- Evolution along allometric lines of least resistance: Morphological
- differentiation in *Pristurus* geckos
- ⁴ Héctor Tejero-Cicuéndez^{1,2,*}, Iris Menéndez³, Adrián Talavera², Gabriel Riaño²,
- Bernat Burriel-Carranza², Marc Simó-Riudalbas², Salvador Carranza², and Dean C.
- \mathbf{Adams}^4
- 7 17 April, 2023
- ⁸ Evolution and Conservation Biology research Group, Department of Biodiversity, Ecology and
- 9 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 18 trends and trait integration levels is less well understood. Here we evaluate the role of allometry 19 in shaping 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 21 habitat preferences, with ground-dwelling *Pristurus* displaying the most divergent allometric trend 22 and high levels of integration. There was also strong concordance between static 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; 62 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 manifest widely 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; 69 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 ontogenetic and evolutionary allometry are thought to play a decisive role in shaping patterns of phenotypic diversification across the tree of life. 75

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).

76

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 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 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, as our understanding of the dynamics of biological systems in remote arid regions is generally 99 neglected and understudied (Durant et al. 2012). Furthermore, prior work on this system 100 (Tejero-Cicuéndez et al. 2021a) has revealed that the colonization of ground habitats has been 101 a trigger of morphological change, specifically reflected in an increase in body size and shape 102 disparity. Interestingly, some ground-dwelling species are among the largest of the genus and 103 also show increased relative head sizes and limb proportions, while some other species with 104 this ecological specialization have evolved to be among the smallest of the group. Additionally, 105 among the species exploiting rocky habitats (the most common ecological feature in *Pristurus*), 106 there are also species with both considerably large and small body sizes (Tejero-Cicuéndez et al. 107 2021a). What remains unexplored, however, is how the evolution of body form is related to dif-108 ferences in body size and whether habitat specialization has an impact in this shape-size relationship. 109

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 static 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

25 (a) Data

We used a combination of phenotypic, phylogenetic, and ecological data to characterize and evaluate intra- and interspecific allometric trends in *Pristurus*. The data utilized here were obtained from 127 our prior work on this system (Tejero-Cicuéndez et al. 2021a, 2022), and are briefly described 128 here. First we used a time-calibrated molecular phylogeny of squamates that included all members 129 of the genus *Pristurus*, including several currently undescribed taxa. The tree was estimated in 130 a Bayesian framework, using five mitochondrial markers, six nuclear markers, and 21 calibration 131 points (Tejero-Cicuéndez et al. 2022). Next we categorized each species as belonging to one of three 132 ecological habitat groups (ground-dwelling, rock-dwelling, or tree-arboreal). Habitat designations 133 were based on substrate preferences and habitat use as found through extensive field observations 134 described in the primary literature (Arnold 1993; Arnold 2009, and references therein). Finally, 135 we obtained a phenotypic data set containing body size (snout-vent length: SVL) and eight linear 136 measurements (Figure 1) that described overall body form: trunk length (TL), head length (HL), 137 head width (HW), head height (HH), humerus length (Lhu), ulna length (Lun), femur length 138 (Lfe), and tibia length (Ltb) (Tejero-Cicuéndez et al. 2021a). We restricted our study to those 139 species represented by nine or more individuals; resulting in a dataset of 687 individuals from 140 25 species (invidivuals per species: mean=27; min = 9, max = 56). All specimens used in this 141 study were adults, and thus patterns of ontogenetic allometry could not be explored. Species in 142 the phenotypic dataset were then matched to the phylogeny, which was subsequently pruned to 143 the final topology. All measurements were log-transformed prior to statistical analyses. Additional 144 details regarding data collection and formal descriptions of each linear measurement may be found 145

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).

148 (b) Statistical and Comparative Analyses

We conducted a series of analyses to interrogate allometric trends, patterns of integration, and 149 macroevolutionary changes in allometry, relative to differentiation in body form. First we 150 characterized evolutionary allometry in the genus by performing a phylogenetic multivariate regression of body form on body size (i.e., SVL), using the species means as data. We then evaluated 152 patterns of static allometry among individuals using a pooled within-species regression (sensu 153 Klingenberg 2016). Here a pooled within-species dataset was generated by obtaining residuals for all 154 individuals relative to their respective species means, which were then pooled across species. This 155 dataset was then used in a multivariate regression to obtain an overall estimate of static allometry 156 among individuals. By first removing species-specific differences, this procedure partials out trends 157 of evolutionary allometry from the data, enabling patterns of static and evolutionary allometry to be disentangled. From both the species-level and the individual-level analyses, we obtained the set 159 of regression coefficients, which respectively described the trajectories of evolutionary and static 160 allometry in morphospace. We then calculated the difference in their direction in morphospace to 161 discern the extent to which patterns of static allometry at the individual level were concordant with 162 evolutionary allometric trends across species. 163

