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1	The crocodylian skull and osteoderms:
2	A functional exaptation to ectothermy?
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10	Abstract
11	The crocodylians are ectothermic semi-aquatic vertebrates which are assessed to have
12	evolved from endothermic terrestrial forms during the Mesozoic. Such a physiological
13	transition should have involved modifications in their cardio-vascular system allowing to
14	increase the heat transfers with the surrounding environment by growing a peripheral
15	vascularization which would be mainly located in the dermal skeleton: the dermatocranium
16	and the osteoderms. In order to assess the implication of these anatomical regions in thermal
17	exchanges, we have recorded the temperature above a set of representative skin areas in order
18	to draw comparisions between the skull, the osteoderms, and the rest of the body parts which
19	present either none or residual dermal ossification. We computed the data after the specimens
20	were successively laid in different stereotyped environmental conditions which involved
21	significant variations in the environmental temperature. Our results show that the osteoderms
22	collect the external heat during the basking periods as they become significantly warmer than
23	the surrounding skin; they further release the heat into the core of the organism as they turn
24	out to be colder than the surrounding skin after a significant cooling period. In disregard of

25 the environmental temperature variations, the skull table (which encloses the braincase) 26 remains warmer than the rest of the cranial regions and shows less temperature variations than 27 the osteoderms; a result which has lead us to think that the braincase temperature is monitored 28 and controlled by a thermoregulatory system. Therefore, as hypothesized by previous others 29 regarding the skull of the crocodylians and of other ectothermic vertebrates such as the 30 squamates, we assume that the crocodylian skull possesses shunting blood pathways which 31 tend to maintain both the braincase and the main sensory organs at the nearest to the optimal 32 physiological temperature depending on the external temperature variations. Concerning the 33 skin vascularization, the study of an albino Alligator mississippiensis specimen permitted to 34 observe the repartition of the superficial blood vessels by transparency through the skin. We 35 thus testify that the skin which covers either the skull or the osteoderms is more vascularized 36 than the skin which does not present any subjacent dermal ossification. We consequenly 37 deduce that the significant contrast in the thermal behavior between the dermal skeleton and the rest of the body is indeed correlated with a difference in the relative degree of skin 38 39 vascularization. This last assessment confirms that the development of the dermal skeleton 40 should have played a functional role in the crocodylian transition from endothermy to 41 ectothermy through the set-up of a peripheral vessel network.

42 Key-words: heat-transfers, thermoregulation, basking, vascularization, dermal bones,
43 Crocodylia.

44 **1. Introduction**

The pseudosuchians (crown and stem-crocodylians) and the avemetatarsalians (pterosaurs and dinosaurs) consist of two distinct sister lineages which evolved from one hypothetical common ancestor in the Early-Triassic (Archosauria; 250 Mya; Cope, 1869; Nesbitt, 2011). The presence of a fibrolamellar complex in the stem-archosauriform long bones lead to hypothesize that the ancestor of the archosaurs possessed a high growth rate 50 (Ricqlès et al., 2003, 2008). Furthermore, the high osteocyte density which has been 51 quantified in the primary bone in both the stem-archosauriforms and the early pseudosuchians 52 argued that these taxa had a high basal metabolic rate revealing an endothermic metabolism 53 (Cubo et al. 2012; Legendre et al., 2016). Besides these assessments which are based on the study of bone histology in extinct species, there are anatomical features in the extant 54 55 crocodylians which also suggest an endothermic origin: the existence of a four-cardiac-56 chambered heart separating the high systemic blood pressures from low pulmonary blood 57 pressures like in birds and mammals (Seymour et al., 2004). Thus, unlike the rest of the ectothermic vertebrates, the crocodylians do possess a full ventricular septation (Jensen et al., 58 59 2013) though showing some specific cardiac traits: 1) the foramen of Panizza which provides communication between the right and left aorta (Franklin & Axelsson, 2000; Axelsson and 60 61 Franklin, 2001); 2) the cog-tooth valve which controls the blood flow through either the 62 pulmonary artery or the right aortic arch consequently influencing the systemic arterial blood pressure (a value which is itself correlated with the metabolic rate; Seymour et al., 2004). 63 64 Even if the relation between these cardiac traits and the crocodylian ectothermic metabolism 65 is still debated (Eme et al. 2010), the development of adaptative functions in the heat transfers 66 between the organism and the surrounding environment must have been necessary to permit a 67 switch from endothermy to ectothermy. As already assessed in other ectothermic vertebrates 68 such as the squamates, these thermal exchanges shall rely on the blood flow through the 69 vascular system (Drane et al., 1977; Sadava et al., 2009; Porter and Witmer, 2015). In this 70 regard, several authors hypothesized that the crocodylian dermal bones consist of thermal 71 exchange sites when basking thanks to a superficial vessel network present both in the cranial 72 region (Porter et al., 2016; Clarac et al., 2017a) and in the osteoderms (Seidel, 1979; Farlow et 73 al., 2010; Owerkowicz, 2016; Clarac et al., 2018). Both of these networks would be further 74 connected to the general vascular circulation of which the flow is controlled by both the heart

75 beat (Seebacher and Franklin, 2004, 2007) and the cutaneous vessel vasomotion (Grigg and 76 Alchin, 1976). Behavioral strategies such as the adoption of fully submerged to fully emerged postures (Smith, 1979; Seebacher, 1999) and the ability to gape on land (Spotila, 1977; 77 78 Tattersall et al., 2006) are assumed to be associated with these physiological adaptations in 79 parallel with the crocodylian transition to the semi-aquatic lifestyle. Indeed, despite the body 80 heat loss when the crocodylians are in the water (Johnson, 1974; Johnson et al. 1976), the 81 adoption of a set of variable semi-emerged postures (high float, common float; Smith, 1979) 82 should conciliate the thermoregulatory behavior with the water to land ambush predation 83 since it allows the animal to control its exposition to the sunrays while focusing its main 84 neurosensory organs on potential terrestrial preys. During emerged periods, sun basking 85 increases the global body temperature while gaping contributes to the reduction of the head 86 temperature by water loss.

