- Evolution along allometric lines of least resistance: Morphological
- differentiation in *Pristurus* geckos
- ⁴ Héctor Tejero-Cicuéndez^{1,2,*}, Iris Menéndez³, Adrián Talavera², Gabriel Riaño²,
- ⁵ Bernat Burriel-Carranza², Marc Simó-Riudalbas², Salvador Carranza², and Dean C.
- ${f Adams}^4$
- 7 14 August, 2023
- ⁸ Evolution and Conservation Biology research Group, Department of Biodiversity, Ecology and
- Evolution. Faculty of Biology. Universidad Complutense de Madrid, 28040, Madrid, Spain
- ¹⁰ Institute of Evolutionary Biology (CSIC-Universitat Pompeu Fabra), Passeig Marítim de la
- 11 Barceloneta 37-49, Barcelona 08003, Spain
- ¹² Museum für Naturkunde, Leibniz Institute for Evolution and Biodiversity Science, Berlin, Germany
- ¹³ Department of Ecology, Evolution, and Organismal Biology, Iowa State University, Ames, Iowa,
- 14 50010 USA
- *Correspondence: Héctor Tejero-Cicuéndez cicuendez93@gmail.com

Abstract

Species living in distinct habitats often experience unique ecological selective pressures, which can drive phenotypic divergence. However, how ecophenotypic patterns are affected by allometric trends 18 and trait integration levels is less well understood. Here we evaluate the role of allometry in shaping 19 body size and body form diversity in *Pristurus* geckos utilizing differing habitats. We found that patterns of allometry and integration in body form were distinct in species with different habitat 21 preferences, with ground-dwelling *Pristurus* displaying the most divergent allometric trend and 22 high levels of integration. There was also strong concordance between intraspecific allometry across 23 individuals and evolutionary allometry among species, revealing that differences in body form among individuals were predictive of evolutionary changes across the phylogeny at macroevolutionary 25 scales. This suggested that phenotypic evolution occurred along allometric lines of least resistance, with allometric trajectories imposing a strong influence on the magnitude and direction of size and 27 shape changes across the phylogeny. When viewed in phylomorphospace, the largest rock-dwelling 28 species were most similar to the smallest ground-dwelling species, and vice versa. Thus, in *Pristurus*, 29 phenotypic evolution along the differing habitat-based allometric trajectories resulted in similar body forms at differing body sizes in distinct ecological habitats.

2 1. Introduction

Understanding how phenotypic diversity evolves, and elucidating the forces that generate and maintain this diversity, are major goals in evolutionary biology. Because adaptive evolution is the product of natural selection, changes in ecological selection pressures are expected to affect the evolutionary trajectory of phenotypic traits that facilitate an organism's survival and reproduction in their habitat. The theory of natural selection predicts that differing habitats will exert unique ecological selection pressures on organisms, resulting in associations between ecological and phenotypic traits. Indeed, species inhabiting differing habitats often display functional, behavioral, or phenotypic differences, that have presumably been the result of adaptive diversification in their respective ecological contexts (Collar et al. 2010; Kaliontzopoulou et al. 2015; Price et al. 2015; Martinez et al. 2021; Kolmann et al. 2022).

43

One possible evolutionary outcome of ecological specialization is that organisms inhabiting similar environments display common phenotypic characteristics. When such patterns occur repeatedly (Losos 1992; Schluter and McPhail 1992), this convergent evolution is treated as strong evidence of adaptation. Indeed the ecomorphological paradigm (Arnold 1983) is predicated, in part, on such cases, which emphasize the strong association between the phenotypic traits that organisms display (morphological, behavioral, or physiological) and the ecological characteristics of their habitat that mediate organismal performance. In vertebrates, ecomorphological trends have been well studied in numerous taxonomic groups, and include the emblematic 'ecomorphs' of Caribbean Anolis lizards that exploit different microhabitats (Losos 1992, 2009; Mahler et al. 2013), differential beak morphology in species of Darwin's finches (Schluter and Grant 1984; Grant and Grant 2006; Reaney et al. 2020), the recurring phenotypes of African lake cichlids across ecological regimes (Albertson and Kocher 2001; Urban et al. 2022), and the distinct body forms of freshwater fishes in benthic and limnetic habitats (Jastrebski and Robinson 2004; Berner et al. 2008; Stuart et al. 2017), among others.

58

9 While the patterns of morphological differences in distinct ecological contexts have been well

documented, less-well understood is how ecomorphological differentiation has been influenced by trait covariation associated with body size differences (i.e., allometry). The study of size-related changes in anatomical traits has a long history in evolutionary biology (Huxley 1932; Jolicoeur 1963; Gould 1966; Klingenberg 1996; Zelditch and Swiderski 2022). One reason for this is that nearly all traits covary strongly with overall body size (Jolicoeur 1963; Gould 1966; Bookstein 2022), and as such, the effects of allometry on patterns of phenotypic diversity are expected to be considerable. Further, allometric patterns are widely prominent across differing levels of biological organization: from variation across individuals at differing stages or ages (i.e., ontogenetic allometry), to variation across individuals in a single ontogenetic stage within a population or species (i.e., static allometry), to variation across species of differing sizes, as described by evolutionary allometry (see Cock 1966; Klingenberg and Zimmermann 1992). Indeed, across vertebrates, numerous studies have shown that a sizeable proportion of overall phenotypic variation is related to interspecific differences in body size (Pyron and Burbrink 2009; Piras et al. 2010; Cardini and Polly 2013; e.g., Sherratt et al. 2014; Cardini et al. 2015; Bright et al. 2016; Bardua et al. 2021; Felice et al. 2021; Zelditch and Swiderski 2022). When viewed from this perspective, patterns of both intraspecific and evolutionary allometry are thought to play a decisive role in shaping patterns of phenotypic diversification across the tree of life. 76

However, allometry can also act as a restraining force on evolution by limiting the breadth of phenotypes that can be realized (Bright et al. 2019). This occurs because trait correlations influence the degree to which phenotypic variation is exposed to selection (Wagner and Altenberg 1996). Thus, the integration among traits can constrain phenotypic change in certain directions, or enhance variation along other phenotypic axes (Schluter 1996; Wagner and Altenberg 1996; Wagner and Zhang 2011; Klingenberg and Marugán-Lobón 2013; Goswami et al. 2014, 2016; Felice et al. 2018; Navalón et al. 2020). Further, because nearly all linear traits covary strongly with overall body size, allometric trends could be considered the quintessential expression of phenotypic integration (Zelditch and Swiderski 2022; Bookstein 2022). Thus, when evaluating ecophenotypic differences among taxa, it is important to consider how allometric trends of trait covariation influence such patterns (e.g., Esquerré et al. 2017; Patterson et al. 2022; Chatterji et al. 2022).

77

89

The Afro-Arabian geckos in the genus *Pristurus* afford the opportunity to elucidate the interdigitating effects of allometry and habitat specialization on clade-level patterns of phenotypic 91 diversity. From an evolutionary perspective, *Pristurus* geckos are an ideal system to investigate the role of different factors in evolutionary history. They are found in both insular and continental 93 settings, which are known to impose differential ecological selection pressures resulting in distinct evolutionary trajectories of species and clades (Losos and Ricklefs 2009). They are also distributed in the contact zone between Africa and Eurasia, a region of high biogeographic interest which has been the epicenter of major faunal interchanges and complex geologic and environmental processes (Kappelman et al. 2003; Tejero-Cicuéndez et al. 2022). The study of evolutionary dynamics in *Pristurus* and other Afro-Arabian taxa is also important biologically, gg as our understanding of the dynamics of biological systems in remote arid regions is generally 100 neglected and understudied (Durant et al. 2012). Furthermore, prior work on this system 101 (Tejero-Cicuéndez et al. 2021a) has revealed that the colonization of ground habitats has been 102 a trigger of morphological change, specifically reflected in an increase in body size and shape 103 disparity. Interestingly, some ground-dwelling species are among the largest of the genus and 104 also show increased relative head sizes and limb proportions, while some other species with 105 this ecological specialization have evolved to be among the smallest of the group. Additionally, 106 among the species exploiting rocky habitats (the most common ecological feature in *Pristurus*), 107 there are also species with both considerably large and small body sizes (Tejero-Cicuéndez et al. 2021a). What remains unexplored, however, is how the evolution of body form is related to dif-109 ferences in body size and whether habitat specialization has an impact in this shape-size relationship. 110