164

Next we used the pooled within-species dataset to determine whether trends in static allometry 165 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 167 model effects was evaluated using 999 iterations of a permutation procedure, where residuals 168 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 the 170 observed test statistics (following Freedman and Lane 1983; Collyer and Adams 2007; Collyer et al. 171 2015). In this analysis, no variation was attributable to the habitat effect, as the pooled-within 172 species data are mean-centered for both the dependent and independent variables. However, any 173

differences in multivariate allometric slopes among habitats will be discernable, and revealed by a 174 significant $SVL \times habitat$ interaction. To evaluate this possibility, we compared the direction of multivariate allometric vectors for each habitat group to one another, and to a vector representing 176 multivariate isometry, by calculating pairwise angular differences in their direction in morphospace, and evaluating these relative to empirical sampling distributions obtained through RRPP (Collyer 178 and Adams 2007; Adams and Collyer 2009; Collyer and Adams 2013). Here, residuals were obtained 179 from a common isometry reduced model, whose common slope component described a pattern of 180 multivariate isometry, and whose intercepts allowed for differences in least-squares means among 181 groups. Patterns of multivariate allometry relative to body size were visualized via regression 182 scores (Drake and Klingenberg 2008) and predicted lines (Adams and Nistri 2010), based on the 183 coefficients and fitted values from the linear model described above. 184

185

186

187

188

189

190

191

192

194

195

196

177

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

197

To determine the extent to which static and evolutionary allometry were concordant, we evaluated the directions in morphospace of both the evolutionary (species-level) and static (habitat-based) 199 allometric trends. Specifically, we obtained the set of regression coefficients from both the 200 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 202

static 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.

206

Next, to discern how allometric trends resulted in the evolution of distinct body forms, we 207 examined changes in relative body form across the phylogeny. Here we treated the head 208 dimensions and limb dimensions separately, as allometric trends could potentially differ between these body regions due to differential functional or selective constraints (Kaliontzopoulou 210 2010). Because both the head and limb data were multivariate, we used regression 211 scores (sensu Drake and Klingenberg 2008) of a multivariate regression of head traits versus 212 SVL and limb traits versus SVL to represent the allometric trends in each dataset. We then 213 measured the mean residuals of each species to the inferred allometric trend, which described 214 the extent to which head and limb proportions of species were greater or smaller than expected 215 for their body size. The species residuals were then mapped on the phylogeny of Pristurus 216 using a Brownian motion model of evolution, to qualitatively evaluate shifts in head and limbs 217 proportionality across the phylogeny for the group. Similarly, within-species patterns of static allome-218 try were visualized by plotting regression scores versus SVL for both head and limb traits separately. 219

220

Finally, to relate within-species allometric trends with patterns of phenotypic diversification in the 221 group we generated a phylomorphospace (sensu Sidlauskas 2008), based on a principal component 222 analyses (PCA) of the size-standardized species means (i.e., relative body proportions) obtained 223 from a phylogenetic regression (see Tejero-Cicuéndez et al. 2021a). Here, phenotypic similarities 224 among species, relative to their phylogenetic relationships and habitat affiliations, were observed. 225 A similar phylomorphospace was constructed for species means not corrected for body size, and 226 the phenotypic disparity among species means in each habitat was calculated and subsequently compared (Supplementary Material). Additionally, anatomical changes associated with allometric 228 trends across taxa were visually depicted via representative specimens from the largest and smallest 229 ground-dwelling species (scaled to unit size), and specimens from a large and small rock-dwelling species, to aid in describing these allometric trends. All analyses were conducted in R 4.2.1 (R 231

Core Team 2022), using RRPP version 1.3.2 (Collyer and Adams 2018; Collyer and Adams 2022)
and geomorph 4.0.5 (Baken et al. 2021a) for statistical analyses and the tidyverse version 1.3.0
(Wickham et al. 2019), phytools version 0.7-77 (Revell 2012), and a modified version of the
function ggphylomorpho [https://github.com/wabarr/ggphylomorpho] for data manipulation and
visualization, as well as scripts written by the authors (Supplementary Material).

37 3. Results

245

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 static 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 ($\theta = 5.64^{\circ}$). This revealed that the pattern of multivariate allometry across individuals was largely concordant with macroevolutionary trends of interspecific static allometry among species of *Pristurus* across the phylogeny.

Our analyses also exposed significant differences in the allometry of body form among Pristurus 246 utilizing distinct habitats (Table 1). Further, pairwise comparisons of multivariate allometric 247 vectors revealed that patterns of static allometry in each habitat differed significantly from isometry, indicating the presence of multivariate allometry in each (Table 2). Additionally, 249 comparisons identified that ground-dwelling Pristurus displayed the most distinct allometric 250 trend as compared with *Pristurus* occupying both the rock and tree habitats (Table 2; Figure 251 2). Here, regression coefficients of each trait versus size (Supplementary Material) revealed 252 that ground-dwelling *Pristurus* exhibited higher coefficients for head traits as compared with 253 rock-dwelling and tree-dwelling taxa ($\beta_{ground} > \beta_{rock}; \beta_{ground} > \beta_{tree}$). By contrast, coefficients for limb traits were somewhat smaller for ground-dwelling Pristurus as compared with other 255 taxa $(\beta_{ground} < \beta_{rock}; \beta_{ground} < \beta_{tree})$. Thus, these findings implied that within species, larger 256 individuals of ground-dwelling *Pristurus* displayed proportionately larger heads and slightly smaller 257 limbs as compared with large individuals in taxa utilizing other habitat types. Visualizations 258 of the allometric trends (Figure 2) confirmed these statistical findings, and indicated that the 250

allometric trajectory in ground-dwelling *Pristurus* was more extreme as compared with either rockor tree-dwelling *Pristurus*.

