

07.12.2017

Professor Brian McGill,

Editor in Chief

Global Ecology and Biogeography

Dear Prof. McGill,

We attach a revised version of our manuscript '**Inconsistent patterns of body size evolution in co-occurring island reptiles**' (Ref. GEB-2017-0100; title modified according to referee's suggestion). The manuscript was reviewed by a new anonymous referee and the Editor, Dr. Ana Santos, added her own comments. We were happy to see the supportive review and thanks the editor and the referee for their important suggestions. We followed most of these and revised the manuscript accordingly. Below please find a point by point description of how we dealt with each comment. We hope you will find our manuscript is now at level and ready for publication in *Global Ecology and Biogeography*.

Sincerely,

Yuval Itescu on behalf of all authors

This is the author manuscript accepted for publication and has undergone full peer review but has not been through the copyediting, typesetting, pagination and proofreading process, which may lead to differences between this version and the [Version of record](#). Please cite this article as [doi:10.1111/geb.12716](https://doi.org/10.1111/geb.12716).

EDITOR'S COMMENTS TO AUTHORS

Editor: Santos, Ana

Comments to the Author:

First, I want to apologize for the delay in the editorial process. Sometimes it takes longer that we would like to, as it happened with your manuscript.

Your manuscript was evaluated by a referee that was not involved in the first round of reviews. I share his view of your paper, and I think it has improved greatly since your previous submission. This new reviewer suggests that you use an AIC based model selection. I think this is a good suggestion and it would strengthen your results, but I will leave it up to you to decide if you should include these analyses in the manuscript. What I strongly advise you to do is to follow his suggestion of highlighting more your general conclusions that the island rule is not universal.

We thank the editor for her supporting comments. As we specify below, we included AICc scores in a new appendix and highlighted in the abstract and in the concluding paragraph of the discussion that our results contrast the generality theory of size evolution on islands.

Dr. Ana Santos, Editor

REVIEWER COMMENTS TO AUTHORS

Referee: 1

Comments to the Author

Referee: 2

Comments to the Author

This is a nice work. I didn't get to review the first round, but this version seems robust and straightforward, so to me it was a good decision to eliminate the additional analyses on the species with more data. I've got two significant comments, and a few small ones.

To me the lack of general predictive power of your predictors over all species is the most important result, so I'm really glad you chose to put this in front and make a paper about the lack of general "island rules". By highlighting that responses differ among species rather than trying to explain each species separately based on correlations you make a great job, so I'm 100% in line with the importance of the paper and its timeliness. That is why I think you should highlight it a bit more, tweaking the text to put such heterogeneity in front, e.g. in the title, where I use "Heterogeneous" or "Non coherent" rather than "Divergent". Similarly, in the abstract the main conclusions need to start a straightforward sentence saying something like "There are no universal drivers of body size evolution on Aegean reptiles." And also that "this rejects/contradicts former theory". Some of this rewording is needed also in the discussion, although very little. In particular, you need to stress that you are rejecting former theory in the last paragraph, as part of your take-home message.

Thanks for this suggestion. We changed the text according to it.

To me the main problem remaining in the text is model selection. Although I would agree with you in that your selection of models based on R² scores provides sound insights on the lack of general drivers, so the conclusions will stand out, I found the reasoning not to use AIC scores a bit unconvincing. Since I'm not a biostatistician I could certainly live with it, but after reading your response to Diniz-Filho I wonder whether you used AIC in the correct way, for it penalizes the amount of variables in the model. And AICc scores are particularly suited for datasets with low sample size, as some of yours are. Here, the pick would be to compare models according to their Akaike weight; that is, the probability that a particular model is the most informative. I'm sure you'll have models with, say, 20 or 30% probability competing as the best model for several species. Anyway, I think you shouldn't abandon the information approach so quickly, and provide AICc results in the supplement, although perhaps not the raw results, which I concur, would be confusing.

As we stated in the text (and in the reply to referees in the previous round of revision), we are not comfortable with relying on AIC (or even AICc) scores to determine which model is the most informative, and Mac Nally et al.'s recent paper (Journal of Applied Ecology, 2017, "Model selection using information criteria, but is the 'best' model any good?" <http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/1365-2664.13060/abstract>) clearly and compellingly explains why: first, the model with the lowest AIC may simply be the best of a group of non-informative models (like the best of infectious diseases - you still do not want it), and second, the penalty AIC applies to adding additional parameters (2) is too modest. We now cite this paper in the text. We also added a paragraph of discussion regarding this point as we think our results serve as a good example for why to prefer p-value based model selection over information criteria based model selection for studies such as ours. Nevertheless, we accept the referee's suggestion to let the readers get our impression themselves, and now present AICc scores of the best models ($\Delta\text{AICc} \leq 2$) for each species in a new supplementary file.

To me the most compelling of your results, and actually the real reason why a frequentist approach is sound here, is your meta-analysis. So why not doing something similar based on AIC weights? AIC scores are not comparable among models based on different datasets, but AIC weights are if the same parameters are tested, so why not just summing all AIC weights per predictor across all species? Here the total weight of a predictor for a species it would be the sum of the AICw of all models where it is present. Given that all models are tested for AICw, the closer to 1, the more informative a variable is. And across all species, the closer to 16, the closer it is to be a general predictor, informative regardless of the species. I think I can hear you saying "but we have showed that with the meta-analysis", but I can also hear other readers saying "but they use R²s! Surely there would be general patterns if they had used AICs". So I still find quite useful to show that results are consistent across analytical paradigms. What this approach certainly does not provide is a pick on the homogeneity signs of the relationships, it just tells you about how often it is informative. But your work will be more trustworthy if it includes similar results from a different approach.

We thank the referee for this suggestion but think that using AIC weights to show what we have shown in the meta-analysis is somewhat confusing, especially since, as the referee rightly mentions, it provides no information about the direction of the effect of the predictor. Therefore, although we do show the AICc based models in Appendix 5, we prefer not to include the AIC weights analysis.

Besides that I have little to say. I really think that the decision of leaving out the more detailed analyses on a few species is sound. The current work is clear and straightforward, and stands out as a valuable contribution for GEB in my opinion, and these other analyses can be published elsewhere.

Some minor comments follow:

Abstract. In the methods you don't tell which kind of analyses you use.

Now added.

In line 52 I'd substitute "We analyse" for "We use linear models and meta-analyses to determine which predictors are more informative, analysing the data for all reptiles..."

Sentence rephrased.

Line 74. To be certain, here you refer to MacArthur & Wilson's Equilibrium Theory of Island Biogeography (ETIB). Currently island biogeography theory (ibt) includes many other topics, such as, e.g., that habitat heterogeneity within the island also increases species richness, to mention one you may be familiar with, or that increasing isolation and area determine a radiation zone where cladogenesis starts to be more important than anagenesis. No need to cite these latter theories, just rephrase and mention ETIB rather than just ibt.

We actually want to emphasize only the depauperate nature of islands, rather than point to any (often contentious) mechanism, so we added a citation for Darlington (1957) and retain just the citation for the 1963 paper of MacArthur and Wilson, rather than the more inclusive 1967 book

L242-243. Please show these results (as supplementary material), and rephrase this sentence (it is grammatically incorrect)

We now realized that the sentence as we originally phrased it may be a bit misleading: differences between males and females in their response to single predictors do exist in some of the study species, but our general conclusion, that different factors affect body size in different species, is maintained even if we test only females or only males. Since we want to avoid any confusion by our readers, and since the inter-sexual differences in body size evolution are not the focus of this study (but perhaps an interesting study question in its own right), but rather the interspecific differences, we omitted the sentence from the text.

L366. I'd start this paragraph with "Strikingly" or similar, to highlight your most important result (see my first comment).

We thank the referee for this suggestion, but we think that specifically here it is not appropriate to use “strikingly” or other such strong wording, as we are not the first that failed supporting Heaney’s prediction.

L483-486. Rephrase this sentence, it is fragmentary and difficult to read. I probably can make out for 2 or 3 separate sentences.

Done.

Figures 2 and 3. Please put variable names in the Y axes, so the reader does not have to jump continuously to the caption to understand the figure.

The names of the variables on the Y axes are now clearly marked in figures 2 & 3.

