long-term population dynamics.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

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Study area and fieldwork

We collected demographic data in the gorges of the Riaza River (41°31'N, 3°36'W), north 123 of Segovia Province, Central Spain. The area includes a complex of cliffs and canyons 124 where a large population of about 720 pairs of Eurasian griffon vulture breeds. We 125 censused the colony every two or three years from 1984 to 1994 and then annually until 126 2020; further information was obtained from the national census of 1979 and other sources 127 (http://www.naturalicante.com/mochila/Montejo/Hojas-e-Informes-censo.htm). We 128 conducted five complete surveys each breeding season in order to detect all pairs (Mar-129 tinez, Rodriguez & Blanco (1997)). We examined both partners of each breeding pair to 130 assess whether they were morphologically adults or sub-adults; individuals were catego-131 rized as sub-adults when they had not acquired full adult appearance (at 5-6 years old) on the basis of their general body colour, bill colour and, especially the colour, length and 133 shape of the ruff feathers (Elosegui (1989); Blanco & Martinez (1996); Duriez, Eliotout 134 & Sarrazin (2011)). The age structure of pairs was recorded in three possible combina-135 tions: adult-adult, adult-sub-adult and sub-adult-sub-adult (Blanco & Martinez (1996); 136 Blanco, Martinez & Traverso (1997)). To control for errors in the stage-classification of 137 the monitored individuals due to uncertain ageing, we specified a state-space approach (King et al. (2010)) linking the demographic process to the data through an observation 139 model (see subsection **Observation model**).

Breeding Eurasian griffon vultures are year-round residents in the study area. Egg 142 laying began in late December and the last clutches were laid by mid-March (Martínez, 143 Blanco & Rodríguez-Martínez (1998)). We conducted regular and intensive monitoring 144 throughout the breeding season to determine whether the pairs laid (breeding pairs) or do 145 not laid (non-breeding pairs) despite they showed typical pair-bonding behavior, including 146 close contact, nest building and defense, and copulation. We observed at a distance the presence of eggs in the nests, recorded the start of incubation and calculated the date of 148 hatching based on nestling age (Elosegui (1989)). Taking into account all these criteria and an incubation period of 55 days we determined laying dates within 10-day periods 150 from 10 December onward (Martínez, Blanco & Rodríguez-Martínez (1998)). Nests were 151 regularly checked to verify breeding failure or the success of each pair in fledgling young; 152 young fledged from June-August (Fargallo et al. (2018)). All observations were made by telescope at distances that avoided disturbing the birds in the colony. Besides the 154

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Stage-structured density-dependent population dynamics model

long-term monitoring of breeding pairs in the colony, we focused on the behavior of 456

individuals ringed as nestlings since 1990. Of these individuals, only 9 bred outside the

focal colony and most in colonies <50 Kms. away from there. In contrast, 136 birds bred

or attempted to bred in the focal colony, some for more than 20 years. These data point

to the strong philopatry of the Eurasian griffon vulture to the study area (F. Martínez

and G. Blanco in prep.). These results agree with the dispersal behavior of the studied

species in other colonies (Zuberogoitia et al. (2013)). Overall, we considered breeders in

this population as highly philopatric to their natal colony

Demographic population modelling is usually conducted through the use of population projection matrices (Caswell (2001)). This direct approach uses empirical estimates of vital rates, such as age-dependent fecundity and survival, to project the rate of increase of a population. In the presence of age- or stage-structured population time series, an alternative approach is to use inverse demographic modelling (Wood (1997); Caswell (2001)).

In this approach, vital rates are estimated through the fitting of a set of difference equa-169 tions describing the life-history of a species to age- or stage-structured time series data 170 (Wood (1994); Caswell (2001); Gross, Craig & Hutchinson (2002); Wielgus et al. (2008)). 171 In this study, we fit an inverse Bayesian stage-structured stochastic density-dependent de-172 mographic model to data assembled from distance observations of multiple cohorts of indi-173 viduals during a 42-year period. As a non-invasive demographic approach (Wielgus et al. 174 (2008)), this method allows for the estimation of demographic vital rates from populationabundance data, with no need of capturing-recapturing individuals across time. Although 176 this approach has been used previously (Gross, Craig & Hutchinson (2002); Wielgus et al. 177 (2008)), these implementations were deterministic. In contrast, here we propose a fully 178 stochastic strategy taking into account demographic and environmental stochasticity, as well as sampling error and missing data. Our Bayesian approach thus allows for the 180 efficient propagation and classification of uncertainty from the data to vital rates and 181 population growth rates. 182