111

In this study, we employed a combination of multivariate morphometric and phylogenetic comparative analyses to interrogate macroevolutionary patterns of evolutionary allometry in *Pristurus* geckos of Afro-Arabia. Using phenotypic, phylogenetic, and ecological data, we first characterized allometric trends in body form in the group, to discern the extent to which evolutionary allometric trends across the phylogeny aligned with habitat-based intraspecific allometry for species occupying distinct ecological regimes. We then examined changes in allometric trends across the phylogeny,

and linked these patterns to overall phenotypic integration, diversification in morphospace, and
habitat utilization among taxa. Our analyses reveal that patterns of evolutionary allometry across
species align with allometric trends among individuals, and that differing habitat-based allometric
trajectories have resulted in similar body forms at differing body sizes in distinct ecological regimes.
Thus, patterns of phenotypic diversification in *Pristurus* are the outcome of an interplay between
ecological specialization and size-form changes evolving along habitat-specific allometric trajectories
in the group.

2. Materials and Methods

126 (a) Data

We used a combination of phenotypic, phylogenetic, and ecological data to characterize and evaluate 127 intra- and interspecific allometric trends in *Pristurus*. The data utilized here were obtained from 128 our prior work on this system (Tejero-Cicuéndez et al. 2021a, 2022), and are briefly described 129 here. First, we used a time-calibrated molecular phylogeny of squamates that included all members 130 of the genus *Pristurus*, including several currently undescribed taxa. The tree was estimated in 131 a Bayesian framework, using five mitochondrial markers, six nuclear markers, and 21 calibration 132 points (Tejero-Cicuéndez et al. 2022). Next, we categorized each species as belonging to one of three 133 ecological habitat groups (ground-dwelling, rock-dwelling, or tree-dwelling). Habitat designations 134 were based on substrate preferences and habitat use as found through extensive field observations 135 described in the primary literature (Arnold 1993; Arnold 2009, and references therein). Finally, 136 we obtained a phenotypic dataset containing body size (snout-vent length: SVL) and eight linear 137 measurements (Figure 1) that described overall body form: trunk length (TL), head length (HL), 138 head width (HW), head height (HH), humerus length (Lhu), ulna length (Lun), femur length (Lfe), and tibia length (Ltb) (Tejero-Cicuéndez et al. 2021a). We restricted our study to those 140 species represented by nine or more individuals; resulting in a dataset of 687 individuals from 25 141 species (invidivuals per species: mean = 27; min = 9, max = 56). All specimens used in this 142 study were adults, and thus patterns of ontogenetic allometry could not be explored. Species in 143 the phenotypic dataset were then matched to the phylogeny, which was subsequently pruned to 144 the final topology. All measurements were log-transformed prior to statistical analyses. Additional 145

details regarding data collection and formal descriptions of each linear measurement may be found in the original sources (Tejero-Cicuéndez et al. 2021a, 2022). The data are available on DRYAD:

https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.xwdbrv1f6 (Tejero-Cicuéndez et al. 2021b).

(b) Statistical and Comparative Analyses

We conducted a series of analyses to interrogate allometric trends, patterns of integration, and 150 macroevolutionary changes in allometry, relative to differentiation in body form. First, we characterized evolutionary allometry in the genus by performing a phylogenetic multivariate 152 regression of body form on body size (i.e., SVL), using the species means as data. We then 153 evaluated patterns of instraspecific allometry among individuals using a pooled within-species 154 regression (sensu Klingenberg 2016). Here a pooled within-species dataset was generated by 155 obtaining residuals for all individuals relative to their respective species means, which were then 156 pooled across species. This dataset was then used in a multivariate regression to obtain an overall 157 estimate of intraspecific allometry among individuals. By first removing species-specific differences, this procedure partials out trends of evolutionary allometry from the data, enabling patterns of 159 intraspecific and evolutionary allometry to be disentangled (note that because juvenile specimens 160 were not available, it was not possible to disentangle the ontogenetic and static components of allometric trends. Thus we refer to this level as 'intraspecific' allometry to be conservative). 162 From both the species-level and the individual-level analyses, we obtained the set of regression 163 coefficients, which respectively described the trajectories of evolutionary and intraspecific allometry in morphospace. We then calculated the difference in their direction in morphospace to discern the 165 extent to which patterns of intraspecific allometry at the individual level were concordant with 166 evolutionary allometric trends across species. 167

168

Next, we used the pooled within-species dataset to determine whether trends in intraspecific allometry differed across habitat groups. This was accomplished by performing a multivariate analysis of covariance, with body size (SVL), habitat, and $SVL \times habitat$ as model effects. Significance of model effects was evaluated using 999 iterations of a permutation procedure, where residuals from a reduced model were randomly permuted in each permutation (RRPP), model

statistics were recalculated, and used to generate empirical null sampling distributions to evaluate 174 the observed test statistics (following Freedman and Lane 1983; Collyer and Adams 2007; Collyer et al. 2015). In this analysis, no variation was attributable to the habitat effect, as the pooled-within 176 species data are mean-centered for both the dependent and independent variables. However, any 177 differences in multivariate allometric slopes among habitats will be discernable, and revealed by a 178 significant $SVL \times habitat$ interaction. To evaluate this possibility, we compared the direction of 179 multivariate allometric vectors for each habitat group to one another, and to a vector representing 180 multivariate isometry, by calculating pairwise angular differences in their direction in morphospace, 181 and evaluating these relative to empirical sampling distributions obtained through RRPP (Collyer 182 and Adams 2007; Adams and Collyer 2009; Collyer and Adams 2013). Here, residuals were obtained 183 from a common isometry reduced model, whose common slope component described a pattern of 184 multivariate isometry, and whose intercepts allowed for differences in least-squares means among 185 groups. Patterns of multivariate allometry relative to body size were visualized via regression 186 scores (Drake and Klingenberg 2008) and predicted lines (Adams and Nistri 2010), based on the 187 coefficients and fitted values from the linear model described above. 188

189

Additionally, because allometry describes the extent to which traits covary with body size and with 190 each other (i.e., integration), we conducted an analysis of integration. Here we characterized the 191 extent of morphological integration in body form for individuals within each habitat group using the 192 pooled within-species dataset, and by summarizing the dispersion of eigenvalues of their respective 193 trait covariance matrix (Pavlicev et al. 2009). This measure (V_{rel}) was subsequently converted to 194 an effect size (a Z-score), which quantified the strength of morphological integration (Conaway 195 and Adams 2022). We then performed a series of two-sample tests to compare the strength of 196 morphological integration across habitat groups, following the procedures of Conaway and Adams 197 (2022). Additionally and for comparison, we repeated these analyses on the set of size-standardized 198 trait data, found as a set of shape ratios (Mosimann 1970) where each trait was divided by body 199 size (Supplementary Material). 200

201

To determine the extent to which intraspecific and evolutionary allometry were concordant, we

evaluated the directions in morphospace of both the evolutionary (species-level) and intraspecific (habitat-based) allometric trends. Specifically, we obtained the set of regression coefficients from both the phylogenetic multivariate regression and the multivariate analysis of covariance analyses above, and calculated the angular difference in direction between the evolutionary allometry trajectory and the intraspecific allometry trend for each habitat group. The observed angles were then statistically evaluated relative to empirical sampling distributions obtained through permutation (RRPP), based on the common isometry model described above.