Author Manuscript

Research paper 1

Inconsistent patterns of body size evolution in co-occurring island reptiles. 2

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Key words: body size, competition, island area, isolation, lizards, predation, 21

snakes. 22

Short running title: Body size evolution in insular reptiles	23
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Number of words in the abstract: 300	27
Number of words in the main text: 5515	28
Number of references: 73	29
	30

ABSTRACT 31

Aim Animal body sizes are often remarkably variable across islands, but despite 32
 much research we still poorly understand both patterns and drivers of body-size 33
 evolution. Theory predicts that interspecific competition and predation pressures are 34
 relaxed on small, remote islands, and that these conditions promote body-size 35
 evolution. We studied body size variation across multiple insular populations of 16 36
 reptile species co-occurring in the same archipelago and tested which island 37
 characteristics primarily drive body-size evolution, what the common patterns are, 38
 and whether co-occurring species respond similarly to insular conditions. 39

Location Aegean Sea islands. 41

Time period 1984-2016. 43

Major taxa studied Reptiles. 45

Methods We combined field work, museum measurements, and a comprehensive 47
 literature survey to collect data on nearly 10,000 individuals representing eight lizard 48
 and eight snake species across 273 islands. We also quantified a large array of 49
 predictors to directly assess the effects of island area, isolation (both spatial and 50
 temporal), predation and inter-specific competition on body size evolution. We used 51
 linear models and meta-analyses to determine which predictors are informative for all 52
 reptiles, for lizards and snakes separately, and for each single species. 53

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Results Body size varies with different predictors across the species we studied, and patterns differ within families and between lizards and snakes. While each predictor influenced body size in at least one species, no general trend was recovered. As a group, lizards are hardly affected by any of the predictors we tested, whereas snake size generally increases with area, competitor and predator richness, and decreases with isolation.

Main conclusions No factor emerges as a predominant driver of Aegean reptile sizes. This contradicts theories of general body-size evolutionary trajectories on islands. We conclude that overarching generalizations over-simplify patterns and processes of reptile body-size evolution on islands. Instead, species' autecology and island particularities interact to drive the course of size evolution.

INTRODUCTION

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Identifying general pathways in the evolution of body size variation among insular 68
populations has received decades of attention, and multiple patterns and drivers have 69
been proposed and contradicted. Trait evolution on islands is often perceived as 70
strong, predictable and consistent across taxa (Van Valen, 1973; Lomolino, 2005; 71
Köhler et al., 2008). The most debated pattern is the “island rule”, suggesting insular 72
animals tend to evolve a medium body size (Van Valen, 1973; Lomolino, 2005; 73
Faubry & Svenning, 2016 cf. Meiri, 2007; Itescu et al., 2014; Leisler & Winkler, 74
2015 Insular faunas are generally depauperate, becoming species-poor as islands 75
become smaller and more isolated (e.g., Darlington, 1957; MacArthur & Wilson, 76
1963). Therefore, insular animals are thought to experience relaxed interspecific 77
competition and predation pressures, which, in turn, promote higher population 78
densities and consequently stronger intraspecific competition (Melton, 1982). 79
Together with resource limitation, these ecological processes are commonly thought 80
to drive body size evolution on islands (Case, 1978; Melton, 1982; Lomolino, 2005). 81
Heaney (1978) suggested that the effect of each of these factors changes with the size 82
of the focal island and animal. He hypothesized that interspecific competition is more 83
important to small animals than to large ones and that food limitation is more 84
important to large animals than to small ones. He also hypothesized that the effect of 85
predation is equally important at all sizes, but produces different trends at different 86
body sizes. Additionally, he hypothesized that food limitation is the most important 87
selection agent on small islands, predation on medium-sized islands, and interspecific 88
competition on large islands and the mainland. Alternative explanations for body size 89
variation on islands, suggesting indirect selection of these ecological factors on body 90

size, via direct selection on life history traits, have also been proposed (Adler & Levins, 1994; Palkovacs, 2003).

Area and isolation are the two main island characteristics thought to affect animal body size. Lomolino (2005) suggested that small species increase in size on smaller and more isolated islands while large species become smaller on such islands. Other studies, however, found minor support for such relationships in mammals (Meiri et al., 2005, 2006), snakes (Boback, 2003), and lizards (Meiri, 2007). Heaney (1978) predicted the body size of small mammals decreases while that of large mammals increases with increasing area (see also Melton, 1982; Marquet & Taper, 1998). He further predicted that medium sized animals are largest on intermediate-sized islands, becoming smaller on both smaller and larger islands (Heaney, 1978). However, Meiri et al. (2005) found no support for Heaney's prediction, or for a linear response of size to island area.

Isolation can be defined both in space and in time. Spatial isolation, usually calculated as island distance from the nearest mainland (e.g., Anderson & Handley, 2002, Meiri et al., 2010), reduces immigration (i.e., gene flow) rates and makes *in situ* adaptations more likely (Heaney, 2000). The effect of spatial isolation on body size is possibly indirect, reflecting factors such as predation and competition pressures (Heaney, 1978; Arnold, 1979). Anderson & Handley (2002) suggested that, where over-water dispersal is unlikely (as in the case of Aegean Sea reptiles, Foufopoulos & Ives, 1999), body sizes on close and far islands would not differ. Temporal isolation is thought to be associated with body size in systems where sufficient time since isolation has not yet passed to allow a unidirectional change towards an optimum to be completed (Anderson & Handley, 2002). However, accelerated trait evolution on

recently isolated islands has also been suggested (Aubret, 2015). As increased 115

isolation is expected to drive the same phenotypic changes as decreasing island area 116

(Adler & Levins, 1994), Heaney's (1978) prediction for island area is possibly true for 117

isolation as well (i.e., that intermediate-sized species are smallest at intermediate 118

isolation, and larger at low and high degrees of isolation). Furthermore, as Heaney 119

suggested, island area reflects predation and interspecific competition and therefore 120

the pattern suggested for island area should apply to predation and interspecific 121

competition, with the later possibly showing a stronger effect in small species. 122

Reptiles are well-known for their extreme-sized insular forms: giant tortoises and 123

Komodo dragons on one hand, and the world's smallest lizards (*Sphaerodactylus* 124

geckos and *Brookesia* chameleons; Hedges & Thomas, 2001; Glaw et al., 2012) and 125

snakes (Caribbean *Tetracheilostoma* threadsnakes; Hedges, 2008) on the other. 126

Whether reptile body sizes tend to grow or diminish on islands compared to the 127

mainland seems to be a clade-specific characteristic (see e.g., Case, 1978; Boback & 128

Guyer, 2003; Meiri, 2007, 2008). How island area and isolation affect reptile body 129

size evolution is unclear. Previous studies provided inconsistent results (cf. Soulé, 130

1966; Hasegawa & Moriguchi, 1989; Boback, 2003; Meiri, 2007; Meik et al., 2010; 131

Donihue et al., 2016). Release from predation is thought to drive size increase in small 132

species and size decrease in large species by relaxing direct selection on size-related 133

anti-predatory adaptations (Heaney, 1978; Vervust et al., 2007). Relaxed interspecific 134

competition allows niche shifts and promotes size changes (Soulé, 1966; Schoener, 135

1970; Case, 1978; Hasegawa, 2003; but see Dunham et al., 1978). Ecological release 136

(both from predators and interspecific competitors) is also thought to promote higher 137

population densities, and consequently stronger intraspecific competition and 138

aggressiveness (Pafilis et al., 2009; Donihue et al., 2016), which in turn favors large 139

sizes, although smaller size is expected where early maturity is advantageous (Melton, 1982; Palkovacs, 2003).

To date, insular reptile body size evolution studies either contrasted mainland and island species or populations (e.g., Case, 1978; Boback & Guyer, 2003; Meiri, 2007; Itescu et al., 2014), or examined the effects of some predictors across populations of a single species (e.g., Soulé, 1966; Meik et al., 2010) or genus (Dunham et al., 1978). It remains unclear which island characteristics primarily drive body size evolution, what the common patterns are, and whether co-occurring species respond similarly to insular conditions. Which factor is most influential is sometimes debated even for a single species (cf. Calsbeek & Cox, 2010, 2011; Losos & Pringle, 2011). Therefore, we approached these questions by directly quantifying the effect of multiple potential selection agents across multiple island populations of multiple reptile species within a single archipelago. Comparing species co-occurring within the same archipelago allows one to eliminate island-specific factors that vary across different regions such as latitude, climate, vegetation, primary productivity, etc., but remain relatively uniform among such co-occurring species (Meiri et al., 2008). This study design potentially enables us to distinguish between patterns driven by the island conditions we studied and those that are species-specific.

