



# Interaction of hydric and thermal conditions drive geographic variation in thermoregulation in a widespread lizard

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1 **Interaction of hydric and thermal conditions drive geographic variation in thermoregulation in a**  
2 **widespread lizard**

3 **Running head:** Water driven thermoregulation strategies

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29 non-avian reptiles

30

31 **Abstract**

32 Behavioral thermoregulation is an efficient mechanism to buffer the physiological effects of climate  
33 change. Thermal ecology studies have traditionally tested how thermal constraints shape  
34 thermoregulatory behaviors without accounting for the potential major effects of landscape  
35 structure and water availability. Thus, we lack a general understanding of the multifactorial  
36 determinants of thermoregulatory behaviors in natural populations. In this study, we quantified the  
37 relative contribution of elevation, thermal gradient, moisture gradient and landscape structure in  
38 explaining geographic variation in thermoregulation strategies of a terrestrial ectotherm species. We  
39 measured field active body temperature, thermal preferences and operative environmental  
40 temperatures to calculate thermoregulation indices, including thermal quality of the habitat and  
41 thermoregulation efficiency for a very large sample of common lizards (*Zootoca vivipara*) from 21  
42 populations over 3 years across the Massif Central mountain range in France. We used an  
43 information-theoretic approach to compare eight *a priori* thermo-hydroregulation hypotheses  
44 predicting how behavioral thermoregulation should respond to environmental conditions.  
45 Environmental characteristics exerted little influence on thermal preference with the exception that  
46 females from habitats with permanent access to water had lower thermal preferences. Field body  
47 temperatures and accuracy of thermoregulation were best predicted by the interaction between air  
48 temperature and a moisture index. In mesic environments, field body temperature and  
49 thermoregulation inaccuracy increased with air temperature, but they decreased in drier habitats.  
50 Thermoregulation efficiency (difference between thermoregulation inaccuracy and the thermal  
51 quality of the habitat) was maximized in cooler and more humid environments and was mostly

52 influenced by the thermal quality of the habitat. Our study highlights complex patterns of variation  
53 in thermoregulation strategies, which are mostly explained by the interaction between temperature  
54 and water availability, independent of the elevation gradient or thermal heterogeneity. Although  
55 changes in landscape structure were expected to be the main driver of extinction rate of temperate  
56 zone ectotherms with ongoing global change, we conclude that changes in water availability  
57 coupled with rising temperatures might have a drastic impact on the population dynamics of some  
58 ectotherm species.

## 59 **Introduction**

60 In a climate changing world, as average temperatures and frequency of heatwaves increase (IPCC  
61 2014), organisms are exposed to repeated challenges in their capacity to regulate their body  
62 temperature in order to optimize their physiological performance and fitness (Angilletta et al. 2002).  
63 Behavioral thermoregulation (i.e., regulation of body temperature through behavioral means;  
64 Angilletta 2009) is essential for ectotherms to rapidly adjust performance level to temperature  
65 fluctuations (Kearney et al. 2009, Huey et al. 2012, Gunderson and Stillman 2015, Buckley et al.  
66 2015). These behaviors involve flexible changes in activity patterns (e.g., Porter et al. 1973, Grant  
67 1990), micro-habitat selection (e.g., Kleckova et al. 2014), movement decisions (e.g., Vickers et al.  
68 2016) or adjustments in body posture (e.g., Barton et al. 2014). The suitability of a habitat for  
69 ectotherms depends on the spatial variation in local temperatures and the tradeoffs associated with  
70 in the costs and benefits of thermoregulatory behaviors (Sunday et al. 2014). For example,  
71 differences in body temperature along elevational gradients can be small or even non-existent in  
72 some ectotherms despite substantial changes in ambient temperatures (Van Damme et al. 1989,  
73 Zamora-Camacho et al. 2013), because behavioral compensation facilitates the ability of animals to  
74 attain physiological optimal body temperatures even in cold environments (Adolph 1990, Gvoždík  
75 2002). However, the predictors of these costs and benefits from thermoregulation are diverse, and  
76 we lack multivariate studies of geographic variation in thermoregulatory behaviors (Angilletta  
77 2009).

78 The classical cost and benefit model of thermoregulation predicts that behavioral strategies of  
79 ectotherms should range from active thermoregulation (i.e., maintaining a constant body  
80 temperature despite environmental variation) to thermoconformity (i.e., body temperature matches  
81 environmental conditions) depending on the costs of thermoregulation imposed by local thermal  
82 conditions (Huey and Slatkin 1976). When local thermal conditions deviate from an organism's  
83 preferred body temperature, the model predicts that ectotherms should lower their thermoregulation

84 effort and accuracy (Huey and Slatkin 1976, Herczeg et al. 2006, 2008). However, when benefits of  
85 active thermoregulation increase in poor quality habitats and there is a risk of overheating,  
86 increased thermoregulation effort and accuracy can be beneficial for ectotherms despite costs due to  
87 missed opportunities for foraging or other behaviors (Blouin-Demers and Weatherhead 2002,  
88 Blouin-Demers and Nadeau 2005, Vickers et al. 2011). Thus, terrestrial ectotherms often increase  
89 thermoregulation effort in poor thermal environments to realize the benefits of attaining preferred  
90 temperatures or avoiding lethal overheating (Sunday et al. 2014, Buckley et al. 2015). Given that  
91 mean thermal conditions change with elevation, latitude, or time of the year, an implicit prediction  
92 of the cost and benefit model of thermoregulation is that thermoregulatory behaviors should change  
93 along an elevational or latitudinal gradient (Hypothesis 1, Table 1, Adolph 1990, Caldwell et al.  
94 2017) or in response to short-term changes in ambient temperatures (Hypothesis 2, Table 1, Blouin-  
95 Demers and Weatherhead 2002). The relative importance of short-term changes in thermoregulatory  
96 behaviors versus stable differences across a geographic gradient is not yet clear and can only be  
97 elucidated with multiyear studies of several populations (Samietz et al. 2005, Huey et al. 2012,  
98 Caldwell et al. 2017).

99 Recent models and experiments have suggested that the spatial heterogeneity of thermal conditions  
100 within a habitat might be a better predictor of the costs of thermoregulation than the mean thermal  
101 environment (Caillon et al. 2014, Sears and Angilletta 2015, Sears et al. 2016, Basson et al. 2017).  
102 Heterogeneity of thermal conditions at a small spatial scale can be caused by differences in  
103 vegetation height or topography (i.e. shade availability) within the home ranges of animals. One  
104 prediction from these recent models is that spatial heterogeneity reduces the costs of  
105 thermoregulation by allowing energy-free investment in basking through shuttling of an individual  
106 between different thermal microhabitats (Sears and Angilletta 2015, Sears et al. 2016). Thus,  
107 behavioral thermoregulation should be more efficient in heterogeneous habitats than in  
108 homogeneous habitats even when the mean thermal quality of the habitat is poor (e.g., Goller et al.

2014). Based on the individual-based model of thermoregulatory behavior in a ground dwelling ectotherm of Sears and Angilletta (2015), a low thermoregulation efficiency should, for example, evolve in more homogeneous habitats (Hypothesis 3, Table 1). In addition, the importance of landscape heterogeneity should be more critical under strong thermal constraints, whether cold or hot, because landscape heterogeneity favors a greater reduction in the costs of thermoregulation when mean conditions deviate from the preferred temperature range (Hypothesis 4, Table 1, Herczeg et al. 2003, Sears et al. 2016). Unfortunately, support for both predictions are rare, since most comparative studies of behavioral thermoregulation are based on the mean thermal quality at the population level without consideration of the spatial distribution of micro-habitats within a landscape (Gvoždík 2002, Herczeg et al. 2003, Blouin-Demers and Nadeau 2005). As suggested by Sears et al. (2016), we need an explicit map of operative environmental temperatures ( $T_e$ , i.e., steady-state temperature of the animal without behavioral or physiological regulation, Bakken et al. 1985) from each habitat to reach a full understanding of the costs of thermoregulation across an environmental gradient.

Ongoing climate change is not only modifying the thermal quality of the environment, but also affects the water availability, through changes in precipitation rates and frequency and magnitude of drought (Field et al. 2012). Water availability, in the form of moisture or free-standing water in the environment, is another predictor of the costs of thermoregulatory behavior. Water restriction can compromise the regulation of water balance and the accuracy of thermoregulation at high body temperatures (e.g., Dupoué et al. 2015, Lourdais et al. 2017, Pirtle et al. 2019). Water restriction in the environment is therefore expected to decrease behavioral activity (Lorenzon et al. 1999, Kearney et al. 2018, Pirtle et al. 2019) and to change micro-habitat selection such that ectotherms avoid the risks of dehydration (Pintor et al. 2016, Pirtle et al. 2019). In addition, thermal performance curves are often maximized at lower body temperatures in dehydrated compared to fully-hydrated animals, which may select for lower preferred body temperature and thermal

depression in more seric environments (e.g., Ladyman and Bradshaw 2003, Muir et al. 2007, Anderson and Andrade 2017). The number of studies focusing on the effect of water availability and water balance on behavioral thermoregulation in ectotherms is growing (Pintor et al. 2016, Rozen-Rechels et al. 2020), but few have quantified the joint effects of water availability and the thermal environment on thermoregulation strategies to date. Variation in water availability in the environment may be described by persistent differences in the presence or absence of free water (Dupoué et al. 2017b, 2018) or by moisture gradients (Tieleman et al. 2003). When population sites have consistent differences in the availability of permanent water, adaptive shifts towards lower optimal body temperatures can be expected to limit water loss in dry environments where the water debt cannot be recovered by drinking (Hypothesis 5 in Table 1, Davis and DeNardo 2009, Lillywhite et al. 2012). Moreover the magnitude of change in thermoregulation strategies should be greater in xeric than in mesic habitats as the environment gets warmer (Hypothesis 7, Table 1) and in homogeneous landscapes (Hypothesis 8 in Table 1) as proposed by the concept of thermohydroregulation (Rozen-Rechels et al. 2019). Another possibility is that variation in water availability in the environment is caused by short-term changes in air moisture or rainfall due to weather fluctuations. Rainfall variability has for example been shown to drive changes in behavioral activity of ectotherms or to change their micro-habitat selection (Davis and DeNardo 2009, Ryan et al. 2016, Kearney et al. 2018). This variability can be described by year to year differences in the risk of dehydration for which atmospheric water vapor pressure is an accurate predictor (Spotila 1972, Lourdais et al. 2017). In this context, one can therefore predict that dry local conditions, favoring dehydration and characterized by low water vapour pressure in the air, should alter thermoregulation strategies just as surface water would (Rozen-Rechels et al. 2020, Hypothesis 6 in Table 1).

All things considered, quantifying the relative importance of thermal conditions, hydric conditions and habitat heterogeneity thus requires comparative, multi-year studies to understand the key



159 drivers of geographic variation in thermoregulatory behavior. Here, we surveyed geographical  
160 variation in the thermoregulation strategies of a cold-adapted vertebrate species, the common lizard  
161 (*Zootoca vivipara*, Lacertidae, Lichtenstein, 1823) over three years. The sampled sites included in  
162 our study are located at the southern margin of the distribution of the species. Previous work has  
163 demonstrated that climate warming induces changes in life-history strategies in these populations  
164 (e.g., Chamaillé-Jammes et al. 2006). Annual variability in the phenology of reproduction as well as  
165 reproductive effort correlates with changes in ambient temperature (Le Galliard et al. 2010,  
166 Rutschmann et al. 2016b, 2016a). Moreover, geographic variation in water availability influences  
167 the species' thermal ecology and water balance (Lorenzon et al. 1999, 2001, Dupoué et al. 2017a,  
168 2018) as well as their physiological sensitivity to extreme thermal conditions (Dupoué et al. 2018).  
169 Thermal and water conditions further interact in predicting dispersal and population extinctions  
170 (Massot et al. 2002, 2008, Dupoué et al. 2017b). The common lizard has been described as an  
171 active, efficient thermoregulator relying on flexible changes in microhabitat selection and basking  
172 behavior to regulate its body temperature (Gvoždík 2002, Herczeg et al. 2003). Although body  
173 temperatures vary among populations due to differences in local temperature, previous comparative  
174 studies have suggested that thermal preferences and indices of thermoregulation do not differ  
175 between low and high elevation populations with contrasted mean thermal conditions (Van Damme  
176 et al. 1990, Gvoždík 2002). Here, we moved a step forward to sample 21 populations and ca. 2000  
177 lizards along an elevational gradient at a regional scale (Massif Central, France) over three summers  
178 to gather data across 31 population-year combinations. We used an information-theoretic approach  
179 to test the eight hypotheses summarized in Table 1 and evaluate how the thermal and hydric quality  
180 of the environment may explain variation in behavioral thermoregulation of the common lizard.

## 181 **Material and methods**

### 182 ***Study species and sampling***

183 The common lizard (*Zootoca vivipara*) is a widespread Eurasian ectotherm species distributed from  
184 the southern European mountains up to Finland and from Western Europe to the Pacific Coast of  
185 Russia. This species inhabits wetlands (e.g., peatbogs and marshes), mesic meadows, and heathland  
186 where persistence of local populations depends on cool climates and high soil moisture conditions  
187 (Lorenzon et al. 2001, Massot et al. 2002, Dupoué et al. 2018). Most of the natural populations  
188 outside of the southern Europe refugia are characterized by ovoviviparous reproduction, including  
189 the focal populations of in this study. In our study area, males emerge from hibernation in April.  
190 Yearlings and adult females emerge later from end of April to early May. Mating occurs soon after  
191 the emergence of adult females and gestation lasts approximately two months. Parturition occurs  
192 between early July and early August depending on weather conditions (Bleu et al. 2013,  
193 Rutschmann et al. 2016b).

194 Our focal populations are located in the mountain ranges of Massif Central in south-central  
195 France on a 500 meters elevation gradient clustering most of the species population in the area (see  
196 Table S1). The study sites are located in a variety of habitat types and include: wet meadows, heath  
197 lands, and glades within dense forest patches. The habitat may also include open forest with  
198 dispersed trees or shrubby vegetation (pine trees, *Pinus* spp., juniper trees, *Juniperus* spp., scotch  
199 broom, *Cytisus scoparius* and gorse, *Ulex* spp.) or low growth shrubs (heather, *Caluna vulgaris*, and  
200 blueberry, *Vaccinium* spp.) that offer contrasting thermal micro-habitats and shelters. We sampled  
201 21 populations between 2016 and 2018. Most populations were sampled at least twice in differing  
202 years, but some were only sampled once (Table S1). Sites ranged in size from 0.6 to 12 ha and  
203 occurred in a diversity of habitats ranging from open meadows without permanent access to water  
204 to forest clearing with free standing water (Figure 1 and Table S1). The two closest sites were more  
205 than 700 meters away from each other and the landscape in the region is fragmented by roads,  
206 closed forest, pasture and other unsuitable habitats for the species. The probability that two sites are  
207 connected by a permanent flow of migrants is thus low. Capture dates in focal populations varied to

208 accommodate current weather conditions within each sample year. Our capture dates occurred from  
209 June 20<sup>th</sup> to June 29<sup>th</sup>, 2016, from June 12<sup>th</sup> to June 26<sup>th</sup>, 2017 and from June 9<sup>th</sup> to June 28<sup>th</sup>, 2018.  
210 In each population, we captured yearlings (less than 2 years old), adult gravid females and adult  
211 males (2 years old or more). We attempted to capture 20-24 adult females, 10 adult males and 20  
212 yearlings (sex ratio 1:1) per population (see Table S2). We measured snout-vent length (average  
213 SVL  $\pm$  SD; yearlings:  $43 \pm 6$  mm; adult females:  $62 \pm 5$  mm; adult males:  $55 \pm 4$  mm) and body  
214 mass (BM: yearlings:  $1.50 \pm 0.57$  g; adult females:  $4.47 \pm 1.32$  g; adult males:  $3.35 \pm 0.67$  g).  
215 Adult gravid females and adult males were then brought to the laboratory and housed in individual  
216 terraria (females:  $25 \times 15 \times 16$  cm, males:  $18 \times 11 \times 12$  cm) with peat soil and a shelter. A  
217 temperature gradient between 20 to 35°C, which is representative of the gradient of temperatures  
218 found in natural population sites, was created in the terraria for 6 hours in the day (from 09:00 to  
219 12:00 and from 14:00 to 17:00) with 25W incandescent bulbs placed above one side of each of the  
220 terrarium to allow thermoregulation. Water was supplied to individuals by misting the terraria three  
221 times per day at 09:00, 12:00 and 17:00. Individuals were not fed for two days after capture to  
222 ensure a post-absorptive state during the thermal preference tests (see below). Lizards were fed  
223 once every two days with 2 domestic crickets (*Acheta domestica*) until they were released (after  
224 parturition for females or after measurements for males; Rutschmann et al. 2016b, Dupoué et al.  
225 2018). In one population subject to a long-term mark-recapture study (ROB; Table S2), we also  
226 brought yearlings back to the laboratory to assess age-related differences in thermal preferences.

### 227 ***Description of climate and habitat characteristics***

228 We described the focal sites using well-defined meteorological, microhabitat and landscape  
229 variables to test our hypotheses (summarized in Table S1, with accurate locations and area of the  
230 sites). First, elevation ELE and the Emberger pluviometric quotient Q (Daget 1977, see below,  
231 Figure 2) were scored in order to test for consistent differences among populations along the  
232 elevational cline and along a historic climatic cline. The calculation of elevation allowed us to test

for potential trends of thermoregulatory strategies variations from the lowest altitude populations in this geographic area up to mountain tops. The elevation gradient in our study area ranged from 1099 to 1527 meters. In addition, the calculation of the pluviometric quotient  $Q$  allowed us to test for a consistent trend along a historic, climatic gradient of aridity (lower precipitations and higher temperatures). To calculate the pluviometric quotient, meteorological variables were extracted from the AURELHY database of temperature and precipitation records over France from 1971 to 2000 extrapolated at a 1 km<sup>2</sup> scale (provided by Météo France, see Bénichou and Le Breton (1987) for a description of the dataset). This database has the finest resolution grid and accounts for relief differences in interpolating the data, which is important for extracting correct statistics for each population in this geographic area. From these data, the Emberger pluviometric quotient for each site was given by:

$$Q = \frac{100 \times P}{T_{ARLmax}^2 - T_{ARLmin}^2}$$

where  $P$  is the average annual precipitation in cm and  $T_{ARLmin}$  (respectively  $T_{ARLmax}$ ) the average of daily minimum temperature of the coldest month (respectively average of daily maximum temperature of the warmest month). The pluviometric quotient among the focal sites ranged from 228.1 to 563.3. None of the sites could thus be characterized as arid.

Second, we obtained local weather conditions for each year at each site including air temperature and water vapor pressure. These variables allowed us to measure both geographic and temporal changes in the microclimate conditions, and therefore quantify the specific meteorological conditions during the study period instead of long-term historical trends. We measured local weather conditions at each site and each year with 1 to 3 temperature and humidity dataloggers placed on the ground in the shade of the representative vegetation (Hygrochron iButtons, Maxim Integrated Products, Sunnyvale, CA, USA,  $\pm 0.5$  °C and 5% relative humidity—RH). At one site (ROB), we placed an additional 18 temperature loggers in different types of vegetation to calculate spatial variation in thermal conditions. For each sample site, we calculated the average 10:00 to

18:00 minimal and maximal air temperatures (hereafter called  $T_{\min}$  and  $T_{\max}$ ) and the average 10:00 to 18:00 maximal water vapor pressure (hereafter called  $P_{\max}$ ; see Supplementary Information 1 for further information on measurements, calculations and choice of variable as well as Rutschmann et al. 2016A and Dupoué et al. 2018). We restricted these calculations from 10:00 to 18:00 in order to compare local microclimatic conditions during the diurnal activity period of the lizards, because this interval is the most relevant to thermal quality of the environment during thermoregulation.

