

High temperatures limit developmental resilience to high-elevation hypoxia in the snake Natrix maura (Squamata: Colubridae)

Jérémie Souchet, Coralie Bossu, Elodie Darnet, Hugo Le Chevalier, Manon Poignet, Audrey Trochet, Romain R. Bertrand, Olivier Calvez, Albert Martínez-Silvestre, Marc Mossoll-Torres, et al.

▶ To cite this version:

Jérémie Souchet, Coralie Bossu, Elodie Darnet, Hugo Le Chevalier, Manon Poignet, et al.. High temperatures limit developmental resilience to high-elevation hypoxia in the snake Natrix maura (Squamata: Colubridae). Biological Journal of the Linnean Society, 2021, 132 (1), pp.116-133. 10.1093/biolinnean/blaa182. hal-03177307

HAL Id: hal-03177307 https://ut3-toulouseinp.hal.science/hal-03177307

Submitted on 29 Nov 2021

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers. L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.



High temperatures limit developmental resilience to highelevation hypoxia in the snake Natrix maura (Squamata: Colubridae)

Journal:	Biological Journal of the Linnean Society
Manuscript ID	BJLS-6457.R1
Manuscript Type:	Original article
Date Submitted by the Author:	n/a
Complete List of Authors:	Souchet, Jérémie; Station d'Ecologie Theorique et Experimentale, Bossu, Coralie; Station d'Ecologie Theorique et Experimentale Darnet, Elodie; Station d'Ecologie Theorique et Experimentale Le Chevalier, Hugo; Station d'Ecologie Theorique et Experimentale Poignet, Manon; Station d'Ecologie Theorique et Experimentale Trochet, Audrey; Société Herpétologique de France Bertrand, Romain; Laboratoire Evolution et Diversité Biologique Calvez, Olivier; Station d'Ecologie Theorique et Experimentale Martinez-Silvestre, Albert; Catalonia Reptile and Amphibian Rescue Center Mossoll-Torres, Marc; Bomosa; Pirenalia Guillaume, Olivier; Station d'Ecologie Theorique et Experimentale Clobert, Jean; Station d'Ecologie Theorique et Experimentale Barthe, Laurent; Société Herpétologique de France; Nature en Occitanie Pottier, Gilles; Nature en Occitanie Pottier, Gilles; Nature en Occitanie Philippe, Hervé; Station d'Ecologie Theorique et Experimentale; Université de Montréal, Département de Biochimie Gangloff, Eric; Station d'Ecologie Theorique et Experimentale; Ohio Wesleyan University Department of Zoology Aubret, Fabien; Station d'Ecologie Theorique et Experimentale; Curtin University, School of Molecular and Life Sciences
Keywords:	climate change, developmental plasticity, embryonic development, embryonic metabolism, heart rate, high-elevation hypoxia, incubation temperature, swimming performance



INTRODUCTION

The effects of global warming on biodiversity are a growing concern at all levels of ecosystem functioning (Parmesan, 2006; Scheffers et al., 2016; Pecl et al., 2017). Range shifts toward higher latitudes and elevations are now commonly observed as organisms and populations alter their geographic distributions to track their thermal requirements (Sinervo et al., 2018). The rapid contemporary pace of global warming has resulted in a process coined "thermophilization", where community compositions shift in favour of warm-affinity species (Devictor et al., 2012; De Frenne et al., 2013; Stuart-Smith et al., 2015; Fadrique et al., 2018). Many organisms, however, are unable to track the temperature changes due to habitat fragmentation, slow dispersal, and long life spans (Sinervo et al., 2010; Bertrand et al., 2016; Lenoir et al., 2020), leading to climatic debts in community responses to macroclimate warming (Devictor et al., 2012; Alexander et al., 2018; Zellweger et al., 2020). Consequently, many organisms' and populations' ecological requirements are rapidly becoming mismatched with their thermal environment, potentially leading to local extirpation (Whitfield et al., 2007; Sinervo et al., 2010; Bestion et al., 2015b), unless successful range shifts occur towards more suitable thermal latitudes or altitudes (Lenoir et al., 2020). While altitudinal range shifts have been reported in a wide range of organisms (Walther et al., 2002; Parmesan & Yohe, 2003; Bässler et al., 2013; Pauchard et al., 2016; Freeman et al., 2018), moving up in elevation exposes organisms to lower oxygen availability, potentially impacting reproduction, dispersal and overall range shift dynamics (Powell and Hopkins, 2010; Storz et al., 2010; Jacobsen, 2020). Moreover, under IPCC's current projection (Mokhov & Eliseev, 2012), temperatures are expected to keep rising, even at high elevation (Jacobsen, 2020). This may eventually expose newly established

populations at high-elevation to the double constraints of low oxygen availability and suboptimal temperatures.

Ectotherm physiology and behavioural processes are strongly dependent on environmental temperatures (Huey and Stevenson, 1979; Angilletta et al., 2002; Gillooly et al., 2002; Deutsch et al., 2008; Huey et al., 2012), and therefore they are often utilized as a model in climate change related experiments and studies (Pen et al., 2010; Sinervo et al., 2010; Bestion et al., 2015a; Dahlhoff et al., 2019). Our current study focuses on embryo development and hatching success, because the production of viable and fit offspring is a required condition for successful dispersal and population establishment in novel environments (Baguette et al., 2012). Further, incubation temperature is the main driver of embryonic development and hatchling phenotype in ectotherms such as reptiles (Deeming & Ferguson, 1991; Deeming, 2004; Booth, 2006; Goodman, 2008; Warner, 2014; Refsnider et al., 2019). The influence of incubation temperatures (notably above the optimal range; Andrews and Schwarzkopf, 2012) on hatchling phenotype is especially well known in reptiles, affecting development, sex determination, incubation duration, body size, growth rate, locomotor performance, cognitive abilities, and post-natal behaviour (Shine, 2004; Deutsch et al., 2008; Daufresne et al., 2009; Gardner et al., 2011; Sheridan & Bickford, 2011; Bestion et al., 2015b; Cunningham et al., 2017; Noble et al., 2018; Pellerin et al., 2019; Refsnider et al., 2019). Additionally, the effects of low oxygen availably on physiology have attracted recent attention, including in the context of altitudinal range shifts driven by climate change (Powell and Hopkins, 2010; Storz et al., 2010; Jacobsen, 2020). For instance, it was shown that common wall lizards (Podarcis muralis, Laurenti, 1768) transplanted to high elevation enhanced oxygen-carrying capacity by increasing hematocrit and blood

hemoglobin concentration, though transplanted lizards still suffered a reduction in running endurance (Gangloff et al., 2019). Further, reptile embryos exposed to hypoxia increased heart rates in some studies (Du et al., 2010a; Souchet et al., 2020), while in other cases hypoxia leads to decreased heart rates and cardiac hypertrophy (Cordero et al., 2017a; Kouyoumdjian et al., 2019). In viperine snakes, exposure to hypoxia during incubation resulted in hatchlings that were smaller in body size and slower swimmers (a proxy for predator avoidance and food acquisition in snakes; Jayne & Bennett, 1990; Kingsolver et al., 2001) compared to their siblings incubated at lower elevation (Souchet et al., 2020).

Recent work suggests that the interaction of high temperature and oxygen limitation will alter embryo development (Jackson, 2007; Flewelling & Parker, 2015; Smith et al., 2015; Gangloff & Telemeco, 2018; Hall & Warner, 2020; Li et al., 2020). Here we experimentally tested the effect of high temperature (i.e., current populations caught in the climatic debt), low oxygen availability (i.e., populations having shifted their range in altitude in the near future), and the combined effect of high temperature and low oxygen (i.e., extreme high elevation in the year 2070) on the development, hatching success and hatchling phenotype in a temperate snake species (viperine snake, Natrix maura, Linnaeus 1758). This is a first step toward assessing the colonization potential to high elevation in a potentially upwardmigrating species. We used a split-clutch design and incubated eggs in four ecologically relevant treatments: 1) oxygen availability at native elevation (normoxia; 436m above sea level [ASL]) and 32°C incubation temperature (i.e., populations lagging behind climate change); 2) low oxygen availability (2877 m ASL), 24°C incubation (i.e., range shifted in altitude); 3) low oxygen availability, 32°C incubation (i.e., high altitude in the year 2070), and 4) a normal oxygen availability, 24°C incubation control treatment (i.e., recent past

conditions). We monitored embryo heart rates (a proxy for metabolism and cardiovascular function; Crossley & Burggren, 2009) and egg mass throughout the incubation and measured fitness-relevant aspects of hatchling phenotypes (body size and swimming performance) at hatching. This factorial design allowed us to tease apart the individual and combined effects of incubation temperature and oxygen levels on embryo development and hatchling phenotypes. Based on our previous work (Souchet et al., 2020), we expected that the extreme high elevation will decrease egg mass and induce higher heart rates throughout incubation. Moreover, we predicted incubation duration will be shorter and the hatchlings will be smaller in high-elevation hypoxia. Further, we predicted that the combined constraints imposed by higher metabolic rates induced by warmer incubation temperature (Huey, 1982; Angilletta, 2009; Dillon et al., 2010) and oxygen limitation on juveniles will result in a reduced performance capacity. Specifically, we predicted that embryos incubated at extreme high elevation will produce slower-swimming juveniles and that embryos developing under conditions of both high temperature and high-elevation hypoxia will be the slowest. Finally, we further partitioned treatment groups to test whether the effects of embryonic environment would be ontogenetically stable even after hatchlings were transplanted to the alternative elevation.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Experimental design

We captured 17 gravid females viperine snake along the banks of the Lez River (Department of Ariège, France), between May and July 2017. This aquatic species (Vacher and Geniez, 2010) has been recorded up to 1000 m above sea level [ASL] in France (Aubret et al., 2015; Pottier, 2016) and 1500 m ASL in Spain (Martinez-Rica & Reiné-Viñales, 1988; Santos, 2015).

The viperine snake has been exposed to fluctuating temperatures and has migrated along the elevational gradient throughout its evolutionary history, colonizing mountainous environments repeatedly in conjunction with historical warming and cooling cycles (Gómez & Lunt, 2007). Capture sites spanned from 412m to 715m ASL. Each female was maintained in the Station d'Ecologie Théorique et Expérimentale du Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique (SETE-CNRS; 42.958394 N, 1.086440 E) and laid a single clutch for a total of 205 eggs between 21 June 2017 and 22 July 2017 (mean clutch size \pm SD = 11.9 \pm 4.9 eggs). Three eggs were infertile, leaving 202 eggs for the experiment. All females were returned to their exact site of capture within two weeks of egg-laying.

We first investigated how temperature (cool temperature at constant 24°C; and hot temperature at constant 32°C) and oxygen availability interact to influence embryonic development. Oxygen treatments were normoxia at the SETE-CNRS (low elevation at 436 m ASL, 95% sea-level equivalent O₂ availability, PO₂ ~20.1 kPa) and high-elevation hypoxia at the Observatory Midi-Pyrénées of the Pic du Midi de Bigorre (42.936389 N, 0.142472 E, above current range limits at 2877 m ASL, 72% sea-level equivalent O₂ availability, PO₂ ~15.3 kPa). This difference in elevation results in a decrease in atmospheric pressure, with associated reduction in the partial pressure of gases, including oxygen, carbon dioxide, and water vapor (Millet & Debevec, 2020; Richalet, 2020). Most relevant to our hypotheses is the 25% reduction in oxygen availability at the Pic du Midi de Bigorre lab in comparison to sea level (Bouverot, 2012). Eggs were weighed using a digital scale (to the nearest 0.01 g) within 12 hours of oviposition and individually marked for identification with a pencil. We used a split-clutch design and allocated eggs to four incubation treatments within 24 hours of oviposition (Figure 1): Low Elevation and Cool temperature (LEC; normoxia at constant 24°C),

Low Elevation and Hot temperature (LEH; normoxia at constant 32°C), Extreme High Elevation and Cool temperature (EHEC; hypoxia at constant 24°C) and Extreme High Elevation and Hot temperature (EHEH; hypoxia at constant 32°C). Because egg mass influences both embryo metabolism and hatching phenotype (Nelson et al., 2004; Aubret, 2013), and egg mass varied among clutches (Kruskal-Wallis test: *H*= 148.42, Df= 15, P < 0.001), eggs were ranked within each clutch from lightest to heaviest and alternately assigned to treatments in order to ensure no difference in egg mass between treatments (Kruskal-Wallis test: *H*=0.151, Df= 3, P = 0.985). LEC, LEH, EHEC and EHEH treatment quarter-clutches were placed in a plastic container (20 cm x 15 cm x 5 cm) on a 2 cm layer of wet vermiculite (1:5 water to vermiculite by volume) and incubated in four identical incubation chambers (ExoTerra Model PT-2445, Rolf C. Hagen Inc., USA). Water bowls placed within each incubator, directly under the incubator's fan, ensured high levels of humidity throughout incubation (indicated by condensation on the incubator walls).

