

The Andes are a driver of physiological diversity in *Anolis* lizards

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ABSTRACT

The Andes, with its diverse topography and climate, is a renowned cradle for adaptive radiation, particularly for vertebrate ectotherms like lizards. Yet, the role of temperature in promoting physiological specialization in the Andes remains unclear. Aseasonality in the tropics should favor physiological specialization across elevation in lizards, but empirical data are limited and equivocal. Determining how thermal tolerances are geographically and phylogenetically structured, therefore, is a priority, particularly as environments continue to rapidly change. However, there's a gap in our knowledge of thermal limits of species from the Andes, one of the planet's most biodiverse regions. Anoles, a diverse lizard group found across thousands of meters of elevation in the Andes, can offer insights into evolutionary adaptations to temperature. This study focused on 14 anole species from two clades (Dactyloa and Draconura) that independently diversified along elevational gradients in the Andes. We measured critical thermal limits (CT_{min} and CT_{max}) and found patterns of thermal tolerance specialization across elevation, both among and within species. Patterns of thermal specialization are similar among anole clades, indicating parallel responses to similar environmental pressures. Specifically, high-elevation anoles are more cold tolerant and less heat tolerant than their low elevation counterparts, rendering thermal tolerance breadths stable across elevation (thermal specialization). Evolutionary rates of physiological traits were similar, reflecting parallel specialization in heat and cold tolerance across elevation. The adaptive radiation of anole lizards reflects physiological specialization across elevation, and the endemism such specialization favors likely catalyzed their remarkable diversity in the tropical Andes.

Keywords: *Anolis*; adaptive radiation; elevational gradient; thermal biology; thermal physiology

RESUMEN

Los Andes, con su diversa topografía y clima, son reconocidos por ser cuna de radiación adaptativa, especialmente para ectotermos como las lagartijas. Sin embargo, el papel de cómo la temperatura promueve la especialización fisiológica en los Andes sigue siendo incierto. La falta de estacionalidad en los trópicos podría favorecer la especialización fisiológica a lo largo de la elevación en lagartijas, pero los datos empíricos son limitados y ambiguos. Por esto, determinar cómo las tolerancias térmicas están estructuradas geográfica y filogenéticamente en lagartijas es de vital importancia, especialmente cuando el ambiente está en constante cambio. No obstante, existe una brecha en nuestro conocimiento sobre los límites térmicos de las especies de los Andes, una de las regiones más biodiversas del planeta. Los *Anolis*, un grupo diverso de lagartijas que se encuentra a lo largo del gradiente de elevación en los Andes, pueden ofrecer información sobre adaptaciones evolutivas a la temperatura. Este estudio se centró en 14 especies de *Anolis* que pertenecen a dos clados (Dactyloa y Draconura) que se diversificaron independientemente a lo largo de gradientes altitudinales en los Andes. Para estas, medimos los límites térmicos críticos (CT_{min} y CT_{max}) y encontramos patrones de especialización en la tolerancia térmica a lo largo de la elevación, tanto entre como dentro de las especies. Los patrones de especialización térmica son similares entre los clados de *Anolis*, lo que indica respuestas paralelas a presiones ambientales similares. Específicamente, los *Anolis* de alta elevación toleran temperaturas más frías y son menos tolerantes al calor que sus contrapartes de baja elevación, lo que hace que los rangos de tolerancia térmica sean estables a lo largo de la elevación (especialización térmica). Las tasas evolutivas de los rasgos fisiológicos fueron similares, reflejando una especialización paralela en la tolerancia al calor y al frío a lo largo de la elevación. La radiación adaptativa de las lagartijas *Anolis* refleja una especialización fisiológica a lo largo de la elevación, y el endemismo que favorece dicha especialización probablemente catalizó su notable diversidad en los Andes tropicales.

INTRODUCTION

The Andes Mountains are a powerful engine for speciation and are considered one of the most biodiverse regions on the planet (Jiménez et al. 2009, Clapperton 2011, Hazzi et al. 2019, Rahbek et al. 2019, Alencar et al. 2024). The incredible biodiversity reflects, in part, the topographic complexity of the Andes, which range from sea level to more than 6,000 meters asl and host a correspondingly wide range of climatic niches (Rahbek et al. 2019). The pronounced climatic variation of the Andes provides a clear substrate for adaptive radiation involving physiological specialization to different thermal and rainfall regimes (Sheldon 2019). Although adaptive radiation involves multidimensional phenotypic evolution (Schluter 2000, Stroud and Losos 2016, Gillespie et al. 2020), it has most often been studied with respect to morphology (e.g., Warheit et al. 1999, Mahler et al. 2010, Moen et al. 2021, Patton et al. 2021, Ronco et al. 2020, Viertler et al. 2021, Burress and Muñoz 2022), with comparatively fewer physiological studies (e.g., Givnish et al. 2004, Givnish and Montgomery 2014, Muñoz et al. 2014, Salazar et al. 2019, Cicconardi et al. 2023, Alomar et al. 2024, Bodensteiner et al. 2024). As such, we know significantly less about the role of ecophysiological specialization in adaptive radiation, and even less about its role in diversification in the Andes.

This knowledge disparity is evident for anole lizards (genus *Anolis*), a classic example of adaptive radiation (e.g., Losos 2009, Muñoz et al. 2023). This group of lizards is characterized by the evolution of divergent structural habitat specialists, termed ecomorphs, bearing morphological and behavioral specializations to the specific type of vegetation strata they most often utilize (Williams 1972, Losos et al. 1998, Losos 2009, Huie et al. 2021). Yet, anoles are also diverse in their ecophysiology and have repeatedly specialized to different thermal microhabitats (e.g., shaded vs. open habitats), and to different macrohabitats across elevational gradients, from sea level up to 3700 meters asl (Ruibal 1961, Rand 1964, Hertz et al. 2013, Muñoz et al. 2014, Gunderson et al. 2018, Salazar et al. 2019, Bodensteiner et al. 2024). While morphology is relatively well studied in anoles, including several Andean species,

comparatively less is known about the patterns of physiological specialization in this lineage. This study focuses on expanding our understanding of ecophysiological evolution in anole lizards, focusing on their diverse radiation in the tropical Andes of Colombia.