87 The aim of this study is to test the implication of the crocodylian dermal skeleton (the dermatocranium and the osteoderms) in the heat transfers by determining which of the body 88 89 area are significantly involved in such a function. Indeed, Farlow et al. (2010) and 90 Owerkowicz (2016) showed that the temperature straight above the osteoderms shall keep 91 lower than the surrounding skin's regardless of the environment temperature as these bones 92 would be permanently vascularized by the cool blood which is coming from the core of the 93 organism in order to warm up in contact with the environmental heat. To determine the 94 implication of both the cranial and post-cranial dermal skeleton in the heat transfers, we 95 measured and compared the superficial temperature straight above the skull, the osteoderms 96 and other skin areas on a sample of living crocodylians which were successively set in 97 different stereotyped conditions (aquatic and terrestrial) themselves involving variations in the 98 environmental temperature. We consequently assessed the thermal behavior of the

99 crocodylian dermal bones in contrast with the parts of skin which do not present any dermal100 ossification. The animal behavior was carefully reported during all the experimentation time.

101

2. Material and methods

102 2.1 Biological sample

103 The experimentations were performed on three farmed crocodylians at Planète 104 Crocodiles (Route de fond d'Orveau 86320 Civaux, France). Two of these specimens both 105 measure around one-meter length and were studied in monitored conditions involving 106 environmental temperature changes. They belong to two different species which are 107 representative of two different families (Crocodylidae and Alligatoridae; see Table 1 for 108 details). The third specimen is an albino *Alligator mississippiensis* (Alligatoridae). This 109 specimen is a sub-adult which was studied in its usual captivity enclosure without forced 110 environmental changes. All these animals are acknowledged by Johann Doray (zoological supervisor) for the keeping of exotic reptiles, and comply with the directives of the European 111 112 parliament and the council of 22 September 2010 on the protection of animals used for 113 scientific purposes (Directive 2010/63/EU).

114 2.2 Experimental setting

115 Both the Alligator sinensis and the Crocodylus niloticus specimens were successively 116 set in two experimental patterns which respectively simulated two different stereotyped 117 environmental conditions for an amphibious vertebrate: an « Aquatic » phase in a flooded 118 swamp and a « Heating-Terrestrial » phase in an emerged basking environment (Heat Lamp Dry; Franklin and Seebacher, 2003). To do so, we first let the specimens in a plastic tank 119 120 (dimensions: 120 x 100 x 65 cm) which was top covered with a board and partially filled with enough water so that the animal constantly had to remain either submerged or in a semi-121 emerged position (at its discretion). The water temperature was set to 25 °C thanks to a 122

123	thermal probe (150 W) whereas the air temperature within the tank was equal to the room
124	temperature (22 °C; recorded was ExoTerra Digital precision thermometer). The water
125	temperature value has been established on the reference wet season tropical fresh water
126	temperature (Galacatos et al., 2004; Fig. 1) and is also purposely set to a slight higher value
127	than the air temperature as we wanted to be sure that the specimen could not warm-up if it
128	decided to take a semi-emerged position (as detailed in Smith, 1979). Moreover, the high
129	humidity kept within the tank also limited the temperature variations in the contained air
130	having thus a least influence on the specimen temperature (hygrometry: 90 %; recorded with
131	an ExoTerra Digital precision hygrometer). The water temperature was homogenized by a
132	flow using a centrifugal pump. After one hour, we drained the water out of the tank using a
133	tap located at its bottom. We removed the top board on one side of the tank in order to set
134	three spotlights (50 W; 150 W; 70 W with UVB) and two warm-air blowers (1500 W) which
135	allowed to increase and homogenize the air temperature within the tank. On the opposite side
136	of the spotlights, the recorded temperature on the bottom of the tank still scored 22 $^{\circ}$ C
137	whereas it reached 47 $^{\circ}$ C right under the beam light. The resulting gradient thus provided a set
138	of values which overlaped and overshot the crocodylian physiological inner
139	temperature (comprised between 31-33 °C; Grigg and Alchin, 1976; Johnson et al., 1976).
140	After one hour, we set back the first experimental setting by filling up the tank again in order
141	to repeat the full experimentation for a second time. After each phase and for both specimens,
142	we recorded the skin superficial temperature on fourteen different spots which are
143	representative of the diverse anatomical regions of interest: the skull, the osteoderms, the
144	limbs and the axial part of the body which shows no osteoderm (as presented in Fig. 2). To do
145	so, we used an infra-red camera (C.A 1950 Diacam 2 IR Camera IP 54; Chauvin Arnoux 190,
146	rue Championnet – 75876 Paris cedex 18 – France) which allows to record the superficial
147	temperature of a targeted spot. The emissivity was set to 0.95 as in Farlow et al. (2010)

148 according to the infra-red thermography principles by Speakman & Ward (1998). The data 149 were plotted on colored images which were centered around a cross-hair that revealed the temperature of each targeted spot. The entire field of view of the camera was numerized so 150 151 the surroundings' temperature variations were plotted by a gradient of colors from deep blue 152 (cold) to deep red (warm). Since the value of the Noise Equivalent Thermal Difference 153 (NETD) is 80 mK for this device when the environmental temperature is 30 °C, we deduced 154 that the least detected temperature variations were under 0.1 °C within our experimental 155 conditions. The obtained snapshots were then saved as an image and were further exported as 156 numerical files (bmp format). During the entire experimentation which lasted four hours (for 157 both specimens) including two « Aquatic » phases and two « Heating-Terrestrial » phases, the 158 specimens were not manipulated nor taped and had the possibility to move freely within their tank. Since the tanks were not transparent and top-covered with a board, the specimens did 159 160 not have any visual contact on the experimentator except when recording the data with the 161 infra-red camera (a five-minute operation). Within the full experimentation, we testify that the 162 pupil of the eye of neither specimen showed any inflation so that we may assume that they did 163 not experience any stress which may have biased the data by affecting the heart beat and the 164 resulting blood circulation. During the « Aquatic » phases, there was no forced immersion 165 which could have influenced the heart beat and consequently the thermal exchanges. We 166 recorded all the data (Table 2) and performed statistical analyses using Past software (PAST 167 version 2.17c, Hammer et al., 2001) in order to compare the mean superficial temperature 168 between the successive « Aquatic » and « Heating-Terrestrial » phases in both Alligator 169 sinensis and Crocodylus niloticus. The purpose was to test if the successive environmental 170 phase switches had a significant influence on the specimen mean superficial temperature 171 (Table 3A). In a same manner, we also performed such statistical comparisions to test the 172 difference in the mean superficial temperature between the two specimens in order to assess if

they reacted in a same way to the same experimental conditions (Table 3B). Since each
temperature sampling consists of fourteen non-independant values as they belong to a same
specimen (shown in Fig. 2), we analysed the data with a Wilcoxon test (non-parametric).

