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 in 19 shaping body size and shape-body form diversity in *Pristurus* geckos utilizing differing habitats. We found that patterns of body shape allometry and integration in body form were distinct in species 21 with different habitat preferences, with ground-dwelling *Pristurus* displaying the most divergent 22 allometric trend and the strongest high levels of integration. There was also strong concordance 23 between static allometry across individuals and evolutionary allometry among species, revealing that body shape differences differences in body form among individuals were predictive of evolutionary 25 changes across the phylogeny at macroevolutionary scales. This suggested that phenotypic evolution 26 occurred along allometric lines of least resistance, with allometric trajectories imposing a strong 27 influence on the magnitude and direction of size and shape changes across the phylogeny. When 28 viewed in phylomorphospace, the largest rock-dwelling species were most similar in body shape to 29 the smallest ground-dwelling species, and vice versa. Thus, in *Pristurus*, phenotypic evolution along the differing habitat-based allometric trajectories resulted in similar body shapes forms at differing 31 body sizes in distinct ecological habitats.

3 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. Evolutionary theory 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).

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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.

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However, while While the patterns of morphological differences in distinct ecological contexts have

been well documented, less-well understood is how this ecomorphological differentiation has been influenced by trait covariation associated with body size differences (i.e., allometry). Evaluating allometric trends across hierarchical levels. The study of size-related changes in anatomical traits 63 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 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 70 across species of differing sizes, as described by evolutionary allometry (e.g., comparing allometryat 71 the individual level, or static allometry, and among species, or evolutionary allometry) may aid in our understanding of how adaptive morphological change occurs at macroevolutionary scales 73 (see Cock 1966; Klingenberg and Zimmermann 1992). It has long been recognized that the 74 interrelationships among traits can exert a strong influence on how phenotypic evolution proceeds, as Indeed, across vertebrates, numerous studies have shown that a sizeable proportion of overall 76 phenotypic variation is related to interspecific differences in body size (Pyron and Burbrink 2009: 77 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 79 this perspective, patterns of ontogenetic and evolutionary allometry are thought to play a decisive 80 role in shaping patterns of phenotypic diversification across the tree of life. 81

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(Jolicocur 1963; Bookstein 2022), allometric trends could be considered the quintessential expression of phenotypic integration (Zelditch and Swiderski 2022; Bookstein 2022).

Thus, identifying whether allometric patterns differ across habitats, and how such patterns when evaluating ecophenotypic differences among taxa, it is important to consider how allometric trends of trait covariation affect ecomorphological trends among species utilizing those habitats, remains an important question worthy of investigation. influence such patterns (e.g., Esquerré et al. 2017; Patterson et al. 2022; Chatterji et al. 2022).

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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 Prior From an evolutionary perspective, Pristurus geckos are an ideal system to 100 investigate the role of different factors in evolutionary history. They are found in both insular and 101 continental settings, which are known to impose differential ecological selection pressures resulting 102 in distinct evolutionary trajectories of species and clades (Losos and Ricklefs 2009). They are 103 also distributed in the contact zone between Africa and Eurasia, a region of high biogeographic 104 interest which has been the epicenter of major faunal interchanges and complex geologic and 105 environmental processes (Kappelman et al. 2003; Tejero-Cicuéndez et al. 2022). The study of 106 evolutionary dynamics in *Pristurus* and other Afro-Arabian taxa is also important biologically, 107 as our understanding of the dynamics of biological systems in remote arid regions is generally 108 neglected and understudied (Durant et al. 2012). Furthermore, prior work on this system (Tejero-Cicuéndez et al. 2021a) has revealed that the colonization of ground habitats has been 110 a trigger of morphological change, specifically reflected in an increase in body size and shape 111 disparity. Interestingly, some ground-dwelling species are among the largest of the genus and 112 also show increased relative head sizes and limb proportions, while some other species with this 113 ecological specialization have evolved to be among the smallest of the group. Additionally, among 114 the species exploiting rocky habitats (the most common ecological feature in Pristurus), there are 115 also species with both considerably large and small body sizes (Tejero-Cicuéndez et al. 2021a). 116 What remains unexplored, however, is how the evolution of body shape form is related to dif-117 ferences in body size and whether habitat specialization has an impact in this shape-size relationship. 118