Critical thermal limits define the acceptable thermal boundaries for organismal function, thus influencing species distribution ranges and vulnerability to temperature changes (Lancaster 2016, Bennet et al. 2019, Collin et al. 2021, Beaty et al. 2023, Bovo et al. 2023). Specifically, the critical thermal minimum (CT_{min}) and maximum (CT_{max}) represent the lower and upper temperatures, respectively, at which an individual loses its locomotor ability (Angilletta 2009). Here, we use ‘cold tolerance’ and ‘heat tolerance’ to describe the critical thermal minimum and maximum, respectively. Ectotherms like anoles rely on ambient temperature to regulate their body temperature and carry out basic metabolic functions (reviewed in Angilletta 2009). Given that the tropics are aseasonal environments, we can predict that anole species will exhibit thermal specialization across elevation: this expectation that tropical lineages are physiologically specialized across elevation due to low seasonality is known as Janzen’s hypothesis (Janzen 1967, Ghalambor et al. 2006). Specifically, we predict that species found at low elevation should be more heat tolerant and less cold tolerant than their counterparts at high elevation. Under this scenario, heat tolerance and cold tolerance should evolve at equal rates across elevation, as both features simultaneously specialize to local thermal conditions, and thermal tolerance breadths (the range of temperatures separating critical limits) should remain unchanged with elevation.

Yet, there may be more complexity to this pattern because diurnal ectotherms like anoles, may thermoregulate to maintain a certain body temperature, even in quite thermally different environments (Muñoz and Losos 2018). Across elevation, such thermoregulation should result in a similar physiological response among species, even when found in habitats that vary in average thermal conditions (Huey et al.

2003, Muñoz and Losos 2018). In this case, we would expect behavioral buffering to limit divergence in heat tolerance across elevation, a phenomenon termed the Bogert effect (Bogert 1949, Huey et al. 2003, Muñoz 2022). Anoles are inactive at night and nighttime temperatures become progressively colder with elevation, limiting behavioral refuges from the cold and favoring physiological specialization to low environmental temperatures (Muñoz et al. 2014; Muñoz and Bodensteiner 2019). As such, we can predict that cold tolerance will increase with elevation, regardless of whether lizards diurnally thermoregulate or not. In this case, we would expect the rate of cold tolerance evolution to outpace that of heat tolerance, suggesting that specialization in the Andes involves rapid specialization to minimum environmental temperatures more so than to maximum temperatures. Likewise, we would expect tolerance breadths to increase with elevation, reflecting a relatively inert heat tolerance and decreasing CT_{min} with elevation.

While the critical temperature data on ectotherms available in the literature has significantly expanded across various taxa in recent decades, including reptiles (e.g., Huey et al. 2009, Muñoz et al. 2014, Gunderson and Stillman 2015, Piantoni et al. 2015, Andrango et al. 2016, Gunderson et al. 2018, Salazar and Miles 2024), amphibians (e.g., Gunderson and Stillman 2015, von May et al. 2017), insects (e.g., Gaston and Chown 1999, Hoffmann 2010, Sinclair et al. 2016, Stevens et al. 2010, Gunderson and Stillman 2015), and aquatic animals (e.g., Díaz et al. 2002, Dülger et al. 2012, Gunderson and Stillman 2015, Martinez et al. 2016, Sinclair et al. 2016, Yanar et al. 2019), there remains a notable gap in thermal limits information for Andean-dwelling species (but see Méndez-Galeano and Calderón-Espinosa 2017, Méndez-Galeano et al. 2020, Montoya-Cruz et al. 2024, Pinzón-Barrera et al. 2024).

Andean anoles can be found from sea level to elevations of up to 3700 meters, varying in the elevational range that they occupy, and different lineages have independently diversified across elevation (Moreno et al. 2021). This replicated diversification across elevation renders anoles an ideal system for

comparative physiological inquiry. In our study, we focused on 14 species from two anole clades, *Dactyloa* (comprising 138 species) and *Draconura* (comprising 69 species) (Poe et al. 2017), which independently diversified in the challenging environmental conditions of the Andean mountains. We investigated how thermal limits and thermal tolerance breadth vary with elevation within and among anole species. We compared the evolutionary rates of heat tolerance (the critical thermal maximum, CT_{max}) and cold tolerance (the critical thermal minimum, CT_{min}) within the two focal clades of anoles. Our study investigates into how thermal variation across elevation predicts the evolution of two key physiological traits in tropical mainland ectotherms, and how thermal physiology has evolved in the Andean radiation of anole lizards.

METHODS

a) Study sites and species

We collected anole cold tolerance (CT_{min}) and heat tolerance (CT_{max}) measurements from December 2016 to November 2017 in five different localities from the Colombian Andes (Fig. S1): 1) Anchicayá Hydroelectric (3°26'27.12"N, 76°40'0.13"W; 192 – 639m); 2) Bitaco Forest Reserve (3°33'9.95"N, 76°35'1.52"W; 1973 – 2050m); 3) Parque Nacional Natural (PNN) Tatamá (5°13'47.96"N, 76°5'1.51"W; 1326 – 2330m); 4) PNN Farallones de Cali (3°24'41.65"N, 76°39'5.36"W; 1870 – 2369m); and 5) Passiflora Reserve (4°55'59.59"N, 74°6'43.19"W; 2818m). We captured 367 individuals from 14 species (Fig. S2).

Nine species belong to the *Dactyloa* clade: *A. calimae* (2117 – 2240m; n = 4), *Anolis chloris* (1341 – 1488m; n = 21), *A. danieli* (1776 – 2330m; n = 8), *A. eulaemus* (2042m; n = 1), *A. heterodermus* (1345 – 2818m; n = 9), *A. maculigula* (1389 – 1438m; n = 24), *A. princeps* (527 – 1408m; n = 4), *A. purpurescens* (formerly known as *A. chocorum*; 572 – 591m; n = 2) and *A. ventrimaculatus* (1343 – 2369m; n = 142).

Five species belong to the Draconura clade: *Anolis antonii* (1326 – 2314m; n = 131), *A. granuliceps* (586 – 639m; n = 2), *A. lyra* (591m; n = 1), *A. maculiventris* (256 – 624m; n = 16) and *A. notopholis* (192 – 285m; n = 2). Two species, *Anolis antonii* and *A. ventrimaculatus*, were sampled at multiple localities at different elevations. *Anolis antonii* was measured at PNN Farallones de Cali (n = 30) and PNN Tatamá (n = 101), and *A. ventrimaculatus* was measured at Bitaco Forest Reserve (n = 53), PNN Farallones de Cali (n = 53), and PNN Tatamá (n = 36). Most of the individuals in this study were found below 2 meter above the ground. Some of the species we measured (*A. chloris*, *A. calimae*, *A. eulaemus*, *A. heterodermus*, *A. princeps*, and *A. purpurescens*) are commonly found high up in trees; unfortunately, for these we were unable to precisely measure how high in the tree they were perched (Table S1).