210

Next, to discern how allometric trends resulted in the evolution of distinct body forms, we 211 examined changes in relative body form across the phylogeny. Here we treated the head 212 dimensions and limb dimensions separately, as allometric trends could potentially differ between 213 these body regions due to differential functional or selective constraints (Kaliontzopoulou 214 2010). Because both the head and limb data were multivariate, we used regression 215 scores (sensu Drake and Klingenberg 2008) of a multivariate regression of head traits versus 216 SVL and limb traits versus SVL to represent the allometric trends in each dataset. We then 217 measured the mean residuals of each species to the inferred allometric trend, which described 218 the extent to which head and limb proportions of species were greater or smaller than expected 219 for their body size. The species residuals were then mapped on the phylogeny of Pristurus 220 using a Brownian motion model of evolution, to qualitatively evaluate shifts in head and limb 221 proportionality across the phylogeny for the group. Similarly, patterns of intraspecific allome-222 try were visualized by plotting regression scores versus SVL for both head and limb traits separately. 223

224

Finally, to relate within-species allometric trends with patterns of phenotypic diversification in the group, we generated a phylomorphospace (sensu Sidlauskas 2008), based on a principal component analyses (PCA) of the size-standardized species means (i.e., relative body proportions) obtained from a non-phylogenetic regression. Here, phenotypic similarities among species, relative to their phylogenetic relationships and habitat affiliations, were observed. A similar phylomorphospace was constructed with size-standardized species means obtained from a phylogenetic regression, and another one with species means not corrected for body size. The phenotypic disparity among

species means in each habitat was calculated and subsequently compared (Supplementary Material). 232 Additionally, anatomical changes associated with allometric trends across taxa were visually depicted via representative specimens from the largest and smallest ground-dwelling species (scaled to unit 234 size), and specimens from a large and small rock-dwelling species, to aid in describing these 235 allometric trends. All analyses were conducted in R 4.2.1 (R Core Team 2022), using RRPP 236 version 1.3.2 (Collyer and Adams 2018; Collyer and Adams 2022) and geomorph 4.0.5 (Baken 237 et al. 2021a) for statistical analyses and the tidyverse version 1.3.0 (Wickham et al. 2019), 238 phytools version 0.7-77 (Revell 2012), and a modified version of the function ggphylomorpho 239 [https://github.com/wabarr/ggphylomorpho] for data manipulation and visualization, as well as 240 scripts written by the authors (Supplementary Material). 241

3. Results

250

Using phylogenetic regression, we found significant evolutionary allometry in body form across species ($N_{sp}=25; F=217.9; Z=5.53; P<0.001$). Likewise, when intraspecific allometry in body form was examined across individuals, a similar pattern was observed ($N_{ind}=687; F=1176.9; Z=8.24; P<0.001$). Further, the vectors of regression coefficients between the two analyses were oriented in a similar direction and were nearly parallel in morphospace ($\theta=5.64^{\circ}$; Table 1). This revealed that the pattern of multivariate allometry across individuals was largely concordant with macroevolutionary trends of interspecific allometry among species of *Pristurus* across the phylogeny.

Our analyses also exposed significant differences in the allometry of body form among Pristurus 251 utilizing distinct habitats (Tables 1 and 2). Further, pairwise comparisons of multivariate allometric 252 vectors revealed that patterns of intraspecific allometry in each habitat differed significantly 253 from isometry, indicating the presence of multivariate allometry in each (Table 3). Additionally, comparisons identified that ground-dwelling Pristurus displayed the most distinct allometric 255 trend as compared with *Pristurus* occupying both the rock and tree habitats (Table 3; Figure 256 2). Here, regression coefficients of each trait versus size (Supplementary Material) revealed 257 that ground-dwelling *Pristurus* exhibited higher coefficients for head traits as compared with 258 rock-dwelling and tree-dwelling taxa ($\beta_{ground} > \beta_{rock}$; $\beta_{ground} > \beta_{tree}$). By contrast, coefficients 250

for limb traits were somewhat smaller for ground-dwelling Pristurus as compared with other taxa ($\beta_{ground} < \beta_{rock}$; $\beta_{ground} < \beta_{tree}$). Thus, these findings implied that within species, larger individuals of ground-dwelling Pristurus displayed proportionately larger heads and slightly smaller limbs as compared with large individuals in taxa utilizing other habitat types. Visualizations of the allometric trends (Figure 2) confirmed these statistical findings, and indicated that the allometric trajectory in ground-dwelling Pristurus was more extreme as compared with either rock-or tree-dwelling Pristurus.

267

Examination of patterns of trait covariation for the pooled within-species data revealed strong 268 levels of morphological integration in the ground and tree ecotypes, with lower levels of integration displayed in the rock habitat. Subsequent two-sample tests revealed that the strength of 270 morphological integration was significantly greater in both ground-dwelling and tree-dwelling 271 Pristurus than in those utilizing rock ($Z_{ground-rock} = 6.05$; $P \ll 0.001$; $Z_{tree-rock} = 4.07$; $P \ll 0.001$). Levels of morphological integration did not differ between ground and tree-dwelling 273 Pristurus ($Z_{tree-rock} = 0.38$; P = 0.702). Finally, when body size was taken into account, levels of 274 integration dropped considerably, though the overall pattern and differences among habitat groups 275 remained the same (Supplementary Material). 276

277

Comparisons of evolutionary allometry with intraspecific allometry in each habitat revealed 278 substantial concordance between allometric trends across these levels. Here, vectors of regression 279 coefficients representing intraspecific allometry within habitat groups were oriented in very similar directions with the regression vector representing evolutionary allometry, with small pairwise 281 angles between them (5.8 $< \theta <$ 7.2). Subsequent permutation tests indicated no differences in 282 direction between the regression vector representing evolutionary allometry and the intraspecific 283 allometry vectors for *Pristurus* in both the ground or tree habitats, indicating strong congruence between them (Table 4). By contrast, rock-dwelling *Pristurus* differed most in their intraspecific 285 allometry trend relative to patterns of evolutionary allometry. Notably, intraspecific allometry in 286 ground-dwelling *Pristurus* was most similar to trends of evolutionary allometry, displaying the smallest angular difference in direction when compared to evolutionary allometry. Overall, these 288

findings implied that phenotypic evolution across species aligned closely with directions of allometric
variation within habitat groups at the individual level, describing a trend where larger individuals –
and larger ground-dwelling species – exhibited disproportionately larger heads and limbs, while
smaller individuals – and smaller ground-dwelling species – displayed disproportionately smaller
heads and limbs.

294

Mapping the residuals of phylogenetic regression onto the phylogeny showed that large grounddwelling species displayed greater head proportions than large rock-dwelling species, who 296 exhibited smaller heads relative to body size (Figure 3A). Conversely, the opposite pattern 297 was observed when comparing small species utilizing these habitats: ground-dwelling species 298 showed small relative head proportions while rock-dwelling species displayed generally larger 299 head proportions. In contrast, limb shape showed more variable patterns. Although all large 300 ground-dwelling species consistently displayed large relative limb proportions, large rock-dwelling 301 species were more variable in this trait, with P. insignis exhibiting large and P. insignoides 302 small limb proportions. For small species, shifts in relative limb proportions seemed more 303 independent of habitat utilization, since there were differences in limb residuals both within 304 rock- and ground-dwelling species (Figure 3B). Likewise, intraspecific allometry trends within 305 species revealed that ground-dwelling species generally displayed steeper allometric patterns 306 in head proportions as compared with rock-dwelling species (Figure 4). Overall, there was 307 general concordance across taxa in terms of trends of multivariate allometry, affirming that the association between evolutionary allometry and habitat-based intraspecific allometry was robust. 309

310

Viewing differentiation in *Pristurus*' relative body proportions in phylomorphospace (Figure 5)
revealed a broad overlap among habitat groups in the first few dimensions, though arboreal
(tree-dwelling) species were somewhat more constrained in morphospace. Rock-dwelling species
occupied a slightly larger region of morphospace as compared with the other groups, though this
pattern was not statistically significant (Supplementary Material). Intriguingly, when viewed
in relation to body size, large *Pristurus* species were not localized to a particular region of
morphospace, nor were smaller species. Instead, the largest rock-dwelling species were found in close

proximity to the smallest ground-dwelling species, indicating that they were similar in relative body proportions. Likewise, the smallest rock-dwelling species were found close to large ground-dwelling species in morphospace, indicating they displayed similar body proportions as well. These results did not change when the phylomorphospace was based on size-standardized species means obtained from a phylogenetic regression (Supplementary Material).

