Does ecophysiology mediate reptile responses to fire regimes? Evidence from Iberian lizards

Catarina C Ferreira, Xavier Santos, Miguel A. Carretero

Background. Reptiles are sensitive to habitat disturbance induced by wildfires but species frequently show opposing responses. Functional causes of such variability have been scarcely explored. In the northernmost limit of the Mediterranean bioregion, lizard species of Mediterranean affinity (Psammodromus algirus and Podarcis guadarramae) increase in abundance in burnt areas whereas Atlantic species (Lacerta schreiberi and Podarcis bocagei) decrease. Timon lepidus, the largest Mediterranean lizard in the region, show mixed responses depending on the locality and fire history. We tested if such interspecific differences are of functional nature, namely, if lizard ecophysiological traits may determine their response to fire. Based on the variation in habitat structure between burnt and unburnt sites, we hypothesise that Mediterranean species increasing density in open habitats promoted by frequent fire regimes should be more thermophile and suffer lower water losses than Atlantic species. Methods. We submitted 6-10 adult males of the five species to standard experiments for assessing preferred body temperatures (Tp) and evaporative water loss rates (EWL), and examined the variation among species and along time by means of repeated-measures AN(C)OVAs. Results. Results only partially supported our initial expectations, since the medium-sized P. algirus clearly attained higher Tp and lower EWL. The two small wall lizards (P. bocagei and P. guadarramae) displayed low Tp and high EWL while the two large green lizards (T. lepidus and L. schreiberi) displayed intermediate values for both parameters. Discussion. The predicted differences according to the biogeographic affinities within each pair were not fully confirmed. We conclude that ecophysiology may help to understand functional reptile responses to fire but other biological traits are also to be considered.

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12 Abstract

13 Background. Reptiles are sensitive to habitat disturbance induced by wildfires but species frequently show opposing responses. Functional causes of such variability have been scarcely 14 15 explored. In the northernmost limit of the Mediterranean bioregion, lizard species of 16 Mediterranean affinity (*Psammodromus algirus* and *Podarcis guadarramae*) increase in 17 abundance in burnt areas whereas Atlantic species (Lacerta schreiberi and Podarcis bocagei) 18 decrease. *Timon lepidus*, the largest Mediterranean lizard in the region, show mixed responses 19 depending on the locality and fire history. We tested if such interspecific differences are of 20 functional nature, namely, if lizard ecophysiological traits may determine their response to fire. 21 Based on the variation in habitat structure between burnt and unburnt sites, we hypothesise that 22 Mediterranean species increasing density in open habitats promoted by frequent fire regimes 23 should be more thermophile and suffer lower water losses than Atlantic species. 24 Methods. We submitted 6-10 adult males of the five species to standard experiments for 25 assessing preferred body temperatures (T_p) and evaporative water loss rates (EWL), and 26 examined the variation among species and along time by means of repeated-measures 27 AN(C)OVAs. 28 **Results.** Results only partially supported our initial expectations, since the medium-sized P.

algirus clearly attained higher Tp and lower EWL. The two small wall lizards (*P. bocagei* and *P. guadarramae*) displayed low Tp and high EWL while the two large green lizards (*T. lepidus* and *L. schreiberi*) displayed intermediate values for both parameters.

32 **Discussion.** The predicted differences according to the biogeographic affinities within each pair

33 were not fully confirmed. We conclude that ecophysiology may help to understand functional

34 reptile responses to fire but other biological traits are also to be considered.

- 36 Keywords: reptiles; habitat; functional response; preferred temperatures, water-loss rates;
- 37 wildfires

38 Introduction

39 Wildfire is considered among the environmental disturbances having a major impact on 40 ecosystem functioning and composition in many areas of the world (Bond et al., 2005). Global 41 climate change (Piñol et al., 1998; McKenzie et al., 2004; Kasischke & Turetsky, 2006; 42 Westerling et al., 2006) and shifts in land-use practices (i. e. agricultural abandonment and urban 43 sprawl (Moreira et al., 2001; Moreira & Russo, 2007) are considered primary causes for the 44 recent increase of fire frequency and extension. Changes in fire regimes are expected to provoke profound effects on the biodiversity and composition of local communities (McKenzie et al., 45 46 2004). The increase of fire risk and activity in recent decades (Pausas, 2014) has attracted 47 considerable interest mainly addressed to understand the environmental drivers and effects of 48 fire, especially in the context of global change (Bowman et al., 2009; Flannigan et al., 2009; 49 Whitlock et al., 2010). In the present context of a shift in fire regimes, a pressing question is 50 whether we are prepared to manage fire regimes and reduce impacts of fire on many ecosystem 51 components (Pausas & Keeley, 2009). An ecological-based framework to understand how 52 species respond to fire and which is the resistance and resilience of communities towards this 53 disturbance is crucial in the 21st century conservation scenario (Nimmo et al., 2015). 54 The response of species to fire is largely driven by habitat structure (Santos et al., 2015) 55 with some species selecting early or late post-fire stages following a continuum along vegetation 56 succession (Letnic et al., 2004; Santos & Poquet, 2010; Valentine et al., 2012; Santos et al., 57 2016). The 'habitat accommodation' model of succession proposed by Fox (1982), applied to the 58 fire ecology, represented a fine framework to understand and predict the response of animals to 59 fire. However, field-based studies have failed to support this model (Driscoll and Henderson 60 2008; Lindenmayer et al., 2008) since the responses of species to fire vary in space and time