b) Measurement of CT_{min} and CT_{max}

Lizard capture was mostly done during the night (between 18:00 and 02:00), when anoles are easier to spot. Individuals were captured by hand, and for each we also recorded a GPS point. Temperature measurements during tolerance trials were taken following Muñoz et al. (2014) and Llewelyn et al. (2016) with the following modifications. We conducted all the physiological measurements at the field station near to the capture site of each individual. To record instant body temperature of larger species (SVL > 60mm), a 2 mm thermocouple was inserted into the cloaca of adult individuals; for juveniles and adults of smaller species (SVL < 60mm), a 0.22 mm thermocouple was used instead. The thermocouple was secured to the base of the tail using medical tape. To measure CT_{min} and CT_{max}, the anole was placed into a plastic container that was submerged in a cold-water ice bath or a warm-water bath, respectively. Each time the body temperature of the lizard changed one degree, the individual was turned, placing it on its back inside the container. If the lizard righted itself to its original position, we continued with the temperature reduction or increase procedure until it was not able to turn itself over, indicating a loss of locomotor function. At this point, the temperature was recorded as the CT_{min} or CT_{max}. At the end of the experiment, the individual was slowly returned (1°C every minute) to its initial temperature by means of a warm-water or cold-water bath. To minimize animal stress, only one measurement (either CT_{min} or CT_{max})

was collected per individual in the morning after they were captured; we performed both measurements only for species where we found one or two individuals (*A. eulaemus*, *A. granuliceps*, *A. lyra*, *A. purpurescens*, *A. notopholis*). The morning after thermal trials individuals were released at their capture site. Before releasing an individual, a mark was made on the belly using a permanent marker ink to avoid measuring the same individual twice. From CT_{min} and CT_{max} we calculated the thermal breadth (T_{br} ; also referred as thermal tolerance range) for each species, such that $T_{br} = CT_{max} - CT_{min}$.

c) Environmental data

As a proxy for the general thermal conditions experienced by different lizard species, we extracted three ecologically relevant temperature variables from the WorldClim database (Fick and Hijmans 2017) for each of the sample sites of the study (Bio 1 [mean annual temperature], Bio 5 [maximum annual temperature], and Bio 6 [minimum annual temperature]; Qu and Wiens 2020). These WorldClim layers are resolved to 1 km² and summarize thermal averages, extremes, and ranges. As these three climatic variables were highly correlated (Table S2, Table S3), we decided to use one variable (Bio 1) for our analyses. Using mean values from WorldClim data (Fick and Hijmans, 2017) to represent the climatic niche may not reflect the microhabitat variation that lizards experience, and micro- and macroclimatic niches can vary in ectotherms (Velasco et al. 2016, Farallo et al. 2020, Velasco et al. 2020, Muñoz et al. 2022). Nevertheless, these macroclimatic features do provide a coarse approximation for general thermal conditions experienced by lizards and can serve as a starting point to evaluate the relationship between thermal physiology and the macroenvironment. In addition, we also investigated the operative environmental temperatures experienced by lizards (described below).

d) Operative Environmental Temperature (T_e)

We used the R package “*NicheMapR*” (Kearney and Porter 2017) to estimate the operative environmental temperatures (T_e) at each site. T_e is defined as the equilibrium body temperature of a non-thermoregulating organism in the open, accounting for the various sources of heat gain and heat loss. We estimated T_e where the anoles were found. By using “*NicheMapR*” we can model microclimate by using locations, forest cover level, and other factors to calculate the microclimatic conditions that an ectotherm experiences (Kearney and Porter 2017, 2019). We acquired macroclimate data for the microclimatic analyses from the ERA5 fifth generation ECMWF global atmospheric reanalysis of global climate using the “*mcera5*” package (Klinges et al. 2022). We acquired microclimatic data through the “*NicheMapR*” function *micro_era5*, which is integrated with the “*microclima*” package (MacLean et al. 2019). The output of *micro_era5* is used by the function *ectotherm* in “*NicheMapR*” to generate a model of heat and water exchange. We obtained T_e estimates for each *Anolis* species at each site by using the default organismal parameters except for the mean body mass of each species. Because the species of *Anolis* in the data are arboreal, we set the parameter for climb equal to 1, which indicates that a species is arboreal. We estimated the mean monthly T_e values for the duration of the study period (December 2016 – November 2017). We only show the T_e mean results in the main text, and we provide the results for T_e minimum and T_e maximum in the supplementary material.

e) Statistical and Phylogenetic Analyses

All statistical analyses were conducted using R version 4.3.2 (R Core Team 2023). Figures were made with the “*ggplot2*” package (Wickham 2009). Before we conducted phylogenetic analyses, we evaluated whether CT_{min} and CT_{max} differed between sexes (adult males vs. adult females) and age classes (juveniles vs. adults). As we did not find variation among the categories, we combined data for all individuals (Supplementary information S1).

For the phylogenetic analysis, we used the Poe et al. (2017) phylogeny based on morphological and molecular data (MCC – Maximum Clade Credibility Tree) and species' averages for each trait. First, we quantified the amount of phylogenetic signal for CT_{min} , CT_{max} , and T_{br} , using the λ statistic (Pagel 1999) with the function *phylosig* in the R package “*phytools*” (Revell 2012). We used this statistic to evaluate the phylogenetic dependence of the trait data. Pagel's λ ranges from 0 to 1, with values closer to 0 indicating weak phylogenetic signal, meaning that traits are evolving independent of relatedness, and values closer to 1 indicating greater phylogenetic structuring to the data, following expectations under a Brownian motion (BM) model of evolution (Pagel 1999). Less commonly, λ can exceed 1, indicating that traits are more similar than expected under BM (Pagel 1999). Intraspecific comparisons of thermal limits among populations of *Anolis antonii* and *A. ventrimaculatus* were performed with one-way ANOVA (separate for each species) with the mean for CT_{min} , CT_{max} , T_{br} , and elevation.

To evaluate the relationship between thermal limits (CT_{min} , CT_{max}), breadth (T_{br}), elevation (mean elevation for each species) and thermal environment (Bio 1, T_e mean) among the fourteen species we used Phylogenetic Generalized Least Squares (PGLS) analysis using the *ppls.SEy* function in the package “*phytools*” (Revell 2012); this function takes into account the standard error for each species. Before interpreting the PGLS results, we quantified the phylogenetic signal of the residuals using Pagel's λ to assess the influence of shared evolutionary history on the residual variation. Because we have only one T_{br} value per species, we were not able to run a *ppls.SEy*, instead we ran a PGLS using the *ppls* function in the package “*caper*” (Orme 2018). We compared the model fit using the Akaike Information Criterion for small samples sizes (AICc; Sugihara 1978, Burnham and Anderson 2002).

