Boldness does not influence the territorial dynamics of the ornate tree lizard (*Urosaurus ornatus*)

EVS4009 Honours Research Project

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1 Abstract

In environments characterised by heterogeneous resource distribution, the ideal despotic distribution predicts that dominance can affect habitat settlement patterns. Although dominance has often been shown to be a fundamental driver of territorial dynamics, other behaviours such as boldness may also be important. I tested the hypothesis that variation in boldness within populations of ornate tree lizards Urosaurus ornatus dictates territorial dynamics. Bolder individuals should take more risks to exploit resource rich environments and, thus, they should occupy the highest quality habitats. I quantified boldness of tree lizards in two habitats (wash and upland), that differ in thermal quality and in food abundance, by calculating the time it took to capture lizards. Boldness did not differ between habitats, but females became bolder while males became shyer as the active season progressed. Thus, boldness may not contribute to the territorial dynamics of U. ornatues. To my knowledge, this is the first study to assess the influence of U. ornatues boldness on its territorial dynamics in a natural setting.

23 Key words: Boldness, territorial dynamics, Urosaurus ornatus, behaviour

24 Introduction

25 The ideal free distribution theory first formally termed by Fretwell and Lucas (1970), 26 assumes that all individuals are equally "free" to occupy any space within a given habitat (Calsbeek 27 and Sinervo 2002). However, in environments characterised by heterogeneous resource 28 distribution, the ideal despotic distribution predicts that dominance can affect habitat settlement 29 patterns of residing populations (Paterson and Blouin-Demers 2017). For example, in territorial 30 species, differences in social dominance among individuals generate competitive asymmetries 31 (Taylor and Lattanzio 2017). These variations in behaviour create an ideal despotic territorial 32 distribution, wherein dominant individuals secure the highest quality habitats while forcing 33 subordinates into less favourable habitats (Calsbeek and Sinervo 2002).

34 Within an environment, the quality of a specific habitat depends on multiple factors, for example food abundance, nest site quality and environmental conditions (Fretwell and Lucas 35 36 1969). For ectotherms, the fitness benefits of settling in a specific habitat often depends heavily 37 on the environmental temperature (Blouin-Demers and Weatherhead 2001; Hughes and Grand 2000) because regulation of optimal body temperatures (T_o) is dependent on the habitat thermal 38 39 quality. High thermal quality habitats are characterized as habitats with operative environmental 40 temperatures (T_e) close to the species' preferred body temperatures (T_{set}) (Paterson and Blouin-41 Demers 2018). Variations in this important abiotic characteristic creates a heterogeneous 42 environment which can affect habitat settlement patterns (Blouin-Demers and Weatherhead 2001).

Although dominance has often been shown to be a fundamental driver of territorial dynamics in heterogeneous environments (Calsbeek and Sinervo, 2002), other behaviours such as boldness should also contribute to the process (Taylor and Lattanzio 2017). Boldness can be defined as an individual's tendency to resist escape under the perceived threat of a predator (Taylor 47 and Lattanzio 2016). A bold individual will be more likely to resist fleeing, while a shy individual 48 will tend to flee (López et al. 2005). This behaviour has received increased attention in the last 49 decade (St Clair et al. 2016; Highcock and Carter 2014; Ward-Fear et al. 2018) due to its broad 50 implication for social interactions, predator-prey dynamics, as well as the ecological dynamics of 51 entire populations (Taylor and Lattanzio 2016). Recent studies have shown that boldness is 52 consistent among individuals, both through time and over varying situations (Kashon and Carlson 53 2017; Highcock and Carter 2014), which suggests that it is a "personality trait". Consistency in 54 behaviour among individuals, and differences in behaviour between individuals can result in 55 variations in fitness (Cote et al. 2008).

56 The three most common methods used to quantify boldness in lizards are: 1) "flight initiation distance", 2) "flight distance" and 3) "time in refuge" (Cooper 2009). By simulating an 57 58 approaching predator, a researcher can force a lizard to escape or seek refuge. Measuring the 59 distance between the researcher and the initial lizard location before it fled or the time the lizard 60 spends in refuge provide proxies for boldness. Measurements of the flight distance, how far a lizard 61 flees from its initial location, is an alternative method. It is important to note that although humans 62 are not a natural predator to lizards, there are no known qualitative differences in escape behaviour 63 between an approaching researcher and a predator (Cooper 2009).

