SEVERE FIRE REGIMES DECREASE

ECTOTHERMIC POPULATIONS' RESILIENCE

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Abstract (165 words)

1. Understanding species' responses to environmental change is crucial for mitigating human-induced disturbances.

2. Here, we test hypotheses regarding how three essential components of demographic resilience (compensation, resistance, and recovery) co-vary along the distinct life histories of three lizard species exposed to variable, prescribed fire regimes.

3. Using a Bayesian hierarchical framework, we parameterize stochastic Integral Projection Models with 14 years of individual-level data from five sites in Brazilian savannas, each historically subjected to different fire regimes.

4. Our findings reveal that severe fire regimes reduce populations' resistance, compensation, or recovery abilities. Additionally, we identify generation time and reproductive output as predictors of resilience trends across fire regimes and climate. Our analyses demonstrate that the probability and quantity of monthly reproduction are the proximal drivers of demographic resilience across the three species.

5. We emphasize how reproductive constraints, such as viviparity and fixed clutch sizes, significantly impact the ability of ectothermic populations to resist to and benefit from disturbances, underscoring their relevance in conservation assessments.

Keywords: Demography, Disturbance, Ecophysiology, Environmental stochasticity, Environmental change, Integral Projection Model, Life history, Reptile, Transient dynamics.

1 | INTRODUCTION

Environmental change is causing a fast decline in biodiversity worldwide (Newbold *et al.* 2020). The most impactful drivers of this loss include habitat degradation (Gonçalves-Souza, Verburg & Dobrovolski 2020) and the drastic modification of disturbance regimes (Hale *et al.* 2016), such as fires (Bowman *et al.* 2020). Understanding how species may respond to these impacts is at the core of ecology (Sutherland *et al.* 2013) and conservation biology (Sutherland *et al.* 2009). Ecological resilience research in the last decades has obtained variable success regarding how species traits can predict their responses to disturbances (Halpern 1989; Hu, Doherty & Jessop 2020). Indeed, some organismal traits confer species with higher tolerance or susceptibility to perturbations. Examples include mobility (Merrien *et al.* 2022), robustness (Dantas *et al.* 2013), rapid growth (Hoffmann *et al.* 2012), thermal performance (Hu, Doherty & Jessop 2020), and reproductive output (Capdevila *et al.* 2022). Therefore, deciphering which traits confer species the ability to resist and recover is critical to understanding and predicting how populations will respond to disturbances in the Anthropocene (Carmona *et al.* 2021).

Ecological resilience, the ability of an ecological system to resist and recover, or move to a new stable equilibrium from disturbances (Hodgson, McDonald & Hosken 2015), has been historically explored at the community and ecosystem levels (Kefi *et al.* 2019). Recently, though, key breakthroughs have been made in unraveling the mechanisms behind population responses to disturbances (Capdevila *et al.* 2020). Natural populations may respond to disturbances by avoiding decreases in size (resistance) or even by increasing in size (compensation) (Capdevila *et al.* 2020). Following a transient period caused by the disturbance, populations may recover from said disturbance by transitioning back to the previous or a new stable stationary structure, at which point the composition of stages (*e.g.*, age, size classes) in the population remains relatively constant over time (Capdevila *et al.*

2020). Thus, we can quantify the full repertoire of resilience responses to a disturbance by a

natural population with three essential components: (1) resistance, (2) compensation, and (3)

recovery time. This novel demographic resilience framework has the advantage of

quantifying resilience based on the species' vital rates (*i.e.*, survival, growth, and

reproduction), allowing for inter- and intra-specific comparisons, and providing a

mechanistic understanding of the processes and trade-offs involved in species' responses to

disturbances (Capdevila *et al.* 2020).

Life history traits, key moments in an organism's life cycle (Stearns 1976), have

gained attention for their predictive potential in organismal responses (Allen, Street &

Capellini 2017). These traits, including generation time and net reproductive output, are

governed by survival, growth, and reproduction schedules, and are subject to strong selection

for optimization (Stearns 2000). As these vital rates involve trade-offs, so do the emerging

life history traits (Stearns 1976). Understanding the combination of these traits, known as

life history strategies, is valuable in predicting population responses to environmental

changes and disturbances (Capdevila *et al.* 2021a). For instance, recent research has shown

that plant species with high reproductive output exhibit greater resistance and compensation

to disturbances (Iles *et al.* 2015), while longer-lived animals have lower resistance and

longer recovery times compared to fast-living species (Capdevila *et al.* 2022). Despite these

key findings, their generalization across the Tree of Life is challenging because organisms

present diverse life history traits (Salguero-Gómez *et al.* 2016a; Healy *et al.* 2019) and

because quantifying trade-offs in natural populations under control conditions is difficult

(Metcalf 2016), let alone in a context of disturbance regimes (Lytle 2001). Still, linking

mechanisms regulating vital rates to population-level responses to disturbances is crucial for

understanding how these trade-offs shape evolutionary processes.