61 (Driscoll et al., 2012; Nimmo et al., 2012; Smith et al., 2013) due to the complexity of biotic and 62 abiotic interactions between vegetation dynamics, animal species, and climate (Nimmo et al., 63 2014). For this reason, to improve predictive models of fire responses in animal communities, 64 detailed ecological (functional) information of species is needed (Smith et al., 2013). 65 Functional approaches have gained acceptation in community ecology due to the 66 possibility of quantification and predictive power (McGill et al., 2006). Although such analyses 67 have been rarely applied to fire ecology (i. e. traits favoured in burnt areas), some recent studies 68 highlight its importance for predict responses of reptiles to fire (see references above). Reptiles 69 are adequate organisms to examine their response to fire following habitat-based and functional 70 approaches in tandem due to their dependence on environment temperature and strait association 71 with habitat (Huey, 1982). While reptile responses to fire are often considered habitat-mediated, 72 such association is not necessarily direct. For instance, since fire opens the habitat in the short 73 term, many reptiles are expected to benefit from the thermal quality of open areas created by fire 74 (Bury, 2004). Different species, however, display opposing responses depending on their habitat 75 preferences, biogeographic affinities and life-history traits (Pastro et al., 2013; Smith et al., 2013; 76 Santos et al., 2016). For example, in a mixed reptile community composed of Mediterranean and 77 non-Mediterranean species, Santos & Cheylan (2013) detected that repeated-fire regime 78 favoured reptile assemblages composed of Mediterranean species with short lifespan and 79 insectivorous dietary habits. 80 As ectotherm and sedentary, terrestrial reptiles are directly and locally exposed to 81 environmental variation in temperature and humidity which makes them ideal subjects for

82 mechanistic ecological modelling (Kearney & Porter, 2009). Specifically, their intrinsic

83 physiological features may potentially govern the response of different species to fire. Thus,

84 body temperature is considered the most important environmental variable affecting performance 85 of ectotherms, including reptiles (Angilletta, 2010), their heat balance resulting from thermal characteristics of the environment (Porter et al., 1973; Porter & Tracy, 1983). Thermoregulatory 86 87 reptiles respond to the heterogeneity of the thermal environment by selecting microhabitats with 88 adequate temperatures and modifying their body postures to maximize heat gain or lost. 89 However, during these processes reptiles also suffer evaporative water loss (EWL) mainly 90 through the skin but also through respiratory passages and the eyes (Shoemaker & Nagy, 1977; 91 Mautz, 1982a). Since evaporation increases with temperature, a trade-off between 92 thermoregulation and water balance in ectotherms has been suggested (Mautz, 1982a). EWL 93 could hence represent a constraint for the activity of ectotherms when water is not available. In 94 this context, reptiles exposed to unburnt and burnt habitats are expected to face opposing 95 environmental conditions. Under similar climate regimes, unburnt habitats provide more 96 abundant and complex vegetation compared to that in open burnt habitats that in turn are more 97 exposed to extreme temporal variation in environmental temperature and humidity (Ferreira 98 2015; data from NW Portugal available from the authors upon request). We hypothesize that 99 reptile species prevailing in unburnt (forested) habitats will keep lower and less variable body 100 temperatures and to experience less water loss rates as vegetation buffers daily variation of 101 humidity and temperature (Ferreira, 2015). In contrast, reptiles inhabiting burnt (open) habitats 102 will attain higher but temporally variable body temperatures and suffer higher evaporative water 103 stress.