To compare the rate of physiological evolution for CT_{min} and CT_{max} , first we fitted five different models of evolution – Brownian motion (BM), Ornstein–Uhlenbeck (OU), early burst (EB), Delta, and White Noise (WN) – to each physiological trait, using the *fitContinuous* function in the “*geiger*” package (Harmon et al. 2008). We compared each model by examining the AICc.

We were also interested in whether the relationship between elevation and thermal physiology varied between clade of anoles or, instead, whether the effect of elevation was comparable among clades. To this end we conducted a phylogenetic analysis of covariance (pANCOVA; Revell and Harmon 2022) to evaluate whether the slopes and intercepts of the trait ~ environment relationships varied between anole clades (Dactyloa and Draconura).

We used the Adams' (2013) method to compare the evolutionary rates (σ^2) of CT_{\min} and CT_{\max} . Specifically, we performed a likelihood-ratio test (LRT) to compare the likelihood of a model in which rates for CT_{\min} and CT_{\max} were constrained to be equal (i.e., $\sigma^2_{\min} = \sigma^2_{\max}$). To consider intraspecific measurement error, we did incorporate the standard error (corrected) into the analysis. We also show the results when we did not incorporate standard error (uncorrected). We used the “ape” package in R to run the code provided by Adams (2013). Since CT_{\min} and CT_{\max} are correlated with elevation and might be correlated with each other, we set the *TraitCov* argument to TRUE to specify that both physiological traits may covary.

RESULTS

We measured CT_{\min} and CT_{\max} from 350 lizards (173 individuals for CT_{\min} and 177 for CT_{\max} ; Table 1) from 14 species. These 350 individuals were 87 adult males (37 for CT_{\min} and 50 for CT_{\max}), 113 adult females (62 for CT_{\min} and 51 for CT_{\max}), and 123 juveniles (60 for CT_{\min} and 63 for CT_{\max}). Additionally, we found 27 individuals that we were not able to sex or age (14 for CT_{\min} and 13 for CT_{\max}). We found no difference in CT_{\min} and CT_{\max} between sexes and ages (Supporting Information S1, Fig. S3, Table S4), therefore, we used the entire data set to conduct subsequent phylogenetic analyses.

Thermal habitat – There was a high correlation between CT_{min} and CT_{max} with both Bio 1 and elevation (Fig. 1), where CT_{min} and CT_{max} increase with mean annual temperature, and decrease with elevation. By contrast, T_{br} showed no relationship with Bio 1 or elevation and remained fairly constant across elevation (Fig. 1, Fig S4 for Bio 5 and Bio 6, Table S5, S6). We found similar results for the correlations between CT_{min} and CT_{max} with T_e (Fig. 1 for T_e mean, Fig. S4 for T_e minimum and T_e minimum, Table S5, S6), where both, CT_{min} and CT_{max} , increase as T_e increases. We ran *pgls* (*pgls.SEy* and *pgls*) analyses for all species combined.

Interspecific variation in CT_{min} , CT_{max} and T_{br} . — We found that Pagel's λ was low (0.00006), suggesting little to no phylogenetic structure to the trait data. We determined that the residual variation was largely independent of phylogeny, we use *pgls.SEy* for subsequent analysis (Fig. 2, Table S7). The White Noise (WN) model best fit the CT_{min} , CT_{max} and T_{br} data (Table S8); this WN model indicates that the thermal traits evolved independently of the phylogeny, which corroborate Pagel's λ result (Table S9; Harmon et al. 2008, Muschick et al. 2014). Both thermal limits, CT_{min} and CT_{max} , decreased with elevation (Fig. 1, Table 2, Table S5, S6). We found that these relationships were similar, both in slope and intercept, for species in the Dactyloa and Draconura clades (Table S10). We did not find differences in the evolutionary rate of the thermal traits (Table 3), meaning that CT_{min} ($\sigma^2 = 0.21$) and CT_{max} ($\sigma^2 = 0.19$) evolve at similar rates.

Intraspecific variation in CT_{min} , CT_{max} . — We found that populations of *Anolis antonii* located at different elevations have different CT_{min} values (Fig. 3A), such that the higher elevation population is less cold tolerant (higher CT_{min}) ($t = 4.51$, $p < 0.001$, $df = 58$). We did not detect differences in CT_{max} among populations ($t = -1.70$, $p = 0.09$, $df = 63$). Similarly, for *A. ventrimaculatus*, we found that the populations

that are found at high elevation are less cold tolerant (higher CT_{min}), and those found at low elevation are more heat tolerant (higher CT_{max}) (CT_{min} : $F_{2, 54} = 9.03$, $p < 0.001$ and CT_{max} : $F_{3, 72} = 5.2$, $p = 0.002$; Fig. 3).

DISCUSSION

The topographical complexity of the Andes forged a wide range of thermal habitats presenting the opportunity for physiological specialization across elevation. As predicted, we found that montane anoles tolerate colder temperatures better than their low elevation counterparts, and that anoles closer to sea level were more heat tolerant than those found at high elevation. Similarly, numerous studies have found that tolerance to cold is enhanced in cooler environments across a wide range of ectotherm taxa (e.g., Araujo et al. 2011, Sunday et al. 2014, Pintanel et al. 2019, Sunday et al. 2019, von May et al. 2017, Gonzalez et al. 2022). However, our finding that species in cooler environments are also less heat tolerant than their counterparts in warmer environments contrasts other studies, including on anoles, in which heat tolerance remains relatively static across environmental clines (e.g., Muñoz et al. 2014, Shah et al. 2017, Qu and Wiens 2020). Such strong physiological structuring across altitudinal clines may help explain why phylogenetic signal is low as close relatives diverge in thermal tolerances across environmental boundaries, and appear physiologically specialized to their local conditions, as evidenced by the fact that thermal tolerance breadth (T_{br}) is unchanged across elevation (Fig. 1). The decrease in both cold and heat tolerance with elevation may also explain why rates of CT_{min} and CT_{max} evolution are indistinguishable. The adaptive radiation of Andean anoles therefore involves specialization in both heat and cold tolerance across elevation. Below, we unpack these findings in greater detail.

How thermal habitat influences the evolution of critical thermal limits.

We observed a strong correlation between heat tolerance, cold tolerance, and the thermal environment (Fig. 1), suggesting that local climatic conditions favor thermal physiological specialization. Consistent with Janzen's hypothesis (Janzen 1967, Sheldon et al. 2018), tolerance breadths are stable across elevation, reflecting local adaptation in both cold and heat tolerance. Additionally, we found both clades, *Dactyloa* and *Draconura*, followed the same pattern of evolution, indicating parallel trends of thermal specialization among lineages that independently radiated in the Andes (Fig. 1, Fig. S4, Poe et al. 2017).