Third, we characterized habitat attributes including the presence of free water (permanent access or temporary access, hereafter called FW, see Dupoué et al. 2017b), an index of forest cover, the evenness in thermal micro-habitat diversity and the homogeneity of the thermal landscape. Sixteen sites had permanent sources of water, either streams or ponds, whereas 5 sites had access to temporary pools or streams. To characterize the landscape, we took aerial georeferenced digital photographs of all sites with a Phantom 4 Pro drone (DJI, Shenzhen, China). In most cases except for small sites (BARN, MON, LAJO), we took a georeferenced grid of pictures centered on each site with Pix4Dcapture (Pix4D SA, Prilly, Switzerland) and then reconstructed a georeferenced orthophoto with the Maps Made Easy application (<https://www.mapsmadeeasy.com/>). For small sites, the map was created from one picture and we aligned georeferencing with control points accurately geolocated on Google Earth maps (version 7.3.2, Google Inc. 2019). From each georeferenced orthophoto, we then generated an 8-level vegetation map by creating a vector layer where each polygon corresponds to a patch of one of 8 pre-defined vegetation types (grass, heather, bilberry, tree, bush, rock, naked soil, and dead tree). Vectors layers were constructed in QGIS (version 2.18; QGIS Development Team, 2018, QGIS Geographic Information System. Open Source Geospatial Foundation Project. <http://qgis.osgeo.org>) and downscaled to a 1-meter accuracy map (Figure S2).

We assessed the thermal quality of each vegetation type (i.e, each thermal microhabitat) by recording operative temperatures in all vegetation types and sites. To do so, we placed between 6

283 and 24 physical copper tube models fitted with HOBO® Pro v2 U23-003 (ONSET Cape Cod,  
284 Massachusetts) temperature loggers in representative vegetation types at each site. Sampled  
285 vegetation types were chosen in order to characterize as much as possible the vegetation diversity  
286 observed at each site. Each copper tube was 6 cm long and painted to mimic the dorsal coloration of  
287 a common lizard to match the biophysical, heat exchange properties of the species and record  
288 operative environmental temperatures ( $T_e$ ) in a diversity of vegetation types (Dzialowski 2005).  
289 Indeed, operative environmental temperatures provide the best estimate for microhabitat thermal  
290 quality (Bakken et al. 1985, Angilletta 2009, Sears and Angilletta 2015). The loggers recorded  
291 temperatures every minute during each capture episode. We calibrated the temperatures made with  
292 operative temperatures models by comparing the temperatures with dead individuals  
293 (Supplementary Information 2). In subsequent calculations, we averaged these measurements in 15-  
294 minute bins in order to compensate for short time changes in microclimatic conditions (e.g., due to  
295 wind or cloud cover). This time scale was also chosen because it captures heat exchange properties,  
296 i.e., thermal inertia, of small lizards such as the common lizard (Fraser and Grigg 1984). The  
297 average operative environmental temperature score of each site per year (hereafter called  $T_e$ ) over  
298 15-minute bins was calculated from the average  $T_e$  of all loggers in the site weighted by the  
299 abundance of the vegetation types in the site.

300 We also calculated an average  $T_e$  score, independent from site and year, for each of the 8 vegetation  
301 types, in order to obtain an objective estimate of thermal differences across all microhabitats (see  
302 Supplementary Information 2 and Figure S3 for details). The chosen vegetation types represented a  
303 diversity of thermal microhabitats with short vegetation (grass), short bush (heather or bilberry),  
304 bush, shade under a tree, full sun (rock, bare soil) and dead tree. We then constructed a “thermal  
305 map” of operative temperatures at each site by linking each pixel of our rasterized map to the  
306 average  $T_e$  score of the corresponding vegetation type. From the vegetation map and the thermal  
307 map, we then calculated three different indices of landscape heterogeneity. First, we calculated a

forest cover index defined as the proportion of trees within the site (hereafter called FCI). This index is a proxy of the proportion of shade in the habitat and has been often used to quantify habitat constraints on thermoregulation in heliothermic lizards (Huey and Slatkin 1976). It ranges from 0 (open landscape) to 1 (closed forest). In the focal sites, FCI ranges from 0 (open prairies, mainly grass) to 0.75 (sites in forest environments). Second, we calculated an index of thermal evenness (hereafter called TE). This index measures the diversity of average operative temperatures available in the landscape, corrected by the abundance of each microhabitat. TE ranges from 0 (low diversity and/or large dominance of a close range of operative temperatures) to 1 (diversified and equally abundant operative temperatures in the landscape). This index ranges from 0.06 to 0.47 indicating a low diversity of operative temperatures in the landscape. The lowest scored sites are those mainly covered in grass and open with few bushes. Third, we calculated an index of homogeneity based on the vegetation dissimilarity between adjacent pixels corrected by the difference of average operative temperatures between these pixels (hereafter called H). This index ranges from 0 (heterogeneous thermal landscape) to 1 (homogeneous thermal landscape). The focal sites were relatively homogeneous, with an index ranging from 0.78 to 0.96. All methods and calculations are described in detail in Supplementary Information 2.

### ***Thermal preferences and thermoregulation traits***

Immediately after capture, we measured cloacal body temperature  $T_b$  using a K-type thermocouple connected to a digital thermometer (Ecoscan PT100, Eutech Instruments Pte Ltd) inserted ca. 1 cm within the cloaca. We also obtained  $T_b$  data on additional individuals in the field that were not included in the laboratory studies. Two days after capture, we measured the thermal preferences ( $T_{pref}$ ) of all lizards returned back to the laboratory. Thermal preference represents the selected body temperature of an individual in an environment free of costs for thermoregulation and is assumed to match the optimal body temperatures for physiological performance (Hertz et al. 1993, Angilletta et al. 2002). Here, thermal preferences were measured in 20 separate thermal gradients ( $120 \times 25 \times 20$

333 cm) with a substrate of dried peat soil. One side of each gradient was heated with a 60W  
 334 incandescent bulb in order to approach the species critical thermal maximum  $CT_{max}$  ( $43.9 \pm 4.8$  °C,  
 335 Gvoždík and Castilla 2001) and the other end of the gradient was maintained at ambient  
 336 temperature ( $24.1 \pm 2.0$  °C). The range of temperatures provided in the thermal gradient therefore  
 337 allowed the lizards to select a body temperature with low thermoregulatory costs (Angilletta 2009).  
 338 A plastic shelter was placed under the heat bulb and water was supplied continuously during the  
 339 experiment with a permanently filled small petri dish on the cold side in order to limit the stress of  
 340 individuals in the terrarium. We note that this can confound measurements of thermal preferences  
 341 with shelter or water preferences, but the design was the same for all populations. Two UVB 30W  
 342 neon tubes provided natural white light above each gradient. Heat bulbs were turned on at  
 343 approximately 08:00 in the morning. At 9:00 in the morning or at 14:00 in the afternoon, two  
 344 individuals of the same age, sex and SVL ( $\pm 3$  mm maximum in the same gradient) were placed in  
 345 each gradient to acclimate for 30 minutes. Both individuals were identified with a drop of nail  
 346 polish placed on the dorsum side between the pelvis and tail. We did not observe any aggressive  
 347 behavior between individuals during any run. In addition, it was not unusual to observe the lizards  
 348 basking at the same spot, indicating that avoidance behaviors may not strongly influence our  
 349 measurements. After acclimation, the temperature of the dorsal surface  $T_{pref}$  of each lizard was  
 350 measured with an infrared thermometer (Raytek, Raynger MX2) every 15 minutes for 3h15. We  
 351 calculated the corresponding core body temperature from a calibration curve performed with  
 352 additional data on the same species (Artacho et al. 2013;  $R^2 = 0.96$ ;  $T_{core} = -4.50 (\pm 0.5 \text{ SE}) + 1.17$   
 353  $(\pm 0.03 \text{ SE}) \times T_{pref}$ ). We excluded from analyses the extremes of  $T_{core}$  (lower than 25°C and higher  
 354 than 41°C) with consideration that they corresponded to failed measurements aimed at the  
 355 substratum instead of the lizard back (results were similar qualitatively with all data included).  $T_{pref}$   
 356 referred to  $T_{core}$  in the following parts of the manuscript.



Variation of  $T_{pref}$  with the time of the day, date or individual status was investigated (see the  
 Statistical Analyses section, Supplementary Information 3 and 4). We further tested for differences  
 between thermal preferences of yearlings and adults at the same time of the year in one population  
 (ROB). These data showed that thermal preferences of yearlings (regardless of sex) and adult males  
 were not different (Figure 4A, Table S5, all details in Supplementary Information 3). Thus, we  
 assume that thermal preferences of males in each population were a good proxy of the thermal  
 preferences of yearlings. For each population and year, we calculated the average thermal  
 preferences of adult females and adult males/yearlings hereafter called  $\overline{T_{pref}}$  (average of all  $T_{pref}$   
 measurements for each year, population and age-sex category of individuals). To quantify how field  
 body temperatures of lizards deviate from their thermal preferences, we calculated the  
 thermoregulation inaccuracy, defined as the absolute difference between body temperature during  
 activity in the field and thermal preferences  $D_b = |\overline{T_{pref}} - T_b|$ , for each  $T_b$  measurement (Hertz et al.  
 1993, Blouin-Demers and Nadeau 2005). For each individual record, we used the average  $\overline{T_{pref}}$   
 from the same category of individuals (age and sex class) in the same population of the same year.  
 We further calculated thermal quality of the habitat, defined as the absolute difference between  
 operative temperatures and thermal preferences  $D_e = |\overline{T_{pref}} - T_e|$ , for each age-sex category of  
 lizards in each population each year and each 15 minutes' time bin (Hertz et al. 1993, Blouin-  
 Demers and Nadeau 2005). The ability of an individual to reach their thermal preference given the  
 thermal quality of the habitat is called thermoregulation efficiency or effectiveness of  
 thermoregulation. For each capture event, we calculated the index of thermoregulation efficiency,  $E$   
 ( $E = D_e - D_b$ ; Blouin-Demers and Nadeau 2005) based on the  $D_b$  calculated with  $T_b$  at capture and  
 the  $D_e$  for the same population during the 15 minutes' time bin of the capture time. When  $E = 0$ , the  
 body temperature of the lizard is the same as that of a physical model that is not thermoregulating  
 and there is therefore no evidence that individuals are active thermoregulators. If  $E > 0$ , individuals  
 are thermoregulating as they reach their preferred temperature even though the thermal environment

is not of sufficient quality for a thermoconformer. If  $E < 0$ , individuals are avoiding thermally suitable microhabitats.

### *Statistical analyses*

All analyses were performed with R version 3.4.4 “Someone to Lean On” (R Core Team 2018). We analysed variation of  $T_b$ ,  $T_{pref}$ ,  $D_b$ ,  $D_e$ , and  $E$  using linear mixed models with the function *lme* from the package nlme (Pinheiro and Bates 2006) after assessment of homoscedasticity and normality of residuals. As the distribution of  $D_b$  was not Gaussian, we used a square root transformation. For each variable, we followed the same logic for model selection procedure. We first fit a full model including all individual and time covariates as fixed effects and then selected a first minimum adequate model using backward model selection based on likelihood ratio tests. Time covariates included year (categorical, all response variables), hour of the day (continuous, for  $T_b$ ,  $D_b$ , and  $E$ ), and time of the day (morning or afternoon session,  $T_{pref}$ ). Individual covariates were age and/or sex (categorical, for  $T_b$ ,  $T_{pref}$  and  $D_b$ ) or category (categorical, adult females versus adult males and both sexes yearlings,  $D_e$ ,  $E$ , see Supplementary Information 3 and Figure 4A for motivation). Full models included additive effects of all covariates and two-way interaction terms between all individual covariates. For  $T_{pref}$  data, we analysed all temperatures recorded for each individual rather than a composite variable (e.g. mean or variance), unpublished data from the team showed that thermal preferences sometimes change depending on the hour of the day but also with the time spent in the gradient (unpublished data). We therefore also fit a two-way interaction between the time of the day the experiment was run (morning vs. afternoon) and the time spent since the beginning of the test (i.e., end of habituation). Population identity was included as a random effect. Individual identity nested in the population identity was also included as a random effect to account for repeated measurements on the same individual ( $T_{pref}$  data). When a minimum adequate model was selected, we determined whether the traits differed across populations. We tested the significance of the population identity random effect with log-likelihood

ratio test comparison of models fitted by REML (Pinheiro and Bates 2006, Bell et al. 2019). We subsequently compared the relative importance (sum of AICc over all models in which the variable appears) of environmental variables related to elevation, Emberger pluviometric quotient, microclimatic conditions and habitat features (see Table S6) using the Akaike information-based criterion (AICc) comparison procedure (Burnham and Anderson 2004) and a model averaging procedure from maximum likelihood estimates of model parameters (Burnham and Anderson 2002). Models were constructed from the best model selected during the first step described above (hereafter, called our null model) in which we added the environmental variables alone as fixed effects, or in two-way interactions. The main effects and interaction terms were selected based on our working hypotheses (Table 1). In order to test for sex or age-dependent effects, when sex, age, or the age-sex category of individuals was retained in the null model, we also added to our list of models the two-way interactions as well as the three-way interactions of environmental characteristic with the sex and/or the age variables. Correlations among the environmental variables tended to be low (see Table S4), but we excluded models with significant collinear variables ( $r > 0.5$ ). We also removed the few models that showed no convergence (listed in Table S6). For the purpose of model averaging calculations, all continuous covariates were mean centered and scaled by the standard deviation and categorical covariates (FW, sex and age) had their contrasts summed to zero. We selected the main effects and interaction terms with significant contributions to the variability of the traits based on the AICc difference between models, the relative weight of the models and the importance as well as conditional averages from model averaging procedure.

**Results**

Measured and calculated thermoregulation statistics for each population are presented in Table S2. Detailed results of the model selection procedures are presented in Table S6. Conditional averages of the most important environmental variables from model averaging are presented in Table 2.

*Variation in body temperature*

Field body temperature of lizards varied significantly among populations (proportional variance explained = 41%; LRT = 487.4,  $df = 1$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ ). The average body temperature also changed with the hour of the day following a quadratic function and was significantly explained by the interactions between age  $\times$  sex and sex  $\times$  year. Average adult female  $T_b$  was  $27.8 \pm 0.5$  °C, whereas female yearlings  $T_b$  were  $1.5 \pm 0.1$  °C warmer than adult females ( $t_{1963} = 10.0$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ ). Adult males  $T_b$  were  $1.2 \pm 0.3$  °C warmer than adult females ( $t_{1963} = 4.2$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ ). Male yearlings had approximately the same body temperatures as female yearlings and adult males (yearlings  $\times$  males:  $t_{1945} = -7.5$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ ). The most important environmental variables explaining geographic variation of body temperature included the pluviometric quotient Q (relative importance RI: 0.95) and  $T_{max}$  (RI = 0.95) and the two-way interaction Q  $\times$   $T_{max}$  (RI = 0.91, Figure 3A and B, Table S6). According to the best supported model, mean body temperatures were higher in populations characterized by a mesic environments (higher Q coefficient) with high  $T_{max}$  (Table 2, Figure 3A). In drier environments (low Q), body temperatures were almost consistent with minimal air temperatures  $T_{max}$ , whereas  $T_b$  increased with  $T_{max}$  in mesic environments (high Q).

#### ***Variation in thermal preference***

We identified significant differences in records from thermal gradient  $T_{pref}$  measurements among populations, however the variance explained among populations was quite low (variance explained = 2%; LRT = 48.2,  $df = 1$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ ) compared to the variation among individuals (proportional variance explained = 24%). Variation in  $T_{pref}$  was also significantly explained by an interaction of sex  $\times$  year, and between time of day (morning versus afternoon) when the  $T_{pref}$  was measured with the time since beginning of the test. Despite little quantitative variation among populations, our model comparison procedure uncovered that the forest cover index FCI as well as the two-way interaction between FCI and sex were significant variables explaining geographic variation in  $T_{pref}$  (RI of 0.85 and 0.84 respectively, Table 2).  $T_{pref}$  of females significantly increased with FCI (Figure 4B).

### 457 *Variation of thermoregulation inaccuracy*

458 The inaccuracy of thermoregulation  $D_b$  differed among populations (proportional variance  
 459 explained = 39%; LRT = 519.1,  $df = 1$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ ). Variation in  $D_b$  followed a quadratic function  
 460 of the hour of the day and was also significantly explained by a three-way interaction of sex  $\times$  age  $\times$   
 461 year. Values of mean  $D_b$  among males and yearlings did not differ from adult females in 2016  
 462 (males:  $t_{1959} = -0.3$ ,  $p = 0.79$ , yearlings:  $t_{1959} = -1.1$ ,  $p = 0.27$ , males  $\times$  yearlings:  $t_{1959} = 0.9$ ,  $p =$   
 463  $0.34$ ) and in 2018 (males:  $t_{1959} = -1.7$ ,  $p = 0.09$ , yearlings:  $t_{1959} = -0.3$ ,  $p = 0.76$ , males  $\times$  yearlings:  
 464  $t_{1959} = -0.9$ ,  $p = 0.37$ ). However, in 2017, males displayed mean  $\sqrt{D_b}$  values  $0.2 \pm 0.1$  °C higher than  
 465 females ( $t_{1959} = 2.0$ ,  $p = 0.05$ ) and yearlings of both sexes displayed mean  $\sqrt{D_b}$  values  $0.4 \pm 0.1$  °C  
 466 higher than females (yearlings:  $t_{1959} = 3.7$ ,  $p = 0.0003$ , males  $\times$  yearlings:  $t_{1959} = -2.4$ ,  $p = 0.02$ ).  
 467 They were thus less precise in their accuracy during that year. Geographic variation in  $D_b$  was  
 468 mostly explained by  $T_{\max}$  (RI=1), pluviometric quotient  $Q$  (RI=0.1) and their two-way interaction  
 469 (RI=0.1, Table S6). Thermal inaccuracy ( $D_b$  values) was lowest in drier (low  $Q$ ) and cooler habitats  
 470 (low  $T_{\max}$ ) and higher in more mesic (high  $Q$ ) and low  $T_{\max}$  (Table 2). The inaccuracy of  
 471 thermoregulation ( $D_b$ ) increased with pluviometric quotient at low minimal air temperature  $T_{\min}$ ,  
 472 and decreased with pluviometric quotient at high  $T_{\max}$  (Figure 3B).

### 473 *Variation in thermal quality of the habitat*

474 Thermal quality of the habitat  $D_e$  differed among populations (proportional variance explained =  
 475 36%; LRT = 678.3,  $df = 1$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ ). Values for  $D_e$  varied following a quadratic function of the  
 476 hour of the day. Geographic variation in  $D_e$  was mostly explained by  $P_{\max}$  (RI=1),  $T_{\min}$  (RI=1) and  
 477 their two-way interactions (RI=1, Table S6). In populations with average  $T_{\min}$ ,  $D_e$  increased with an  
 478 increase of  $P_{\max}$ . This effect vanished and was even inverted with an increase in local minimal air  
 479 temperature (Table 2). In most cases,  $T_e$  were below thermal preferences, i.e. thermal quality of the  
 480 habitat was in average too cold (Figures S3 and S4).

### 481 *Variation in thermoregulation efficiency*

482 The  $D_b$  values increased significantly with  $D_e$  (Figure 5, slope:  $0.2 \pm 0.02$ , intercept:  $6.4 \pm 0.4$ ;  
 483  $F_{1,1836} = 144.5$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ ). Variation in thermoregulation efficiency  $E$  followed a quadratic  
 484 function of the hour of the day (decreased with the hour of the day after which it increased again).  
 485 In addition,  $E$  differed among populations (proportional variance explained = 46%; LRT = 781.7, df  
 486 = 1,  $p < 0.0001$ ). Geographic variation in  $E$  was significantly explained by  $T_{\min}$  (RI=1),  $P_{\max}$  (RI=1),  
 487 and the two-way interaction  $P_{\max} \times T_{\min}$  (RI=1, Table S6, Figure 5). In other words,  
 488 thermoregulation efficiency  $E$  increased with minimal air temperature  $T_{\min}$  in populations with  
 489 higher water vapour pressure  $P_{\max}$ , whereas it decreased with  $T_{\min}$  in populations with high  $P_{\max}$   
 490 (Table 2, Figure 6).