104To test this hypothesis we have analysed the community of lacertid lizards inhabiting105Northern Portugal, a transition zone between Atlantic and Mediterranean bioregions, where106species of different biogeographic affinities coexist. Lacertids constitute a guild of diurnal,

107 heliothermic and mainly insectivorous lizards, highly diversified in habitat use (Arnold, 1987), 108 which dominate reptile assemblages across the Mediterranean basin (Carretero, 2004). In 109 syntopy, species from both biogeographic affinities spatially segregate in a gradient from 110 forested to open microhabitats within patchy and heterogeneous landscapes (Ferriera et al., 111 2016). Systematic monitoring during the last decade in burnt and unburnt areas in Northern 112 Portugal and other areas of the northernmost limit of the Mediterranean bioregion agrees with 113 these fieldwork evidences on the microhabitat segregation. We detected opposing responses to fire by different species mostly related to their biogeographic affinity. Namely, Mediterranean 114 115 species Psammodromuns algirus and Podarcis guadarramae increased in abundance in burnt 116 areas whereas the Atlantic species Lacerta schreiberi and Podarcis bocagei decreased (Santos & 117 Poquet, 2010; Santos & Cheylan, 2013; authors' unpublished results). The Mediterranean lizard 118 *Timon lepidus* displayed mixed responses depending on the population. Whereas in the 119 northernmost limit of its distribution, it was favoured by fire (Santos & Cheylan, 2013), in 120 Mediterranean habitats if prefers long-unburnt sites suggesting negative short-term responses to 121 fire (Santos et al., 2016). Based on this empirical evidence, we conducted a comparative 122 experimental study in order to determine whether Mediterranean and Atlantic species responses 123 to fire are correlated to their thermal and hydric physiology. Two ecophysiological traits were 124 selected to represent the general species' trends: preferred body temperature and evaporative 125 water loss. Specifically, we tested whether species favoured by repeatedly fire regimes should be 126 more thermophile and suffer lower water loss rates than those negatively affected. In this case, 127 we predict that T. lepidus, P. algirus and P. guadarramae species responding positively, should 128 have higher preferred temperatures and lower evaporative water loss than L. schreiberi and P. 129 *bocagei*, species that respond negatively.

130

131 Materials and methods

132 Study area

133 The Iberian Peninsula features a transition region between Euro-Siberian and Mediterranean 134 biogeographic regions (Metzger et al., 2005; Soares & Brito, 2007). These biogeographic 135 crossroads are known as areas of great diversity of species and habitats (Spector, 2002). The 136 extensive contact between Mediterranean and Atlantic climates leads to a high biodiversity of 137 plants and animals, due to the co-existence of Atlantic and Mediterranean typical species in 138 sympatry (Araújo et al., 2006; Sillero et al., 2009). One of these transitional areas is found in 139 northern Portugal (Soares et al., 2005). This is one of the areas in Europe with the highest 140 amount of burnt land; wildfire is considered a fundamental agent of landscape change (Silva et 141 al., 2011). Transitional zones affected by intense fire history provide an opportunity to compare the ecological trends of both types of species either in a general conservation context (Kati et al., 142 143 2004) or more specifically to make predictions on the effects of fires herpetofauna biodiversity 144 (Hooper et al., 2005).

145

146 Species sampling

The five lacertid species used on physiological experiments are the reptiles most frequently
found in the area (Loureiro et al., 2008). These species vary in terms of body size, habitat
preferences, distribution, biogeographic affinities and response to fire (Table 1).

150 Lizards used in experiments were captured with a noose (García-Muñoz & Sillero, 2010)

151 in three areas: *P. algirus* were captured in Serra da Estrela (40°51' N, 7°53' W), *T. lepidus* and *L.*

152 schreiberi in Vairão (41°32' N, 8°67' W) and, finally, P. bocagei and P. guadarramae syntopic

in Moledo (41°84' N, 8°87' W). All the sites are located in Northern Portugal and selectedaccording to the availability of lizards.

155 To exclude effects of reproduction, body condition and ontogeny on T_n (Carretero et al., 156 2005) we only captured 6-10 adult males during the peak of the reproductive season (May), 157 which were kept in individual cages before the experiments, with water and food provided ad 158 *libitum.* We measured body mass (BM) to the nearest 0.0001 g of each lizard with a digital 159 balance and snout-vent lengths (SVL) to the nearest 0.01 mm with a digital calliper. After a 160 short period of acclimation (1-2 days) we submitted them to temperatures and water loss 161 experiments in two consecutive days and released them at their capture sites after the 162 experiments have finished and after being fed and rehydrated. 163 The Institute for the Conservation of Nature and Forest (ICNF, Portugal) gave the 164 sampling permit (no. 459/2015/CAPT). Experiments followed the ethical guidelines of

165 University of Porto.

166

167 Preferred temperatures

168 Preferred body temperature (T_p, body temperature achieved in the absence of thermoregulatory 169 constraints, Huey & Bennet, 1987) provides a reliable representation of the overall thermal 170 requirements of a given species while holds some logistic advantages. Namely, 1) it correlates 171 directly with several physiological optima (Bauwens et al., 1995); 2) its temporal variation is relatively narrow in good thermoregulators lacertids (Huey 1982); 3) it displays phylogenetic 172 signal (Bauwens et al., 1995) and remains conservative in conspecific populations under 173 174 different climate regimes in many lacertid species (i.e. Díaz et al., 2006); and 4) it can be reliably 175 recorded in the lab under standardised conditions (Osojnik et al., 2013). It is true that at the

