

Ecology/Ecological Monographs/Ecological Applications

PREPRINT

This preprint is a PDF of a manuscript that has been accepted for publication in an ESA journal. It is the final version that was uploaded and approved by the author(s). While the paper has been through the usual rigorous peer review process of ESA journals, it has not been copy-edited, nor have the graphics and tables been modified for final publication. Also note that the paper may refer to online Appendices and/or Supplements that are not yet available. We have posted this preliminary version of the manuscript online in the interest of making the scientific findings available for distribution and citation as quickly as possible following acceptance. However, readers should be aware that the final, published version will look different from this version and may also have some differences in content.

The doi for this manuscript and the correct format for citing the paper are given at the top of the online (html) abstract.

Once the final published version of this paper is posted online, it will replace the preliminary version at the specified doi.

- 1 Improved estimation of intrinsic growth r_{max} for long-lived species: integrating matrix models
- 2 and allometry

3

- 4 Peter W. Dillingham^{1,2,8}, Jeffrey E. Moore³, David Fletcher⁴, Enric Cortés⁵, K. Alexandra
- 5 Curtis³, Kelsey C. James⁶, Rebecca L. Lewison⁷

6

- 7 School of Science & Technology, University of New England, Armidale, NSW 2351, Australia
- 8 ² George Perkins Marsh Institute, Clark University, 950 Main Street, Worcester, MA 01610,
- 9 USA
- ³ Marine Mammal and Turtle Division, Southwest Fisheries Science Center, National Marine
- Fisheries Service, NOAA, 8901 La Jolla Shores Dr., La Jolla, CA 92037 USA
- ⁴ Department of Mathematics and Statistics, University of Otago, PO Box 56, Dunedin, New
- 13 Zealand
- ⁵ Panama City Laboratory, Southeast Fisheries Science Center, National Marine Fisheries
- 15 Service, NOAA, 3500 Delwood Beach Road, Panama City, FL 32408, USA
- ⁶ Department of Biological Sciences, University of Rhode Island, 120 Flagg Rd, Kingston, RI
- 17 02881, USA
- ⁷ Biology Department, San Diego State University, 5500 Campanile Dr, San Diego, CA 92182-
- 19 4614, USA
- 20 ⁸ E-mail: pdillingham@une.edu.au

21 ABSTRACT

22

23

24

25

26

27

28

29

30

31

32

33

34

35

36

37

38

39

40

41

42

43

Intrinsic population growth rate (r_{max}) is an important parameter for many ecological applications, such as population risk assessment and harvest management. However, r_{max} can be a difficult parameter to estimate, particularly for long-lived species, for which appropriate life table data or abundance time-series are typically not obtainable. We describe a method for improving estimates of r_{max} for long-lived species by integrating life-history theory (allometric models) and population-specific demographic data (life table models). Broad allometric relationships, such as those between life history traits and body size, have long been recognized by ecologists. These relationships are useful for deriving theoretical expectations for r_{max} , but $r_{\rm max}$ for real populations may vary from simple allometric estimators for 'archetypical' species of a given taxa or body mass. Meanwhile, life table approaches can provide population-specific estimates of r_{max} from empirical data but these may have poor precision from imprecise and missing vital rate parameter estimates. Our method borrows strength from both approaches to provide estimates that are consistent with both life-history theory and population-specific empirical data, and are likely to be more robust than estimates provided by either method alone. Our method uses an allometric constant: the product of r_{max} and the associated generation time for a stable-age population growing at this rate. We conducted a meta-analysis to estimate the mean and variance of this allometric constant across well-studied populations from three vertebrate taxa (birds, mammals, and elasmobranchs) and found the mean was approximately 1 for each taxon. We used these as informative Bayesian priors that determine how much to 'shrink' imprecise vital rate estimates for a data-limited population toward the allometric expectation. The approach ultimately provides estimates of r_{max} (and other vital rates) that

reflect a balance of information from the individual studied population, theoretical expectation, and meta-analysis of other populations. We applied the method specifically to an archetypical petrel (representing the genus *Procellaria*) and to white sharks (*Carcharodon carcharias*) in the

context of estimating sustainable fishery bycatch limits.

48

49

47

Keywords: Population dynamics; integrated population models; demography; intrinsic growth

50 rate



51 INTRODUCTION

-	1
٦	1.

73

The intrinsic rate of increase is the maximum potential exponential growth rate a population can 53 54 achieve under optimal resource conditions in its environment (Caughley 1977). It is a key 55 parameter for understanding life-history evolution and population dynamics, and is important in 56 many conservation applications. Intrinsic growth and related terms have been variously defined 57 in the literature (e.g., r_{max} , r_{m} , $r_{\text{intrinsic}}$, \bar{r} ; Caughley 1977, Niel and Lebreton 2005, Gedamke et al. 58 2007, Fagan et al. 2010). For practical application purposes, our interest is the maximum growth 59 rate that would be possible for a real-world, low-density population (e.g., a small founding 60 group, or one in early stages of recovery from severe depletion) with a stable age distribution in a broadly favourable natural environment, which we refer to as r_{max} . In wildlife and fisheries 61 management, r_{max} may be used for projecting population recovery times, conducting population 62 63 viability analyses, or estimating exploitation or removal rates that correspond to management 64 targets or thresholds. For example, many species of marine megafauna are impacted by incidental catch (or bycatch) from fisheries (Lewison et al. 2004, Moore et al. 2013). For these 65 66 data-poor species, the intrinsic growth rate is a fundamental parameter for estimating incidental 67 fishery-catch limits (Moore et al. 2013) and conducting certain types of Ecological Risk 68 Assessments (ERAs) based on the use of Productivity and Susceptibility Analyses (PSAs) 69 (Cortés et al. 2010, Hobday et al. 2011). 70 Unfortunately, intrinsic growth rates are difficult to estimate for many species or populations, 71 72 particularly for many long-lived data-limited species in need of active management. For

example, under the U.S. Marine Mammal Protection Act, bycatch mortality to a marine mammal

74

75

76

77

78

79

80

81

82

83

84

85

86

87

88

89

90

91

92

93

94

95

96

population must be below an estimate of Potential Biological Removal (PBR) or else management procedures to reduce by catch must be initiated. PBR is calculated as a function of population abundance and intrinsic growth rate estimates (Wade 1998, Taylor et al. 2000). The latter is unknown for most populations, so default values are typically used (0.04 for cetaceans, 0.12 for pinnipeds), but the appropriateness of these defaults has not been fully evaluated. Obtaining species- or population-specific estimates of the intrinsic growth rate would therefore improve the PBR management scheme. Intrinsic growth rates may be estimated directly or through model-based approaches. Direct estimation requires fairly long time series (relative to generation time) of abundance estimates for fast-growing (e.g., recovering) populations whose growth rates are not yet limited by resource availability and which have age distributions at least close to the stable age distribution. Where these circumstances exist, regression methods for estimating average growth rate as a function of time or population abundance are straightforward to implement (e.g., Eberhardt and Simmons 1992, de Valpine and Hastings 2002, Morris and Doak 2002, Sibly et al. 2005, Clark et al. 2010). However, such data are not usually available, particularly for certain types of species, e.g. the long-lived and late-maturing marine species that motivate our research, whose age as first reproduction can be >10 years and lifespans are decades. Such species are particularly sensitive to human impacts on survival rates (Heppell et al. 1999, 2005). For these species, direct estimates of intrinsic growth generally require decades of data, usually from wellmonitored populations recovering from intensive human exploitation after effective conservation measures have been put in place (e.g., Best 1993, Balazs and Chaloupka 2004). Few large marine vertebrate populations fit these criteria. Therefore, despite any limitations from

simplifying assumptions (e.g. simplified biology, ignoring density-dependence or senescence), model-based approaches to estimating r_{max} are more common and more practical, at least for these types of species.