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The demographic model for the Eurasian griffon vulture is based on the standard avian 184 life cycle (Bennett & Owens (2002)). This model considers three separate demographic 185 stages: fledglings, sub-adults and adults (Appendix S1: Fig. S1). Three transitions among 186 life stages and two survival probabilities define the time-relationships between stages, so 187 a set of three difference equations, including environmental and demographic stochastic-188 ity, can be derived to model the life cycle. A nonlinear density-dependent function of 189 the Beverton-Holt type was included for each vital rate. This specification is suitable 190 because it is a discrete-time analogous of the continuous-time logistic equation (Bohner 191 & Warth (2007)), and considers an asymmetric resource partitioning among individuals 192 in a scenario of contest competition typical of colonial species (the results, however, are 193 insensitive to alternative functional specifications of density-dependence). 194

$Model\ construction$

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 $Process\ model$

We let $n_{f,t}$, $n_{s,t}$ and $n_{a,t}$ represent the number of fledglings, sub-adults and adults in the 197 breeding population at time t, respectively. We stress here that the adult stage also 198 includes a variable proportion of sub-adults individuals that eventually paired with an 199 adult or another sub-adult; the breeding success of these mixed-aged and sub-adult pairs 200 is invariably lower that adult breeding pairs. Some adult pairs may not breed in a given 201 year, but they are regarded as adults. We let F represent the average fecundity (mean 202 number of fledglings produced per adult per time step); be G_f (fledgling recruitment) 203 and G_s (sub-adult recruitment) the average probabilities that a fledgling and a sub-adult recruits to the next stage, respectively (recruitment probabilities); and we let S_s (sub-205 adult survival) and S_a (adult survival) represent the average probabilities that a sub-adult 206 and an adult survives (remains in the same stage) to the next time step, respectively. 207 We let β_i represent the parameters encapsulating the strength of density-dependence 208 modulating each vital rate i, and N_{t-1} the population size at time t-1 summed across 209 stages $(N_{t-1} = n_{f,t-1} + n_{s,t-1} + n_{a,t-1})$. Note that, if the parameter β_i of a given vital rate 210 is estimated to be 0, that vital rate becomes density-independent. The density-dependent 211 demographic model can then be written as:

$$n_{f,t} = \frac{F}{1+\beta_1 N_{t-1}} n_{a,t-1} + \varepsilon_{f,t}$$

$$n_{s,t} = \frac{G_f}{1+\beta_2 N_{t-1}} n_{f,t-1} + \frac{S_s}{1+\beta_3 N_{t-1}} n_{s,t-1} + \varepsilon_{s,t}$$

$$n_{a,t} = \frac{G_s}{1+\beta_4 N_{t-1}} n_{s,t-1} + \frac{S_a}{1+\beta_5 N_{t-1}} n_{a,t-1} + \varepsilon_{a,t}$$
(1)

where $\varepsilon_{.,t}$ denotes environmental and demographic stochasticity impacting on each life stage (see below). The set of density-dependent difference equations in Eqn. 1 can be written in compact form as:

$$\mathbf{N}_t = \mathbf{L}\mathbf{N}_{t-1} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_t \tag{2}$$

where $\mathbf{N_t} = (n_{f,t}, n_{s,t}, n_{a,t})^T$ is the vector of stage-structured population sizes and \mathbf{L}

is the Lefkovitch matrix (Lefkovitch (1965)) including the density-dependent vital rates for each stage:

$$\mathbf{L} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & \frac{F}{1+\beta_1 N_{t-1}} \\ \frac{G_f}{1+\beta_2 N_{t-1}} & \frac{S_s}{1+\beta_3 N_{t-1}} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{G_s}{1+\beta_4 N_{t-1}} & \frac{S_a}{1+\beta_5 N_{t-1}} \end{pmatrix}$$
(3)

Finally, in Eqn. 2, ε_t is a vector of sequentially independent random shocks distributed 219 according to a multivariate normal distribution of mean 0, $\varepsilon_t \sim MVN(0, \Sigma_t)$. The covari-220 ance matrix Σ_t is decomposed into an environmental (C) and demographic component (D_t) , $\Sigma_t = C + D_t$ (see, Mutshinda, O'Hara & Woiwod (2011); Almaraz & Oro (2011)). 222 The environmental matrix includes the variance of the stochastic environmental factors impacting on the dynamics of each life-stage in the main diagonal (σ^2) , as well as the 224 covariance terms for the pairwise (stage-by-stage) joint responses to these factors, $\zeta_{i,j}$ (for $i \neq j$), in the off-diagonal. The diagonal matrix $D_t = [\delta_f^2/n_f, \dots, \delta_a^2/n_a]^T$ reflects the 226 demographic variance affecting the transition of each demographic stage from time t-1 to t, which scales inversely with population size. 228