Out of 202 eggs, 177 embryos from 16 females successfully hatched (87.6% hatching success rate) while 25 died at various stages during incubation. Another 17 neonates died shortly after hatching (between 24 hours to two weeks). We measured morphology (Test2, Figure1; see below) first on all 177 hatchlings at their incubation location (low or extreme high elevation). Our experimental design allowed us to measure the effects of temperature and hypoxia during incubation on juvenile development and performance. It also allowed us to measure the short-term effects on juvenile development and performance in acute high-elevation hypoxia after translocation to extreme high elevation. In order to assess these questions, at nine days post-hatching (after all yolk was assimilated; Ji et al., 1999) we measured morphology and swimming performance (Test 3, Figure1; see below) first on all

160 hatchlings at their incubation elevation (low or extreme high elevation). After this first measurement, half of the hatchlings in the LEC and LEH treatments were transferred to extreme high elevation while half of the hatchlings from the EHEC and EHEH treatments were brought down to the low elevation site. All juveniles were then tested for swimming performance and morphology at 11 days, 25 days, and at 40 days post-hatching (respectively one day, two weeks and one month of acclimation for transferred juveniles; Test 4, Figure 1). Once tests were completed, young snakes were fed with small dead minnows (0.5 g to 1 g) and released between 42 and 45 days post-hatching at the maternal capture site.

Egg mass and heart rate measurements

We weighed each egg using a digital scale (to the nearest 0.01 g) within 12 hours of oviposition, and then every 7 days until hatching (Figure 1; Test 1). Embryo heart rates were first measured at 7 days of incubation and then every 7 days until hatching (Figure 1; Test 1) at the same temperature as incubation. To measure embryo heart rates, we used the Buddy digital egg monitor (MK2, Avitronics, Cornwall, UK) under the standardized protocol described for eggs (Aubret, 2013; Cordero et al., 2017a; Souchet et al., 2020). Each egg was gently placed onto the sensor pad for heart rate reading (a stable reading was obtained after approximately 30 seconds) and then returned to its clutch. All eggs were only briefly (\leq 1min) placed in the digital egg monitor to mitigate potential temperature changes owing to exposure to infrared sensors (Sartori et al., 2015; Hulbert et al., 2017). Heart rates can be influenced by a variety of factors (Clark et al., 2006; Du et al., 2010b) and are linked to metabolic rate in some circumstances (Kouyoumdjian et al., 2019), though this relationship may become less clear especially late in development (Sartori et al., 2017). We also calculated the total number of heart beats (THB) of embryos throughout embryonic

development using the formula THB = average heart rate × total minutes of developmental duration (Du et al., 2009, 2011).

Hatchling measurements

Hatching occurred between 8 August 2017 and 29 September 2017 (Figure 1; Test 2) and hatchlings were individually marked for identification with a medical cauterizer (Model HITO, Bovie, USA) on the ventral scales (Winne et al., 2006) within 24 hours of emergence. Hatchlings were weighed using a digital scale (to the nearest 0.01 g), measured for snoutvent length (SVL) and total body length (TL) using a measuring tape (to the nearest 0.1 cm), and sexed via hemipene eversion. Since sex is genetically determined in snakes, we did not expect an effect of treatment on sex determination, but tested for differential effects between the sexes in developing embryos which could result in skewed hatchling sex ratios. We calculated body condition as the residual of the log_{10} -mass on log_{10} -SVL linear regression at hatching day. Finally, we weighed the yolk leftover in the eggshell (residual egg yolk) using a digital scale (to the nearest 0.01 g). Juveniles were housed together by hatching date in plastic containers (15 cm x 10 cm x 5 cm) with a water dish, shelter and paper towel as a substrate in incubation chambers (ExoTerra Model PT-2445, Rolf C. Hagen Inc. Canada) set at constant 20°C. Our experience with viperine snake shows that cooler temperatures (below thermal optimum for performance or preferred temperatures) results in higher juvenile survivorship (93% survival at one month in this species; J.S. and F.A. unpubl. data). Juveniles were measured again at 9 days, 11 days, 25 days and 40 days post-hatching for SVL, TL and body mass prior to performance testing.

Swimming performance

For this test, we were interested in measuring the maximal swimming speed to evaluate the potential limitation of hypoxia on this ecologically-relevant performance. To estimate the swimming speed we used a procedure that has been validated for snakes (Shine & Shetty, 2001; Aubret, 2004; Aubret et al., 2005), modified effectively for juveniles (Souchet et al., 2020). A high-definition wide-angle digital camera (25 fps, Sony Model HDR-XR160E, Sony Corporation) was fitted above a linear swimming track (100 cm x 20 cm x 20 cm) and used to record swimming trials. The tank was filled to a depth of 5 cm with water maintained at 25°C using aquarium heaters. A standard testing temperature of water at 25°C was used because it approximates the optimal temperature for swimming speed of the viperine snake (Hailey & Davies, 1986; Aubret et al., 2015). At 9 days, 11 days, 25 days and 40 days post-hatching, each snake was acclimated to 25°C for 30 minutes and swam 10 consecutive lengths. Raw data were extracted from video files by measuring swimming speed (cm.s-1) for each length (ten per individual and day of measurement) with the software Tracker (Brown, 2019). The fastest performance from all trials was utilized for swimming analysis. Analyzing the average swimming speed of the 10 trials gives the same qualitative results; however, since our focus is performance capacity, we include results for maximum swimming speed here.

Data analysis

We first assessed the influence of the temperature and elevation of incubation, and time of development on egg mass and embryo heart rate (Test 1). We used linear mixed-effect models, including as main effects the temperature of incubation (cool: 24°C;warm: 32°C), the elevation of incubation (low elevation: normoxia; extreme high elevation: high-elevation hypoxia), the age at measurement (0, 7, 14, 21, 28, 35, 42, 49, 56 and 63 days post-laying) treated as a categorical effect to account for the expected nonlinear response over time

(Burggren & Warburton, 1994; Cordero et al., 2017a; Sartori et al., 2017), and all three- and two-way interactions. We then assessed the influence of temperature and elevation of incubation on eight measures of hatchling phenotype at hatching (Test 2): survival to hatching, sex, incubation time, total number of heartbeats (THB), body mass, body size (SVL), body condition, and residual egg yolk. We used linear mixed-effect models, including in all models the same main effects of the temperature of incubation (cool: 24°C; warm: 32°C), the elevation of incubation (low elevation: normoxia; extreme high elevation: high-elevation hypoxia), and interactions as above. Finally, we assessed the influence of the temperature and elevation of incubation on swimming performance of juveniles (Test 3 and Test 4). We used linear mixed-effect models, including as the main effects the temperature of incubation (cool: 24°C; warm: 32°C), the elevation of incubation (low elevation: normoxia; extreme high elevation: high-elevation hypoxia), the age at measurement (9, 11, 25 and 40 days posthatching), the location of test (low elevation or extreme high elevation), and all four-, threeand two-way interactions. We also include as covariates the total body length (TL) and the sex of juveniles.

To account for the non-independence of siblings we included the clutch of origin as a random effect (intercept) in all models. In models for which we measured individuals repeatedly (egg mass, embryo heart rates, and swimming performance), we also included individual as a random effect (intercept), nested within clutch. We used type III sums of squares to assess the significance of main effects, incorporating a Kenward-Roger denominator degree of freedom approximation (Kenward & Roger, 1997). We also conducted a pairwise comparison of least-squares means and adjusted p-values for multiple comparisons with the Tukey method. All analyses were conducted with the Ime4 package

(Bates et al., 2014) and the emmeans package (Lenth, 2016) and figures were made with the ggplot2 package (Wickham, 2016) in the programming language R 3.6.1 (R Development Core Team, 2019).

RESULTS

Test 1: Egg mass and embryonic heart rates

The main effects of elevation, temperature, and time of measurement (days post-laying) and their interaction significantly altered egg mass trajectories (Table 1, Figure 2A). Eggs incubated at 24°C (*i.e.*, LEC and EHEC) gained mass for 35 days post-oviposition before decreasing (Table 1, Figure 2A), while the mass of eggs incubated at 32°C (*i.e.*, LEH and EHEH) decreased throughout the incubation (Table 1, Figure 2A). The post-hoc comparison of least-squares means from the model (Table S1) indicates that eggs masses were similar in eggs incubated at the same incubation temperature whatever the oxygen availability. Nevertheless, at the last day of measurement (28 days post-hatching for LEH and EHEH; 63 days post-hatching for LEC and EHEC) the egg mass of both treatments in extreme high elevation were significantly less than those of the low elevation treatments (Figure 2A; Table S1). Eggs incubated at 24°C (*i.e.*, at LEC and EHEC) maintained higher mass (mean difference ± SE: 0.36 ± 0.08 g) across the incubation period compared to eggs incubated at 32°C (*i.e.*, at LEH and EHEH).

Heart rate trajectories were also significantly altered by elevation and temperature, time of measurement (days post-laying), and by the interaction between temperature and both elevation and time of measurement (Table 1, Figure 2B). Heart rates of embryos incubated at 32°C (*i.e.*, at LEH and EHEH) increased rapidly during the first 7 days of incubation before

decreasing for the remainder of the incubation (Table 1, Figure 2B), while embryos incubated at 24°C (*i.e.*, at LEC and EHEC) maintained stable heart rates throughout incubation (Table 1, Figure 2B). Post-hoc comparison of least-squares means (Table S1) indicates that embryos from LEH treatment maintained higher heart rates (mean difference \pm SD: 7.25 \pm 1.17 bpm) across the incubation period compared to EHEH. Further, eggs in the EHEH treatment exhibited much higher heart rates (mean difference \pm SE: 33.39 \pm 1.00 bpm) compared to both embryo groups incubated at 24°C (*i.e.*, at LEC and EHEC).

Test 2: Hatching success and morphological measurements

Hatching success of embryos was dependent on incubation temperature and the interaction with the elevation (LEC = 90.2%, LEH = 91.8%, EHEC = 94.1% and EHEH = 74.5%; Table 2). Post-hoc comparison of least-squares means (Table S2) indicates that hatching success differed between eggs in the EHEC and EHEH treatments. We observed than of the 25 dead embryos, half of them are from EHEH. Moreover, in this treatment, 92% of the death appeared in the last stage of development. Elevation and temperature levels did not affect the hatchling sex ratio (LEC = 56.5%; LEH = 57.8%; EHEC = 47.9%; and EHEH = 42.1% females; Table 2). Incubation duration differed between embryos incubated in the four treatments as a function of temperature and its interaction with the elevation (Table 2, Figure 3A). All treatment groups are significantly different from each other (Table S2). Snakes in the LEC treatment incubated 2.25 ± 0.28 days longer than EHEC, EHEC treatment incubated 29.01 ± 0.29 days longer than EHEH, and EHEH treatment incubated 2.66 ± 0.30 days longer than LEH. Only the temperature of incubation affected THB of embryos (Table 2, Figure 3B). THB did not differ in embryos from the same incubation temperature (Table S2) and THB were greater in the cool incubation temperature treatments (i.e., LEC and EHEC) compared to

warm (*i.e.* LEH and EHEH). Moreover, the residual egg yolk was also significantly affected by the temperature of incubation (Table 2, Figure 3F). Comparison of least-squares means from the model (Table S2) indicates that residual egg yolk was similar for the treatments within an incubation temperature (*i.e.*, LEC vs EHEC and LEH vs EHEH), but that snakes in the LEC and EHEC treatments retained an average of 0.29 g (33.6%) more residual egg yolk compared to the LEH and EHEH treatments.