We assembled a database of unprecedented coverage encompassing body size data for nearly 10,000 individuals of 16 reptile species (eight lizard and eight snake species), from 273 islands in the Aegean Sea. These islands vary widely in area, isolation and faunal composition. Body size in reptile populations on these islands also varies greatly (and in some species even reaches the maximal documented size, Itescu et al., 2016), making this system ideal to study size evolution on islands. We aimed to test

several hypotheses: 1. Small species increase in size while large species become smaller as islands decrease in area, increase in isolation (in time and space), and harbor fewer predators and competitors for the focal species (Heaney, 1978; Lomolino, 2005); 2. Medium sized species are largest on intermediate-sized islands and intermediate degrees of isolation, predation and competition (Heaney, 1978); 3. Interspecific competition affects small species more strongly than large species while the effect of predation is not size-dependent (Heaney, 1978); 4. Body size patterns on islands are consistent across taxa (Lomolino, 2005; Köhler et al., 2008).

METHODS

Study system

The Aegean Sea has several thousand islands varying across six orders of magnitude in area. Their geological histories are diverse (Lymberakis & Poulakakis, 2010) and the landscapes are a patchwork of dwarf Mediterranean scrub (locally called ‘phrygana’), sclerophyllous evergreen maquis and agricultural areas (Fielding et al., 2005). Consequently, faunal composition and resource availability vary greatly across islands. Fifty reptile species inhabit Aegean Sea islands, with the gecko *Mediodactylus kotschy* and the lacertid *Podarcis erhardii* being most common, inhabiting even very small islets (Valakos et al., 2008).

Data collection

We measured specimens in the field during spring and summer periodically over 33 years (1984-2016). We further measured specimens in eight museum collections (Zoologische Staatssammlung München, Zoologisches Forschungsmuseum Alexander Koenig in Bonn, Natural History Museum of Crete, Goulandris Natural History

Museum, British Natural History Museum, French National Museum of Natural History, Museum of Comparative Zoology at Harvard University, and Yale Peabody Museum of Natural History). Finally, we comprehensively surveyed literature and recorded body size information for as many Aegean island reptiles as possible (data were extracted from 97 sources; see Appendix 1 for a list). We recorded sex and body size for 9951 adult individuals of eight lizard and eight snake species originating from 273 islands (Table 1, Appendix 2). We used the most commonly reported size indices: snout-vent length (SVL) for lizards, and total length for snakes. Mean body mass for each species was calculated from data we recorded in the field and from the literature. To ensure our use of multiple data sources did not bias the results, we compared the mean body size of specimens measured in museum collections and specimens measured in the field for several islands. We compared only islands from which we recorded body size data of at least five males and five females for each data source. For the two species with sufficient data we found no differences between sources (*P. erhardii*: field mean SVL=61.05 mm, museum=60.43 mm, n=38 islands, t=1.22, p=0.23; *M. kotschyi*: field=43.35 mm, museum=43.68 mm, n=25, t=-1.05, p=0.30). We therefore pooled museum, literature and field data in all further analyzes. Following most island biogeography studies (studies of body size included; e.g., Boback, 2003; Lomolino, 2005; Meiri et al., 2005), we tested the distance from the nearest mainland as an index of spatial isolation. However, for land-bridge island systems this index may not adequately quantify effective isolation (Itescu, 2017), especially in the Aegean Sea archipelago (Foufopoulos & Ives, 1999). Therefore we also studied the distance from the closest larger island and a temporal isolation index, the time since isolation. Distances were calculated using Google Earth tools. Periods of isolation for islands isolated during the past 20,000 years (since the end of the last

glacial maximum – "LGM") were calculated by crossing data for the maximum depth 212
between a focal island and the last landmass to which it was connected with regional- 213
specific charts of sea-level change since the LGM (see Foufopoulos & Ives, 1999; 214
Foufopoulos et al., 2011). Maximum depths were drawn from fine resolution 215
bathymetric maps of the Hellenic Navy Hydrographic Service 216
(www.hnhs.gr/geoindex/). Estimations were calculated to a one year resolution, and 217
we did not round values although we acknowledge and do not presume our method 218
can accurately estimate isolation time at such a fine resolution. Temporal isolation of 219
islands isolated earlier than the LGM were assembled from the literature (Appendix 220
3). We assembled island-specific faunal lists based on the literature and our own field 221
observations to count the potential predator and competitor species of each focal 222
population. Predators were defined as all mammals and reptiles likely to prey upon 223
focal species (Appendix 4). Birds were excluded since their mobility across islands 224
and their seasonal migration allows them to hunt well away from their breeding sites, 225
making it impossible to create reliable island-specific lists. To ensure that excluding 226
birds did not significantly affect our predator richness values we tested the correlation 227
between predatory bird richness values and the combined counts of predatory 228
mammal and predatory reptiles across 41 islands for which we did have reasonably 229
reliable predatory bird lists (Itescu et al., 2017). The correlation coefficient (r) was 230
0.90 ($p < 0.01$). We therefore feel confident to exclude bird counts from our database. 231
We could not quantify potential predatory arthropods (e.g., spiders, scorpions, 232
centipedes) since reports on either predation on reptiles by arthropods, and island 233
specific faunal list for them are too rare. Competitors were defined as other lizards 234
(for lizards) or other snakes (for snakes), assuming that juveniles of large species 235
potentially compete with adults of smaller species. 236

Analyses 237

We examined 16 reptile species for which we had measurements of at least three 238
 individuals per population sampled across at least eight islands. This approach 239
 allowed us to maximize the number of species and populations as well as the range of 240
 islands and hence, maximize variation in the predictor variables. To avoid size biases 241
 due to sexual size dimorphism, we calculated population mean body size by averaging 242
 male and female means. Only for *Ablepharus kitaibelii* we used a mean of all 243
 individuals regardless of sex since reliably determining their sex in the field in a non- 244
 invasive manner is extremely difficult. 245

We first explored for each species whether the relationship of body size with each of 246
 the six island characteristics (island area, distance from the mainland, distance from 247
 the closest larger island, time since isolation, predator richness, and competitor 248
 richness) is linear or curvilinear. To test Heaney's (1978) prediction that the 249
 relationship between size evolution of species and each of the predictor variables is 250
 affected by the species body size we regressed the correlation coefficient of the 251
 relationship between body size (i.e. body length) and each of the six predictor 252
 variables, against log-transformed body mass of each species. We expected to find a 253
 positive relationship where Heaney's prediction holds, since it asserts small species 254
 would show negative body size-predictor slopes, medium-sized species would have 255
 slopes equal to zero, and large species show positive slopes (see Meiri et al., 2005). 256

To test Heaney's prediction that interspecific competition is more important for small 257
 species than for large species while predation is equally important across all size 258
 classes, we regressed the absolute value of the correlation coefficients against log- 259
 transformed body mass. Here we expected to find a significant negative trend for 260

interspecific competition and no trend for predation if the prediction holds. We used 261
body mass as the predictor variable in these analyses since it is comparable across 262
taxa, eliminating biases driven by body shape, and therefore is more suitable for inter- 263
specific comparisons than body length (Feldman & Meiri, 2013; Feldman et al., 264
2016). We then took a meta-analytic approach to explore whether any island 265
characteristic significantly affects body size across all reptiles we studied in general or 266
across each suborder (snakes and lizards) separately. We conducted DerSimonian- 267
Laird random-effect meta-analysis of correlation coefficients (r) of the linear 268
regressions of body size against each predictor variable in all species as effect sizes, 269
for each group separately. We used the correlation coefficients from regressions of 270
 \log_{10} -transformed body size (against tested predictors) for all species, to standardize 271
the r values we analyzed. The meta-analyses were performed using the 'metacor' R 272
package (Laliberté, 2011). Finally, we examined for each species which of the six 273
island characteristics comprise the model that best predicts its body size on islands 274
and compared the selected best models across species. To this end we performed a 275
multiple regression test for each species, followed by a backward-stepwise model 276
selection procedure based on p -values ($\alpha < 0.05$), using both linear and quadratic terms. 277
We avoided using the Akaike information criteria for model selection (AIC or AICc 278
scores) because the models with the lowest scores often had predictors which were 279
poorly associated with size (i.e. had p values > 0.05 when significance levels were 280
estimated), making them non-informative (models with the lowest scores merely 281
being the best of a collection of poor models; Arnold, 2010; Mac Nally et al., 2017). 282
Thus, the much maligned p -value approach proved more conservative. Nevertheless, 283
we present the AICc-based best models for each species in Appendix 5 to highlight 284
that our general conclusions are robust for using different model-selection approaches. 285

We avoided over-parameterization by limiting models to include a maximum of three data points (i.e., islands) per tested predictor. We discarded predictors which were highly co-linear with others (variance inflation factor ≥ 5) in the same model. To meet the assumptions of parametric tests we log₁₀-transformed island area, time since isolation, and where needed, body size (residual distributions of six of the 16 species were not normal before transformation; Shapiro-Wilk normality test) in all analyses. In all cases where we analyzed correlation coefficients (r) as the dependent variable we used the r values from regressions of log₁₀-transformed body size (against tested predictors) for all species to standardize the analyzed values.