As both heat and cold tolerance decrease with elevation, we observed no differences in the evolutionary rate of these two traits. Previous studies on other ectotherm lineages have reported similar findings for CT_{min} and CT_{max} (Shah et al. 2017, von May et al. 2017, Pintanel et al. 2019, Gonzalez et al. 2022, Bovo et al. 2023, Bota-Sierra et al. 2021 [CT_{max} only]). Yet, prior work on Caribbean anoles found that heat tolerance does not vary across elevation, while cold tolerance does (Muñoz et al. 2014). Behavioral thermoregulation is a primary mechanism underlying this disparity between heat and cold tolerance adaptation: whereas behavioral thermoregulation 'shields' diurnal lizards like anoles from selection on upper thermal limits, behavior is less effective at shielding them from selection on lower thermal limits (Muñoz and Bodensteiner 2019, Bodensteiner et al. 2021). This lopsided effect of thermal behavior results in stability in heat tolerance across elevation (and a relatively slow rate of evolution) and lability in cold tolerance across elevation (and a relatively fast rate of evolution) (Muñoz 2022). While we did not consider thermal behavior here, it is likely these Andean lizards are thermoconformers, as they tend to occupy dense, closed-canopy habitats, where the costs of thermoregulation are high owing to long transit distance between sun and shaded patches, meaning that the distance travelled may exceed the home range of an individual. (Huey 1974). Moreover, these anoles tend to move relatively little (Losos 2009), reflecting greater predation risk on the South American mainland relative to the Caribbean, further limiting thermoregulatory behavior.

Putting these pieces together, habitat structure and predation may favor thermoconformity in the Andes, which in turn favors physiological specialization across elevation and likely contributed to the anole adaptive radiation in the Andes. Under Janzen's (1967) hypothesis, this physiological specialization should limit dispersal across elevation, limit gene flow, and potentially help catalyze speciation, as has been observed in South American aquatic insects (Polato et al. 2018). We do note, however, that there may be some thermoregulation in some Andean anole species that may impact patterns of physiological specialization. For at least one Andean anole species, *Anolis heterodermus*, we know that activity changes throughout the day, decreasing as the day gets warmer (Méndez-Galeano and Calderón-Espinosa 2017, Méndez-Galeano et al. 2020). Therefore, the relationship between thermal behavior and physiological specialization in Andean anoles awaits deeper exploration. Future studies in the thermal physiology of Andean anoles should also investigate how thermal plasticity might impact patterns of specialization in CT_{min} and CT_{max} . In some ectotherms, for example, limited plasticity has been observed (e.g., García-Robledo and Baer 2021; Domínguez-Guerrero et al. 2019). In one Central American anole (*Anolis apletophallus*), by contrast, high levels of plasticity have been found at different levels, phenotypic and genetic, at least for heat tolerance (Rosso et al. 2024). More generally, the degree of plasticity appears to vary among traits and lineages (Gunderson and Stillman 2015), underscoring the need for species-specific estimates. Nevertheless, to the extent that physiological evolution has contributed to the diversity of Andean anoles, thermoconformity may be a potent catalyst for their adaptive radiation.

Intraspecific variation in CT_{min} and CT_{max} .

Contrasting differences in thermal limits were observed among populations of *Anolis antonii* and *A. ventrimaculatus* (Fig. 3) in CT_{min} . We found that, for both species, cold tolerance is lower at high elevation sites and higher at the low elevation site, while CT_{max} for *A. antonii* remains unchanged. In contrast, for *A. ventrimaculatus* (Fig. 3B) CT_{max} is higher at the low elevation site and lower at high elevation sites. Despite the counterintuitive nature of these patterns, our results suggest that factors

beyond elevation may contribute to differences in thermal limits between populations and among species. However, there could be more factors playing a role in our findings including microhabitat segregation (Jenssen 1970, Hertz 1974, Du et al. 2000, Ramírez-Bautista and Benabib 2001, Herczeg et al. 2008, Tang et al. 2013, Muñoz et al. 2016), predator and competitor presence (Terborgh and Weske 1975, Huey and Kingsolver 1989, Helmuth et al. 2005, Jankowski et al. 2013, Salazar et al. 2019, Londoño et al. 2023), humidity (Hutchinson 1957, Wake and Lynch 1976), rainfall (Wake and Lynch 1976, Salazar and Miles 2024), morphology (Wegener et al. 2014), and plastic capacity (Llewelyn et al. 2016, Phillips et al. 2016, García-Robledo and Baer 2021, Rosso et al. 2024). This suggests that biotic and abiotic factors could play a role in local adaptation that is not captured in a broader, macroevolutionary view across the lineage. Future studies should integrate these factors to understand their role in thermal physiology variation among species and populations, including behavior during daytime.

Although climatic stability in tropical regions has historically been cited as a key factor in explaining species range limits, particularly along mountain ranges (Janzen 1967), the influence of climatic heterogeneity on species' physiological and evolutionary traits in these regions has often been overlooked (Boyle et al. 2020, Muñoz 2022). The geomorphological complexity of the Andes, spanning various valleys, slopes, and elevations, likely serves not only as a driver of faunistic diversity (Alencar et al. 2024), but also as a determinant of thermal physiology diversity (Velasco et al. 2016). Unfortunately, this geomorphological complexity of the Andes cannot be captured by WorldClim or NicheMapR data (Sears et al. 2019). To truly understand how environmental temperature affects thermal physiology evolution, we should use microclimatic data collected on-site. However, using Bio 1 and T_e mean we observed the same pattern for our three physiological variables (CT_{min} , T_{br} , CT_{max}) for all species in the two clades (Fig. 1). The diverse microclimates created by different topographical features impose unique thermal challenges among populations, leading to the observed differences in thermal physiology within species.

Although we discussed how temperature has contributed to the colonization and adaptation to the Andes climate, there are additional factors that could have affected our results. We have few individuals for some of the species we captured and measured, which may lead to biased estimates of CT_{min} and CT_{max} . Additionally, we used species from two different clades with few representatives from each. Furthermore, we have no knowledge of the genetic background of Andean anole species, which could alter our understanding of how these species have evolved to withstand cold temperatures in the Andes. These are several factors that should be taken into consideration for further studies. Nevertheless, this work presents a significant advance forward: unlike in the Caribbean, mainland anoles are notoriously cryptic and exhibit lower densities (discussed in Losos 2009), which has surely contributed to the relative lack of physiological knowledge for continental species.