Boldness has considerable implications on an individual's life history because bold individual will be able to maximize opportunities to acquire essential resources, such as food, and to establish and defend its' territory despite the risk of predation (Taylor and Lattanzio 2016). For example, Seltmann et *al.* (2013) found an asymmetry in the nest-site selection of eider ducks (*Somateria mollissima*) resulting from variation in boldness. Bold female ducks selected higher quality, concealed nests further away from the coast at the expense of increased mortality by predation. This suggests that bolder individuals benefit from acquiring the highest quality habitats despite the risk of predation. Although the acquisition of resources is important, there are associated trade-offs to exhibiting bold behaviours, such as increased exposure to predators (Hulthén et *al.* 2017). Being bold can lead to access to higher quality habitats (Bonnot et *al.* 2018, Seltmann et *al.* 2013), however bold individuals may be at a risk to increased predation while acquiring resources. In contrast shy individuals may decrease their exposure to predators but as a result, they may not gain access to the best quality habitats (Bonnot et *al.* 2018).

77 In addition, bolder individuals may also occupy higher quality habitats because boldness 78 is often linked to social dominance hierarchies (Dahlbom et al. 2011; Pottinger 2001; Sundström 79 et al. 2004). Boldness is closely related to social status as bolder individuals have been documented 80 to be more aggressive and are ultimately more dominant (Dahlbom et al. 2011). Dahlbom et al. 81 (2011) suggested that boldness and social dominance may even have a common genetic basis. 82 Further, individuals that have a larger body size are known to be more dominant and may also be 83 bolder (Harris et al. 2010; Kohlsdorf et al. 2006; Stamps 1984). Larger head sizes, specifically, 84 have previously been linked to higher dominance (Gvozdik and Van Damme 2003) and boldness 85 (López et al. 2005). Social dominance has also been observed in species exhibiting colour 86 polymorphism, wherein a dominant morph secures the habitat of highest quality (Healy 2008). 87 Predator escape observations of colour polymorphic tawny dragon lizard (*Ctenophorus decresii*) 88 have found that aggressive colour morphs are bolder (Yewers et al. 2016). As dominant individuals 89 have often been shown to express bolder behaviours (Dahlbom et al. 2011; Pottinger 2001; 90 Sundström et al. 2004), habitat settlement patterns resulting from hierarchal dominance may also 91 be observed in the context of boldness.

92 In order to assess the potential link between habitat quality and boldness I used ten 93 populations of ornate tree lizards (Urosaurus ornatus) living in two habitat types that differ in 94 quality. The ornate tree lizard is one of Arizona's most widespread lizards living in a variety of 95 habitats including dry stream beds, forests, and talus slopes (Brennan and Holycross 2006). This 96 species displays various colour morphs which are associated with differences in behavioural traits 97 (Paterson and Blouin-Demers 2017), which are linked to asymmetries in social dominance 98 (Thompson and Moore 1991). In this species, the dominant blue-throated males have been 99 documented to occupy the higher quality habitats (Taylor and Lattanzio 2016). Furthermore, the 100 ornate tree lizard is a territorial species, defending its habitat to exploit its resources, such as mates 101 (M'Closkey et al. 1987). Thus, habitat settlement patterns resulting from territorial competitions 102 between morphs generates an ideal despotic distribution, wherein dominant individuals 103 monopolize the best habitat (Calsbeek and Sinervo 2002; Taylor and Lattanzio 2016).

104 Although the implications of polymorphism and dominance of the ornate tree lizard on 105 social interactions and settlement patterns have been well studied, to my knowledge, only one 106 study has evaluated the influence boldness behaviours on the territorial dynamics of the ornate tree 107 lizard (Taylor and Lattanzio 2016). This study found variations in boldness between individuals 108 and suggested important implications of this behaviour on territorial interactions. However, these 109 conclusions were based on an in vitro experiment which may not reflect the true natural variations 110 within the population (Carter et al. 2012). As a result, it is uncertain whether boldness influences 111 the habitat settlement pattern of the ornate tree lizard in a natural setting. However, as bolder 112 individuals are more dominant (Dahlbom et al. 2011; Pottinger 2001; Sundström et al. 2004) and 113 are more willing to take risks to exploit resource rich environments (Bonnot and al. 2018; Seltmann 114 et al. 2013), I hypothesize that variation in boldness within populations of ornate tree lizards

115 dictates territorial dynamics. I predict that ornate tree lizards occupying the higher quality habitat

116 will be bolder than lizards living in the lower quality habitat.