RESULTS

The best models for body size were highly inconsistent across species. Each of the predictors we tested was correlated with the body size of at least one species, but most predictor-body size relationships were non-significant, and no predictor was important for all species (Table 1). We found 15 different models (in terms of variables included and trend signs) across the 16 studied species. Only the snakes *Elaphe quatuorlineata* and *Vipera ammodytes* shared a similar model. For two snake species (*Eirenis modestus* and *Natrix natrix*) no predictors were significant. Explanatory power and effect sizes of each predictor varied greatly across the 16 species examined, within snakes and lizards separately, and even within families (Table 2). In only one out of 16 reptile species (the snake *Telescopus fallax*) was a quadratic model of body size for island area significant, and only five species showed a significant linear relationship (three positive and two negative) between size and area, when area was tested in univariate models (Fig. 1; see full univariate model statistics in Appendix 6). Following model selection, *T. fallax* still showed the same quadratic pattern, and

significant linear relationships emerged only in lizards (positive in two species and 310
negative in four). In fact, for lizards island area was the most frequently significant 311
predictor. For snakes, distance from the mainland was the most frequently significant 312
predictor, negatively correlated with body size in three species and positively so in 313
one. 314

When we regressed the correlation coefficient (r) from the regression of body size 315
against each predictor variable in each study species against its log body mass, we 316
found a significant negative relationship for the three isolation indices (distance from 317
the mainland, distance from the closest larger island and time since isolation). The 318
results for island area, predator richness and competitor richness in this analysis were 319
non-significant (Table 3, Fig. 2). Regressing the absolute values of the correlation 320
coefficients from body length-predator richness and body length-competitor richness 321
regressions against body mass ($n=16$) showed that the importance of both predation 322
(slope= 0.06 ± 0.07 , $p=0.40$, $R^2=0.05$) and interspecific competition (slope= 0.08 ± 0.06 , 323
 $p=0.23$, $R^2=0.10$) for body size variation is not size-dependent (Fig. 3). 324

The meta-analyses (Table 4) revealed that none of the predictors we tested had a 325
significant effect on body size in reptiles overall. Only the distance from the closest 326
larger island seemed to have a general (positive) effect on lizards (and a weak one at 327
that). Snake body size, however, significantly increased with island area, as well as 328
with competitor and predator richness, and declined with the distance from the 329
mainland and with time since isolation. The only predictor variable that did not 330
significantly affect snake body size was the distance from the closest larger island 331
(i.e., the opposite of the lizard pattern). 332

DISCUSSION 333

Aegean island reptiles show great idiosyncrasy in the way their sizes respond to the factors we studied. We found great pattern diversity among the species we studied, with effects of the predictor variables varying in sign, shape (linear, curvilinear) and significance. None of the predictor variables consistently affected even the majority of species, and a comparison of the best models across species showed that nearly all species were affected by a different combination of factors. Very few consistent patterns emerged, except that most predictors were uninformative for most species (a consistency of sorts). In line with this finding, the meta-analysis of effect sizes showed that none of the three isolation indices significantly drives insular body size of the studied reptiles in a particular direction (i.e., patterns are inconsistent across species). Island area, predator richness, and competitor richness likely have no general effect on insular reptile body size. Our results also revealed striking differences in the response of body size on islands to environmental conditions in lizards and those in snakes. That said, small reptile species tend to become larger on more isolated islands, while large species tend to become smaller as geographic and temporal isolation increases

A common perception in island biogeography is that as islands get smaller and more isolated, the effects of the insular environment on the traits of their inhabitants intensify (Melton, 1982; Filin & Ziv, 2004; Lomolino, 2005). However, when the effects of area and isolation on reptile body size are directly tested, results are often inconsistent. For snakes, Hasegawa & Moriguchi (1989) found a negative correlation between body size and island area, Boback's (2003) meta-analysis revealed no correlation between them, and Meik et al. (2010, 2012) found a strong positive correlation in speckled rattlesnakes (*Crotalus mitchellii*). Our meta-analysis results for snakes in general support the findings of Meik et al. (2010, 2012), but for most

species we studied (seven out of the eight species) island area is not a particularly 359
important predictor of body size according to model selection (for *Telescopus fallax* it 360
is, but the relationship with body size is hump-shaped). Boback (2003) and Meik et al. 361
(2010) found no association between size and either temporal or geographic isolation 362
whereas we found a negative relationship. The frequent inclusion of island area in the 363
best models of lizards (for seven out of eight species) is somewhat surprising 364
considering results of previous studies (Soulè, 1966; Dunham et al., 1978; Losos et 365
al., 2004; Meiri, 2007, but see Donihue et al., 2016). However, the fact that the 366
direction of the relationship changes across species points to no general trend. 367

We cannot support most of Heaney's (1978) predictions in the case of reptiles. It is 368
clear that none of the island characteristics we examined drives reptile body size 369
patterns in the predicted way. Moreover, isolation, regardless of the index tested, 370
shows the opposite patterns. These results highlight a role of island isolation in 371
driving reptile body size evolution (Van Valen, 1973; Lomolino, 2005). Island area, 372
however, in contrast to theory (Heaney, 1978; Lomolino, 2005), has no overall effect 373
on patterns of reptile body size variation on islands, at least in the Aegean Sea 374
archipelago. Our results also refute Heaney's (1978) prediction that interspecific 375
competition influences small species more strongly than large species, but supports 376
his prediction that the importance of predation for size variation on island is not size- 377
biased. 378

Surprisingly, we only found few, weak effects of biotic interactions. As others have 379
used island area and isolation as proxies for biotic effects and found significant 380
associations with body size (Lomolino, 2005), we expected that testing the effect of 381
the biotic interactions directly would result in stronger patterns. This, however, 382
proved false. Predator and competitor richness did not affect body size of most of our 383

study species (less than a quarter of the species had these factors included in their best 384
model). For snakes, but not for lizards or for reptiles in general (i.e., as a group), the 385
meta-analysis showed a tendency towards larger sizes where predator and competitor 386
richness is greater. We think the weak effect of competitor and predator richness 387
implies that maybe many, possibly inefficient, competitors and predators do not 388
necessarily impose a stronger selection pressure than one or two dominant 389
competitors\predators. Therefore, we suspect that despite its common use as a 390
predation pressure index in the literature (e.g., Pérez-Mellado et al., 1997; Cooper et 391
al., 2004), predator richness poorly reflects predation intensity (Meiri et al., 2005; 392
Itescu et al., 2017). Similarly, competitor richness may be a weak index of 393
competition intensity (Meiri et al., 2014). Another possibility is that significant 394
evolutionary changes are apparent only on predator-free, rather than predator-poor, 395
islands. 396

Two important factors that we did not test in this study but are often thought to shape 397
body size evolution on islands are intraspecific competition and resource limitation 398
(Case, 1978; Melton, 1982). For example, gigantism on islands has been explained by 399
the need to evolve a large size under conditions of stronger intra-specific competition, 400
where predation pressure is low (Pafilis et al., 2009). Territoriality, which involves 401
defending resources against conspecifics and characterizes some of our study species, 402
is also thought to be associated with larger sizes on islands (Case, 1978; Keehn et al., 403
2013, but see Case & Schwaner, 1993). Richer resources, in terms of prey size, prey 404
diversity, and prey availability are usually associated in reptiles with increased body 405
sizes on islands as well, especially for snakes (Schwaner, 1985; Shine, 1987; 406
Hasegawa & Moriguchi, 1989; Hasegawa, 2003; Boback, 2003; Meiri, 2007, 2008). 407

Furthermore, resource limitation may drive cannibalism in insular reptiles, 408
consequently selecting for larger body sizes (Pafilis et al., 2009). 409

While body size variation on islands is commonly examined under a framework of 410
adaptations, one cannot rule out alternative possibilities such as habitat-driven plastic 411
phenotypic responses (in contrast to adaptive genetic response) or founder effects. 412
These possibilities seem especially relevant in our study system, considering the 413
minor effect commonly suggested selection agents have on reptile body size patterns. 414
For example, individual growth rates can vary as a result of genetic changes (i.e., 415
adaptation) or plastic changes (e.g., more food permits faster growth). There are 416
indications that plastic growth rate variability across insular populations resulting 417
from variation in resource availability may produce non-adaptive body size 418
differences (Case, 1976; Forsman, 1991; Madsen & Shine, 1993). Additionally, where 419
predators are rare, foraging and basking times may increase, thereby allowing 420
enhanced growth. Of course, direct selection on growth rates rather than on body size 421
per se (e.g., due to ontogenetic differences in food limitation, competition intensity or 422
size-biased predation pressure) may also drive population-level body size variation 423
(Aubret, 2012). Vincent et al. (2009) proposed that body size variation in snakes is no 424
more than an evolutionary spandrel, with gape size being the true trait under selection. 425