Elevation and temperature and their interaction influenced body mass and body size (SVL) at hatching (Tables 2 & S2, Figures 3C & 3D). Elevation and temperature influenced hatchlings' body condition (Tables 2 & S2, Figure 3E). In all cases, the two cool treatments (*i.e.*, at LEC and EHEC) did not significantly differ from each other. For the body mass at one day post-hatching, LEH treatment did not differ from either LEC or EHEC treatments. However, the EHEH treatment was 0.39 ± 0.12 g (13.2%) lighter compared to the three other treatments. For body size at one day post-hatching, cool-temperature treatments were 0.72 ± 0.17 cm (5.1%) longer than snakes in the LEH treatment, which in turn were 0.49 ± 0.18 cm (4.7%) longer than snakes in the EHEH treatment. Finally, the different treatments also influenced the body condition at one day post-hatching (Tables 2 & S2, Figure 3E), with snakes in the LEH treatment having a 35.4% higher body condition compared to the three other treatments.

Tests 3 & 4: Swimming performance

Globally, maximum swimming speed (Table 3) was influenced by the effect of incubation temperature (24°C and 32°C), the time of measurement (9, 11, 25, and 40 days post-hatching), and their interaction with test location (low elevation and extreme high

elevation). Moreover, size positively influenced swimming speed within each treatment group, with longer snakes swimming faster (slope estimate \pm SE: 2.71 \pm 0.31; Table 3, Figure 4).

At nine days post-hatching, for the first swimming performance measurement (Test 3) conducted at the elevation of incubation, the post-hoc comparison of least-squares means (Table S3) indicates that maximum swimming speed was similar for both treatments at the cool incubation temperature (*i.e.*, LEC vs EHEC; Figure 5A). Juveniles from LEH treatments swam significantly faster (by 22.0%) than LEC and EHEC (Figure 5A; Table S3). Finally, the juveniles from the EHEH treatment swam significantly faster (by 10.4%) compared to the LEC treatment (Figure 5A; Table S3). After translocation to the opposite oxygen level treatment, maximum swimming speed was only significantly altered in the EHEH treatment at 25 days post hatching (Figure 5B; Table S3). That is, individuals translocated to low elevation (EHEH-LE) swam faster (by 18.7%) compared to siblings retained at extreme high elevation (EHEH-EHE). These results remained qualitatively unchanged when measuring swimming speed expressed as body length per second (analysis not shown).

The proportion of residual variance attributed to clutch was up to 67% (for egg mass) and the inclusion of this random effect significantly improved model fit for most traits measured (Table S4). Siblings most strongly covaried for traits related to offspring size (egg mass and body mass at hatching) as well as developmental duration (incubation duration and total heart beats). Only heart rate and sex ratio were not influenced by significant maternal effects.

DISCUSSION

Our study demonstrates the impact of high-elevation hypoxia coupled with temperature regime on development, physiology, and early-life performance in an oviparous ectotherm. Irrespective of oxygen availability during incubation, eggs incubated at cool temperature (i.e., LEC and EHEC) maintained higher mass and much lower heart rates throughout incubation compared to siblings incubated at a warmer temperature (Figure 2; Table 1). The longer incubation duration combined with reduced heart rate at the cool incubation temperature suggests a lowered metabolic rate (Table 1), as expected (Deeming & Ferguson, 1991; Deeming, 2004; Booth, 2006; Goodman, 2008; Warner, 2014). At warm incubation temperatures (i.e., LEH and EHEH), viperine snake embryos in extreme high-elevation hypoxia exhibited typical physiological adjustments to hypoxia found in other taxa, including reduced heart rate (Table 1, Figure 2; Laughlin, 1978; Monge & Leon-Velarde, 1991; Crossley & Altimiras, 2005; Crossley & Burggren, 2009; Du et al., 2011; Cordero et al., 2017a; b; Kouyoumdjian et al., 2019). Importantly, this trend was not exhibited in snakes incubated at extreme high elevation and low temperatures and furthermore is counter to that we demonstrated in our previous study conducted at an intermediate incubation temperature of 28°C (Souchet et al., 2020), suggesting that the this is an effect of combined increased metabolism and reduced oxygen availability. Reduced heart rates were observed only in embryos incubated at the warmer temperature and extreme high elevation. The interaction of temperature and oxygen availability also influenced other important fitness-related parameters, including offspring development times, hatching success, body size at birth, and swimming performance. Notably, the potential negative consequences of reduced oxygen availability were exacerbated by high incubation temperatures.

We observed the strongest effects on development in embryos incubated at extreme high elevation and at high temperature, suggesting that these factors interact to limit the functional capacity of ectotherms. Gas exchange in embryos is diffusion-limited, likely constraining their ability to compensate for reduced oxygen availability through increased oxygen transport capacity (Vitt & Caldwell, 2013). These effects are then exacerbated by the increased demand induced by high temperatures. Under conditions of high temperature and low oxygen availability, we expect reductions in maximal performance, limitations on physiological processes generally, and potentially reductions of critical thermal limits (Gangloff & Telemeco, 2018). For example, recent work demonstrated that lizard embryos suffer a mismatch between oxygen supply and demand at high temperatures, which may serve as the proximal cause of death (Hall & Warner, 2020). Our results demonstrate for the first time these effects in snake embryos, in concordance with previous work studying embryonic development in ovo under varying temperatures and levels of oxygen availability in other reptile taxa (Birds: Vimmerstedt et al., 2019; Crocodiles: lungman and Piña, 2013; Lizards: Flewelling and Parker, 2015; Smith et al., 2015; Li et al., 2020; Turtles: Liang et al., 2015). For example, embryos of the lizard Podarcis muralis increase incubation times in conditions of hypoxia when incubated at 28°C, but not at 24°C (Cordero et al., 2017a; Kouyoumdjian et al., 2019). In this study, we found that snake embryos incubated in warm temperature and in hypoxia were less likely to survive to hatching, especially because the last-stage embryos have higher oxygen demand (Dmi'el, 1970; Sartori et al., 2017), and, when they did survive, were smaller than snakes in other treatment groups (Table 2, Figure 3D). In accordance with previous work (Shine, 2004; Daufresne et al., 2009; Du et al., 2009; Gardner et al., 2011; Sheridan and Bickford, 2011; Noble et al., 2018; Refsnider et al., 2019), our results show that snakes incubated at warm temperatures were smaller and shorter

than their counterparts, and hatched after fewer total heartbeats, regardless of oxygen availability (Table 2, Figure 3C & 3D). Moreover, there was less residual egg yolk in both warm treatments (*i.e.*, LEH and EHEH) compared to cool treatments (*i.e.*, LEC and EHEC) and yet these animals were also smaller, suggesting higher basal metabolic demands associated with high-temperature incubation may reduce growth efficiency (conversion of yolk to body mass). Hatchlings incubated at cool temperatures in hypoxia did not exhibit reduced body size or mass (Table 2; Figure 3C & 3D). This result demonstrates that reduced metabolic rates and increased ability to assimilate energy stores associated with cool temperatures mitigate the negative impacts of reduced oxygen availability (Jackson, 2007; Gangloff & Telemeco, 2018).

Swimming speed is an ecologically relevant trait important to predator avoidance and food acquisition in snakes (Jayne & Bennett, 1990; Kingsolver et al., 2001), that typically correlates (positively) with body length (Shine and Shetty, 2001; Aubret et al., 2015). Although this trend was found within each treatment group (Figure 4), it was not observed across treatments: snakes incubated under both hypoxia and high temperatures demonstrated the fastest swimming speeds compared to all other treatment groups, despite exhibiting the smallest body size on average (Table 3, Figure 4). Previous studies in other ectothermic species demonstrate that cool incubation temperatures produce faster swimmers (Shine, 1999; Angilletta & Dunham, 2003; Watkins & Vraspir, 2006; Gahm et al., 2020). At nine days post hatching, juveniles in this experiment did not follow this trend: juveniles from warm treatments (*i.e.*, LEH and EHEH) were faster swimmers than their siblings from cool treatments (*i.e.*, LEC and EHEC) in both absolute and relative swimming speed. Most surprisingly, juveniles from the EHEH treatment were also faster than juveniles

from LEH despite smaller body size and conditions of oxygen limitation (Figure 5A). One potential explanation for this finding is that warm incubation temperature and oxygen limitation may reduce the optimal temperature for performance (Gangloff & Telemeco, 2018). We suggest that juveniles from EHEH potentially reduced their optimal temperature for performance, thus swimming faster than the other groups at the test temperature of 25°C. Alternatively, exposure to hypoxia during development may have induced plastic changes in cardiovascular, muscular, or mitochondrial function to increase performance capacity (Eme et al., 2013; Sun et al., 2015; Galli et al., 2016). Further experiments directed towards quantifying the effects of incubation temperature on the entire thermal performance curve are necessary to fully characterize how incubation temperature influences both physiology and performance across a range of temperatures (Taylor et al., 2020).

After relocation to low elevation, juveniles from the EHEH treatment swam faster than siblings remaining at extreme high elevation, which maintained swimming speeds similar to other treatment groups measured at both extreme high and low elevation (Figure 5B). In birds and mammals the acclimation to high-elevation hypoxia can include an alteration of cardio-respiratory pathways, a modification of blood composition, and increased muscle performance (Monge & Leon-Velarde, 1991b; Beall et al., 2002; Storz et al., 2004; Lague et al., 2016). Similar effects have been demonstrated in other reptiles (lungman & Piña, 2013; González-Morales et al., 2015; Lu et al., 2015; Wearing et al., 2015; Jochmans-Lemoine & Joseph, 2018; Gangloff et al., 2019). These modifications may allow the maintenance of locomotor performance such as swimming. Furthermore, these physiological and anatomical changes due to development in chronic hypoxia serve to improve performance under

normoxic conditions, similar to athletes training at high altitudes for competition at sea level (e.g., Khodaee et al., 2016). Repeated measurements throughout ontogeny are necessary to quantify the time frame over which such compensatory mechanisms remain relevant (Mitchell et al., 2018). Finally, although we cannot speculate on the adaptive value of such behavior at this stage, this response to a double constraint (high incubation temperature and low oxygen level) may be yet another case of informed dispersal in reptiles (as in Zootoca vivipara, Lichtenstein, 1823 and Natrix maura; Clobert et al., 2009; Bestion et al., 2015a; Aubret et al., 2016): environmental clues may convey important information about the quality of the natal environment and foster dispersal behaviour and/or dispersal enhancing traits (i.e., high locomotor performance). Importantly, the high level of observed maternal effects (Table S4) indicates the necessity of a split-clutch design in any experiment measuring similar traits in Squamate reptiles. Future work directed towards partitioning this estimate into narrow-sense heritability and maternal effects will be important to predict the evolutionary response to novel conditions within populations, especially at the colonization front.

General conclusion

Our results suggest that even though body size, development, and physiology are altered, and hatching success is lowered, the majority of embryos developing in high-elevation hypoxia produced viable young snakes. Furthermore, these snakes were able to equal or exceed the swimming performance of snakes incubated under native conditions. We stress that the results of this experiment represent an extreme case of abiotic limitation (exposing developing embryos from low elevation to a 32° C incubation temperature and 72% sea-level equivalent O_2 availability). Such approaches are important to identify patterns among

mechanisms, pathways, and constraints, allowing subsequent experimental designs to be refined accordingly. In some species of Squamates, embryos transplanted to extreme high elevation do not suffer reductions in survival and maintain fitness-relevant traits to hatching (Du et al., 2010a; Cordero et al., 2017a; Kouyoumdjian et al., 2019; Li et al., 2020). In this context, the plastic physiological responses might mitigate environmental stress, thereby promoting offspring survival and influencing the direction of subsequent evolution of colonizing populations (Atkinson & Thorndyke, 2001; McNab, 2002; West-Eberhard, 2003; Hammond et al., 2006; Ghalambor et al., 2007). Our results tentatively suggest that the embryonic stage will not be the limiting factor in the potential for viperine snake to utilize expansion to high-elevation habitat as a strategy to track favorable environmental temperatures. However, the success this colonization could be threatened if temperatures continue to rise, especially at high elevation.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We are grateful to the staff of Observatoire Midi-Pyrénées for logistical support in Pic du Midi de Bigorre as well as Isabel Verdaguer, Joaquim Soler and Zuleica Alonso for their help in the laboratory. We thank three anonymous reviewers for their helpful comments. This work was supported by the French Laboratory of Excellence project "TULIP" (ANR-10-LABX-41; ANR-11-IDEX-0002-02), INTERREG POCTEFA ECTOPYR (no. EFA031/15), and the European Union's Horizon 2020 research and innovation program under the Marie Skłodowska-Curie grant agreement No 752299. All experimental protocols (including animal collection, housing, experimentation and release) were approved by the DREAL Midi-Pyrénées (Direction Régionale de l'Environnement, de l'Aménagement et du Logement) and by the Préfectures of Ariège, Aude, Haute-Garonne, Hautes-Pyrénées and Pyrénées Orientales districts (Arrêté Préfectoral No. 2017-s-02 du 30 mars 2017) and ethical committee (APAFIS#16359-201808011445465 v4). All experiments were carried out in accordance with the approved guidelines. Animal caretakers and handlers were trained to use wildlife in scientific purposes (Decree No. 2013-118 du 01 février 2013 and approval of the Ministry of Agriculture under No. I-75-MNHN-F1-15 du 17 juin 2015).