117 Methods

118 Study site

From 01 May to 24 July 2018 I studied the boldness of the ornate tree lizards (*Urosaurus ornatus*) at ten sites in the Chiricahua Mountains which is part of the Coronado National Forest located in southeastern Arizona, USA. (Figure 1). Each site extended 300 m down a dry, rocky stream bed with open canopy cover (wash) and 50 m into the adjacent forested habitat with closed canopy cover (upland) (Figure 2).

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Figure 1. Locations of the 10 sites used during the 2018 field season to capture *Urosaurus ornatus* in the Coronado National Forest, Chiricahua Mountains, southeastern Arizona, USA. Projected
 Coordinate System: World WGS 1984. See table in annex for complete list of UTM coordinates.



129

Figure 2. Photograph take at site 4, illustrating the opened canopy wash habitat (left) and the
closed canopy upland habitat (right) within the Chiricahua Mountains, Arizona, USA.

133 Thermal quality

134 To determine operative environmental temperatures (T_e) , I placed iButton temperature 135 loggers, painted brown to reflect the thermal properties of the ornate tree lizard, randomly 136 throughout the various surface microhabitats (on a log, on a rock, and on a tree) available in both 137 the wash and upland (Herczeg et al. 2006, Paterson and Blouin-Demers, 2018). Because lizard 138 activity such as foraging, guarding territories and mating is limited by environmental temperatures 139 at the surface (not inside refuges), the microhabitats sampled represented common perching areas 140 of lizards in each habitat. I assumed that lizards were always able to seek refuge from hot surface 141 temperatures in the numerous hiding locations available (under bark, under leaf litter, under rocks, 142 under logs, etc.) and so what limits lizard activity is the surface T_e . In my observations where perch location was noted (n = 1101), 98% of lizards perched on trees, logs or rocks, so I assumed these
microhabitats accurately represent the microhabitats used by tree lizards in the wash and upland
habitats.

I determined the thermal quality of the wash and upland habitats at each site by comparing the range of T_e to the preferred temperature range of the species (T_{set} ; 32.2°C to 36.0°C) which was previously determined by Paterson and Blouin-Demers (2018) using a laboratory thermal gradient in the absence of any ecological costs. Specifically, thermal quality was measured as the proportion of the day where T_e reached T_{set} in each habitat.

151 Boldness

In order to assess boldness, I used a digital watch to measure the time it took to capture lizards with a rod and noose. Although a novel approach, time to capture (TTC) should be an appropriate proxy for boldness as a bolder individual should take less time to catch. This is due to their tendency to resist escape (Highcock and Carter 2014), have shorter flight initiation distances and overall flight distances (Cooper 2009), as well as taking less time to emerge from refuge (López et *al.* 2005; Sneddon 2003). These combined measures influence the TTC as researchers delegated less time to chase, wait and capture bold lizards.

Capture sessions consisted of walking throughout the site while delegating search times evenly between the two habitats. Once located, the researchers approached the lizards at a consistent speed, standardizing the approach and thus, minimizing any bias (Cooper 2009). The timer was initiated when the lizard fled its' perch and stopped once the lizard was captured. However, if the lizard did not flee within approximately 3 metres of distance, the researcher started the timer and attempted to capture it. When captured, lizards were placed in a uniquely numbered 165 cotton bag and kept in a shaded area until processing. Each capture location was recorded with a

166 handheld GPS unit to ensure that the lizards were returned to their location of capture.



Figure 3. A schematic of time to capture (TTC) measurements of lizards as a function of (A) flight initiation distance, (B) flight distance and (C) the time in refuge.

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171 Morphology

- 172 During processing, snout-vent-length (SVL; ± 0.1 mm) and head length (tip of the snout to
- 173 the posterior edge of the dentary (angular); ± 0.1 mm) was measured with digital callipers.



Figure 4. Picture of the ventral side of a male (A) and female (B) *Urosaurus ornatus* during
processing. Males were identified by their enlarged post-anal scales (PA), enlarged femoral pores
(FP), stomach colouration (SC) and throat colouration (TC). Figure reproduced with permission
from A. Lymburner.