## 491 Discussion

492 In this study, we tested whether geographic differences in elevation or climate dryness, year- and  
 493 site-specific differences in air temperature and moisture, habitat differences in water availability  
 494 and habitat differences in spatial landscape features of the vegetation influenced thermoregulation  
 495 strategies across multiple populations of a widespread lizard species. Our results highlight that  
 496 thermoregulation behaviors are mainly shaped by interactions between local site- and year-specific  
 497 air temperatures, historical differences in the Emberger pluviometric quotient and the local annual  
 498 air moisture conditions, supporting the thermo-hydroregulation hypothesis (Hypothesis 7; results  
 499 supporting each hypothesis are summarized in Table 3). Body temperature, and as a consequence  
 500 thermoregulation inaccuracy, was influenced by an interaction between local air temperatures and  
 501 the historical differences in climate dryness of the site. Preferred temperature of lizards was  
 502 significantly lower for adult females and in populations with permanent access to water. Finally,  
 503 thermoregulation efficiency and the quality of the thermal habitat, were highly variable among  
 504 populations and were influenced by the interaction between air temperature and air moisture, which  
 505 were calculated for each site and each year. In contrast, persistent, historical differences in weather  
 506 conditions and habitat features had little effects on these thermoregulation statistics.

Thermoregulation traits were not influenced by elevation or by the thermal landscape of the sites, rejecting hypotheses 1, 3, 4 and 8 (Table 3).

***Thermo-hydroregulation as a driver of the geographic trends in thermoregulatory behaviors***

Geographic variation in body temperature and in thermoregulation accuracy was best explained by the interaction between the local ambient thermal conditions quantified each year at each population and the pluviometric quotient (Q score, an index of the dryness of the climate) calculated from historical weather data for each population. As expected, body temperatures of lizards increased with local air temperatures at the study site, but this correlation was evident in only the most mesic climates (high Q score). In addition, the thermoregulation inaccuracy decreased with local air temperatures. However, the pattern was stronger in more mesic climates, as indicated by a high value of Q. We note that, on average, field active body temperatures were below the thermal preference sets and field thermoregulation behavior was “sub-optimal”. However, according to our best supported statistical models, we predicted that thermal preferences of lizards should be almost attained in the warmer local climate conditions and in the sites occurring in the most historically mesic climates.

According to the thermo-hydroregulation hypothesis (hypothesis 7 in Table 1), the costs of thermoregulation depend on the risks of desiccation and over-heating, which are generally more important in drier climates (e.g., Dupoué et al. 2017b, 2018) and should increase in warmer climatic conditions (e.g., Lourdais et al. 2017, Rozen-Rechels et al. 2019). We thus expect thermoregulation to be more accurate in sites with lower costs of desiccation when local climate conditions are warmer (Rozen-Rechels et al. 2019). Our results are concordant with these expectations, which emphasizes the importance of non-energetic costs of thermoregulation due to a higher risk of dehydration in populations with long-term patterns of a dry climate accompanied by high ambient temperature. One explanation is that selection favoring behavioral thermoregulatory strategies to limit dehydration led to either plastic or genetic adaptive responses in lizard populations occupying

historically drier climate conditions. To our knowledge, this is the first demonstration that a climate dryness index, calculated from rainfall and temperature data, accurately predicts geographic variation in thermoregulation strategies in an ectotherm (see Tieleman et al. 2003 in endotherms). This complements recent data by Kearney et al. (2018), who observed that activity patterns in another species of lizard were also sensitive to both local temperature and rainfall patterns. In addition, we found that the thermoregulation inaccuracy had a positive correlation with the thermal quality of the habitat with a slope  $< 1$  (Figure 5), suggesting that in our study system, the common lizard is intermediate between a perfect thermoregulator and a perfect thermoconformer (Hertz et al. 1993). Variation in thermoregulation efficiency, calculated from the difference between the thermal inaccuracy of the lizard and the thermal quality of the habitat, was best explained by an interactive effect between ambient thermal conditions and local air moisture, which provides additional support to the thermo-hydroregulation hypothesis (hypothesis 7 in Table 1). Air moisture, another measure of the hydric quality of the habitat, explained geographic variation in the thermal quality of the habitat ( $D_e$ ) and in thermoregulation efficiency ( $E$ ), whereas the historical aridity index (Q score) best explained the thermoregulation inaccuracy. In low air moisture conditions, thermoregulation efficiency exhibited a slight increase with minimal air temperature. In contrast, in high air moisture conditions, thermoregulation efficiency was maximal at low air temperatures and displayed a striking decrease as air temperatures increased. These results suggest that the relation between air temperature and thermoregulation efficiency is constrained at low air moisture conditions, i.e. when local microclimatic conditions at the site are more desiccating. They further indicate that variation in thermoregulation efficiency are mainly explained by local and yearly moisture-driven changes in the thermal quality of the habitat rather than historical differences in climatic conditions characterizing each population (as described by the pluviometric quotient Q). However geographic variation of thermoregulation accuracy was best explained by long-term and historical weather conditions rather than local annual weather conditions. We note



that this was not due to some model inconsistency due to a collinearity between variables because the pluviometric quotient and the moisture conditions of a site were uncorrelated ( $F_{1,29} = 0.32$ ,  $p = 0.57$ ,  $R = -0.13$ ). Furthermore, differences in air moisture are mainly associated with potential differences in total rates of water loss from lizards in each site and each year (Spotila 1972, Mautz 1982), whereas differences in historical pluviometry may further influence soil moisture, availability of free-standing water throughout the year and ecosystem productivity. One potential interpretation of our findings is therefore that the risk of dehydration, which is typically enhanced in drier air conditions (Rozen-Rechels et al. 2019), decreased thermoregulation efficiency, which indicates that some non-energetic costs linked to water loss act as a constraint to thermoregulatory behaviors. Altogether, these results provide strong support for the thermo-hydroregulation hypothesis (Rozen-Rechels et al. 2019, Hypothesis 7 in Table 1), which posits that the thermoregulatory behavior of common lizards is shaped by a trade-off between body temperature regulation and water balance regulation.

#### ***Low geographical variability of thermal preferences***

Thermal preferences exhibited the lowest geographic variation among all thermoregulation statistics investigated in this study. A striking pattern was that intra-population variation in thermal preferences (24%) was unexpectedly higher than inter-population variation (2%), as seen in previous geographic comparisons of thermal preferences in this species (Trochet et al. 2018) but also across lizard species (Clusella-Trullas and Chown 2014). The low geographic variability of thermal preference is consistent with previous findings in the same species comparing populations at low and high elevations (Van Damme et al. 1990, Gvoždík 2002, but see Trochet et al. 2018 for oviparous populations of *Z. vivipara*). The low inter-population variability of thermal preference also supports earlier findings that thermoregulatory preferences exhibit limited variation compared to field active body temperature (generally a standard deviation of 1.7 °C compared to 2.9°C for the body temperature range among Lacertidae species based on Clusella-Trullas and Chown 2014). It is

also consistent with the observation that thermal preferences vary less than field body temperatures across elevational ranges or along climate gradients in many lizard species (Van Damme et al. 1990, Angilletta et al. 2002, but see Gilbert and Miles 2019 for a counter-example in an arid zone lizard). Interestingly, average thermal preferences reported here were surprisingly high, especially for gravid females, compared to previous values reported for the same species in other study sites (gravid females:  $34.0 \pm 3.2$  °C, males:  $35.8 \pm 3.4$  °C; see Gvoždík 2002 who used a different method at higher latitude, in the Czech Republic, Le Galliard et al. 2003, Artacho et al. 2013, Rozen-Rechels et al. 2020 with similar methods in an experimental set-up, Trochet et al. 2018 using oviparous populations located in the Pyrénées, in the South-Western European range). Methodological differences, in part, between these studies may contribute to this contrast. However, an alternative is that the differences may be real and the high values reported in our study might suggest directional selection for higher thermal preference along the warmer, southern margin of the species distribution, which is under warming pressure (Chamailé-Jammes et al. 2006, Gilbert and Miles 2017 for another example in an other species). Overall, our results suggest higher variation in thermal preferences at a greater spatial scale than the one investigated here. Further latitudinal comparisons of populations spanning a broader geographic range than this study is needed to confirm this pattern.

The only noticeable geographic trend in thermal preference that we detected was a significant shift towards higher thermal preference in females from populations with a high forest cover. We suggest the shift is an indirect response associated with differences in the stage of gestation of females among populations rather than a direct effect of forest cover *per se*. Indeed, thermal preference has a higher correlation with the stage of gestation, which overwhelmed the effect of the forest cover index (see Supplementary Information 4). The geographic difference between populations with low versus high forest cover was mostly driven by one site (ROB, the population with the highest forest cover), where females were more intensively sampled early in pregnancy (Figure S6). In addition, a

607 delayed timing of parturition in populations with higher forest cover had also been demonstrated in  
608 a smaller sample of our study sites (Rutschmann et al. 2016a). In the common lizard, advancement  
609 of gestation is associated with a shift toward lower thermal preferences, which is more obvious at  
610 the end of pregnancy (ca. 29-30°C at the end versus 33-34°C before gestation; see Le Galliard et al.  
611 2003). As we sampled a larger number of females early in gestation in sites with high forest cover,  
612 differences in the timing of sampling and timing of parturition provided the best explanation for  
613 why females had lower thermal preference in more open habitats.

614 *Absence of thermal landscape effects*

615 An unexpected result of our geographic comparison was that indices of the spatial heterogeneity of  
616 the thermal landscape made no significant contribution to population variation in body temperature  
617 and thermoregulation accuracy *contra* our hypotheses 3 and 4 (see Tables 1 and 3). According to  
618 recent individual-based models of thermoregulatory behavior (Sears and Angilletta 2015), which  
619 were confirmed by detailed experiments of heterogeneous thermal landscapes with desert lizards  
620 (Sears et al. 2016), we expected a higher thermoregulation accuracy for lizards in more  
621 heterogeneous landscapes, because more heterogeneous thermal environments entail lower costs of  
622 behavioral thermoregulation. For example, optimality models of thermoregulation predict that  
623 opportunities for behavioral thermoregulation are weaker in more homogeneous habitats and the  
624 energetic costs of thermoregulation are higher in homogeneous habitats when contrasting habitats of  
625 different thermal quality are highly segregated in space.

626 A first potential explanation for the pattern of thermoregulation behavior of common lizards to be  
627 similar in homogeneous and heterogeneous thermal landscapes, is that the costs of thermoregulation  
628 in homogeneous environments are not as high as hypothesized in optimality models of  
629 thermoregulation. For example, Basson et al. (2017) showed that the energetic cost of locomotion  
630 between microhabitats are negligible for Oelofsen's Girdled lizards *Cordylus oelofseni* moving  
631 inside their typical home ranges. Similar results may apply to common lizards because these are

632 actively foraging, ground dwelling lizards with a relatively good endurance capacity (Garland Jr  
633 and Losos 1994, Vitt and Pianka 2014), Miles *unpublished data*).

634 A second potential explanation is that the ambient temperatures during capture were below the  
635 thermal preference set of common lizards as opposed to the desert lizard species in previous  
636 theoretical and empirical studies, where there was a significant risk of over-heating (Sears et al.  
637 2016). In the cool temperature range of our geographic area and study sites and at the time of  
638 sampling (Figure S4), the risks of overheating were in general negligible with the exception of a  
639 few populations over short time periods of the day. In cool climate conditions, the benefits of  
640 thermoregulation imply faster and more prolonged access to the thermal preference set by selection  
641 of warmer microhabitats. Given the asymmetric shape of the thermal performance curves of reptiles  
642 and the generalist (wide thermal breadth) thermal physiology of the common lizard (Van Damme et  
643 al. 1991, Artacho et al. 2013), the benefits of thermoregulation by microhabitat selection of warm  
644 sites are smaller in cool climates on average in this species than the benefits of thermoregulation by  
645 microhabitat avoidance of warm sites in warm climates. This is because individual physiological  
646 performances, such as maximal locomotor capacities, are weakly ascending and reach a plateau  
647 over the body temperature range of 32-36°C including most of the observed variation in  
648 temperature conditions in the vegetation. Since, a heterogeneous landscape would be beneficial  
649 when it allows for behavioral shifts among contrasted cold and hot microhabitats in order to heat  
650 faster in cool weather conditions and to avoid overheating in warm weather conditions;

651 heterogeneity would thus be critical only when the habitat overlaps the critical thermal limits of the  
652 species which is not the case in our study focal period in the focal sites.

653 A third potential explanation is that our methods failed to characterize the complete range of  
654 variation in the thermal landscape despite substantial differences in vegetation characteristics and  
655 heterogeneity (Sears et al. 2011, Caillon et al. 2014). Our methods showed that the thermal  
656 landscapes had limited variation. Our estimates of the homogeneity index (H) varied between 0.75

657 to 1. Most of the study sites were covered in large expanses of grass and other vegetation of short  
658 stature. We could not characterize and quantify the fine-scale, spatial variability of thermal  
659 conditions within vegetation patches inside each pixel of our vegetation maps. It is obvious from  
660 field observations that active lizards can take advantage of the varying shade levels and vertical  
661 thermal structure within a vegetation patch, and this fine scale heterogeneity to which lizards are  
662 familiar might be more critical determinants of their thermoregulation behavior than vegetation  
663 homogeneity at the scale of meters or tens of meters. Quantifying the very fine details of the  
664 vegetation thermal landscape however represents a strong methodological challenge that is beyond  
665 the scope of this study.

666

667 ***Implications for ecological responses to climate change***

668 Future risks of extinction for temperate lizard species as a result of global warming are expected to  
669 show a dramatic increase due to a reduction in the availability of shade and an increase in the risks  
670 of overheating. However, there is an ongoing debate about the critical determinants of population  
671 loss from global warming for these species (Sinervo et al. 2010, Kearney 2013). In the common  
672 lizard, climate warming in our study area has led to simultaneous changes in stress physiology,  
673 ageing, life history, reproduction phenology and trajectories of population extinction in the warmest  
674 sites (Chamaillé-Jammes et al. 2006, Rutschmann et al. 2016b, 2016a, Dupoué et al. 2017a, 2017b,  
675 2018). In parallel, we found no evidence of a reduction of shade availability in the our study sites,  
676 contrary to predictions of global mechanistic models (Kearney 2013). Stasis in forest cover (shade)  
677 is a result of little or no change in vegetation among some study sites or an expansion of forest  
678 cover in other sites during the past 15 years due to changes in land use (Clobert et al. *pers. obs.*).  
679 The increase of availability of shade in some populations could benefit the common lizard in the  
680 context of global warming because tall and dense vegetation ameliorates the risk of overheating  
681 (Grimm-Seyfarth et al. 2017). Our study suggests, however, that thermoregulation strategies in

682 these populations are more strongly constrained by changes in hydric conditions and temperature  
683 than by landscape features, and are best explained by an hypothesis that assume a trade-off between  
684 behavioral thermoregulation and hydoregulation. The role of water balance is underappreciated in  
685 current studies of thermoregulation. Our understanding of ectotherm responses to global change  
686 would benefit from further studies that evaluate the role of water balance regulation in modulating  
687 thermoregulatory behaviors (Rozen-Rechels et al. 2019).

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## 704 **Authors contributions**

705 DRR, J-FLG, AR, SM and JC designed the study. DRR, AR, AD, PB, JC, DBM, MR, AB, and J-  
706 FLG participated to data collection and their formatting. VC produced the vegetation maps. MG

707 provided macroclimatic data and generated Figure 2. DRR analyzed the data with help of J-FLG.  
708 DRR and J-FLG led the writing of the manuscript to which all authors significantly contributed.

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935 **Table 1** Our sampling protocol aims to quantify the relative importance of climate and habitat factors in explaining the geographical variation in  
936 thermoregulation statistics of the common lizard (*Zootoca vivipara*). This table summarises our working hypotheses and defines how these working  
937 hypotheses were tested with statistical models.

	Hypotheses	Explanation	Variables in statistical models	References
1	Elevational variation	Thermoregulation strategies are shaped by thermal clines and differences in duration of seasonal activity correlated with elevation.	Elevation (ELE) of the study site	Adolph 1990, Caldwell et al. 2017
2	Annual thermal conditions	Thermoregulation strategies respond flexibly to annual changes in thermal conditions (hot years, cold years).	Average daily minimal (respectively maximal) air temperatures $T_{\min}$ (respectively $T_{\max}$ ) of the year an study site	Blouin-Demers and Weatherhead 2002
3	Thermal landscape	Different thermal landscapes occur among sites because of differences in forest cover and the spatial distribution of vegetation. The spatial distribution of shade and full-sun patch dictates thermoregulation strategies.	Evenness in operative temperature microhabitats (TE), forest cover index (FCI), homogeneity in the thermal landscape (H) of the study site	Sears and Angilletta 2015, Sears et al. 2016
4	Condition-dependent thermal landscape	The effect of thermal landscape on thermoregulation strategies depends on persistent differences in temperature (thermal cline) or yearly differences in temperature, such that for example spatial heterogeneity is critical only in hot or cold conditions.	$ELE \times (TE, FCI \text{ or } H)$ $T_{\min} \times (TE \text{ or } H)$ $T_{\max} \times (THE, FCI \text{ or } H)$	Sears and Angilletta 2015, Sears et al. 2016
5	Historical climate aridity	If water is a limiting factor, persistent differences in water availability or habitat moisture caused by climate differences in rainfall and temperatures should be the main predictor of thermoregulation statistics. Dry climate and habitat should select for water conservation strategies in dry environments.	Emberger pluviometric quotient (Q, an aridity index) or the presence/absence index of free water (FW) of the study site	Davis and DeNardo 2009, Lillywhite et al. 2012, Rozen-Rechels et al. 2020)
6	Annual moisture conditions	The instantaneous risk of desiccation is correlated with dry environmental conditions. Site specific, annual, variation in air moisture select for plastic changes in thermoregulation strategies and explain most of their variation.	Average daily maximum in air moisture ( $P_{\max}$ ) of the year	(Rozen-Rechels et al. 2020)
7	Thermo-hydroregulation	If thermoregulation at high body temperatures compromises water balance, thermoregulation strategies should respond differently to short-term changes in temperature or thermal clines depending on water availability of the site or moisture conditions of the year.	$ELE \times (Q, FW, P_{\max})$ $T_{\min} \times (Q, FW, P_{\max})$ $T_{\max} \times (Q, FW)$	(Rozen-Rechels et al. 2019)

8	Thermo-hydroregulation landscape	The use of diverse thermal microhabitats could also be dictated by differences in water loss rates. A wet and hot homogeneous habitat could be of lower cost than a dry one if water loss is the main thermoregulation costs.	$Q \times (TE, FCI, H)$ $FW \times (TE, H)$ $P_{max} \times (TE, FCI, H)$	(Rozen-Rechels et al. 2019)
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939 **Table 2** Conditional average of selected variables from the model averaging procedure (Table S6).  
940 Continuous variables are scaled and centered. Categorical variables had their contrasts summed to  
941 zero, i.e., the intercept is the average trait for average continuous variable and for a theoretical  
942 average level of the categorical variables. Effects are obtained from the deviation from this average.  
943  $T_b$ : cloacal body temperature in field active lizards,  $T_{pref}$ : mean body temperature measured in  
944 thermal preferences tests in the laboratory,  $D_b$ : thermoregulation inaccuracy,  $D_e$ : thermal quality of  
945 the habitat,  $E$ : thermoregulation efficiency.