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Given the density-dependent Lefkovitch matrix in eqn. 3 it is possible to estimate 230 both the density-independent and density-dependent components of each vital rate. For 231 example, in eqn. 3 the parameter F is the maximum attainable fecundity at very low 232 population sizes (that is, when N_{t-1} is close to 0). Hence, it is a density-independent 233 quantity. In contrast, the density-dependent component of fecundity is $\frac{F}{1+\beta_1N^*}$, where 234 N^* is the total population size at equilibrium. This is the size at which the population 235 growth rate is 0. Indeed, it is straightforward to estimate a transient rate of increase, 236 encapsulating the realized rate at which the stage-structured population grows, and an 237 asymptotic rate of increase. This rate is, for a density-dependent model, the real part of 238 the dominant eigenvalue of the Lefkovitch matrix evaluated at the equilibrium N^* , and 239 should be 1 for a population to be stabilized through density-dependent mechanisms. See 240 Appendix S1: Section S4 for details. 241

Observation model

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The reliability of vital rates estimates depends on the correct classification of individuals according to a given demographic stage, either fledgling, sub-adult or adult. Individual 244 variations in phenotypic characteristics might introduce some error in the assignment of a 245 stage to an individual (see subsection Study area and fieldwork). To control for this we 246 introduced three observation equations, linking the real (latent, or unobserved) abundance of fledglings, sub-adults and adults, $n_{f,t}$, $n_{s,t}$ and $n_{a,t}$ in Eqn. 1, to the demographic stage 248 assignments made to every individual during the long-term monitoring of the colony. 249 We let $y_{f,t}$, $y_{s,t}$ and $y_{a,t}$ be the number of pairs assigned to the fledgling, sub-adult and 250 adult stage at time t, respectively, Then, we specified the real abundance for each stage as 251 following a Poisson distribution across time with the mean as the observed (field-assigned) 252 abundance: 253

$$y_{f,t} \sim \mathcal{P}(n_{f,t})$$

 $y_{s,t} \sim \mathcal{P}(n_{s,t})$ (4)
 $y_{a,t} \sim \mathcal{P}(n_{a,t})$

A Poisson distribution is suitable in this case given the discrete nature of abundance, and due to the linear scaling of the observation variance with the mean abundance. The set of equations in 4 are called observation equations, while the set of equations in 1 are called process equations. The linking of the observation and process equations is called a state-space model (King et al. (2010)). This strategy efficiently separates the uncertainty arising from the observation process, in our case the uncertain assignment of a demographic stage to an individual, from the variability due to the ecological process under study. Thus, this approach is fully stochastic.

$Parameter\ specification,\ posterior\ estimation\ and\ model$ validation

The inverse state-space stage-structured model was fitted to the stage-structured time series of the Eurasian griffon vulture using Bayesian Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC)

integration through Gibbs sampling (Gelman et al. (2014)). We performed a review of the 266 available literature searching for empirical natural history data on the vital rates of the 267 Eurasian griffon vulture (Appendix S1: Table S1). This data was used to construct weakly 268 informative priors for all the vital rates in our model (eqn. 1), which greatly improved 269 posterior convergence of parameters and latent states. A Stochastic Search Variable Se-270 lection scheme (SSVS; George & McCulloch (1993)) was implemented to automatically 271 set to 0 the density-dependent parameters with a negligible effect on demography during the MCMC simulation (see Mutshinda, O'Hara & Woiwod (2011); Almaraz & Oro (2011) 273 for further details). As a sparsity-inducing method (see Gelman et al. (2014).) with SSVS 274 it is possible to estimate the posterior probability of inclusion of a density-dependent vital 275 rate, and therefore evaluate the Bayes factor associated to each one. This allows evaluating the evidence in favor of including a given density-dependent vital rate. Finally, 277 given the use of time-series abundance data it is also possible to estimate the relative 278 contribution of each vital rate and stochastic component in the stage-structured model 279 to the observed temporal variance in population dynamics (see Almaraz & Oro (2011); 280 Mutshinda, O'Hara & Woiwod (2011)). This is analogous to Life Table Response Exper-281 iments (Caswell (2010)) applied to inverse, time series models. The construction of the 282 model for the priors, the specification of SSVS and the description of variance component 283 estimation are described in detail in Appendix S1: Sections S1-S3. 284

The Bayesian model was written in the JAGS language (Plummer (2003)), version 4.3.0, using the R environment (version 4.1.2, RCoreTeam (2021)) through the runjags package (Denwood (2016)). The JAGS code is available in DataS1. Three models were fitted to separate datasets: the first one models the demographic dynamics of the Eurasian griffon vulture prior to the BSE outbreak (from 1978 to 2001), the second one models the dynamics during the term of the Regulation EC 1774/2002 (2002-2011), and the third one models the dynamics after the ban was lifted (2012-2020). Three MCMC chains with diffuse random priors were run for 10⁶ iterations for each model. Posterior estimates for parameters, latent states, missing data and variance components were obtained after

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discarding the first 5×10^5 iterations as burn-in. Standard diagnostic tests (see Gelman et al. (2014)) were conducted to assess the convergence of the chains to a stationary distribution, using the package ggmcmc (Fernández-Marín (2016)).