323

Finally, when representative specimens were scaled to a similar body size (Figure 6), the anatomical consequences of differences in allometric trends on body form became apparent. Here, larger 325 ground-dwelling *Pristurus* species displayed disproportionately larger heads and limbs as compared 326 with large *Pristurus* species utilizing other habitat types. Conversely, smaller rock-dwelling species were found to have disproportionately larger heads and limbs than smaller ground-dwelling species. 328 These patterns corresponded closely with those identified in morphospace (Figure 5), where large 320 ground-dwelling species were similar in body form to small rock-dwelling species, while small ground-dwelling species were similar in body form to large rock-dwelling species (Figure 6). Thus, 331 synthesizing the patterns revealed in the phylomorphospace with those from the other analyses 332 revealed that the same body proportions could be obtained in different ways, as determined by 333 subtle differences in allometric slope across habitats, combined with body size differences. As such, 334 species with similar body proportions displayed differing overall size, were found in distinct habitats, 335 and exhibited different allometric trends. 336

337

4. Discussion

Elucidating the selective forces that generate patterns of phenotypic diversity is a major goal in evolutionary biology. For species that utilize distinct habitats, disentangling the causes of phenotypic differentiation across those habitats is essential for our understanding of how natural selection operates and how evolution proceeds. In this study, we evaluated the role of potential drivers of body form differentiation in the geckos of the genus *Pristurus*. To this end, we compared allometric trends and levels of integration among *Pristurus* occupying distinct habitats, interrogated allometric patterns at both the intraspecific and evolutionary levels, and related these trends to diversification in body form. Our findings have several important implications for how ecological specialization, phenotypic integration, and body form evolution along allometric trajectories relate to patterns of phenotypic diversity generally, and the evolution of phenotypic diversification in *Pristurus* in particular.

349

First, our analyses revealed that patterns of allometry in body form and morphological integration 350 are relatively distinct in ground-dwelling *Pristurus* lizards, as compared with *Pristurus* occupying 351 other habitats. Specifically, we found that multivariate vectors of regression coefficients differed significantly from what was expected under isometry (Table 3) for taxa utilizing all habitat 353 types (ground, rock, tree), indicating that in *Pristurus*, allometric scaling patterns predominate. 354 Further, our interrogation of allometric trends revealed differences between habitat types, where 355 ground-dwelling *Pristurus* displayed steeper allometric slopes for head traits as compared with 356 rock and tree-dwelling taxa. Biologically, these patterns revealed that not only does shape differ 357 between large and small *Pristurus*, but this pattern also differs across habitat types. Specifically, 358 large ground-dwelling *Pristurus* present disproportionately larger heads relative to large individuals 350 in other habitats, while small ground-dwelling *Pristurus* exhibit disproportionately smaller 360 heads (Figure 3). These findings are consistent with previous work at the macroevolutionary 361 level (Tejero-Cicuéndez et al. 2021a), where large ground species were also found to display 362 disproportionately large heads. 363

364

Second, our findings revealed that, within species, rock-dwelling *Pristurus* show a converse pattern, 365 where smaller individuals displayed relatively larger heads, while larger individuals have smaller heads relative to their body size. These allometric patterns also corresponded with findings at 367 macroevolutionary scales (Tejero-Cicuéndez et al. 2021a), where similar patterns at the species 368 level were observed. Regarding relative limb proportions, we found a high variability among 369 small rock-dwelling species rather than a common pattern (Figure 3B). Indeed, earlier work in the subclade comprising several of these species (the P. rupestris species complex) found two 371 well-differentiated phenotypes in populations of these lineages segregated by elevation (Garcia-Porta 372 et al. 2017). These two ecotypes, defined as 'slender' and 'robust', differed in their head and limb characteristics. Our work is consistent with this, and extends these patterns to the allometric 374

realm. Tejero-Cicuéndez et al. (2021a) also performed habitat ancestral estimation, finding that the rock habitat was the most likely ancestral condition in the group, with subsequent colonization by *Pristurus* of ground habitats. When patterns of allometry are viewed through 377 this lens, it suggests the hypothesis that habitat shifts from rock-dwelling to ground-dwelling 378 incurred a concomitant evolutionary shift in allometric trajectories as well (Adams and Nistri 379 2010). Indeed, our analyses are consistent with this hypothesis, as allometric trends towards the 380 root of the *Pristurus* phylogeny are inferred to be more similar to those found in extant species 381 living in rocky habitats (Figure 3), with subsequent shifts along branches leading to species 382 exploiting different habitats (although it must be noted that all extant ground species have a 383 single origin in the phylogeny and consitute a monophyletic group). This might further indicate 384 that the segregation in body size and shape through differential allometric relationships across 385 habitats responds to adaptive dynamics concerning the colonization of new habitats, even though the fact that all ground species belong to the same clade hinders our ability to draw stronger 387 conclusions about adaptive dynamics involving the colonization of ground habitats. Thus, in 388 Pristurus, our results are consistent with the hypothesis that colonization of ground habitats has 389 been a trigger for morphological change (Tejero-Cicuéndez et al. 2021a), as there appears to 390 be a link between shifts in allometric trajectories as a result of habitat-induced selection, and 391 differential patterns of body form observed across taxa. Similar patterns have been observed in 392 other taxa, where differences in allometric trajectories are associated with ecological differences 393 across species (Esquerré et al. 2017; Patterson et al. 2022; Chatterji et al. 2022). More broadly, 394 these findings are consistent with prior discoveries in other lizards, where the differential selective 395 pressures imposed by rocky and ground habitats have resulted in the differentiation of head and 396 limb morphology (Goodman et al. 2008; Kaliontzopoulou et al. 2010; Garcia-Porta et al. 2017; 397 Foster et al. 2018). Indeed, such phenotypic differences resulting from the effects of habitat-based 398 ecological selection have been extensively documented in reptiles as well as in other vertebrates (Losos 2009; Reynolds et al. 2016; Hipsley and Müller 2017; Samuels and Hopkins 2017; Watanabe 400 et al. 2019; Busschau and Boissinot 2022; Navalón et al. 2022; Friedman et al. 2022), and 401 our work in *Pristurus* thus contributes to this growing body of literature. Nonetheless, because 402 the ecological shift to ground-dwelling habitats occurred only once on the phylogeny, it is also 403 possible that some unmeasured feature that evolved on the same branch could have affected the observed patterns. Thus, some caution in interpreting the causal direction of this trend is warranted.

