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Impacts of temperature on O₂ consumption of the Pyrenean brook newt (*Calotriton asper*) from populations along an elevational gradient

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9 Abstract

Global warming impacts biodiversity worldwide, leading to species' adaptation, migration, or 10 11 extinction. The population's persistence depends on the maintenance of essential activities, which is 12 notably driven by phenotypic adaptation to local environments. Metabolic rate - that increases with temperature in ectotherms - is a key physiological proxy for the energy available to fuel individuals' 13 14 activities. Cold-adapted ectotherms can exhibit a higher resting metabolism than warm-adapted ones 15 to maintain functionality at higher elevations or latitudes, known as the metabolic cold-adaptation 16 hypothesis. How climate change will affect metabolism in species inhabiting contrasting climates (cold or warm) is still a debate. Therefore, it is of high interest to assess the pace of metabolic 17 responses to global warming among populations adapted to highly different baseline climatic 18 19 conditions. Here, we conducted a physiological experiment in the endemic Pyrenean brook newt (Calotriton asper). We measured a proxy of standard metabolic rate (SMR) along a temperature 20 21 gradient in individuals sampled among 6 populations located from 550 to 2189 m a.s.l. We demonstrated that SMR increased with temperature, but significantly diverged depending on 22

23	populations' origins. The baseline and the slope of the relationship between SMR and temperature
24	were both higher for high-elevation populations than for low-elevation populations. We discussed the
25	stronger metabolic response observed in high-elevation populations suggesting a drop of performance
26	in essential life activities for these individuals under current climate change. With the increase of
27	metabolism as the climate warms, the metabolic-cold adaptation strategy selected in the past could
28	compromise the sustainability of cold-adapted populations if short-term evolutionary responses do not
29	allow to offset this evolutionary legacy.
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31	
32	Keywords
33	Metabolic rate, temperature, elevation, ectotherms

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35 Introduction

36 All organisms process energy from their environment through their metabolism to maintain 37 functionality, develop, grow, and reproduce (Brown et al. 2004). The factors which explain variation in this metabolic rate are thus central to understanding ecological interactions across levels of 38 biological organization. For example, both long-term evolutionary forces and immediate environment 39 40 can shape energy exchange rates, with important consequences for individuals and populations (Iles 2014; Schulte 2015). The "Standard Metabolic Rate" (SMR) is a particularly important physiological 41 trait to consider because it indicates the minimum energy cost necessary to sustain life in an organism 42 (Careau, Killen, and Metcalfe 2014). This measure of energy requirement for physiological 43 44 maintenance is subject to trade-offs and influences the energy available for locomotion (i.e., escape, foraging behavior), growth, or reproduction (Clarke 1993). Also, SMR can vary according to several 45 46 biotic characteristics such as size, age, sex, or ecological niches (Brown et al. 2004). SMR is 47 quantified as the O₂ consumption of resting and unfed individuals, at a completed growth stage and 48 during a non-reproductive period (Hulbert and Else 2004). Under conditions of limited energy 49 availability, high SMR can reduce the energy available for non-maintenance functions. In other 50 contexts, such as when energy input is not limited, high SMR can suggest high energy turnover for all 51 vital activities (Kooijman 2000). Moreover, ectothermic animals adapted to cold environments (such 52 as at high-elevation or latitude) may be characterized by higher SMR at a given temperature as a 53 physiological adaptation to cold climates. This phenomenon, known as the metabolic cold adaptation 54 (MCA) hypothesis, suggests that having a higher metabolic rate in cold environments may be 55 advantageous for ectotherms by allowing them to be active at lower temperatures and thus compensate 56 for shorter daily or seasonal warm periods (Clergue Gazeau 1983; Gaston et al. 2009). Support for this hypothesis has been demonstrated in arthropods (Terblanche et al. 2009), amphibians (Kreiman et al. 57 2019), and reptiles (Dupoué, Brischoux, and Lourdais 2017), though these patterns are not universal 58 (Lardies, Catalán, and Bozinovic 2004; Lardies, Bacigalupe, and Bozinovic 2004). 59