176 The same set of measures was repeated on the Alligator mississippiensis albino 177 specimen directly in its enclosure after the specimen spent the full morning in its pool (several 178 hours). The lack of melanine in the skin of the specimen allows to observe the superficial 179 vascularization in order to notice if the blood vessel repartition matches with the superficial 180 temperature contrasts. This specimen is kept in captivity in an enclosure including a pool in 181 which it can dive and entirely immerge. The pool is partially surrounded by a beach on which 182 the specimen is free to emerge at its discretion. The enclosure is located in a greenhouse 183 which is naturally lighted and warmed-up by the daylight sunrays providing an air temperature of 20 °C at the time when the data were recorded. The water is artificially heated 184 185 and set-up to a temperature of (25 °C). The measures were performed on the specimens after 186 it volunteerly emerged on the beach under the stimulations of its animal keepers (Johann 187 Doray and Léa Pierrefitte). As this specimen is weekly trained using classical conditioning (so 188 called Pavlovian conditioning; Pavlov, 1927), she therefore did not experience any unusual 189 stress during the measures. Moreover, this specimen shares its enclosure with only one other 190 specimen (an adult Caiman crocodilus) which shows a very shy behavior and has therefore no 191 dominant influence on the studied specimen (thus provoking no basal stress which may have 192 biased the observations).

193 **3. Results**

194

3.1 General ethological observations

During the « Aquatic » phases, we observed that both the *Alligator sinensis* and
 Crocodylus niloticus specimens did not always keep at the same place within the tank but
 happened to either swim or move by bottom dwelling. Both specimens also either stayed fully

immerged or took semi-emerged positions (high float, common float, submerged breathing;
Smith, 1979). During the « Heating-Terrestrial » phases, the *Alligator sinensis* specimen spent
several basking periods under the light beam (especially during the second one) whereas the *Crocodylus niloticus* specimen rather kept wandering between the warm spot and the cold
one. A mid-open mouth gaping behavior has been once observed in this specimen (Spotila,
1977).

204 *3.2 General statistical comparisons*

205 According to the Wilcoxon test, the mean superficial skin temperature in the Alligator 206 sinensis specimen was significantly different after the second « Heating-Terrestrial » phase 207 whereas it previously remained unchanged after the three first phases (Table 3A). For the 208 *Crocodylus niloticus* specimen, the mean superficial skin temperature was significantly 209 different after each phase (Table 3A). When comparing the same value after each phase 210 between the Alligator sinensis and the Crocodylus niloticus, the Wilcoxon test turned out to 211 be significant after « Heating-Terrestrial-1 » and « Aquatic-2 » whereas it was not after 212 « Aquatic-1 » and « Heating-Terrestrial-2 » which were respectively the first and the last 213 phase of the experimentation (Table 3B; Fig. 3). 214 3.3 The skin temperature variations between cooling and warming phases in Alligator 215 sinensis

All along the four-hour experimentation which included the double succession of two « Aquatic » and « Heating-Terrestrial » phases, the temperature of the skull table was higher than on the other cranial regions (with an exception for the angular temperature which increased after the second « Heating-Terrestrial » phase; Figs. 2 & 4A). The temperature of the nuchal osteoderms was higher than on the non-ossified part of the nuchal region after each « Heating-Terrestrial » phase whereas it was oppositely lower after each « Aquatic » phase. A 222 similar temperature contrast is noticeable if we compare the osteoderm shield with the 223 adjacent skin on the flanks as well as the caudal paramedian osteoderms with the lateral side 224 of the tail (on the anterior side of the caudal crest symphysis; Figs. 2 & 4A). When comparing 225 the skull thermal behavior with the post-cranial regions which present a dermal ossification, we notice that between two consecutive phase switches, the skull table showed lower 226 227 temperature variations (up to 1 $^{\circ}$ C) than the nuchal osteoderms (up to 4.5 $^{\circ}$ C), the dorsal 228 shield (up to 4.5 °C) and the caudal paramedian osteoderms (up to 3 °C). Although showing 229 less intense variations, both the mean temperature of the limbs and the mean temperature of 230 the part of the axial body which has no osteoderm (averaging the neck, the flank, the tail 231 lateral side) negatively covary with the mean temperature value of both the skull (averaging 232 the snout, the skull table, the jugal, the angular) and the osteoderms (averaging the nuchals, 233 the dorsals, the caudal paramedians). Indeed, these mean temperatures vary from 22.75 °C to 23.5 °C for the limbs and from 22 °C to 23.75 °C for the part of the axial body presenting no 234 235 osteoderm whereas it varies from 22.25 °C to 25.25 °C for the skull and from 22.25 °C to 26 236 °C for the osteoderms (Figs. 4A).