406

However, considering the habitat-driven morphology perspective, the findings revealed here may 407 reflect ecological and behavioral changes linked to the adoption of a new lifestyle. For lizards, the 408 transition to utilizing ground habitats implies adopting an existence in more open environments 400 than in rocky substrates. As such, numerous aspects of daily existence (including activity patterns, 410 climatic factors, prey availability, abundance of predators, etc.) are expected to exert a differential influence on an organism's phenotype when compared with life in their ancestral environment 412 (Fuentes and Cancino 1979). Indeed, the largest ground-dwelling Pristurus species (P. carteri, P. 413 ornitocephalus, and P. collaris) differ from the rest of the genus in having developed partially nocturnal habits, which would presumably have major ecological consequences for their survival 415 and reproduction. In this sense, these species might have been subjected to evolutionary processes 416 selecting for larger relative head proportions, which would allow them to accommodate larger or 417 modified eyes, a clear advantage in animals with nocturnal and semi-nocturnal habits (Hall and 418 Ross 2006; Ross et al. 2007; Hall et al. 2012). Likewise, the large relative proportions found in the 419 limbs of large ground-dwelling species (Figure 3B) might be related to selective processes favoring 420 longer limbs in large species present in this new ecological context. Longer limbs in open habitats – 421 particularly for large species – might be advantageous for rapidly running and hiding in the sparse 422 vegetation (Arnold 2009) and, in hyper-arid areas such as the Arabian Peninsula, this morphology 423 might contribute to thermoregulation separating the body from the ground (Huey 1974; Arnold 1980; Avery et al. 1982). The lack of repeated events of colonization of ground habitats in *Pristurus* 425 makes it challenging to corroborate these adaptive explanations about phenotypic changes, but a 426 more detailed examination of behavioral and morphological traits (e.g., eye shape, limb insertion) 427 might shed light on the factors driving this pattern and serve to establish a stronger adaptive link 428 between habitat use and morphological and allometric trends in *Pristurus*. 429

430

Another important finding of our study was the strong concordance between intraspecific allometry across individuals and evolutionary allometry among *Pristurus* species. Our analyses revealed small pairwise angles between intraspecific and evolutionary allometry vectors, indicating that allometric

trends at these two levels were oriented in similar directions and were largely concordant. As such, size-associated changes in body form among individuals were predictive of evolutionary shifts across taxa at higher macroevolutionary scales. This in turn, suggests that body form evolution 436 in Pristurus may follow an allometric line of least resistance (Marroig and Cheverud 2005). In 437 other empirical systems, a similarly tight correspondence between intraspecific and evolutionary 438 allometry has also been observed (Marroig and Cheverud 2005; Firmat et al. 2014; Voje et al. 2014; 439 Brombacher et al. 2017; Marcy et al. 2020), though the trend is not universal across all taxa or 440 traits (see Klingenberg and Zimmermann 1992; Voje et al. 2022). Nonetheless, when such trends 441 are present, they imply that allometric trajectories impose a prevailing influence on the magnitude, direction, and rate of phenotypic change across the phylogeny. Our work in *Pristurus* contributes to 443 the growing literature on this topic, and suggests that perhaps such patterns may be more widespread. 444

445

Given the observation that intraspecific and evolutionary allometry in *Pristurus* are largely 446 concordant, an obvious question is: why might this be the case? One possible explanation is 447 that when genetic covariation remains relatively constant, selection on body size will generate an 448 evolutionary allometric trajectory along the trend described by intraspecific allometry (Lande 1979, 440 1985). Here, allometry effectively acts as a constraint on evolutionary change, as size-associated 450 shape changes at one hierarchical level are linked to changes at another level (Voje et al. 2014, 2022; 451 Pélabon et al. 2014). Further, when this is the case, one may also expect high levels of phenotypic 452 integration in traits associated with body size changes. Indeed, our analyses reveal precisely this pattern in *Pristurus*, with the highest levels of integration in the group (ground-dwelling) 454 whose intraspecific allometry is most similar to that of evolutionary allometry. Thus, our results 455 reveal that patterns of trait covariation are more constrained in ground-dwelling species, such 456 that their differences in body form are most likely found along the primary allometric axis. When 457 viewed in this light, integration and allometry may thus be interpreted as potential drivers that 458 facilitate morphological change, as they provide a phenotypic pathway through adaptive lines of 459 least resistance that enable rapid evolutionary changes in particular phenotypic directions but not in others (Felice et al. 2018; Navalón et al. 2020). The fact that ground-dwelling species in 461 Pristurus have been found to have the widest phenotypic disparity, greatest range of body sizes, and highest rates of morphological evolution (Tejero-Cicuéndez et al. 2021a) are all consistent with this hypothesis, and suggest that in this group, integration describes the path of morphological evolution along allometric lines of least resistance.

466

Finally, interpreting the observed patterns of phenotypic integration and allometry relative to 467 habitat-specific differences helps to shed light on the possible pathways by which phenotypic 468 diversity in *Pristurus* has evolved. For instance, prior work on this system (Tejero-Cicuéndez et al. 2021a) revealed that the colonization of new ecological habitats might have elicited strong 470 ecological selection and phenotypic responses. This was particularly true of the invasion of ground 471 habitats, where ground-dwelling species displayed the largest variation in body size in the genus. 472 This observation might be related to some level of ecological selection on body size. In lizards, the 473 ecological context in which species exist is known to play a pervasive role in body size evolution 474 (James and M'closkey 2004; Meiri 2008; Tamar et al. 2019), as it does in other animal groups 475 (Bergmann 1847; Calder 1983; Peters 1983; LaBarbera 1989; Olson et al. 2009). While to date this 476 has not been thoroughly explored in *Pristurus*, the evolutionary patterns revealed by our analyses 477 suggest that the body size diversity in this clade conforms, at least in part, with patterns expected 478 under ecological selection on body size (although this perspective would be further supported if 479 there had been repeated instances of colonization of ground habitats in the genus). Intriguingly, 480 such patterns are not only observed in ground- and rock-dwelling taxa, but also in arboreal species 481 (which, unlike ground-dwelling *Pristurus*, have evolved this lifestyle independently), whose restricted 482 phenotypic diversity in both size and shape (Figures 3 & 5) is consistent with strong ecological 483 selection in the arboreal habitat (Baken and Adams 2019; Baken et al. 2021b). If that is the case, 484 this contrasts with the evolutionary dynamics observed in other lizards such as the Anolis radiations, 485 where there are multiple morphotypes for different strata of the arboreal habitat (Losos 2009). 486 Furthermore, our study identified the presence of strong integration and allometric trajectories, 487 such that evolutionary changes in body size elicit corresponding changes in body form. However, 488 these trends differed significantly across habitats, implying that, at evolutionary scales, they might 489 serve to channel phenotypic responses to selection, but do so in differing directions for the different 490 habitat groups. This, in turn, suggests that *Pristurus* species occupying different habitats display 491

differing combinations of body size with body form. From this adaptive perspective, the evolutionary consequence of ecological selection is that species have evolved similar shapes (Figure 6), but do so in differing habitats, and at different body sizes (Figure 5). Therefore, the phenotypic diversity observed in *Pristurus* is best explained as the result of a complex interplay between ecological selection, body size differentiation, and differing allometric trajectories across ecological habitats.

497 References

- Adams, D. C., and M. L. Collyer. 2009. A general framework for the analysis of phenotypic trajectories in evolutionary studies. Evolution 63:1143–1154.
- Adams, D. C., and A. Nistri. 2010. Ontogenetic convergence and evolution of foot morphology in
- European cave salamanders (Family: Plethodontidae). BMC Evolutionary Biology 10:1–10.
- BioMed Central.
- Albertson, R. C., and T. D. Kocher. 2001. Assessing morphological differences in an adaptive
- trait: A landmark-based morphometric approach. Journal of Experimental Zoology 289:385–
- 505 403.
- Arnold, E. N. 1993. Historical changes in the ecology and behaviour of semaphore geckos
- (Pristurus, Gekkonidae) and their relatives. Journal of Zoology 229:353–384.
- Arnold, E. N. 2009. Relationships, evolution and biogeography of semaphore geckos, *Pristurus*
- (Squamata, Sphaerodactylidae) based on morphology. Zootaxa 2060:1–21.
- Arnold, E. N. 1980. The reptiles and amphibians of Dhofar, Soutern Arabia. Journal of Oman
- Studies Special Report:273–332.
- Arnold, S. J. 1983. Morphology, performance, fitness. American Zoologist 23:347–361.
- Avery, R. A., Bedford J. D., and C. P. Newcombe. 1982. The role of thermoregulation in lizard
- biology: Predatory efficiency in a temperate basker. Behavioral Ecology and Sociobiology
- 515 11:261–267.
- Baken, E. K., and D. C. Adams. 2019. Macroevolution of arboreality in salamanders. Ecology
- and Evolution 9:7005–7016.
- Baken, E. K., M. L. Collyer, A. Kaliontzopoulou, and D. C. Adams. 2021a. Geomorph
- 4.0 and gmShiny: Enhanced analytics and a new graphical interface for a comprehensive
- morphometric experience. Methods in Ecology and Evolution 12:2355–2363.
- Baken, E. K., L. E. Mellenthin, and D. C. Adams. 2021b. Is salamander arboreality limited by
- broad-scale climatic conditions? PLoS ONE 16:e0255393.
- Bardua, C., A.-C. Fabre, J. Clavel, M. Bon, K. Das, E. L. Stanley, D. C. Blackburn, and A.
- Goswami. 2021. Size, microhabitat, and loss of larval feeding drive cranial diversification in
- frogs. Nature Communications 12. Springer Science; Business Media LLC.