262

Examination of patterns of trait covariation for the pooled within-species data revealed strong 263 levels of morphological integration in the ground and tree ecotypes, with lower levels of integration 264 Subsequent two-sample tests revealed that the strength of displayed in the rock habitat. 265 morphological integration was significantly greater in both ground-dwelling and tree-dwelling 266 Pristurus than in those utilizing rock ($Z_{ground-rock} = 6.05$; $P \ll 0.001$; $Z_{tree-rock} = 4.07$; 267 $P \ll 0.001$). Levels of morphological integration did not differ between ground and tree-dwelling 268 Pristurus ($Z_{tree-rock} = 0.38$; P = 0.702). Finally, when body size was taken into account, levels of integration dropped considerably, though the overall pattern and differences among habitat groups 270 remained the same (Supplementary Material). 271

272

Comparisons of evolutionary allometry with static allometry in each habitat revealed substantial 273 concordance between allometric trends across these levels. Here, vectors of regression coefficients representing static allometry within habitat groups were oriented in very similar directions with the 275 regression vector representing evolutionary allometry, with small pairwise angles between them 276 $(\theta:5.8^{\circ}\to7.2^{\circ})$. Subsequent permutation tests indicated no differences in direction between the 277 regression vector representing evolutionary allometry and the static allometry vectors for *Pristurus* 278 in both the ground or tree habitats, indicating strong congruence between them (Table 3). By 279 contrast, rock-dwelling *Pristurus* differed most in their static allometry trend relative to patterns of evolutionary allometry. Notably, static allometry in ground-dwelling *Pristurus* was most similar 281 to trends of evolutionary allometry, displaying the smallest angular difference in direction when 282 compared to evolutionary allometry. Overall, these findings implied that phenotypic evolution 283 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 285 - exhibited disproportionately larger heads and limbs, while smaller individuals – and smaller 286 ground-dwelling species – displayed disproportionately smaller heads and limbs.

Mapping the residuals of phylogenetic regression onto the phylogeny showed that large grounddwelling species displayed greater head proportions than large rock-dwelling species, who exhibited smaller heads relative to body size (Figure 3A). Conversely, the opposite pattern was observed when 291 comparing small species utilizing these habitats: ground-dwelling species showed small relative head 292 proportions while rock-dwelling species displayed generally larger head proportions. In contrast, 293 limb shape showed more variable patterns. Although all large ground-dwelling species consistently 294 displayed large relative limb proportions, large rock-dwelling species were more variable in this 295 trait, with P. insignis exhibiting large and P. insignoides small limb proportions. For small species, 296 shifts in relative limb proportions seemed more independent of habitat utilization, since there were differences in limb residuals both within rock- and ground-dwelling species (Figure 3B). Likeweise, 298 static allometry trends within species revealed that ground-dwelling species generally displayed 290 steeper allometric patterns in head proportions as compared with rock-dwelling species (Figure 4). Overall there was general concordance across taxa in terms of trends of multivariate allometry, 301 affirming that the association between evolutionary allometry and habitat-based static allometry 302 was robust. 303

304

Viewing differentiation in relative body proportions in *Pristurus* in phylomorphospace (Figure 305 5) revealed broad overlap among habitat groups in the first few dimensions, though arboreal 306 (tree-dwelling) species were somewhat more constrained in morphospace. Rock-dwelling species 307 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 309 in relation to body size, large *Pristurus* species were not localized to a particular region of 310 morphospace, nor were smaller species. Instead, the largest rock-dwelling species were found in close 311 proximity to the smallest ground-dwelling species, indicating that they were similar in relative body 312 proportions. Likewise, the smallest rock-dwelling species were found close to large ground-dwelling 313 species in morphospace, indicating they displayed similar body proportions as well. 314

315

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 ground-dwelling *Pristurus* species displayed disproportionately larger heads and limbs as compared with large *Pristurus* species utilizing other habitat types. 319 smaller rock-dwelling species were found to have disproportionately larger heads and limbs as 320 compared with smaller ground-dwelling species. These patterns corresponded closely with those 321 identified in morphospace (Figure 5), where large ground-dwelling species were similar in body 322 form to small rock-dwelling species, while small ground-dwelling species were similar in body 323 form to large rock-dwelling species (Figure 6). Thus, synthesizing the patterns revealed in the 324 phylomorphospace with those from the other analyses revealed that the same body proportions 325 could be obtained in different ways, as determined by subtle differences in allometric slope across habitats, combined with body size differences. As such, species with similar body proportinos dis-327 played differing overall size, were found in distinct habitats, and exhibited different allometric trends. 328

329

4. Discussion

Elucidating the selective forces that generate patterns of phenotypic diversity is a major goal in 331 evolutionary biology. For species that utilize distinct habitats, disentangling the causes of phenotypic 332 differentiation across those habitats is essential for our understanding of how natural selection 333 operates and how evolution proceeds. In this study, we evaluated the role of potential drivers of 334 body form differentiation in the geckos of the genus Pristurus. To this end, we compared allometric 335 trends and levels of integration among *Pristurus* occupying distinct habitats, interrogated allometric 336 patterns at both the static and evolutionary levels, and related these trends to diversification in body 337 form. Our findings have several important implications for how ecological specialization, phenotypic 338 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. 340