<i>Trait</i>	<i>Variable</i>	<i>Estimate</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>Adjusted SE</i>	<i>z value</i>	<i>p value</i>
$T_b$	Intercept	30.2	0.38	0.38	85.2	< 0.0001
	Q	-0.9	0.4	0.4	2.1	0.03
	$T_{max}$	1.2	0.2	0.2	4.7	< 0.0001
	$Q \times T_{max}$	0.7	0.2	0.2	3.5	0.0005
$T_{pref}$	Intercept	35.3	0.1	0.1	350.9	< 0.0001
	FCI	0.3	0.1	0.1	2.7	0.006
	Female	-0.9	0.1	0.1	13.9	< 0.0001
	$FCI \times Female$	0.2	0.1	0.1	3.8	0.0002
$\sqrt{D_b}$	Intercept	2.1	0.1	0.1	27.4	< 0.0001
	Q	0.2	0.1	0.1	1.8	0.07
	$T_{max}$	-0.4	0.1	0.1	8.1	< 0.0001
	$Q \times T_{max}$	-0.3	0.05	0.05	6.0	< 0.0001
$D_e$	Intercept	4.9	0.9	0.9	5.9	< 0.0001
	$T_{min}$	-4.0	0.3	0.3	12.0	< 0.0001
	$P_{max}$	3.3	0.3	0.3	12.6	< 0.0001

	$T_{\min} \times P_{\max}$	-2.7	0.3	0.3	10.6	< 0.0001
<i>E</i>	Intercept	-0.2	0.9	0.9	0.3	0.78
	$P_{\max}$	2.8	0.3	0.3	10.6	< 0.0001
	$T_{\min}$	-4.5	0.4	0.4	12.8	< 0.0001
	$P_{\max} \times T_{\min}$	-3.1	0.2	0.2	12.6	< 0.0001

947 **Table 3** Our sampling protocol aims to quantify the relative importance of climate and habitat factors in explaining the geographical variation in  
948 thermoregulation statistics of the common lizard (*Zootoca vivipara*). This table summarizes our working hypotheses and defines how these working  
949 hypotheses were tested with statistical models.

	Hypotheses	Supporting results	Potential explanation	Supported by our study
1	Elevational variation	None.	Local relief or other site properties affect local thermal and hydric conditions more than elevation <i>per se</i> blurring any elevation effect.	No
2	Annual thermal conditions	$T_b$ increases with $T_{max}$ $D_b$ decreases with $T_{max}$ $D_e$ and $E$ decrease with $T_{min}$	Higher local temperatures lead to a wider range of environmental temperatures allowing attainment of thermal preference. Thermoregulation behavior becomes more accurate and the habitat is of higher thermal quality.	Yes
3	Thermal landscape	None.	In the absence of a cost of overheating, landscape features might not affect thermoregulation behaviors. Sites may also be too homogeneous on average.	No
4	Condition-dependent thermal landscape	None.	In the absence of a cost of overheating, landscape features might not affect thermoregulation behaviors. Sites may also be too homogeneous on average.	No
5	Historical climate dryness	$T_b$ decreases with $Q$	When climatic conditions are historically more mesic, this relaxes the water constraints on thermoregulation on average, thus allowing field-active individuals to reach higher body temperature.	Yes
6	Annual moisture conditions	$D_e$ and $E$ increase with $P_{max}$	Air moisture could cool down local operative temperatures for lizards, reducing the thermal quality of the habitat.	Yes
7	Thermo-hydreregulation	$T_b$ increases faster with $T_{max}$ at high $Q$ . $D_b$ decreases faster with $T_{max}$ at high $Q$ . $D_e$ and $E$ decrease strongly with $T_{min}$ at high $P_{max}$ but are almost constant at low $P_{max}$ .	In more xeric conditions, an increase of temperature is riskier in terms of water loss, the benefits of thermoregulation are more constrained. In more mesic conditions, these constraints are relaxed. These constraints may have shaped the evolution of thermoregulation behaviors in these populations. Thermal quality of the habitat is modulate by moisture conditions. When moist, cold air conditions make the environment too cold. When warmer, the refreshing effect of moisture might be attenuated.	Yes
8	Thermo-	None.	In the absence of a cost of overheating, landscape features might not affect thermoregulation behaviors. Sites	No

	hydroregulation landscape		may also be too homogeneous on average.	
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951 **Figure Legends**

952

953 **Figure 1** Aerial views of four contrasting sites. JON and PUY are two open habitats. The former is  
954 situated in a clearing, whereas the latter is a vast grassland within the crater of the extinct volcano.  
955 BEL and COM are two populations with substantial forest cover. The availability of water differs  
956 among the locations. Streams traverse PUY and COM and the soil is saturated with water in  
957 portions of the site; other areas are peat bogs. In contrast, free water is not available at JON and  
958 BEL; both are much drier than COM and PUY especially during the summer time. No bogs can be  
959 found at JON and BEL. Photographs were taken in 2017 with a Phantom 4 Pro drone (DJI,  
960 Shenzhen, China) concomitant with a separate project to generate vegetation maps (Figure S2) of  
961 each sample site.

962

963 **Figure 2** Geographic location of studied populations in the Massif Central mountain range from  
964 France (see also Table S2) with a heat map of the Emberger pluviometric quotient  $Q$  measuring  
965 long-term historical differences in climate dryness among sites (low values of  $Q$  indicate more arid  
966 climates).

967

968 **Figure 3** Variation of cloacal body temperatures at capture  $T_b$  (**A**) and variation of thermoregulation  
969 inaccuracy  $D_b$  in the field (**B**) as a function of the pluviometric quotient  $Q$  and mean daily  
970 maximum temperatures during the study year  $T_{max}$ . The surface is drawn from the conditional  
971 average of the best predictors estimated from the model averaging procedure (Table 2). The color  
972 gradient highlights the values of  $T_b$  in **A**: from low (blue) to high body temperatures (red); and the  
973 values of  $D_b$  in **C**: from low inaccuracy (blue) to high inaccuracy (red).

974

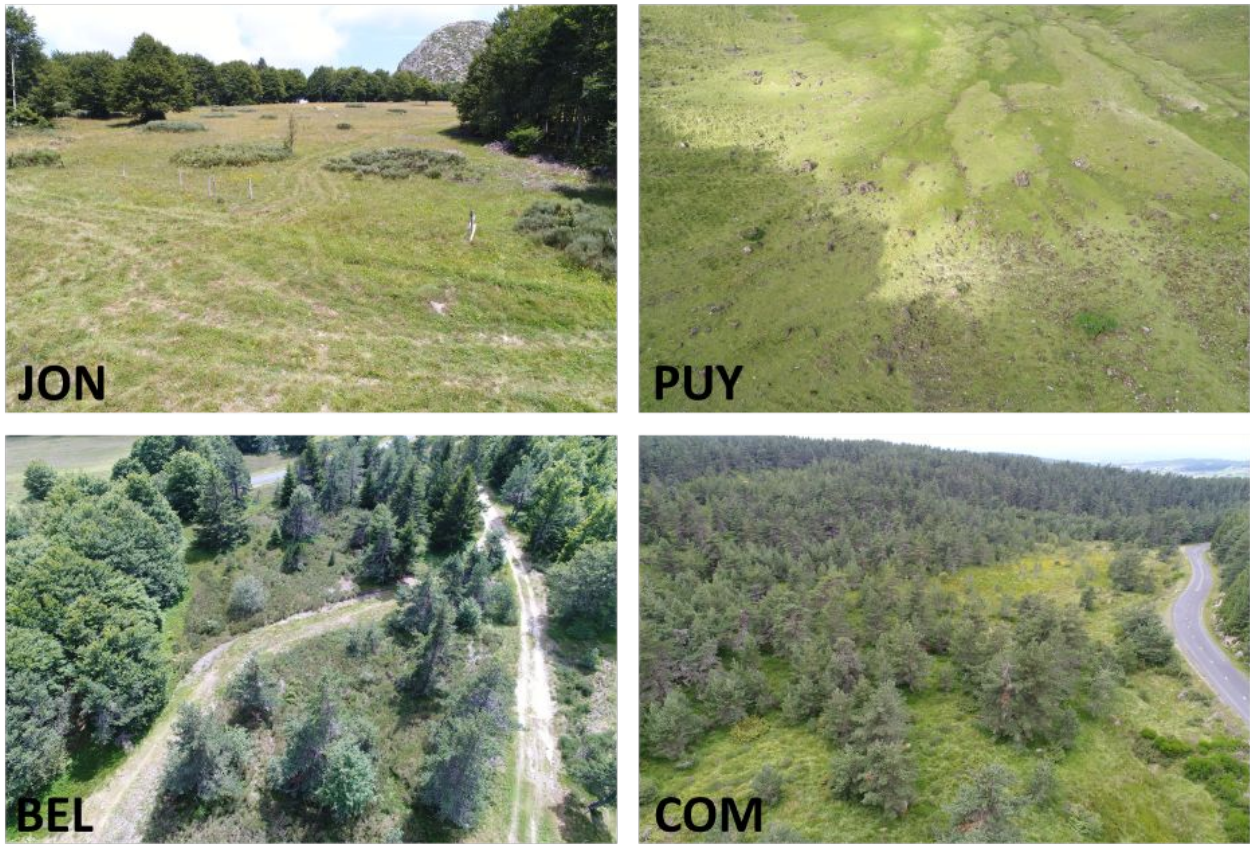
975 **Figure 4** Variation of preferred body temperatures measured in the laboratory  $T_{pref}$  as a function of  
 976 sex and age in the ROB population (**A**) and as a function of sex and forest cover (FCI) in all  
 977 populations with adults only (**B**). The boxplots display the median and the quantile distribution of  
 978 raw data in A. Points and error bars in B represent the average and the standard error of raw data for  
 979 each population and each sex. A: adults, Y: yearlings, FCI: forest cover index.

981 **Figure 5** Variation of thermoregulation inaccuracy  $D_b$  as a function of the thermal quality of the  
 982 habitat  $D_e$  (**A**). Points are for  $\bar{D}_b$  and  $\bar{D}_e$  per population per year per age-sex group. Colors  
 983 represent the presence of free-standing water (FW) at the site and symbols represent the age-sex  
 984 category of individuals. The black line is the line of equation  $\bar{D}_b = \bar{D}_e$ . This graph shows that  
 985 lizards from some dry sites without permanent access to free standing water have high  $D_e$  compared  
 986 to wet sites because we measured lower  $T_e$  in these populations (Figure S5). Error bars represent  
 987 standard error.

989 **Figure 6** Variation of thermoregulation efficiency  $E$  as a function of the mean daily maximum air  
 990 moisture during the study year  $P_{max}$  and mean daily minimum temperatures during the study year  
 991  $T_{min}$ . The surface is drawn from the predictions of the conditional average of the best predictors  
 992 estimated from the model averaging procedure. The color gradient highlights the values of  $E$ : from  
 993 low (blue) to high (red).