- Bergmann, C. 1847. Über die verhaltnisse der warmeokonomie der thiere zu ihrer grosse.
- Göttinger Studien 1:595–708.
- Berner, D., D. C. Adams, A.-C. Grandchamp, and A. P. Hendry. 2008. Natural selection
- drives patterns of lake-stream divergence in stickleback foraging morphology. Journal of
- Evolutionary Biology 21:1653–1665.
- Bookstein, F. L. 2022. Dimensions of morphological integration. Evolutionary Biology 49:342–
- 532 372.
- Bright, J. A., J. Marugán-Lobón, S. N. Cobb, and E. J. Rayfield. 2016. The shapes of bird
- beaks are highly controlled by nondietary factors. Proceedings of the National Academy of
- Sciences 113:5352–5357.
- Bright, J. A., J. Marugán-Lobón, E. J. Rayfield, and S. N. Cobb. 2019. The multifactorial
- nature of beak and skull shape evolution in parrots and cockatoos (psittaciformes). BMC
- Evolutionary Biology 19. Springer Science; Business Media LLC.
- Brombacher, A., P. A. Wilson, I. Bailey, and T. H. G. Ezard. 2017. The breakdown of static and
- evolutionary allometries during climatic upheaval. The American Naturalist 190:350–362.
- Busschau, T., and S. Boissinot. 2022. Habitat determines convergent evolution of cephalic horns
- in vipers. Biological Journal of the Linnean Society 135:652–664.
- 543 Calder, W. A. 1983. Ecological scaling: Mammals and birds. Annual Review of Ecology and
- 544 Systematics 14:213–230.
- ⁵⁴⁵ Cardini, A., D. Polly, R. Dawson, and N. Milne. 2015. Why the long face? Kangaroos and
- wallabies follow the same "rule" of cranial evolutionary allometry (CREA) as placentals.
- Evolutionary Biology 42:169–176.
- ⁵⁴⁸ Cardini, A., and P. D. Polly. 2013. Larger mammals have longer faces because of size-related
- constraints on skull form. Nature Communications 4.
- Chatterji, R. M., C. A. Hipsley, E. Sherratt, M. N. Hutchinson, and M. E. H. Jones. 2022.
- Ontogenetic allometry underlies trophic diversity in sea turtles (chelonioidea). Evolutionary
- Ecology 36:511–540.
- 553 Cock, A. G. 1966. Genetical aspects of metrical growth and form in animals. The Quarterly
- Review of Biology 41:131–190.
- ⁵⁵⁵ Collar, D. C., J. A. Schulte, B. C. O'Meara, and J. B. Losos. 2010. Habitat use affects

- morphological diversification in dragon lizards. Journal of Evolutionary Biology 23:1033–
 1049.
- Collyer, M. L., and D. C. Adams. 2007. Analysis of two-state multivariate phenotypic change in ecological studies. Ecology 88:683–692.
- Collyer, M. L., and D. C. Adams. 2013. Phenotypic trajectory analysis: Comparison of shape change patterns in evolution and ecology. Hystrix 24:75–83.
- Collyer, M. L., and D. C. Adams. 2022. R: RRPP: Linear model evaluation with randomized
 residuals in a permutation procedure. Vsn. 1.3.2. R Foundation for Statistical Computing,
 Vienna, Austria.
- Collyer, M. L., and D. C. Adams. 2018. RRPP: An R package for fitting linear models to
 high-dimensional data using residual randomization. Methods in Ecology and Evolution
 9:1772–1779.
- Collyer, M. L., D. J. Sekora, and D. C. Adams. 2015. A method for analysis of phenotypic change for phenotypes described by high-dimensional data. Heredity 115:357–365.
- Conaway, M. A., and D. C. Adams. 2022. An effect size for comparing the strength of morphological integration across studies. Evolution 76:2244–2259.
- Drake, A. G., and C. P. Klingenberg. 2008. The pace of morphological change: Historical transformation of skull shape in St Bernard dogs. Proceedings of the Royal Society B:

 Biological Sciences 275:71–76.
- Durant, S. M., N. Pettorelli, S. Bashir, R. Woodroffe, T. Wacher, P. De Ornellas, C. Ransom,
- T. Abáigar, M. Abdelgadir, H. El Alqamy, M. Beddiaf, F. Belbachir, A. Belbachir-Bazi, A.
- A. Berbash, R. Beudels-Jamar, L. Boitani, C. Breitenmoser, M. Cano, P. Chardonnet, B.
- Collen, W. A. Cornforth, F. Cuzin, P. Gerngross, B. Haddane, M. Hadjeloum, A. Jacobson,
- A. Jebali, F. Lamarque, D. Mallon, K. Minkowski, S. Monfort, B. Ndoassal, J. Newby, B.
- E. Ngakoutou, B. Niagate, G. Purchase, S. Samaïla, A. K. Samna, C. Sillero-Zubiri, A. E.
- Soultan, M. R. Stanley Price, and J. E. M. Baillie. 2012. Forgotten biodiversity in desert ecosystems. Science 336:1379–1380.
- Esquerré, D., E. Sherratt, and J. S. Keogh. 2017. Evolution of extreme ontogenetic allometric diversity and heterochrony in pythons, a clade of giant and dwarf snakes. Evolution 71:2829–2844.

- Felice, R. N., D. Pol, and A. Goswami. 2021. Complex macroevolutionary dynamics underly the evolution of the crocodyliform skull. Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences 288:20210919.
- Felice, R. N., M. Randau, and A. Goswami. 2018. A fly in a tube: Macroevolutionary expectations for integrated phenotypes. Evolution 72:2580–2594.
- Firmat, C., I. Lozano-Fernández, J. Agustí, G. H. Bolstad, G. Cuenca-Bescós, T. F. Hansen, and
 C. Pélabon. 2014. Walk the line: 600000 years of molar evolution constrained by allometry
 in the fossil rodent *Mimomys savini*. Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B:
 Biological Sciences 369:20140057.
- Foster, K. L., T. Garland, L. Schmitz, and T. E. Higham. 2018. Skink ecomorphology: Forelimb and hind limb lengths, but not static stability, correlate with habitat use and demonstrate multiple solutions. Biological Journal of the Linnean Society 125:673–692.
- Freedman, D., and D. Lane. 1983. A nonstochastic interpretation of reported significance levels.

 Journal of Business & Economic Statistics 1:292–298.
- Friedman, S. T., M. L. Collyer, S. A. Price, and P. C. Wainwright. 2022. Divergent Processes
 Drive Parallel Evolution in Marine and Freshwater Fishes. Systematic biology 71:1319–1330.
- Fuentes, E. R., and J. Cancino. 1979. Rock-ground patchiness in a simple liolaemus lizard community (reptilia, lacertilia, iguanidae). Journal of Herpetology 13:343.
- Garcia-Porta, J., M. Simó-Riudalbas, M. Robinson, and S. Carranza. 2017. Diversification
 in arid mountains: Biogeography and cryptic diversity of *Pristurus rupestris rupestris* in
 Arabia. Journal of Biogeography 44:1694–1704.
- Goodman, B. A., D. B. Miles, and L. Schwarzkopf. 2008. Life on the rocks: Habitat use drives morphological and performance evolution in lizards. Ecology 89:3462–3471.
- Goswami, A., M. Randau, P. D. Polly, V. Weisbecker, C. Verity Bennett, L. Hautier, and M. R. Sánchez-Villagra. 2016. Do developmental constraints and high integration limit the evolution of the marsupial oral apparatus? Integrative and Comparative Biology 56:404–415.
- Goswami, A., J. B. Smaers, C. Soligo, and P. D. Polly. 2014. The macroevolutionary consequences of phenotypic integration: From development to deep time. Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences 369:20130254.
- Gould, S. J. 1966. Allometry and size in ontogeny and phylogeny. Biological Reviews 41:587–638.