176 individual level, T_p may change as a function of time of the day, season, feeding activity, 177 ontogeny or reproductive status (Castilla et al., 1999) but these biases can be removed by 178 restricting comparisons to a single class (i.e. adult males) and time period (i.e spring) following a 179 strict experimental protocol (Carretero et al., 2005). 180 Lizards were individually exposed to a photothermal gradient between 20 and 50°C 181 produced by a 150-W infrared bulb fixed at one end of the terrarium (1 x 0.3 x 0.4 m) (Veríssimo 182 & Carretero, 2009). The whole experiment was conducted in a room with temperature 183 maintained at 22°C to prevent wind and direct sun from affecting the temperatures in the 184 terrarium while being exposed to natural photoperiod through a window. Every day of 185 experimentation we turned on the bulb 1 h before the lizards were moved from the cages to the 186 terrariums and the first measure was at 8 h. 187 The whole experiment was conducted from local summer time 8-19 h, the period of daily activity of the five species. At consecutive hourly intervals, we measured the body temperature 188 189 of each lizard (precision $\pm 0.1^{\circ}$ C) using a k-thermocouple probe associated with a digital portable 190 thermometer HIBOK 14 inserted into the animals cloaca (Veríssimo & Carretero, 2009). This 191 standard procedure (García-Muñoz & Carretero, 2013; Osojnik et al., 2013) is a compromise 192 between invasiveness and accuracy since at least the two *Podarcis* sp. and *P. algirus* are too 193 small to allocate permanent cloacal probes or to implant transmitters (Clusella-Trullas et al., 194 2007), and too slender to provide accurate infrared readings (Carretero, 2012). While these 195 methods could have been used with T. lepidus and probably with L. schreiberi, we preferred to 196 keep the same measuring procedure for all five species for comparative purposes. 197

198 Water-loss rates

Although reptilian hydric ecophysiology is less studied, evaporative water loss (EWL) rates are
known to differ between species from xeric and humid habitats (Mautz, 1982b; Eynan & Dmi'el,
1993; Carneiro et al., 2015; Rato & Carretero, 2015) and between phylogenetically distant
species in the same locality (García-Muñoz & Carretero, 2013; Osijnik et al., 2013). This makes
EWL potentially informative on the hydric constraints of a species' fundamental niche,
particularly under restricted water availability (Bowker et al., 1993).

205 Water-loss experiments were always performed the day after previous experiment when 206 lizards were kept rehydrated in the housing terraria. We placed the lizards in closed cylindrical 207 plastic boxes (9 cm diameter, 10 cm height) with ventilation holes in the top and the bottom. 208 Then, in groups of five boxes, lizards were placed into a bigger, opaque sealed chamber (40 x 30 209 x 20 cm) in dry conditions guaranteed by silica gel. Silica gel (~ 100 g) was allocated in a bag 210 made of gauze and fixed with tape on the bottom of the chamber lid. In the same way, 5 g silica gel was placed at the bottom of each box containing a lizard. The amount of silica gel used 211 212 guaranteed a low relative humidity inside of each box (20-25%). The experiment was held from 213 8 a.m. to 8 p.m. Conditions inside the chamber were monitored with a Fluke 971 temperature 214 humidity meter (Fluke Corporation, Everett, Washington) at hourly intervals to ensure stability around ~24 °C and 20-30% relative humidity. The environmental temperatures were selected 215 216 after lowest activity temperatures recorded for most lacertids in the field (Castilla et al., 1999) to prevent lizard stress inside the chambers while still providing relevant EWL rates. Every hour, 217 218 the lizards were individually removed from the chamber, weighted using an analytical balance 219 (precision ± 0.0001 g; CPA model 224S, Sartorius), and immediately placed back inside their 220 respective boxes in the chamber.