Fire is a major disturbance that shapes ecosystems worldwide (Pausas & Parr 2018).

Fire consumes biomass, recycles nutrients, and triggers the renewal of vegetation, leading to

a burst of productivity and providing establishment opportunities for new individuals and

species (Pausas & Bond 2020). Despite regional heterogeneity in fire activity, the average

fire season had globally increased by 18.7% in the last three decades, and in many regions,

fire frequency, intensity, and spatial extent have also increased, presumably because of

climate change and human management (Bowman *et al.* 2020). In fire-prone ecosystems,

species typically develop adaptations to resist and recover from frequent fires (Keeley *et al.*

2011). Conversely, other species have evolved to take advantage of these disturbances.

Examples include fire-adapted plants that only resprout (Pausas, Keeley & Schwilk 2017)

or whose seed dormancy only breaks (Paniw *et al.* 2016) after a fire, thus benefiting from

the open space in temporally less competitive environments. Historically, though, fire

ecology research has primaly focused on plant responses, leaving the mechanisms that confer

animals with resilience to fire poorly understood (but see Pausas, Keeley & Schwilk 2017).

To fill this knowledge gap, we investigate how the demographic resilience

components (resistance, compensation, and recovery time) co-vary with generation time,

reproductive output, and their underlying vital rates. To do so, we parameterize hierarchical

Bayesian Integral Projection Models (IPMs) with a 14-years of monthly mark-recapture data

from 3,538 individuals of three lizard species (*Copeoglossum nigropunctatum,*

Micrablepharus atticolus, and *Tropidurus itambere*) from the Brazilian Cerrado savannas

(Oliveira & Marquis 2002), with multiple populations exposed to prescribed fires with

varying frequencies and timings. Our three species have rather distinct life-history strategies,

but co-exist in all of the study sites, thus creating a perfect *in situ* experimental laboratory to

explore how their life history traits and resilience components change in response to fire

regimes. We test (H1) whether ecophysiological traits, such as thermal locomotor

performance and daily activity, and weather/microclimatic data shape how underlying vital

rates and emergent life history traits respond to fire regimes. We then quantify the extent to

which vital rates and life history traits drive demographic resilience. We hypothesize that:

(H2) more severe fire regimes increase populations' resilience (*i.e.,* higher resistance, higher

compensation, and faster recovery); (H3) species' populations with greater generation time

will have higher resistance but slower recovery time; and (H4) populations with greater

reproductive output, higher body growth rate, and higher thermal performance will have

higher compensation and faster recovery time.

2 | MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1 | Study species

Here we focus on the three most abundant lizard species from the assemblage to examine

the traits that confer higher resilience to climate, microclimate, and fire regimes. Of critical

importance to test our hypotheses, each species presents different life history strategies.

Copeoglossum nigropunctatum (Scincidae) is a medium-sized (up to 150 mm snout-vent

length; SVL) viviparous skink found in Amazonia and Cerrado (Vitt & Blackburn 1991;

Vitt, Zani & Lima 1997); its females can carry up to nine embryos for 10-12 months (Vitt &

Blackburn 1991). *Micrablepharus atticolus* (Gymnophthalmidae) is a small-sized (up to 50

mm SVL) Cerrado endemic with a fixed clutch of 1-2 eggs (Vitt & Caldwell 1993; Rodrigues

1996), but capable of producing multiple clutches (Vieira *et al.* 2000). *Tropidurus itambere*

(Tropiduridae) is a medium-sized (up to 100 mm SVL) species from central Cerrado that

lays multiple clutches of 5-8 eggs per season (Van Sluys & Henderson 1993). All three

species have generalist diets, primarily feeding on small invertebrates, with ants being the

main prey for *T. itambere* (Vitt & Blackburn 1991; Van Sluys 1993; Vieira *et al.* 2000).

While most lizard species can withstand intense fires (Costa *et al.* 2013), our species respond

differently to fire-induced vegetation changes, influenced by microclimate and microhabitat

preferences (Costa *et al.* 2021). *C. nigropunctatum* showed fewer captures in intermediate

fire severity levels but increased abundance after prescribed fires ended in 2009, while *M.*

atticolus and *T. itambere* displayed the opposite pattern (Supporting Information-SI; Fig.

S2).

2.2 | Population monitoring

Our study site (*Reserva Ecológica do IBGE*, RECOR; see more details in the SI) is an ideal

natural experiment to test our hypotheses regarding the drivers of demographic resilience.

From 1972 to 1990, RECOR was protected from fires. In 1989, a long-term experiment was

initiated to evaluate the responses of animals and plants in 10 ha plots, each submitted to

unique fire regimes characterized by a combination of timing (early dry season, in late June;

mid dry season, in early August; and late dry season, in late September) and frequency

(biennial and quadrennial) (Miranda 2010). Plots were placed in the cerrado *sensu stricto*

physiognomy and shared a common recent fire history before the experiment's onset. Thus,

differences between plots over time are likely to have arisen due to the prescribed fire

regimes (Costa *et al.* 2021).