- Grant, P. R., and B. R. Grant. 2006. Evolution of character displacement in darwin's finches.

 Science 313:224–226.
- Hall, M. I., J. M. Kamilar, and E. C. Kirk. 2012. Eye shape and the nocturnal bottleneck of mammals. Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences 279:4962–4968.
- Hall, M. I., and C. F. Ross. 2006. Eye shape and activity pattern in birds. Journal of Zoology 271:437–444.
- Hipsley, C. A., and J. Müller. 2017. Developmental dynamics of ecomorphological convergence in a transcontinental lizard radiation. Evolution 71:936–948.
- Huey, R. B. 1974. Behavioral thermoregulation in lizards: Importance of associated costs.

 Science 184:1001–1003.
- Huxley, J. S. 1932. The problems of relative growth. Johns Hopkins University Pres.
- James, S. E., and R. T. M'closkey. 2004. Patterns of body size and habitat use in a lizard assemblage. Ecoscience 11:160–167.
- Jastrebski, C. J., and B. W. Robinson. 2004. Natural selection and the evolution of replicated trophic polymorphisms in pumpkinseed sunfish (*Lepomis gibbosus*). Evolutionary Ecology Research 6:285–305.
- Jolicoeur, P. 1963. The multivariate generalization of the allometry equation. Biometrics 19:497–499.
- Kaliontzopoulou, A., M. A. Carretero, and D. C. Adams. 2015. Ecomorphological variation in male and female wall lizards and the macroevolution of sexual dimorphism in relation to habitat use. Journal of Evolutionary Biology 28:80–94.
- Kaliontzopoulou, A., M. A. Carretero, and G. A. Llorente. 2010. Intraspecific ecomorphological variation: Linear and geometric morphometrics reveal habitat-related patterns within Podarcis bocagei wall lizards. Journal of Evolutionary Biology 23:1234–1244.
- Kappelman, J., D. T. Rasmussen, W. J. Sanders, M. Feseha, T. Bown, P. Copeland, J. Crabaugh,
- J. Fleagle, M. Glantz, A. Gordon, B. Jacobs, M. Maga, K. Muldoon, A. Pan, L. Pyne, B.
- Richmond, T. Ryan, E. R. Seiffert, S. Sen, L. Todd, M. C. Wiemann, and A. Winkler. 2003.
- Oligocene mammals from Ethiopia and faunal exchange between Afro-Arabia and Eurasia.
- Nature 426:549–552.
- Klingenberg, C. P. 1996. Advances in morphometrics. Pp. 23–49 in L. F. Marcus, M. Corti, A.

- Loy, and G. J. P. N. D. E. Slice, eds. Plenum Press.
- Klingenberg, C. P. 2016. Size, shape, and form: Concepts of allometry in geometric morphometrics. Development Genes and Evolution 226:113–137.
- Klingenberg, C. P., and J. Marugán-Lobón. 2013. Evolutionary covariation in geometric morphometric data: Analyzing integration, modularity, and allometry in a phylogenetic
- context. Systematic Biology 62:591–610.
- Klingenberg, C. P., and M. Zimmermann. 1992. Static, ontogenetic, and evolutionary allometry:
- A multivariate comparison in nine species of water striders. American Naturalist 140:601–620.
- Kolmann, M. A., F. P. L. Marques, J. C. Weaver, M. N. Dean, J. P. Fontenelle, and N. R.
- Lovejoy. 2022. Ecological and phenotypic diversification after a continental invasion in
- 656 neotropical freshwater stingrays. Integrative and Comparative Biology 62:424–440.
- LaBarbera, M. 1989. Analyzing body size as a factor in ecology and evolution. Annual Review of Ecology and Systematics 20:97–117.
- Lande, R. 1979. Quantitative genetic analysis of multivariate evolution, applied to brain-body size allometry. Evolution 33:402–416.
- Lande, R. 1985. Size and scaling in primate biology. Pp. 21–32 in W. L. Jungers, ed. Plenum
 Press.
- Losos, J. B. 2009. Lizards in an evolutionary tree: Ecology and adaptive radiation of anoles.

 University of California Press.
- Losos, J. B. 1992. The evolution of convergent structure in Caribbean *Anolis* communities.

 Systematic Biology 41:403–420.
- Losos, J. B., and R. E. Ricklefs. 2009. Adaptation and diversification on islands. Nature 457:830–836.
- Mahler, D. L., T. Ingram, L. J. Revell, and J. B. Losos. 2013. Exceptional convergence on the macroevolutionary landscape in island lizard radiations. Science 341:292–295.
- Marcy, A. E., T. Guillerme, E. Sherratt, K. C. Rowe, M. J. Phillips, and V. Weisbecker. 2020.
- Australian rodents reveal conserved cranial evolutionary allometry across 10 million years of
- murid evolution. The American Naturalist 196:755–768.
- Marroig, G., and J. M. Cheverud. 2005. Size as a line of least evolutionary resistance: Diet and adaptive morphological radiation in New World monkeys. Evolution 59:1128–1142.

- Martinez, C. M., S. T. Friedman, K. A. Corn, O. Larouche, S. A. Price, and P. C. Wainwright.
- 2021. The deep sea is a hot spot of fish body shape evolution. Ecology Letters 24:1788–1799.
- Meiri, S. 2008. Evolution and ecology of lizard body sizes. Global Ecology and Biogeography
 17:724–734.
- Mosimann, J. E. 1970. Size allometry: Size and shape variables with characterizations of the lognormal and generalized gamma distributions. Journal of the American Statistical Association 65:930–945.
- Navalón, G., A. Bjarnason, E. Griffiths, and R. B. J. Benson. 2022. Environmental signal in the evolutionary diversification of bird skeletons. Nature 611:306–311.
- Navalón, G., J. Marugán-Lobón, J. A. Bright, C. R. Cooney, and E. J. Rayfield. 2020. The consequences of craniofacial integration for the adaptive radiations of Darwin's finches and Hawaiian honeycreepers. Nature Ecology & Evolution 4:270–278. Nature Publishing Group.
- Olson, V. A., R. G. Davies, C. D. L. Orme, G. H. Thomas, S. Meiri, T. M. Blackburn, K. J. Gaston, I. P. F. Owens, and P. M. Bennett. 2009. Global biogeography and ecology of body size in birds. Ecology Letters 12:249–259.
- Patterson, M., A. K. Wolfe, P. A. Fleming, P. W. Bateman, M. L. Martin, E. Sherratt, and
 N. M. Warburton. 2022. Ontogenetic shift in diet of a large elapid snake is facilitated by
 allometric change in skull morphology. Evolutionary Ecology 36:489–509.
- Pavlicev, M., J. M. Cheverud, and G. P. Wagner. 2009. Measuring morphological integration using eigenvalue variance. Evolutionary Biology 36:157–170.
- Pélabon, C., G. H. Bolstad, C. K. Egset, J. M. Cheverud, M. Pavlicev, and G. Rosenqvist. 2014.
 On the relationship between ontogenetic and static allometry. The American Naturalist
 181:195–212.
- Peters, R. H. 1983. The ecological implications of body size. Cambridge University Press.
- Piras, P., P. Colangelo, D. C. Adams, A. Buscalioni, J. Cubo, T. Kotsakis, C. Meloro, and P. Raia. 2010. The gavialis-tomistoma debate: The contribution of skull ontogenetic allometry and growth trajectories to the study of crocodylian relationships. Evolution and Development 12:568–579.
- Price, S. A., S. T. Friedman, and P. C. Wainwright. 2015. How predation shaped fish: The impact of fin spines on body form evolution across teleosts. Proceedings of the Royal Society