Temperature is a major driver of variation for most biological processes, from biochemical
reactions at the cell level to the fitness of organisms (Kingsolver 2009). Warmer temperatures can

result in (i) earlier phenology of organisms that can lead to an imbalance in interspecific interactions 62 (Kharouba et al. 2018), (ii) a modification of population's dynamic with a biased sex ratio for some 63 64 reptile species (Thompson et al. 2018), (iii) a change in the spatial distribution of organisms with poleward and/or upward shifts mainly (Lenoir et al. 2020) leading community reshuffling with 65 uncertain sustainability due to novel species interactions (Williams and Jackson 2007; Gibson-66 Reinemer, Sheldon, and Rahel 2015), and (iv) ultimately local extirpations when organisms are unable 67 to cope with rapid climate change (Whitfield et al. 2007; Bodensteiner et al. 2021). This is especially 68 true in ectotherms in which most physiological functions are directly influenced by temperature 69 (Angilletta 2009). As described by a thermal reaction norm, metabolism increases (ramping phase) 70 71 with temperature until it reaches a pre-mortal plateau and then drops (mortal fall) as critical limits are 72 approached (Lighton and Turner 2004; Taylor et al. 2020). The slope and shape of these thermal reaction norms depend upon species or populations (Evans 1939; Brown and Fitzpatrick 1981; 73 Homyack, Haas, and Hopkins 2010; Londoño et al. 2015; Catenazzi 2016; Gangloff et al. 2016). Thus, 74 75 global warming may lead to temperatures exceeding the thermal tolerance of ectotherms (Deutsch et 76 al. 2008), or impose important sublethal effects such as altering body size, growth rates, immunity, and generating physical deformities (Weerathunga and Rajapaksa 2020). This could have negative 77 78 consequences on individual fitness and populations in the long term, and many ectotherm populations 79 are therefore - or will shortly be - at risk of extirpation (Novarro et al. 2018).

To understand the potential response of a species to changing climates, it is necessary to 80 characterize the thermal-dependence curves of metabolic rate across a relevant latitudinal or 81 elevational gradient (Sears 2005; Muir, Biek, and Mable 2014; Bulgarella et al. 2015; Hu et al. 2019). 82 83 Here, we investigated the physiological sensitivity of the endemic Pyrenean brook newt Calotriton 84 *asper* through the measure of SMR across a range of ecologically relevant temperatures ($5^{\circ}C$ to $25^{\circ}C$) 85 and for individuals from populations living at elevations ranging from 250 to 2500 m a.s.l. By characterizing the temperature-dependence of SMR in C. asper, we test whether this relationship 86 87 varies along an elevational gradient. We predict a linear increase in SMR as assay temperatures rise and in accord with the MCA hypothesis - a higher metabolic rate in high-elevation populations than in

89 low-elevation populations at a given temperature (Terblanche et al. 2009; Kreiman et al. 2019).

90 Material and Methods

91 Study species

92 The Pyrenean brook newt (Calotriton asper Dugès, 1852) is an amphibian species from the Pyrenees mountains (Andorra, Spain, France) commonly found in brooks, lakes, and springs ranging 93 from 250 to 2500 m a.s.l. (Nicol 1990; Martinez Rica and Clergue Gazeau 1977; Clergue Gazeau and 94 95 Martinez Rica 1978; Montori, Llorente, and García-París 2008). This species is listed in appendix IV 96 of the Habitats Directive (92/43/CEE, 21 May 1992), appendix II of the Bern Convention, and as nearthreatened species in the national Red List of amphibians of metropolitan France (UICN France). 97 Major threats to C. asper include climate change, habitat change, and predation by introduced 98 99 predatory fish (Dalibard 2021). Calotriton asper is characterized by a low dispersal rate (and gene 100 flow) among populations (Mila et al. 2009; Lucati et al. 2020), which favors high phenotypic variation 101 among populations (Serra-Cobo, Uiblein, and Martinez-Rica 2000). For instance, previous work highlighted among-population variation according to site elevation in terms of different biological and 102 103 ecological factors. First, in terms of life-cycle with reproduction that takes place in spring and autumn 104 in low-elevation individuals and summer in high-elevation ones due to water temperature (Clergue Gazeau 1983). Then, in terms of morphology with an increase of body size with elevational gradient 105 106 according to the Bergmann's rule (Trochet et al. 2019). Finally, in terms of thermal preferences with a 107 negative relationship between thermal preferences and elevation in low-elevation individuals and a 108 positive relationship in high-elevation ones (Trochet et al. 2018).