To acquire the individual-level data used in our analyses, from November 2005 to

December 2019, we captured individual lizards in study plots using pitfall traps with drift

fences in five plots (Fig. S1): three under prescribed biennial fires (early biennial – EB,

middle biennial – MB, and late biennial – LB), one under prescribed quadrennial fires

(middle quadrennial – Q), and one control plot (C) (Fig. S1). Considering the number of

fires each plot was submitted and their canopy cover (Fig. S6), fire severity increased in the

following order C < Q < EB < MB < LB. We opened traps for six consecutive days every

month and checked them daily during this period. We recorded snout-vent length (SVL) with

a ruler (1 mm precision) from each captured individual, followed by marking by toe-clipping

(after the appropriate bioethics approval 33786/2016) and release at the capture site. Toe-

clipping is a widely used system to mark individuals in amphibians and reptiles, where each

toe has a unique code to set the identity for each individual (Hero 1989). We also assessed

the reproductive state by palpation in females. This assessment is possible because, when

female lizards bear eggs, embryos, or enlarged follicles, they display a significant

enlargement in their abdomens (Meiri, Brown & Sibly 2012).

Migration may bias the vital rates estimates and the underlying effects of the

experimental plots (Paquet *et al.* 2020), here fire regimes. However, considering the distance

between transects in adjacent plots (*ca.* 200 m; Fig. S1A), the small size, and the territorial

behavior of some species (Van Sluys 1997), we assumed no significant lizard movements

among plots that could affect our results. Indeed, there were no inter-site recaptures,

supporting our assumption. In addition to the costs and difficulties of replication typical of

large-scale ecological studies, our experiment could not be replicated because of legal issues

associated with burning the vegetation inside protected areas. While this approach may

reduce the statistical power in our study, doing so is the only way to ensure the availability

of adequate treatment levels in such a large design (Driscoll *et al.* 2010).

2.3 | Ecophysiological traits, weather, and microclimate

To test (H1) whether ecophysiological traits and weather/microclimate shape how

underlying vital rates and emergent life history traits respond to fire regimes, we estimated

locomotor thermal performance curves (TPC) (Huey & Stevenson 1979) and hours of

activity (*ha*) (Sinervo *et al.* 2010) based on laboratory experiments from at least 10

individuals by each species (see SI for more details). We initially had 14 microclimatic and

weather variables. However, after excluding highly correlated variables (using the stepwise

procedure *vifcor* from package USDM with cor > 0.8), we retained: mean air temperature at

200 cm height (*tmed2m*), minimum air temperature at 0 cm height (*tmin0cm*), mean air

temperature at 0 cm height (*tmed0cm*), maximum relative air humidity (*RHmax*), solar

radiation (*sol*), and accumulated precipitation (*precip*). With the hourly microclimate

temperature estimates at 10 cm height, we predicted monthly mean locomotor performance

(*perf*) and the hours of activity (*ha*). SI presents the correlations and relationships among the

variables (Fig. S7) and the details of the microclimatic and thermal physiological estimates.

2.4 | Data analyses

We estimated each species' monthly vital rates (survival, growth, and reproduction) using

different datasets integrated into Bayesian hierarchical models and a combination of

Cormack-Jolly-Seber (CJS) and Pradel Jolly-Seber (PJS) mark-recapture models (Pradel

1996; Tenan *et al.* 2014). The CJS model related the survival (σ) to the individuals' SVL,

while the PJS incorporated the monthly environmental variation (weather, ecophysiological,

microclimate, months with fire, and time since last fire – *TSLF*) into survival (σ) and

reproduction (probability of recruitment, p_{rec}). For the changes in the body size through time

(growth, γ), we combined a Von Bertalanffy body growth function with the individuals'

records of SVL and capture history. For reproduction, we considered three different

processes: the probability of reproduction (p_{rep}), the production of newborns (clutch size;

n_b), and the probability of recruitment (p_{rec}). We used Bayesian generalized linear models to

relate p_{rep} and n_b to the individuals' SVL. We implemented the models for each species with

JAGS in R, using the packages JAGSUI, RUNJAGS, and RJAGS (Kellner 2019; Plummer 2019).

SI presents the details of the parameterizations estimated in each model, including their

formulas.