- 706 B: Biological Sciences 282:20151428.
- Pyron, R. A., and F. T. Burbrink. 2009. Body size as a primary determinant of ecomorphologi-
- cal diversification and the evolution of mimicry in the lampropeltinine snakes (serpentes:
- colubridae). Journal of Evolutionary Biology 22:2057–2067. Wiley.
- R Core Team. 2022. R: A language and environment for statistical computing. Version 4.2.1. R
- Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria.
- Reaney, A. M., Y. Bouchenak-Khelladi, J. A. Tobias, and A. Abzhanov. 2020. Ecological and
- morphological determinants of evolutionary diversification in Darwin's finches and their
- relatives. Ecology and Evolution 10:14020–14032.
- Revell, L. J. 2012. Phytools: An R package for phylogenetic comparative biology (and other
- things). Methods in Ecology and Evolution 3:217–223.
- Reynolds, R. G., D. C. Collar, S. A. Pasachnik, M. L. Niemiller, A. R. Puente-Rolón, and L. J.
- Revell. 2016. Ecological specialization and morphological diversification in Greater Antillean
- boas. Evolution 70:1882–1895.
- Ross, C. F., M. I. Hall, and C. P. Heesy. 2007. Were basal primates nocturnal? Evidence from
- eye and orbit shape. Pp. 233–256 in PRIMATE ORIGINS: Adaptations and evolution.
- Springer.
- Samuels, J. X., and S. S. B. Hopkins. 2017. The impacts of Cenozoic climate and habitat changes
- on small mammal diversity of North America. Global and Planetary Change 149:36–52.
- Schluter, D. 1996. Adaptive radiation along genetic lines of least resistance. Evolution 50:1766–
- 726 1774.
- Schluter, D., and P. R. Grant. 1984. Determinants of morphological patterns in communities of
- Darwin's finches. The American Naturalist 123:175–196.
- Schluter, D., and J. D. McPhail. 1992. Ecological character displacement and speciation in
- sticklebacks. The American Naturalist 140:85–108.
- Sherratt, E., D. J. Gower, C. P. Klingenberg, and M. Wilkinson. 2014. Evolution of cranial
- shape in caecilians (amphibia: gymnophiona). Evolutionary Biology 41:528–545.
- 533 Sidlauskas, B. 2008. Continuous and arrested morphological diversification in sister clades of
- characiform fishes: A phylomorphospace approach. Evolution 62:3135–3156.
- Stuart, Y. E., T. Veen, J. N. Weber, D. Hanson, M. Ravinet, B. K. Lohman, C. J. Thompson, T.

- Tasneem, A. Doggett, R. Izen, N. Ahmed, R. D. H. Barrett, A. P. Hendry, C. L. Peichel, and D. I. Bolnick. 2017. Contrasting effects of environment and genetics generate a continuum of parallel evolution. Nature Ecology and Evolution 1:158.
- Tamar, K., P. Mitsi, M. Simó-Riudalbas, H. Tejero-Cicuéndez, T. Al-Sariri, and S. Carranza.
 2019. Systematics, biogeography, and evolution of *Pristurus minimus* (Squamata, Sphaero-dactylidae) with the discovery of the smallest Arabian vertebrate. Systematics and Biodiversity 17:349–366.
- Tejero-Cicuéndez, H., A. H. Patton, D. S. Caetano, J. Šmíd, L. J. Harmon, and S. Carranza.

 2022. Reconstructing squamate biogeography in Afro-Arabia reveals the influence of a

 complex and dynamic geologic past. Systematic Biology 71:261–272.
- Tejero-Cicuéndez, H., M. Simó-Riudalbas, I. Menéndez, and S. Carranza. 2021a. Ecological specialization, rather than the island effect, explains morphological diversification in an ancient radiation of geckos. Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences 288:20211821.
- Tejero-Cicuéndez, H., M. Simó-Riudalbas, I. Menéndez, and S. Carranza. 2021b. Ecological specialization, rather than the island effect, explains morphological diversification in an ancient radiation of geckos. Dryad digital repository. (Doi:10.5061/dryad.xwdbrv1f6).
- Urban, S., J. Gerwin, C. D. Hulsey, A. Meyer, and C. F. Kratochwil. 2022. The repeated evolution of stripe patterns is correlated with body morphology in the adaptive radiations of East African cichlid fishes. Ecology and Evolution 12:e8568.
- Voje, K. L., M. A. Bell, and Y. E. Stuart. 2022. Evolution of static allometry and constraint on evolutionary allometry in a fossil stickleback. Journal of Evolutionary Biology 35:423–438.
- Voje, K. L., T. F. Hansen, C. K. Egset, G. H. Bolstad, and C. Pélabon. 2014. Allometric constraints and the evolution of allometry. Evolution 68:866–885.
- Wagner, G. P., and J. Zhang. 2011. The pleiotropic structure of the genotype-phenotype map:

 The evolvability of complex organisms. Nature Reviews Genetics 12:204–213.
- Wagner, G., and L. Altenberg. 1996. Perspective: Complex adaptations and the evolution of evolvability. Evolution 50:967–976.
- Watanabe, A., A. C. Fabre, R. N. Felice, J. A. Maisano, J. Müller, A. Herrel, and A. Goswami.

 2019. Ecomorphological diversification in squamates from conserved pattern of cranial
 integration. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of

America 116:14688–14697.

Wickham, H., M. Averick, J. Bryan, W. Chang, L. D. McGowan, R. François, G. Grolemund, A. Hayes, L. Henry, J. Hester, M. Kuhn, T. L. Pedersen, E. Miller, S. M. Bache, K. Müller, J. Ooms, D. Robinson, D. P. Seidel, V. Spinu, K. Takahashi, D. Vaughan, C. Wilke, K. Woo, and H. Yutani. 2019. Welcome to the tidyverse. Journal of Open Source Software 4:1686.

Zelditch, M. L., and D. L. Swiderski. 2022. The predictable complexity of evolutionary allometry.

Evolutionary Biology 50:56–77.

772

Acknowledgments: We are very grateful to J. Roca, M. Metallinou, K. Tamar, J. Šmíd, R. Vasconcelos, R. Sindaco, F. Amat, Ph. de Pous, L. Machado, J. Garcia-Porta, J. Els, T. Mazuch,
T. Papenfuss, and all the people from the Environment Authority, Oman, for their help in
different aspects of the work.

773

774

Funding Statement: This work was funded in part by PGC2018-098290-B-I00 (MCIU/AEI/FEDER, 779 UE) and PID2021-128901NB-I00 (MCIN/AEI/10.13039/501100011033 and by ERDF, A way 780 of making Europe), Spain to SC. HT-C is supported by a "Juan de la Cierva - Formación" 781 postdoctoral fellowship (FJC2021-046832-I). IM was funded by the Alexander von Humboldt 782 Foundation through a Humboldt Research Fellowship. AT is supported by the "la Caixa" 783 doctoral fellowship programme (LCF/BQ/DR20/11790007). GR was funded by an FPI grant 784 from the Ministerio de Ciencia, Innovación y Universidades, Spain (PRE2019-088729). BB-C 785 was funded by FPU grant from Ministerio de Ciencia, Innovación y Universidades, Spain 786 (FPU18/04742). DCA was funded in part by National Science Foundation Grant DBI-1902511. 787

Data availability statement: All the data used in this study are available on DRYAD from a previous study: https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.xwdbrv1f6 (Tejero-Cicuéndez et al. 2021b). The scripts for implementing all analyses and generating the figures in this manuscript can be found in the Supplementary Material and in a GitHub repository (and on DRYAD upon acceptance).

Competing interests: The authors declare no competing interests.