341

First, our analyses revealed that patterns of allometry in body form and morphological integration are relatively distinct in ground-dwelling *Pristurus* lizards, as compared with *Pristurus* occupying other habitats. Specifically, we found that multivariate vectors of regression coefficients differed significantly from what was expected under isometry (Table 2) for taxa utilizing all habitat

types (ground, rock, tree), indicating that in *Pristurus*, allometric scaling patterns predominate. Further, our interrogation of allometric trends revealed differences between habitat types, where ground-dwelling *Pristurus* displayed steeper allometric trends for head traits as compared with 348 rock and tree-dwelling taxa. Biologically, these patterns revealed that not only does shape differ 349 between large and small *Pristurus*, but this pattern differs across habitat types. Specifically, large 350 ground-dwelling *Pristurus* present disproportionately larger heads relative to large individuals 351 in other habitats, while small ground-dwelling *Pristurus* exhibit disproportionately smaller 352 heads (Figure 3). These findings are consistent with previous work at the macroevolutionary 353 level (Tejero-Cicuéndez et al. 2021a), where large ground species were also found to display 354 disproportionately large heads. 355

356

Second, our findings revealed that within species, rock-dwelling *Pristurus* show a converse pattern, 357 where smaller individuals displayed relatively larger heads, while larger individuals have smaller 358 heads relative to their body size. These allometric patterns also corresponded with findings at 350 macroevolutionary scales (Tejero-Cicuéndez et al. 2021a), where similar patterns at the species 360 level were observed. Regarding relative limb proportions, we found a high variability among 361 small rock-dwelling species rather than a common pattern (Figure 3B). Indeed, earlier work in 362 the subclade comprising several of these species (the P. rupestris species complex) found two 363 well-differentiated phenotypes in populations of these lineages segregated by elevation (Garcia-Porta 364 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 366 realm. Tejero-Cicuéndez et al. (2021a) also performed habitat ancestral estimation, finding that the 367 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 this lens, it suggests 369 the hypothesis that habitat shifts from rock-dwelling to ground-dwelling incurred a concomitant 370 evolutionary shift in allometric trajectories as well (Adams and Nistri 2010). Indeed, our analyses 371 are consistent with this hypothesis, as allometric trends are inferred to be more rock-like towards 372 the root of the *Pristurus* phylogeny (Figure 3), with subsequent shifts along branches leading to 373 ground-dwelling species. This further suggests that the segregation in body size and shape through 374

differential allometric relationships across habitats responds to adaptive dynamics concerning the colonization of new habitats. Thus, in *Pristurus*, there is support for the hypothesis that 376 colonization of ground habitats has been a trigger for morphological change (Tejero-Cicuéndez 377 et al. 2021a), as there appears to be a link between shifts in allometric trajectories as a result of 378 habitat-induced selection, and differential patterns of body form observed across taxa. Similar 379 patterns have been observed in other taxa, where differences in allometric trajectories are associated 380 with ecological differences across species (Esquerré et al. 2017; Patterson et al. 2022; Chatterji 381 et al. 2022). More broadly, these findings are consistent with prior discoveries in other lizards, 382 where the differential selective pressures imposed by rocky and ground habitats have resulted in the 383 differentiation of head and limb morphology (Goodman et al. 2008; Kaliontzopoulou et al. 2010; 384 Garcia-Porta et al. 2017; Foster et al. 2018). Indeed, such phenotypic differences resulting from 385 the effects of habitat-based 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 387 and Hopkins 2017; Watanabe et al. 2019; Busschau and Boissinot 2022; Navalón et al. 2022; 388 Friedman et al. 2022), and our work in *Pristurus* thus contributes to this growing body of literature. 389

390

Biologically, the findings revealed here may reflect ecological and behavioral changes linked to the 391 adoption of a new lifestyle. For lizards, the transition to utilizing ground habitats implies adopting 392 an existence in more open environments than in rocky substrates. As such, numerous aspects 393 of daily existence (including activity patterns, climatic factors, prey availability, abundance of 394 predators, etc.) are expected to exert a differential influence on an organism's phenotype when 395 compared with life in their ancestral environment (Fuentes and Cancino (1979)). Indeed, the largest 396 ground-dwelling Pristurus species (P. carteri, P. ornitocephalus, and P. collaris) differ from the rest 397 of the genus in having developed partially nocturnal habits, which would presumably have major 398 ecological consequences for their survival and reproduction. In this sense, these species might have 399 been subjected to evolutionary processes selecting for larger relative head proportions, which would 400 allow them to accommodate larger or modified eyes, a clear advantage in animals with nocturnal and semi-nocturnal habits (Hall and Ross 2006; Ross et al. 2007; Hall et al. 2012). Likewise, the 402 steep allometric patterns found in the limbs of large ground-dwelling species (Figure 3B) might be 403

related to selective processes favoring longer limbs in large species present in this new ecological context. Longer limbs in open habitats might be advantageous for rapidly running and hiding in the sparse vegetation (Arnold 2009) and, in hyper-arid areas such as the Arabian Peninsula, this morphology might contribute to thermoregulation separating the body from the ground (Huey 1974; Arnold 1980; Avery et al. 1982). A more detailed examination of behavioral and morphological traits (e.g., eye shape, limb insertion) might shed light on the factors driving this pattern.