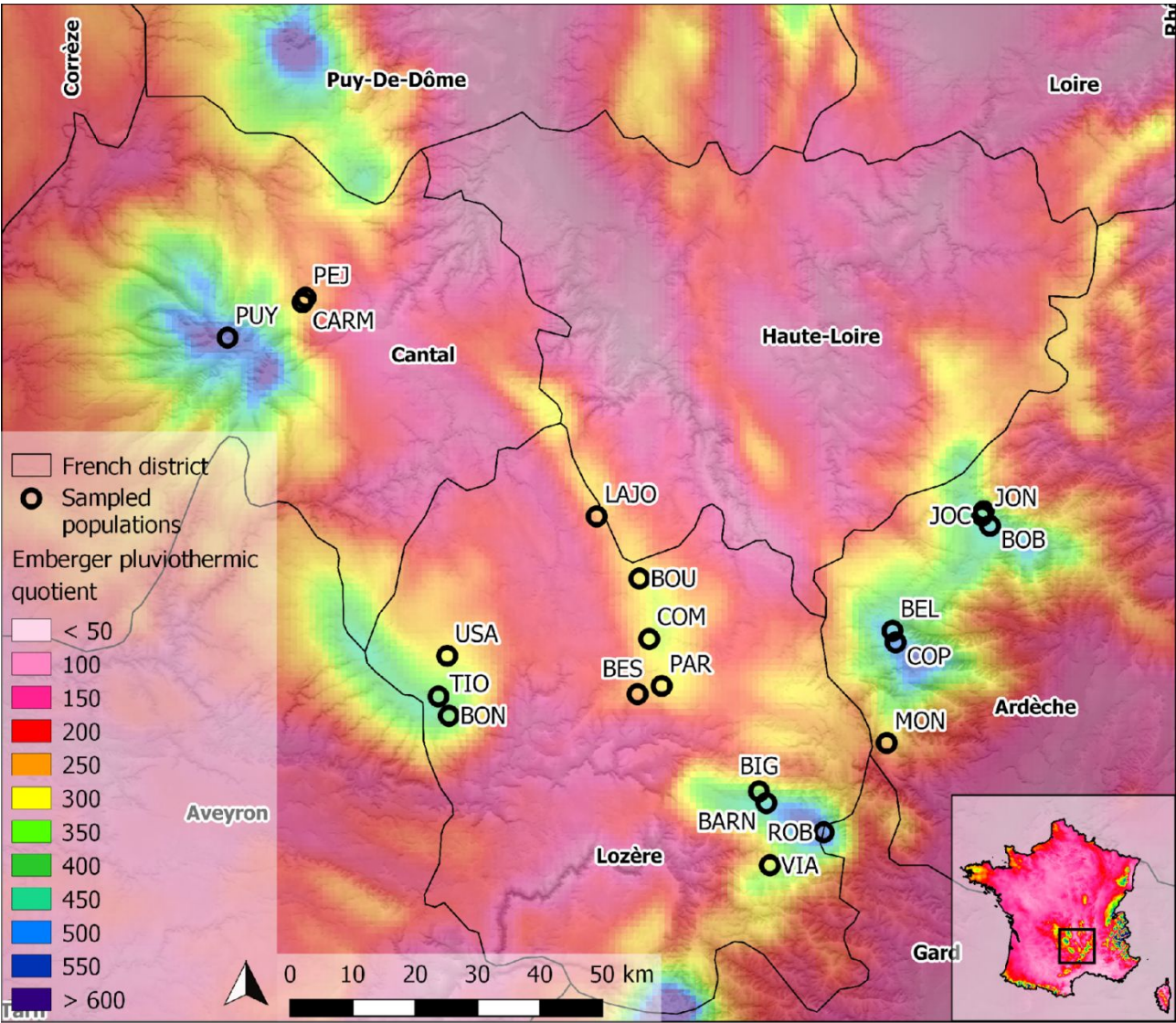


994 **Figure 1**

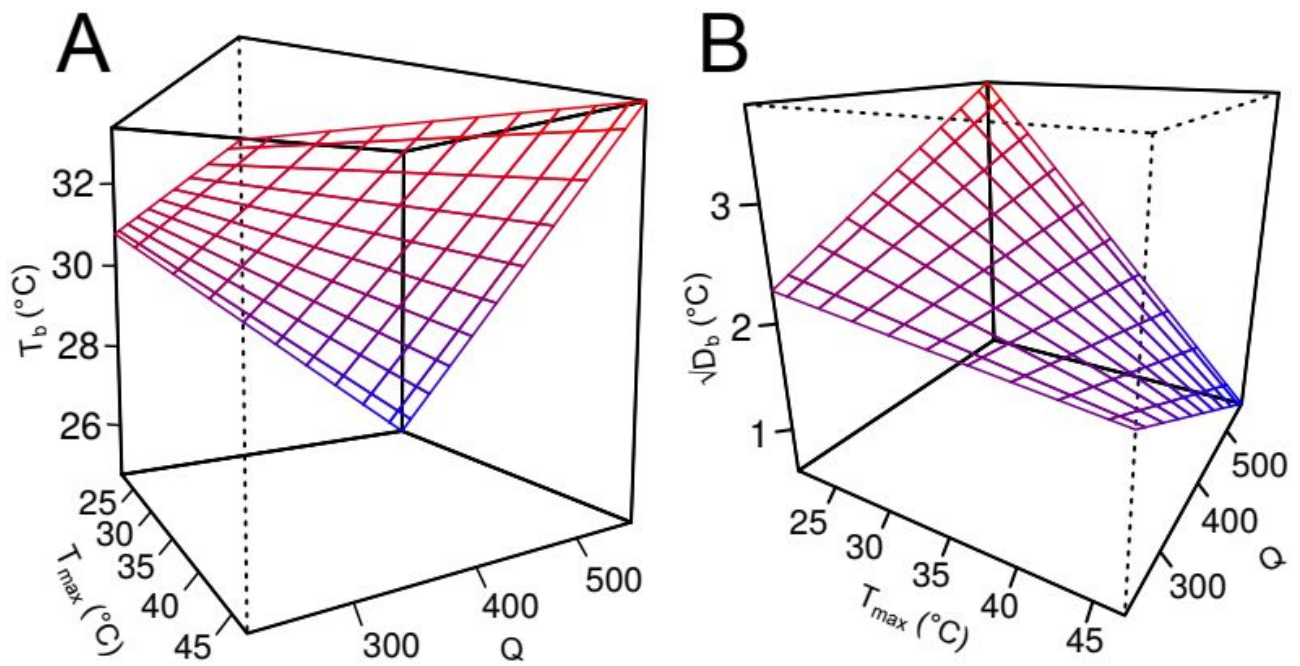


995

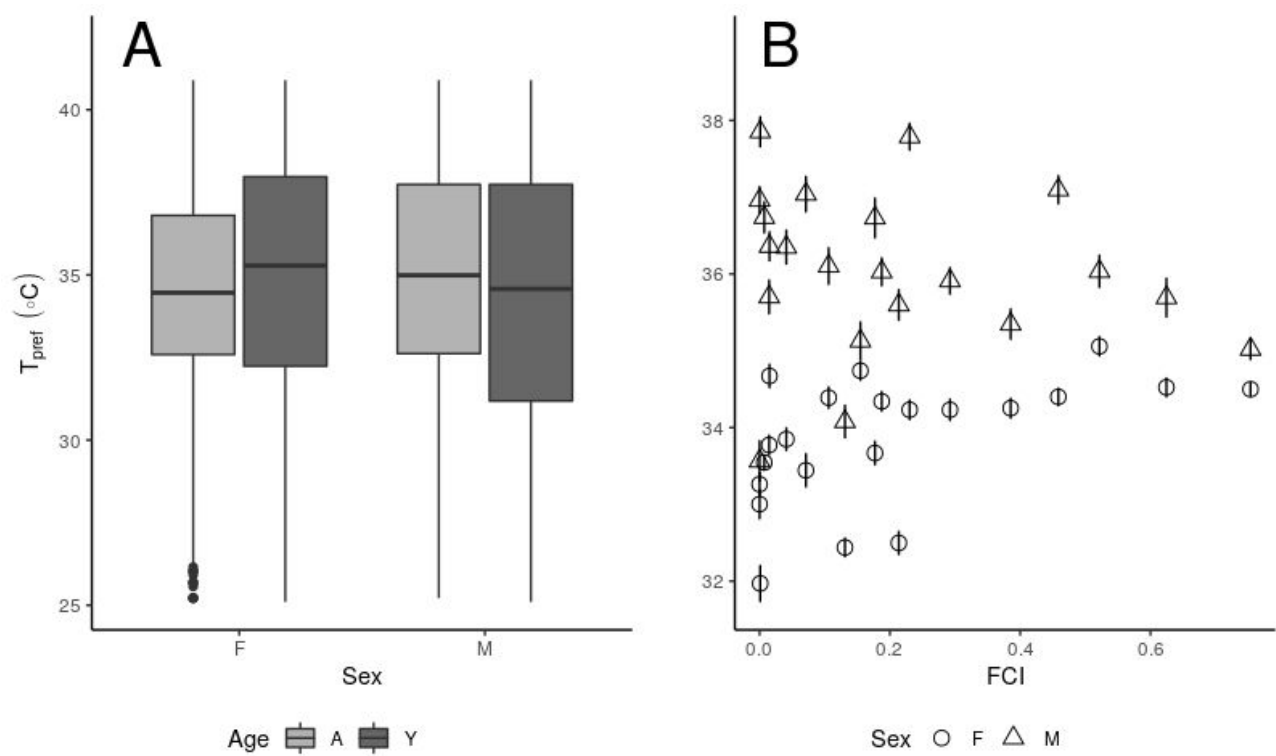
**996 Figure 2**





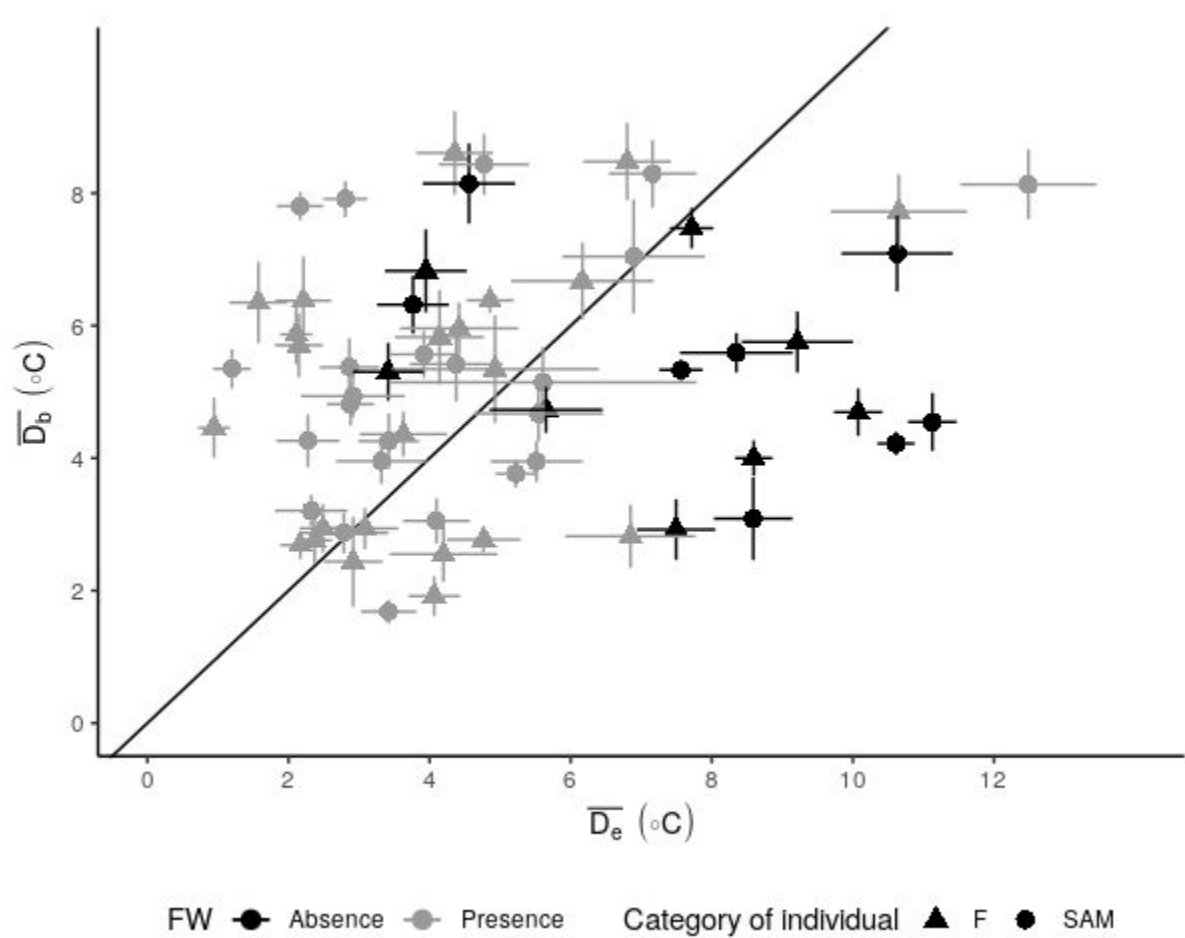
998 **Figure 3**

1000 **Figure 4**



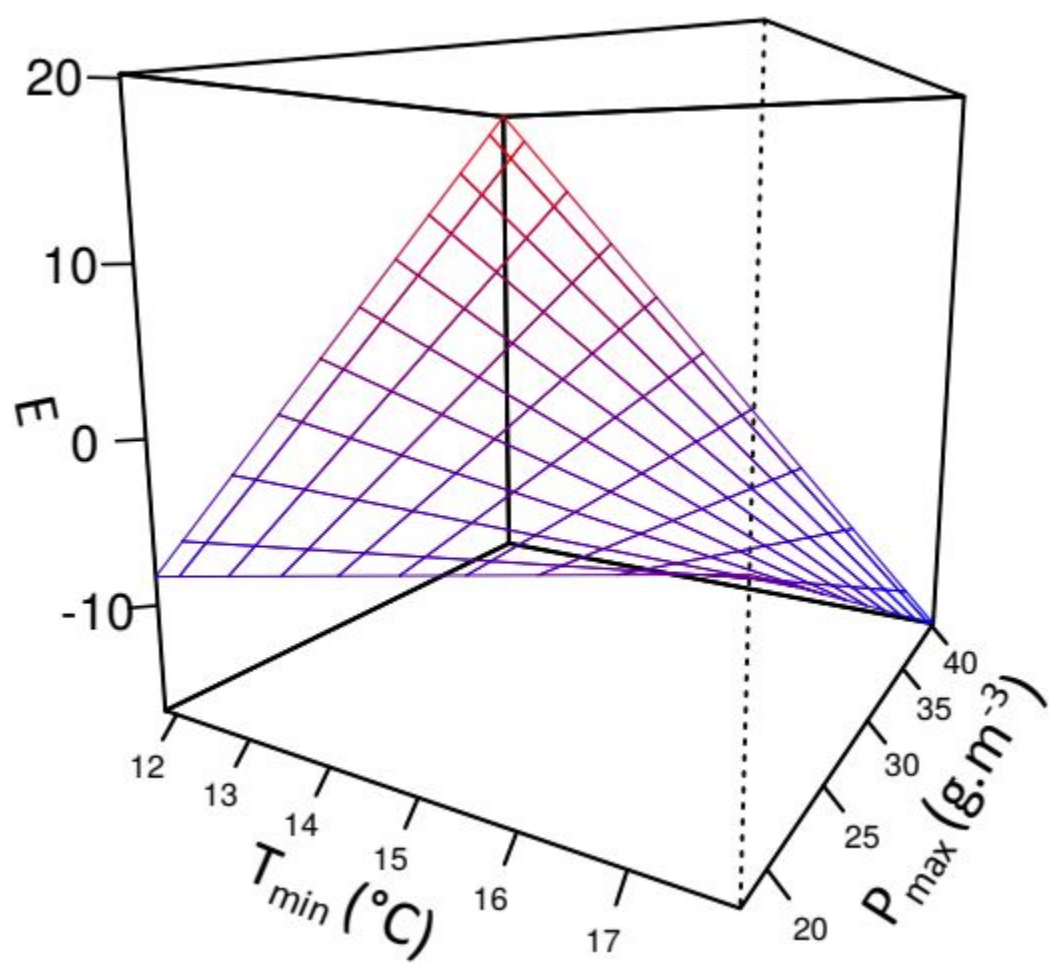
1001

1002 **Figure 5**



1003

1004 **Figure 6**



1006 *Appendix*

1007 **Interaction of hydric and thermal conditions drive geographic variation in thermoregulation in a**  
 1008 **widespread lizard**

1009 Rozen-Rechels David<sup>1,\*</sup>, Rutschmann Alexis<sup>2</sup>, Dupoué Andréaz<sup>3</sup>, Blaimont Pauline<sup>4</sup>, Chauveau  
 1010 Victor<sup>1</sup>, Miles Donald B.<sup>5</sup>, Guillon Michael<sup>6</sup>, Richard Murielle<sup>7</sup>, Badiane Arnaud<sup>1</sup>, Meylan  
 1011 Sandrine<sup>1,8</sup>, Clobert Jean<sup>7</sup>, Le Galliard Jean-François<sup>1,9</sup>

1012

1013

1014 **Supplementary Information 1:** Description of the microhabitat of each site

1015 **Supplementary Information 2:** Difference in operative environmental temperature among  
 1016 vegetation substrates and description of the thermal landscape

1017 **Supplementary Information 3:** Age and sex related differences in thermal preferences in  
 1018 individuals from the population ROB

1019 **Supplementary Information 4:** Effect of the presence of water on parturition date

1020

1021

1022 **Table S1** Environmental characteristics of sites for each year of study.

1023 **Table S2** Thermoregulation statistics measured and sample size in all populations of the study

1024 **Table S3** Correlations between micro-climate variables

1025 **Table S4** Correlations between environmental variables

1026 **Table S5** Summary of the best models explaining  $T_{pref}$  variation in ROB

1027 **Table S6** Model selection classification for each model averaging procedure

1028 **Figure S1** Variation in temperature T and water vapour density P for the three post-sampling  
 1029 periods

1030 **Figure S2** Vegetation map of the 21 populations

1031 **Figure S3** Hourly variation in operative temperature according to the substratum



1032 **Figure S4** Differences of operative environmental temperatures  $T_e$  among populations  
1033 **Figure S5** Relationship between an alternative quality of the thermal habitat  
1034 **Figure S56** Number of days between the capture of a females (2 days before we measured  $T_{pref}$ ) and  
1035 parturition for each population.

1036 **Table S1** Environmental characteristics of sites for each year of study. FW: 1 = permanent presence of free water / temporary presence of free water,  
 1037 Q: Emberger pluviometric quotient, FCI: forest cover index, TE: index of thermal evenness, H: homogeneity index, T<sub>min</sub>: minimal day air temperature,  
 1038 T<sub>max</sub>: maximal day air temperature, P<sub>max</sub>: maximal day air moisture.

Site	Massif	Latitude	Longitude	Surface (ha)	FW	Elevation (m)	Q	FCI	TE	H (°C <sup>-2</sup> )	Year	T <sub>min</sub> (°C)	T <sub>max</sub> (°C)	P <sub>max</sub> (g.m <sup>-3</sup> )
BARN	Mont-Lozère	44.427913	3.763798	0.6	1	1527	459.8	0	0.18	0.96	2017	14.1	30.1	25.1
BEL	Mont du Velay	44.672268	4.024641	1.8	0	1464	485.1	0.62	0.46	0.85	2016	13.5	32.4	31.9
											2018	12.5	35.5	31.8
BES	Margeride	44.587835	3.508084	1.5	1	1277	234.0	0.39	0.43	0.86	2016	15.1	37.4	36.3
											2018	15.5	39.1	39.0
BIG	Mont-Lozère	44.4449	3.749366	3.4	0	1463	398.8	0.46	0.28	0.81	2017	12.4	26.1	23.0
BOB	Mont du Viverrais	44.820279	4.226584	1.3	1	1450	473.3	0.19	0.43	0.82	2016	13.8	32.8	26.7
											2018	17.1	28.8	27.2
BON	Mont d'Aubrac	44.560054	3.127512	2.0	1	1397	406.6	0	0.29	0.92	2017	15.1	28.1	21.8
BOU	Margeride	44.754214	3.515408	1.3	1	1461	277.9	0.15	0.44	0.86	2016	12.7	33.4	23.1
											2018	13.5	34.8	26.6
CARM	Mont du Cantal	45.1575	2.83787	1.9	1	1267	272.5	0	0.06	0.96	2018	17.9	35.2	28.1
COM	Margeride	44.66701	3.53321	2.4	1	1454.2	289.5	0.21	0.42	0.82	2017	13.2	21.2	19.9
											2018	14.8	28.6	27.1
COP	Mont du Velay	44.655493	4.03064	1.9	1	1421	514.0	0.04	0.36	0.91	2017	14.1	29.6	28.0
JOC	Mont du Viverrais	44.835167	4.211043	1.5	1	1282	460.2	0.11	0.47	0.82	2017	15.8	23.6	19.7
JON	Mont du Viverrais	44.841699	4.214639	0.4	0	1385	432.7	0.23	0.23	0.90	2017	15.7	22.8	17.9
LAJO	Margeride	44.84475	3.43069	0.6	0	1383	228.1	0.52	0.26	0.78	2016	13.4	27.3	21.8
											2018	13.8	39.7	31.1
MON	Mont du Velay	44.510983	4.008337	0.9	1	1099	240.7	0.13	0.24	0.86	2017	16.4	32.6	32.4
											2018	17.7	33.2	28.4
PAR	Margeride	44.599056	3.556981	3.6	1	1454.5	277.0	0.29	0.45	0.80	2016	14.2	36.9	40.3
											2018	13.9	46.9	38.5
PEJ	Mont du Cantal	45.164138	2.844013	1.1	1	1254	262.9	0.02	0.02	0.98	2017	16.2	31.6	29.6
PUY	Mont du Cantal	45.107208	2.684955	2.8	1	1471	561.5	0.01	0.25	0.91	2017	13.9	26.7	28.7

ROB	Mont-Lozère	44.38418	3.877859	1.2	0	1411	563.3	0.75	0.42	0.87	2017	11.8	39.2	31.3
											2018	12.3	42.3	32.4
TIO	Mont d’Aubrac	44.587934	3.106771	5.8	1	1321	407.9	0.01	0.42	0.88	2016	16.2	39.7	26.4
											2018	16.4	38.3	37.3
USA	Mont d’Aubrac	44.64629	3.125162	12	1	1274	306.9	0.07	0.13	0.96	2017	16.0	24.6	19.5
VIA	Mont-Lozère	44.33807	3.768619	0.6	1	1191	318.5	0.18	0.31	0.83	2017	13.0	33.3	30.5

**Table S2** Thermoregulation statistics and sample size for each population for all years combined. In addition to thermoregulation statistics used in our study, we provided alternative statistics also used in the literature (Hertz et al. 1993).  $T_{set}$  is the range defined by the interquartile range (25% and 75% quartiles) of  $T_{pref}$ .  $D'_b$  (respectively  $D'_e$ ) is the absolute difference of  $T_b$  (respectively  $T_e$ ) to the limits of this range and equals 0 if in the range. Thermoregulation efficiency  $E'$  is then calculated as  $1 - \frac{\overline{D'_b}}{\overline{D'_e}}$ .  $T_b$ : cloacal body temperature in field active lizards,  $T_{pref}$ : mean body temperature measured in thermal preference tests in the laboratory,  $D_b$ : thermoregulation inaccuracy,  $D_e$ : thermal quality of the habitat,  $E$ : thermoregulation efficiency.  $N_{15min}$ : number of 15 bouts with exploitable  $T_e$  for all years combined.  $N_{pref}$ : number of individuals with exploitable  $T_{pref}$  for all years combined.  $N_{capture}$ : number of individuals with exploitable  $T_{body}$  for all years combined.

Population	Category of individual	$N_{15min}$	$\overline{T_e}$	$\overline{D_e}$	$\overline{D'_e}$	$N_{pref}$	$\overline{T_{pref}}$	$T_{set}$	$N_{capture}$	$\overline{T_{body}}$	$\overline{D_b}$	$\overline{D'_b}$	$E$	$E'$
BARN	Adult females	9	31.4 ± 6.5	4.9 ± 4.4	3.2 ± 4.4	22	33.3 ± 2.8	[31.5 – 35.2]	21	27.9 ± 3.8	5.3 ± 3.8	3.8 ± 3.6	0.6 ± 2.4	-0.2
	Adult males + yearlings			5.6 ± 6.5	4.4 ± 6.3	10	37.0 ± 2.1	[35.5 – 38.4]	24	31.8 ± 2.6	5.1 ± 2.6	3.6 ± 2.6	-2.0 ± 4.8	0.2
BEL	Adult females	35	26.2 ± 2.7	8.1 ± 2.8	6.5 ± 2.8	45	34.5 ± 3.2	[32.5 – 36.9]	46	30.5 ± 2.6	4.2 ± 2.6	2.7 ± 2.5	4.5 ± 2.2	0.6
	Adult males + yearlings			9.3 ± 2.8	6.6 ± 3.3	18	35.7 ± 3.8	[33.7 – 38.4]	42	30.8 ± 2.9	5.1 ± 3.4	3.2 ± 3.3	4.5 ± 2.9	0.5
BES	Adult females	53	32.2 ± 4.1	3.6 ± 3.4	2.3 ± 3.3	45	34.3 ± 3.3	[32.0 – 36.7]	45	30.3 ± 3.0	4.3 ± 2.9	2.7 ± 3.0	-0.5 ± 2.5	-0.2
	Adult males + yearlings			4.1 ± 3.6	2.6 ± 3.4	23	35.3 ± 3.4	[32.9 – 38.1]	67	30.9 ± 2.6	4.6 ± 2.7	2.7 ± 2.8	1.6 ± 2.7	0
BIG	Adult females	20	28.7 ± 3.6	5.7 ± 3.6	4.4 ± 3.6	24	34.4 ± 2.2	[33.2 – 35.7]	23	29.7 ± 1.7	4.7 ± 1.7	3.5 ± 1.7	1.2 ± 3.9	0.2
	Adult males + yearlings			8.3 ± 3.6	7.3 ± 3.6	10	37.1 ± 2.2	[36.1 – 38.6]	30	31.5 ± 1.6	5.6 ± 1.6	4.6 ± 1.6	4.3 ± 3.5	0.4
BOB	Adult females	43	28.4 ± 6.4	7.7 ± 5.8	6.1 ± 5.8	45	34.3 ± 3.3	[32.2 – 36.7]	45	27.6 ± 2.4	6.7 ± 2.5	4.8 ± 2.7	-0.0 ± 6.0	0.2

	Adult males + yearlings			8.6 ± 6.8	7.6 ± 6.9	27	36.0 ± 3.5	[34.1 – 38.7]	61	29.5 ± 2.2	6.5 ± 2.6	4.8 ± 3.1	-1.9 ± 5.1	0.4
BON	Adult females	22	36.7 ± 2.4	4.8 ± 2.4	3.3 ± 2.3	15	32.0 ± 3.5	[29.8 – 33.5]	25	29.2 ± 1.0	2.8 ± 1.0	0.7 ± 0.7	2.2 ± 2.5	0.8
	Adult males + yearlings			2.2 ± 1.5	1.1 ± 1.3	8	37.9 ± 2.0	[36.7 – 39.4]	30	30.0 ± 1.2	7.8 ± 1.2	6.6 ± 1.2	-5.7 ± 2.2	-5
BOU	Adult females	53	31.3 ± 5.5	5.2 ± 3.2	3.5 ± 3.0	46	34.7 ± 3.3	[32.7 – 37.3]	46	26.2 ± 3.1	8.5 ± 2.9	6.6 ± 3.0	-3.3 ± 4.1	-0.9
	Adult males + yearlings			5.6 ± 3.6	3.6 ± 3.3	22	35.1 ± 4.1	[32.1 – 38.6]	70	27.2 ± 3.3	8.4 ± 2.9	6.0 ± 3.1	-1.6 ± 4.1	-0.7
CARM	Adult females	17	32.4 ± 2.7	2.2 ± 1.6	0.6 ± 1.2	24	33.0 ± 3.5	[31.0 – 35.3]	24	26.6 ± 3.3	6.4 ± 3.3	4.3 ± 3.2	-3.7 ± 3.5	-6.2
	Adult males + yearlings			2.3 ± 1.8	0.7 ± 1.3	13	33.6 ± 3.5	[31.3 – 36.0]	34	29.3 ± 2.3	4.3 ± 2.3	2.2 ± 2.0	-2.1 ± 2.6	-2.1
COM	Adult females	32	32.8 ± 3.2	2.2 ± 1.8	0.9 ± 1.3	32	32.5 ± 3.2	[30.3 – 34.5]	32	27.1 ± 3.6	5.4 ± 3.2	3.4 ± 3.0	-2.8 ± 3.5	-2.8
	Adult males + yearlings			3.4 ± 2.3	1.8 ± 2.2	23	35.6 ± 3.5	[33.3 – 38.1]	59	31.1 ± 3.0	4.6 ± 2.3	2.8 ± 2.0	-0.6 ± 2.7	-0.6
COP	Adult females	17	39.9 ± 5.2	6.8 ± 3.9	5.0 ± 3.6	25	33.8 ± 2.8	[32.0 – 36.0]	24	31.1 ± 2.4	2.8 ± 2.3	1.4 ± 2.0	4.0 ± 6.2	0.7
	Adult males + yearlings			5.5 ± 2.7	3.4 ± 2.6	10	36.3 ± 2.6	[34.3 – 38.6]	38	32.4 ± 1.9	3.9 ± 1.9	1.9 ± 1.8	1.2 ± 3.2	0.4
JOC	Adult females	34	30.7 ± 5.4	4.4 ± 4.9	2.9 ± 4.6	24	34.4 ± 2.7	[32.5 – 36.5]	24	28.4 ± 1.9	6.0 ± 1.9	4.0 ± 1.9	-0.9 ± 4.7	-0.4
	Adult males + yearlings			5.5 ± 5.3	4.0 ± 5.1	10	36.1 ± 2.8	[34.3 – 38.4]	30	31.4 ± 2.3	4.7 ± 2.3	2.9 ± 2.2	-0.1 ± 4.4	0.3
JON	Adult females	20	34.2 ± 4.2	3.4 ± 2.2	2.0 ± 1.9	25	34.2 ± 2.5	[32.7 – 36.0]	25	28.9 ± 2.2	5.3 ± 2.2	3.8 ± 2.2	-2.7 ± 3.4	-0.9
	Adult males + yearlings			4.6 ± 2.9	3.5 ± 2.9	10	37.8 ± 2.1	[36.7 – 39.3]	30	29.8 ± 3.6	8.1 ± 3.3	7.0 ± 3.3	-2.5 ± 4.7	-1.0
LAJO	Adult females	53	30.0 ± 8.0	7.4 ± 3.8	5.4 ± 3.4	48	35.1 ± 3.3	[32.8 – 37.6]	46	29.3 ± 2.3	5.6 ± 2.5	3.5 ± 2.6	2.7 ± 4.5	0.4
	Adult males + yearlings			7.9 ± 4.2	6.2 ± 3.7	20	36.0 ± 3.4	[34.5 – 38.7]	68	30.8 ± 2.6	5.5 ± 2.7	4.0 ± 2.9	1.7 ± 4.5	0.4
MON	Adult females	55	33.0 ± 4.1	3.2 ± 2.1	1.3 ± 1.6	50	32.4 ± 3.3	[30.0 – 34.8]	53	29.2 ± 3.6	3.7 ± 2.8	1.8 ± 2.2	-0.9 ± 3.6	-0.4
	Adult males + yearlings			3.2 ± 2.1	1.2 ± 1.7	27	34.1 ± 4.0	[31.7 – 36.9]	84	31.2 ± 3.8	3.3 ± 2.7	1.7 ± 2.4	0.3 ± 3.0	-0.4
PAR	Adult females	40	32.6 ± 5.5	5.6 ± 4.9	4.3 ± 4.7	45	34.2 ± 3.6	[31.5 – 37.3]	47	29.8 ± 2.6	4.6 ± 3.3	3.2 ± 3.1	0.6 ± 3.4	0.3