Lizards were sexed by the presence (males) or absence (females) of enlarged post-anal scales (Delaney and Warner, 2016), enlarged femoral pores, stomach colouration and throat colouration (Figure 4). Lizards were then marked non-permanently on their stomach and head with a unique number using a felt tip marker. These numbers remained visible for approximately two weeks (depending on lizard shed cycle) and allowed for repeated measures.

184 Statistical analyses

All statistical analyses were completed using R (R Core Team, 2018). A two-sided t-test ($\alpha = 0.05$) was used to determine the differences in boldness of lizards between the wash and upland habitats (function 't.test'). To respect model application assumptions, the log of TTC was used as the dependent variable to normalize residuals (Figure 5).

189 Additionally, a generalized linear mixed-effects model (package 'lme4', function 'lmer') 190 was used to determine the variables that affect lizard boldness. Habitat, the variable of interest, 191 was included as fixed effect. Other important variables that may affect boldness were included in 192 my model as controls: Sex (Chantina et al. 2009), head length (HL) (López et al. 2005), snout-193 vent-length (SVL) (Harris et al. 2018) and date were included as a fixed effect. Because date, HL 194 and SVL were on very different scales, all three variables were standardized using the function 195 'scale'. Since three researchers collected the data, "researcher ID" was added as a random effect. 196 Likewise, to control for any effects of repeated captures of individuals, the number of captures 197 (e.g. first capture = 1, second capture = 2) was added as a random effect (CP). To control site or 198 individual effects, lizard identification (ID) nested within site was also included as a random effect. The log of TTC was used as the dependent variable to normalize residuals. 199

200 To evaluate fitting of simplified TTC models, simplified models were compared with a 201 backwards stepwise analysis using Akaike's information criterion (AIC). I eliminated non-

202	significant effects ($\alpha > 0.05$) to produce a final simplified model with only significant effects
203	(Table 1). The most parsimonious model (i.e. lowest AIC value) was selected as the final model.
204	Conditional R ² values for each simplified model were compared (package 'MnMIn', function
205	'r.squaredGLMM') to insure that elimination of variables did not reduce model fitting.

206 **Results**

207 Pooling all sites, in the wash, I captured 357 lizards 556 times, and in the upland, I caught

469 lizards 694 times. I captured 430 females 616 times and 391 males 629 times (total n = 1250).

209 Thermal quality

210 Lymburner (unpublished data 2019) found that the thermal quality was significantly

211 higher in the wash than the upland habitat (Figure 5). There was a higher proportion of the day

212 where (T_e) was within T_{set} (32.2 to 3.0°C) in the wash habitat.



213

- Figure 5. Boxplot of the proportion of the day where T_e was within T_{set} the upland and the wash
- 215 habitats. Figure reproduced with permission from A. Lymburner.

216 **Time to capture**

- TTC did not significantly differ between the wash and the upland habitats (t = -0.20, df = 1250, p = 0.84). The average and median TTC in the wash habitats was 3.64 min and 1.69 min,
- 219 respectively.



Figure 6. Boxplot of the logarithm of time to capture in minutes of *Urosaurus ornatus* in the
upland and wash habitats.

The average and median TTC in the upland habitats was 3.57 min and 1.68 min, respectively. Pooling all sites and habitats, the average and median time to capture was 3.60 minutes and 1.68 minutes, respectively (Figure 6).

Following the backwards stepwise AIC analysis (Table 1), the simplified model (Figure 7) was the most parsimonious model describing boldness in the ornate tree lizard (AIC = 228 3894.543). This model included sex (p = 0.51), date (p < 0.01) and the interactions between these 229 variables (p = 0.02). This model explained 22% of the variation of boldness (\mathbb{R}^2 value = 0.22). The 230 random variables remained in the model for control purposes. Removing the random variables 231 significantly changed the model and reduced the conditional \mathbb{R}^2 value. TTC did not differ 232 with SVL ($\chi^2 = 0.2097$, df = 1, p = 0.65), nor between sexes ($\chi^2 = 0.6764$, df = 1, p = 0.41), but did 233 increase with date ($\chi^2 = 10.9609$, df = 1, p = 0.01). Additionally, there was a significant interaction 234 between sex and date ($\chi^2 = 4.3721$, df = 1, p = 0.04).