410

Another important finding of our study was the strong concordance between static allometry 411 across individuals and evolutionary allometry among Pristurus species. Our analyses revealed 412 small pairwise angles between static and evolutionary allometry vectors, indicating that allometric 413 trends at these two levels were oriented in similar directions and were largely concordant. As 414 such, size-associated changes in body form among individuals were predictive of evolutionary 415 shifts across taxa at higher macroevolutionary scales. This in turn, suggests that body form 416 evolution in *Pristurus* may follow an allometric line of least resistance (Marroig and Cheverud 417 2005). In other empirical systems, a similarly tight correspondence between static and evolutionary 418 allometry has also been observed (Marroig and Cheverud 2005; Firmat et al. 2014; Voje et al. 2014; 419 Brombacher et al. 2017; Marcy et al. 2020), though the trend is not universal across all taxa or 420 traits (see Klingenberg and Zimmermann 1992; Voje et al. 2022). Nonetheless, when such trends 421 are present, they imply that allometric trajectories impose a prevailing influence on the magnitude, 422 direction, and rate of phenotypic change across the phylogeny. Our work in *Pristurus* contributes to 423 the growing literature on this topic, and suggests that perhaps such patterns may be more widespread. 424

425

Given the observation that static and evolutionary allometry in *Pristurus* are largely concordant, an obvious question is: why might this be the case? One possible explanation is that when genetic covariation remains relatively constant, selection on body size will generate an evolutionary allometric trajectory along the trend described by static allometry (Lande 1979, 1985). Here, allometry effectively acts as a constraint on evolutionary change, as size-associated shape changes at one hierarchical level are linked to changes at another level (Voje et al. 2014, 2022; Pélabon et al. 2014). Further, when this is the case, one may also expect high levels of phenotypic 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) whose static 434 allometry is most similar to that of evolutionary allometry. Thus, our results reveal that patterns 435 of trait covariation are more constrained in ground-dwelling species, such that their differences 436 in body form are most likely found along the primary allometric axis. When viewed in this light, 437 integration and allometry may thus be interpreted as potential drivers that facilitate morphological 438 change, as they provide a phenotypic pathway through adaptive lines of least resistance that enable 439 rapid evolutionary changes in particular phenotypic directions but not in others (Felice et al. 2018; 440 Navalón et al. 2020). The fact that ground-dwelling species in *Pristurus* have been found to have the widest phenotypic disparity, greatest range of body sizes, and highest rates of morphological 442 evolution (Tejero-Cicuéndez et al. 2021a) are all consistent with this hypothesis, and suggest that 443 in this group, integration describes the path of morphological evolution along allometric lines of least resistance. 445

446

Finally, interpreting the observed patterns of phenotypic integration and allometry relative to 447 habitat-specific differences helps to shed light on the possible pathways by which phenotypic 448 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 elicited strong ecological selection 450 and phenotypic responses. This was particularly true of the invasion of ground habitats, where 451 ground-dwelling species displayed the largest variation in body size in the genus. This observation 452 implies some level of ecological selection on body size. In lizards, the ecological context in which 453 species exist is known to play a pervasive role in body size evolution (James and M'closkey 2004; 454 Meiri 2008; Tamar et al. 2019), as it does in other animal groups (Bergmann 1847; Calder 1983; 455 Peters 1983; LaBarbera 1989; Olson et al. 2009). While to date this has not been thoroughly 456 explored in *Pristurus*, the evolutionary patterns revealed by our analyses suggest that the body size 457 diversity in this clade conforms, at least in part, with patterns expected under ecological selection on 458 body size. Intriguingly, such patterns are not only observed in ground- and rock-dwelling taxa, but 459 also in arboreal species, whose restricted phenotypic diversity in both size and shape (Figures 3 & 5) 460 is consistent with strong ecological selection in the arboreal habit (Baken and Adams 2019; Baken

et al. 2021b). Furthermore, our study identified the presence of strong integration and allometric 462 trajectories, such that evolutionary changes in body size elicit corresponding changes in body form. However, these trends differed significantly across habitats, implying that, at evolutionary scales, 464 these trends serve to channel phenotypic responses to selection, but do so in differing directions 465 for the different habitat groups. This, in turn, suggests that *Pristurus* species occupying different habitats display differing combinations of body size with body form. The evolutionary consequence 467 of ecological selection is that species have evolved similar shapes (Figure 6), but do so in differing 468 habitats, and at different body sizes (Figure 5). Therefore, the phenotypic diversity observed in 469 Pristurus is best explained as the result of a complex interplay between ecological selection, body 470 size differentiation, and differing allometric trajectories across ecological habitats. 471

472 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—
- 480 403.
- Arnold, E. N. 1993. Historical changes in the ecology and behaviour of semaphore geckos
- 482 (*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.
- 487 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
- 490 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–
- 507 372.
- 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.
- ⁵¹⁸ Calder, W. A. 1983. Ecological scaling: Mammals and birds. Annual Review of Ecology and
- Systematics 14:213–230.
- 520 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.
- ⁵²³ 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.
- 528 Cock, A. G. 1966. Genetical aspects of metrical growth and form in animals. The Quarterly
- Review of Biology 41:131–190.
- 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 Algamy, 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–
- 560 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 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