	Adult males + yearlings			$5.6 \pm 5.1$	$4.5 \pm 5.2$	22	$35.9 \pm 3.0$	[34.0 – 38.3]	45	$31.4 \pm 2.0$	$4.1 \pm 2.5$	$2.6 \pm 2.6$	$-0.6 \pm 2.5$	0.4
PEJ	Adult females	33	$32.1 \pm 5.4$	$3.1 \pm 2.7$	$2.0 \pm 2.2$	17	$34.7 \pm 2.4$	[33.1 – 36.5]	25	$31.8 \pm 1.6$	$2.9 \pm 1.6$	$1.5 \pm 1.4$	$1.0 \pm 2.5$	0.3
	Adult males + yearlings			$4.1 \pm 2.7$	$2.4 \pm 2.7$	11	$36.4 \pm 2.4$	[34.7 – 38.4]	30	$33.5 \pm 2.2$	$3.1 \pm 1.9$	$1.6 \pm 1.7$	$0.5 \pm 2.2$	0.3
PUY	Adult females	39	$37.7 \pm 3.3$	$4.9 \pm 2.1$	$3.7 \pm 2.1$	25	$33.5 \pm 1.9$	[32.2 – 34.7]	24	$27.2 \pm 0.9$	$6.4 \pm 0.9$	$5.1 \pm 0.9$	$-1.5 \pm 2.5$	-0.4
	Adult males + yearlings			$2.8 \pm 2.0$	$1.1 \pm 1.6$	10	$36.7 \pm 2.5$	[34.9 – 38.9]	31	$28.8 \pm 1.5$	$7.9 \pm 1.5$	$6.0 \pm 1.5$	$-4.9 \pm 2.7$	-4.5
ROB	Adult females	157	$26.5 \pm 2.5$	$8.2 \pm 2.5$	$6.1 \pm 2.6$	97	$34.5 \pm 3.2$	[32.6 – 36.8]	123	$28.8 \pm 3.3$	$5.9 \pm 1.9$	$3.7 \pm 2.6$	$2.4 \pm 3.5$	0.4
	Adult males + yearlings			$9.2 \pm 2.9$	$7.2 \pm 3.1$	236	$34.6 \pm 3.8$	[31.9 – 37.7]	318	$29.8 \pm 3.1$	$4.9 \pm 2.2$	$2.5 \pm 2.1$	$4.3 \pm 3.2$	0.7
TIO	Adult females	25	$34.3 \pm 3.7$	$2.1 \pm 2.0$	$0.9 \pm 1.5$	45	$33.8 \pm 3.3$	[31.7 – 36.1]	46	$29.3 \pm 2.5$	$4.4 \pm 2.0$	$2.4 \pm 1.9$	$-1.8 \pm 3.2$	-1.7
	Adult males + yearlings			$2.9 \pm 1.8$	$1.0 \pm 1.5$	27	$35.7 \pm 3.8$	[33.3 – 38.9]	54	$30.6 \pm 1.9$	$4.9 \pm 1.8$	$2.7 \pm 1.7$	$-1.5 \pm 2.5$	-1.5
USA	Adult females	38	$33.7 \pm 2.8$	$2.4 \pm 1.5$	$1.0 \pm 1.1$	16	$33.4 \pm 3.3$	[31.3 – 35.0]	26	$30.8 \pm 2.0$	$2.8 \pm 1.8$	$1.0 \pm 1.4$	$-0.1 \pm 2.9$	0
	Adult males + yearlings			$3.4 \pm 2.7$	$2.2 \pm 2.3$	8	$37.0 \pm 2.4$	[35.4 – 38.9]	28	$32.8 \pm 2.2$	$4.3 \pm 2.2$	$2.6 \pm 2.2$	$-1.2 \pm 1.6$	-0.2
VIA	Adult females	22	$31.5 \pm 1.4$	$2.2 \pm 1.4$	$0.5 \pm 0.9$	24	$33.7 \pm 2.9$	[31.4 – 35.4]	25	$31.3 \pm 1.6$	$2.7 \pm 1.1$	$0.7 \pm 0.9$	$-0.6 \pm 1.4$	-0.4
	Adult males + yearlings			$5.2 \pm 1.4$	$3.1 \pm 1.4$	10	$36.7 \pm 3.0$	[34.6 – 39.0]	32	$33.1 \pm 1.6$	$3.8 \pm 1.2$	$1.7 \pm 1.2$	$2.2 \pm 1.9$	0.5

1047 **Supplementary Information 1**

1048 We measured micro-habitat temperature and moisture conditions at each site by recording local  
1049 temperature and relative humidity with temperature-humidity loggers (Hygrochron iButtons,  
1050 Maxim Integrated Products, Sunnyvale, CA, USA,  $\pm 0.5\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$  and 5% relative humidity—RH) at 1  
1051 hour interval during approximately one month every year. A total of 1 to 3 loggers were set under  
1052 cover at each site in diverse substrates, away from full sun in order to avoid high temperatures.  
1053 Each logger was placed in a net in a T-shaped PVC plumbing connection, in which air could  
1054 circulate. This set-up enabled us to measure air temperature and relative humidity at approximately  
1055 2 cm from the soil. As part of another study, we deployed 18 temperature and temperature-humidity  
1056 loggers on one of our focal site (ROB) and used these data for calculating relative micro-habitat  
1057 characteristics in this study. We calculated the water vapor density at each sample point using  
1058 temperature and relative humidity data, following the equation provided by Tieleman et al. (2002).  
1059 This calculation was made in three steps:

1060 1. Calculation of the dew point DP:  $\text{DP} = (\text{RH}/100)^{1/8} \times (112 + 0.9 \times T) + 0.1 \times T - 112$  with T the  
1061 temperature ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) and RH the relative humidity (%).

1062 2. Saturation vapor pressure PWS calculation:

1063 
$$\text{PWS} = [a + b \times \text{DP} + c \times \text{DP}^2 + d \times \text{DP}^3 + e \times \text{DP}^4 + f \times \text{DP}^5 + g \times \text{DP}^6 + h \times \text{DP}^7 + i \times \text{DP}^8] / 10$$

1064 Where:

1065  $a = 6.11583699$

1066  $b = 0.444606896$

1067  $c = 0.0143177157$

1068  $d = 0.000264224321$

1069  $e = 0.00000299291081$

1070  $f = 0.0000000203154182$

1071  $g = 0.0000000000702620698$

1072  $h = 0.0000000000000037953431$

1073  $i = -3.21582393 \times 10^{-16}$

1074 3. Water vapor density P calculation:

1075  $P = [216.7 \times PWS \times 10 / (DP + 273.15) \times (1013 \times (DP + 273.15))] / [1013 \times 273.15]$

1076 Variation in the environmental conditions for each site are plotted in Figure S1.

1077 For each focal site and each sample year, we calculated the average 10:00 to 18:00 minimal, mean,  
 1078 and maximal temperatures (hereafter called  $T_{\min}$ ,  $T_{\text{mean}}$ ,  $T_{\max}$  respectively) and the average 10:00 to  
 1079 18:00 minimal, mean and maximal water density (i.e., water vapor pressure, hereafter called  $P_{\min}$ ,  
 1080  $P_{\text{mean}}$ ,  $P_{\max}$  respectively) during periods of approximately one month each year (Figure S1A and B).  
 1081 To do this we extracted each variable for each day in the period for all loggers in the same site, the  
 1082 same year (maximal and minimal were thus the maximal and minimal values recorded from all  
 1083 loggers combined) and averaged it over the entire period to obtain a yearly mean allowing relative  
 1084 comparison of populations. Cross-correlation coefficients of these microclimatic variables were  
 1085 calculated (Table S3). We selected the microclimatic variables of interest based on these  
 1086 correlations.  $T_{\min}$  is only highly correlated to  $P_{\min}$ . As Dupoué et al. (2018) previously showed the  
 1087 importance of  $T_{\min}$  for lizard biology, we retained it and excluded  $P_{\min}$  from our analyses. We also  
 1088 kept  $T_{\max}$  over  $T_{\text{mean}}$  as previous studies showed that maximum daily temperatures can significantly  
 1089 impact the physiology and phenology of the lizards in these populations (Rutschmann et al. 2016b,  
 1090 Dupoué et al. 2017b). We also kept  $P_{\max}$ , because we considered to be the best proxy of air  
 1091 moisture.

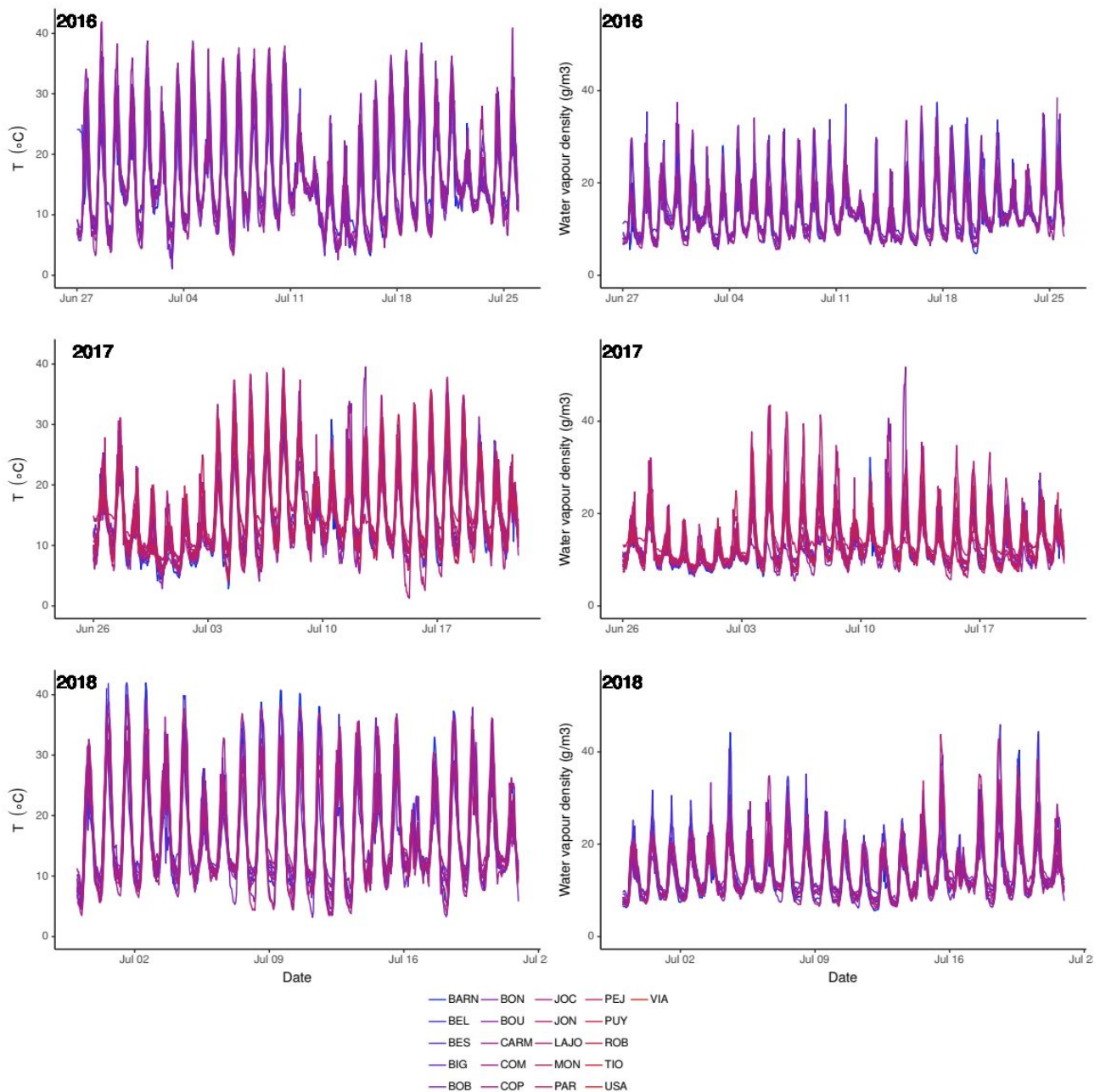
1092

1093 Dupoué, A., A. Rutschmann, J. F. Le Galliard, D. B. Miles, J. Clobert, D. F. DeNardo, G. A.  
 1094 Brusch, and S. Meylan. 2017. Water availability and environmental temperature correlate with  
 1095 geographic variation in water balance in common lizards. *Oecologia* 185:561–571.

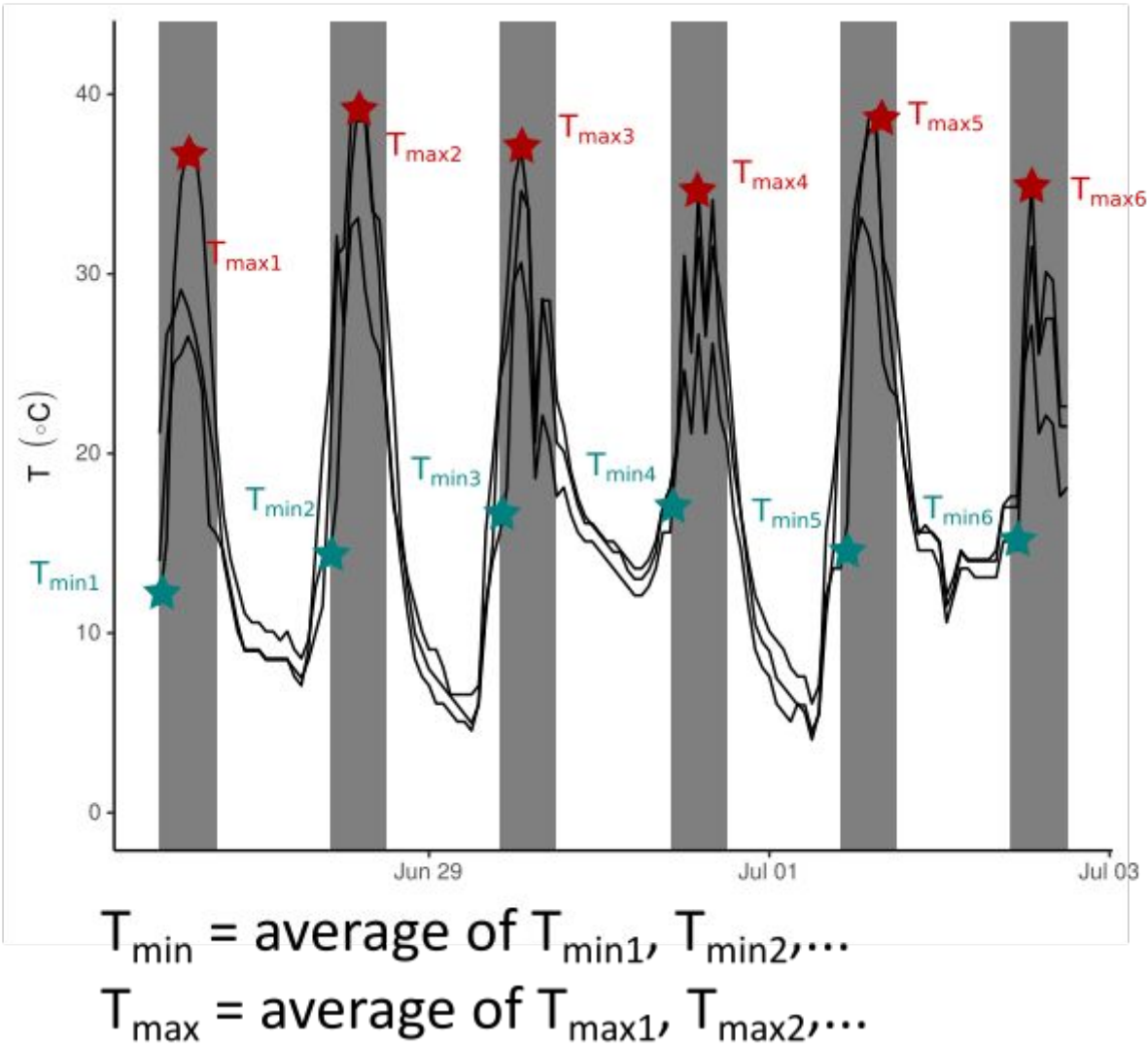


1096 Dupoué, A., A. Rutschmann, J. F. Le Galliard, J. Clobert, P. Blaimont, B. Sinervo, D. B. Miles, C.  
1097 Haussy, and S. Meylan. 2018. Reduction in baseline corticosterone secretion correlates with climate  
1098 warming and drying across wild lizard populations. *Journal of Animal Ecology* 87:1331–1341.  
1099 Rutschmann, A., D. B. Miles, J.-F. Le Galliard, M. Richard, S. Moulherat, B. Sinervo, and J.  
1100 Clobert. 2016. Climate and habitat interact to shape the thermal reaction norms of breeding  
1101 phenology across lizard populations. *Journal of Animal Ecology* 85:457–466.  
1102 Tieleman, B. I., J. B. Williams, and M. E. Buschur. 2002. Physiological adjustments to arid and  
1103 mesic environments in larks (Alaudidae). *Physiological and Biochemical Zoology* 75:305–313.  
1104

1105 **Figure S1A** Variations of temperature  $T$  and water vapor density  $P$  for the three post-sampling  
 1106 periods during which  $T_{\min}$ ,  $T_{\max}$ ,  $T_{\text{mean}}$ ,  $P_{\min}$ ,  $P_{\max}$  and  $P_{\text{mean}}$  were calculated (temperature and vapor  
 1107 density were averaged over the loggers present at the same time in the site for graphical purposes).  
 1108  
 1109



1111 Figure S1B Graphical explanation of the calculations of  $T_{\min}$  and  $T_{\max}$ . For each activity period  
1112 (10:00 to 18:00, gray areas) we measured the minimal and maximal temperatures. Each line  
1113 corresponds to a logger on the site. We averaged these values over the whole measurement period  
1114 to obtain  $T_{\min}$  and  $T_{\max}$ . A similar procedure was used for  $T_{\text{mean}}$ ,  $P_{\min}$ ,  $P_{\text{mean}}$ , and  $P_{\max}$ .