484	REFERENCES
485 486 487 488	Alexander JM, Chalmandrier L, Lenoir J, Burgess TI, Essl F, Haider S, Kueffer C, McDougall K, Milbau A, Nuñez MA, Pauchard A, Rabitsch W, Rew LJ, Sanders NJ, Pellissier L. 2018. Lags in the response of mountain plant communities to climate change. Global Change Biology 24:563–579.
489 490	Andrews RM, Schwarzkopf L. 2012. Thermal performance of squamate embryos with respect to climate, adult life history, and phylogeny. Biol J Linn Soc 106:851–864.
491	Angilletta MJ. 2009. Thermal Adaptation: A Theoretical and Empirical Synthesis. OUP Oxford.
492 493	Angilletta MJ, Dunham AE. 2003. The temperature-size rule in ectotherms: simple evolutionary explanations may not be general. The American Naturalist 162:332–342
494 495	Angilletta MJ, Niewiarowski PH, Navas CA. 2002. The evolution of thermal physiology in ectotherms. Journal of Thermal Biology 27:249–268.
496 497	Atkinson D, Thorndyke MC eds. 2001. Environment and animal development: genes, life histories and plasticity. Oxford: BIOS Scientific.
498 499	Aubret F. 2004. Aquatic locomotion and behaviour in two disjunct populations of Western Australian tiger snakes, <i>Notechis ater occidentalis</i> . Aust J Zool 52:357–368.
500 501	Aubret F. 2013. Heart rates increase after hatching in two species of natricine snakes. Scientific Reports 3:3384.
502 503	Aubret F, Bignon F, Kok PJR, Blanvillain G. 2016. Only child syndrome in snakes: Eggs incubated alone produce asocial individuals. Scientific Reports 6:35752.
504 505 506	Aubret F, Bonnet X, Maumelat S. 2005. Tail loss, body condition and swimming performances in tiger snakes, <i>Notechis ater occidentalis</i> . Journal of Experimental Zoology Part A: Comparative Experimental Biology 303A:894–903.
507 508 509	Aubret F, Tort M, Sarraude T. 2015. Evolution of alternative foraging tactics driven by water temperature and physiological constraints in an amphibious snake. Biol J Linn Soc 115:411–422.
510 511	Baguette M, Benton TG, Bullock JM. 2012. Dispersal Ecology and Evolution. Oxford University Press.
512 513	Bässler C, Hothorn T, Brandl R, Müller J. 2013. Insects Overshoot the Expected Upslope Shift Caused by Climate Warming. PLOS ONE 8:e65842.
514 515	Bates D, Mächler M, Bolker B, Walker S. 2014. Fitting Linear Mixed-Effects Models using Ime4. arXiv:14065823 [stat] [Internet]. Available from:

http://arxiv.org/abs/1406.5823

Beall CM, Decker MJ, Brittenham GM, Kushner I, Gebremedhin A, Strohl KP. 2002. An Ethiopian pattern of human adaptation to high-altitude hypoxia. PNAS 99:17215-17218. Bertrand R, Riofrío-Dillon G, Lenoir J, Drapier J, de Ruffray P, Gégout J-C, Loreau M. 2016. Ecological constraints increase the climatic debt in forests. Nature Communications 7:12643. Bestion E, Clobert J, Cote J. 2015a. Dispersal response to climate change: scaling down to intraspecific variation. Ecology Letters 18:1226–1233. Bestion E, Teyssier A, Richard M, Clobert J, Cote J. 2015b. Live Fast, Die Young: Experimental Evidence of Population Extinction Risk due to Climate Change. PLOS Biology 13:e1002281. Booth DT. 2006. Influence of Incubation Temperature on Hatchling Phenotype in Reptiles. Physiological and Biochemical Zoology 79:274–281. Bouverot P. 2012. Adaptation to Altitude-Hypoxia in Vertebrates. Springer Science & Business Media. Brown D. 2019. Tracker: Video Analysis and Modeling Tool [Software]. Version 5.1.3. Open Source Physics. Burggren WW, Warburton SJ. 1994. Patterns of form and function in developing hearts: contributions from non-mammalian vertebrates. Cardioscience 5:183-191. Clark TD, Butler PJ, Frappell PB. 2006. Factors influencing the prediction of metabolic rate in a reptile. Functional Ecology 20:105-113. Clobert J, Galliard J-FL, Cote J, Meylan S, Massot M. 2009. Informed dispersal, heterogeneity in animal dispersal syndromes and the dynamics of spatially structured populations. Ecology Letters 12:197–209. Cordero GA, Andersson BA, Souchet J, Micheli G, Noble DWA, Gangloff EJ, Uller T, Aubret F. 2017a. Physiological plasticity in lizard embryos exposed to high-altitude hypoxia. Journal of Experimental Zoology Part A: Ecological and Integrative Physiology 327:423-432. Cordero GA, Karnatz ML, Svendsen JC, Gangloff EJ. 2017b. Effects of low-oxygen conditions on embryo growth in the painted turtle, Chrysemys picta. Integrative Zoology 12:148-156. Crossley DA, Altimiras J. 2005. Cardiovascular development in embryos of the American alligator Alligator mississippiensis: effects of chronic and acute hypoxia. Journal of Experimental Biology 208:31–39.

Crossley DA, Burggren WW. 2009. Development of cardiac form and function in ectothermic

sauropsids. Journal of Morphology 270:1400–1412.

Biology 212:1302-1306.

Cunningham GD, While GM, Wapstra E. 2017. Climate and sex ratio variation in a viviparous lizard. Biology Letters 13:20170218. Dahlhoff EP, Dahlhoff VC, Grainger CA, Zavala NA, Otepola-Bello D, Sargent BA, Roberts KT, Heidl SJ, Smiley JT, Rank NE. 2019. Getting chased up the mountain: High elevation may limit performance and fitness characters in a montane insect. Functional Ecology 33:809-818. Daufresne M, Lengfellner K, Sommer U. 2009. Global warming benefits the small in aquatic ecosystems. PNAS 106:12788-12793. De Frenne P, Rodriguez-Sanchez F, Coomes DA, Baeten L, Verstraeten G, Vellend M, Bernhardt-Romermann M, Brown CD, Brunet J, Cornelis J, Decocq GM, Dierschke H, Eriksson O, Gilliam FS, Hedl R, Heinken T, Hermy M, Hommel P, Jenkins MA, Kelly DL, Kirby KJ, Mitchell FJG, Naaf T, Newman M, Peterken G, Petrik P, Schultz J, Sonnier G, Van Calster H, Waller DM, Walther G-R, White PS, Woods KD, Wulf M, Graae BJ, Verheyen K. 2013. Microclimate moderates plant responses to macroclimate warming. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 110:18561–18565. Deeming DC. 2004. Post-hatching phenotypic effects of incubation in reptiles. In: Deeming DC, editor. Reptilian incubation: behaviour and environment. Nottingham: Nottingham University Press. p 229–252. Available from: http://eprints.lincoln.ac.uk/12997/ Deeming DC, Thompson MB. 1991. Physiological effects of incubation temperature on embryonic development in reptiles and birds. In: Deeming DC, Ferguson MWJ, editors. Egg Incubation: Its Effects on Embryonic Development in Birds and Reptiles. Cambridge University Press. p 277–284. Deutsch CA, Tewksbury JJ, Huey RB, Sheldon KS, Ghalambor CK, Haak DC, Martin PR. 2008. Impacts of climate warming on terrestrial ectotherms across latitude. PNAS 105:6668-6672. Devictor V, van Swaay C, Brereton T, Brotons L, Chamberlain D, Heliölä J, Herrando S, Julliard R, Kuussaari M, Lindström Å, Reif J, Roy DB, Schweiger O, Settele J, Stefanescu C, Van Strien A, Van Turnhout C, Vermouzek Z, WallisDeVries M, Wynhoff I, Jiguet F. 2012. Differences in the climatic debts of birds and butterflies at a continental scale. Nature Climate Change 2:121–124. Dillon ME, Wang G, Huey RB. 2010. Global metabolic impacts of recent climate warming. Nature 467:704-706. Dmi'el R. 1970. Growth and metabolism in snake embryos. Development 23:761–772. Du W-G, Radder RS, Sun B, Shine R. 2009. Determinants of incubation period: do reptilian

embryos hatch after a fixed total number of heart beats? Journal of Experimental

- Du W-G, Thompson MB, Shine R. 2010a. Facultative cardiac responses to regional hypoxia in
 lizard embryos. Comparative Biochemistry and Physiology Part A: Molecular &
 Integrative Physiology 156:491–494.
- Du W-G, Ye H, Zhao B, Pizzatto L, Ji X, Shine R. 2011. Patterns of Interspecific Variation in the Heart Rates of Embryonic Reptiles. PLOS ONE 6:e29027.
- 595 Du W-G, Ye H, Zhao B, Warner DA, Shine R. 2010b. Thermal Acclimation of Heart Rates in 596 Reptilian Embryos. PLOS ONE 5:e15308.
- Eme J, Rhen T, Tate KB, Gruchalla K, Kohl ZF, Slay CE, Crossley DA. 2013. Plasticity of
 cardiovascular function in snapping turtle embryos (Chelydra serpentina): chronic
 hypoxia alters autonomic regulation and gene expression. American Journal of
 Physiology-Regulatory, Integrative and Comparative Physiology 304:R966–R979.
- Fadrique B, Báez S, Duque Á, Malizia A, Blundo C, Carilla J, Osinaga-Acosta O, Malizia L,
 Silman M, Farfán-Ríos W, Malhi Y, Young KR, C FC, Homeier J, Peralvo M, Pinto E,
 Jadan O, Aguirre N, Aguirre Z, Feeley KJ. 2018. Widespread but heterogeneous
 responses of Andean forests to climate change. Nature 564:207–212.
- Flewelling S, Parker SL. 2015. Effects of temperature and oxygen on growth and
 differentiation of embryos of the ground skink, *Scincella lateralis*. Journal of
 Experimental Zoology Part A: Ecological Genetics and Physiology 323:445–455.
- Freeman BG, Scholer MN, Ruiz-Gutierrez V, Fitzpatrick JW. 2018. Climate change causes
 upslope shifts and mountaintop extirpations in a tropical bird community.
 Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 115:11982–11987.
- Gahm, K, AZA Arietta, D Skelly. 2020. Temperature-mediated tradeoff between development
 and performance in larval wood frogs (*Rana sylvatica*). Journal of Experimental
 Zoology-A, In press.
- Galli GLJ, Crossley J, Elsey RM, Dzialowski EM, Shiels HA, Crossley DA. 2016. Developmental
 plasticity of mitochondrial function in American alligators, *Alligator mississippiensis*.
 American Journal of Physiology-Regulatory, Integrative and Comparative Physiology
 311:R1164–R1172.
- Gangloff EJ, Sorlin M, Cordero GA, Souchet J, Aubret F. 2019. Lizards at the Peak:
 Physiological Plasticity Does Not Maintain Performance in Lizards Transplanted to
 High Altitude. Physiological and Biochemical Zoology 92:189–200.
- Gangloff EJ, Telemeco RS. 2018. High Temperature, Oxygen, and Performance: Insights from
 Reptiles and Amphibians. Integr Comp Biol 58:9–24.
- Gardner JL, Peters A, Kearney MR, Joseph L, Heinsohn R. 2011. Declining body size: a third universal response to warming? Trends in Ecology & Evolution 26:285–291.