3.4 The skin temperature variations between cooling and warming phases in Crocodylus
 niloticus

239 Like previously observed on the Alligator sinensis specimen, the superficial 240 temperature on the skull table of the Crocodylus niloticus specimen was always higher than 241 on the other cranial regions (the snout, the jugal, the angular) though there was an exception 242 after « Heating-Terrestrial-1 » (Fig. 4B). As also previously observed on the Alligator sinensis, the temperature of the nuchal osteoderms was lower than on the non-ossified part of 243 244 the nuchal region after each « Aquatic » phase whereas the contrary was observed after each 245 « Heating-Terrestrial » phase. The temperature of the osteoderm shield was up to $2.5 \,^{\circ}\text{C}$ higher than the adjacent skin on the flanks after the « Heating-Terrestrial » phases whereas 246

these two anatomical regions shared the same values after the « Aquatic » phases. The caudal 247 248 paramedian osteoderms were always warmer than the lateral side of the tail (anterior to the caudal crest symphysis) although it showed a more pronounced difference after the « Heating-249 250 Terrestrial » phases. Indeed, the temperature on the caudal paramedian osteoderms varied 251 between 23.5 °C and 28.5 °C whereas it was scaled between 23 °C and 24.5 °C on the lateral 252 side of the tail. The temperature of the arm was higher or equal to the forearm's during the 253 whole experimentation. In a same manner, the temperature of the leg was always higher than 254 the temperature of the foreleg while showing a pattern of covariation.

255 Between the consecutive phase switches within the four-hour experimentation, the skull table showed lower temperature variations (up to $2.5 \,^{\circ}$ C) than the nuchal osteoderms (up 256 257 to 6.5 °C), the dorsal shield (up to 4 °C) and the caudal paramedian osteoderms (up to 4 °C). The mean skull temperature covaries with both the mean temperature of the osteoderms and 258 259 the mean temperature of the part of the axial body presenting no osteoderm although the skull 260 shows much lower variations than these two other regions (especially the osteoderms; Fig. 261 4B). Indeed, between the first « Aquatic » phase and the first « Heating-Terrestrial » phase, 262 both the mean temperature of the skull and the mean temperature of the part of the axial body 263 presenting no osteoderm varied within a scale of 1.5 °C whereas the mean temperature of the 264 osteoderms varied within a scale of 3.5 °C. The mean temperature of the limbs always 265 remained quite low and varied within a narrow scale (between 23 °C and 24 °C).

266 267 3.5 The albino Alligator mississippiensis skin temperature contrast and the distribution of the peripheral vascularization

The specimen spent several hours in a 25 °C water while recurrently exposing herself to the sunrays by adopting semi-emerged postures (mainly the common float which allows to emerge the head and the nuchal region; Smith, 1979). Right after the specimen was called to emerge on the beach by its animal keepers (as detailed above in *Material and Methods*), we

272	recorded that the skull table was warmer than the rest of the cranial regions (up to 2.4 $^\circ C$
273	higher) and the nuchal osteoderms were colder than the surrounding skin (with a difference of
274	0.9 °C). The dorsal shield showed a low difference with the adjacent skin on the flanks (0.3
275	$^{\circ}$ C) and the caudal paramedian osteoderms were also only 0.5 $^{\circ}$ C warmer than the lateral side
276	of the tail (anterior to the caudal crest symphysis; Fig. 5). If we observe the global
277	temperature gradient on the specimen (displayed from blue to red; Fig. 5), the superficial
278	temperature tends to be higher on the dorsal region than on the lateral sides.
279	Since the studied Alligator mississippiensis is an albino specimen, the lack of melanine
280	allows to observe the superficial blood vessels by transparency through the skin. Our
281	photographs show that the skin vascularization is higher straight above both the
282	dermatocranium and the osteoderms than on the rest of the organism which shows either none
283	or residual dermal ossification (<i>i.e.</i> the non-ossified nuchal region, the flancks, the lateral
284	sides of the tail and the limbs; Fig.5).
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285 286	4. <i>Discussion</i> <i>4.1 The significancy of the experimentation</i>
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285 286 287 288 289 290 291 291 292	4. Discussion 4.1 The significancy of the experimentation As mentioned above, the thermal sensitivity of the camera imaging detector is below 0.1 $^{\circ}$ C (NETD: 80 mK); this is sufficient to measure the skin temperatures and draw comparisions between the different anatomical regions within a same specimen. The minimum distance to shoot with this camera is 40 cm and the precision decreases as the distance to the target increases. In the regard, since we could shoot the <i>Alligator sinensis</i> at a distance of 50 cm we assume that the data are more precise than the one recorded from the

as the two others (Table 1) we assume that it compensates the loss of accuracy due to thedistance.

298	During the « Heating-Terrestrial » phases, the specimens were able to gape as their
299	mouth was not taped and they were able to thermoregulate at their discretion by moving from
300	the cold spot (22 °C) to the hot spot (47 °C). For the Alligator sinensis specimen, the
301	Wilcoxon test shows that the mean superficial temperature had not significantly changed
302	between « Aquatic-1 » and « Heating-Terrestrial-1 » as well as between « Heating-Terrestrial-
303	1 » and « Aquatic-2 » whereas this test is significant between all phase switches for the C .
304	niloticus specimen (Table 3A; Fig. 3). Despite some disparity in the test results between the
305	two specimens, we however argue that both the A. sinensis and C. niloticus specimens
306	experienced two significant consecutive cooling and heating periods. Indeed, when the
307	Wilcoxon test is not significant for A. sinensis between the consecutive phases (A-1 / HT-1
308	and HT-1 / A-2; Table 3A), the skin maximum temperature value (extrema) is however
309	successively shifted up (A-1 / HT-1) and down (HT-1 / A-2).
310	In regard of the comparision between the two specimen set of temperature, we assume
311	that both of them reacted to the experimentation in a same manner. Indeed, even though the
312	Wilcoxon test shows significant differences between the mean superficial temperature in the
313	A. sinensis and in the C. niloticus after « Heating-Terrestrial-1 » and « Aquatic-2 » (Table
314	3B), we nonetheless assume that this result is not controversial because this comparison is
315	only based on a mean value although the contrast of temperature between the various
316	anatomical regions always shows similar trends when the specimens are set in the same
317	conditions (« Aquatic » or « Heating-Terrestrial » ; Fig. 4). Relying on these observations, we
318	assume that the thermal behavior of the two experimented specimens are representative of a
319	general pattern which resumes the heat transfer processes between the organism and the

320 environment in Crocodylia. Nevertheless, a comparative study aiming to assess a thermal

behavior variability between alligatorids, crocodylids and gavialids shall be further tested on a
larger sample which would include a diversity of specimens that would be representative of
various species while nonetheless sharing a comparable size which would correspond to a
similar volumetric heat capacity.