To test H2, H3, and H4 (see Introduction), we used the vital rates (σ, γ, p_{rep}, n_b, and

p_{rec}) parameters estimates to build stochastic Integral Projection Models (IPMs) using the

IPMR package (Levin *et al.* 2021). Although we have not parameterized the IPMs with

explicit density-dependent parameters constraining their vital rates, we assumed that the

environmental covariates and plots represented the primary resources the lizards use (habitat,

thermal niche, and food), thus indirectly modeling density dependence; this is a common

approach when analyzing long-term demographic data (Salguero-Gómez *et al.* 2016a), as it

is our case. IPMs are structured population models where the vital rates are influenced by a

continuously varying phenotypic trait (Easterling, Ellner & Dixon 2000) (*e.g.*, body size),

instead of discrete stages or ages. In a population structured by a continuous variable body

size (SVL), as in our three study species, the IPM describing the number of individuals of

size y at time $t + 1$ is:

$$n(y, t + 1) = \int_{L}^{U} [P(x, y) + F(x, y)]n(x, t)dx$$

$$= \int_{L}^{U} K(x, y)n(x, t)dx \qquad (\text{Eq. 1})$$

In equation 1, L and U specify the lower and upper body size limits in the model,

respectively; $P(x,y)$ describes the changes in size conditional on survival; $F(x,y)$ quantifies

fecundity; and $K(x,y) = P(x,y) + F(x,y)$ is the *kernel* surface, representing all possible

transitions and per-capita sexual contributions from size x to size y between t and $t+1$. The

P sub-kernel incorporates both survival and growth components, such that $P(x,y) = s(x) \cdot$

$g(x,y)$, where $s(x)$ is the survival probability of a size-x individual and $g(x, y)$ is the

probability of a size-x individual growing to size y (see SI for the IPMs' implementation).

To test whether populations with greater (H3) generation time and (H4) reproductive

output attain higher demographic resilience, we estimated those two life history traits with

the monthly IPM kernels of each plot and species using the package RAGE (Jones *et al.* 2022).

We also estimated other life history traits from these IPMs, but we decided to focus our

analyses on generation time and net reproductive output only, as they describe the principal

axes of the life history variation in our species (Figs. S8-S9), as well as in other reptiles

(Rodriguez-Caro *et al.* 2023).

To test our hypotheses regarding the demographic resilience components (H2-H4),

we estimated the resistance, compensation, and recovery time from our IPMs. To do so, we

used the package POPDEMO (Stott, Hodgson & Townley 2012) on our monthly, species- and

site-specific IPMs. We used the first time-step amplification (reactivity) and attenuation as

the measures for compensation and resistance, respectively, following Capdevila *et al.*

(2020). First time-step amplification and attenuation are the highest population increase, and

the lowest population decrease possible in the next month, respectively. Attenuation values

vary from 0 to 1, where 0 means high resistance and 1 means low resistance. To facilitate

interpretation, we considered resistance as 1 - first time-step attenuation. Thus, given the

species, sites, and monthly environmental covariates (weather, microclimate,

ecophysiological, fire-related, and randomness), resistance and compensation estimates

represent the monthly potential of each population to maintain and increase its size in the

next month, respectively. Recovery time was estimated as follows:

$$t_K = \frac{\log\left(\frac{\lambda_1}{\|\lambda_2\|}\right)}{\log(10)} \qquad \text{(Eq. 2)}$$

In equation 3, λ_1 and λ_2 correspond to the dominant and subdominant eigenvalues of the K

kernel, respectively. This measure estimates the time (months) required to reach stable

stationary structure every month.

Next, to test (H2) whether more severe fire regimes increase populations' resilience

populations, and populations with (H3) greater generation time and (H4) reproductive output

have higher demographic resilience, we built Bayesian linear mixed-effects models using

BRMS (BÜRKNER 2017). We related the demographic resilience components with the two life

history traits and among plots. We used exponential error distributions for compensation and

recovery time, and for resistance, we used a beta distribution. For each species, we included

species, plot, year, and month as nested random variables to control for pseudoreplication.

We $\log_{10}$-transformed the compensation values prior to analyses. In addition to the $\log_{10}$

transformation, we z-scaled the life history traits values before performing the analyses.

To test specific aspects of H4, that populations with higher body growth rate and

higher thermal performance will have higher compensation and faster recovery time and, at

the same time, inspect which IPM vital rate parameters affected the different demographic

resilience components, we conducted a brute-force sensitivity analysis (Morris & Doak

2002). To implement the brute force sensitivity analysis, we added values from 0.01 to 0.1

to each of the parameters specifying our vital rates, and recalculated the differences in the

demographic resilience components. Our parameter sensitivities (S_p) were estimated as in

equation 3, where the numerator describes the difference in the transient metric of choice

(*e.g.*, reactivity for amplification) resulting from perturbing a vital rate parameter p at a time,

in the denominator, following Cant *et al.* (2023).

$$S_p = \frac{Transient\ metric_{original} - Transient\ metric_{perturbed}}{p_{original} - p_{perturbed}} \qquad \text{(Eq. 3)}$$