222 Statistical analyses

223 Once ensured that the distribution of Tp and EWL values did not deviate from normality 224 (Shapiro–Wilk's test, P > 0.05 in all cases) and the sphericity assumption was met (Mauchly's 225 tests P > 0.05), analyses for dependent measures were applied since both Tp and EWL were 226 recorded for the same individual lizards along time. We first used analyses of (co)variance with repeated measures (AN(C)OVA-rm) to ascertain variation in Tp as a function of species and time 227 interval (within- subject factor). In a second step, lizards' SVL and body mass were incorporated 228 229 as covariates to account for the effect of lizard size and shape (Carretero et al. 2005). When 230 significant, post hoc Duncan's tests were performed between species pairs to detect eventual 231 significant differences. For water loss experiments, we also used AN(C)OVA-rm to determine differences in instantaneous water loss (EWL_i = $[(W_n - W_{n+1})/W_0]$ where W is the weight) between 232 233 species and hour intervals, adding lizards' SVL and body mass as covariates. We also calculated 234 the accumulated water loss for the 11 intervals (EWLa = $[(W_0-W_n)/W_0]$ where W is the weight) 235 and compared it between species using AN(C)OVA, also with SVL and body mass as covariates. 236 The interaction between the mean T_p (calculated from 10 time interval measurements), BM, SVL 237 and the total amount of water lost after the 12-hour experiment (EWL_t= $[(W_0-W_{11})/W_0]$) was assessed by standard multiple regression between species (average of T_p and EWL_t by species) 238 239 and within species. All the analyses were performed in Statistica 12 (Dell Inc., 2015).

240

241 Results

The five lizards species (Table 2) differed in SVL (ANOVA $F_{4,36} = 176.55$; $P < 10^{-6}$) and body mass (ANOVA $F_{4,36} = 151.26$; $P < 10^{-6}$). The post-hoc comparisons (Duncan tests P < 0.05) corroborated that the two *Podarcis* species were shorter and lighter, followed by *P. algirus*, then

- 245 L. schreiberi and, finally, Timon lepidus, the longest and heaviest species. We also detected
- interspecific differences in robustness (ANCOVA on mass with SVL as covariable; $F_{4,35}$ = 21.69;
- 247 $P < 10^{-6}$), *T. lepidus* being the most robust, followed by *P. bocagei*, *P. guadarramae* and *P.*
- 248 *algirus*, and finally by *L. schreiberi*, which was the most slender.
- 249
- 250 Preferred temperatures
- 251 We recovered variation in T_p between species, time intervals and time profile by species
- 252 (interaction) (Tables 2 and 3; Supplemental_Table_S1). Essentially, *P. algirus* selected higher T_p
- than all other species (Duncan tests P < 0.05), of which L. schreiberi, T. lepidus. P.
- 254 gaudarramae and P. bocagei selected temperatures in gradually decreasing order. Such pattern
- 255 remained when SVL and BM were used as covariates (Table 3). While time and time*species
- 256 variation were also observed, patterns were complex (Fig. 1). Only *P. bocagei* displayed a clear
- 257 bimodal variation with higher T_p selected in the early morning and late afternoon, the other
- 258 species only showing irregular profiles. Finally, the significant interaction between time and the
- 259 covariables indicated that T_p tended to suffer stronger temporal fluctuations in small lizards

260 (Table 3).

- 262 Water-loss rates
- 263 Using ANOVA-rm, we also uncovered significant differences in instantaneous water loss
- 264 (EWLi) between species and along time, with a weak interaction between both factors (Tables 2
- and 3). Post-hoc Duncan tests (p < 0.05) grouped *P. algirus* and *T. lepidus* having low rates and
- 266 both *Podarcis* sp. having high rates, while *L. schreberi* occupied an intermediate position. EWLi
- also varied along time in all species, with both *Podarcis* sp. displaying higher temporal

268 fluctuations (Fig. 2). When we added SVL and BM as covariates (ANCOVA-rm), interspecific 269 differences were smoother but still significant, while temporal differences disappeared (Table 3). 270 Accumulated water loss (EWLa) revealed even more marked differences between the five 271 species (Fig. 3). Here, two clear groups with no overlap could be distinguished; on one side the 272 larger T. lepidus and L. schreiberi plus the medium-sized P. algirus all losing less water by evaporation and on the other side the small P. guadarramae and P. bocagei with much higher 273 274 water loss rates (Duncan post-hoc tests p < 0.05). Again, after accounting for SVL and body 275 mass, differences between species remain but differences time intervals did not while the 276 interaction between both factors was also conserved (Table 3). Either in EWLi or in EWLa, we 277 did not observe interactions between factors and covariables. 278

279 Preferred temperatures vs. water loss rates

280 Mean T_p and EWL_t were inversely correlated between species while SVL and BM had no 281 influence on the results (n = 5, $r_{partial} T_p$ -EWLt = -0.99, T = -14.72, P = 0.04; $r_{partial} SVL$ -EWLt = -282 0.94, T = -2.70, P = 0.23; r_{partial} BM-EWL_t = 0.81, T = 1.41, P = 0.39). In contrast, within species EWLt was positively correlated with SVL, negatively correlated with BM but independent from 283 T_p for *L*. schreiberi (n = 5, $r_{partial}$ Tp -EWLt = -0.62, *T* = -1.59, *P* = 0.19; $r_{partial}$ SVL-EWL_t = 0.84, 284 T = 3.17, P = 0.03; $r_{partial}$ BM-EWL_t = -0.83, T = -2.98, P = 0.04) and P. algirus (n = 5, $r_{partial}$ Tp -285 286 EWLt = -0.39, T = 0.84, P = 0.45; $r_{partial}$ SVL -EWLt = 0.90, T = 4.02, P = 0.02; $r_{partial}$ BM-EWLt 287 = -0.86, T = -3.38, P = 0.03). We did not detect significant relations for the other three species. 288