Figure 7. The predicted values of logarithm of time to capture as a function of the standardized Julian date for male and female lizards. The grey shading represents the 95% confidence interval of the blue (male) or red (female) regression lines.

Table 1. Conditional R^2 and AIC values for fitted models of time to capture following VIF analysis. I chose the most parsimonious model to explain lizard's boldness (model 10).

Model			AIC
1	TTC)~Habitat+Sex+SVL.z+Date.z+Habitat:Sex+Habitat:SVL.z+Sex:SVL.z+Sex:Date.z+SVL.z: Date.z+Habitat:Sex:SVL.z+Sex:SVL.z:Date.z*(1 Researcher)*(1 CP)*(1 Site/ID), data = Bold)	0.2191	3935.913
2	TTC~Habitat+Sex+SVL+Date+Habitat*Sex+Habitat*SVL+Sex*SVL+Sex*Date+SVL*Date+ Habitat*Sex*SVL+Sex*SVL*Date +(1 Researcher)*(1 CP)*(1 Site/ID)	0.2191	3930.387
3	TTC~Habitat+Sex+SVL+Date+Habitat*Sex+Habitat*SVL+Sex*SVL+Sex*Date+Habitat*Sex* SVL+Sex*SVL*Date +(1 Researcher)*(1 CP)*(1 Site/ID)	0.2191	3930.387
4	TTC~Habitat+Sex+SVL+Date+Habitat*Sex+Habitat*SVL+Sex*SVL+Sex*Date+Sex*SVL*Dat e +(1 Researcher)*(1 CP)*(1 Site/ID)	0.2184	3927.699
5	TTC~Habitat+Sex+SVL+Date+Habitat*Sex+Habitat*SVL+Sex*SVL+Sex*Date+(1 Researcher) * (1 CP)*(1 Site/ID)	0.2210	3918.692
6	TTC~Habitat+Sex+SVL+Date+Habitat*Sex+Habitat*SVL+Sex*Date+(1 Researcher)*(1 CP)*(1 Site/ID)	0.2195	3913.849
7	$TTC \sim Habitat + Sex + SVL + Date + Habitat * Sex + Sex * Date + (1 Researcher) * (1 CP) * (1 Site/ID) = (1 Site/ID) + (1 Site/$	0.2204	3909.607
8	TTC~Habitat+Sex+SVL+Date+Sex*Date+(1 Researcher)*(1 CP)*(1 Site/ID)	0.2215	3906.071
9	TTC~Sex+SVL+Date+Sex*Date+(1 Researcher)*(1 CP)*(1 Site/ID)	0.2211	3900.565
10	TTC~Sex+Date+Sex*Date+(1 Researcher)*(1 CP)*(1 Site/ID)	0.2224	3894.543

* Represents an interaction between 2 variables, () represent random variables

1 **Discussion**

2 Lizard habitat selection can be structured by consistent behavioural differences between 3 individuals (Paterson and Blouin-Demers 2017). I tested whether variations in individual boldness 4 within populations of ornate tree lizards would dictate territorial dynamics. The thermal quality of 5 the upland and wash did differ significantly (Lymburner unpublished data 2019) however, I did 6 not find variations in the spatial distribution of boldness. These results do not support the 7 hypothesis that variations in boldness dictates territorial dynamics, which would have resulted in 8 an asymmetry in the spatial distribution of this behaviour. Contrary to my prediction, there was no 9 significant difference in ornate tree lizard boldness between the upland and the wash habitats. 10 Although habitat was not a significant predictor of boldness (measured as time it took to capture a 11 lizard), the final model revealed that females became bolder while males decreased their boldness 12 as the active season progressed. These results suggest that boldness does not contribute to the 13 habitat settlement patterns of the ornate tree lizard, but that individual boldness may fluctuate with 14 the ornate tree lizards' seasonal activities.