- B: Biological Sciences 282:20151428. 681
- Pyron, R. A., and F. T. Burbrink. 2009. Body size as a primary determinant of ecomorphologi-682
- cal diversification and the evolution of mimicry in the lampropeltinine snakes (serpentes: 683
- colubridae). Journal of Evolutionary Biology 22:2057–2067. Wiley. 684
- R Core Team. 2022. R: A language and environment for statistical computing. Version 4.2.1. R 685 Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria. 686
- Reaney, A. M., Y. Bouchenak-Khelladi, J. A. Tobias, and A. Abzhanov. 2020. Ecological and 687 morphological determinants of evolutionary diversification in Darwin's finches and their 688 relatives. Ecology and Evolution 10:14020–14032.
- Revell, L. J. 2012. Phytools: An R package for phylogenetic comparative biology (and other 690 things). Methods in Ecology and Evolution 3:217–223. 691
- Reynolds, R. G., D. C. Collar, S. A. Pasachnik, M. L. Niemiller, A. R. Puente-Rolón, and L. J. 692
- Revell. 2016. Ecological specialization and morphological diversification in Greater Antillean 693
- boas. Evolution 70:1882–1895. 694
- Ross, C. F., M. I. Hall, and C. P. Heesy. 2007. Were basal primates nocturnal? Evidence from 695
- eve and orbit shape. Pp. 233–256 in PRIMATE ORIGINS: Adaptations and evolution. 696
- Springer. 697

- Samuels, J. X., and S. S. B. Hopkins. 2017. The impacts of Cenozoic climate and habitat changes 698 on small mammal diversity of North America. Global and Planetary Change 149:36–52. 699
- Schluter, D. 1996. Adaptive radiation along genetic lines of least resistance. Evolution 50:1766— 700 1774. 701
- Schluter, D., and P. R. Grant. 1984. Determinants of morphological patterns in communities of 702 Darwin's finches. The American Naturalist 123:175–196. 703
- Schluter, D., and J. D. McPhail. 1992. Ecological character displacement and speciation in 704 sticklebacks. The American Naturalist 140:85–108. 705
- Sherratt, E., D. J. Gower, C. P. Klingenberg, and M. Wilkinson. 2014. Evolution of cranial 706 shape in caecilians (amphibia: gymnophiona). Evolutionary Biology 41:528–545. 707
- Sidlauskas, B. 2008. Continuous and arrested morphological diversification in sister clades of 708 characiform fishes: A phylomorphospace approach. Evolution 62:3135–3156. 709
- Stuart, Y. E., T. Veen, J. N. Weber, D. Hanson, M. Ravinet, B. K. Lohman, C. J. Thompson, T. 710

- 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, Sphaerodactylidae) 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.

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.

748

749

Funding Statement: This work was funded in part by PGC2018-098290-B-I00 (MCIU/AEI/FEDER, 754 UE) and PID2021-128901NB-I00 (MCIN/AEI/10.13039/501100011033 and by ERDF, A way 755 of making Europe), Spain to SC. HT-C is supported by a "Juan de la Cierva - Formación" 756 postdoctoral fellowship (FJC2021-046832-I). IM was funded by the Alexander von Humboldt 757 Foundation through a Humboldt Research Fellowship. AT is supported by the "la Caixa" 758 doctoral fellowship programme (LCF/BQ/DR20/11790007). GR was funded by an FPI grant 759 from the Ministerio de Ciencia, Innovación y Universidades, Spain (PRE2019-088729). BB-C 760 was funded by FPU grant from Ministerio de Ciencia, Innovación y Universidades, Spain 761 (FPU18/04742). DCA was funded in part by National Science Foundation Grant DBI-1902511. 762

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.

Table 1: Multivariate analysis of covariance describing variation in body form in *Pristurus*. Note that there is no variation explained by the 'habitat' term, as the pooled-within species data are mean-centered.

| | Df | SS | MS | Rsq | F | Z | Pr(>F) |
|-------------|-----|-------|-------|------|--------|------|--------|
| svl | 1 | 36.04 | 36.04 | 0.63 | 1177.2 | 8.24 | 0.001 |
| habitat | 2 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.0 | | |
| svl:habitat | 2 | 0.13 | 0.06 | 0.00 | 2.1 | 1.90 | 0.025 |
| Residuals | 681 | 20.85 | 0.03 | 0.37 | | | |
| Total | 686 | 57.02 | | | | | |

Table 2: Pairwise comparisons of multivariate static allometry for each habitat group. Comparisons with the vector of multivariate isometry are included. Displayed are: pairwise angular differences (θ_{12}) , their associated effect sizes $(Z_{\theta_{12}})$, and significance levels obtained via permutation (RRPP).