3 | RESULTS

3.1 | Vital rates

Overall, we found that weather and microclimate shape the survival and recruitment of *Micrablepharus atticolus* and *Tropidurus itambere*, but not of *Copeoglossum nigropunctatum* (Fig. 1), partially supporting our hypothesis (H1). As opposed to H1, ecophysiological traits were poor predictors of the vital rates, except for the recruitment of *M. atticolus*. For instance, the vital rates of survival and recruitment of *C. nigropunctatum* were better explained by random monthly variation than environmental covariates (Fig. 1; Table S4). In contrast, survival of *M. atticolus* and *T. itambere* was only affected by weather (*precip*, *tmed2m*, and *sol*; Fig. 1; Table S4). Partially supporting our predictions (H1), weather (*tmed2m*), microclimatic (*tmin0cm*), and ecophysiological (*perf* and *ha*) conditions affected the recruitment of *M. atticolus* (Fig. 1; Table S4); Recruitment of *T. itambere* only varied with weather conditions (*tmed2m* and *sol*; Fig. 1; Table S4). These patterns resulted in higher variation in the life-history space in these two species—*M. atticolus* and *T. itambere* (Fig. S8). We found significant differences in these vital rates among plots, which had been exposed to prescribed fire regimes for 18 years (Table S4). The differences in vital rates were most apparent under both extremes of fire severity (absence of fire and frequent late-dry season fires), suggestive of the long-term effects of the fire regimes (Table S4), in addition to differences in microclimate and ecophysiological traits (H1). However, the other fire-related variables (*fire* and *TSLF*) were poor predictors of the vital rates, except for the recruitment of *M. atticolus* (Fig. 1; Table S4). See SI for mark-recapture summary statistics.

3.2 | Fire regimes and demographic resilience

Contrary to H2, populations of the three species presented low resistance ability in

severe fire regimes (Figs. 2-3). Populations of *T. itambere* also displayed low compensation

in the most severe fire regime (Figs. 2-3). In average, the three lizard species recover rather

fast to their stable stationary structure (Figs. 2-3; *C. nigropunctatum* - 1.844 ± 0.064 S.D.

months; *M. atticolus* - 1.516 ± 0.291 S.D. months; *T. itambere* - 1.946 ± 0.200 S.D. months).

However, they followed clearly differentiated strategies depending on the fire severity,

resulting in highest resistance to fire at intermediate levels of severity (Fig. 3). The most

striking differences, though, occurred at the extremes of fire severity (absence of fire and

frequent late-dry season fires): *C. nigropunctatum* displayed lower resistance in the least

severe fire regime, and *M. atticolus* and *T. itambere* in the highest (Fig. 3). Interestingly, *M.*

atticolus and *T. itambere* lost the ability to recover fast (*i.e.*, < 1.5 months) from fire and

climate disturbances in the most severe fire regime (Fig. 3).

3.3 | Life history traits and demographic resilience

Using Bayesian mixed-effects models, we found that the differences in the

demographic resilience components between fire regimes were significantly predicted by

generation time and reproductive output (Fig. S10), supporting H3 and H4. However, the

direction of some of our predictions differed for the resistance component and the species

with fixed clutch size, *M. atticolus*. We found that, in populations with higher generation

times, resistance and compensation was lower, and recovery longer (Fig. 4). This striking

pattern was consistent across the three examined species, but with a weaker relationship in

C. nigropunctatum due to its constrained vital rate variation in response to the environment,

and thus lower variance in life history traits (see Figs. S8-S10 for different life history traits

among the species). An important exception to the overall pattern was again *M. atticolus*,

with its fixed clutch size, where populations with higher generation times also displayed

higher resistance to fire and climate variation.

Reproductive output also shaped the demographic resilience components of the three

species, supporting H4. The opposite pattern regarding the relationship between resilience

components and life history traits was found with reproductive output (Fig. 5). Indeed, in

populations with higher reproductive output, resistance and compensation was higher, and

recovery faster (Fig. 5). This pattern was consistent across species, with the exception of the

fixed-clutch species *M. atticolus*, displaying lower resistance and compensation with

increasing reproductive output (Fig. 5).

3.4 | Vital rate parameters and demographic resilience

The brute-force sensitivity analysis revealed that the demographic resilience

components are most affected by the reproductive parameters (Table 1) and, to a lesser

extent, by body growth; but not by thermal physiology as we predicted (H4). The

relationships between probability of reproduction or number of newborns and SVL regulated

all the resilience components in the three species (Table 1). This result indicates that

reproduction among the largest individuals (usually the oldest, Reinke *et al.* (2022)) is

critical for the demographic resilience of *C. nigropunctatum* and *T. itambere*. Higher vital

rate parameter values describing investment in reproduction led to higher resistance and

compensation (Table 1). However, complex results emerged regarding the vital rate

parameters shaping recovery time. In *T. itambere*, a higher probability of reproduction and

a higher number of newborns resulted in a displacement of the population structure further

away from the stable size distribution, leading to longer recovery times (Table 1). In *C.*

nigropunctatum, we found the opposite pattern, except for the probability of reproduction

(which presented complex non-linear relationships). In *M. atticolus,* a higher probability of

reproduction of larger adult individuals shortened recovery times (Table 1). As we predicted,

slower body growth rates led to slower recovery time, especially for the small-sized *M.*

atticolus (Table 1). Other parameters had negligible effects on the demographic resilience

components across species and fire regimes.