Just as important as the factors that shape the origin of biodiversity are those that threaten its loss. For ectotherms like anoles, the rapid rise of environmental temperatures presents an existential threat, and there is an urgent need to assess vulnerability across the animal tree of life (Deutsch et al. 2008, Huey et al. 2010, Muñoz and Moritz 2016, Stillman 2019). Even among ectotherms, tropical anoles like those studied here are expected to be particularly vulnerable, as they are already operating near their physiological limits (Huey et al. 2009, Sunday et al. 2014). Our data on Andean anoles are consistent with this perspective: whether near sea level or several kilometers above it, species are physiologically specialized to their local thermal conditions, and exhibit relatively narrow tolerance breadths, as predicted for tropical lizards (Huey et al. 2009).

The critical question remains whether species will be able to keep pace with the rapid rate at which climate change is affecting their natural environments. Studies should focus on understanding how future temperatures and rainfall patterns will affect the activity patterns, energetic balance, and population growth rates of Andean anoles to connect physiological variation to demographic patterns under rapid global change.

CONCLUSION

Our study on Andean anoles has yielded insights into their thermal physiology and adaptation to their environment. When compared to low elevation anoles, those at high elevations demonstrated greater performance capacity at lower temperatures but were also less tolerant of higher temperatures. These results align with Janzen's (1967) hypothesis, as thermal breadth remains constant across elevation, reflecting local specialization in both heat and cold tolerance. We also observed that the evolution of cold and heat tolerance occurs at similar rates, and this occurred independently in the two anoles clades tested on this study, *Dactyloa* and *Draconura*. Phylogenetic analysis revealed that thermal limits vary among closely related species, indicating a departure from niche conservatism and reflecting lability in physiological tolerance as species diversified across elevation. Ecological and phenotypic divergence among close relatives is a canonical signature of adaptive radiation. The intricate geomorphological complexity of the Andes emerged as a key driver of thermal physiology diversity in the adaptive radiation of mainland anoles. Understanding the role of physiological diversity in diversification could offer valuable insights into how two clades from the genus with different evolutionary histories have similar evolutionary responses to adaption to mountainous environments. Future research should aim to elucidate the impact of the genetic background on the distribution and diversification of montane ectotherms, considering their evolutionary history and potential differential effects on lowland and highland species.

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CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

DATA AVAILABILITY

The complete dataset that supports the findings of this study is available online in:

https://github.com/salazarjhan95/Anolis_Andes_2024/.

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Figures

Figure 1. Relationship between species between T_{br} (Top), CT_{min} (Mid) and CT_{max} (Bottom) with Bio 1 (mean annual temperature; A, D, G), T_e (operative environmental temperature; B, E, H) and mean elevation (C, F, I) *Anolis antonii* – anto, *A. calimae* – cali, *A. chloris* – chlr, *A. danieli* – dani, *A. granuliceps* – gran, *A. heterodermus* – hetr, , *A. maculigula* – macg, *A. maculiventris* – macv, *A. notopholis* – noto, *A. princeps* – prin, *A. purpurescens* – purp, and *A. ventrimaculatus* – vent. Dashed lines represent the phylogenetic regression for all species. Colored lines indicate the phylogenetic regression for Draconura species in green and Dactyloa species in brown. Each point corresponds to a different species of *Anolis* lizard. Circles indicate Dactyloa species; triangles indicate Draconura species.

Figure 2. Interspecific divergence of (A) CT_{max} and (B) CT_{min} for Andean anoles. Species tree shows the relationship between 11 species for CT_{max} (Top) and 12 species for CT_{min} (Bottom). *A. antonii* – anto, *A. calimae* – cali, *A. chloris* – chlr, *A. danieli* – dani, *A. granuliceps* – gran, *A. heterodermus* – hetr, *A. maculigula* – macg, *A. maculiventris* – macv, *A. notopholis* – noto, *A. princeps* – prin, *A. purpurescens* – purp, *A. ventrimaculatus* – vent. Species are colored according to their clade (Dactyloa –brown, Draconura –green).

Figure 3. CT_{min} and CT_{max} comparison among populations of (A) *A. antonii* in PNN Tatamá (1392m) and PNN Farallones (2115m), and (B) *A. ventrimaculatus* in PNN Tatamá (1689m), Bitaco Forest Reserve (2005m) and PNN Farallones (2201m). The small letters a, b, and c indicate if CT values differ (different letter) or not (same letter) statistically. The boxes are colored according to the thermal limits; blue for CT_{min} and red for CT_{max} .