327:466-476.

Ghalambor CK, McKAY JK, Carroll SP, Reznick DN. 2007. Adaptive versus non-adaptive phenotypic plasticity and the potential for contemporary adaptation in new environments. Functional Ecology 21:394-407. Gillooly JF, Charnov EL, West GB, Savage VM, Brown JH. 2002. Effects of size and temperature on developmental time. Nature 417:70-73. Gómez A, Lunt DH. 2007. Refugia within Refugia: Patterns of Phylogeographic Concordance in the Iberian Peninsula. In: Weiss S, Ferrand N, editors. Phylogeography of Southern European Refugia: Evolutionary perspectives on the origins and conservation of European biodiversity. Dordrecht: Springer Netherlands. p 155–188. Available from: https://doi.org/10.1007/1-4020-4904-8_5 González-Morales JC, Quintana E, Díaz-Albiter H, Guevara-Fiore P, Fajardo V. 2015. Is erythrocyte size a strategy to avoid hypoxia in Wiegmann's Torquate Lizards (Sceloporus torquatus)? Field evidence. Can J Zool 93:377–382. Goodman RM. 2008. Latent effects of egg incubation temperature on growth in the lizard Anolis carolinensis. Journal of Experimental Zoology Part A: Ecological Genetics and Physiology 309A:525-533. Hailey A, Davies MC. 1986. Diet and foraging behaviour of *Natrix maura*. The Herpetological Journal 1:53-61. Hall JM, Warner DA. 2020. Thermal sensitivity of lizard embryos indicates a mismatch between oxygen supply and demand at near-lethal temperatures. Journal of Experimental Zoology Part A: Ecological and Integrative Physiology [Internet] n/a. Available from: https://www.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1002/jez.2359 Hammond KA, Cardullo RA, Ghalambor CK. 2006. The role of developmental plasticity in comparative physiology: mechanism and process. In: Comparative Developmental Physiology: Contributions, Tools, and Trends. The role of developmental plasticity in comparative physiology: mechanism and process. Oxford University Press. Huey RB. 1982. Temperature, physiology, and the ecology of reptiles. In: Biology of the Reptilia. Academic Press. p 25–74. Huey RB, Kearney MR, Krockenberger A, Holtum JAM, Jess M, Williams SE. 2012. Predicting organismal vulnerability to climate warming: roles of behaviour, physiology and adaptation. Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences 367:1665-1679. Huey RB, Stevenson RD. 1979. Integrating Thermal Physiology and Ecology of Ectotherms: A Discussion of Approaches. Integr Comp Biol 19:357–366. Hulbert AC, Mitchell TS, Hall JM, Guiffre CM, Douglas DC, Warner DA. 2017. The effects of

Journal of Experimental Zoology Part A: Ecological and Integrative Physiology

incubation temperature and experimental design on heart rates of lizard embryos.

69:1-33.

lungman JL, Piña Cl. 2013. Hypoxia and temperature: Does hypoxia affect caiman embryo differentiation rate or rate of growth only? Journal of Thermal Biology 38:407–418. Jackson DC. 2007. Temperature and hypoxia in ectothermic tetrapods. Journal of Thermal Biology 32:125-133. Jacobsen D. 2020. The dilemma of altitudinal shifts: caught between high temperature and low oxygen. Frontiers in Ecology and the Environment 18:211–218. Jayne BC, Bennett AF. 1990. Selection on Locomotor Performance Capacity in a Natural Population of Garter Snakes. Evolution 44:1204-1229. Ji X, Sun P-Y, Fu S-Y, zhang H-S. 1999. Utilization of energy and material in eggs and post-hatching yolk in an oviparous snake, Elaphe taeniura. Asiat Herpetol Res 8:53-59. Jochmans-Lemoine A, Joseph V. 2018. Case Study: Developmental Physiology at High Altitude. In: Burggren W, Dubansky B, editors. Development and Environment. Cham: Springer International Publishing. p 435–457. Available from: https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-75935-7 18 Kenward MG, Roger JH. 1997. Small Sample Inference for Fixed Effects from Restricted Maximum Likelihood. Biometrics 53:983-997. Khodaee M, Grothe HL, Seyfert JH, VanBaak K. 2016. Athletes at High Altitude: Sports Health [Internet]. Available from: https://journals.sagepub.com/doi/10.1177/1941738116630948 Kingsolver JG, Hoekstra HE, Hoekstra JM, Berrigan D, Vignieri SN, Hill CE, Hoang A, Gibert P, Beerli P. 2001. The Strength of Phenotypic Selection in Natural Populations. The American Naturalist 157:245-261. Kouyoumdjian L, Gangloff EJ, Souchet J, Cordero GA, Dupoué A, Aubret F. 2019. Transplanting gravid lizards to high elevation alters maternal and embryonic oxygen physiology, but not reproductive success or hatchling phenotype. Journal of Experimental Biology 222:jeb206839. Lague SL, Chua B, Farrell AP, Wang Y, Milsom WK. 2016. Altitude matters: differences in cardiovascular and respiratory responses to hypoxia in bar-headed geese reared at high and low altitudes. Journal of Experimental Biology 219:1974–1984. Laughlin KF. 1978. The Effects of Restricted Gas Exchange on Embryonic Heart Rate. In: Piiper J, editor. Respiratory Function in Birds, Adult and Embryonic. Proceedings in Life Sciences. Springer Berlin Heidelberg. p 298-303. Lenoir J, Bertrand R, Comte L, Bourgeaud L, Hattab T, Murienne J, Grenouillet G. 2020. Species better track climate warming in the oceans than on land. Nature Ecology & Evolution:1–16.

Lenth RV. 2016. Least-Squares Means: The R Package Ismeans. Journal of Statistical Software

Li X, Wu P, Ma L, Huebner C, Sun B, Li S. 2020. Embryonic and post-embryonic responses to high-elevation hypoxia in a low-elevation lizard. Integrative Zoology [Internet]. Available from: https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1111/1749-4877.12441 Liang L, Sun B-J, Ma L, Du W-G. 2015. Oxygen-dependent heat tolerance and developmental plasticity in turtle embryos. J Comp Physiol B 185:257–263. Lu S, Xin Y, Tang X, Yue F, Wang H, Bai Y, Niu Y, Chen Q. 2015. Differences in Hematological Traits between High- and Low-Altitude Lizards (Genus Phrynocephalus). PLOS ONE 10:e0125751. Martinez-Rica JP, Reiné-Viñales A. 1988. Altitudinal distribution of amphibians and reptiles in the Spanish Pyrenees. Pirineos:57-82. McNab BK. 2002. The Physiological Ecology of Vertebrates: A View from Energetics. Cornell University Press. Millet GP, Debevec T. 2020. CrossTalk proposal: Barometric pressure, independent of , is the forgotten parameter in altitude physiology and mountain medicine. The Journal of Physiology 598:893-896. Mitchell TS, Janzen FJ, Warner DA. 2018. Quantifying the effects of embryonic phenotypic plasticity on adult phenotypes in reptiles: A review of current knowledge and major gaps. Journal of Experimental Zoology Part A: Ecological and Integrative Physiology 329:203-214. Mokhov II, Eliseev AV. 2012. Modeling of global climate variations in the 20th–23rd centuries with new RCP scenarios of anthropogenic forcing. Dokl Earth Sc 443:532-536. Monge C, Leon-Velarde F. 1991a. Physiological adaptation to high altitude: oxygen transport in mammals and birds. Physiological Reviews 71:1135–1172. Monge C, Leon-Velarde F. 1991b. Physiological adaptation to high altitude: oxygen transport in mammals and birds. Physiological Reviews 71:1135–1172. Nelson NJ, Thompson MB, Pledger S, Keall SN, Daugherty CH. 2004. Egg mass determines hatchling size, and incubation temperature influences post-hatching growth, of tuatara Sphenodon punctatus. Journal of Zoology 263:77–87. Noble DWA, Stenhouse V, Schwanz LE. 2018. Developmental temperatures and phenotypic plasticity in reptiles: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Biological Reviews 93:72-97. Parmesan C. 2006. Ecological and Evolutionary Responses to Recent Climate Change. Annual

Parmesan C, Yohe G. 2003. A globally coherent fingerprint of climate change impacts across

Review of Ecology, Evolution, and Systematics 37:637–669.

natural systems. Nature 421:37–42.

- Pauchard A, Milbau A, Albihn A, Alexander J, Burgess T, Daehler C, Englund G, Essl F,
 Evengård B, Greenwood GB, Haider S, Lenoir J, McDougall K, Muths E, Nuñez MA,
 Olofsson J, Pellissier L, Rabitsch W, Rew LJ, Robertson M, Sanders N, Kueffer C. 2016.
 Non-native and native organisms moving into high elevation and high latitude
 ecosystems in an era of climate change: new challenges for ecology and
 conservation. Biol Invasions 18:345–353.
 - Pecl GT, Araújo MB, Bell JD, Blanchard J, Bonebrake TC, Chen I-C, Clark TD, Colwell RK, Danielsen F, Evengård B, Falconi L, Ferrier S, Frusher S, Garcia RA, Griffis RB, Hobday AJ, Janion-Scheepers C, Jarzyna MA, Jennings S, Lenoir J, Linnetved HI, Martin VY, McCormack PC, McDonald J, Mitchell NJ, Mustonen T, Pandolfi JM, Pettorelli N, Popova E, Robinson SA, Scheffers BR, Shaw JD, Sorte CJB, Strugnell JM, Sunday JM, Tuanmu M-N, Vergés A, Villanueva C, Wernberg T, Wapstra E, Williams SE. 2017. Biodiversity redistribution under climate change: Impacts on ecosystems and human well-being. Science [Internet] 355. Available from: https://science.sciencemag.org/content/355/6332/eaai9214
- Pellerin F, Cote J, Bestion E, Aguilée R. 2019. Matching habitat choice promotes species persistence under climate change. Oikos 128:221–234.
- Pen I, Uller T, Feldmeyer B, Harts A, While GM, Wapstra E. 2010. Climate-driven population divergence in sex-determining systems. Nature 468:436–438.
- 754 Pottier G. 2016. Les Reptiles des Pyrénées. Muséum national d'Histoire naturelle. Paris.
- Powell FL, Hopkins SR. 2010. Vertebrate life at high altitude. In: Nilsson GE, editor.
 Respiratory Physiology of Vertebrates: Life With and Without Oxygen. Cambridge
 University Press. p 265–299.
- R Development Core Team. 2019. R: A language and environment for statistical computing [Software]. Version 3.6.1. R Foundation for Statistical Computing. Vienna, Austria.
- Refsnider JM, Clifton IT, Vazquez TK. 2019. Developmental plasticity of thermal ecology traits
 in reptiles: Trends, potential benefits, and research needs. Journal of Thermal Biology
 84:74–82.
- Richalet J-P. 2020. CrossTalk opposing view: Barometric pressure, independent of , is not the forgotten parameter in altitude physiology and mountain medicine. The Journal of Physiology 598:897–899.
- Santos X. 2015. Culebra viperina *Natrix maura*. In: Salvador A, Marco A, editors.
 Enciclopedia Virtual de los Vertebrados Españoles. Museo Nacional de Ciencias
 Naturales. Madrid.
- Sartori MR, Abe AS, Crossley DA, Taylor EW. 2017. Rates of oxygen uptake increase
 independently of changes in heart rate in late stages of development and at hatching
 in the green iguana, *Iguana iguana*. Comparative Biochemistry and Physiology Part A:
 Molecular & Integrative Physiology 205:28–34.