289 Discussion

290 The environmental differences between burnt and unburnt landscapes highlight the role of 291 vegetation buffering the natural fluctuations. Specifically, burnt microhabitats often used by 292 lizards undergo larger daily variations of temperature and humidity, and also attain higher 293 temperatures, especially in summer (Ferreira, 2015). When comparing lizards within the same 294 trophic guild, this environmental contrast was expected to beneficiate Mediterranean lizards 295 (compared to Atlantic lizards) from the thermal quality of open habitats created by fire regimes. 296 We only have indirect support for this from several independent sources of evidence: 1) in 297 southern France, fire recurrence increased the Mediterraneity (sensu Prodon, 1993) of the reptile 298 community (Santos & Cheylan, 2003); and 2) in multiple localities, reptile species tend to be 299 more common in burnt sites compared to unburnt ones (Santos & Poquet, 2010; Santos et al., 300 2016). Although we hypothesised that this opposing responses would be caused by divergent 301 ecophysiological features, our results only partially met our expectations, namely, that species 302 favoured by fire should be more thermophile and economic in water loss. Certainly, the 303 Mediterranean medium-sized *P. algirus* clearly selected for higher temperatures than the 304 remaining species and loss less water than expected for its body size. However, the differences 305 among the other species seem better explained by alternative factors such as refuge use, life 306 history and body size/shape rather than by their responses to fire.

Thermal and hydric ecophysiology showed signs of a size/shape-independent trade-off across species but this should be confirmed by a formal analysis under the comparative method framework with an extended species dataset (Bauwens et al., 1995; Carneiro et al., 2016). Within species, what we found was the influence of the surface/volume relationship (Schmidt-Nielsen, 1984) making slender and smaller lizards to show less water relative to the body mass. Thus, in ecophysiological terms, species were not arranged in a Mediterranean-Atlantic axis. While the

demographic responses to fire of these five lizards are mostly related to their biogeographic
affinities and global distribution ranges (Sillero et al., 2009; Santos & Poquet, 2010; Santos &
Cheylan, 2013; authors unpublished data), the lack of complete concordance with their
physiological features suggest a more complex scenario. This supports previous claiming that the
functional approach to predict responses of reptiles to fire is conceptually accurate but
predictively weak (Smith et al. 2012, 2013).

319 Psammodromus algirus is considered a species with a wide ecological valence occupying from the border of Sahara in North Africa to mountain oak forests and other humid environments 320 321 in the border of the Atlantic region in Iberia (Loureiro et al., 2008). Even if previous studies 322 reported high preferred temperatures (Bauwens et al., 1995), there is also evidence of activity 323 under suboptimal thermal conditions (Carretero & Llorente, 1995). It is also the only species of 324 the five studied with the body covered by keeled, overlapping scales (Arnold, 2002). Although 325 this scale arrangement is likely the result from an adaptation for locomotion in bushy vegetation 326 (matrix climbing, Arnold, 1987), it apparently provides protection against water loss acting as an 327 exaptation (Gould & Vrba, 1982) when humidity decreases. This may have put the species in 328 better conditions to survive in burnt areas. Although the short-term (one year after the fire) 329 response of *P. algirus* can be negative in some Mediterranean landscapes, recovery after two 330 years since fire has been reported (Santos et al., 2016). Post-fire egg mortality (Smith et al., 331 2012) and life history of the species (Carretero & Llorente, 1997) may be subjacent for such 332 pattern.

Both species of large lizards undoubtedly take advantage from lower water loss rates due to their lower surface/volume relationship (Schmidt-Nielsen 1984). However, despite their opposite biogeographic affinities, they only differ slightly in hydric physiology which makes it difficult to