109 Sampling sites and newt maintenance in laboratory

We sampled six riverine populations from six independent streams within the French Pyrenees
that span along an elevational gradient ranging from 550 to 2189 m a.s.l. during summer 2019.
Localizations and sampling dates for the six streams are provided in Table 1. Slope (which greatly

113 determines streamflow in rivers, and thus the microhabitat experienced by the brook newt) varied among the sampling streams from 9.8% to 75.1%. Every sampled stream had continuous streamflow 114 115 over the year. Two populations were sampled in a dense forest environment (Fougax, Belesta), three populations in an open field (Orlu, Gavarnie, and Néouvielle), and one population in a low-density 116 forest stand (Aulus). Mean annual air temperatures varied among the sampling streams from 10.4°C to 117 11.4°C for low elevation sites and from 0.5°C to 6.7°C for high elevation sites, on average over the 118 119 1981-2010 period (Figure S1; Karger et al. 2017). Annual snow duration varied among the sampling 120 sites from 26 to 41 days for low elevation streams and from 106 to 178 days for high elevation 121 streams, on average over the 2000-2010 period (Gascoin et al. 2015). We sampled twenty adults per 122 site by hand found by a visual survey. A total of 120 individuals were sampled with a near-balanced sex ratio (54 females and 66 males; Table 1). Non-gravid females were selected to avoid any influence 123 of the reproductive state on respirometry measurements (Finkler 2006). Individuals were then housed 124 at the laboratory (436 m a.s.l., Moulis, Ariège, France). All individuals were PIT-Tagged for further 125 identification (BIOLOG-ID, France; accreditation of animal experimentation n°A09-1), following the 126 127 protocol described in Le Chevalier et al. (2017). Newts from each population were all housed in a single aquarium of $80 \times 35 \times 40$ cm, at a water temperature of 15 °C ± 2°C (Sylvestre 2011) and 128 129 exposed to a natural photoperiod. For each population, the test period began at least 3 days after 130 capture (mean \pm SD: 7 \pm 2 days) and lasted 4 weeks on average (\pm 1 week SD; Table S1). Newts were 131 fed ad libitum with Tubifex sp. live worms throughout the experiment. However, because digestion may influence physiology in ectotherms (Huey 1982; Gvoždík 2003), feeding was halted 48 h before 132 133 testing bouts. Each animal was weighed with a digital balance $(\pm 0.1 \text{ g})$ before experiments (Table 1). 134 All newts were released at their respective capture sites between 2 and 6 days after their last test (i.e. 135 total mean time of captivity \pm SD: 7 \pm 1 weeks).

136 Table 1. Characteristics of the 6 studied sites where Pyrenean brook newts were captured. Mean Annual Air Temperatures

137 (MAAT) were extracted over the 1981-2010 period from the CHELSEA database (Karger et al. 2017).

		Number	Mean	Mumhan	Mean			
Sampling site	Date of Number mass capture of females $(g) \pm sd$	of	mass females	of	mass males	Coordinates (latitude/longitude)	Elevation (a.s.l.)	MAAT (°C)
		males	$(g) \pm sd$	× <i>c ,</i>	· · · ·			