- Sartori MR, Taylor EW, Abe AS, Crossley DA. 2015. An appraisal of the use of an infrared
 digital monitoring system for long-term measurement of heart rate in reptilian
 embryos. Comparative Biochemistry and Physiology Part A: Molecular & Integrative
 Physiology 188:17–21.
- Scheffers BR, Meester LD, Bridge TCL, Hoffmann AA, Pandolfi JM, Corlett RT, Butchart SHM,
 Pearce-Kelly P, Kovacs KM, Dudgeon D, Pacifici M, Rondinini C, Foden WB, Martin TG,
 Mora C, Bickford D, Watson JEM. 2016. The broad footprint of climate change from
 genes to biomes to people. Science [Internet] 354. Available from:
 https://science.sciencemag.org/content/354/6313/aaf7671
- Sheridan JA, Bickford D. 2011. Shrinking body size as an ecological response to climate change. Nature Climate Change 1:401–406.
- Shine R. 1999. Egg-laying reptiles in cold climates: determinants and consequences of nest
 temperatures in montane lizards. Journal of Evolutionary Biology 12:918–926.
- Shine R. 2004. Adaptive consequences of developmental plasticity. In: Deeming DC, editor.
 Reptilian incubation: environment, evolution and behaviour. Nottingham University
 Press. Nottingham. p 187–210. Available from:
 https://www.cabdirect.org/cabdirect/abstract/20053115521
- Shine R, Shetty S. 2001. Moving in two worlds: aquatic and terrestrial locomotion in sea
 snakes (*Laticauda colubrina, Laticaudidae*). Journal of Evolutionary Biology 14:338–
 346.
- Sinervo B, Méndez-de-la-Cruz F, Miles DB, Heulin B, Bastiaans E, Cruz MV-S, Lara-Resendiz R,
 Martínez-Méndez N, Calderón-Espinosa ML, Meza-Lázaro RN, Gadsden H, Avila LJ,
 Morando M, Riva IJD Ia, Sepulveda PV, Rocha CFD, Ibargüengoytía N, Puntriano CA,
 Massot M, Lepetz V, Oksanen TA, Chapple DG, Bauer AM, Branch WR, Clobert J, Sites
 JW. 2010. Erosion of Lizard Diversity by Climate Change and Altered Thermal Niches.
 Science 328:894–899.
- Sinervo B, Miles DB, Wu Y, Méndez-De La Cruz FR, Kirchhof S, Qi Y. 2018. Climate change, thermal niches, extinction risk and maternal-effect rescue of toad-headed lizards, *Phrynocephalus*, in thermal extremes of the Arabian Peninsula to the Qinghai—Tibetan Plateau. Integrative Zoology 13:450–470.
 - Smith C, Telemeco RS, Angilletta MJ, VandenBrooks JM. 2015. Oxygen supply limits the heat tolerance of lizard embryos. Biology Letters 11:20150113.
- Souchet J, Gangloff EJ, Micheli G, Bossu C, Trochet A, Bertrand R, Clobert J, Calvez O,
 Martinez-Silvestre A, Darnet E, Chevalier HL, Guillaume O, Mossoll-Torres M, Barthe
 L, Pottier G, Philippe H, Aubret F. 2020. High-elevation hypoxia impacts perinatal
 physiology and performance in a potential montane colonizer. Integrative Zoology:
 https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1111/1749-4877.12468
 - Storz JF, Dubach JM, Harrison R. 2004. Natural selection drives altitudinal divergence at the albumin locus in deer mice, peromyscus maniculatus. Evolution 58:1342–1352.

104:8352-8356.

812 813	Storz JF, Scott GR, Cheviron ZA. 2010. Phenotypic plasticity and genetic adaptation to high-altitude hypoxia in vertebrates. Journal of Experimental Biology 213:4125–4136.
814 815	Stuart-Smith RD, Edgar GJ, Barrett NS, Kininmonth SJ, Bates AE. 2015. Thermal biases and vulnerability to warming in the world's marine fauna. Nature 528:88–92.
816 817	Sun B-J, Li T, Gao J, Ma L, Du W-G. 2015. High incubation temperatures enhance mitochondrial energy metabolism in reptile embryos. Scientific Reports 5:8861.
818 819 820 821 822	Taylor EN, Diele-Viegas LM, Gangloff EJ, Hall JM, Halpern B, Massey MD, Rödder D, Rollinson N, Spears S, Sun B, Telemeco RS. 2020. The thermal ecology and physiology of reptiles and amphibians: A user's guide. Journal of Experimental Zoology Part A: Ecological and Integrative Physiology [Internet] n/a. Available from: https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1002/jez.2396
823	Vacher J-P, Geniez M. 2010. Les Reptiles de France, Belgique, Luxembourg et Suisse. Biotope.
824 825	Vimmerstedt JC, Padilla Pérez DJ, Angilletta MJ, VandenBrooks JM. 2019. Oxygen supply limits the heat tolerance of avian embryos. Biology Letters 15:20190566.
826 827	Vitt LJ, Caldwell JP. 2013. Herpetology: An Introductory Biology of Amphibians and Reptiles. Academic Press.
828 829 830	Walther G-R, Post E, Convey P, Menzel A, Parmesan C, Beebee TJC, Fromentin J-M, Hoegh-Guldberg O, Bairlein F. 2002. Ecological responses to recent climate change. Nature 416:389–395.
831 832 833	Warner DA. 2014. Fitness Consequences of Maternal and Embryonic Responses to Environmental Variation: Using Reptiles as Models for Studies of Developmental Plasticity. Integr Comp Biol 54:757–773.
834 835 836	Watkins TB, Vraspir J. 2006. Both Incubation Temperature and Posthatching Temperature Affect Swimming Performance and Morphology of Wood Frog Tadpoles (<i>Rana sylvatica</i>). Physiological and Biochemical Zoology 79:140–149.
837 838 839 840	Wearing OH, Eme J, Rhen T, Crossley DA. 2015. Phenotypic plasticity in the common snapping turtle (<i>Chelydra serpentina</i>): long-term physiological effects of chronic hypoxia during embryonic development. American Journal of Physiology-Regulatory, Integrative and Comparative Physiology 310:R176–R184.
841	West-Eberhard MJ. 2003. Developmental Plasticity and Evolution. Oxford University Press.
842 843	Whitfield SM, Bell KE, Philippi T, Sasa M, Bolaños F, Chaves G, Savage JM, Donnelly MA. 2007. Amphibian and Reptile Declines over 35 Years at La Selva, Costa Rica.

Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America

Winne CT, Willson JD, Andrews KM. 2006. Efficacy of marking snakes with disposable medical cautery units. Herpetol Rev 37:52–54.

Zellweger F, Frenne PD, Lenoir J, Vangansbeke P, Verheyen K, Bernhardt-Römermann M, Baeten L, Hédl R, Berki I, Brunet J, Calster HV, Chudomelová M, Decocq G, Dirnböck T, Durak T, Heinken T, Jaroszewicz B, Kopecký M, Máliš F, Macek M, Malicki M, Naaf T, Nagel TA, Ortmann-Ajkai A, Petřík P, Pielech R, Reczyńska K, Schmidt W, Standovár T, Świerkosz K, Teleki B, Vild O, Wulf M, Coomes D. 2020. Forest microclimate dynamics drive plant responses to warming. Science 368:772–775.



Table 1: Results of linear mixed-effect model testing for the effects of incubation temperature, incubation elevation, age at measurement (days post-oviposition), and their interaction on embryo developmental parameters in the snake *Natrix maura* (Test 1 Figure 2). The four incubation treatments are extreme high elevation at 24°C (EHEC; N = 51), extreme high elevation at 32°C (EHEH; N = 51), low elevation at 24°C (LEC; N = 51), and low elevation at 32°C (LEH; N = 49). Significant factors shown in bold with two (P < 0.01) or three (P < 0.001) asterisks.

	Egg mass	Embryo heart rates		
Temperature	F _{1,426.8} = 2602.33; P < 0.001***	F _{1,1142.3} = 635.04; P < 0.001***		
Elevation	F _{1,283.7} = 8.02; P = 0.003 **	F _{1,1144.2} = 13.22; P < 0.001***		
Day	F _{9,1130.0} = 30.92; P < 0.001***	F _{9,1179.6} = 11.82; P < 0.001***		
Temperature x Elevation	F _{1,426.1} = 22.57;P = 0.500	F _{1,1143.0} = 9.61; P = 0.002 **		
Temperature x Day	F _{4,1138.8} = 97.60; P < 0.001***	F _{4,1194.3} = 7.21; P = 0.007 **		
Elevation x Day	F _{9,1139.8} = 5.66; P < 0.001***	F _{9,1191.2} = 2.38;P = 0.123		
Temperature x Elevation x Day	F _{4,1138.5} = 5.75; P < 0.001***	F _{4,1191.8} = 0.24;P = 0.626		

Table 2: Results of linear mixed-effect model testing for the effect of incubation temperature, incubation elevation, and their interaction on the juvenile traits at hatching in the snake *Natrix maura* (Test 2, Figure 3). The four incubation treatments are low elevation at 24°C (LEC; N = 46), low elevation at 32°C (LEH; N = 45), extreme high elevation at 24°C (EHEC; N = 48), and extreme high elevation at 32°C (EHEH; N = 38). Least-squares means \pm SE are given. Significant factors shown in bold with one (P < 0.05) two (P < 0.01) or three (P < 0.001) asterisks.

	EHEC	ЕНЕН	LEC	LEH	Temperature effect	Elevation effect	Temperature x Elevation effect
	LSM ± SE	LSM± SE	LSM± SE	LSM± SE	F (dfn, dfd) P-value	F (dfn, dfd) P-value	F (dfn, dfd) P-value
Hatching success	-	-	(-)	-	4.04 (1, 184.4) P = 0.046 *	2.43 (1, 185.2) P = 0.120	5.72 (1, 185.2) P = 0.018 *
Sex	-	-	_		0.09 (1, 163.7) P = 0.764	2.56 (1, 165.0) P = 0.112	0.22 (1, 166.9) P = 0.643
Incubation duration (days)	65.59 ± 0.42	36.59 ± 0.44	67.85 ± 0.43	33.93 ± 0.43	24415.32 (1, 158.4) P < 0.001***	0.99 (1, 158.8) P = 0.321	145.83 (1, 159.1) P < 0.001***
Total number of embryo heart beats	7650391 ±105481	6954688 ±111257	7689242 ±105997	7036319 ±106591	108.49 (1, 158.8) P < 0.001***	0.86 (1, 159.4) P = 0.355	0.11 (1, 159.9) P = 0.744
Body mass (g) at hatching	2.87 ± 0.12	2.56 ± 0. 12	3.00 ± 0. 12	2.97 ± 0. 12	11.87 (1, 158.7) P < 0.001***	24.39 (1, 158.7) P < 0.001***	7.20 (1, 158.9) P = 0.008 **
Body length (cm) at hatching	15.30 ± 0.20	14.09 ± 0.21	15.37 ± 0. 20	14.58 ± 0.20	67.12 (1, 158.8) P < 0.001***	5.27 (1, 159.3) P = 0.023	2.83 (1, 159.8) P = 0.094
Body condition at hatching	-0.029 ± 0.010	-0.007 ± 0.010	-0.015 ± 0.010	0.031 ± 0.010	30.95 (1, 158.8) P < 0.001***	18.47 (1, 159.3) P < 0.001***	3.69 (1, 159.9) P = 0.056
Residual egg yolk (g)	0.655 ± 0.055	0.431 ± 0.061	0.815 ± 0.056	0.456 ± 0.56	34.61 (1, 60.8) P < 0.001***	3.46 (1, 162.0) P = 0.065	1.81 (1, 163.4) P = 0.180

Table 3: Results of linear mixed-effect model testing for the effect of incubation temperature, incubation elevation, age at measurement (days post-hatching), test elevation, and their interaction on the maximum swimming performance in juveniles in the snake *Natrix maura* (Tests 3 & 4, Figure 4 & 5). Sex and total body length (TL) were included as covariates. The four incubation treatments are extreme high elevation at 24°C (EHEC; N = 41), extreme high elevation at 32°C (EHEH; N = 37), low elevation at 24°C (LEC; N = 41), and low elevation at 32°C (LEH; N = 41). Significant factors shown in bold with one (P < 0.05) two (P < 0.01) or three (P < 0.001) asterisks.