100

101

102

103

104

105

106

107

108

109

110

111

112

113

114

115

116

117

118

97

98

99

In the wildlife demography literature, there are two general classes of model-based methods for estimating r_{max} or $\lambda_{\text{max}} = \exp(r_{\text{max}})$ for most populations of long-lived species: analysis of life table methods, and life-history theory and allometric scaling relationships. For purposes of the current analysis, we refer to life table methods in the sense of calculating r_{max} from estimates of annual survival and reproductive rates (in presumably non-limiting resource conditions) using matrix algebra methods (e.g., eigenanalysis or solving the characteristic equation; Caswell 2001) or solving the discrete form of the Euler-Lotka equation (see Skalski et al. 2008, Fagan et al. 2010 for good methodological overviews). Allometric methods use empirically verified relationships across species within broad taxonomic groups between demographic rates (e.g., survival rates, lifespan, age at maturity) and organismal characteristics (namely body size or metabolic rate) to make inference about population growth rate from relatively few input parameters (e.g., Hennemann III 1983, Savage et al. 2004a, Savage et al. 2004b, Niel and Lebreton 2005, Hone et al. 2010). Both approaches have been used to assess risk for long-lived populations. For example, PSAs for sharks have used estimates of λ_{max} derived from matrix models (Cortés 2002, Simpfendorfer et al. 2008, Cortés et al. 2010), while allometric models have been used in developing estimates of Potential Biological Removal (PBR) for birds (Niel and Lebreton 2005, Dillingham and Fletcher 2008, Dillingham 2010, Dillingham and Fletcher 2011, Richard and Abraham 2013).

119

120

121

122

123

124

125

126

127

128

129

130

131

132

133

134

135

136

137

138

139

140

141

The two types of model-based approaches have individual advantages but also individual shortcomings. The advantage of using life table methods is that estimates of r_{max} account for age structured demographic rates and these are empirically informed for the population of interest. However, it is difficult to know whether field measures of demographic rates correspond to those that would be observed for a population growing at r_{max} (Gedamke et al. 2007, Fagan et al. 2010). Parameterizing a matrix model (or Euler-Lotka equation) may also be hampered by data limitations (error in parameter estimates) and structural uncertainties about the life history schedule (i.e., matrix dimensionality and how many parameters to include) (Heppell et al. 2000, Lynch and Fagan 2009). The advantage of using allometric methods is that these require fewer variables than life table or matrix model approaches and fewer data from the particular study population. Rather, $r_{\rm max}$ estimates are informed by well-established evolutionary relationships between, for example, body size and various demographic rates. However, these methods are equally sensitive to input parameter uncertainty and only provide theoretical or expected value estimates of population growth (e.g., given an estimate of body size or age at maturity). As a result, an allometric approach can fail to fully account for population- or species-level variation in demographic complexity given that individual populations are expected to deviate from the 'archetype' (Savage et al. 2006, Ginzburg et al. 2010). For example, Hone et al. (2010) found for mammals a strong relationship between field estimates of population growth rates and age at maturity, but growth rates for individual species could not be predicted precisely from the relationship. Moreover, there remains uncertainty in allometric scaling relationships (Duncan et al. 2007) due

at least in part to methodological difficulties or inconsistencies in empirically testing the underlying theories (Fagan et al. 2010).

We present a general approach that draws on the strengths of both types of model-based methods to provide estimates of r_{max} that are consistent with both allometric theory and population-specific empirical data, and that may therefore be more robust than estimates provided by either method alone.

METHODS

Background

For long-lived species in particular, estimates of r_{max} from either life table or allometric methods are strongly influenced by estimates of maximum adult survival. However, the bias in r_{max} (from error in survival estimates) occurs in opposite directions for the two types of methods, a fact that we exploit in our model development. For matrix models, higher survival values lead to higher r_{max} values when other demographic parameters remain constant. Across species, however, many parameters are correlated, and allometric models show that species with higher survival rates generally have lower r_{max} values because of the evolutionary trade-off between survival (s) and reproductive output (Williams 1966, Charnov 2005). For populations that are impacted by anthropogenic mortality (e.g. bycatch in fisheries, hunting), use of empirical estimates of s will either underestimate r_{max} (e.g. matrix models) or overestimate r_{max} (e.g. allometric models) (Dillingham and Fletcher 2008). The differences between the two methods can be striking,

highlighting the potential risk from using empirical estimates of adult survival to estimate $r_{\rm max}$ using either method alone. For an example petrel described in Table 1, treating an empirical estimate of survival which incorporates substantial bycatch mortality (s=0.89; Barbraud et al. 2008) as if it represented maximum survival would yield estimates of $r_{\rm max}=0.088$ using a particular allometric model (DIM; Niel and Lebreton 2005) and $r_{\rm max}=0.006$ using a matrix model. For some species (e.g. sharks) little is known about adult survival, and either method would perform poorly. More generally, when there is parameter uncertainty each method can produce estimates of $r_{\rm max}$ discordant with the other: e.g. allometric estimates of $r_{\rm max}$ that require breeding success rates > 1 or similar impossibilities, or matrix model estimates of $r_{\rm max}$ that are strongly inconsistent with ecological allometric theory. The approach we describe in this paper is to analytically identify combinations of demographic parameters that produce matrix model estimates that are also consistent with observed allometric relationships.

The particular allometric relationship we use is the approximate constancy (invariance) of the product of r_{max} and the associated generation length (in years) for a stable-age population growing at r_{max} . This generation length has previously been termed the "optimal" generation length as generation time depends on conditions but r_{max} occurs when conditions are optimal (Niel and Lebreton 2005); e.g. high survival combined with relatively early age at first reproduction as might occur in resource-replete conditions for a low-density population. Indicative of the general nature of this relationship, we denote optimal generation length using a generic symbol (T_{opt}) not tied to any specific calculation; however, our actual calculations were based on optimal mean generation length ($\overline{T}_{\text{op}} = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} i l_i f_i$, where l_i is the survival probability from birth to age i and f_i is the annual fecundity at age i; Leslie 1966, Niel and Lebreton 2005) as

it is relatively insensitive to senescence (Niel and Lebreton 2005) which is difficult to model for the data-poor populations included in this study. The approximate constancy of $r_{\text{max}}T_{\text{opt}}$ is based on multiplying distinct allometric relationships for each variable. Allometric relationships are of the form $p = aM^x$, where M is body mass, p is some characteristic, and a and x are constants; these describe broad trends observed across species. Quarter-power exponents are common in allometry (Savage et al. 2004a), and for r_{max} and T_{opt} the exponents are near -0.25 and 0.25, respectively. Multiplying the two allometric relationships leads to the expected relationship previously described (Lebreton 1981, Fowler 1988, Charnov 1993, Niel and Lebreton 2005):

$$r_{\text{max}} T_{\text{opt}} \approx a_{rT} \tag{1}$$

where $a_{rT} = a_r a_T$ and a_r , a_T are the constants in the allometric equations for intrinsic growth rate and generation time, respectively. The constancy of a_{rT} is assumed to hold within homogenous taxonomic groups independent of body mass, but may vary between taxa. For example, Niel and Lebreton (2005) demonstrated that $r_{\text{max}}T_{\text{opt}} \approx 1$ for 13 well-studied bird species (from diverse taxa and spanning a large range in body sizes) whose populations were assumed to be growing under non-limiting resource conditions.

Niel and Lebreton (2005) and Dillingham (2010) combined Eq. 1 with specific population models that allow estimation of r_{max} with limited demographic data for archetypical populations. For example, Niel and Lebreton (2005) use a simple age-based matrix model where adult survival (s) and fecundity (f, female offspring per female per year) are constant from the age at first reproduction (α), referred to as the *constant-fecundity model* (Dillingham 2010). For a matrix of this form, mean generation time (Leslie 1966) reduces to $T = \alpha + s/(\lambda - s)$ (Niel and

210 Lebreton 2005) and, combined with the allometric model, provides the equation for the
211 *demographic invariant method (DIM)* (Niel and Lebreton 2005, Dillingham 2010):

$$\lambda_{\text{max}}^{DIM} = \exp \left[a_{rT} \left(\alpha + s_{\text{opt}} / \left(\lambda_{\text{max}}^{DIM} - s_{\text{opt}} \right) \right)^{-1} \right]$$
 (2)

In this context, α should represent the age at first reproduction under non-limiting resource conditions. If a_{rT} is known (e.g., for birds, $a_{rT} \approx 1$; Niel and Lebreton 2005), then intrinsic growth can be calculated, at least approximately, with minimal demographic data using Eq. 2. That is, due to the structure of the matrix model and the requirement that $r_{max}T_{opt}=1$ (for birds), the only demographic parameters required to calculate r_{max} or λ_{max} are α and s; all other parameters are implied by the model. Dillingham (2010) derived similar equations for a more biologically-realistic model (termed the *varying-fecundity model*) that allows fecundity to increase over a number of age classes but requires some additional information on fecundity. Dillingham (2010) also noted that the varying-fecundity model can be approximated by the constant-fecundity model if α represents a typical (e.g. near the mean or median) age at first reproduction rather than the earliest age that some animals reproduce.