325

4.2 The implication of the osteoderms in heat transfers

326 In a previous study, Farlow et al. (2010) measured the skin temperature of a *Caiman* 327 *latirostris* with an Infra-Red camera. These authors assessed that the temperature of the back 328 overlying the osteoderms was cooler than that of the skin between the osteoderms when the specimen was exposed to sunrays whether in a « cold » (air temperature: 16 °C) or in a 329 330 « warm » environment (air temperature: $25 \,^{\circ}$ C). Consequently, they assumed that relatively cool blood from the animal's core may preferentially be flowing to the osteoderms thus 331 332 exchanging heat with the surrounding environment. Within our experimental setting, our results show similar patterns after all « Aquatic » phases whereas we observed that the 333 334 crocodylian osteoderms are warmer than the adjacent non-ossified skin after a « Heating-Terrestrial » phase (including a basking spot set at 47 °C; Figs. 2&4). Even if this result may 335 336 appear controversial with the results published in Farlow et al. (2010), these new data lead to 337 argue that the osteoderm blood vessels do collect the external heat during a significant 338 warming period as assumed by these authors. Indeed, when Farlow et al. (2010) acquired the 339 yet published data, the environmental air temperature was comprised between 16 °C and 25 340 °C, therefore the osteoderms may not have been vascularized by a blood which was warm 341 enough to display high temperature spots like the ones we observed after the « Heating-342 Terrestrial » periods during our experimentation. We base this argument on the fact that the 343 Caiman latirostris physiological temperature shall be around 32 °C (estimation based on its 344 close relative Caiman crocodilus; Diffenbach, 1975) so this specimen may not have been observed in a condition in which it could have been potentially exposed to overheating. In 345

order to understand the thermal behavior differences between the osteoderms and the non-346 347 ossified dermis, a previous study has shown that the presence of the osteoderms does not modify the crocodylian skin thermal conduction if we do not consider the relative presence of 348 349 the blood vessels (Clarac et al., 2017b). Therefore, as a complementary approach, using the 350 ITIS foundation database (Hasgall et al., 2015), here we have calculated that the thermal 351 diffusivity of the blood is higher than the one of the tissues which either compose the soft skin 352 or the osteoderms (*i.e.* the compact bone, the cancellous bone, the red and the yellow marrow; 353 see supplementary data). Since the entire body of the crocodylians is covered with a 354 continuous layer of keratin (Trutnau and Sommerlad, 2006), we deduce that the observed 355 temperature contrast between the various anatomical regions must not either be due to variations in the skin reflectivity but indeed to the relative presence of blood vessels which 356 357 has a main consequent influence on the global skin thermal diffusivity. In a same manner, the 358 cutaneous water loss which is influenced by both the environmental humidity and temperature 359 variations (Davis et al., 1980) should be homogenous along the entire skin surface since the 360 osteoderms are always covered by a portion of dermis and by the epidermis so they can not 361 either modify the skin surface temperature by constituting a fence to the evaporative water 362 loss (Clarac et al., 2018; Dubansky and Dubansky, 2018). Even if the dorsal and the caudal 363 paramedian osteoderms must partially warm up faster than both the flanks and the lateral side 364 of the tail due to their closer position to the basking light during warming, our results clearly 365 show that the nuchal osteoderms also warm up faster than the nuchal surrounding skin 366 although these two neighboring anatomical regions are equidistant to the basking light (Fig. 367 2B; Fig. 4 A&B). Therefore, the distance to the sun rays is not either the main component 368 which explains the contrast in the temperature variations between the parts of the skin which 369 present osteoderms and the parts of the skin which do not. A close-up on the albino Alligator 370 mississippiensis nuchal region is presented in Figure 5 and reveals that the relative presence

371 of the superficial blood vessels (which is observable by transparency through the skin) 372 matches with the thermal contrast between the osteoderms and the surrounding skin. 373 Consequently, we deduce that the relative presence of the blood vessels is well the main 374 component which explains the difference in the thermal behavior between the parts of the skin which show osteoderms and the parts of the skin which do not. In this regard, an other recent 375 376 study has shown that the osteoderms (including their apical ornamentation) are more 377 vascularized than the surrounding non-ossified dermis (Clarac et al., 2018). These data lead us 378 to argue that the heat transfers through the osteoderms are based on the circulation of the 379 blood in the peripheral vessels (Seidel, 1979; Farlow et al., 2010): a system which relies on 380 both the heat conduction and the thermal convection of a fluid flow (Jiji, 2009). Concerning 381 the role of the vascular system in heat transfers within the core organism, previous authors 382 have proved that the crocodylian cutaneous blood flow is increased during basking periods 383 thanks to both the acceleration of the heart beat (Robertson and Smith, 1979; Seebacher and 384 Franklin, 2004, 2007) and the vasodilation of the peripheral vessels (Grigg and Alchin, 1976). 385 Moreover, the same authors assessed that in absence of external heat source, the blood flow is 386 redistributed from the dorsal surface to the core of the organism whereas its distribution to the 387 leg skin and muscle do not significantly change with thermal variations (Seebacher and 388 Franklin, 2007). This data would rather coincide with the fact that the axial parts of the body 389 which lack osteoderms are relatively warmer than the osteoderms when not exposed to 390 heating conditions; it would also explain why the stylopods and zeugopods rather remain at 391 relatively low temperatures with a least influence of the external temperature variations (Figs. 392 2&4). In regard of the synthesis of our results and as already assumed by several authors 393 (Seidel, 1979; Farlow et al., 2010; Owerkowicz, 2016), we confirm the hypothesis according 394 to which the crocodylian osteoderms play a role in the heat transfers between the organism and the environment through the set-up of a peripheral blood vessel network. 395