4 | DISCUSSION

Using 14 years of monthly mark-recapture data of three lizard species from the Brazilian

Cerrado savannas, we show that severe disturbance regimes result in less resilient

populations, opposing our primary hypothesis (H2). Indeed, our stochastic IPMs

demonstrate that high-severity fire regimes decrease the compensatory, resistance, or

recovery abilities. Accordingly, we also show that generation time and reproductive output

predict the differences in the demographic resilience components (resistance, compensation,

recovery time) among fire regimes and species. Here, populations with higher generation

times are characterized by a lower degree of resistance and slower recovery time (H3),

whereas those with higher reproductive output tend to compensate more and recover faster

(H4). The only species with different relationships between these life history traits and

demographic resilience components is the small body-sized lizard *Micrablepharus atticolus,*

which has a fixed clutch size of two eggs. Despite these differences, all species present a

strong positive correlation among resistance, compensation*,* and fast recovery time to fires

and climatic stochasticity. Partially supporting our hypothesis too, the species' probability

and quantity of reproduction, but not its ecophysiology, are the main drivers of the

demographic resilience in our three ectothermic species (H1), with body growth only being

a strong predictor of recovery time in *M. atticolus*.

The most severe fire regime results in less resistant populations in our three species.

Additionally, our lizards display longer recovery times (~ two months) or lower

compensation in response to this severe fire regime. This finding suggests that these

populations surpass a tipping point in severe fire regimes, and achieve an alternative stable

state to persist, as shown in other systems, such as in shrubs and grasses from tallgrass

prairies (Collins *et al.* 2021). Here, the new state after intense fires is characterized by

strategies that allocate resources to either extreme along the fast-slow continuum (Stearns

1976) or the reproductive strategies continuum (Salguero-Gómez *et al.* 2016b). For instance,

populations of *T. itambere* display longer generation times but lower reproductive output in

the most severe fire regime. Similarly, *M. atticolus* also presents lower reproductive output

in this regime. These findings further highlight the plasticity of species resilience strategies

to cope with different levels of disturbance so populations may remain viable, an area that

has received considerable attention in recent years (Vinton *et al.* 2022). Said plasticity seems

particularly high in reptiles, which have not diminished their ability to respond to

disturbances in the last decades compared to other vertebrates, such as mammals and birds

(Capdevila *et al.* 2021a).

Our findings align with recent examinations of the relationship between the

demographic resilience of plants and animals with the fast-slow continuum (Stott *et al.* 2010;

Jiang *et al.* 2022). Indeed, recent studies have recently shown that populations with longer

generation times tend to display a lower ability to compensate and are slower to recover after

disturbances (Stott *et al.* 2010; McDonald *et al.* 2016). In addition, here we show a clear

relationship between the demographic resilience and reproductive strategy, an orthogonal

axis to the fast-slow continuum (Salguero-Gómez *et al.* 2016b; Healy *et al.* 2019). For

instance, our populations with higher reproductive output resist and compensate more

(except the species with fixed clutch size, *M. atticolus*) and recover faster after disturbances.

This reactive response to disturbances agrees with work showing that the ability to

compensate, linked to reproductive output too, enhances colonizing and invasive potential

among reptiles and amphibians (Allen, Street & Capellini 2017), and even in plants (Iles *et*

al. 2015).

Multiple calls have been made for a more mechanistic understanding of resilience in

ecological systems (Hodgson, McDonald & Hosken 2015; Kefi *et al.* 2019; Capdevila *et al.*

2020); these calls remain largely unanswered (Capdevila *et al.* 2021b). Here, we contribute

to this knowledge gap by mechanistically integrating into the local population dynamics of

each species their ecophysiology, size structure, environmental factors, and varying

disturbance regimes. Indeed, one of our key findings is that probability and quantity of

monthly reproduction are key drivers of demographic resilience. The lack of predictive

power of ecophysiological characteristics (*e.g.*, thermal performance, preferred temperature)

on resilience reinforces the idea that life history traits constitute an excellent approach to

understanding demographic resilience, as recently highlighted in a synthesis across 69

animal and 232 plant species (Capdevila *et al.* 2022). In addition, our results suggest that

resilience components exhibit strong intra- and inter-specific variation, and that these

relationships are strongly modulated by species' vital rates and life history characteristics.

Thus, we argue that existing macroecological and comparative approaches (Capdevila *et al.*

2022) likely mask some of the intraspecific trade-offs we disentangle here using 14 years of

monthly mark-recapture data under five levels of fire disturbances. Future studies will likely

deliver important insights by testing the predictive power of various kinds of traits (*e.g.*,

morphological, physiological, life history) across a wider range of species and disturbance

levels.