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Posterior predicted checks

To check for potential issues with parameter identifiability of the proposed modelling 300 approach, we generated synthetic time series from scenarios with known demographic rates 301 and stochastic effects. The state-space density-dependent demographic model (Eqns. 1 302 and 4) was then fitted to each of these time-series, and the resulting distribution of 303 posterior parameter values were compared with the ground-truth estimates. The results 304 of this exercise suggest that the model is highly successful in recovering the original 305 demographic rates (see Appendix S1: Section S5). We also conducted posterior predictive 306 checks on the fitted model (see Gelman et al. (2014)) to assess model adequacy. We 307 simulated 50 synthetic stage-structured time series from the fitted models and fit the 308 model to each one. If the posterior estimates of vital rates are identifiable, we expect 309 that the vital rates recovered by the model with the synthetic time series will approach 310 the values of the model fitted to the observed data (Gelman et al. (2014)). That is, a 311 clustering of the posterior fits to simulated data around the Y=X line is indicative of 312 parameter identifiability. 313

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RESULTS

Temporal trends and shifts in breeding parameters

From 1978 to the BSE outbreak in 2001, population numbers expanded from 128 to 334 breeding pairs in the focal colony (Fig. 1A). The proportion of breeding pairs made up by either an adult plus a sub-adult (mixed-age pairs) or two sub-adults also increased consistently from 1985 to 2001, but these positive trends ended abruptly in 2001, indicating that most sub-adults withdrew from the reproducing population (Fig. 1B). These shifts are

concurrent with the onset of the BSE outbreak, with a peak in 2003 (Fig. 1A). Moreover, 321 a phenological advancement in mean laying date of roughly two weeks from 1985 ended 322 with an abrupt shift in 2001-2003, amounting to an average delay in one month up to 323 2011 (Fig. 1C). Another clear abrupt shift to very low breeding success took place in 2004 324 for both (Fig. 1D). These shifts in breeding structure and phenology were accompanied 325 by similar trends in the stage-structured time series (Fig. 1A). From the BSE outbreak 326 in 2001 to the end of the restrictive regulation (2011), the breeding population dropped with a time lag similar to the age of first breeding in the Eurasian griffon vulture (4-5 328 years), while the non-breeding population stabilized. However, a particularly dramatic crash was observed in the number of fledglings throughout this period (Fig. 1A). After 330 the ban was lifted (2011-2020), mean-laying date abruptly dropped to pre-outbreak levels and breeding success increased for both the adults only and adults plus sub-adults pairs. 332

Inverse stage-structured demographic modelling

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Model-based estimates of vital rates obtained with the state-space inverse demographic 334 model suggest a severe drop in fecundity after the BSE outbreak, from 0.629 ± 0.027 (1SD) 335 chicks per breeding adult prior to the outbreak, to 0.465 ± 0.047 during the BSE epidemic 336 (Fig. 2A). After the BSE outbreak (when the food-shortage period ended) fecundity in-337 creased again (0.487 ± 0.034) . These figures agree very well with the data on breeding 338 success obtained through the individual-based long-term monitoring of the colony (Fig. 1D). Sub-adult recruitment to the breeding adult population dropped during the epidemic, 340 with a correlated rise in sub-adult survival (a larger fraction of sub-adults remained as such during the epidemic; Fig. 2A). Adult survival, in contrast, remained constantly high 342 during the 42-year period (0.992 ± 0.008) during the pre-BSE period, 0.991 ± 0.007 during the food-shortage, and 0.985 ± 0.017 after the food-shortage; Fig. 2A). 344