O,	F (dfn, dfd)	P-value
Sex	0.70 (1,145.5)	P = 0.401
Total body length (cm)	73.81 (1,169.2)	P < 0.001 ***
Temperature	49.80 (1,156.4)	P < 0.001 ***
Elevation	0.45 (1,165.5)	P = 0.501
Day	12.62 (3,500.6)	P < 0.001 ***
Location of test	0.02 (1,442.8)	P = 0.964
Temperature x Elevation	0.002 (1,163.5)	P = 0.962
Temperature x Day	4.84 (3,506.1)	P = 0.003 **
Temperature x Location of test	0.01 (1,442.8)	P = 0.909
Elevation x Day	1.14 (3,487.8)	P = 0.331
Elevation x Location of test	9.80 (1,440.7)	P = 0.002 **
Day x Location of test	13.85 (2,460.9)	P < 0.001 ***
Temperature x Elevation x Day effect	0.18 (3,487.1)	P = 0.913
Temperature x Elevation x Location of test	0.04 (1,446.9)	P = 0.839
Temperature x Day x Location of test	3.25 (2,457.5)	P = 0.040 *
Elevation x Day x Location of test	0.04 (2,456.9)	P = 0.961
Temperature x Elevation x Day x Location of test	0.79 (2,456.6)	P = 0.456

Figure legends

2 Figure 1

Experimental design. Eggs were collected from gravid females (represented by different colors) sampled from low-elevation population of the snake Natrix maura in the foothills of the Pyrenees, France (412 m to 715 m ASL). Within 24hr of oviposition clutches were evenly split into four groups of eggs with similar average egg mass. For each clutch two quarterclutches were transplanted to the extreme high elevation site (2877 m ASL, Observatoire Midi-Pyrénées du Pic du Midi de Bigorre), with one quarter-clutch incubated at 24°C and the other at 32°C. The two remaining quarter-clutches were incubated at 24°C and at 32°Cat the low-elevation site (436 m ASL, Station d'Ecologie Théorique et Expérimentale du Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique). Egg mass and embryo heart rate were measured throughout incubation (Test 1). At hatching a number of phenotypic traits were measured in juveniles (Test 2). All hatchlings were first tested for swimming performance in the environment their eggs were incubated (Test 3). Each treatment was then again split in half with half of each treatment group translocated to the alternative environment for additional swimming measures (Test 4). Snake color represents incubation temperature treatment (cool or warm) and snake pattern represents incubation elevation treatment (low or extreme high elevation).

Figure 2

Egg mass (A) and embryo heart rate (B) measured at the same temperature as the incubation temperature through incubation duration in the snake *Natrix maura* at extreme high elevation at 24°C (EHEC; N = 51; blue triangle), extreme high elevation at 32°C (EHEH; N = 51; red triangle), low elevation at 24°C (LEC; N = 51; blue circle), and low elevation at 32°C

(LEH; N = 49;red circle). Least-squares means ± SE estimated by linear mixed-effect models
 are plotted.

Figure 3

Hatching phenotypes in juveniles of the snake *Natrix maura:* incubation duration (A), total number of embryo heartbeats (B), body mass (C), body size (D), body condition (E), and residual egg yolk (F) for each incubation treatment: low elevation at 24°C (LEC; N = 46; blue circle), extreme high elevation at 24°C (EHEC; N = 48; blue triangle), low elevation at 32°C (LEH; N = 45; red circle), and extreme high elevation at 32°C (EHEH; N = 38; red triangle). Least-squares means \pm SE estimated by linear mixed-effect models are plotted. Significant differences between least-squares means are shown with one (P < 0.05) or three (P < 0.001) asterisks.

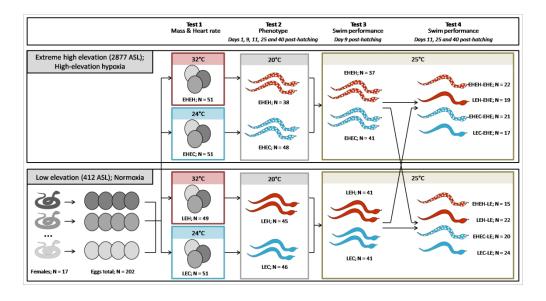
Figure 4

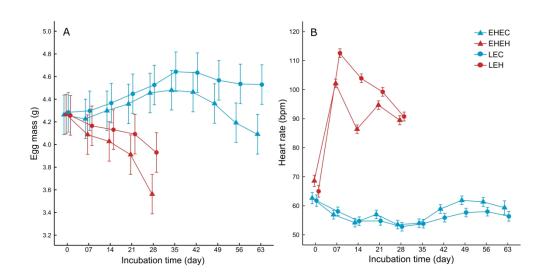
Maximum swimming speed as a function of body length in juveniles of the snake *Natrix* maura incubated in four treatments: low elevation at 24°C (LEC; N = 41; blue circle), extreme high elevation at 24°C (EHEC; N = 41; blue triangle), low elevation at 32°C (LEH; N = 41; red circle), and extreme high elevation at 32°C (EHEH; N = 37; red triangle). Raw data for each individual are plotted with regression lines and 95% CI.

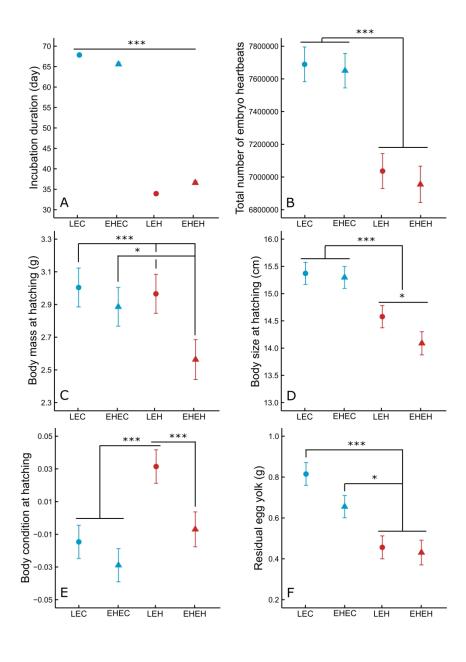
Figure 5

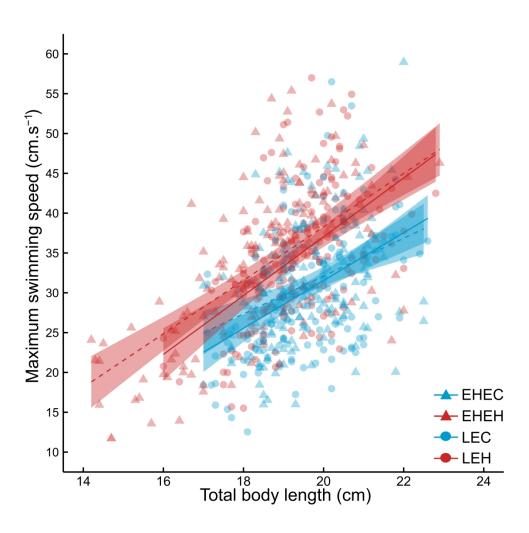
Maximum swimming speed in juveniles of the snake *Natrix maura* for each incubation treatment. First at 9 days post-hatching (A) at elevation of incubation (low elevation or extreme high elevation) for all juveniles of the four incubation treatments: low elevation at

24°C (LEC; N = 41; blue circle) extreme high elevation at 24°C (EHEC; N = 41; blue triangle), low elevation at 32°C (LEH; N = 41; red circle), and extreme high elevation at 32°C (EHEH; N = 37; red triangle). Second, at 11 days post-hatching (B) at the same elevation as incubation for half of the juveniles: low elevation at 24°C (LEC-LE; N = 24; blue circle), extreme high elevation at 24°C (EHEC-EHE; N = 21; blue triangle), low elevation at 32°C (LEH-LE; N = 22; red circle), and extreme high elevation at 32°C (EHEH-EHE; N = 22; red triangle). Also at 11 days post-hatching (B) at opposite elevation as incubation for the other half of the juveniles: low elevation at 24°C (LEC-EHE; N = 17; blue triangle), extreme high elevation at 24°C (EHEC-LE; N = 20; blue circle), low elevation at 32°C (LEH-EHE; N = 19; red triangle), and extreme high elevation at 32°C (EHEH-LE; N = 15; red circle). Least-squares means ± SE estimated by linear mixed-effect models are plotted. Significant differences between least-squares means are shown with one (P < 0.05) or three (P < 0.001) asterisks. Policy.









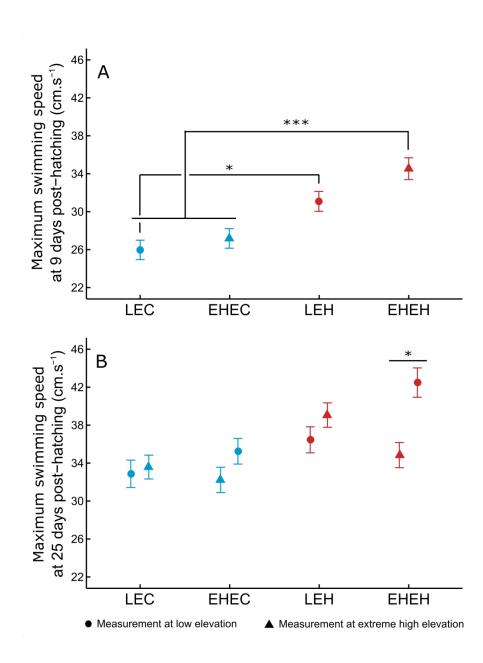


Table S1: Results of the pairwise comparison of least-squares means and adjusted p-values for multiple comparisons with the Tukey method from the linear mixed-effect model testing for the effect of incubation temperature, incubation elevation, age at measurement (day post hatching), and their interaction on embryo traits in the snake *Natrix maura*. The four incubation treatments are extreme high elevation at 24°C (EHEC; N = 51), extreme high elevation at 32°C (EHEH; N = 51), low elevation at 24°C (LEC; N = 51), and low elevation at 32°C (LEH; N = 49). Significant differences between least-squares means shown in bold with one (P < 0.05) two (P < 0.01) or three (P < 0.001) asterisks.

*							
	Egg mass			Embryo heart rate			
	Estimate	SE	P-value	Estimate	SE	P-value	
EHEC DO - EHEH DO	-0.005	0.090	1.000	-5.941	2.650	0.971	
EHEC DO - LEC DO	-0.022	0.090	1.000	0.851	2.676	1.000	
EHEC D0 - LEH D0	0.005	0.091	1.000	-2.348	2.703	1.000	
EHEH DO - LEC DO	-0.016	0.090	1.000	6.792	2.675	0.868	
EHEH DO - LEH DO	0.010	0.091	1.000	3.593	2.702	1.000	
LEC DO - LEH DO	0.027	0.091	1.000	-3.199	2.726	1.000	
EHEC DO - EHEC D7	0.037	0.040	1.000	5.708	2.352	0.920	
EHEH DO - EHEH D7	0.180	0.040	0.005 **	-33.564	2.343	< 0.001 ***	
LEC D0 - LEC D7	-0.013	0.041	1.000	3.706	2.372	1.000	
LEH DO - LEH D7	0.092	0.041	0.971	-47.589	2.411	< 0.001 ***	
EHEC D7 - EHEH D7	0.138	0.090	1.000	-45.213	1.976	< 0.001 ***	
EHEC D7 - LEC D7	-0.072	0.091	1.000	-1.150	1.976	1.000	
EHEC D7 - LEH D7	0.061	0.091	1.000	-55.645	1.986	< 0.001 ***	
EHEH D7 - LEC D7	-0.210	0.090	0.949	44.063	1.965	< 0.001 ***	
EHEH D7 - LEH D7	-0.078	0.091	1.000	-10.432	1.975	< 0.001 ***	
LEC D7 - LEH D7	0.132	0.091	1.000	-54.494	1.975	< 0.001 ***	
EHEC D7 - EHEC D14	-0.072	0.040	0.999	2.747	1.975	1.000	
EHEH D7 - EHEH D14	0.060	0.041	1.000	15.755	1.964	< 0.001 ***	
LEC D7 - LEC D14	-0.068	0.041	1.000	3.367	1.964	1.000	
LEH D7 - LEH D14	0.034	0.041	1.000	8.671	1.995	0.009 **	
EHEC D14 - EHEH D14	0.271	0.090	0.528	-32.205	1.965	< 0.001 ***	
EHEC D14 - LEC D14	-0.068	0.091	1.000	-0.530	1.966	1.000	
EHEC D14 - LEH D14	0.167	0.091	0.999	-49.721	1.986	< 0.001 ***	
EHEH D14 - LEC D14	-0.338	0.091	0.095	31.675	1.965	< 0.001 ***	
EHEH D14 - LEH D14	-0.103	0.091	1.000	-17.516	1.986	< 0.001 ***	