15 My results for habitat quality are concurrent with those of a previous study by Paterson and 16 Blouin-Demers (2018), who quantified habitat quality for three years at eight of the ten sites used 17 in this study by measuring food availability and thermal quality. Lymburner (unpublished data 2019) found during my study that the wash habitat had a higher proportion of days in the T_{set} of 18 19 the ornate tree lizard, indicative of higher thermal quality. A lizard living in the wash habitat would 20 therefore have more opportunities to thermoregulate which is important for maintaining an optimal 21 body temperature for all processes (i.e. locomotion, foraging, mating etc.). Although I only 22 analysed thermal quality to determine habitat quality, this environmental characteristic has been 23 shown to be very important in dictating habitat selection patterns (Blouin-Demers and

Weatherhead 2001). Spatial variations of this important abiotic factor have shown to influence species distribution (Halliday and Blouin-Demers 2016; Thompson et *al.* 2018), wherein individuals favor habitats providing more opportunities to thermoregulate. For example, Halliday and Blouin-Demers's (2016) study on common gartersnakes found that snakes were much more abundant in the higher thermal quality field habitat than in the forested habitat.

29 My results, inferring a homogeneous distribution of boldness across both habitats of 30 differing quality, contradicts the conclusions of a previous in vitro study on the territorial dynamics 31 of the ornate tree lizard (Taylor et al. 2016). Taylor et al.'s (2016) results suggests that boldness 32 may play a role in the geographic variation of the social and ecological dynamics of the ornate tree 33 lizard. However, their *in vitro* results may not reflect the natural population dynamics which were 34 observed in this study (Carter et al. 2012). Assays on animal personality will frequently use 35 individuals collected from the wild, but will complete testing within laboratory settings (López et 36 al. 2005; Wilson et al. 2010). Although these methods assume random sampling, variations in the 37 catchability within wild populations may consequently cause a systematic trapping bias and thus, 38 bias laboratory results (Carter et al. 2012). Additionally, differences in laboratory conditions 39 (Lewejohann et al. 2006) or prior experience with humans (Osborn and Briffa 2016) may hinder 40 the outcomes of *in vitro* behavioural tests. For example, a study by Fisher et al. (2016) on the 41 behaviour of wild field crickets (Gryllus campestris) found no correlation between boldness in situ 42 and in vitro settings. These discrepancies between in vitro and in situ results emphasises the 43 importance of studying behaviours in a natural setting. Nonetheless, laboratory studies are important to study specific variables of interest and provide the setting to control for other 44 45 confounding factors. To my knowledge, Taylor et al. (2016) behavior assay is the only previous

46 study to have assessed the influence of boldness on the territorial dynamics of this species and is47 thus, the best empirical source to compare my findings.

48 Although few in numbers, some studies have previously evaluated the influence of 49 boldness on habitat selection patterns (Bonnot et al. 2018; Seltmann et al. 2013; Taylor et al. 2016; 50 Wilson et al. 2009). However, a great majority of the literature is focused on the effects of habitat 51 conditions or structure on escape responses (Anchieta et al. 2015; Martin and Lopez 1995; 52 Stankowich and Coss 2006). These studies assume plasticity in boldness among individuals. In 53 contrast, this study assumes consistency in boldness among individuals, suggesting the behavior 54 is a "personality trait". This assumption is supported by multiple studies which found consistency 55 of boldness over both time and among situations (Kashon and Carlson 2017; Highcock and Carter 56 2014). Variance in boldness between individuals can results in differences in fitness (Bonnot et al. 57 2018), which can ultimately lead to selective pressures acting upon this behaviour. This is 58 exemplified in Bonnot et al.'s (2018) study on female roe deer (Capreolus capreolus), which found 59 that predation risk favored bolder females in the rich open habitats, leading to increased 60 reproductive success. Seltmann and al. (2013) found similar results in eider ducks (Somateria 61 *mollissima*), wherein bolder females nested in higher quality areas further from the shore and had 62 a higher viable proportion of the clutch. In contrast, my results showed no difference in boldness 63 between both habitats, suggesting that this behaviour does not contribute to territorial dynamics.

The absence of variance within the spatial distribution of boldness may have resulted form elevated predation within the higher quality wash habitat, which may have counterbalanced the fitness advantages of this behaviour. Boldness increases an individual's ability to exploit high quality habitats despite the threat of predation (Bonnot et *al.* 2018). The higher resource and mate acquisition stemming from bolder behaviours has been shown to increase reproductive success

69 (Bonnot et al. 2018) and therefore contribute to spatial distribution of individuals (Wilson et al. 70 2010). If this spatial distribution resulting from the fitness benefits of boldness was attributable to 71 the ornate tree lizard's ecological context, the high quality wash habitats should have been 72 occupied by bolder individuals, which is not supported by this study. The physical and ecological 73 characteristics of the wash differ from that of the upland, which may have influenced the cost-74 benefit of boldness through increased predation. The open canopy and lack of refuges (i.e. trees) 75 increases the lizard's susceptibility to predation (Shepard 2007). Additionally, the higher thermal 76 quality of the wash habitat favors other ectotherms, including predators such as snakes. As a result, 77 the elevated predation in the wash habitat may have factored into the homogenisation of the 78 distribution of boldness across both habitats. However, this hypothesis contradicts previous studies 79 such as Harris and al. (2010), which observed that fish in habitats of high predation emerged sooner 80 from their shelter, thus expressing bolder traits.