The relative impact of vital rates on the temporal variance of the stage-structured population suffered a significant shift after the BSE outbreak: prior to 2001 adult survival explained a large proportion of the variance observed at the population level (83.1%),

followed by fecundity (10.6%, Fig. 2B). During the BSE outbreak the impact of adult 349 survival decreased to 71.3\%, and a further decrease to a 53.8\% was modeled but after 350 this event (Fig. 2B). Moreover, after the BSE outbreak the variance component of en-351 vironmental stochasticity increased to 42.5%, while it was negligible during the previous 352 periods (Fig. 2B). Overall, the shifts in demographic rates translated to shifts in the tran-353 sient rate of increase, which was larger before (1.036 ± 0.004) and after (1.059 ± 0.010) 354 than during the BSE outbreak (0.990 \pm 0.006, Fig. 3A). Note that the transient rate of increase of the stage-structured population overlapped 1 during the BSE outbreak (95%) 356 Credible Interval, CI: 0.971-1.002), but neither before (95% CI: 1.028-1.044) nor after this 357 period (95% CI: 1.040-1.079). 358

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Impact of density-dependent vital rates on population stabilization

The density at equilibrium predicted by the stage-structured density-dependent model 361 differed significantly among the three time periods (Appendix S1: Section S4): $793.397 \pm$ 362 59.925 (1SD) individuals before the BSE outbreak, 153.854 ± 30.887 individuals during 363 the BSE outbreak and 398.113 ± 185.558 individuals after the BSE outbreak. Compared 364 to the observed number of individuals across time (Fig. 1A), this suggests that prior to the BSE outbreak the Eurasian griffon vulture population was approaching the equilibrium 366 density, while both during the BSE outbreak and after this period it was fluctuating above its carrying capacity. The posterior asymptotic rates of increase of the density-dependent 368 model evaluated at the population size at equilibrium were centered around 1 in all three periods, consistent with a long-term stabilized population (Fig. 1B; see Appendix S1: 370 Section S4).

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The probability of detecting density-dependence across the life cycle was relatively low for all time periods (Appendix S1: Table S2), ranging from 0.280 before the BSE outbreak to 0.264 during the BSE outbreak and 0.255 after the BSE outbreak. The posterior probability of density dependence was indeed very low for most vital rates during

all time periods, which overall suggest weak density-dependent regulation across the life 377 cycle. However, the posterior probability of density-dependence in sub-adult survival be-378 fore the BSE outbreak was of 0.466, with an associated Bayes factor of 2.248. This is 379 regarded as barely worth mentioning evidence according to the Kass-Raftery scale (Ap-380 pendix S1: Table S2). Both during and after the BSE outbreak, very weak evidence for 381 density-dependence was found for sub-adult recruitment, but not survival. Due to the low 382 sample sizes of these latter periods, Type II error in the detection of density dependence cannot be ruled out. Finally, breeding success of adult and mixed-aged pairs showed 384 a slight decrease from 1985 as a likely consequence of density-dependent processes, only significant for the time series of mixed-aged pairs (r = 0.66, p-value = 0.003; see Fig. 1D). 386

The impact of density-dependence on the different vital rates can be assessed in Figure 2A. While most vital rates are only weakly depressed at equilibrium in all time periods, sub-adult survival is severely reduced when the population approaches the equilibrium population size. As expected, this is particularly the case before the BSE outbreak, when the evidence for density-dependence is significant.

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Posterior predictive checks and model validation

With only 50 synthetic time series, the inverse demographic model was able to successfully recover the original vital rates estimates with simulated stage-structured data (Fig.
4A-C): most of the posterior predicted vital rates cluster around the Y=X regression line.

Importantly, fecundity and adult survival, which are the vital rates most strongly impacting on temporal dynamics (Fig. 2B) are also the vital rates more accurately recovered by
the posterior predictive checking (Fig. 4). The posterior predicted abundance time-series
agree very well with the true abundance for all demographic stages and temporal periods
(Fig. 4D-F).

DISCUSSION

Based on 42 years of monitoring of one of the largest colonies of Eurasian griffon vultures 404 in Europe, we found that temporal, abrupt variability in food availability derived from 405 human activities and induced by an epidemic outbreak had profound effects on the popula-406 tion dynamics of this long-lived species. The influence of food availability on the dynamics 407 of wildlife populations has been widely discussed (see review in Ostfeld & Keesing (2000)). 408 Human activities have played an important role in ecosystem functioning by generating 409 anthropogenic food subsidies (Oro et al. (2013)). Vertebrate scavengers are one of the 410 most susceptible group to changes in the availability of these subsidies (Cortés-Avizanda 411 et al. (2016)). Several studies suggest a negative impact of food scarcity arising from the 412 application of the European sanitary policy on the populations of some scavengers of con-413 servation concern. For example, dietary changes in vultures (Donázar, Cortés-Avizanda 414 & Carrete (2010)) and other avian scavengers (Blanco (2014)), as well as large carnivores 415 (Lagos & Bárcena (2015); Llaneza & López-Bao (2015); Northrup and Boyce (2012)), 416 impacts on the movement patterns (Arrondo et al. (2018)) or changes in demographic pa-417 rameters of vultures (e.g. decrease in survival and breeding success or delay in egg-laying 418 dates; Donázar, Margalida & Campión (2009); Martínez-Abraín et al. (2012); Margalida 419 et al. (2014); Donázar et al. (2020)). However, while some studies have suggested that 420 food shortage derived from sanitary regulations may affect the Eurasian griffon vulture 421 (Margalida & Colomer (2012)), few studies have attempted to study the effects of food 422 shortages on the basic demographic parameters of this species on the long-term. 423