Our analysis has two parts. First, we develop two new methods to estimate r_{max} by integrating matrix and allometric (i.e. $r_{\text{max}}T_{\text{opt}}$ invariance) models. Second, we use empirical data to examine the constancy of $r_{\text{max}}T_{\text{opt}}$ for mammals and sharks in an effort to evaluate the taxonomic generality of the relationship that was demonstrated for birds by Niel and Lebreton (2005); the outputs of this meta-analysis are needed to apply the estimation methods to real populations.

The first r_{max} estimation method, which we term the rT-exact method for an rT-ideal population, describes the population growth of an archetypical population. This method assumes the

population follows the allometric model exactly. We show how straightforward computational methods allow us to generalise the approaches of Niel and Lebreton (2005) and Dillingham (2010) to allow other matrix population models to be used, estimate the expected value for r_{max} even when a point estimate of optimal (i.e. maximum) adult survival (s_{opt}) is unavailable, and incorporate all available demographic information to inform results. The second method, termed the rT-adjusted method, incorporates estimates of process variance (population-level variation) in the $r_{\text{max}}T_{\text{opt}}$ relationship, appropriate for describing individual rather than archetypical populations. For this method, we use allometric relationships to improve the precision of matrix model results by adjusting estimates towards rT-exact estimates and generating more realistic estimates of uncertainty in r_{max} , but still allow individual populations to vary from the allometric expectation. To demonstrate the applicability and utility of these two new methods, we include a demonstration application of our approach to two case studies regarding management and population viability of an archetypical pelagic seabird (petrels of the genus Procellaria) and white sharks ($Carcharodon \ carcharias$).

Model Development

The two new r_{max} estimation methods rely on simple variants of Eq. 1. The first method, the rT-exact method, describes r_{max} for an archetypical, or rT-ideal, population, where Eq. 1 is exact.

252 Thus for rT-ideal populations,

$$r_{\text{max}}T_{\text{opt}} = a_{rT} \tag{3}$$

While the rT-exact method is useful to describe growth rates for archetypical populations, slight departures from this relationship are expected for individual populations. To allow individual

populations to vary from Eq. 1, we can assume that the variability is normally distributed and model the product of intrinsic growth and optimal generation time as

$$r_{\text{max}}T_{\text{opt}} \sim N(a_{rT}, \sigma_{rT}) \tag{4}$$

where a_{rT} is the allometric constant and σ_{rT} is the population-level standard deviation, which describes the amount of true variation across populations around the theoretical prediction for $r_{\text{max}}T_{\text{opt}}$. While Eq. 4 has advantages of simplicity, it does theoretically allow $r_{\text{max}}T_{\text{opt}} < 0$. For combinations of a_{rT} and σ_{rT} where negative values are a concern (e.g. a_{rT} is less than approximately $2\sigma_{rT}$ from 0), a log-normal or truncated normal distribution could be used in place of Eq. 4.

The rT-exact method

The rT-exact method combines matrix models with Eq. 3 in order to predict $r_{\rm max}$ for an archetypical population. Given demographic parameters representative of maximal population growth, matrix model (MM) estimates $r_{\rm max}^{MM}$ and $T_{\rm opt}^{MM}$ are calculated, e.g. using the Euler-Lotka equation and the equation for mean generation time (Dillingham 2010), along with their product $r_{\rm max}T_{\rm opt}^{MM}$. If $r_{\rm max}T_{\rm opt}^{MM}$ equals a_{rT} , then the population is rT-ideal; otherwise, it is not. Simply, the rT-exact method requires that the matrix model is fully concordant with the allometric model.

Niel and Lebreton (2005) and Dillingham (2010) both presented special cases of the rT-exact method. For illustration, assume a population that follows the constant-fecundity model where s_{opt} is the only unknown parameter. For both DIM and matrix models, r_{max} is then simply a function of s_{opt} . The relationship between model estimates of s_{opt} and r_{max} for DIM (i.e. Eq. 2) and the matrix model for this illustrative population is shown in Fig. 1a. As s_{opt} increases, r_{max}

279	increases for the matrix model (dashed line), but decreases for DIM (solid line). Because s_{opt} is
280	unknown, neither method can calculate r_{max} exactly. However, the point in Fig. 1a where these
281	lines intersect is where the matrix and DIM models agree, and is the solution for $s_{ m opt}$ and $r_{ m max}$
282	from the rT-exact method. In short, this new approach finds the values of s_{opt} and r_{max} (using
283	numerical methods) where $r_{\text{max}}T_{\text{opt}}$ from the matrix model equals the allometric constant a_{rT} .
284	
285	A more generic computational approach for rT-ideal populations is to (1) put prior distributions
286	on all parameters, (2) simulate a large number of matrix models, and (3) then calculate the
287	product of growth and generation time ($r_{\text{max}}T_{\text{opt}}^{ MM}$) for each; and finally, (4) keep those iterations
288	that satisfy the allometric theory constraint of $r_{\text{max}}T_{\text{opt}}^{\ \ MM}=a_{rT}$ (within an allowed numerical
289	tolerance, i.e. $\left r_{\text{max}}T_{\text{opt}}^{MM} - a_{rT}\right \le \delta$ for some small δ) and form the posterior distribution for
290	$r_{\text{max}}T_{\text{opt}}$. For data-rich populations, there may be relatively little uncertainty in $r_{\text{max}}T_{\text{opt}}^{MM}$, while
291	for data-poor populations the uncertainty would be large. Thus, uncertainty about r_{max} will
292	reflect uncertainty in demographic rates but parameters will be constrained by asserting that the
293	population must be rT-ideal. For the illustrative population shown in Fig. 1, if there was
294	uncertainty in parameters in addition to s_{opt} , matrix model methods would produce a range of
295	possible growth rates for each value of s. Equation 3 would be satisfied for all parameter sets
296	that produce combinations of α , s_{opt} , and λ_{max} that also satisfy Eq. 2. Figure 1b shows
297	realisations of 1000 simulated matrix models that are rT-exact (within δ = 0.05).
298	

299 The rT-adjusted method

300 The rT-adjusted method estimates population growth for individual populations by combining 301 matrix models with Eq. 4. This method relaxes the rT-ideal constraint and only assumes that $r_{\text{max}}T_{\text{opt}}$ is near a_{rT} , allowing for population-level variation from the ideal. The first three steps of 302 303 the computational approach are the same as for the rT-exact method (i.e. simulating and 304 calculating values for the matrix models). For the rT-adjusted method, step (4) is to simulate $r_{\text{max}}T_{\text{opt}}^{A}$ from the allometric model (A) (e.g. Eq. 4). Equation 4 is appropriate for the allometric 305 model as long as $r_{\text{max}}T_{\text{opt}}^{A} > 0$ for the vast majority of iterations; otherwise, a log-normal or 306 truncated-normal model could be used instead. In step (5), those iterations where $r_{\text{max}}T_{\text{opt}}^{MM}$ is 307 near $r_{\text{max}} T_{\text{opt}}^{A}$ (i.e. $\left| r_{\text{max}} T_{\text{opt}}^{MM} - r_{\text{max}} T_{\text{opt}}^{A} \right| \le \delta$) are kept and others discarded. For the constant-308 fecundity population described in Fig. 1, matrix model estimates that fall near Eq. 2 are kept with 309 310 increasing probability (Fig. 1c), but no longer must lie on Eq. 2. In Supplement 1, 311 implementation of the rT-exact and rT-adjusted methods is described for the illustrative 312 population in Fig. 1. 313 314 The tolerance, δ , sets the allowable numerical error, where smaller values equate to higher precision but increased computational time. Based on $a_{rT} \approx 1$ for birds (Niel and Lebreton 315 2005), $\delta \le 0.05$ provides a reasonable balance between speed and precision (e.g. for a 316 population with generation time $T_{\text{opt}} = 10$ years, this corresponds to error of ± 0.005 in r_{max} for 317 318 any individual iteration, with overall error reduced by the total number of iterations) while 319 $\delta \le 0.01$ is appropriate for high-precision applications or populations with lower generation 320 times. The resulting, integrated estimates (I) of intrinsic growth, generation time, and their product $(r_{\text{max}}^{I}, T_{\text{opt}}^{I})$, and $r_{\text{max}}^{I} T_{\text{opt}}^{I}$) are derived from posterior intervals of the simulation, while the 321