Another alternative non-adaptive explanation for body size variation across 426
populations is that where adult mortality rates are low (e.g., where predation is low) 427
larger adult sizes are attained because individuals survive longer and reptiles grow 428
throughout their lives (King, 1989; Hasegawa & Mori, 2008). Founder effects may 429
also have a role in shaping body size patterns, especially in small, remote and young 430
islands (Kolbe et al., 2012). Thus body size variation is not necessarily or solely 431

adaptive, and novel approaches (Diniz-Filho & Raia, 2017) may allow better 432
discrimination between adaptive and non-adaptive patterns in the near future. 433

An interesting and important pattern that emerged from our results is that lizards and 434
snakes, at the sub-order level, differ markedly in how their sizes respond to the factors 435
we studied. In fact, we found they show an exactly opposite picture to each other. 436
Lizard body size shows no general response to island conditions, except for a weak 437
tendency to decline with distance from the closest larger island. In contrast, snake 438
body size responds to most factors apart from distance from the closest larger island. 439
It tends to increase with island area, competitor richness and predator richness, and to 440
decline with distance from the mainland and with time since isolation. Generally, the 441
patterns found for snakes follow the common predictions regarding insular evolution 442
in large species (Heaney, 1978). Interestingly, however, those of lizards do not follow 443
the patterns predicted for small species (Heaney, 1978), in the most part. The patterns 444
we found for each of the two groups separately, suggest that the overall effect of 445
isolation on reptile body size is somewhat complex. Likely, the negative trend in the 446
cases of the distance from the mainland and time since isolation are driven by the 447
tendency of snakes (i.e., generally larger species) towards dwarfism as these factors 448
increase. In contrast, the negative trend for the distance from the closest larger island 449
is probably driven by the tendency of lizards (i.e., generally smaller species) to grow 450
larger on more remote islands. At this point we cannot discern the reasons different 451
isolation indices affect one group more strongly than the other. However, we 452
speculate that either the effect of isolation reflects another factor or combination of 453
factors that affect lizards and snakes differently (e.g., the absence of rats on remote 454
islands, which offer quality food for snakes, but possibly prey upon lizards and their 455
eggs), or that the variation of one group is adaptive, while that of the other is led by 456

strong founder effect signals or is non-adaptive. Inconsistent patterns of lizard and 457
snake body size evolution on islands have been shown before (e.g., the island rule, cf. 458
Boback & Guyer, 2003 for snakes and Meiri, 2007 for lizards). 459

Conducting a comparative study of such a wide scope as this one will always create 460
logistic and methodological challenges and several caveats should be noted. The role 461
of shared ancestral condition in shaping body size variation on islands needs to be 462
addressed by comparing phylogenetic and non-phylogenetic models. However, the 463
population-level phylogenies currently available for the studied species did not allow 464
us to robustly examine this aspect. Therefore, we highlight the importance of island- 465
level molecular studies, which will generally facilitate further investigation of 466
evolutionary patterns. The nature of some of our predictors (e.g., competitor richness, 467
predator richness) necessitates some general assumptions (e.g., that a predator species 468
preys upon its prey species wherever they co-exist, and that we can correctly identify 469
all important competitors and predators). Since we consistently kept these 470
assumptions regarding all species and islands, we are confident they have not biased 471
our results. Perhaps the most important drawback, and most challenging to face, is 472
small sample sizes. With almost 10,000 adult reptiles examined we still came quite 473
short in samples for some populations and for certain species. Several species (e.g., 474
Macrovipera schweizeri, *Blanus strauchi*, *Podarcis levendis*) simply occur on too few 475
islands to be properly analyzed. For the rest, an inherent trade-off exists between the 476
numbers of sampled islands and sampled individuals per island. Our main unit of 477
analysis was the population and therefore we aimed to maximize the number of 478
islands for each species (thus also maximizing the variance in predictor values). This, 479
however, may come at the expense of accurately assessing population-level mean 480
body sizes because for some islands we only had data from few individuals. We 481

acknowledge the possibility that low statistical power may have affected our results in 482
some cases. Yet, the general patterns and inconsistencies we found across species are 483
apparent even across the few best-sampled species, thus we have confidence our 484
conclusions are valid. Moreover, the number of species we examined and the number 485
of insular populations we sampled within each of these species are both of 486
unprecedented scope, at least for reptiles. We think this enables us to robustly draw 487
valid conclusions from our results. 488

Our results provide a compelling example for the statistical issue of which model- 489
selection approach to prefer. The best AIC (or AICc) models are often poor overall 490
and thus relying on AIC scores alone can be problematic for biological inference. For 491
example, using p-values we infer that none of the predictors we tested explains the 492
variation in body size of *Natrix natrix* and *Eirenis modestus*. Using AICc, we could 493
only show that there are multiple predictors that are equally good (i.e. equally bad in 494
these cases). In many cases the AICc method simply proves far less conservative than 495
the p-value based one (cf. models in Table 2 to those in Appendix 5). In no case did 496
the model, or undistinguishable group of models, with the lowest AICc contain fewer 497
predictors than the best model with only significant predictors (at $p < 0.05$). Often, 498
however, the models with the lowest AICc contained more predictors – including 499
predictors that the p-value based method rejected as uninformative (Appendix 5). We 500
think that, if anything, $p = 0.05$ is not conservative enough (e.g., Johnson, 2013; 501
Benjamin et al., 2017). Using a model selection method that is even more liberal 502
would have made us infer that many variables, that have the most tenuous relationship 503
with animal size evolution on islands, are actually important. We thus use p values not 504
because of any theoretical views about its merit, but because we prefer to err on the 505
side of caution. 506

The results of this study indicate that to a large extent different species respond 507
 idiosyncratically to the insular environment. Thus, reptile body size variation seems to 508
 be affected more by species identity than by island conditions, at least in this study 509
 system. This contradicts the theory asserting that evolutionary patterns of body size on 510
 islands are general across different taxa. The fact that none of the predictors we tested 511
 consistently affected a majority of the species, and that the best models differed 512
 greatly across species, highlights the importance of testing several potential driving 513
 mechanisms simultaneously, as we did, to prevent unjustified generalizations from 514
 being reached. We thus conclude that body size evolution on island is probably 515
 species- and island-specific, and generalizations over-simplify the complex patterns 516
 and processes of size evolution. This study elucidates the need for a major re-thinking 517
 of the insular evolution paradigm, away from island characteristics as monotonous 518
 predictors of animal trait evolution, and into the need to quantify relevant ecological 519
 effects for different study systems. 520