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Our inverse Bayesian demographic modelling approach uses long time-series of stage-structured abundance data (Wood (1994); Gross, Craig & Hutchinson (2002)) to decompose the temporal variability of population abundance into the relative impact of the constituent vital rates. Our method thus allows for the estimation of the effects of transient perturbations on the long term demographic variability and population dynamics by using only stage-structured abundance data. The results suggests that some vital rates of this keystone avian scavenger, in particular fecundity, might be very sensitive to severe

food shortages derived from the shifts in sanitary regulations (i.e., reduction of carcasses 432 availability in the field). In the Iberian Peninsula, the Eurasian griffon vulture primarily 433 depended on free-ranging livestock in the past, especially sheep in lowland areas and cattle 434 in mountain ranges (Donázar (1993)). The declining trend in the abundance of extensive 435 herds over the last decades, especially of sheep and goats, along with the sanitary regula-436 tions forbidding the abandonment of cattle carcasses in the countryside, were concurrent 437 with an increase in the number of factory farms of fattening pigs and poultry and with increasing stabled conditions of ungulate livestock (Blanco (2014)). As a consequence, 439 the populations of this and other vultures now largely depend on livestock carcasses from intensive exploitations in the study area and other regions across its distribution range in 441 Spain (Camiña & Montelío (2006); Donázar, Cortés-Avizanda & Carrete (2010); Blanco et al. (2019)). It should be noted, though, that the application of the policy that banned 443 the abandonment of carcasses in the countryside due to the BSE crisis was not applied homogeneously across time and space, but it supposed a general crash in the availability 445 of carrion in most of the range of distribution of vultures in Spain (Donázar, Margalida & Campión (2009); Margalida et al. (2010)). In general, the application of the restrictive 447 policy was not conducted immediately after the new regulation, but it delayed a variable time period depending on regions with different government administrations. In addition, 449 the discard of carcasses in the countryside continued occurring illegally in some regions 450 in the first years after the implementation of the sanitary policy, and still occurs, but this 451 practice was increasingly persecuted later. Overall, these factors led to a time lag between 452 the new regulation and its effective application, which was reflected in the lowest carcass 453 availability around 1-2 years after the emergence of the BSE crisis (Donázar, Margalida 454 & Campión (2009); Blanco (2014)). 455

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Prior to the BSE outbreak, an advancement in the mean laying date, along with an increase in the proportion of mixed-aged and sub-adults pairs suggest that food availability was relatively high in the study colony and other areas (Blanco, Martinez & Traverso (1997); Blanco (2014); Parra & Tellería (2004)). During the implementation of the Euro-460

pean sanitary regulation a dramatic reduction of available livestock carcasses induced a 461 severe environmental deterioration that triggered the modeled structural change in stage 462 structure, productivity and phenology. Among these effects the delay in laying date and 463 the dramatic drop in fecundity were particularly large. This is likely due to the high 464 cost of reproduction and other life-history traits of vultures, evolved as a result of unpre-465 dictable food conditions (see Donázar (1993); Bennett & Owens (2002); Carrete, Donázar 466 & Margalida (2006)). In contrast, as a long-lived species, adult survival is expected to be very high and its temporal variability relatively low, owing to the canalization of this 468 vital rate (Stearns & Kawecki (1994); Sæther & Bakke (2000); Pfister (1998); Sæther 469 et al. (2013)). Eurasian griffon vultures would exhibit relatively constant adult survival 470 but large plasticity in other traits like reproduction (Fargallo et al. (2018)), as has been described for different organisms with a slow pace of life (e.g. Bennett & Owens (2002); 472 Benton, Plaistow & Coulson (2006); Sæther et al. (2013)). Thus, the combination of fixed and variable traits might have dampened the effects of sanitary policies and allow for a 474 quick recovery of population structure and dynamics once the EU sanitary policies al-475 lowed for the disposal of carcasses (Margalida et al. (2010); Blanco (2014)). Interestingly 476 however, while most of the observed and modeled demographic parameters promptly reversed to pre-outbreak values after the ban was lifted, their relative impact on population 478 dynamics shifted across the 42-year period: the variance component associated to adult 479 survival consistently decreased across time even though this rate remained constantly 480 high, while the environmental stochastic component of the dynamics increased dramat-481 ically. This suggest that the relative dynamical impacts of constant and variable vital 482 rates across time can vary in rather non-intuitive ways in stochastic environments. 483