integrated distribution for maximum annual growth (λ_{max}^{I}) is calculated by transforming 322 quantiles of r_{max}^{I} . As a diagnostic, we also examine the distributions of $r_{\text{max}}T_{\text{opt}}^{MM}$ and $r_{\text{max}}T_{\text{opt}}^{A}$, 323 where limited overlap could be used as a model diagnostic, potentially indicating flawed model 324 325 assumptions, data errors, or an unusual population. 326 327 Estimating allometric parameters for birds, mammals and sharks 328 329 We gathered data for birds, mammals, and sharks to estimate allometric parameters for each 330 group. Niel and Lebreton (2005) noted that Eq. 1 could be re-written as $\log r_{\text{max}} = -\log T_{\text{opt}} + \log a_{rT}$. They therefore modelled the data as 331 $E(\log r_{\max}) = \beta \log T_{\text{opt}} + \log a_{rT}$ and ran a regression to test the assumption of $\beta = -1$. The 332 authors then estimated a_{rT} by back-transforming the intercept in a revised model with the slope 333 334 forced to -1. Equation 4 is a similar but simpler model and is a natural extension of Eq. 1. 335 Further, it eliminates potentially difficult choices about which regression method to use (e.g. 336 ordinary least squares (OLS), major axis, or standardised major axis, see Warton et al. (2006) 337 and O'Connor et al. (2007) for discussion). However, the log-log regression provides an easy 338 way to examine relationships not evident from Eq. 4. For example, in an allometric analysis of 339 basal metabolic rate and mass, Kolokotrones et al. (2010) were able to find previously 340 undetected curvature and a body temperature effect by using regression methods within a log-log 341 regression. 342 343 We therefore modelled data using both the log-log regression and the simpler method based on 344 Eq. 4. The log-log regression was designed to examine general linearity and whether the slope

was near -1, and Eq. 4 was used to actually estimate a_{rT} and σ_{rT} . Since the first method was used for basic diagnostics only, rather than adjusting the degrees of freedom or otherwise modelling phylogenetic dependence, we simply note that the standard error of the slope from OLS estimates may be underestimated if the dependence is strong, but other values (e.g. the estimated slope and R^2) are appropriate for estimating r_{max} conditional on T_{opt} (O'Connor et al. 2007). We also note that the corresponding estimate of σ_{rT} from Eq. 4 will include the intrinsic population-level variability (i.e. process error) that we are interested in, but also includes measurement error and possible sources of model-based bias. Therefore, the actual population-level variability is likely $<\hat{\sigma}_{rT}$.

For birds, we used the data from Niel and Lebreton (2005). For mammals, we used empirical $r_{\rm max}$ estimates from count data for fast-growing populations for 41 out of 64 species compiled by Duncan et al. (2007), including 10 orders of mammals and ranging in size from rodents and lagomorphs to elephants and baleen whales. Data for the other 23 species did not satisfy inclusion measures for our analysis (briefly, $r_{\rm max} < 2$, $\alpha > 0.5$, and s < 1 when calculated by the characteristic equation; see Appendix A for details). We compiled female age at first reproduction and fecundity estimates from other published databases for the mammals (Ernest 2003, Jones et al. 2009, Tacutu et al. 2013), with the merged data available in Supplement 2 for the 41 included species. To calculate generation time, survival estimates are also required. However, age- or stage-specific survival estimates were not available, so we assumed a single annual survival rate through life and found this rate by solving the characteristic equation for s: $\lambda^{\alpha} - s\lambda^{\alpha-1} - fl_{\alpha} = 0$, where $\lambda = \exp(r)$ and $l_{\alpha} = s^{\alpha}$. The simplifying assumption of a single survival rate is a suitable proxy for age-structured survivorship for purposes of estimating r and

368

369

370

371

372

373

374

375

376

377

378

379

380

381

382

383

384

385

386

387

388

389

allometric relationships (Lynch and Fagan 2009). We then estimated optimal generation time as $T_{\text{opt}} = \alpha + s/(\lambda - s)$ (assuming α , s, were estimated for optimal or near-optimal conditions) using the mean generation length (Leslie 1966) and an assumption of constant fecundity from age at first reproduction (Niel and Lebreton 2005, Dillingham 2010), and performed a log-log analysis sensu Niel and Lebreton (2005) to estimate the regression slope and confirm it was close to -1. We then used the simpler Eq. 4 to estimate the allometric parameters. For sharks, we used estimates of growth and generation time from matrix models presented by Cortés (2002). Developing matrix models for sharks is challenging due to the lack of empirical survival estimates for this taxon. In their place, Cortés (2002) used indirect estimators developed primarily using data for teleosts, whose application to elasmobranchs has not been empirically justified (Kenchington 2013). Cortés (2002) combined several different estimators and used the differences between them as one approach to estimating uncertainty in survival. Therefore, the estimates for sharks have greater measurement error and potential sources of bias than the estimates for birds or mammals. While the values from Cortés (2002) may be broadly interpreted as estimates of intrinsic growth, we recognise their limitations. For example, some estimates of intrinsic growth were < 0, and estimates of uncertainty were conditional on the assumed models for survival. We thus analysed the data to look for general consistency with the log-log analysis and Eq. 4 and general similarities in parameter estimates between sharks, birds, and mammals. Using only those populations where the estimate of $r_{max} > 0$ led to 32 of 41 populations in Cortés (2002) for inclusion in the log-log analysis. Because Cortés (2002) provided uncertainty estimates for population growth rates, we were able to perform an

additional analysis to estimate mean a_{rT} and the population-level variation in this parameter (σ_{rT}) by adjusting for measurement error in r_{max} (see Appendix A for details).

Case studies

The rT-exact method for petrels

Many petrel species (Family Procelliidae) are listed as threatened by the International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) due to incidental capture (bycatch) in fishing gear (BirdLife International 2013). Because of these impacts, empirical estimates of survival, where available, incorporate anthropogenic mortality and therefore do not represent potential maximum survival. For example, recent survival estimates for the white-chinned petrel (*Procellaria aequinoctialis*) are very low (<0.90) compared to similar, less impacted species (Barbraud et al. 2008). One solution is to use survival estimates from congeneric species at lower risk from bycatch (e.g. Barbraud et al. 2009, Dillingham and Fletcher 2011) to estimate r_{max} or λ_{max} , and recognise that the estimates may be biased as a result or treated as an approximation. As an alternative approach, we demonstrate the rT-exact method for an archetypical *Procellaria* species.