LEC D14 - LEH D14	0.235	0.091	0.847	-49.191	1.986	< 0.001 ***
EHEC D14 - EHEC D21	-0.060	0.041	1.000	-2.838	1.955	1.000
EHEH D14 - EHEH D21	0.117	0.041	0.634	-8.294	1.955	0.014 *
LEC D14 - LEC D21	-0.082	0.041	0.996	-0.082	1.964	1.000
LEH D14 - LEH D21	0.039	0.042	1.000	4.660	2.006	0.953
EHEC D21 - EHEH D21	0.447	0.090	0.001 ***	-37.661	1.946	< 0.001 ***
EHEC D21 - LEC D21	-0.090	0.091	1.000	2.226	1.956	1.000
EHEC D21 - LEH D21	0.266	0.091	0.597	-42.224	1.976	< 0.001 ***
EHEH D21 - LEC D21	-0.537	0.091	< 0.001 ***	39.887	1.956	< 0.001 ***
EHEH D21 - LEH D21	-0.181	0.091	0.995	-4.563	1.977	0.957
LEC D21 - LEH D21	0.356	0.091	0.059	-44.450	1.986	< 0.001 ***
EHEC D21 - EHEC D28	-0.097	0.041	0.937	3.511	1.955	0.999
EHEH D21 - EHEH D28	0.349	0.041	< 0.001 ***	5.196	2.024	0.852
LEC D21 - LEC D28	-0.078	0.041	0.998	1.992	1.975	1.000
LEH D21 - LEH D28	0.163	0.042	0.047 *	8.500	2.028	0.017 *
EHEC D28 - EHEH D28	0.893	0.090	< 0.001 ***	-35.976	2.034	< 0.001 ***
EHEC D28 - LEC D28	-0.071	0.091	1.000	0.707	1.977	1.000
EHEC D28 - LEH D28	0.525	0.091	< 0.001 ***	-37.235	2.009	< 0.001 ***
EHEH D28 - LEC D28	-0.964	0.091	< 0.001 ***	36.683	2.045	< 0.001 ***
EHEH D28 - LEH D28	-0.368	0.091	0.037 *	-1.259	2.076	1.000
LEC D28 - LEH D28	0.596	0.091	< 0.001 ***	-37.942	2.019	< 0.001 ***
EHEC D28 - EHEC D35	-0.025	0.041	1.000	-0.490	1.964	1.000
LEC D28 - LEC D35	-0.117	0.041	0.651	36.683	2.045	< 0.001 ***
EHEC D35 - LEC D35	-0.163	0.091	0.999	-1.259	2.076	1.000
EHEC D35 - EHEC D42	0.016	0.041	1.000	-37.942	2.019	< 0.001 ***
LEC D35 - LEC D42	0.008	0.041	1.000	-4.892	1.975	0.898
EHEC D42 - LEC D42	-0.171	0.091	0.998	2.991	1.986	1.000
EHEC D42 - EHEC D49	0.101	0.041	0.903	-2.988	1.996	1.000
LEC D42 - LEC D49	0.068	0.041	1.000	-1.792	1.975	1.000
EHEC D49 - LEC D49	-0.205	0.091	0.966	4.187	1.987	0.989
EHEC D49 - EHEC D56	0.170	0.041	0.022 *	0.534	2.054	1.000
LEC D49 - LEC D56	0.032	0.041	1.000	-0.299	1.975	1.000
EHEC D56 - LEC D56	-0.342	0.091	0.086	3.355	2.046	1.000
EHEC D56 - EHEC D63	0.101	0.046	0.977	1.994	2.741	1.000
LEC D56 - LEC D63	0.006	0.043	1.000	1.614	2.130	1.000
EHEC D63 - LEC D63	-0.438	0.094	0.003 **	2.974	2.805	1.000

Table S2: Results of the pairwise comparison of least-squares means and adjusted p-values for multiple comparisons with the Tukey method from the linear mixed-effect model testing for the effect of incubation temperature, incubation elevation, and their interaction on the juvenile traits in the snake *Natrix maura*. The four incubation treatments are low elevation at 24°C (LEC), low elevation at 32°C (LEH), extreme high elevation at 24°C (EHEC), and extreme high elevation at 32°C (EHEH). Significant differences between least-squares means shown in bold with one (P < 0.05) or three (P < 0.001) asterisks.

	Hatching	Sex	Incubation	Total number of	Body mass at	Body size at	Body condition at	Residual egg
	success	Sex	duration (day)	heart beats	hatching (g)	hatching (cm)	hatching	yolk (g)
EHEC - EHEH	0.194 ± 0.062	0.058 ± 0.011	29.01 ± 0.29	695703 ± 94019	0.323 ± 0.076	1.21 ± 0.18	-0.022 ± 0.009	0.225 ± 0.072
	P = 0.011 *	P = 0.951	P < 0.001 ***	P < 0.001 ***	P = 0.011 *	P < 0.001 ***	P = 0.064	P = 0.011 *
EHEC - LEC	0.037 ± 0.062	-0.086 ± 0.010	-2.25 ± 0.28	-38851 ± 88811	-0.118 ± 0.072	-0.07 ± 0.17	-0.015 ± 0.008	-0.160 ± 0.068
	P = 0.935	P = 0.840	P < 0.001 ***	P = 0.972	P = 0.359	P = 0.971	P = 0.311	P = 0.091
EHEC - LEH	0.020 ± 0.063	-0.099 ± 0.010	31.66 ± 0.28	614072 ± 88776	-0.079 ± 0.072	0.72 ± 0.17	-0.061 ± 0.008	0.199 ± 0.068
	P = 0.989	P = 0.780	P < 0.001 ***	P < 0.001 ***	P = 0.687	P < 0.001 ***	P < 0.001 ***	P = 0.020 *
EHEH - LEC	-0.157 ± 0.062	-0.144 ± 0.011	-31.26 ± 0.29	-734554 ± 94583	-0.441 ± 0.077	-1.28 ± 0.18	0.008 ± 0.009	-0.384 ± 0.072
	P = 0.058	P = 0.559	P < 0.001 ***	P < 0.001 ***	P < 0.001 ***	P < 0.001 ***	P = 0.828	P < 0.001 ***
EHEH - LEH	-0.174 ± 0.063	-0.157 ± 0.011	2.66 ± 0.30	-81631 ± 95322	-0.402 ± 0.077	-0.49 ± 0.18	-0.038 ± 0.009	-0.025 ± 0.073
	P = 0.030 *	P = 0.493	P < 0.001 ***	P = 0.827	P < 0.001 ***	P = 0.036 *	P < 0.001 ***	P = 0.985
LEC - LEH	-0.017 ± 0.063	-0.013 ± 0.011	33.91 ± 0.28	652923 ± 89836	0.039 ± 0.073	0.79 ± 0.17	0.046 ± 0.008	0.359 ± 0.069
	P = 0.993	P = 0.999	P < 0.001 ***	P < 0.001 ***	P = 0.951	P < 0.001 ***	P < 0.001 ***	P < 0.001 ***

Table S3: Results of the pairwise comparison of least-squares means and adjusted p-values for multiple comparisons with the Tukey method from the linear mixed-effect model testing for the effect of incubation temperature, incubation elevation, age at measurement (days post-hatching), test location, and their interaction on the maximum swimming performance in juveniles of the snake *Natrix maura*. The four incubation treatments are extreme high elevation at 24°C (EHEC; N = 41), extreme high elevation at 32°C (EHEH; N = 37), low elevation at 24°C (LEC; N = 41), and low elevation at 32°C (LEH; N = 41). Significant factors shown in bold with one (P < 0.05) or three (P < 0.001) asterisks.

O _A	Estimate	SE	P-value
EHEC D9 - EHEH D9	-7.358	1.386	< 0.001 ***
EHEC D9 - LEC D9	1.211	1.290	1.000
EHEC D9 - LEH D9	-3.905	1.305	0.423
EHEH D9 - LEC D9	8.568	1.396	< 0.001 ***
EHEH D9 - LEH D9	3.453	1.339	0.752
LEC D9 - LEH D9	-5.115	1.308	0.035 *
EHEC D9 - EHEC-EHE D11	3.416	1.330	0.761
EHEC D9 - EHEC-LE D11	1.872	1.356	1.000
EHEH D9 - EHEH-EHE D11	3.237	1.320	0.836
EHEH D9 - EHEH-LE D11	4.531	1.541	0.463
LEC D9 - LEC-LE D11	2.853	1.262	0.925
LEC D9 - LEC-EHE D11	-0.586	1.450	1.000
LEH D9 - LEH-LE D11	1.436	1.307	1.000
LEH D9 - LEH-EHE D11	-2.419	1.397	0.998
EHEC-EHE D11 - EHEC-LE D11	-1.543	1.710	1.000
EHEH-EHE D11 - EHEC-LE D11	5.993	1.785	0.187
LEC-EHE D11 - LEC-LE D11	3.439	1.733	0.985
LEH-EHE D11 - LEH-LE D11	3.855	1.718	0.932
EHEC-EHE D11 - EHEC-EHE D25	-8.464	1.450	< 0.001 ***
EHEC-LE D11 - EHEC-LE D25	-9.940	1.489	< 0.001 ***
EHEH-EHE D11 - EHEH-EHE D25	-3.538	1.420	0.811
EHEH-LE D11 - EHEH-LE D25	-12.488	1.733	< 0.001 ***
LEC-EHE D11 - LEC-EHE D25	-6.313	1.610	0.034 *
LEC-LE D11 - LEC-LE D25	-10.467	1.357	< 0.001 ***
LEH-EHE D11 - LEH-EHE D25	-2.962	1.532	0.990

LEH-LE D11 - LEH-LE D25	-9.403	1.443	< 0.001 ***
EHEC-EHE D25 - EHEC-LE D25	-3.020	1.709	0.998
EHEH-EHE D25 - EHEH-LE D25	-7.656	1.831	0.013 *
LEC-EHE D25 - LEC-LE D25	-0.714	1.734	1.000
LEH-EHE D25 - LEH-LE D25	-2.586	1.714	1.000
EHEC-EHE D25 - EHEC-EHE D40	-2.137	1.448	1.000
EHEC-LE D25 - EHEC-LE D40	-0.724	1.485	1.000
EHEH-EHE D25 - EHEH-EHE D40	-2.375	1.417	0.999
EHEH-LE D25 - EHEH-LE D40	4.279	1.719	0.813
LEC-EHE D25 - LEC-EHE D40	-2.154	1.609	1.000
LEC-LE D25 - LEC-LE D40	0.607	1.355	1.000
LEH-EHE D25 - LEH-EHE D40	-2.342	1.525	1.000
LEH-LE D25 - LEH-LE D40	4.080	1.419	0.517
EHEC-EHE D40 - EHEC-LE D40	-1.607	1.709	1.000
EHEH-EHE D40 - EHEH-LE D40	-1.002	1.835	1.000
LEC-EHE D40 - LEC-LE D40	2.046	1.735	1.000
LEH-EHE D40 - LEH-LE D40	3.836	1.714	0.934

Table S4: Residual variance estimates from linear and generalized linear mixed models. Traits were measured in embryos and in juveniles of the snake *Natrix maura*. The significance of model fit improved by inclusion of clutch as a random effect is indicated by one (P < 0.05) two (P < 0.01) or three (P < 0.001) asterisks. See text for model details.

	Residual	Individual	Clutch				
	variance	variance	variance	Proportion of residual variance	χ²	Df	P-value
Egg mass	0.041	0.165	0.418	0.67	197.48	1	< 0.001 ***
Embryo heart rate	94.550	0.000	3.765	0.038	13.50	1	0.999
Hatching success	0.252	7	0.000	~ 0	4.23	1	0.040 *
Sex	0.097		0.007	0.067	2.27e-13	1	> 0.99
Incubation duration	1.754	-	2.252	0.56	104.20	1	< 0.001 ***
Total number of heart beats	1.815 x10 ¹¹	-	1.137 x10 ¹¹	0.39	51.59	1	< 0.001 ***
Residual egg yolk	0.107	-	0.011	0.093	5.95	1	0.015 *
Body mass at hatching	0.119	-	0.182	0.60	120.86	1	< 0.001 ***
Body size at hatching	0.646	-	0.426	0.40	53.71	1	< 0.001 ***
Body condition at hatching	0.002	-	0.001	0.33	59.78	1	< 0.001 ***
Swimming speed	22.010	11.697	3.186	0.086	9.72	1	0.002 **