| | Ground | Rock | Tree | Isometry |
|-------------|--------|--------|-------|----------|
| Angle | | | | |
| Ground | 0 | | | |
| Rock | 6.316 | 0 | | |
| Tree | 6.549 | 3.37 | 0 | |
| Isometry | 5.87 | 9.319 | 8.774 | 0 |
| Effect Size | | | | |
| Ground | 0 | | | |
| Rock | 3.112 | 0 | | |
| Tree | 1.9 | -0.454 | 0 | |
| Isometry | 4.461 | 6.567 | 3.727 | 0 |
| P-value | | | | |
| Ground | 1 | | | |
| Rock | 0.003 | 1 | | |
| Tree | 0.026 | 0.67 | 1 | |
| Isometry | 0.001 | 0.001 | 0.001 | 1 |

Table 3: Pairwise comparisons of multivariate evolutionary allometry versus static allometry for each habitat group. Pairwise angular differences between evolutionary and static allometry (θ_{ES}) , their associated effect sizes $(Z_{\theta_{ES}})$, and significance levels are displayed.

| | θ_{ES} | $Z_{\theta_{ES}}$ | P-value |
|------------------|---------------|-------------------|---------|
| Evol. vs. Ground | 5.85 | 1.61 | 0.063 |
| Evol. vs. Rock | 7.23 | 2.54 | 0.009 |
| Evol. vs. Tree | 6.79 | 1.11 | 0.139 |

Figures

- Figure 1. Linear Measurements used in this study. SVL = snout-vent length, TL = trunk length,

 HL = head length, HW = head width, HH = head height, Lhu = humerus length, Lun = ulna

 length, Lfe = femur length, Ltb = tibia length (for details see Tejero-Cicuéndez et al. 2021a).
- Figure 2. Plot of regression scores and predicted lines representing the relationship between linear body measurements and size (SVL). Individuals are colored by habitat use: ground (beige), rock (dark purple), and tree (magenta). Isometric trend represented by the dashed line.
- Figure 3. Traitgrams showing the evolution of body size (SVL) through time based on the
 phylogenetic tree of *Pristurus*. Colors represent an evolutionary mapping of residuals from
 phylogenetic regressions describing the relationship of (A) head morphology versus body size,
 and (B) limb proportions versus body size (see text for descriptions). Species names are colored
 by habitat use: ground (beige), rock (dark purple), and tree (magenta).
- Figure 4. Patterns of static allometry for each species for head traits (upper panel) and limb traits (lower panel). Species are separated by their habitat groups and colored by the magnitude of their regression slope (purple: steeper slopes, yellow: shallower slopes).
- Figure 5. Phylomorphospace of *Pristurus*, based on residuals from a phylogenetic regression of body measurements on size (SVL). Species means are colored by habitat use: ground (beige), rock (dark purple), and tree (magenta). Large and small rock-dwelling and ground-dwelling are highlighted with darker colors to highlight their differentiation and relative positions in morphospace. Point size is proportional to mean species body size. 79% of the total variation is displayed in the first two PC axes (PC1 = 62.8%; PC2 = 16.3%).
- Figure 6. Representative specimens (based on real specimens) from large and small *Pristurus*species, colored by habitat use: ground (beige) and rock (dark purple). Specimens are scaled
 to a common body size (SVL, gray rectangles) to emphasize the relative differences in limb
 and head proportions. Relatively slender-headed and short-limbed species shown on the left.
 Original scale shown as the gray bar.

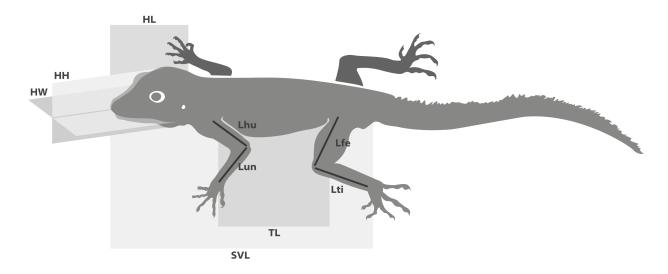


Figure 1: Linear Measurements used in this study. SVL = snout-vent length, TL = trunk length, HL = head length, HW = head width, HH = head height, Lhu = humerus length, Lun = ulna length, Lfe = femur length, Ltb = tibia length (for details see Tejero-Cicuéndez et al. 2021a).

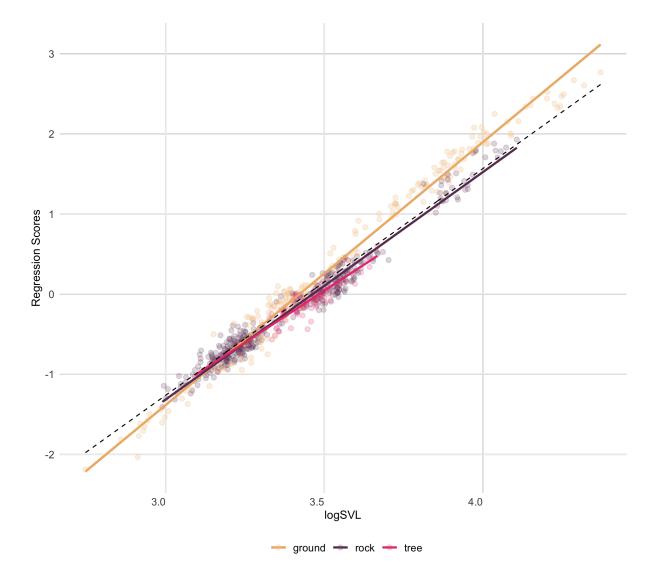


Figure 2: Plot of regression scores and predicted lines representing the relationship between linear body measurements and size (SVL). Individuals are colored by habitat use: ground (beige), rock (dark purple), and tree (magenta). Isometric trend represented by the dashed line.