In this example, we compare estimates of λ_{\max} from matrix, DIM (i.e. Eq. 2), and rT-exact methods (λ_{\max}^{MM} , λ_{\max}^{DIM} , and λ_{\max}^{rTe}), and also estimate optimal survival using the rT-exact method (s_{opt}^{rTe}). Our purpose is to compare the sensitivities of λ_{\max} to a_{rT} and the demographic parameters among the three models to identify those parameters that, for a given level of error, most influence point estimates of λ_{\max} . By combining knowledge of sensitivities with estimates of parameter uncertainty, this type of analysis can help a researcher determine which model is most

appropriate for their data; for example, models that are sensitive to parameters which have large 413 414 associated uncertainties would be expected to perform poorly. 415 416 We first built a matrix population model for a generic *Procellaria* species. We then selected 417 parameter values by examining relevant species-specific estimates available from primary or 418 secondary sources (Brooke 2004, Barbraud et al. 2008, Fletcher et al. 2008, Dillingham et al. 2012, ACAP 2013, BirdLife International 2013), with specific details described in Appendix A. 419 420 The resulting matrix was then used to estimate s_{opt} and λ_{max} using the rT-exact method, assuming $a_{rT} = 1$ based on the estimate from Niel and Lebreton (2005). The rT-exact estimate of s_{opt} was 421 used for the matrix model and DIM approaches to estimate λ_{max} . Sensitivities of λ_{max} to model 422 423 parameters were then calculated using numerical derivatives. 424 425 The rT-adjusted method for white sharks 426 To demonstrate the rT-adjusted method, we built a matrix population model for the eastern north 427 Pacific population of white shark. In 2012, this population was petitioned for listing under the 428 U.S. Endangered Species Act. The National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) 429 convened a Biological Review Team (BRT) of government scientists to evaluate relevant 430 scientific information and provide an assessment report (Dewar et al. 2014) that the Agency used 431 to determine whether the white shark should be listed as a threatened or endangered species (the 432 decision was to not list the species; 78 Federal Register 40104-40127). The population viability analysis for the BRT assessment was partially based on estimates of r_{max} , derived using our 433 434 methods as presented here. We began by building a demographic matrix model for the white 435 shark, but parameter uncertainty meant that matrix model results, by themselves, were

436	unsatisfactorily imprecise. Therefore, in combination with the matrix model, we used the
437	estimates of allometric parameters (a_{rT}, σ_{rT}) for sharks (i.e. based on our analysis of the data
438	from Cortés (2002)), informed by estimates from the other taxa which had higher data-quality, to
439	provide rT-adjusted estimates of intrinsic growth.
440	
441	Few vital rates are known precisely for white sharks, but variously informative priors can be
442	placed on all key parameters (see Appendix A for details). Drawing parameters from these
443	distributions provides a prior distribution for matrix model parameters $r_{\text{max}}T_{\text{opt}}^{ MM}$ that does not
444	take the allometric model into account. To incorporate the allometric model, we matched each
445	matrix model draw with one from the allometric model ($r_{\text{max}}T_{\text{opt}}^{A}$), but used a log-normal
446	distribution in place of Eq. 4 so that $r_{\text{max}}T_{\text{opt}} > 0$. Similarly, we accounted for uncertainty in σ_{rT}
447	by sampling from a log-normal distribution with a CV based on our analysis of the Cortés shark
448	data (Cortés 2002). Those iterations where the allometric and matrix models agreed formed the
449	integrated, rT-adjusted posterior distribution.
450	
451	Analyses were performed using R 3.0.1 (R Development Core Team 2013). For the Bayesian
452	analysis of the Cortés (2002) shark data, the OpenBUGS variant (version 3.2.2; Thomas et al.
453	2006) of BUGS (Lunn et al. 2000) was linked to R using the R2WinBUGS library (Sturtz et al.
454	2005), with estimates based on 4 chains of 260,000 iterations with the first 10,000 iterations
455	discarded and thinning set to 100, with good convergence diagnostics and low Monte Carlo
456	error.
457	
458	RESULTS

21

159	
460	Estimating allometric parameters for birds, mammals and sharks
461	All three taxonomic groups showed strong relationships between r_{max} and T_{opt} (Fig. 2), with R^2
462	from the log-log regression equal to 0.96, 0.91 and 0.72 for birds, mammals, and sharks,
463	respectively. In each case, the estimated slope was close to -1, with estimated slopes (\pm 95%
464	confidence interval) equal to -0.93 \pm 0.12 (birds), -0.99 \pm 0.10 (mammals), and -0.96 \pm 0.46
465	(sharks). Both R^2 and precision were lowest for sharks, which was expected given the
466	uncertainties in the matrix model estimates of r_{max} for them.
467	
468	The allometric constants were similar for all three taxa, with $a_{rT} \approx 1$. Estimates of a_{rT} from Eq.
469	4 were 1.07 ± 0.09 (birds), 1.17 ± 0.09 (mammals), and 0.97 ± 0.25 (sharks). The associated
470	standard deviations, σ_{rT} , were estimated as 0.15 (birds), 0.30 (mammals), and 0.69 (sharks),
471	accounting for all sources of noise (i.e. population-level variability and measurement error, as
472	well as any model-based bias). When using the Bayesian model to adjust for measurement error
473	for sharks, $\hat{a}_{rT} = 0.84$ (95% credible interval 0.65 to 1.05) and the remaining error reduces to
174	$\hat{\sigma}_{rT} = 0.41$ (0.23 to 0.61). For an animal with a generation time of 10 years or more, this
475	suggests that variation in r_{max} among populations is likely < 0.04 for any of these taxa.
476	
477	Case Study 1: Petrels
478	For the rT-ideal population based on the demography of <i>Procellaria</i> petrels, we treated s_{opt} as
179	unknown and other parameters as known, and calculated rT-exact estimates of population growth
480	$(\lambda_{\text{max}}^{rTe})$ and optimal survival (s_{opt}^{rTe}) . Using s_{opt}^{rTe} in a matrix model and DIM (Eq. 2) allowed us to

compare sensitivities of three point estimators (λ_{\max}^{rTe} , λ_{\max}^{MM} , λ_{\max}^{DIM}) to demographic parameters to analyse approximate model performance. The rT-exact estimate of the maximum growth rate when $a_{rT}=1$ is $\lambda_{\max}^{rTe}=1.070$ (or $r_{\max}^{rTe}=0.068$) and the corresponding estimate of optimal survival is $s_{\text{opt}}^{rTe}=0.947$. The estimates of λ_{\max} and s_{opt} are very similar to those presented by Dillingham and Fletcher (2011), who estimated $s_{\text{opt}}\approx 0.94$ using empirical data from a number of petrel species and $\lambda_{\max}\approx 1.074$ using DIM.

487

488

489

490

491

492

493

494

495

496

497

498

499

500

501

502

481

482

483

484

485

486

For the rT-exact method where s_{opt} is unknown, intrinsic growth was most sensitive to a_{rT} and the proportion breeding (k), and least sensitive to age at maturity, α (Table 1). Sensitivities were always smaller when using the rT-exact method compared to the matrix model or DIM for shared parameters. Hence, relative model performance depends on sensitivities and uncertainties for those parameters not in common. Compared to the matrix model, the impact on λ_{max} of error in s_{opt} of 0.01 in the matrix model is equivalent to the impact of error in a_{rT} of 0.15 in the rT-exact method, if the other parameters were known without error. Compared to DIM estimates, the rTexact method has three additional parameters (c_1 , c_2 , which are the ratios of younger age-class survival rates to adult survival, and k; see Appendix A) not used by DIM, while DIM has one parameter (s_{opt}) not used by the rT-exact method. Because the rT-exact method is insensitive to c_1 , c_2 , and k, and DIM is highly sensitive to s_{opt} , error of 0.10 in each of c_1 , c_2 , and k (in the worst case where all errors are in the same direction) has the equivalent impact of error of 0.016 in $s_{\rm opt}$. From a management perspective, this means that the rT-exact method would be expected to outperform DIM in most settings. The exceptions would be where c_1 , c_2 , and k are highly uncertain or where s_{opt} is measured with high precision.