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Several studies have shown the importance of food competition driven by density-dependent processes on population dynamics of long-lived birds such as gulls (see e.g. Payo-Payo *et al.* (2016)). Likewise, breeding productivity of the semi-colonial cinereous vulture (*Aegypius monachus*) and the territorial bearded vulture (*Gypaetus barbatus*) was affected by density-dependent mechanisms (Carrete, Donázar & Margalida (2006);

Fernández-Bellon et al. (2016)). For the Eurasian griffon vulture in our study area, ob-490 served breeding success consistently declined across time, particularly for the mixed-aged 491 pairs formed by an adult and a sub-adult. Moreover, our modeling results indicated that 492 before the BSE outbreak, density-dependent sub-adult survival likely played a role on 493 population regulation: at the onset of the sanitary regulation the population was fluctu-494 ating close to the equilibrium population size, the size at which the population growth 495 rate is 0. From this moment to the end of the time-series, the fluctuations were above the estimated equilibrium population size, particularly during the BSE outbreak. In other 497 raptor species, density-dependence also operates through sub-adult demographic stages 498 (e.g., Carrete et al. (2006)), since juveniles disperse to other areas or may skip breeding 499 at high population densities. In our case, the reduced sub-adult survival suggests that a 500 fraction of sub-adult individuals abandoned the population when the colony approached 501 the transient carrying capacity. This is reflected in the abrupt drop in the proportion 502 of sub-adult and mixed-aged pairs during the BSE outbreak. Finally, a consistent delay 503 in laying date for adults, sub-adults and mixed-aged pairs during the term of the sani-504 tary regulation point to a severe environmental deterioration. Life history theory indeed 505 predicts that pulse perturbations, such as severe food shortages, may induce long-lived 506 species to reduce breeding effort and hence maintain large survival rates across time (e.g. 507 Sæther & Bakke (2000)). While age and sex might influence differential patterns of sur-508 vival in some vulture species (Sanz-Aguilar et al. (2017)), data from 66 GPS-tagged adult 509 Eurasian griffon vultures throughout Spain suggest that mortality was mainly related to 510 landscape anthropization and only secondarily to sex and sub-population (Arrondo et al. 511 (2020)), but no information is available for fledglings and sub-adults. 512

Overall, our findings suggest that the changes in food availability related to shifts in European sanitary regulations have had negative consequences on key demographic parameters of the colonial Eurasian griffon vultures with significant detrimental effects on the population dynamics of this species. Vultures have coevolved with a rich but ephemeral food resource (DeVault, Rhodes, Jr. & Shivik (2003)). Carcass availability

and predictability can be largely variable depending among others on the source of food 519 (i.e. wild vs. domestic ungulates) and the processes involved (Moleón et al. (2014b)). 520 Vultures have been able to cope with this variability for eons (Moleón et al. (2014a)). In 521 contrast, other environmental changes increasing mortality such as illegal poisoning, the 522 use of veterinary drugs like diclofenac, or even collision with wind turbines (Martínez-523 Abraín et al. (2012); Margalida et al. (2021)) are known to negatively impact on vultures' 524 populations (Green et al. (2006); Serrano et al. (2020)). Our results confirm the impact of 525 domestic ungulate carcasses availability as the major source of food resources for Eurasian 526 griffon vultures in Spain, in spite of the importance of wild ungulate populations (Mateo-527 Tomás et al. (2015); Blanco et al. (2019)). Nearly twenty years after the BSE outbreak, 528 the consensus among scientists, conservationists and managers led to the implementation 529 of a new European regulation (EC 142/2011), which allows farmers to leave the carcasses 530 of livestock in the field. Our results show that, although most of the changes in demo-531 graphic parameters of Eurasian griffon vultures promptly reversed to pre-BSE outbreak 532 scenario after the ban was lifted and the new legislation EC 142/2011 was implemented, 533 the dynamical impacts of the abrupt demographic changes can still be seen in the popu-534 lation more than a decade after the BSE outbreak. Nevertheless, although the new and 535 encouraging legislation represents an important improvement in the conservation of Eu-536 ropean scavengers and the environment, some aspects should still be improved to ensure 537 the long-term conservation of vultures (Mateo-Tomás et al. (2019); Morales-Reyes et al. 538 (2017); Blanco et al. (2016, 2019)). Given the tight intertwining of sanitary and conser-539 vation policies, further research is needed to evaluate the demographic changes derived 540 from the application of new sanitary regulations that may impact vulture conservation 541 and the ecosystem services they provide. 542