81 Although no differences in boldness was observed between the two distinct habitats, bold 82 behaviours may have a more influential role at a finer spatial scale. Habitat selection occurs at 83 multiple orders including selection of home range, habitat type and feeding ground (Johnson, 84 1980). It is thus possible that boldness does not dictate the territorial dynamics of the ornate tree 85 lizard at the larger, habitat selection scale assayed in this study, but rather at a finer microhabitat 86 selection scale. Lattanzio and Miles (2014) evaluated the spatial distribution of the ornate tree 87 lizard as a function of aggression and found no significant differences in spatial network structure 88 between a lower quality unburned site and a higher quality infrequently burned site. However, 89 their finer scale analysis revealed a divergence in microhabitat use and diet, wherein aggressive 90 males usurped the higher quality trees and consumed higher trophic level prey. This variation in

the spatial distribution of boldness as a function of spatial scales may provide an explanation for
the differences in the results from my study, versus those of Taylor et *al.* (2016).

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93 The results from my final model suggests that females increased, while males decreased in 94 boldness as the active season progressed. However, these observations may have been a result of 95 reproductive trade offs rather than a behavioural shift. The increase in boldness in females may 96 indicate a change in physiological conditions. During the reproduction period, female lizards will 97 invest significant amounts of energy and resources to optimize their reproductive success 98 (Landwer 1994). This investment negatively affects their physical condition which can result in a 99 reduction the efficiency of their escape response (Sinervo et al. 1991, Veasey et al. 2001). As a 100 result, females can be more vulnerable to predation during the reproductive season. A study by 101 Landwer (1994) who experimentally reduced egg production in certain female ornate tree lizards 102 found that they had higher growth rates and were significantly less likely to become prey than 103 controls. Thus, the reduction in time to capture females as the active season progressed may have 104 been due to their reduced escape efficiency rather than a change in boldness.

105 Similarly, the increase in time to capture male ornate tree lizards may not be indicative of 106 a behavioural shift but rather a result of increased predation of bolder males. Male ornate tree 107 lizards exhibit a colour polymorphism (Figure 4) associated to reproductive success (Lattanzio et 108 al. 2014). "Push up" displays are used by male lizards in competitive territorial interactions with 109 other males (McElroy et al. 2007). Competitive and mating behaviors which increase the 110 conspicuousness of males has shown to increase the risk of predation (Hedrick 2000). An increase 111 in conspicuousness coupled with high boldness may have resulted in an increase in mortality of 112 bold, male lizards. Therefore, it is possible that as the active season progressed, boldness did not

decrease among individuals, but rather, bold individuals were preyed upon more and suffered a
higher mortality (Hulthén et *al* 2017).

115 Limitations

116 The greatest limitation of this study is the lack of control for gene flow and migration 117 between the two habitats. In order to test the hypothesis, I used two adjacent habitats which varied 118 in quality. However, as there are no physical boundaries separating the two, it is possible that 119 movements of individuals between the upland and the wash reduced my ability to detect a 120 difference in boldness. Overall, 21% of lizards that were captured more than once were found to 121 switch between habitat types at least once. This is consistent with Paterson and Blouin-Demers 122 (2017) who, using mark-recapture methods for population density measurements of the same study 123 system, found that that 25% of recaptured individuals had on at least one occasion switched 124 habitats. Thus, the homogeneous distribution of boldness detected in my study may have been 125 caused by the flux of individuals between habitats.