Fougax	27 May 5	5	90+08	15	9.6 ± 2.3 -	42°52'9,05" N	550	11.4
Fougax	2019	5	9.0 ± 0.8			1°53'25,30" E		
Dalasta	esta 04 June 2019	10	71+21	10	9.5 ± 1.7 -	42°53'0,17" N	800	10.1
Delesta		10	7.1 ± 2.1			1°56'13,16" E		10.1
A 11110	13 June 9 2019 9	0	76 + 1 2	11	9.4 ± 1.7 -	42°47'9,42" N	1100	10.4
Aulus		9	7.0 ± 1.2			1°19'20,50" E		
Orly	25 June 2019 10	10	9.3 ± 1.5	10	9.8 ± 1.4 -	42°39'48,21" N	1212	6.7
Onu		10				1°58'2,10" E	1313	
Commis	22 July 2019 10	10 44.00	10	(2+12	42°44'19,86" N	1724	0.5	
Gavarine		9 10	4.4 ± 0.9	10	0.2 ± 1.2 -	0°1'51,85" O	1724	0.5
N4	e 31 July 10	11 31 July 10 0.7.	95107	10	10.0 + 1.0	42°50'20,80" N	2189	2.4
neouvielle		10	8.3 ± 0.7	10	10.0 ± 1.0 -	0°8'56,30" E		2.4

138

139 Physiological response

140 We measured individual oxygen consumption rate as a proxy for SMR across a range of 141 temperature experienced by C. asper in its natural environment during the year (i.e. $5^{\circ}C \pm 1$ to $25^{\circ}C \pm 1$ 142 1). All individuals from each population were tested at three different temperatures (Table 2): one cool test temperature (from 5° C to 13° C), one warm test temperature (from 17° C to 25° C), and one control 143 temperature (15°C). To complete the experiment within the three-month activity period and to limit 144 145 stress on the animals, each population of twenty individuals was divided into five groups of four individuals, and each group of four was tested at different cool and warm test temperatures to cover 146 the entire thermal gradient (Table 2). To limit potential confounding effects between temperature per 147 se and the order (timing) of tests, we alternated order for all populations between cold, control, and hot 148 temperatures presented in Table 2. We let individuals rest for at least one day (mean \pm SD: 2.4 \pm 1.4 149 150 days) between tests.

Individuals were isolated in a 0.55 L airtight plastic transparent box filled with dechlorinated water (Guillaume et al. 2020). To avoid a thermal shock, we gently acclimatized the newts by increasing or decreasing the captivity water temperature (15°C) to the test water temperature over a 1hour period. After this 1-hour acclimatization, the water oxygen concentration was measured every minute for 2 hours using FireSting fiber-optical oxygen meters (PyroScience GmbH, Aachen, Germany). An individual measure of oxygen consumption during these 2 hours (hereafter SMR in ppm) corresponding to the individual loss in oxygen concentration was calculated by subtracting water oxygen concentration at the end of the experiment to water oxygen concentration at the beginning of the experiment. All tests were performed during the day at fixed and constant hours (9:00 and 14:00). Moreover, all tests were repeated twice in two sessions separated by two weeks (mean \pm SD: 14.5 \pm 7 days).

162Table 2. Experimental protocol for the metabolic measurements. The table shows, for one population, the different exposure163of individuals in every test and control water temperature. The same design was applied for each of the 6 populations, in two164sessions separated by two weeks (mean \pm SD: 14.5 \pm 7 days).

	Cold test temp	peratures (°C)	Control temp	perature (°C)	Hot test temperatures (°C)	
Individual ID	Target temperature	Effective mean temperature	Target temperature	Effective mean temperature	Target temperature	Effective mean temperature
N1-N4	5	5.7 ± 1			17	17.4 ± 0.6
N5-N8	7	7.5 ± 0.9			19	19.5 ± 0.5
N9-N12	9	9.7 ± 0.9	15	15.5 ± 1	21	21.0 ± 0.8
N13-N16	11	11.7 ± 0.8			23	23.0 ± 0.5
N17-N20	13	13.4 ± 0.7			25	25.8 ± 0.7

165

166 Statistical analyses

167 To test if SMR (response variable) varied with effective mean temperature (Table 2), elevation, as well as their first to fourth order interactions (explanatory variables), we built a linear 168 mixed-effects model (LMM, with a Gaussian error distribution; see Figure S2 for verification of the 169 170 model assumption) with sites of capture, individuals, and sessions as random intercept terms (to 171 control for their potential effect in the estimation of the fixed effects). Because we sampled only 6 populations in a non-continuous elevational gradient, we chose to characterize elevation as a factor. 172 According to the ecological and thermal behavioral differentiation between sites below and above 173 1300 m highlighted in Trochet et al. (2018), elevation of origin was categorized into two classes, with 174 175 three populations (Fougax, Belesta, and Aulus, 550-1100 m a.s.l) assigned to a "low elevation class" and three populations (Orlu, Gavarnie, and Néouvielle, 1300-2189 m a.s.l) assigned to a "*high elevation class*". Body mass and sex were included in the model as covariates. Newts' mass and effective mean temperature variables (Table 1) were standardized to the mean so their respective effects can be compared in the model.