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SUPPORTING INFORMATION	537
Appendix 1. Reference list for literature containing body size data.	538
Appendix 2. Data used for analyses.	539
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Appendix 5. Best models for each species based on AICc scores.	542
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DATA ACCESSIBILITY	544
All the data analyzed in this study is available in Appendix 2.	545
BIOSKETCH	546
Yuval Itescu is a PhD candidate interested in the biogeographic patterns and the	547
processes driving the evolution of morphological and life history trait variation of	548
animals in general and insular animals specifically. He is also fascinated by the	549
implications of the insular environment on the ecology of insular fauna.	550
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Table 1. Summary of data and the effects of each predictor on each species. (+) marks a positive correlation; (-) a negative correlation; (U) a positive quadratic relationship; (∩) a negative quadratic relationship; (NS) non-significant correlation; Full statistics of all models (with sample sizes) are given in Table 2. Population mean size range refers to SVL in lizards and total length in snakes. 747
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Group	Family	Species	Islands	Individuals	Population mean size range (mm)	Species mean body mass (g)	Area	Distance from the mainland	Distance from closest larger island	Time since isolation	Predators	Competitors
Lizards	Gekkonidae	<i>Hemidactylus turcicus</i>	27	270	42.04 – 59.89	3.3	+	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
		<i>Mediodactylus kotschy</i>	86	2071	33.52 – 49.88	2.8	-	NS	NS	NS	NS	∩
	Lacertidae	<i>Podarcis erhardii</i>	118	5323	52.87 – 75.23	6.0	-	-	+	NS	NS	NS
		<i>Podarcis gaigeae</i>	14	641	57.37 – 77.67	8.4	NS	-	+	-	NS	NS
		<i>Podarcis milensis</i>	8	116	53.65 – 67.09	4.1	-	NS	NS	+	NS	NS
		<i>Lacerta trilineata</i>	16	231	107.33 – 141.85	69.9	-	+	NS	NS	NS	NS
		<i>Ophisops elegans</i>	14	143	40.10 – 48.53	2.0	+	NS	NS	NS	-	NS
	Scincidae	<i>Ablepharus kitaibelii</i>	24	180	35.66 – 44.84	1.4	NS	+	NS	NS	NS	NS
Snakes	Boidae	<i>Eryx jaculus</i>	8	48	269.79 – 516.33	52.5	NS	-	NS	NS	-	NS
	Colubridae	<i>Dolichophis caspius</i>	11	72	1085.40 – 1886.00	625.2	NS	NS	NS	NS	-	+
		<i>Eirenis modestus</i>	8	33	386.00 – 543.00	19.8	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
		<i>Elaphe quatuorlineata</i>	11	70	1036.20 – 1525.61	846.9	NS	-	NS	NS	NS	NS
		<i>Natrix natrix</i>	11	55	566.25 – 910.00	91.6	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
		<i>Telescopus fallax</i>	12	56	477.43 – 903.33	44.9	∩	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
	Viperidae	<i>Vipera ammodytes</i>	15	152	281.33 – 592.25	28.1	NS	-	NS	NS	NS	NS
		<i>Vipera xanthina</i>	8	51	490.78 – 1493.33	276.0	NS	NS	NS	U	NS	NS

Table 2. Best models by species. n is island sample size. Body size was log10-transformed in species marked with (*).

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Group	Family	Species	n	Predictor	Slope	SE	Intercept	SE	P	Adjusted R ²	
Lizards	Gekkonidae	<i>Hemidactylus turcicus</i>	27	log area	1.91	0.59	46.37	1.01	<0.01	0.26	
		<i>Mediodactylus kotschyi</i>	86	log area competitor richness competitor richness (^2)	-0.86 2.81 -0.38	0.44 0.81 0.12	39.64	0.88	0.05 <0.01 <0.01	0.10	
	Lacertidae	<i>Podarcis erhardii*</i>	118	log area distance from the mainland log distance from closest larger landmass	(-)<0.01 (-)<0.01 0.01	<0.01 <0.01 <0.01	1.80	<0.01	0.02 0.01 0.04	0.07	
		<i>Podarcis gaigeae*</i>	14	distance from the mainland log distance from closest larger landmass log time since isolation	(-)<0.01 0.07 -0.08	<0.01 0.02 0.02	2.53	0.19	<0.01 0.01 <0.01	0.51	
		<i>Podarcis milensis</i>	8	log area log time since isolation	-2.23 2.06	0.74 0.68	48.63	3.80	0.03 0.03	0.75	
		<i>Lacerta trilineata</i>	16	log area distance from the mainland	-7.28 0.14	3.01 0.05	136.02	7.45	0.03 0.01	0.43	
		<i>Ophisops elegans</i>	14	log area predator richness	3.06 -0.67	1.00 0.28	41.61	1.28	0.01 0.04	0.36	
		Scincidae	<i>Ablepharus kitaibelii</i>	24	distance from the mainland	0.03	0.01	39.13	0.73	<0.01	0.30
		Snakes	Boidae	<i>Eryx jaculus</i>	8	distance from the mainland predator richness	-5.77 -26.20	0.55 3.56	1302.57	89.63	<0.01 <0.01
	<i>Dolichophis caspius</i>			11	predator richness competitor richness	-326.08 447.95	88.43 116.38	2751.25	391.42	0.01 <0.01	0.58
Colubridae	<i>Eirenis modestus</i>		8	none	-	-	-	-	-	-	
	<i>Elaphe quatuorlineata</i>		11	distance from the mainland	-2.79	0.48	1482.29	37.59	<0.01	0.77	
	<i>Natrix natrix*</i>		11	none	-	-	-	-	-	-	
	<i>Telescopus fallax*</i>		12	log area (log area)^2	0.55 -0.09	0.21 0.04	2.04	0.26	0.03 0.04	0.43	
Viperidae	<i>Vipera</i>		15	distance from the mainland	(-)<0.01	<0.01	2.74	0.04	<0.01	0.63	

Group	Family	Species	n	Predictor	Slope	SE	Intercept	SE	P	Adjusted R ²
		<i>ammodytes*</i>								
		<i>Vipera</i>	8	log time since isolation	-6.94	1.86	19.42	4.39	0.01	0.65
		<i>xanthina*</i>		(log time since isolation) ²	0.71	0.19			0.01	

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Table 3. Results of the regression of the correlation coefficient (r) between body size and each predictor variable in each of the 16 study species against its log body mass (g). Significant results are highlighted in bold.

Predictors	Slope	SE	Intercept	SE	P	R ²
Log area	0.14	0.13	-0.11	0.21	0.32	0.07
Distance from the mainland	-0.30	0.12	0.22	0.20	0.03	0.29
Log Distance from closest larger island	-0.20	0.08	0.33	0.13	0.03	0.30
Log Time since isolation	-0.30	0.09	0.36	0.15	0.01	0.42
Predator richness	0.20	0.11	-0.18	0.19	0.11	0.17
Competitor richness	0.13	0.11	-0.04	0.18	0.27	0.08

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Table 4. Meta-analysis results for all reptiles, only lizards and only snakes. P values are for $H_0: r=0$. Significant results are highlighted in bold.

Predictors	All reptiles			Lizards			Snakes		
	Mean r	Range (r)	P	Mean r	Range (r)	P	Mean r	Range (r)	P
Log area (km ²)	0.108	-0.106 – 0.313	0.16	-0.082	-0.326 – 0.173	0.27	0.410	0.146 – 0.620	<0.01
Distance from the mainland (km)	-0.201	-0.433 – 0.055	0.06	0.130	-0.129 – 0.372	0.16	-0.581	-0.777 – -0.281	<0.01
Log distance from closest larger island (km)	0.068	-0.070 – 0.204	0.17	0.152	-0.028 – 0.323	0.05	-0.124	-0.361 – 0.128	0.17
Log time since isolation (years)	-0.042	-0.224 – 0.142	0.33	0.077	-0.134 – 0.282	0.24	-0.263	-0.536 – 0.058	0.05
Predator richness	0.096	-0.098 – 0.284	0.16	-0.088	-0.278 – 0.108	0.19	0.443	0.182 – 0.645	<0.01
Competitor richness	0.147	-0.035 – 0.320	0.06	0.003	-0.190 – 0.196	0.49	0.423	0.179 – 0.618	<0.01

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Figure 1. Body size as a function of island area: **a** – *Mediodactylus kotschy*; **b** – 764
Hemidactylus turcicus; **c** – *Podarcis erhardii*; **d** – *Podarcis gaigeae*; **e** – *Podarcis* 765
milensis; **f** – *Ophisops elegans*; **g** – *Lacerta trilineata*; **h** – *Ablepharus kitaibelii*; **i** – 766
Dolichophis caspius; **j** – *Eryx jaculus*; **k** – *Eirenis modestus*; **l** – *Elaphe* 767
quatuorlineata; **m** – *Natrix natrix*; **n** – *Telescopus fallax*; **o** – *Vipera ammodytes*; **p** – 768
Vipera xanthina. Body size index is: SVL for species a, b, e, f, g, h; Log SVL for 769
species c, d; Total length for species i, j, k, l; Log total length for species m, n, o, p. 770
Full trend lines indicate a significant relationship ($p < 0.05$). 771