126 Furthermore, although field studies can provide a more accurate depiction of ecological 127 and social dynamics (Carter et al 2012), it is difficult to extract a specific variable of interest while 128 controlling for all other confounding factors. This trade-off is one of the limitations of my study. 129 For example, I was unable to control for previous encounters of predation, which could have 130 affected individual boldness (Hellström and Magnahagen 2011). Thus, lizard having recently 131 experience a predation event may have expressed shyer behaviours despite their bolder personality. 132 Another limitation of my study is the method used to quantify boldness. I used a novel 133 approach of calculating the time it took to capture lizards with a rod and noose. Although time to 134 capture should be an appropriate proxy for boldness (as explained in the methods), it is possible 135 that this method did not accurately capture the differences between individuals in their boldness.

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However, similar approaches using time to quantify boldness have been used (Carter et *al.* 2012;
Chapman et *al.* 2010; Klefoth et *al.* 2012; Walsh et *al.* 2018). For example, Carter et *al.* (2012)
quantified the boldness of Namibian rock agama (*Agama planiceps*) by calculating the time it took
for lizards to enter the trap. Bold individuals entered the trap sooner than shy individuals. Similarly,
Klefoth et *al.* (2012) quantified the boldness of common carp (*Cyprinus carpio*) by measuring the
time until the first bite and capture of the day. Thus, although my method is novel, variances of
calculating the time to capture as a proxy for boldness have previously been used.

143 Future work

Based on the results of this study, possible avenues for future work include investigating boldness across an environment with a gradient of quality, possibly through an altitudinal gradient, which would provide more than two populations and the separation of these populations to eliminate gene flow. Using sites along an altitudinal gradient would provide varying habitats of thermal quality. Also, in the laboratory or semi-natural settings it would be easier to manipulate habitat quality while eliminating other potential variables to allow for assessment of lizard boldness between habitat types.

151 General Conclusion

In conclusion, my results suggest that boldness does not contribute to the territorial dynamics of the ornate tree lizard at a habitat selection scale. The change in time it took to capture male and female lizards as the active season progressed may have been an indicator of reproductive trade-offs rather than a shift in behaviour. Although my field study could not control for all confounding variables, to the best of my knowledge, this is the first study that has assessed the influence of boldness on the territorial dynamics of the ornate tree lizard in a natural setting.

158

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Table 1. Conditional R² and AIC values for fitted models of time to capture following VIF analysis. I chose the most parsimonious model to explain lizard's boldness (model 10).....15 Table Error! No text of specified style in document.. Coordinates (UTM, Zone 12R) of ten study sites in the Chiricahua Mountains, Arizona, USA where ornate tree lizards (*Urosaurus ornatus*) were studied from 1 May to 21 July 2018. Note: Map of study sites in Figure 1......32

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332 Figure 1. Locations of the 10 sites used during the 2018 field season to capture Urosaurus ornatus 333 in the Coronado National Forest, Chiricahua Mountains, southeastern Arizona, USA. Projected 334 Coordinate System: World WGS 1984. See table in annex for complete list of UTM 335 coordinates......06 336 Figure 2. Photograph of site 4 illustrating the opened canopy, rocky, dry stream bed wash habitat 337 (left) and the closed canopy, treed upland habitat (right). Environmental characteristics such as canopy cover affects habitat quality......07 338 339 Figure 3. A schematic of time to capture (TTC) measurements of lizards as a function of (A) flight 340 initiation distance, (B) flight distance and (C) the time in refuge......10 341 Figure 4. Picture of the ventral side of a male (A) and female (B) Urosaurus ornatus during 342 processing. Males were identified by their enlarged post-anal scales (PA), enlarged femoral pores 343 (FP), stomach colouration (SC) and throat colouration. Figure reproduced with permission from 344

345	Figure 5. Boxplot of the proportion of days in the preferred body temperature of the ornate tree
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347	permission from A. Lymburner12
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350	Julian date for male and female lizards. The grey shading represents the 95% confidence interval
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352 Supplementary material

Table 2. Coordinates (UTM, Zone 12R) of ten study sites in the Chiricahua Mountains, Arizona,
USA where ornate tree lizards (*Urosaurus ornatus*) were studied from 1 May to 21 July 2018.
Note: Map of study sites in Figure 1.

356	Study Site	Е	Ν
357	1	667700	3530564
	2	667397	3533052
358	3	668088	3528306
359	4	668081	3533752
	5	673919	3530657
360	6	669406	3529429
361	7	667943	3530998
362	8	666727	3532199
363	9	668271	3530541
	10	667781	3533355