180 We started from a full model including all fixed and random effects with interactions between 181 elevation and other variables (i.e. effective mean temperature, mass, and sex). To avoid having a model where one random variable has no effect on our results because all variability of the intercept is 182 explained by other random variables (i.e. singular model), we first selected the random effect 183 structure. The best random effect structure was identified by testing all the combinations of random 184 185 factors and selecting the candidate model with the lowest Akaike Information Criterion with a correction for a small sample size (AICc). To compare AICc values among candidate models, we 186 187 fitted all candidate LMMs using the restricted maximum likelihood parameter estimate (Bates et al. 2018). To ensure robust estimations, all the singular fits (i.e. variances closed to zero) were removed 188 189 from the list of candidate models before model selection. Second, we selected the fixed effect structure based on AICc, keeping the previously identified random structure constant. Third, we fitted a final 190 LMM based on the fixed and random structure selected using the restricted maximum likelihood 191 parameter estimate to ensure a robust estimate of coefficients (Bates et al. 2018). In order to compute a 192 193 robust estimate and test the significance of the direct effects in the selected model (e.g. Luke 2017), we finally calculated the mean effect of each fixed variable and their respective 95% confidence 194 195 intervals through a bootstrap approach (N = 5000 iterations). The significance of each variable was 196 determined from the bootstrap distributions for the two alternative hypotheses of a mean coefficient 197 estimate being higher or lower than zero.

To assess the goodness-of-fit of the models, we also computed the mean marginal (i.e. variance explained by the fixed effects) and conditional (i.e. variance explained by both the fixed and random effects) R² values, as well as their respective 95% confidence interval from the set of bootstrap iterations. All statistical analyzes were performed in the programming language R (version 3.6.2; R Core Team 2019). To fit LMM and conduct bootstraps, we used the lme4 (Bates et al. 2014b) and optimx R-packages (Nash and Varadhan 2011) respectively. The MuMIn (Bartoń 2019) and jtools R packages (Long 2019) were used to compute marginal and conditional R² values and to adjust into the
 same scale mass and effective mean temperature variables, respectively.

206

207 **Results**

Effective mean temperature, elevation, sex, mass, and their first order interactions were retained in the best model (Table 3, Table S2). Marginal and conditional R^2 were equal to 0.447 [0.363; 0.529] and 0.558 [0.483; 0.629] respectively (mean [95% CI]). In other words, individuals, population, and session (the random terms) explained a lower proportion of variance in SMR (0.111) than did the effective mean temperature of the tests, elevation's origin of population, sex, and mass of individuals.

The mass- and temperature-dependence of SMR varies predictably along the elevational gradient (Table 3). Specifically, the positive relationships between SMR and both test temperature and mass were steeper for individuals sampled at high elevation populations than for those sampled at low elevation (Figure 1), so newts from higher elevations exhibited greater temperature and mass dependencies of standard metabolic rate ($\beta_{mass} = 0.466$ and $\beta_{t^{\circ}C} = 0.373$ for low elevation populations; $\beta_{mass} = 0.696$ and $\beta_{t^{\circ}C} = 0.485$ for high elevation populations).

Individuals sampled at high elevations had on average a higher SMR than those sampled at low elevation populations (mean [95% CI]: + 0.522 ppm [0.732; 0.308]; Table 3). However, this effect depends on the sex of individuals, as highlighted by the significant interaction term between elevation and sex (Table 3): the increase in oxygen consumption from low to high elevations was steeper in females than in males (Figure 2).

Table 3. The effects of effective mean temperature, elevation, mass, and sex on *Calotriton asper'* SMR estimated through bootstrapped mixed-effects linear models (N = 5000). Every fixed effect has been tested through a one-sided test based on the bootstrap distributions of coefficients (null hypothesis: the effect is not higher or lower than 0). Significant effects are displayed in bold (*P*-value < 0.05).