1115 **Table S3** Pearson's correlation coefficients R between each micro-climatic variable.

	<b>T<sub>min</sub></b>	<b>T<sub>mean</sub></b>	<b>T<sub>max</sub></b>	<b>P<sub>min</sub></b>	<b>P<sub>mean</sub></b>	<b>P<sub>max</sub></b>
<b>T<sub>min</sub></b>		0.22	-0.11	0.77	0.25	-0.02
<b>T<sub>mean</sub></b>			0.84	0.16	0.73	0.77
<b>T<sub>max</sub></b>				-0.06	0.60	0.80
<b>P<sub>min</sub></b>					0.53	0.18
<b>P<sub>mean</sub></b>						0.88

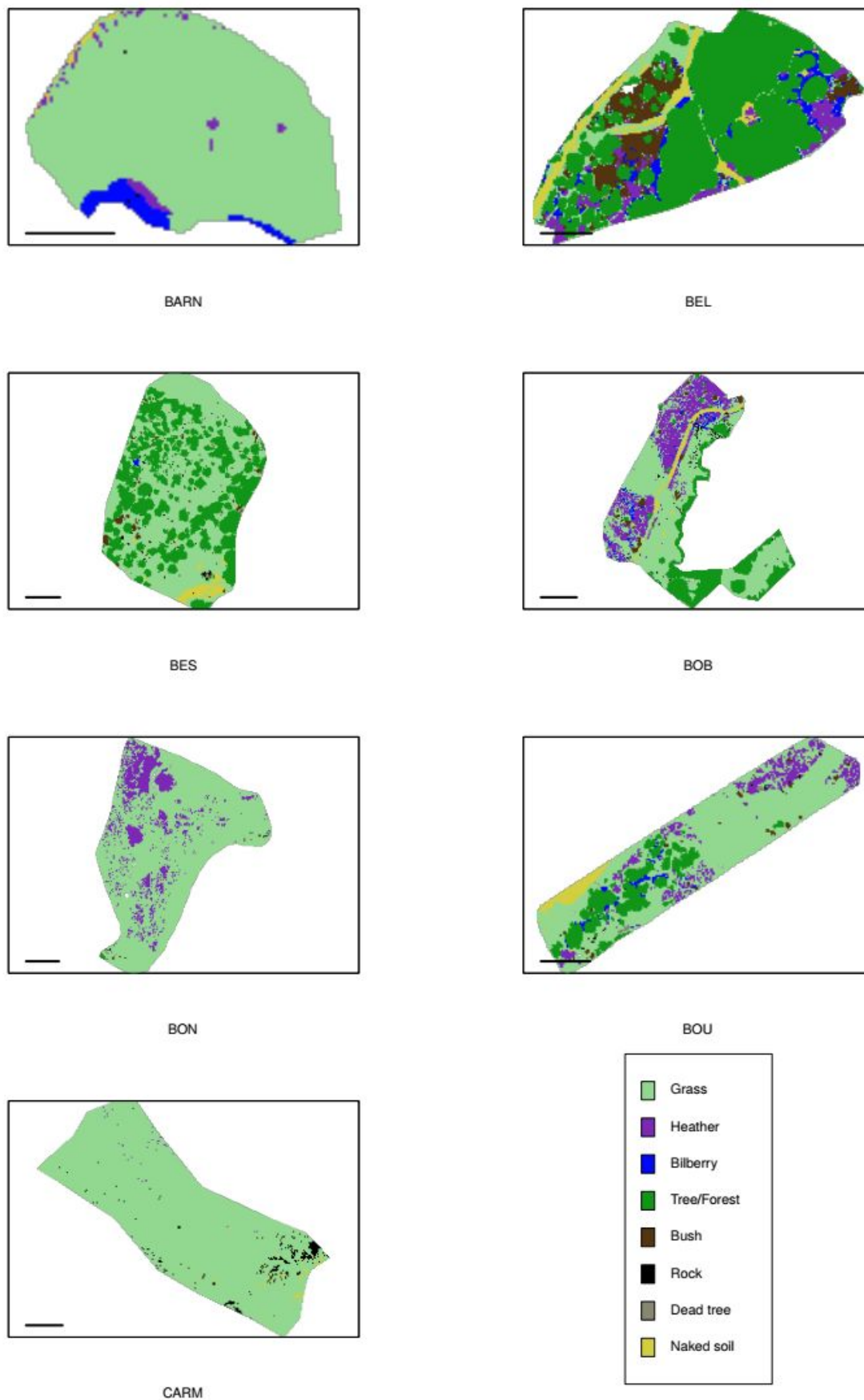
1116

1117 **Table S4** Pearson’s correlation coefficients R between each selected environmental variable.

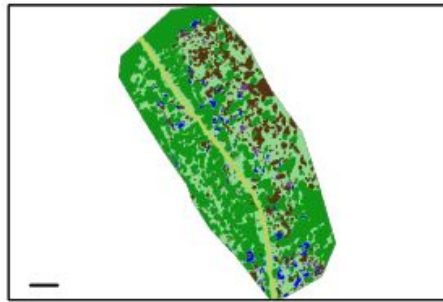
	T <sub>min</sub>	T <sub>max</sub>	Elevation	P <sub>max</sub>	Q	FCI	TE	H
T <sub>min</sub>		-0.11	-0.60	-0.02	-0.30	-0.62	-0.40	0.37
T <sub>max</sub>			-0.07	0.80	-0.11	0.34	0.28	-0.16
Elevation				-0.12	0.45	0.25	0.40	-0.16
P <sub>max</sub>					-0.13	0.28	0.28	-0.19
Q						0.17	0.35	0.18
FCI							0.40	-0.49
TE								-0.63

1118

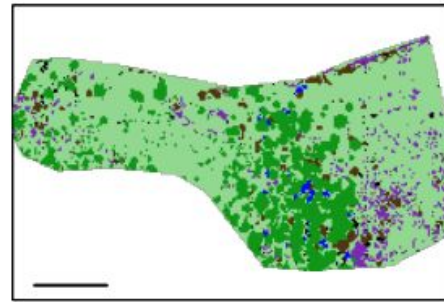
1119 **Figure S2** Raster vegetation map of the 21 populations. Blank pixels stand for water pans or



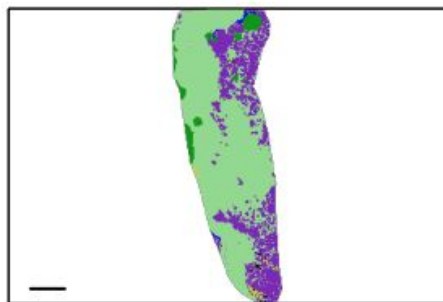
1120 streams in the population. The scale stands for 50 meters.



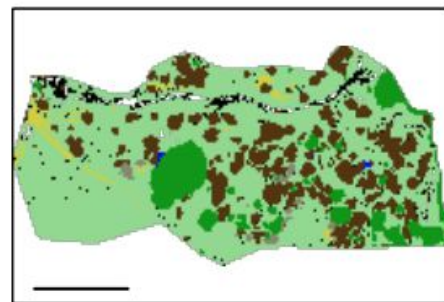
CHA-BIG



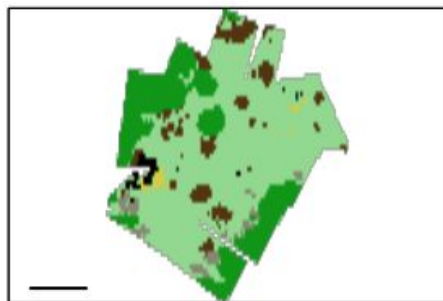
COM



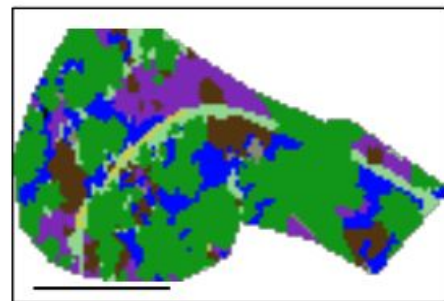
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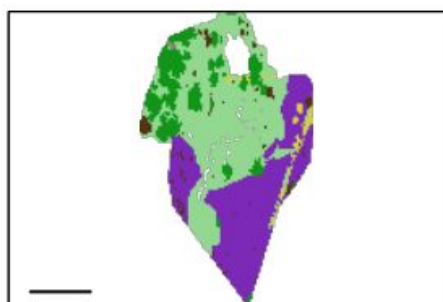
JOC



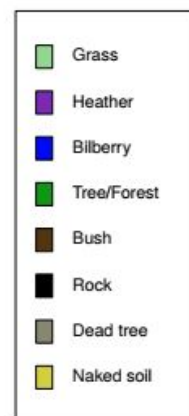
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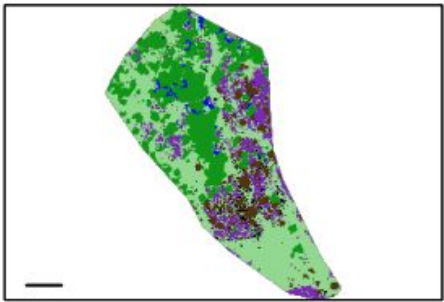
LAJO



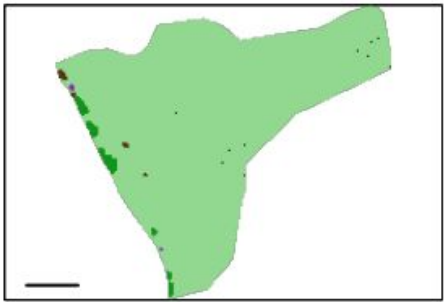
MON



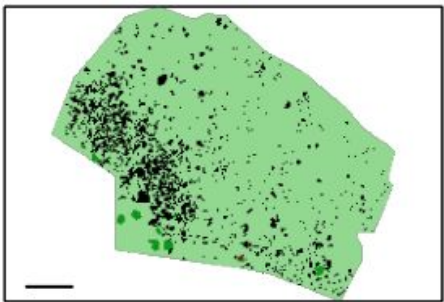




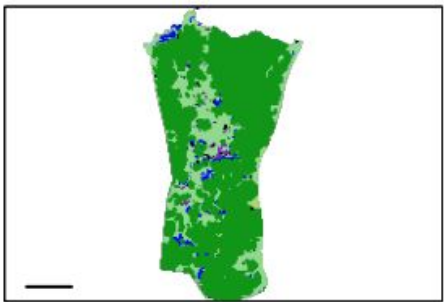
PAR



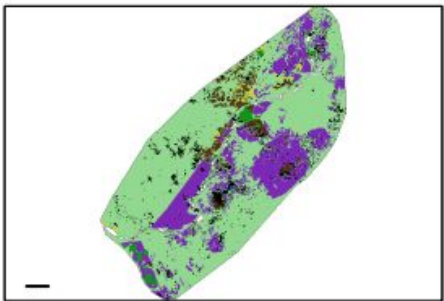
PEJ



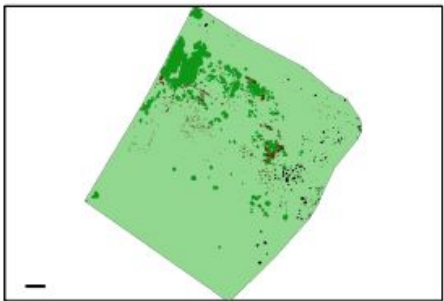
PUY



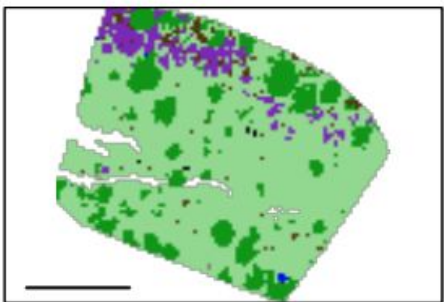
ROB



TIO



USA



VIA



## 1123 **Supplementary Information 2**

1124 During field census, we put between 4 and 12 HOBO® Pro v2 U23-003 (ONSET Cape Cod,  
 1125 Massachusetts) temperature probes inside a painted 6cm long copper tube to measure a lizard  
 1126 operative temperatures in a diversity of substratum (Dzialowski 2005). The loggers recorded  
 1127 operative temperatures every minute in each substratum. In further calculations, we averaged these  
 1128 measures over 15-minute time bins (hereafter called  $T_e$ ) in order to compensate for short-time  
 1129 changes in weather conditions such as wind, clouds, etc. The operative temperatures data were  
 1130 calibrated in September 2016 in CEREEP-Ecotron ÎleDeFrance, France facilities (48° 17' N, 2° 41'  
 1131 E) by temperature records inside the painted copper tube with those of a dead adult individual at the  
 1132 exact same location side by side without contact. We calibrated the operative temperatures under  
 1133 two different conditions (under sun radiation or on a shady patch) and used the calibration curve to  
 1134 transform records from the copper tube model into those representative of core body temperatures  
 1135 of a common lizard.

1136 Under sun radiation:  $T_e = -0.933331 + 1.035632 \times T_{\text{copper tube}}$

1137 Under shade:  $T_e = 2.589795 + 0.878049 \times T_{\text{copper tube}}$

1138 We then analyzed variation in operative temperatures across the hour of the day for each substrate  
 1139 in each site (see Figure S3). We fitted the non-linear variation in operative temperature to the hour  
 1140 of the day using a Generalized Additive Model (*gam* from the package *mgcv*, Wood 2017). We took  
 1141 into account the local site conditions (which could either be specific to the site or to the weather  
 1142 during capture) by adding a site-day fixed effect, which had as many levels as different capture days  
 1143 for each population. To assess average differences between substratum corrected by hour of the day  
 1144 and site-day, we also fitted a substratum fixed effect. We then extracted the estimated operative  
 1145 temperature score per substrate from the model and created temperature raster maps for each site by  
 1146 attributing the estimated operative temperature to each pixel based on the main substratum  
 1147 presence. In order to describe the thermal structure of the landscape we calculated two indices of

the functional diversity of the landscape. The first one, called TE for Thermal Evenness, was calculated by analogy to the functional evenness from Vill  ger et al. (2008). Initially, this score was defined to measure the diversity and regularity of the distribution of functional traits in an ecological community. It was used here to provide a measure of the diversity and regularity of the distribution of operative temperature across the landscape, where

$$TE = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{S-1} \min \left( PEW_{i,i+1}, \frac{1}{S-1} \right) \cdot \frac{1}{S-1}}{1 - \frac{1}{S-1}}$$

with  $S$  the number of substrates, substrates were ranked in the ascending order of operative temperatures and

$$PEW_{i,i+1} = \frac{EW_{i,i+1}}{\sum_{i=1}^{S-1} EW_{i,i+1}}$$

and

$$EW_{i,i+1} = \frac{|T_{i+1} - T_i|}{A_{i+1} + A_i}$$

with  $T_i$  as the operative temperature score of the substratum  $i$  of abundance  $A_i$  in the landscape. As a general rule, TE is close to 1 when operative temperatures across the landscape are diverse and equally abundant. It is close to 0 when temperatures are poorly diversified or when one temperature is over-abundant compared to the others.

The other landscape structure H index measures the spatial homogeneity of temperatures by assessing the probability of having different substrata between adjacent pixels corrected by the difference of temperature between these substrata. We followed Tuanmu and Jetz (2015) method who calculated spatial heterogeneity index for vegetation features, where

$$H = \sum_{i,j=1}^S \frac{P_{ij}}{1 + (T_i - T_j)^2}$$

1168 with  $P_{ij}$  the probability that substrata  $i$  and  $j$  are adjacent.

1169

1170 Dzialowski, E. M. 2005. Use of operative temperature and standard operative temperature models  
1171 in thermal biology. *Journal of Thermal Biology* 30:317–334.

1172 Wood, S. N. 2017. *Generalized additive models: an introduction with R*. Chapman and Hall/CRC.

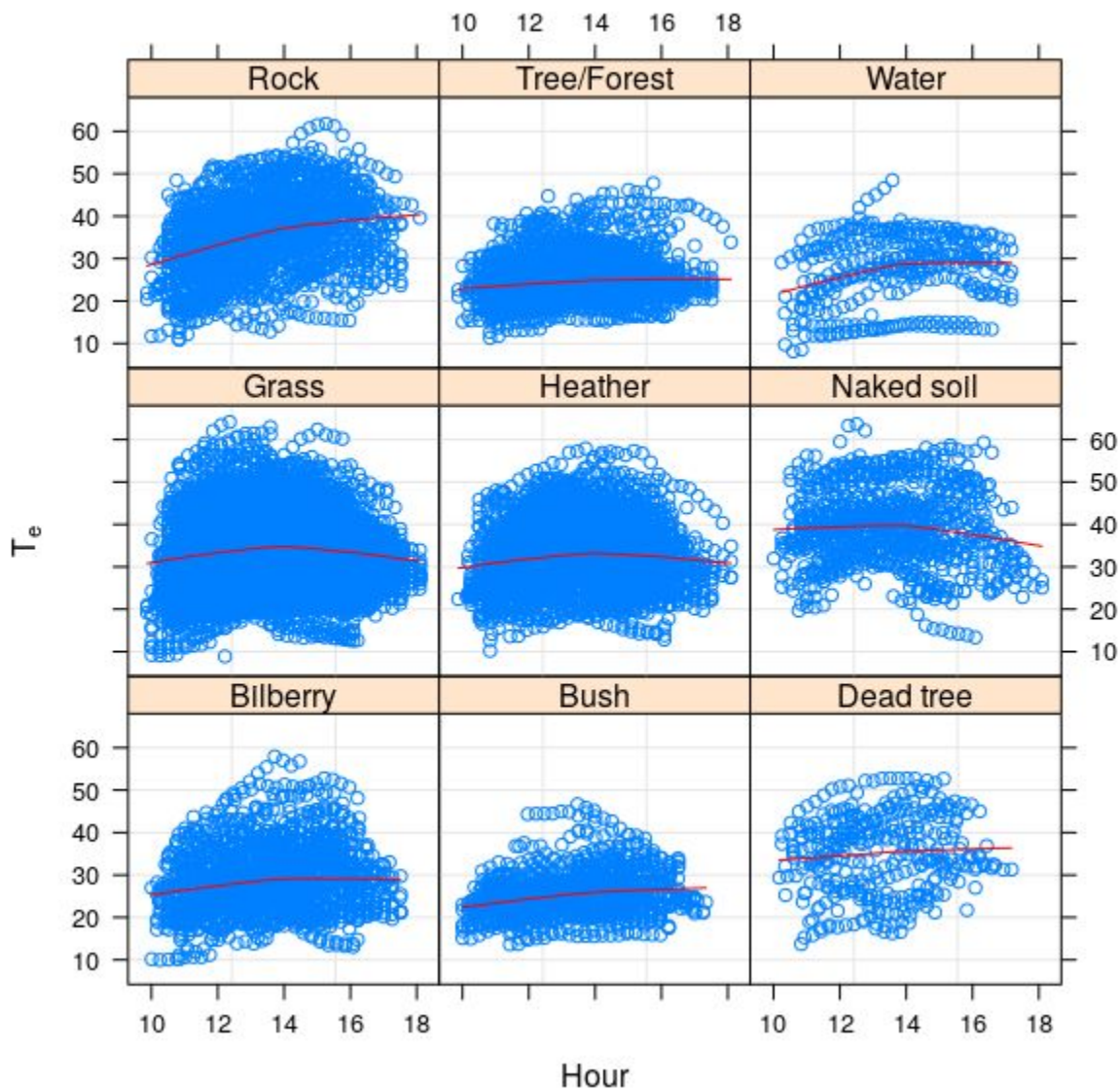
1173

1174 **Figure S3**

1175 Variation in operative temperatures as a function of the hour of the day, depending on the substrate.

1176 Each blue circle is one log of operative temperatures; red lines are loess regressions of  $T_e$  against

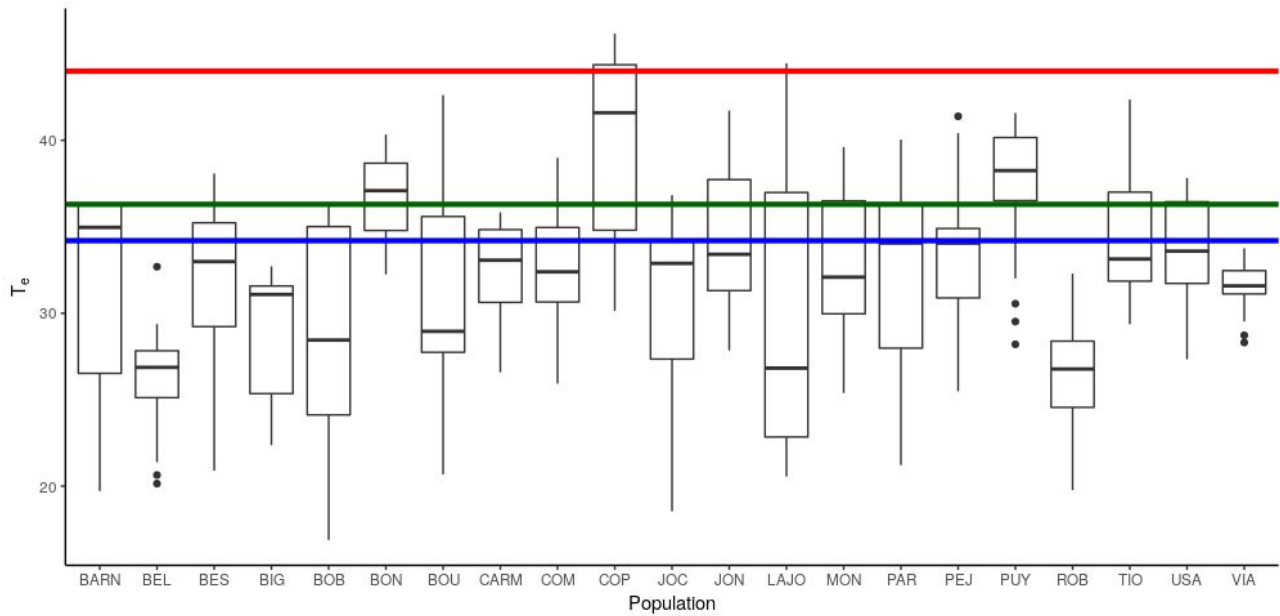
1177 time.