Fast growth increases resilience after disturbances (Pausas & Bond 2020) and

enhances persistence in novel environments (Lytle 2001; Allen, Street & Capellini 2017). In

line with these findings, we show that strategies leading to earlier reproduction are effective

at conferring resistance, compensation and faster recovery against fires and climate variation

in our three lizard species. We suggest that this strategy may be particularly important for

small animals, as it may allow them to achieve sexual maturity earlier, like in the case of *M.*

atticolus. Additionally, we show that in months when individuals allocate more resources to

reproduction, populations increase the ability to resist, compensate, and recover after

disturbances. The timing of disturbances may affect population resilience and explain why

timing of reproduction (*i.e.*, phenology) has a critical effect on the responses of lizards

(Braithwaite 1987) and plants (Zirondi, Ooi & Fidelis 2021) to fires prescribed in different

seasons. This connection between phenology and timing of disturbances is increasingly

relevant to other highly-seasonal environments, where species' vital rates are adapted to

predictable environmental changes (Prather *et al.* 2023).

Since reproduction is a critical vital rate conferring resilience, species with

morphological and physiological constraints on reproduction (*e.g.*, viviparity and fixed

clutch sizes) have limited ability to benefit from disturbances. This prediction is precisely

what we show in *C. nigropunctatum* and *M. atticolus*. However, both species relatively

sustained their resilience strategies in varying degrees of fire severity. Recently reported

links between demographic buffering and transient dynamics after disturbances

(demographic resilience) (Capdevila *et al.* 2020) may explain these patterns (Stott *et al.*

2010; McDonald *et al.* 2016). In reptiles, viviparity developed as an adaptation to increase

reproduction success in cold climates (Zimin *et al.* 2022), and might also confer species with

the ability to buffer populations against environmental stochasticity, including resilience to

disturbances. Therefore, demographically buffering species may outcompete others in the

most extreme fire regimes (total absence of fire *vs.* frequent and severe fires), as we show

here. However, because of the constraints on their reproductive schedules, individuals from

viviparous and fixed clutch size species need to perform other strategies to increase their

reproductive output and to compensate after fires, such as reproducing more often (Cayuela

et al. 2022). Indeed, these results provide the possible mechanisms for why, among 75,000

species of vascular plants and tetrapods, long-lived and low-reproductive species present

higher extinction risks than fast-living and high-reproductive ones (Carmona *et al.* 2021).

Our findings have key management and conservation implications. First, easily

measurable traits such as probability of reproduction and clutch size predict species'

resilience to environmental stochasticity and fires. Species with high generation time and

low reproductive output take longer to recover, and cannot resist and compensate as much

as species with faster paces of life. In our study, populations have higher resilience at low

and intermediate degrees of fire severity. Therefore, these results support the pyrodiversity

hypothesis, whereby higher heterogeneity in fire regimes increases the resilience of different

populations and communities and avoids high severity regimes that homogenize the

environment (Jones & Tingley 2021). Second, despite species persist in highly severe fire

regimes, populations can attain alternative stable states (Collins *et al.* 2021), with limited

resistance, compensation, and recovery abilities after disturbances. Thus, traditional

ecological community studies probably underestimate disturbance impacts, since

populations may persist in severe regimes, but not in optimal conditions. Third, reproduction

is a key mechanism conferring higher resistance, compensation and faster recovery time,

both in our species and others (Iles *et al.* 2015; Allen, Street & Capellini 2017). Accordingly,

species with constraints on reproduction (*e.g.,* viviparity, fixed clutch size) have lower

resistance and compensation, taking longer to recover from disturbances. Taken together,

these key findings imply that, to enhance viable strategies after disturbances, managers

should focus on generating suitable and heterogeneous habitats to facilitate the reproductive

aspects of populations. The ability to quantify and predict the resilience components of

natural populations based on their vital rates and life history traits will be increasingly critical

for conservation biology in the coming decades, when climate change and disturbances are

projected to increase in frequency and intensity (Bowman *et al.* 2020).

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Table 1. Probability and quantity (number of newborns) of monthly reproduction are the

main proximal drivers of the demographic resilience components. Sensitivity (mean ± S.D.)

of the demographic resilience components to parameters' perturbation in three species of

lizards from the Brazilian Cerrado savannas: *Copeoglossum nigropunctatum*,

Micrablepharus atticolus, and *Tropidurus itambere*. Cell colors vary from white to dark

orange, indicating absolute sensitivity values of demographic resilience component with

respect to different plausible drivers: $\alpha_{vitalrate}$ = intercept of the vital rate function; $\alpha_{vitalrateSVL}$:

slope of the linear relationship with body size (snout-vent length—SVL); $\beta_{vitalrateSVL}^2$: slope

of the quadratic relationship with body size (SVL); μ_K = mean body growth constant, *i.e.*,

time required to reach asymptotic size, thus higher μ_K values means slower body growth

rates. Ony parameters related to probability of reproduction (prep), number of newborns

(nb), and body growth were higher than zero. The sensitivity values of the other vital rates

were null and not shown.