503

504	Case Study 2: white sharks
505	Distributions for λ_{max} from the matrix model only, allometric model only, and the rT-adjusted
506	method that integrates both models are in Fig. 3. For this example, we set $a_{rT} = 1$ and sampled
507	from a log-normal distribution with average population-level variation $\sigma_{rT} = 0.4$ (see Appendix
508	A for details). The value $a_{rT} = 1$ is consistent with the estimate from either Eq. 4 or the
509	Bayesian model that adjusted for measurement error for sharks (see Appendix A), as well as the
510	value for the other taxa with higher quality data. The rT-adjusted distribution reflects
511	uncertainty in matrix model parameters, but constrains the uncertainty so that Eq. 4 is satisfied.
512	While still allowing for population-level variability, Fig. 3 shows the constrained distribution
513	that results from incorporating allometric trends with the matrix model. The rT-adjusted
514	posterior distribution for λ_{max} for white sharks has a mean of 1.050, SD = 0.017, and 95%
515	credible interval of 1.022 to 1.091. By comparison, the distribution of λ_{max} for the matrix model
516	alone had a mean of 1.059 , SD = 0.028 , included negative values, and had a substantially wider
517	95% credible interval (1.008 to 1.114) that included unrealistically small values. The variance
518	for the rT-adjusted distribution was only 37% that of the variance for the matrix model (i.e.,
519	$0.017^2 / 0.028^2 = 0.37$), contains no negative values, and the credible interval represents a more
520	plausible range, showing the benefits of the rT-adjusted model compared to a matrix model for
521	this Case Study.
522	
523	DISCUSSION
524	
525	Generating robust estimates for demographic parameters and r_{max} , in particular, for long-lived
526	species is a priority for both ecological research and conservation applications. Estimating

527

528

529

530

531

532

533

534

535

536

537

538

539

540

541

542

543

544

545

546

547

548

549

intrinsic growth from matrix models provides population-specific estimates, but precision can be unsatisfactory when important demographic parameters such as survival are unavailable or measured with low precision. Here, we have presented two new methods that combine demographic information used for matrix models with broader ecological understanding garnered from empirical allometric relationships to generate improved estimates of intrinsic growth rates. The first (rT-exact) method provides estimates of intrinsic growth for what we call an rT-ideal population (e.g., the expected growth rate for an archetypical population with a particular combination of adult survival and maturation age). The second (rT-adjusted) method acknowledges that species may vary from some theoretical expectation and thus incorporates process error in the allometric constant (a_{rT}) to generate distributions for intrinsic growth that reflect this natural variability. These methods can be applied generally, but are especially applicable for data-poor populations, for which neither matrix models nor allometric models are fully satisfactory. As our case studies demonstrate, our methods provide biologically meaningful inferences about species life history parameters, and can inform conservation and management. As with all models, our approach depends on empirically validating the theoretical prediction with data; i.e. that the product $r_{\text{max}}T_{\text{opt}}$ is approximately invariant. Our meta-analysis of data for birds, mammals, and sharks indicates that the theory is well-supported across several taxa with expected $r_{\text{max}}T_{\text{opt}} \approx 1$ across the full range of generation lengths included in the datasets. Data types and the amount of data used to evaluate this taxonomic generality varied by taxon. For birds, r_{max} estimates were generated from matrix models for rapidly growing populations for which high-quality demographic data were available, and a broad suite of taxa were represented (Niel and Lebreton 2005). Estimates for r_{max} for mammals were based on count data for dozens

of rapidly increasing populations, although the dataset was taxonomically biased toward certain orders with relatively high growth rates (e.g., many ungulate and carnivore species, few bats or primates). For sharks, r_{max} was calculated from matrix models that relied on multiple indirect survival estimators derived for teleosts (Cortés 2002). These differences suggest that estimates of the allometric constants are most reliable for birds and least reliable for the data-poor sharks. For the rT-adjusted method, quantifying population-level variation σ_{rT} and accounting for that variation in predictive models is also required. For birds and mammals, relatively high-quality data suggests that estimates of σ_{rT} primarily reflect the population-level variation that we are interested in, but still incorporate some amount of measurement error. For sharks, we were able to separate some of the measurement error from population-level variation by adding an additional component to our model, but overall data quality was lowest for this taxon.

Given available data and the limited number of taxa studied, it is unknown whether $a_{rT}\approx 1$ is general across all animal taxa or whether the similarities between values for these taxa were coincidental or only apply to relatively long-lived species (noting that taxa characterized by truly rapid growth potential such as teleosts or insects were not included in the analysis, nor were mammals that mature younger than 1 year and have multiple litters per year). It is also unclear whether the larger estimate of σ_{rT} for sharks was a result of model-based bias and uncertainty, or possibly represents additional variation caused by greater phylogenetic diversity or poikilothermy in that taxon. This suggests two areas of future research: (1) examining additional taxonomic groups to better explore the generality of our findings, and (2) determining the effect of model-based assumptions (e.g. from the use of indirect survival estimates) on the estimates of the allometric parameters for sharks.

_	$\overline{}$	1
`	- /	4
J	1	J

574

575

576

577

578

579

580

581

582

583

584

585

586

587

588

589

590

591

592

593

594

The rT-exact method, designed to estimate intrinsic growth for a typical population by combining all available demographic data with knowledge of allometric patterns, was found to yield robust estimates of r_{max} for a long-lived seabird even when important demographic parameters (e.g. survival) are poorly known. In fact, while our focus is on estimating r_{max} , we note that this method also can be used to estimate optimal survival and other demographic parameters. Compared to methods such as DIM or matrix models that rely heavily on estimates of adult survival for long-lived populations, the rT-exact method is relatively insensitive to its parameter inputs and therefore error in any one has limited impact on the estimate of r_{max} . We primarily focus on the effect of survival due to its importance in DIM and matrix models, but estimation of other demographic parameters can be challenging for long-lived species (e.g. age at first reproduction). In settings where survival is estimated well and other parameters poorly, the rT-exact method would yield essentially the same estimates as DIM when using the constantfecundity model. For data-poor populations that have reproductive information available, and where estimates of survival are poor or impacted by unquantified anthropogenic mortality, the rT-exact method would perform especially well compared to the others. DIM and matrix methods risk large bias in r_{max} when s_{opt} is measured poorly, while the rT-exact method reduces this risk by taking advantage of the opposite directions of those biases. This is especially important in conservation settings that use reference point (e.g., mortality limit) estimators based on r_{max} . For example, PBR, which has also been adapted for seabirds and sea turtles (Dillingham and Fletcher 2008, 2011, Curtis and Moore 2013, Richard and Abraham 2013), includes the parameter $R_{\text{max}} = \exp(r_{\text{max}}) - 1$, and is <0.10 for many of the long-lived marine megafauna to

which it is applied (Moore et al. 2013). Small errors in R_{max} translate to large proportional errors in the PBR, and therefore can have large management impacts (Dillingham 2010).

The second method we present, the rT-adjusted method, extends the first by focusing on individual rather than archetypical populations. While the rT-exact method is useful for predicting how we expect an archetype to behave and may be sufficient for many applications, these predictions may not be sufficiently accurate for individual populations that differ from the expectation, in which case population-level variation in r_{max} with respect to $r_{\text{max}}T_{\text{opt}}$ must be accounted for. For these settings, the rT-adjusted method uses allometric patterns to adjust matrix model estimates of population growth towards the allometric ideal, but still allows for variation from it. The amount of adjustment depends on the distance between matrix model estimates of $r_{\text{max}}T_{\text{opt}}$ and the allometric constant, the precision of matrix model estimates, and the normal level of variation from the ideal expected within a taxon. While our analyses provide initial estimates for σ_{rT} for three taxa, these estimates include sampling variance and thus overestimate population-level variance. Future research that improves the precision of these estimates would make these methods even more useful.

Like any method, these methods should be used with care. While the primary purpose of the rT-adjusted method is to improve precision of r_{max} estimates by using all available data, it also naturally removes inconsistencies between allometric and matrix models. However, inconsistencies could highlight data or model errors, or an interesting population that does not follow the allometric trend. For example, inconsistencies between allometric and matrix models could be a relatively simple way to identify whether the survival estimate used is potentially sub-

optimal. We therefore recommend that estimates from matrix and allometric models be
compared to each other and to the integrated estimates from the rT-adjusted method (as shown in

Fig. 3 for white sharks) as part of a quality control process.

620



621 ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Funding for this project was provided from the Lenfest Ocean Program. Ideas for this paper were originally presented at a workshop hosted by the Southwest Fisheries Science Center from 5-7 December 2012 entitled 'Calculating Productivity & Related Estimates for Sharks', and we thank the participants for their helpful input. J. Barlow and T. Eguchi provided detailed comments that improved the manuscript. We thank S. Heppell and anonymous reviewers for their comments and suggestions.