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SUPPORTING INFORMATION

912 Additional supporting information may be found online at: http://onlinelibrary.

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Figure captions

Figure 1. Long-term dynamics of the abundance, breeding parameters and phenology 915 of the Eurasian griffon vulture in Central Spain from 1984 to 2018. A. Time series of 916 adult breeding pairs (red dots), non-breeding pairs made up by sub-adults (blue dots), 917 and fledglings (green dots). The impact of observation uncertainty arising from the stage 918 classification errors is shown as shaded bands. These areas encompass the 90% credi-919 ble intervals of the posterior estimates for the latent abundances of adults (red shade), 920 fledglings (green shade) and sub-adults (blue shades). The orange time-series stand for 921 the yearly reported cases of Bovine Spongiform Encephalopathy in Spain provided by the 922 Spanish Ministry of Agriculture (MAPAMA (2018)). B. Proportion of breeding pairs (%) 923 formed by adults only (red dots), by an adult plus a sub-adult (green dots) and pairs 924 formed by sub-adults only (blue dots). C. Mean laying date in Julian days for the three 925 types of breeding pairs. D. Breeding success, estimated as the number of fledglings per 926 breeding pair are shown structured by stages. In all figures, the gray shaded rectangle 927 covers the time window during which the European legislation banned carrion disposal in 928 the wild. 929

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Figure 2. Demographic modelling of the Eurasian griffon vulture in Central Spain. An 931 inverse stage-structured model was fitted to the population dynamics prior to the BSE out-932 break (Pre-BSE, 1978-2000), for the dynamics during the term of the sanitary regulation 933 EC 1774/2002 (BSE, 2001-2011) and after the sanitary regulation was lifted (Post-BSE, 934 2012-2020). A. The posterior distribution of the vital rates estimates considered in the life cycle during the three time periods, shown for both the density-independent (yel-936 low) and density-dependent rates (blue, see main text). F = Fecundity; Gf = Fledglingrecruitment; Gs = Sub-adult recruitment; Ss = Sub-adult survival; and Sa = Adult sur-938 vival. B. The relative impact of the set of vital rates, and environmental and demographic 939 stochasticity, on the temporal variance of the stage-structured population (measured as 940 the % of explained variance in abundance). In the box-plot, horizontal black line stand for the posterior median of each rate and stochastic component; the box represents the 942

inter-quantile range and whiskers show the 95% percentiles.

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Figure 3. Rates of increase of the stage-structured Eurasian griffon vulture population during a 42-year period. A. Posterior distributions of the transient rates of increase before the BSE outbreak (PreBSE, 1978-2001), during the BSE outbreak (BSE: 2002-2011), and after the BSE outbreak (PostBSE: 2012-2020). B. Posterior distributions of the asymptotic rates of increase, λ_s , predicted for the three time periods from the model evaluated at the equilibrium population size N^* (Appendix S1: Section S4). In all figures, vertical dotted lines indicate the mean of each posterior distribution, and the solid black line denotes the rate of increase 1, at which the population achieves long-term stability.

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Figure 4. Results of the stochastic simulation testing the ability of the inverse demo-954 graphic model to recover the demographic dynamics of the Eurasian griffon vulture before, 955 during and after the BSE outbreak. A-C. The posterior estimates for the vital rates of 956 the inverse state-space demographic model fitted to each of the 100 posterior predicted 957 time series are plotted against the sampling posterior estimate of the real dataset used to 958 generate them during the three temporal periods. The box-plots show the median (hori-959 zontal line), inter-quantile range (box) and 95% percentiles (whiskers). The thickness of 960 the box is proportional to the posterior density of the estimates within the inter-quantile 961 range. The Y=X regression line (in black) is plotted as a reference. **D-F**. Time series of 962 the observed abundance for the three demographic stages (adults: blue dots; sub-adults: 963 green dots; fledglings: red dots) during the three demographic periods (Before, during and 964 after de BSE outbreak). The time series of the abundance predicted by the 100 posterior 965 simulated models are shown for each stage as lines (average of predicted abundance) and 966 shaded regions (95% credible interval). 967

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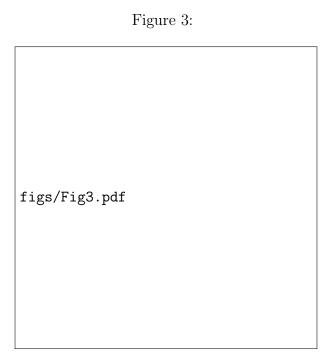


Figure	4

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