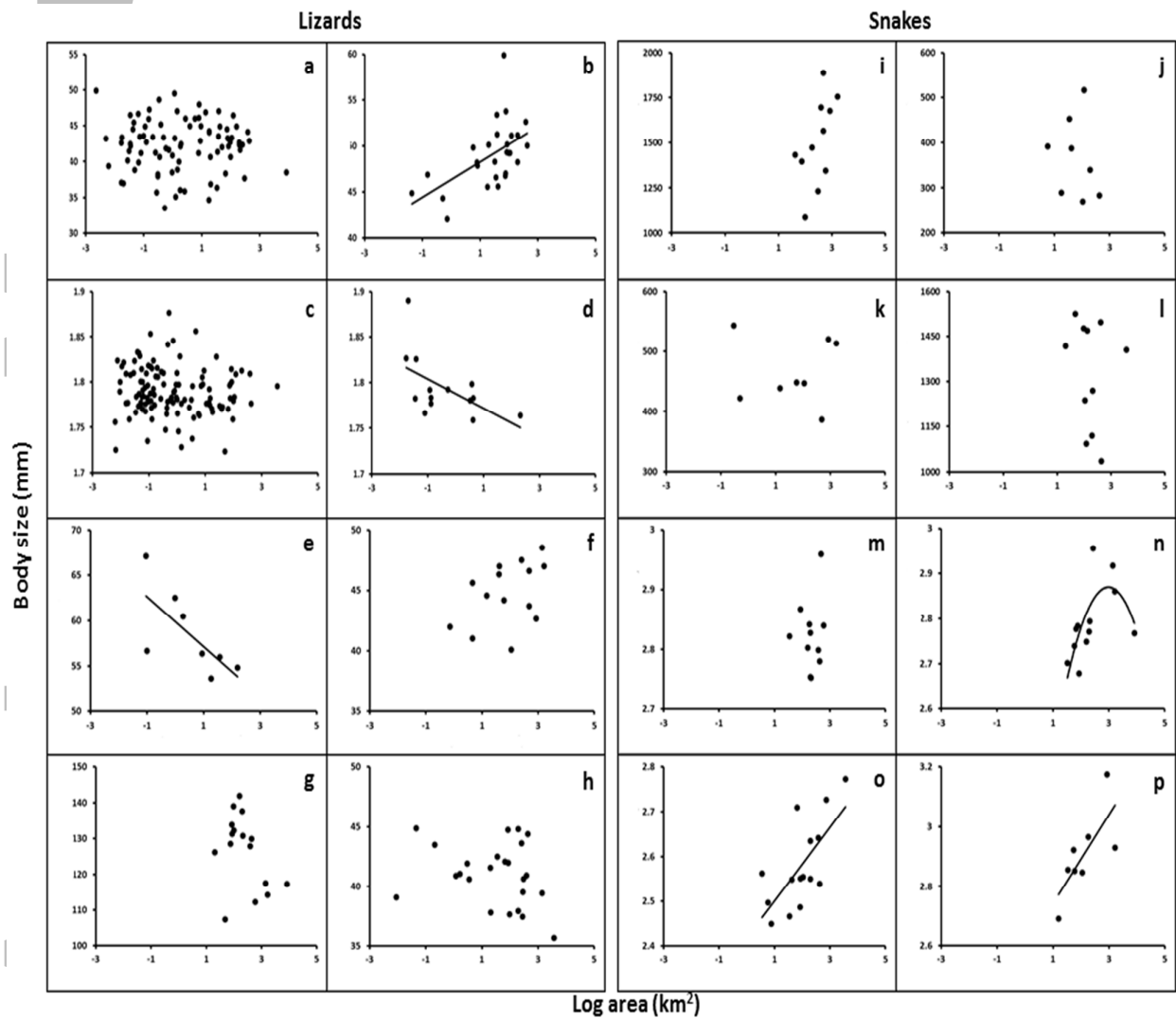
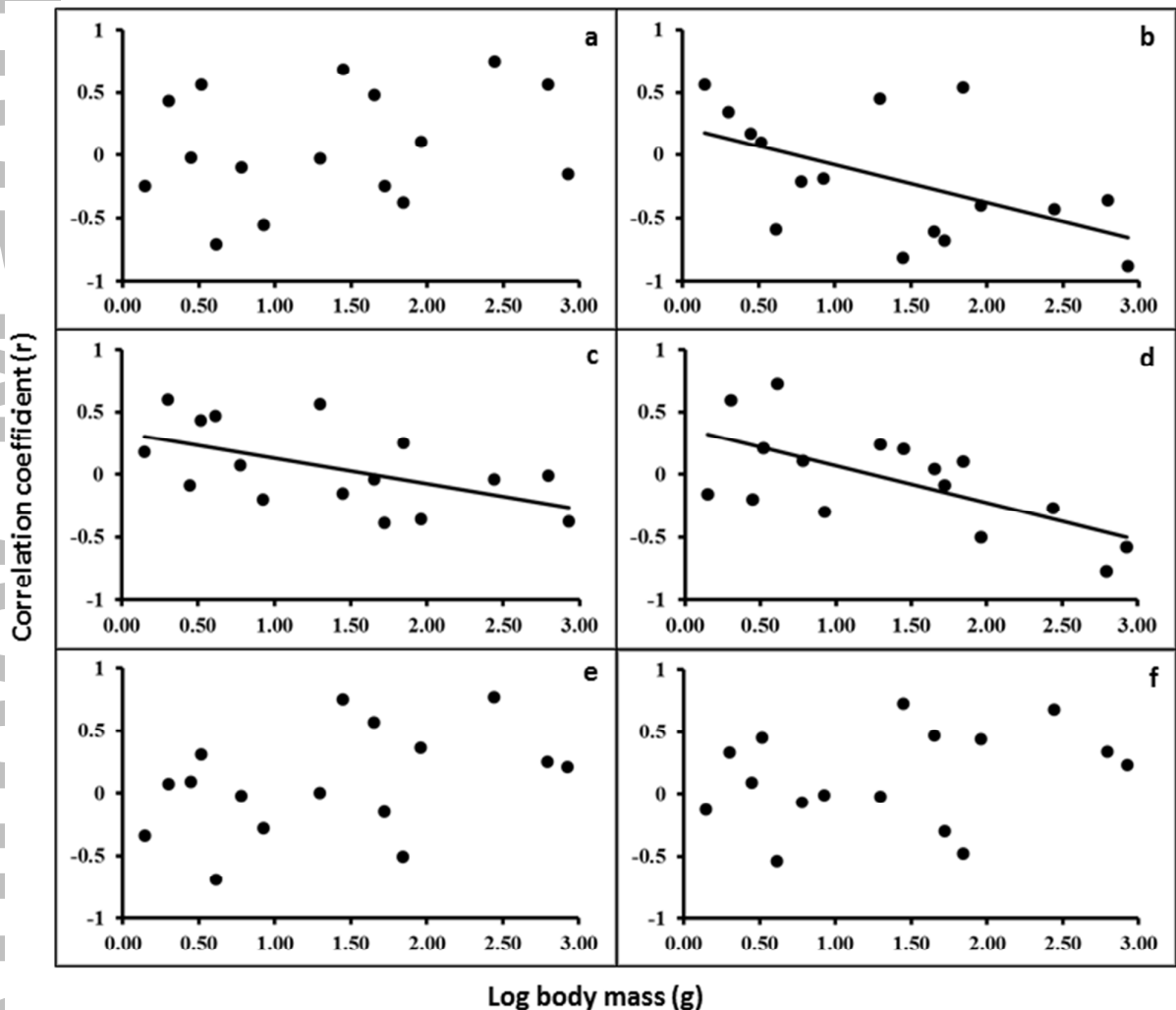
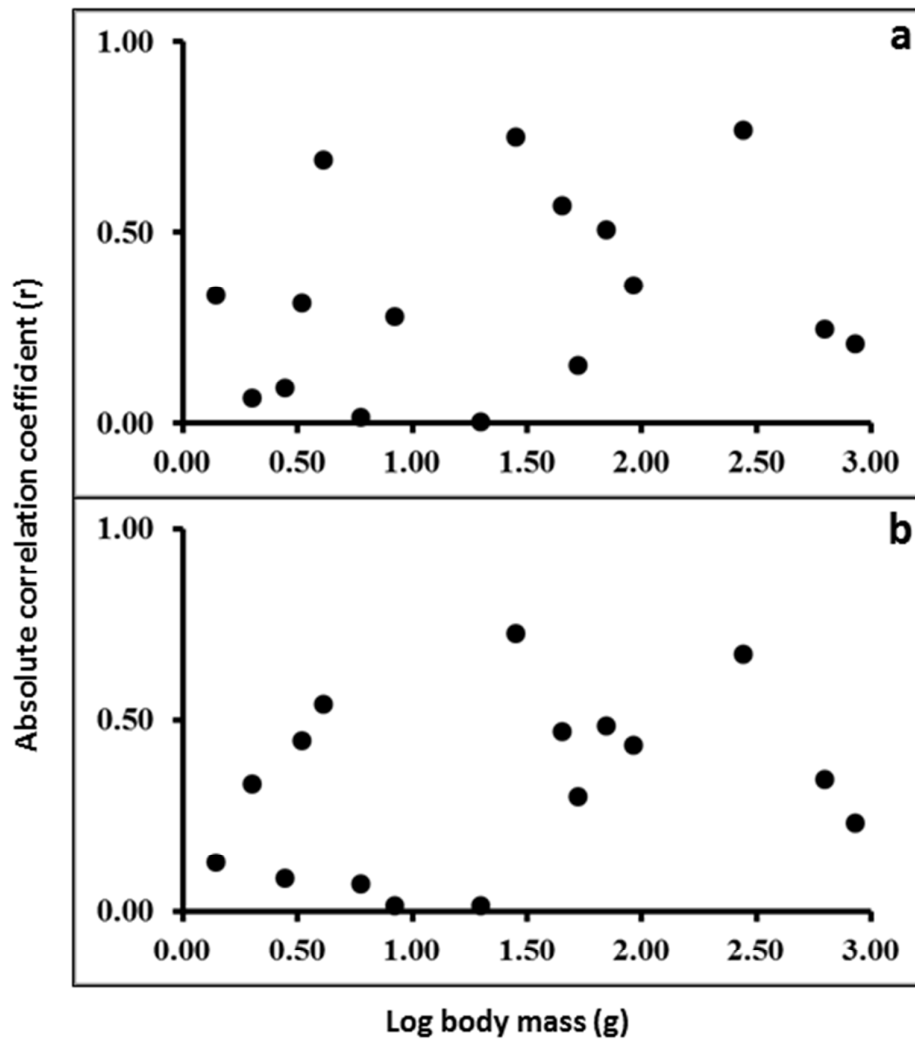