397 A recent study by Porter et al. (2016) has shown that the skull of the crocodylians 398 presents a vascular system which consists of several anastomosed dense plexuses which 399 potentially work as sites of thermal exchange. The blood vessel network is especially well 400 reticulated in the nasal region and further communicates with the braincase through the 401 median and lateral nasal veins which thus consist of a pathway passing by the neurosensory 402 tissues. All our results show that the snout is always colder than the skull table in disregard of 403 the environmental variations; this assessment suggests that the nose would systematically 404 behave as a site in which the heat would be capted and further driven to the braincase by the 405 nasal veins (Figs. 2, 4 & 5). Moreover, the superficial vessels of both the skull table and the 406 frontal could as well drive the warm blood to the braincase and further to the heart through the 407 dorsal longitudinal sinus. Our results show that the temperature of the skull (and noticeably 408 the skull table; Fig. 4) covaries with the osteoderms' temperature though showing less intense 409 variations. Since both of these anatomical regions are equally exposed to the heating beam 410 when basking in a terrestrial position, we assume that there may be a control of the blood flow in the skull which should differ from the osteoderms in order to avoid major temperature 411 412 variations in the most vital sensory organs (the eyes, the ears, the brain). In this regard, Porter 413 et al. (2016) have evidenced that the nasal vein bifurcates along two routes thus allowing to 414 shunt the blood flow. The first one is the medial route which forms a tributary of the olfactory 415 veins and dorsal longitudinal sinus (as already mentioned above) whereas the second one (the 416 lateral route) drains into the orbit via the supraorbital and ophthalmotemporal vein 417 anastomosis therefore joining the heart while avoiding the braincase sensory organs. 418 Consequently, we assume that the blood flow in the crocodylian skull may be shunted from 419 one pathway to the other depending on the external temperature in order to keep the brain and 420 the main sensory organs at a temperature which tends to reach the physiological optimum.

421

4.4 Evolutionary considerations

422	As mentioned in the introduction, the crown-crocodylians are ecto-poïkilothermic
423	vertebrates which evolved from ancestral Triassic forms which are assessed to be endothermic
424	(Ricqlès et al., 2003, 2008; Cubo et al. 2012; Legendre et al., 2013, 2016). The early
425	terrestrial pseudosuchians (but also later forms such as sebesuchians) only possessed two
426	rows of compact thus poorly vascularized osteoderms (Scheyer and Desojo, 2011; Cerda et
427	al., 2013; Irmis et al., 2013; Martin, 2014; Scheyer et al., 2014). At the Triassic-Jurassic
428	transition, the number of rows increased and formed a dorsal shield (sometimes also ventral)
429	in both the crocodyliforms and teleosaurids while they showed a higher degree of bone
430	ornamentation (apical sculpture; Clarac et al., 2015). In parallel with the osteoderms, the
431	degree of ornamentation of the skull also increased when the crocodyliforms and teleosaurids
432	transited to the semi-aquatic lifestyle (Clarac et al., 2017a). A recent study on extant
433	crocodylians has proved that the osteoderm apical ornamental pits increase the skin
434	vascularization by providing a superficial cluster of blood vessels (Clarac et al., 2018). Based
435	on a similar process, we hypothesize that the development of the skull ornamentation supplies
436	a peripheral vessel network which is involved in the basking heat capture like in the
437	osteoderms. Consequently, we assume that both the skull and the osteoderm vascularization
438	have played a functional role in the adaptation to the ectothermic amphibious lifestyle through
439	the set-up of a peripheral vascular network of which the blood flow is controlled by the
440	cardiac beat, the vasomotion and the shunt and of peripheral vessel pathways.

441

5. Conclusion

As previously hypothesized by several authors (Seidel, 1979; Farlow et al., 2010;
Owerkowicz, 2016; Porter el al., 2016; Clarac et al., 2017a; Clarac et al., 2018), both the skull
and the osteoderms are involved in the crocodylian ecto-poïkilothermic thermoregulation
through the set-up of a peripheral vascular network. Whether cranial or post-cranial, the

446 crocodylian dermal skeleton captures the external heat during basking thanks to the increase 447 of the blood flow which is controlled by both the cardiac activity (heart beat) and the 448 vasomotion. The warm blood is afterward redistributed to the core organism thus allowing the 449 vital organs to remain at an optimal physiological temperature when no longer exposed to a 450 heating source. As the skull temperature contrast remains constant between the anatomical 451 regions in disregard of the external temperature variations, we assume that there are shunting 452 blood pathways which help to maintain the braincase and the main sensory organs at an 453 optimal physiological temperature depending on the environmental variations. Nevertheless, 454 our results do not signify that the vascular system which is set-up through and straight above 455 the crocodylian dermal skeleton is exclusively involved in thermoregulation. Indeed, this 456 system may implicate other adaptative and/ or ontogenetic functions which rely on exchanges 457 between the plasma and the bone matrix such as egg shelling in females (Dacke et al., 2015) 458 and respiratory acidosis buffering during prolonged apnea (Jackson et al., 2003). 459 Consequently, the role of the crocodylian dermal skeleton vascular system in the ecto-460 poïkilothermic thermoregulation is probaly not exclusive and could therefore consist of an 461 exaptation which allowed a secondary transition from endothermy to ectothermy in 462 Pseudosuchia (Legendre et al., 2016).