629	REFERENCES
630	Agreement on the Conservation of Albatrosses and Petrels (ACAP). 2013. ACAP species
631	assessment: various species. http://www.acap.aq .
632	Balazs, G. H., and M. Chaloupka. 2004. Thirty-year recovery trend in the once depleted
633	Hawaiian green sea turtle stock. Biological Conservation 117:491-498.
634	Barbraud, C., K. Delord, C. Marteau, and H. Weimerskirch. 2009. Estimates of population size
635	of white-chinned petrels and grey petrels at Kerguelen Islands and sensitivity to fisheries.
636	Animal Conservation 12:258-265.
637	Barbraud, C., C. Marteau, V. Ridoux, K. Delord, and H. Weimerskirch. 2008. Demographic
638	response of a population of white-chinned petrels Procellaria aequinoctialis to climate
639	and longline fishery bycatch. Journal of Applied Ecology 45:1460-1467.
640	Best, P. B. 1993. Increase rates in severely depleted stocks of baleen whales. Ices Journal of
641	Marine Science 50:169-186.
642	BirdLife International. 2013. Species Factsheet: Various Species. http://www.birdlife.org .
643	Brooke, M. D. 2004. Albatrosses and Petrels Across the World (Bird Families of the World).
644	Oxford University Press, Oxford.
645	Caswell, H. 2001. Matrix population models: construction, analysis, and interpretation. 2nd
646	edition. Sinauer Associates, Sunderland, Massachusetts.
647	Caughley, G. 1977. Analysis of vertebrate populations. 1st edition. Wiley, New York.
648	Charnov, E. L. 1993. Life history invariants: some explorations of symmetry in evolutionary
649	ecology. Oxford University Press, Oxford.
650	Charnov, E. L. 2005. Reproductive effort is inversely proportional to average adult life span.
651	Evolutionary Ecology Research 7: 1221-1222.

652	Clark, F., B. W. Brook, S. Delean, H. R. Akcakaya, and C. J. A. Bradshaw. 2010. The theta-
653	logistic is unreliable for modelling most census data. Methods in Ecology and Evolution
654	1:253-262.
655	Cortés, E. 2002. Incorporating uncertainty into demographic modeling: application to shark
656	populations and their conservation. Conservation Biology 16:1048-1062.
657	Cortés, E., F. Arocha, L. Beerkircher, F. Carvalho, A. Domingo, M. Heupel, H. Holtzhausen, M.
658	N. Santos, M. Ribera, and C. Simpfendorfer. 2010. Ecological risk assessment of pelagic
659	sharks caught in Atlantic pelagic longline fisheries. Aquatic Living Resources 23:25-34.
660	Curtis, K. A., and J. E. Moore. 2013. Calculating reference points for anthropogenic mortality of
661	marine turtles. Aquatic Conservation-Marine and Freshwater Ecosystems 23:441-459.
662	de Valpine, P., and A. Hastings. 2002. Fitting population models incorporating process noise and
663	observation error. Ecological Monographs 72:57-76.
664	Dewar, H., T. Eguchi, J. Hyde, D. Kinzey, S. Kohin, J. Moore, B. L. Taylor, and R. Vetter. 2014.
665	Status review of the northeastern Pacific population of white sharks (Carcharodon
666	carcharias) under the Endangered Species Act. NOAA Technical Memorandum NOAA-
667	TM-NMFS-SWFSC-523.
668	Dillingham, P. W. 2010. Generation time and the maximum growth rate for populations with
669	age-specific fecundities and unknown juvenile survival. Ecological Modelling 221:895-
670	899.
671	Dillingham, P.W., Elliott, G.P, Walker, K.J., and D. Fletcher. 2012. Adjusting age at first
672	breeding of albatrosses and petrels for emigration and study duration. Journal of
673	Ornithology 153:205-217.

0/4	Dillingham, P. W., and D. Fletcher. 2008. Estimating the ability of birds to sustain additional
675	human-caused mortalities using a simple decision rule and allometric relationships.
676	Biological Conservation 141:1783-1792.
677	Dillingham, P. W., and D. Fletcher. 2011. Potential biological removal of albatrosses and petrels
678	with minimal demographic information. Biological Conservation 144:1885-1894.
679	Duncan, R. P., D. M. Forsyth, and J. Hone. 2007. Testing the metabolic theory of ecology:
680	allometric scaling exponents in mammals. Ecology 88:324-333.
681	Eberhardt, L. L., and M. A. Simmons. 1992. Assessing rates of increase from trend data. Journal
682	of Wildlife Management 56:603-610.
583	Ernest, S. K. M. 2003. Life history characteristics of placental nonvolant mammals. Ecology
684	84:3402-3402.
585	Fagan, W. F., H. J. Lynch, and B. R. Noon. 2010. Pitfalls and challenges of estimating
686	population growth rate from empirical data: consequences for allometric scaling
687	relations. Oikos 119:455-464.
688	Fletcher, D., D. MacKenzie, and P. Dillingham. 2008. Modelling of impacts of fishing-related
589	mortality on New Zealand seabird populations. Prepared for the New Zealand Ministry of
590	Fisheries, 17 December 2008.
691	Fowler, C. W. 1988. Population dynamics as related to rate of increase per generation.
592	Evolutionary Ecology 2:197-204.
693	Gedamke, T., J. M. Hoenig, J. A. Musick, W. D. DuPaul, and S. H. Gruber. 2007. Using
694	demographic models to determine intrinsic rate of increase and sustainable fishing for
695	elasmobranchs: Pitfalls, advances, and applications. North American Journal of Fisheries
696	Management 27:605-618.

697 Ginzburg L. R., O. Burger, and J. Damuth. 2010. The May threshold and life-history allometry. 698 Biology Letters 6: 850-853. 699 Hennemann III, W. W. 1983. Relationship among body mass, metabolic rate and the intrinsic 700 rate of natural increase in mammals. Oecologia 56:104-108. 701 Heppell, S. S., H. Caswell, and L. B. Crowder. 2000. Life histories and elasticity patterns: 702 perturbation analysis for species with minimal demographic data. Ecology 81:654-665. 703 Heppell, S. S., L. B. Crowder and T. Menzel. 1999. Life table analysis of long-lived marine 704 species with implications for management. American Fisheries Society Symposium 705 23:137-148. 706 Heppell, S. S., S. A. Heppell, A. Read, and L. B. Crowder. 2005. Effects of fishing on long-707 lived marine organisms. Pp. 211-231 in E.A. Norse and L.B. Crowder, eds. Marine 708 Conservation Biology. Island Press, Washington, DC. 709 Hobday, A. J., A. D. M. Smith, I. C. Stobutzki, C. Bulman, R. Daley, J. M. Dambacher, R. A. 710 Deng, J. Dowdney, M. Fuller, D. Furlani, S. P. Griffiths, D. Johnson, R. Kenyon, I. A. 711 Knuckey, S. D. Ling, R. Pitcher, K. J. Sainsbury, M. Sporcic, T. Smith, C. Turnbull, T. I. 712 Walker, S. E. Wayte, H. Webb, A. Williams, B. S. Wise, and S. Zhou. 2011. Ecological 713 risk assessment for the effects of fishing. Fisheries Research 108:372-384. 714 Hone, J., R. P. Duncan, and D. M. Forsyth. 2010. Estimates of maximum annual population 715 growth rates (r_m) of mammals and their application in wildlife management. Journal of 716 Applied Ecology 47:507-514. 717 Hutchings, J. A., R. A. Myers, V. B. García, L. O. Lucifora, and A. Kuparinen. 2012. Life-718 history correlates of extinction risk and recovery potential. Ecological Applications 719 22:1061-1067.

720 Jones, K. E., J. Bielby, M. Cardillo, S. A. Fritz, J. O'Dell, C. D. L. Orme, K. Safi, W. Sechrest, 721 E. H. Boakes, and C. Carbone. 2009. PanTHERIA: a species-level database of life 722 history, ecology, and geography of extant and recently extinct mammals: Ecological 723 Archives E090-184. Ecology 90:2648-2648. 724 Kenchington, T. J. 2013. Natural mortality estimators for information-limited fisheries. Fish and 725 Fisheries. doi: 10.1111/faf.12027 726 Kolokotrones, T., E. J. Van Savage, and W. Fontana. 2010. Curvature in metabolic scaling. 727 Nature 464:753-756. 728 Lebreton, J.-D. 1981. Contribution à la dynamique des populations d'oiseaux: Modèles 729 mathématiques en temps discret. Université Lyon I, Villeurbanne, France. Lewison, R., L. Crowder, A. Read, and S. Freeman. 2004. Understanding impacts of fisheries 730 731 bycatch on marine megafauna. Trends in Ecology and Evolution 19: 598–604. 732 Leslie, P. H. 1966. The intrinsic rate of increase and the overlap of successive generations in a 733 population of Guillemots (*Uria aalge Pont.*). The Journal of Animal Ecology 35:291-301. 734 Lunn, D. J., A. Thomas, N., Best, and D. Spiegelhalter. 2000. WinBUGS - a Bayesian modelling 735 framework: concepts, structure, and extensibility. Statistics and Computing 10:325-337. 736 Lynch, H. J., and W. F. Fagan. 2009. Survivorship curves and their impact on the estimation of 737 maximum population growth rates. Ecology 90:1116-1124. 738 Moore, J. E., K. A. Curtis, R. L. Lewison, P. W. Dillingham, J. M. Cope, S. V. Fordham, S. S. 739 Heppell, S. A. Pardo, C. A. Simpfendorfer, G. N. Tuck, and S. Zhou. 2013. Evaluating 740 sustainability of fisheries bycatch mortality for marine megafauna: a review of 741 conservation reference points for data-limited populations. Environmental Conservation 742 40:329-344.