1178

1179 **Figure S4**

1180 Differences in operative temperatures  $T_e$  between sites. The blue line is the gravid females  $\overline{T_{pref}}$ ,  
 1181 the green line is the adult males and yearlings  $\overline{T_{pref}}$  and the red line is the species  $CT_{max}$  (Gvozdik  
 1182 and Castilla 2001).



1183

1184

1185 **Figure S5**

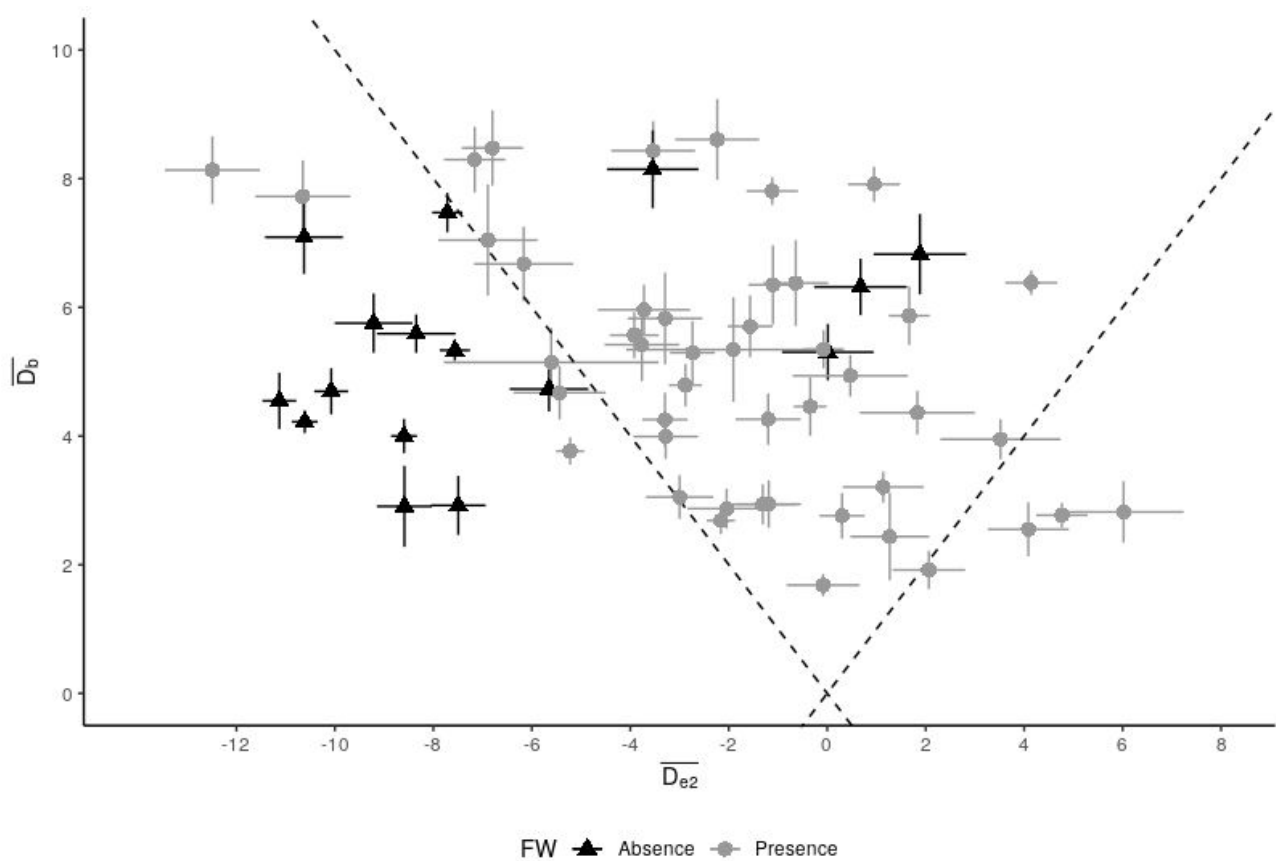
1186 Relationship between the inaccuracy of thermoregulation  $D_b$  measured in individual lizards inside

1187 each population and year and the quality of the thermal habitat  $D_{e2} = T_e - T_{pref}$  measured with

1188 loggers over the same 15-minute time bin for the lizard. Each point represents the average  $D_b$  and

1189  $D_{e2}$  values calculated for each population, each age-sex category of individual, each year. Error bars

1190 are standard errors. Dashed lines are  $D_b = D_{e2}$  and  $D_b = -D_{e2}$  lines.



1191

### 1192 **Supplementary Information 3**

1193 We fitted the variation of  $T_{pref}$  calculated for all age and sex classes in the ROB population to the  
 1194 addition of the two-way interaction of the age and sex of individuals and the two-way interactions  
 1195 of sex and age with the year with a linear mixed-model using the function *lme* from the package  
 1196 *nlme* (Pinheiro and Bates 2006). We also took into account the time of the day by adding the two-  
 1197 way interaction of the time since habituation with the moment of day (morning vs. afternoon). To  
 1198 assess intrapopulation and intraindividual variances, we nested an individual identity random effect  
 1199 in a populational identity random effect. We then proceeded to perform a backward model selection  
 1200 based on log-likelihood ratio tests.  $T_{pref}$  variation was significantly explained by the two-way  
 1201 interaction of the sex and the age ( $F_{1,325} = 4.04, p = 0.045$ ) as well as the two-way interactions  
 1202 between the sex and the year ( $F_{1,325} = 10.2, p = 0.002$ ) and between the age and the year ( $F_{1,325} =$   
 1203  $15.3, p = 0.0001$ ). Adult male  $T_{pref}$  as well as both sexes yearlings  $T_{pref}$  were higher than females.  
 1204 Yearlings and adult males  $T_{pref}$  are not strongly different on average (Table S5, Figure 3A). In our  
 1205 study, we thus supposed that yearling  $\overline{T_{pref}}$  is equivalent to adult males from the same population.

1206

1207 Pinheiro, J., and D. Bates. 2006. Mixed-effects models in S and S-PLUS. Springer Science &  
 1208 Business Media.

1209

1210



1211 **Table S5.** Summary of estimated effects in the best model explaining variation in  $T_{pref}$  of ROB in  
1212 comparison of the reference: adult female in 2017 during the afternoon. SE: standard error, DF:  
1213 degree of freedom.

Effect	Value	SE	DF	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
<i>Intercept</i>	35.1	0.3	3624	102.8	< 0.0001
<i>Yearling</i>	1.5	0.4	325	3.8	0.0002
<i>Male</i>	1.5	0.5	325	3.3	0.001
<i>2018</i>	-1.0	0.4	325	-2.8	0.006
<i>Morning</i>	0.2	0.2	325	0.9	0.35
<i>Time since habituation</i>	-0.8	0.1	3624	-10.4	< 0.0001
<i>Yearling : Male</i>	-0.9	0.4	325	-2.0	0.045
<i>Yearling : 2018</i>	-1.8	0.4	325	-3.9	0.0001
<i>Male : 2018</i>	-1.5	0.5	325	-3.2	0.002
<i>Time since habituation : Morning</i>	0.3	0.1	3624	3.1	0.002
<i>Time since habituation : Male</i>	0.3	0.1	3624	3.0	0.003

**Table S6.** Classification of the 10 best models in the model averaging classification procedure based on AICc. Model weights indicate the relative evidence in favor of one model over all other models included in the set and models are unlikely to represent the “truth” when weight is smaller than ca. 5-10%. The best models based on this rule and the  $\Delta\text{AICc} < 2$  rule are in boldface.  $T_b$ : cloacal body temperature at capture,  $T_{\text{pref}}$ : body temperature measured in the thermal preferences set-up,  $D_b$ : thermoregulation inaccuracy,  $D_e$ : thermal quality of the habitat, E: thermoregulation efficiency. Models that showed wrong convergence were removed (FW, FW  $\times$  TE and Q  $\times$  ELE in  $T_{\text{pref}}$  analyses).

Response	Model	DF	Log-likelihood	AICc	$\Delta\text{AICc}$	Weight
$T_b$	<b>Q <math>\times</math> T<sub>max</sub></b>	<b>15</b>	<b>-4536.30</b>	<b>9102.84</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0.91</b>
	Q $\times$ T <sub>min</sub>	15	-4539.46	9109.16	6.33	0.04
	H $\times$ T <sub>max</sub>	15	-4540.24	9110.72	7.89	0.02
	ELE $\times$ P <sub>max</sub>	15	-4541.33	9112.90	10.07	0.01
	T <sub>max</sub> $\times$ Age	14	-4542.62	9113.46	10.63	0
	FCI $\times$ Sex $\times$ Age	16	-4540.72	9113.71	10.88	0
	TE $\times$ T <sub>max</sub>	15	-4541.76	9113.76	10.93	0
	FW $\times$ Sex $\times$ Age	16	-4540.91	9114.10	11.26	0
	FCI $\times$ Age	14	-4543.55	9115.31	12.48	0
$T_{\text{pref}}$	<b>FCI <math>\times</math> Sex</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>-35171.37</b>	<b>70372.77</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0.84</b>
	FW $\times$ Sex	15	-35173.10	10376.24	3.47	0.15
	FCI	14	-35178.52	70385.07	12.30	0
	ELE $\times$ FW	16	-35176.68	70385.41	12.64	0
	FCI $\times$ T <sub>max</sub>	16	-35176.87	70385.78	13.01	0
	FCI $\times$ ELE	16	-35177.14	70386.65	13.55	0
	T <sub>max</sub> $\times$ FW	16	-35177.52	70387.08	14.30	0

	$FW \times FCI$	16	-35177.60	70388.24	14.48	0
	$FW \times TE$	16	-35177.68	70387.40	14.63	0
	$FW \times H$	16	-35177.97	70387.98	15.21	0
$D_b$	$Q \times T_{max}$	19	<b>-1551.76</b>	<b>3141.90</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>1</b>
	$Q \times T_{min}$	19	-1559.97	3158.33	16.43	0
	$TE \times T_{max}$	19	-1563.38	3165.14	23.24	0
	$H \times T_{max}$	19	-1565.32	3169.02	27.12	0
	$ELE \times P_{max}$	19	-1566.34	3171.07	29.17	0
	$T_{max}$	17	-1572.67	3179.66	37.75	0
	$T_{max} \times Sex \times Age$	20	-1569.82	3180.06	38.16	0
	$T_{max} \times Sex$	18	-1572.33	3181.00	39.09	0
	$Age \times T_{max}$	18	-1572.52	3181.40	39.49	0
	$T_{max} \times FCI$	19	-1572.03	3182.45	40.55	0
$D_e$	$P_{max} \times T_{min}$	11	<b>-4046.11</b>	<b>8114.39</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>1</b>
	$TE \times T_{max}$	11	-4070.09	8162.35	47.96	0
	$FW \times T_{max}$	11	-4076.64	8175.45	61.06	0
	$FCI \times P_{max}$	11	-4081.76	8185.69	71.30	0
	$FCI \times T_{max}$	11	-4092.67	8207.51	93.12	0
	$Q \times T_{max}$	11	-4096.94	8216.04	101.65	0
	$H \times P_{max}$	11	-4097.24	8216.64	102.26	0
	$T_{max}$	9	-4099.50	8217.10	102.72	0
	$H \times T_{max}$	11	-4098.14	9218.44	104.05	0
	$AgeSex \text{ Category} \times T_{max}$	10	-4099.23	8218.59	104.20	0
	$Q \times T_{min}$	11	-4098.77	8219.71	105.32	0
$E$	$P_{max} \times T_{min}$	13	<b>-4778.58</b>	<b>9583.35</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>1</b>

	$FW \times T_{\max}$	13	-4812.36	9650.91	67.55	0
	$FE \times T_{\max}$	13	-4813.72	9653.64	70.29	0
	$FCI \times T_{\max}$	13	-4818.76	9663.71	80.36	0
	$T_{\max} \times H$	13	-4819.91	9666.01	82.65	0
	$T_{\max}$	11	-4822.98	9668.11	84.76	0
	$\text{AgeSex Category} \times T_{\max}$	12	-4822.33	9668.84	85.48	0
	$H \times T_{\min}$	13	-4821.85	9669.90	86.55	0
	$FCI \times P_{\max}$	13	-4836.97	9700.14	116.79	0
	$Q \times T_{\min}$	13	-4837.96	9702.1	118.76	0

1223

1224

#### 1225 **Supplementary Information 4**

1226 We estimated stage of gestation for adult females when we measured  $T_{pref}$  by calculating the  
 1227 number of days between the measure date and parturition date. As breeding conditions were the  
 1228 same for all females after capture, differences in the stage of gestation are likely consequences of  
 1229 differences in individual state variables among females and environmental conditions among  
 1230 natural populations as indicated in previous studies (Le Galliard et al. 2010, Rutschmann et al.  
 1231 2016b). We analyzed whether the  $T_{pref}$  of a gravid females differed according to the stage of  
 1232 gestation and FCI with a linear mixed model (*lme* from package “nlme”). We fitted inter-population  
 1233 and inter-individual deviance by adding the individual identity nested in the population identity as a  
 1234 random effect. As weather conditions in spring were different across years, we also fitted an  
 1235 additive year effect to account for yearly differences in average stage of gestation. We selected the  
 1236 best model with a backward model selection procedure based on loglikelihood.

1237  $T_{pref}$  significantly decreased with the progress of pregnancy ( $F_{1,619} = 75.4, p < 0.0001$ ) and average  
 1238 body temperature did not change according to the forest cover index ( $F_{1,19} = 1.5, p = 0.23$ ).

1239 Populations with high forest cover were on average sampled at earlier stage of pregnancy especially  
 1240 because we sampled the population ROB first in 2018, in which we sampled more individuals and  
 1241 gestation is usually delayed compared to other populations.

1242 As a supplement, we also tested if adult male thermal preferences changed with the date. We  
 1243 calculated the difference in days between the date of capture and the earliest date at which a male  
 1244 had been captured for all year combined, which we will call the “date”. We used the same starting  
 1245 mixed effect model as described in the Methods, removing the sex effect and adding the year  $\times$   
 1246 date. The male  $T_{pref}$  did not change according to the date, whatever the year (year $\times$ date:  $F_{2,334} =$   
 1247 0.01,  $p = 0.99$ ; date:  $F_{1,334} = 0.2, p = 0.64$ ).

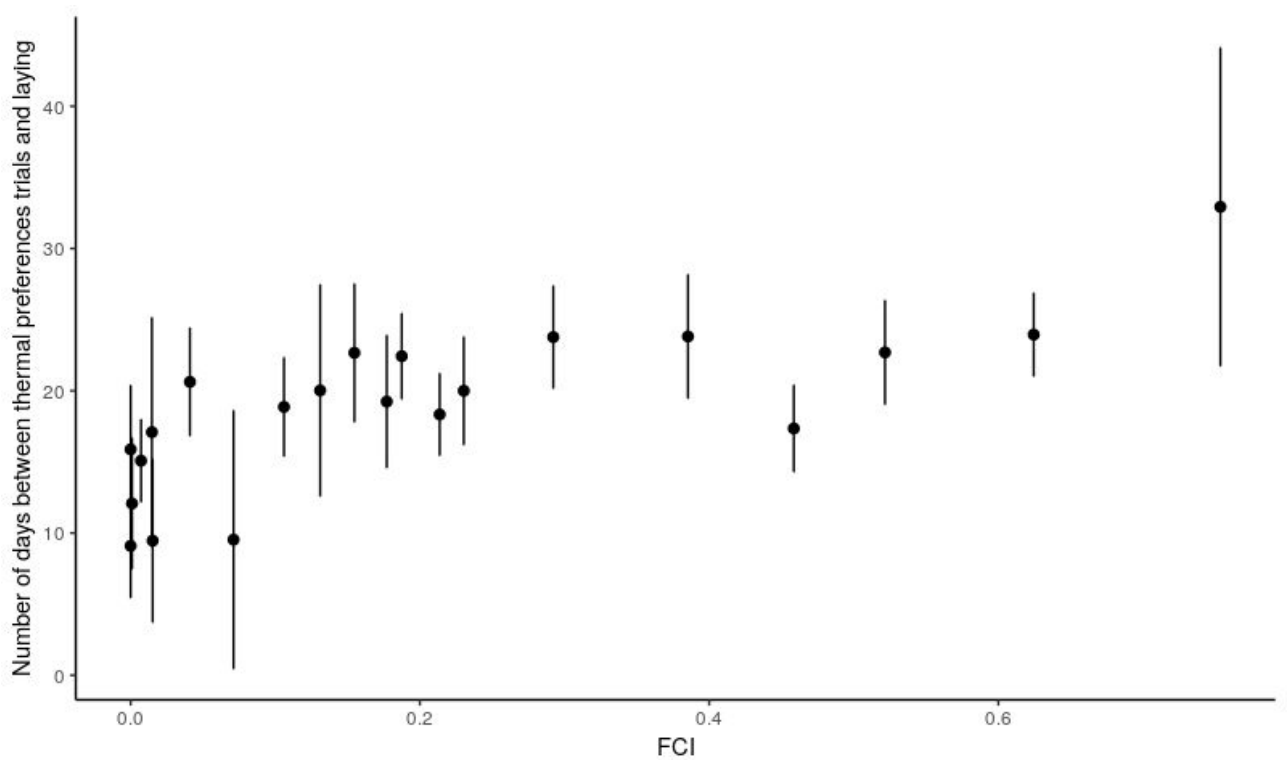
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1254

1255 **Figure S6**

1256 Number of days between the measurement of Tpref and laying for each population as a function of  
1257 forest cover index. Error bars are for standard deviations.



1258