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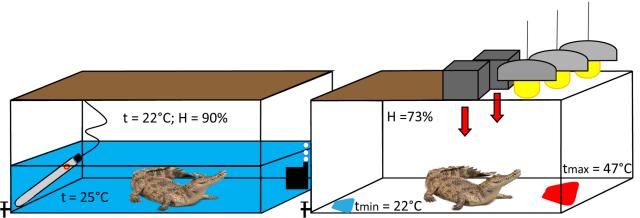
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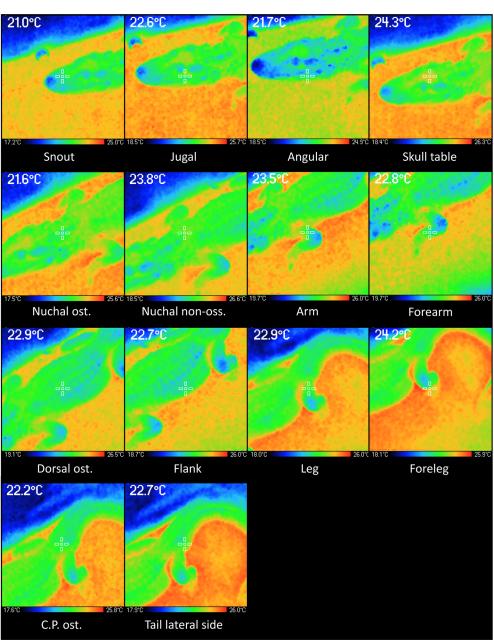
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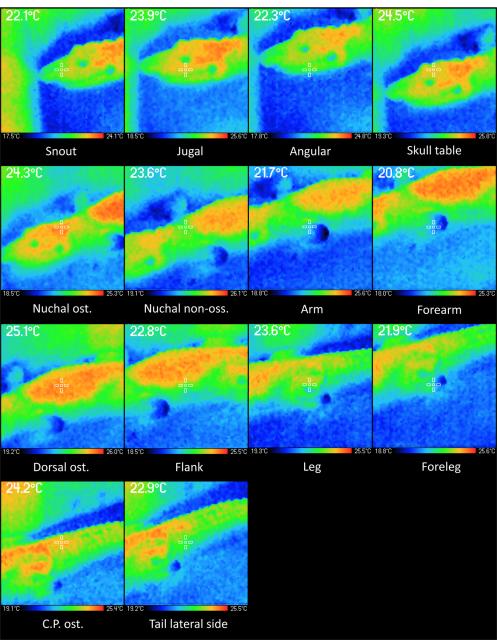
Figure 1: Experimental setting. On the left side: the « Aquatic » configuration; on the right side: the
« Heating-Terrestrial » configuration. Abbreviations: t: temperature; H: hygrometry (see text for
details).

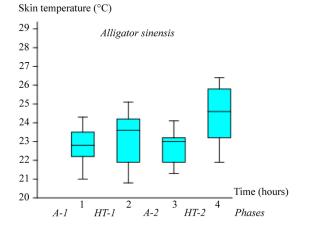
- 611 Figure 2A: Skin temperature above the fourteen diverse anatomical regions of interest in *Alligator*
- 612 *sinensis* after the first « Aquatic » phase (A-1). Abbreviations: S.Table: Skull Table; ost: osteoderms;
- 613 Nuchal non-oss.: non-ossified part of the Nuchal region; C.P. ost.: Caudal Paramedian osteoderms.
- Figure 2B: Skin temperature above the fourteen diverse anatomical regions of interest in *Alligator*
- 615 *sinensis* after the first « Heating-Terrestrial » phase (HT-1). Abbreviations: S.Table: Skull Table; ost:
- osteoderms; Nuchal non-oss.: non-ossified part of the Nuchal region; C.P. ost.: Caudal Paramedian
- 617 osteoderms.
- Figure 3: Boxplot of the recorded temperature on the fourteen regions of interest. Abbreviations: A-1:
- 619 Aquatic-1; HT-1: Heating-Terrestrial-1; A-2: Aquatic-2; HT-2: Heating-Terrestrial-2.
- 620 Figure 4A: Temperature variations above the diverse anatomical regions of interest in *Alligator*
- 621 *sinensis*. Abbreviations: HT-1: Heating-Terrestrial-1; A-2: Aquatic-2; HT-2: Heating-Terrestrial-2.
- 622 Abbreviations: S.Table: Skull Table; ost: osteoderms; Nuchal non-oss.: non-ossified part of the nuchal
- feed region; C.P. ost.: Caudal Paramedian osteoderms; A.Skin: Part of the Axial body presenting no
- 624 osteoderm (resuming the nuchal region, the flanks, the lateral side on the tail). NB: The graph lines
- between the different plotted values simply indicate the sense of variation of the temperatue between
- two phases but do not mean that this type of variation is linear.
- 627 Figure 4B: Temperature variations above the diverse anatomical regions of interest in *Crocodylus*
- *niloticus*. Abbreviations: HT-1: Heating-Terrestrial-1; A-2: Aquatic-2; HT-2: Heating-Terrestrial-2.
- 629 Abbreviations: S.Table: Skull Table; ost: osteoderms; Nuchal non-oss.: non-ossified part of the Nuchal
- 630 region; C.P. ost.: Caudal Paramedian osteoderms; A.Skin: Part of the Axial body presenting no
- osteoderm (resuming the nuchal region, the flanks, the lateral side on the tail). NB: The graph lines

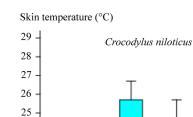
- between the different plotted values simply indicate the sense of variation of the temperature between
- two phases but do not mean that this type of variation is linear.
- 634 Figure 5: Temperature variations above the diverse anatomical regions of interest in *Alligator*
- 635 *mississippiensis* (see text for details). High vascular density areas are pointed with red arrows whereas
- low vascular density areas are pointed with green arrows. Abbreviations: S.Table: Skull Table; ost:
- 637 osteoderms; Nuchal non-oss.: non-ossified part of the Nuchal region; C.P. ost.: Caudal Paramedian
- 638 osteoderms.