336 interpret their responses to fire (Santos & Cheylan, 2013; authors' unpublished data). Instead, the 337 variable responses of T. lepidus according to the population studied, and the decrease of L. 338 *schreiberi* in response to fire intensification should be better interpreted in terms of habitat use. 339 T. lepidus is more mobile and tends to occupy areas dominated by rocky substrates using big 340 rock holes as refuge (Castilla & Bauwens, 1992). In some localities, it occupies long-unburnt 341 (and structured) habitats (Santos et al., 2016) whereas in others only appears in repeated-burnt 342 ones (Santos & Cheylan, 2013). This may be due to shifts in other ecological resources (i. e. habitat, prey) but also to different fire ages (Nimmo et al., 2014). In contrast, L. schreberi has 343 344 small home ranges and use ecotonal bushy vegetation to thermoregulate, forage and hide 345 (Salvador, 1988) being its distribution mostly outside of the range of fire. We here suggest that 346 the divergent responses of both species to fire are likely habitat-mediated while shared thermal 347 (and partly hydric) ecophysiology would result from evolutionary convergence in two long-term separated lacertid lineages (Arnold et al., 2007). Interestingly, competitive exclusion between 348 349 green (*Lacerta* sp.) and ocellated lizards (*Timon* sp.) at a geographic level is suggested to have 350 shaped the historical biogeography of both groups (Ahmadzadeh et al., 2016). 351 Particular habitat requirements may explain why the two species of wall lizards *Podarcis* 352 sp. show opposing responses to fire but similar physiological features. The geographic ranges of

353 *P. bocagei* and *P. gaudarramae* widely overlap geographically and both species are frequently

found in syntopy (Carretero, 2008). However, field-work experience demonstrated that *P*.

355 guadarramae is the only species found in repeatedly burnt spots (authors' unpublished data).

356 This lizard is more attached to bare rocky substrates than *P. bocagei*, which uses a wider variety

357 of substrates (Kaliontzopoulou et al., 2010), trend that is accentuated in syntopy (Gomes et al.,

358 2016). Since mean preferred temperatures and water loss rates did not differ, we interpret the

359 dominance of P. guadarramae after fire intensification as another result of different habitat and 360 refuge use. In fact, head fattening of P. guadarramae might confer and advantage when rock 361 crevices are used as main refuge (Kaliontozopulou et al., 2012) as expected in burnt areas. 362 Nevertheless, the accentuated diel variation in preferred temperatures by P. bocagei also suggest 363 sensitiveness to midday conditions either thermal or hydric, which might provide some support 364 for a ecophysiological constrain when compared to *P. guadarramae*. This aspect should be 365 explored in the future with continuous monitoring of individual lizards (Bowker et al., 2010; 366 Bowker et al., 2013).

367 Fire is a fundamental driver of ecosystem functioning and composition in the 368 Mediterranean basin (Blondel et al., 2010). Species that mostly distributed on this bioregion 369 occupies fire-prone landscapes with biota likely resulting from a long evolutionary association 370 with fire (Pausas & Keeley, 2009). The effects of fire are observable at multiple scales from the landscape (variation in land cover) to the microhabitat (variation in temperature and humidity 371 372 ranges). As ectotherms, reptiles have their biological and ecological processes dependent on 373 environmental temperature. However, heliothermic lizards are able to thermoregulate accurately 374 if habitat complexity provides sufficient thermal heterogeneity for shuttling and selecting 375 appropriate temperatures (Sears & Angilletta, 2015). Despite the sensitivity of reptiles to 376 modifications in habitat structure (caused by fire), factors such as life history, microhabitat 377 preferences and or thermoregulatory behaviour may have deviated results from a pure 378 ecophysiological model. Further studies should be addressed to understand interactions between 379 fire and other processes in order to more accurately predict reptile responses to fire-regimes 380 using an extended species dataset. Meanwhile current evidence advances that ecophysiology 381 plays a functional role on reptile responses to fire, which is likely habitat-mediated

382 (Lindenmayer et al., 2008; Santos & Cheylan, 2013; Nimmo et al., 2014).

383 Even if this is a first approach to a complex topic, ecophysiology already reveals relevant 384 to anticipate reptile responses to fire, even if it needs to be complemented by the analysis of 385 other biological traits. Future studies should include more species and more regions to the 386 analysis, not only to obtain better statistical support but also to allow phylogenetic correction in 387 order to exclude the effects of long-term evolutionary history. Overall, our results already 388 indicate that ecophysiology may provide mechanistic understanding on how species occurrence 389 and abundance are spatially distributed at different geographic scales, and how they may be 390 modified by human impacts (Sinervo et al., 2010; Huey et al., 2012; Lara-Reséndiz et al., 2015; 391 Valenzuela-Ceballos et al., 2015).

392

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395

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- **658** Figure 1. Daily variation of the preferred body temperatures (T_p) for five lizard species.
- 659 Displayed are median values and 0.95 confidence intervals.



- **Figure 2.** Patterns of instantaneous water loss (EWL_i) along a 12-hour experiment for five lizard
- 665 species. Displayed are median values and 0.95 confidence intervals.



667 668

- 669 Figure 3. Accumulated water loss (EWL_a) along a 12-hour experiment for five lizard species.
- 670 Displayed are median values and 0.95 confidence intervals.