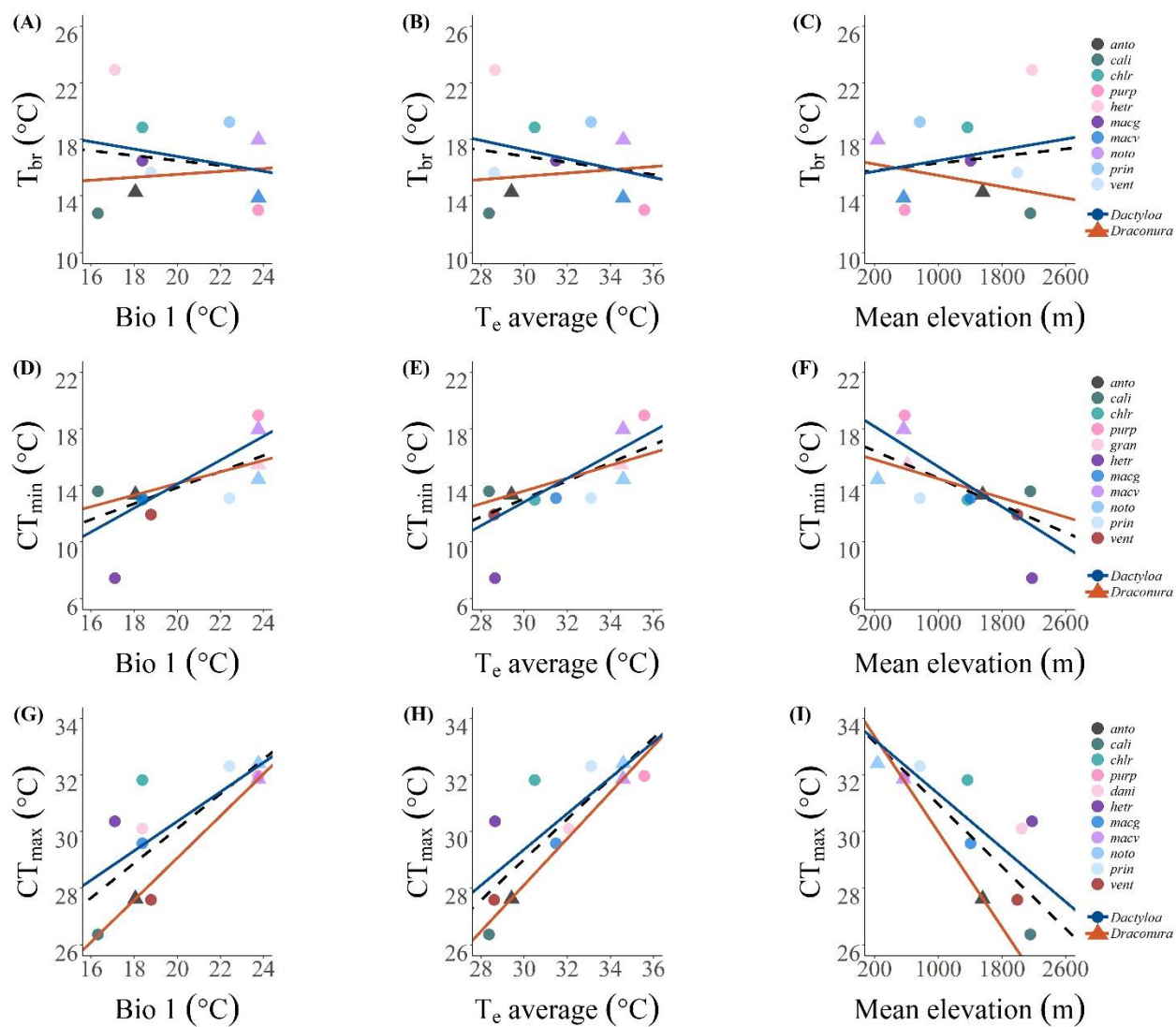
Figure 1

Figure 2

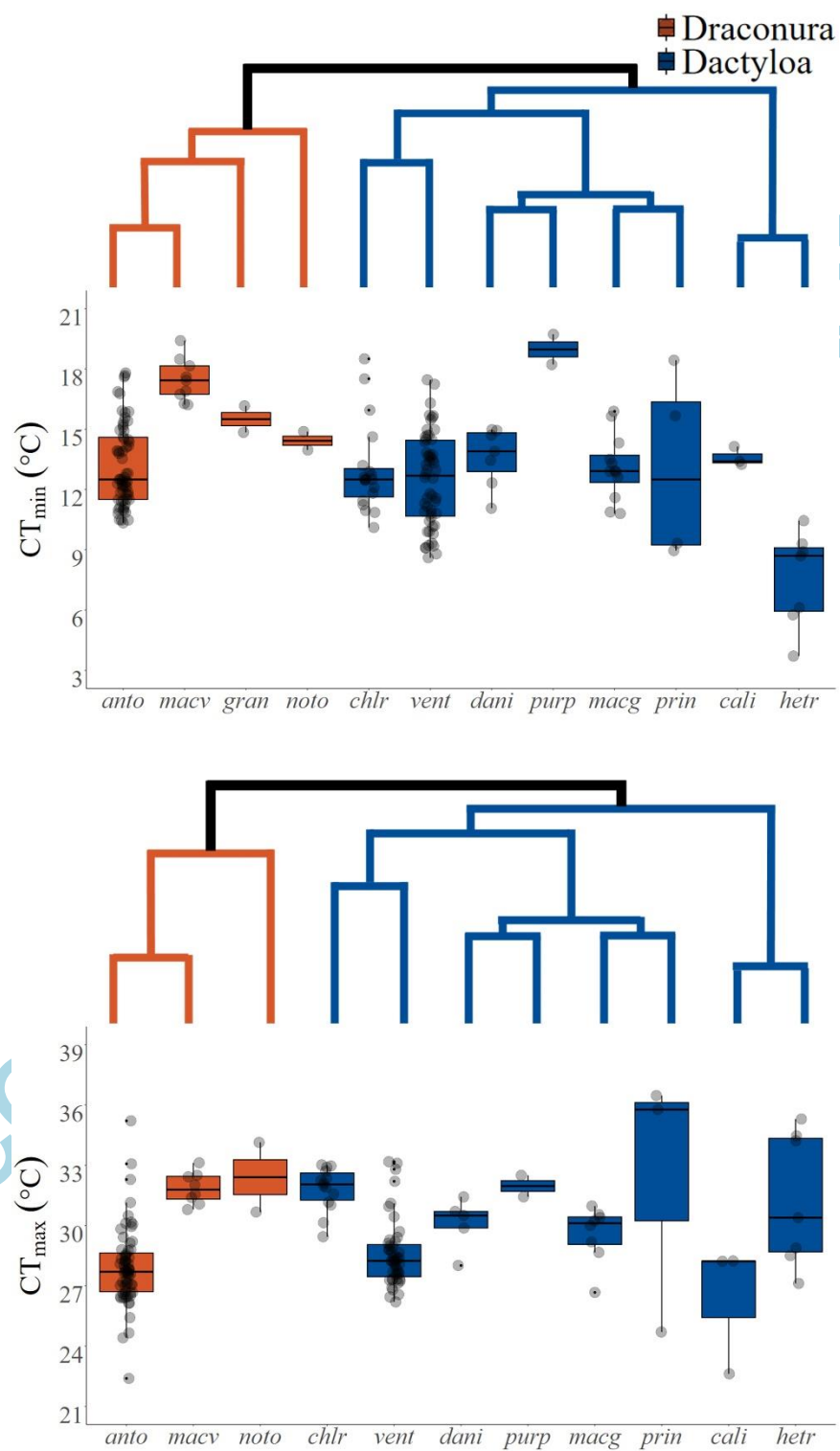
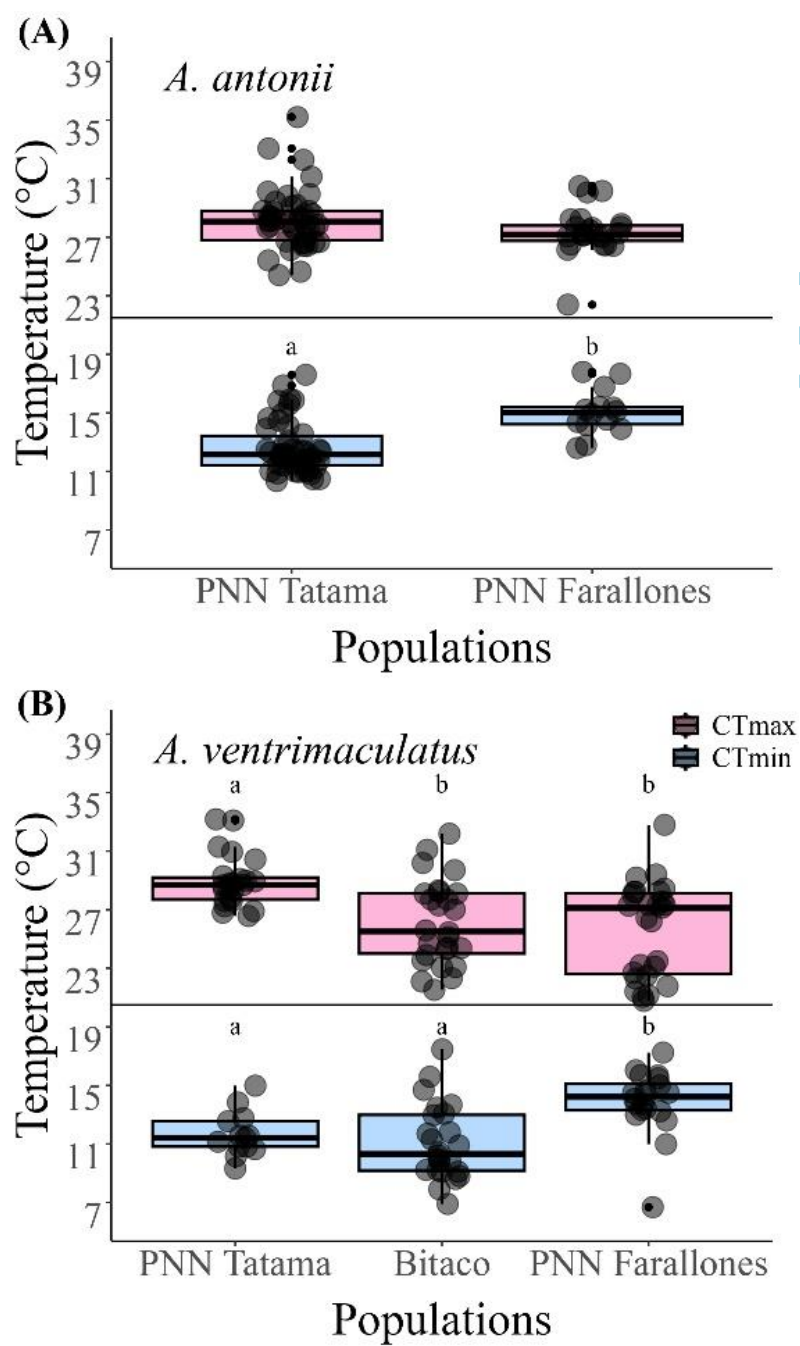