743 Morris, W. F., and D. F. Doak. 2002. Quantitative conservation biology. Sinauer Associates, 744 Sunderland, Massachusetts. 745 Niel, C., and J.-D. Lebreton, 2005. Using demographic invariants to detect overharvested bird 746 populations from incomplete data. Conservation Biology 19:826-835. 747 O'Connor, M. P., S. J. Agosta, F. Hansen, S. J. Kemp, A. E. Sieg, J. N. McNair, and A. E. 748 Dunham. 2007. Phylogeny, regression, and the allometry of physiological traits. The 749 American Naturalist 170:431-442. 750 R Development Core Team. 2013. R: a language and environment for statistical computing. R 751 Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria. <www.R-project.org> 752 Richard, Y., and E. Abraham. 2013. Application of Potential Biological Removal methods to seabird populations. New Zealand Aquatic Environment and Biodiversity Report No. 753 754 108. 30 p. Savage, V. M., J. Gillooly, W. Woodruff, G. West, A. Allen, B. Enquist, and J. Brown. 2004a. 755 756 The predominance of quarter-power scaling in biology. Functional Ecology 18:257-282. 757 Savage, V. M., J. F. Gillooly, J. H. Brown, G. B. West, and E. L. Charnov. 2004b. Effects of 758 body size and temperature on population growth. The American Naturalist 163:429-441. 759 Savage, V. M., E. P. White, M. E. Moses, S. M. Ernest, B. J. Enquist, and E. L. Charnov. 2006. 760 Comment on "The illusion of invariant quantities in life histories". Science 312:198-198. 761 Sibly, R. M., D. Barker, M. C. Denham, J. Hone, and M. Pagel. 2005. On the regulation of 762 populations of mammals, birds, fish, and insects. Science 309:607-610. 763 Simpfendorfer, C., E. Cortés, M. Heupel, E. Brooks, E. Babcock, J. Baum, R. McAuley, S. 764 Dudley, J. D. Stevens, and S. Fordham. 2008. An integrated approach to determining the

765	risk of overexploitation for data-poor pelagic Atlantic sharks. An Expert Working Group
766	Report. Lenfest Ocean Program, Washington, D.C.
767	Skalski, J. R., J. J. Millspaugh, and K. E. Ryding. 2008. Effects of asymptotic and maximum age
768	estimates on calculated rates of population change. Ecological Modelling 212:528-535.
769	Sturtz, S., U. Ligges, and A. Gelman. 2005. R2WinBUGS: A Package for Running WinBUGS
770	from R. Journal of Statistical Software, 12:1-16.
771	Tacutu, R., T. Craig, A. Budovsky, D. Wuttke, G. Lehmann, D. Taranukha, J. Costa, V. E.
772	Fraifeld, and J. P. de Magalhaes. 2013. Human Ageing Genomic Resources: Integrated
773	databases and tools for the biology and genetics of ageing. Nucleic Acids Research
774	41:D1027-D1033.
775	Taylor, B. L., P. R. Wade, D. P. De Master, and J. Barlow. 2000. Incorporating uncertainty into
776	management models for marine mammals. Conservation Biology 14:1243-1252.
777	Thomas, A., B. O'Hara, U. Ligges, and S. Sturtz. 2006. Making BUGS Open. R News 6:12-17.
778	Wade, P. R. 1998. Calculating limits to the allowable human-caused mortality of cetaceans and
779	pinnipeds. Marine Mammal Science 14:1-37.
780	Warton, D. I., I. J. Wright, D. S. Falster, and M. Westoby. 2006. Bivariate line-fitting methods
781	for allometry. Biological Reviews 81:259-291.
782	Williams, G. C. 1966. Natural selection, the costs of reproduction, and a refinement of Lask's
783	Principle. The American Naturalist 100: 687-690.
784	
785	Supplemental material
786	
787	Annendix

788	Appendix A: Data analysis to estimate allometric parameters for mammals and sharks, and		
789	parameterising models for case studies		
790			
791	Supplement		
792	Supplement 1: Worked example for the rT-exact and rT-adjusted methods		
793	Supplement 2: Intrinsic growth (r_{max}) and vital rate estimates for 41 mammal species		



Table 1. Sensitivity of λ_{max} to the allometric constant (a_{rT}) , adult survival (s), the ratios of breeding success and juvenile survival to adult survival (c_1, c_2) , age at first reproduction (α) , and the proportion of adults breeding (k) for an archetypical *Procellaria sp.* petrel for matrix, demographic invariant method (DIM), and rT-exact models. Sensitivities were calculated based on the values $a_{rT} = 1$, s = 0.947, $c_1 = 0.8$, $c_2 = 0.9$, $\alpha = 7$, and k = 0.75.

		Model-type	
Parameter	Matrix	DIM	rT-exact
a_{rT}	na	0.106	0.073
\boldsymbol{S}	1.130	-0.512	na
c_1	0.091	na	0.028
c_2	0.081	na	0.025
α	-0.009	-0.008	-0.008
k	0.097	na	0.030

FIGURE LEGENDS

802

803

804

805

806

807

808

809

810

811

812

813

814

815

816

817

818

819

820

821

822

823

801

Figure 1. The inverted relationship between optimal adult survival (s_{opt}) and intrinsic growth (r_{max}) for matrix and allometric models can be used to predict r_{max} . The allometric model states the product of intrinsic growth and optimal generation time $(r_{\text{max}}T_{\text{opt}})$ is approximately a constant (a_{rT}) . When $r_{\text{max}}T_{\text{opt}} = a_{rT}$ (Eq. 3) (a,b), we term this an rT-ideal population and consider it to represent an archetypical population. In (a), s_{opt} is the only unknown, while in (b, c) there is uncertainty in multiple parameters. In (a), the rT-exact solution (•) occurs where the matrix model solution (--) intersects the allometric solution (DIM, Niel and Lebreton 2005). In (b), multiple demographic-parameter combinations from the matrix model within a small tolerance (δ = 0.05) of DIM are rT-exact (•) while others (•) are not. In (c), the rT-adjusted method allows individual species to deviate from being rT-ideal $(r_{\text{max}}T_{\text{opt}} \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2); \text{ Eq. 4})$, with iterations near DIM more likely to be accepted (•) than not (•), but populations are not required to be rT-ideal. Figure 2. Log-log regressions of optimal generation time (T_{opt}) versus maximum growth rate (r_{max}) for (a) birds (\triangle), (b) mammals (\blacklozenge), and (c) sharks (\blacklozenge). The regression slopes were set to -1 as predicted by Equation 1, and the regression fit only the intercepts. Figure 3. Distributions for λ_{max} for white sharks using matrix model (black), DIM (clear), and rTadjusted (grey) methods. Distribution of matrix model estimates solely reflects measurement

uncertainty in matrix model parameters. Expected λ_{max} from the allometric-based DIM are

calculated using the estimator of Niel and Lebreton (2005) and incorporate population variability

from the allometric constant ($a_{rT} = 1$, $\sigma_{rT} = 0.4$, CV(σ_{rT}) = 0.35, generated from a log-normal

distribution) as well as uncertainty in age at first reproduction (α) and optimal adult survival (s_{opt}). The distribution from the rT-adjusted method accounts for uncertainty in all demographic parameters adjusting for allometric patterns and population variability.