Parameter	Resistance	Compensation	Recovery time
Copeoglossum nigropunctatum			
α_{prep}	0.026 ± 0.002	0.111 ± 0.004	0.052 ± 0.001
$\beta_{prepSVL}$	2.909 ± 0.315	13.836 ± 0.784	8.023 ± 0.264
$\beta_{prepSVL}^2$	71.366 ± 69.583	86.673 ± 102.262	-173.243 ± 108.166
α_{nb}	0.067 ± 0.002	0.2 ± 0.001	-0.21 ± 0.012
β_{nbSVL}	9.58 ± 0.219	27.562 ± 1.194	-6.326 ± 0.745
μ_K	-0.007 ± 0.001	0.004 ± 0.001	0.03 ± 0.005
Micrablepharus atticolus			
α_{prep}	0.037 ± 0.011	0.035 ± 0.005	-0.103 ± 0.182
$\beta_{prepSVL}$	1.475 ± 0.462	1.603 ± 0.219	-4.227 ± 8.933

μ_K	-0.012 ± 0.003	0.005 ± 0.001	0.654 ± 0.251

Tropidurus itambere

α_{prep}	0.036 ± 0.008	0.127 ± 0.02	0.059 ± 0.005
$\beta_{prepSVL}$	2.740 ± 0.608	10.516 ± 1.557	5.573 ± 0.342
α_{nb}	0.128 ± 0.005	0.296 ± 0.003	-0.033 ± 0.004
β_{nbSVL}	8.806 ± 0.201	24.955 ± 0.319	5.312 ± 0.914
β_{nbSVL}^2	186.827 ± 141.564	1655.239 ± 163.511	$3.747 \times 10^{10} \pm 9.308 \times 10^{10}$
μ_K	-0.008 ± 0.006	0.005 ± 0.004	0.005 ± 0.004

Figure legends

Fig. 1. Model coefficients (mean and 95% confidence intervals) of the effects of

environmental covariates on vital rates of three species of lizards corresponding to: *tmed2m*

= mean air temperature at 200 cm height; *tmin0cm* = minimum air temperature at 0 cm

height; *tmed0cm* = mean air temperature at 0 cm height; *RHmax* = maximum relative air

humidity; *sol* = solar radiation; *precip* = accumulated precipitation; *perf* = mean locomotor

performance; *ha* = hours of activity; *fire* = month with fire; *TSLF* = time since last fire;

random = monthly random variation. We group-colored the covariates related to weather,

microclimate, ecophysiological traits, fire, and randomness. Species' silhouettes from

photos taken by Nicolás Pelegrin (*C. nigropunctatum* and *M. atticolus*) and Carlos Morais

(*T. itambere*).

Fig. 2. Three-dimensional space of the demographic resilience components (resistance,

compensation, and recovery time) for three species of lizards from the Brazilian Cerrado

savannas, showing distinct demographic resilience strategies. With a 14-year mark-recapture

dataset, we derived demographic resilience components from monthly stochastic Integral

Projection Models shaped by weather, microclimate, ecophysiological traits, and fire

covariates.

Fig. 3. Raw data, density, mean estimates, and 95% confidence intervals of the demographic

resilience components: (A,D & G) resistance; (B, E & H) compensation, and (C, F & I)

recovery time of three species of lizards: (A-C) *Copeoglossum nigropunctatum*, (D-F)

Microblepharus atticolus, and (G-I) *Tropidurus itambere* from the Brazilian Cerrado

savannas under different fire regime severity. Within each panel, we show high posterior

density (95% probability) contrast letters corresponding to groups that are not significantly

different (overlapping zero difference). Later letters in the alphabet mean higher values (d >

c > b > a).

Fig. 4. Relationship between generation time ($\log_{10}$-transformed and z-scaled) and the

demographic resilience components: (A, D & G) resistance, (B, E & H) compensation, and

(C, F & I) recovery time of three lizard species: (A-C) *Copeoglossum nigropunctatum*, (D-

F) *Micrablepharus atticolus*, and (G-I) *Tropidurus itambere* under fire regimes of varying

severity. Lines and shades represent mean estimates and 95% confidence intervals derived

from Bayesian mixed-effects models, respectively. To offer higher resolution for *M.*

atticolus' resistance and compensation, we also offer inserts in D and E with a narrower y-

axis range.

Fig. 5. Relationship between reproductive output ($\log_{10}$-transformed and z-scaled) and the

demographic resilience components (A, D & G) resistance, (B, E & H) compensation, and

(C, F & I) recovery time of three lizard species (A-C) *Copeoglossum nigropunctatum*, (D-

F) *Micrablepharus atticolus*, and (G-I) *Tropidurus itambere* under fire regimes of varying

severity. Lines and shades represent mean estimates and 95% confidence intervals derived

from Bayesian mixed-effects models, respectively. To offer higher resolution for *M.*

atticolus' compensation, we also offer an insert in E with a narrower y-axis range.

C. nigropunctatum

M. atticolus

T. itambere

Fire severity
1 2 3 4 5