Variable	Mean estimate	95% CI	<i>P</i> -value
Intercept	1.777	[1.626; 1.927]	< 0.0002
Mass	0.696	[0.500; 0.893]	< 0.0002
Temperature	0.485	[0.397; 0.573]	< 0.0002
Elevation class (Low)	-0.522	[-0.732; -0.308]	< 0.0002
Sex (Male)	-0.135	[-0.270; -0.002]	0.0232
Elevation class (Low) * Temperature	-0.111	[-0.223; 0.01]	0.0368
Elevation class (Low) * Sex (Male)	0.184	[-0.003; 0.375]	0.0274
Elevation class (Low) * Mass	-0.230	[-0.474; 0.015]	0.0318

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Figure 1. SMR of individual brook newts (*C. asper*) from low (red) and high (blue) elevation populations dependent on (**A**) effective mean water temperature treatment and (**B**) mass. Points are individual observations and lines display the relationships fitted through the linear mixed-effects model presented in Table 3 (dark color = average model, light color = individual bootstrap models) for females only with a mean individual mass of 8.35 g (**A**) and with a total mean temperature treatment of 15.35 °C (**B**).

238



Figure 2. Temperature dependence of SMR for female (red) and male (blue) brook newts (*C. asper*) sampled in low (left) and high (right) elevation populations. Points are observations. Boxes display the linear mixed-effects model intercept presented in Table 3 and calculated from 5000 bootstrap iterations, independent of the mean temperature treatment axis.

242 **Discussion**

243 Pyrenean brook newts from higher-elevation populations exhibit higher mass-specific 244 metabolic rates across a range of biologically relevant temperatures compared to conspecifics from lower elevations. This corroborates the metabolic cold adaptation hypothesis (MCA) which predicts a 245 higher metabolic rate in individuals from cold environments (i.e high elevation) than individuals from 246 247 warmer environments when measured at similar ambient temperatures (Kreiman et al. 2019). In fact, 248 having a higher metabolic rate in cold environments may be advantageous for ectotherms by allowing 249 them to be active at lower temperatures and thus compensate for a shorter warm period (Clergue Gazeau 1983; Gaston et al. 2009). Finally, a higher SMR allows organisms to achieve development, 250 251 growth, and reproduction at temperatures that would otherwise be sub-optimal, especially where the life cycle of the species is highly seasonal as in *Calotriton asper* (Clergue Gazeau 1983; Lardies,
Bacigalupe, and Bozinovic 2004; Terblanche et al. 2009; Schaefer and Walters 2010).

Our results showed a steeper increase in SMR in females than in males from low to high 254 255 elevation populations. This is surprising as males are known to have a higher SMR than females, 256 which has been hypothesized to have a strategy to provide enough energy for spermatogenesis, mate 257 searching, or amplexus and compensate the male-male competition (Ryan and Hopkins 2000; Finkler 258 and Cullum 2002; Finkler 2006). In our case, we speculate that a higher metabolic allocation to 259 baseline functionality in females could be a response to a shorter favorable thermal period in cold 260 environments to ensure reproduction. Reproduction in females is known to drive a large proportion of 261 the energy budget so oogenesis will be more efficient in an extreme environment to maintain total 262 reproductive output (Orrell and Kunz 2016). As a consequence, a greater amount of energy is likely 263 required in females to prepare the egg production and laying in the short time available at high 264 elevation.