Figure 3



Tables

Table 1. Average capture elevation, CT_{min}, CT_{max} and T_{br} for each species. Mean and standard deviation values are shown and the numbers in parentheses indicate sample size. The locality for each species is shown as follows: ^(a) Anchicayá Hydroelectric, ^(b) Bitaco Forest Reserve, ^(c) PNN Farallones de Cali, ^(d) PNN Tatamá, ^(e) Passiflora Forest Reserve.

Species	Elevation (m)	CT _{min} (°C)	CT _{max} (°C)	T _{br} (°C)
Dactyloa clade				
<i>A. chloris</i> ^d	1414 ± 178	12.97 ± 2.28 (18)	31.82 ± 1.07 (14)	18.85
<i>A. danieli</i> ^d	2109 ± 173	13.62 ± 1.47 (7)	30.10 ± 1.29 (5)	16.48
<i>A. eulaemus</i> ^b	2042	11.50 (1)	23.60 (1)	12.10
<i>A. heterodermus</i> ^{ce}	2182 ± 358	7.44 ± 2.33 (7)	30.36 ± 4.40 (8)	22.93
<i>A. maculigula</i> ^d	1409 ± 18	13.10 ± 1.62 (12)	29.58 ± 1.39 (8)	16.48
<i>A. calimae</i> ^c	2158 ± 53	13.59 ± 0.78 (2)	26.36 ± 3.24 (3)	12.77
<i>A. princeps</i> ^a	800 ± 425	13.109 ± 4.70 (4)	32.31 ± 6.60 (3)	19.22
<i>A. purpurescens</i> ^a	582 ± 13	18.97 ± 1.06 (2)	31.97 ± 0.76 (2)	13.00
<i>A. ventrimaculatus</i> ^{bcd}	1992 ± 217	11.93 ± 2.52 (45)	27.58 ± 2.99 (62)	15.66
Draconura clade				
<i>A. antonii</i> ^{cd}	1608 ± 333	13.36 ± 2.29 (60)	27.63 ± 1.99 (59)	14.26
<i>A. granuliceps</i> ^a	621 ± 37	15.50 ± 0.93 (2)	32.69 (1)	17.19
<i>A. lyra</i> ^a	591	17.86 (1)	36.50 (1)	18.64
<i>A. maculiventris</i> ^a	580 ± 88	17.98 ± 1.90 (10)	31.86 ± 0.79 (8)	13.88
<i>A. notopholis</i> ^a	239 ± 66	14.43 ± 0.64 (2)	32.41 ± 2.45 (2)	17.98

Table 2. Results from phylogenetic generalized linear regression models for CT_{min} , CT_{max} , and T_{br} assuming a Brownian model as the evolutionary model. Coefficient, p -value, and AIC values are shown for the *pgls.SE* results, and the coefficient, p -value, R^2 and F value are shown for the *pgls* results. Significant results are shown in *italic*.

Model	Coefficient	p -value	AIC	logLik
$CT_{min} \sim \text{elevation}$	-0.0024	0.015	50.00	-22.00
$CT_{min} \sim \text{Bio 1}$	0.57	0.016	50.19	-22.09
$CT_{min} \sim T_e \text{ average}$	0.64	0.0073	48.41	-21.20
$CT_{max} \sim \text{elevation}$	0.57	0.0077	48.25	-21.13
$CT_{max} \sim \text{Bio 1}$	0.61	0.0047	47.12	-20.56
$CT_{max} \sim T_e \text{ average}$	0.72	0.0012	44.44	-19.22
Model	Coefficient	p -value	R^2	F
$T_{br} \sim \text{elevation}$	< 0.0001	0.70	0.019	0.16
$T_{br} \sim \text{Bio 1}$	-0.18	0.66	0.026	0.21
$T_{br} \sim T_e \text{ average}$	-0.22	0.60	0.035	0.29

Table 3. Evolutionary rate comparison for CT_{\min} and CT_{\max} . Pairwise comparison for evolutionary rates among traits. The results are given for two analyses, one in which we did not consider intraspecific measurement of error (uncorrected), and another in which we did incorporate the error (corrected). The confidence interval for the evolutionary rates for CT_{\min} and CT_{\max} are also shown.

Pairwise comparison	Uncorrected $LRT_{d.f=1; p}$	Corrected $LRT_{d.f=1; p}$
CT_{\min} vs CT_{\max}	0.03; 0.86	0.03; 0.86
Confidence interval for evolutionary rate	Low	High
CT_{\min}	0.15	0.28
CT_{\max}	0.13	0.24