- 673 Table 1 General traits of the five lizard species studied. Habitat, distribution and biogeographic affinities after Carretero et al. (2015),
- 674 Galán (2015), Kaliontzopoulou et al. (2011) and Loureiro et al. (2008). Fire responses after Santos and Cheylan, 2013; Santos and
- 675 Poquet 2010; and authors' unpublished results.

Species	body size	main habitat	distribution	biogeography	fire response	
Timon lepidus	very large	open oak forest, big rocks	Iberia, SW France	Mediterranean	increase	
Lacerta schreiberi	large	ecotones and riverine forests	W Iberia	Atlantic	decrease	
De annu e due mus a lei mus	madium	ahmiha	Iberia, SW France, N	Maditarranaan		
Psammoaromus aigirus	mealum	shrubs	Africa	Mediterranean	Increase	
Podarcis bocagei	small	dunes, grasslands, walls, rocks	NW Iberia	Atlantic	decrease	
Podarcis guadarramae	small	rocks, crevices	W and central Iberia	Mediterranean	increase	

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- 678 **Table 2** Number of adult males tested (*n*), snout-to-vent length (SVL), preferred body
- 679 temperature (individual mean of 10 time intervals, T_p), body mass (BM) and accumulated water

		SVL (mm)	$T_p(^{\circ}C)$	BM (g)	EWLt		
Species	п	Mean \pm SE	Mean \pm SE	Mean \pm SE	Mean \pm SE		
species		Min – Max	Min – Max	Min – Max	Min – Max		
T. lepidus	6	140.72 ± 4.09	32.7 ± 0.3	69.7208 ± 5.2468	0.0097 ± 0.0012		
I I I I I I I I I I I I I I I I I I I	-	131.66 - 158.17	31.3 - 33.4	55.8682 - 85.7488	0.0057 - 0.0130		
L schreiberi	8	95.99 ± 4.43	33.4 ± 0.4	23.5756 ± 2.5086	0.0096 ± 0.0012		
	Ũ	71.66 - 111.45	32.3 - 35.3	10.0750 - 31.9960	0.0072 - 0.0162		
P algirus	8	74.38 ± 1.39	35.0 ± 0.1	11.5727 ± 0.9481	0.0038 ± 0.0006		
1	Ũ	68.00 - 80.00	34.5 - 35.7	7.3401 - 15.1519	0.0020 - 0.0063		
P hocagei	10	54.04 ± 1.21	30.7 ± 0.3	3.5832 ± 0.1919	0.0299 ± 0.0024		
1. oocuger	10	49.64 - 60.54	29.4 - 32.5	3.0369 - 4.8491	0.0235 - 0.0499		
P. guadarramae	9	53.73 ± 0.93	31.5 ± 0.2	3.0744 ± 0.1391	0.0249 ± 0.0028		
	1	49.88 - 58.57	30.7 - 32.2	2.3594 - 3.7809	0.0120 - 0.0377		

680 loss (within 12 hours, EWL_t) for the five lizard species.

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- 683 Table 3: AN(C)OVA-rm of preferred temperatures (T_p) and evaporative water loss rates
- 684 (instantaneous, EWL_i and accumulated, EWL_i) between the five lizard species for 10 and 11

685 consecutive hours, respectively; in the ANCOVA-rm we used snout-vent length (SVL) and body

- 686 mass (BM) as covariables.
- 687

	T _p			EWL _i			EWL _a		
	d.f.	F	Р	d.f.	F	Р	d.f.	F	Р
ANOVA-rm									
species	4, 36	37.42	<10-6	4, 36	13.27	10-6	4, 36	30.00	<10-6
time	9, 324	5.42	10-6	10, 36	3.52	0.0002	10, 360	141.50	<10-6
time*species	36, 324	2.73	10-6	40, 360	1.67	0.23	40, 360	19.07	<10-6
ANCOVA-rm (SVL, BM)									
SVL	1, 34	0.17	0.68	1, 34	0.23	0.64	1, 34	0.50	0.49
BM	1, 34	0.69	0.41	1, 34	0.03	0.86	1, 34	0.23	0.64
species	4, 34	21.45	<10-6	4, 34	6.48	0.0005	4, 34	9.73	2*10-5
time	9, 306	1.83	0.06	10, 340	0.57	0.84	10, 340	0.79	0.64
time*SVL	9, 306	2.23	0.02	10, 340	0.57	0.83	10, 340	0.14	0.99
time*BM	9, 306	1.96	0.04	10, 340	0.36	0.96	10.340	0.09	0.99
time*species	36, 306	1.53	0.03	40, 340	0.97	0.52	40, 340	6.97	<10-6