265 As expected, our results highlight an increase in SMR as the temperature increases (Whitford 266 1973; Finkler 2006; Gangloff and Telemeco 2018), which confirms that this general rule also holds for 267 the endemic Pyrenean brook newt (Calotriton asper). This increase in SMR reflects a rise in metabolic 268 activity that can be advantageous in the short term for ectotherms, leading to a faster growth rate or a longer activity period (Žagar et al. 2015). But, prolonged exposure to high temperatures can lead to a 269 loss of performance in different crucial life activities such as locomotion, foraging, or 270 271 thermoregulation (Deutsch et al. 2008; Žagar et al. 2015). This loss of performance can be explained 272 by the oxygen- and capacity-limited thermal tolerances (OCLTT) hypothesis which explains that the 273 respiratory system is not able to provide the oxygen needed to meet demand at high temperatures (Pörtner 2002; Pörtner, Bock, and Mark 2017). Chronic heat stress can even induce premature aging in 274 275 individuals with negative effects on adult fitness and survival, and impact the sustainability of 276 populations (Bestion et al. 2015; Dupoué et al. 2017). In the long term, adaptive responses to high 277 temperatures must be put in place to avoid the inefficiency of subcellular processes, mismatch of 278 oxygen supply and demand, or potentially death.

Moreover, our results showed a significant interaction between temperature and elevation that 279 highlights greater temperature-dependence of SMR in individuals from high elevation. This higher 280 281 sensitivity in cold environments has already been demonstrated in previous studies in salamanders with a differential effect of temperature on the growth rate, heart rate, and activity in individuals from 282 different thermal environments (Catenazzi 2016; Caruso and Rissler 2019). These environmental-283 dependant characteristics could be the result of an evolutionary legacy, including potentially adaptive 284 285 responses acquired by natural selection, and could affect the response of individuals to climate change 286 (Uusi-Heikkilä et al. 2015; Bodensteiner et al. 2021).

287 In a global warming context with a rapid increase of temperatures at high elevations, a higher 288 SMR across the experienced temperature range will make high-elevation individuals suffer from 289 increased energetic demands, which could affect energetic allocation to other aspects of life-history as 290 growth, reproductive, or immune functions (Weerathunga and Rajapaksa 2020). While MCA 291 mechanism may have been adaptive in a past context, it could now compromise the sustainability of 292 populations at high elevation. In this situation, the low dispersal ability and gene flow of C. asper 293 (Mila et al. 2009; Lucati et al. 2020); the intraspecific variation observed in different traits (morphological, ecological, and behavioral; see Gasser and Clergue Gazeau 1981; Serra-Cobo, 294 295 Uiblein, and Martinez-Rica 2000; Trochet et al. 2018; 2019) or the possibility for plastic response in 296 metabolic rate that was recently reported in surface populations of C. asper (Guillaume et al. 2020) 297 would condition the response of this endemic species to climate change. The diversity observed in our study in metabolic strategies may be of prime importance for this species for coping with future 298 environmental change as it may provide the basis for future adaptation. 299

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306 Author contributions

307 Marine Deluen: Conceptualization, Methodology, Software, Formal analysis, Investigation, Resources, Writing - Original Draft. Simon Blanchet: Conceptualization, Validation, Writing -308 309 Original Draft, Funding acquisition, Supervision, Project administration. Fabien Aubret: Conceptualization, Validation, Writing - Original Draft, Funding acquisition, Supervision, Project 310 administration. Audrey Trochet: Conceptualization, Validation, Resources, Writing - Review & 311 Editing, Funding acquisition. Eric J. Gangloff: Writing – Review & Editing. Olivier Guillaume: 312 Methodology, Writing - Review & Editing. Hugo Le Chevalier: Resources, Writing - Review & 313 Editing. Olivier Calvez: Resources. Clémentine Carle: Resources, Investigation, Writing - Review 314 & Editing. Léa Genty: Resources, Investigation. Gaëtan Arrondeau: Resources, Investigation. 315 Lucas Cazalé: Resources, Investigation. Laura Kouyoumdjian: Writing - Review & Editing. 316 Alexandre Ribéron: Writing - Review & Editing, Funding acquisition. Romain Bertrand: 317 Conceptualization, Methodology, Formal analysis, Validation, Writing - Original Draft, Funding 318 319 acquisition, Supervision, Project administration.

320

321 **Competing interest**

322 We declare no competing financial interest.

323 Ethics

Our work complies with the international animal care guidelines of the Association for the Study of Animal Behaviour, and all required French (permit no. 2017-s-02) permits relating to authorization of capture, marking, transport, detention, use, and release of protected amphibian species; and animal experimentation (accreditation $n^{\circ}A09-1$) were been obtained.

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