Figure 2. The relationship between the correlation coefficient (r) of body length (mm; SVL for lizards, total length for snakes, see text) against each predictor variable and the log mean body mass (g) of each species. Panels show: **a** – log island area (km^2); **b** – distance from the mainland (km); **c** – log distance from the closest larger island (km); **d** - log time since isolation (years); **e** – predator richness; **f** – competitor richness. $n=16$ species in all cases. Trend lines are shown only if they are statistically significant. $n=16$ species in all cases. Trend lines are shown only if they are statistically significant.



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Figure 3. The relationship between the absolute value of the correlation coefficient (r) of body length (mm; SVL for lizards, total length for snakes, see text) against predator richness (a) and competitor richness (b) and the log mean body mass (g) of each species.



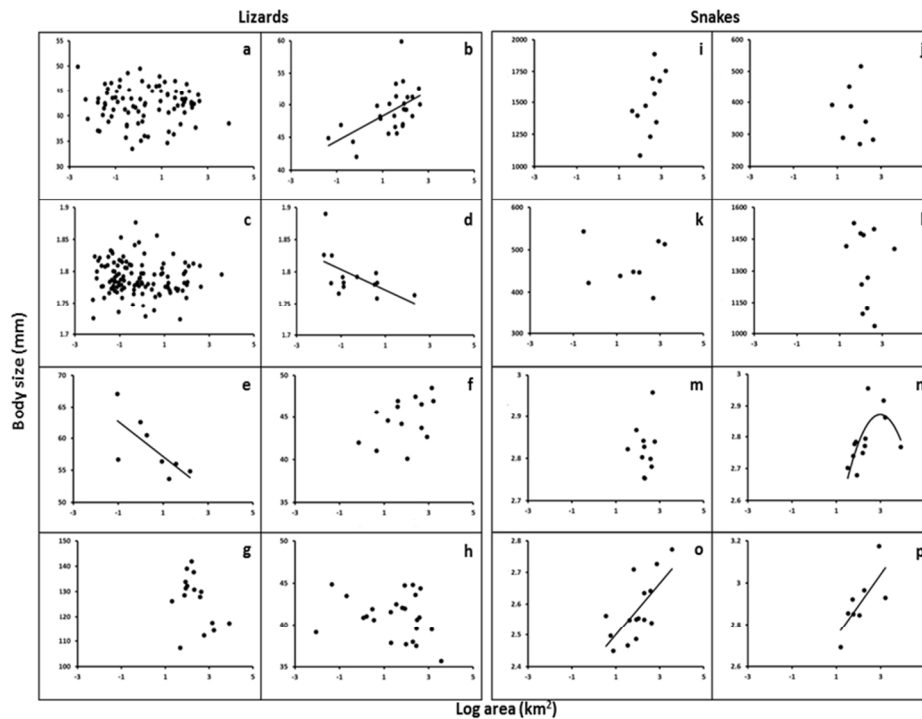


Figure 1. Body size as a function of island area: a – *Mediodactylus kotschyi*; b – *Hemidactylus turcicus*; c – *Podarcis erhardii*; d – *Podarcis gaigeae*; e – *Podarcis milensis*; f – *Ophisops elegans*; g – *Lacerta trilineata*; h – *Ablepharus kitaibelii*; i – *Dolichophis caspius*; j – *Eryx jaculus*; k – *Eirenis modestus*; l – *Elaphe quatuorlineata*; m – *Natrix natrix*; n – *Telescopus fallax*; o – *Vipera ammodytes*; p – *Vipera xanthina*. Body size index is: SVL for species a, b, e, f, g, h; Log SVL for species c, d; Total length for species i, j, k, l; Log total length for species m, n, o, p. Full trend lines indicate a significant relationship ($p < 0.05$).

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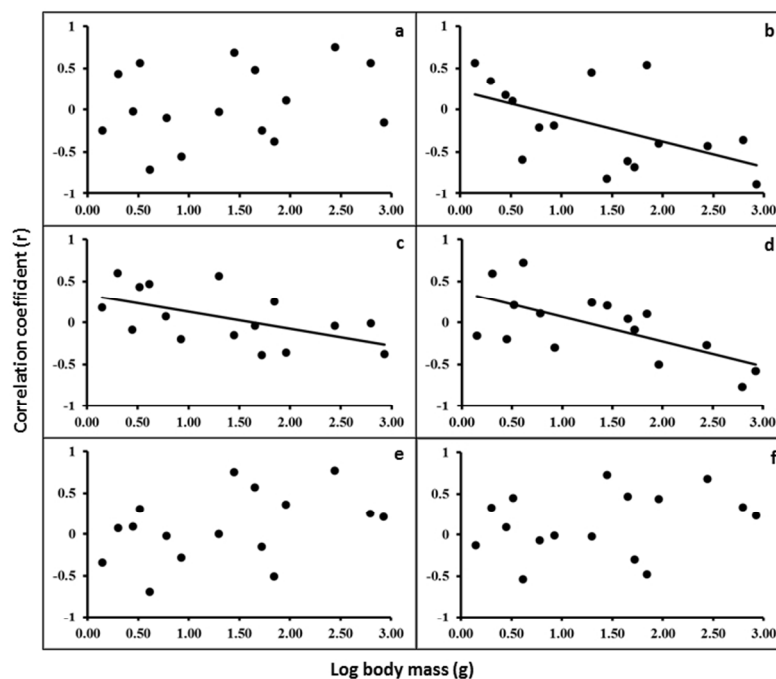


Figure 2. The relationship between the correlation coefficient (r) of body length (mm; SVL for lizards, total length for snakes, see text) against each predictor variable and the log mean body mass (g) of each species. Panels show: a – log island area (km²); b – distance from the mainland (km); c – log distance from the closest larger island (km); d – log time since isolation (years); e – predator richness; f – competitor richness. $n=16$ species in all cases. Trend lines are shown only if they are statistically significant.

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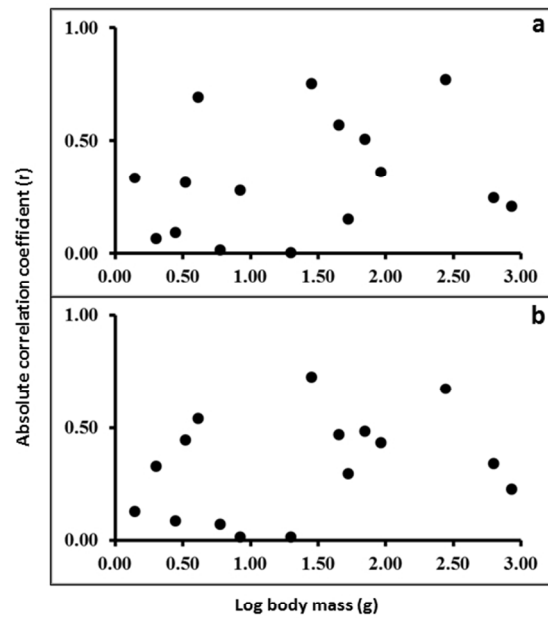


Figure 3. The relationship between the absolute value of the correlation coefficient (r) of body length (mm; SVL for lizards, total length for snakes, see text) against predator richness (a) and competitor richness (b) and the log mean body mass (g) of each species.

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