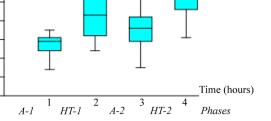


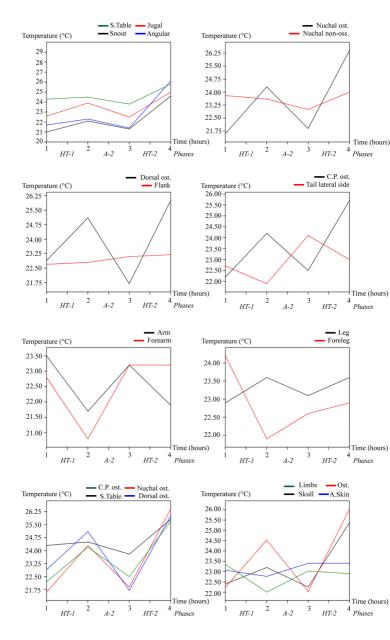


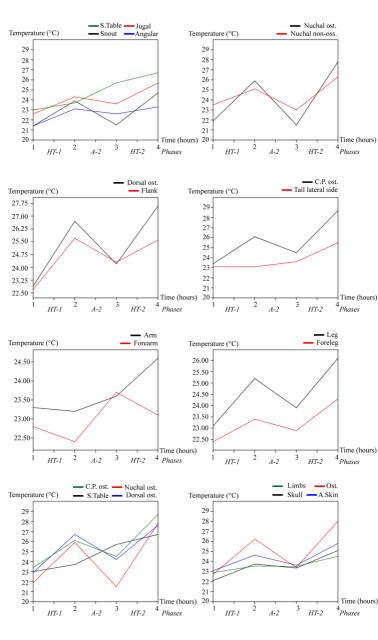


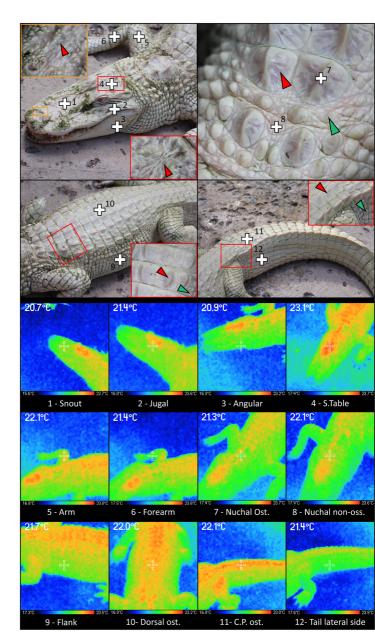












Family	Genus	Species	SVL (cm)	Full length (cm)	Weight (kg)	Sex	CITES number
Alligatoridae	Alligator	sinensis	50	107	4	Male	208 246 000 135 135
Alligatoridae	Alligator	mississippiensis	NA	180	NA	Female	ES-DE-00047/11I
Crocodylidae	Crocodylus	niloticus	48	96	6	Female	FRA250 228 500 026 372

Table 1: Sampled specimens with taxonomic references. Abbreviations: SVL: Snout Ventral Length; NA: Non-Attributed.

			A.sin					oticus		A.mississippiensis
		Temperature (°C)Temperature (°C)				Temperature (°C)				
	Phase	A-1	HT-1	A-2	HT-2	A-1	HT-1	A-2	HT-2	NA
Anatomical	Snout	21	22.1	21.3	24.6	21.4	23.9	21.5	24.7	20.7
regions	Jugal	22.6	23.9	22.5	25	22.6	24.3	23.6	25.7	21.4
	Angular	21.7	22.3	21.4	26.1	21.4	23.1	22.6	23.3	20.9
	S.table	24.3	24.5	23.8	25.8	23	23.7	25.7	26.7	23.1
	Nuchal ost.	21.6	24.3	21.9	26.4	21.9	25.9	21.5	27.8	21.3
	Nuchal	23.8	23.6	23	24	23.5	25.1	23	26.3	22.1
	Arm	23.5	21.7	23.2	21.9	23.3	23.2	23.6	24.6	22.1
	Forearm	22.8	20.8	23.2	23.2	22.8	22.4	23.7	23.1	21.4
	Dorsal ost.	22.9	25.1	21.7	26	22.9	26.7	24.2	27.6	22
	Lateral side	22.7	22.8	23.1	23.2	22.7	25.7	24.3	25.6	21.7
	Leg	22.9	23.6	23.1	23.6	23.1	25.2	23.9	26.1	21.5
	Foreleg	24.2	21.9	22.6	22.9	22.4	23.4	22.9	24.3	21
	C.P. ost.	22.2	24.2	22.5	25.7	23.4	26.1	24.5	28.7	22.1
	L.side.tail	22.7	21.9	24.1	23	23.1	23.1	23.6	25.5	21.4
Statistical	Mean	22.8	23.1	22.7	24.4	22.7	24.4	23.5	25.7	21.7
values	Median	22.8	23.2	22.8	24.3	22.9	24.3	23.6	25.7	21.5
	Std dev.	0.7	1.1	0.7	1.3	0.5	1.2	0.8	1.3	0.5
	Max	24.3	25.1	24.1	26.4	23.5	26.7	25.7	28.7	23.1
	Min	21	20.8	21.3	21.9	21.4	22.4	21.5	23.1	20.7

Table 2: Dataset. Abbreviations: A-1: Aquatic-1; HT-1: Heating-Terrestrial-1; A-2: Aquatic-2; HT-2: Heating-Terrestrial-2; NA: Non-Attributed; S.table: Skull table; ost: osteoderms; C.P.: Caudal Paramedian; L.side.tail: the Lateral side of the tail (on the anterior side of the caudal crest symphisis; see text for details); Std dev.: Standard deviation; Max: Maximum value; Min: Minimum value.

Inter-phase analysis	Wilcoxon-test	A-1 / HT-1	HT-1 / A-2	A-2 / HT-2
A. sinensis	p-value	0.47	0.39	0.01
C. niloticus	p-value	0.01	0.04	0.01

Table 3A: Inter-phase statistical comparisons. Abbreviations: A-1: Aquatic-1; HT-1: Heating-Terrestrial-1; A-2: Aquatic-2; HT-2: Heating-Terrestrial-2; see text for details.

Inter-specimen analysis	Wilcoxon-test	A-1	HT-1	A-2	HT-2
A. sinensis - C. niloticus	p-value	0.95	0.02	0.04	0.06

Table 3B: Inter-specimen statistical comparisons. Abbreviations: A-1: Aquatic-1; HT-1: Heating-Terrestrial-1; A-2: Aquatic-2; HT-2: Heating-Terrestrial-2; see text for details.