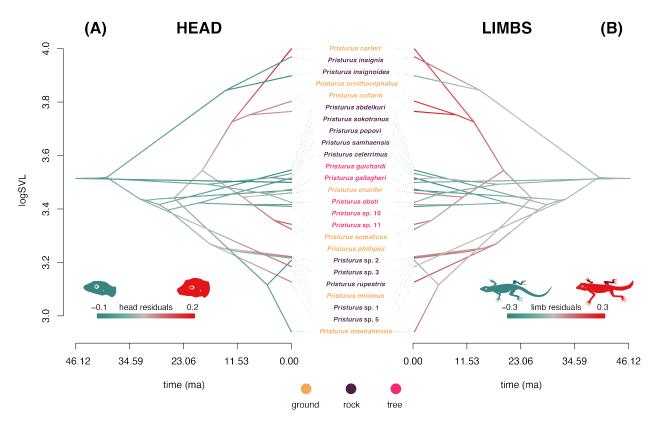


Figure 3: Traitgrams showing the evolution of body size (SVL) through time based on the phylogenetic tree of *Pristurus*. Colors represent an evolutionary mapping of residuals from phylogenetic regressions describing the relationship of (A) head morphology versus body size, and (B) limb proportions versus body size (see text for descriptions). Species names are colored by habitat use: ground (beige), rock (dark purple), and tree (magenta).

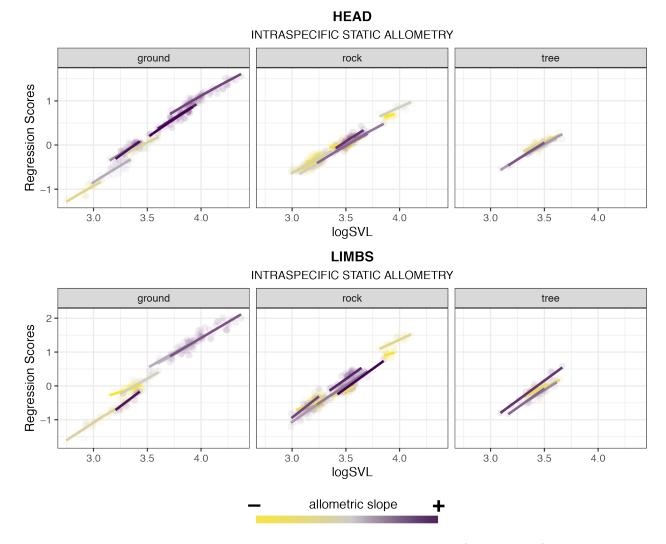
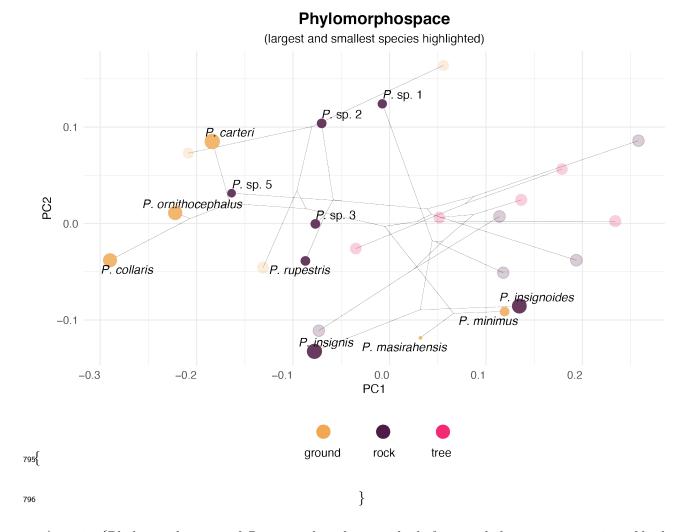


Figure 4: Patterns of static allometry for each species for head traits (upper panel) and limb traits (lower panel). Species are separated by their habitat groups and colored by the magnitude of their regression slope (purple: steeper slopes, yellow: shallower slopes).

794 \begin{figure}



\caption{Phylomorphospace of Pristurus, based on residuals from a phylogenetic regression of body measurements on size (SVL). Species means are colored by habitat use: ground (beige), rock (dark purple), and tree (magenta). Large and small rock-dwelling and ground-dwelling are highlighted with darker colors to highlight their differentiation and relative positions in morphospace. Point size is proportional to mean species body size. 79% of the total variation is displayed in the first two PC axes (PC1 = 62.8%; PC2 = 16.3%).} \end{figure}



Figure 5: Representative specimens (based on real specimens) from large and small *Pristurus* species, colored by habitat use: ground (beige) and rock (dark purple). Specimens are scaled to a common body size (SVL, gray rectangles) to emphasize the relative differences in limb and head proportions. Relatively slender-headed and short-limbed species shown on the left. Original scale shown as the gray bar.