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In this study, we employed a combination of multivariate morphometric and phylogenetic comparative 120 analyses to interrogate macroevolutionary patterns of evolutionary allometry in *Pristurus* geckos of 121 Afro-Arabia. Using phenotypic, phylogenetic, and ecological data, we first characterized allometric 122 trends in body form in the group, to discern the extent to which evolutionary allometric trends 123 across the phylogeny aligned with habitat-based static allometry for species occupying distinct 124 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 126 utilization among taxa. Our analyses reveal that patterns of evolutionary allometry across species 127 align with allometric trends within habitats, demonstrating that the among individuals, and that 128 differing habitat-based allometric trajectories have resulted in similar body forms at differing body 129 sizes in distinct ecological regimes. Thus, patterns of phenotypic diversification in *Pristurus* are 130 the outcome of an interplay between ecological specialization and size-form changes evolving along 131 habitat-specific allometric trajectories in species with disparate body size may play a determinant 132 role in shaping the phenotypic evolution and hence in adaptive dynamics in this clade the group. 133

³⁴ 2. Materials and Methods

135 (a) Data

We used a combination of phenotypic, phylogenetic, and ecological data to characterize and evaluate 136 intra- and interspecific allometric trends in *Pristurus*. The data utilized here were obtained from 137 our prior work on this system (Tejero-Cicuéndez et al. 2021a, 2022), and are briefly described 138 here. First we used a time-dated, time-calibrated molecular phylogeny of squamates that included 139 all members of the genus *Pristurus*, including several currently undescribed taxa. The tree was 140 estimated in a Bayesian framework, using five mitochondrial markers, six nuclear markers, and 21 calibration points (Tejero-Cicuéndez et al. 2022). Next we categorized each species as belonging to 142 one of three ecological groups (ground, rock, or tree), based on descriptions of habitat use found 143 in the literature (Tejero-Cicuéndez et al. 2021a habitat groups (ground-dwelling, rock-dwelling, or tree-arboreal). Habitat designations were based on substrate preferences and habitat use as found

through extensive field observations described in the primary literature (Arnold 1993; Arnold 2009. 146 and references therein). Finally, we obtained a phenotypic data set containing body size (snout-vent length: SVL) and eight linear measurements (Figure 1) that described overall body form: trunk 148 length (TL), head length (HL), head width (HW), head height (HH), humerus length (Lhu), ulna 149 length (Lun), femur length (Lfe), and tibia length (Ltb) (Tejero-Cicuéndez et al. 2021a). We 150 restricted our study to those species represented by nine or more individuals; resulting in a dataset 151 of 687 individuals from 25 species (invidivuals per species: $\mu = 27 \text{mean} = 27$; min = 9, max = 152 56). All specimens used in this study were adults, and thus patterns of ontogenetic allometry could 153 not be explored. Species in the phenotypic dataset were then matched to the phylogeny, which 154 was subsequently pruned to the final topology. All measurements were log-transformed prior to 155 statistical analyses. Additional details regarding data collection and formal descriptions of each 156 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.xwdbry1f6 (Tejero-Cicuéndez et al. 158 2021b). 159

160 (b) Statistical and Comparative Analyses

We conducted a series of analyses to interrogate allometric trends, patterns of integration, and 161 macroevolutionary changes in allometry, relative to differentiation in body form. First we 162 characterized evolutionary allometry in the genus by performing a phylogenetic multivariate 163 regression of body form on body size (i.e., SVL), using the species means as data. We then 164 performed an analogous procedure at the individual level, regressing body form on body size 165 using our entire dataset evaluated patterns of static allometry among individuals using a pooled 166 within-species regression (sensu Klingenberg 2016). Here a pooled within-species dataset was 167 generated by obtaining residuals for all individuals relative to their respective species means, 168 which were then pooled across species. This dataset was then used in a multivariate regression to 169 obtain an overall estimate of static allometry among individuals. By first removing species-specific 170 differences, this procedure partials out trends of evolutionary allometry from the data, enabling 171 patterns of static and evolutionary allometry to be disentangled. From both the species-level 172 (phylogenetic) and the individual-level analyses, we obtained the set of regression coefficients, and 173 which respectively described the trajectories of evolutionary and static allometry in morphospace. 174

We then calculated the difference in their angular direction to describe direction in morphospace
to discern the extent to which patterns of static allometry at the individual level were concordant
with evolutionary allometric trends across species.

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Next we used the dataset containing all individuals pooled within-species dataset to determine 179 whether trends in static allometry differed across habitat groups. This was accomplished by 180 performing a multivariate analysis of covariance, with body size (SVL), habitat, and $SVL \times habitat$ 181 as model effects. Significance of model effects was evaluated using 999 iterations of a permutation 182 procedure, where residuals from a reduced model were randomly permuted in each permutation 183 (RRPP), model statistics were recalculated, and used to generate empirical null sampling 184 distributions to evaluate the observed test statistics (following Freedman and Lane 1983; Collyer 185 and Adams 2007; Collyer et al. 2015). We then compared the In this analysis, no variation was 186 attributable to the habitat effect, as the pooled-within species data are mean-centered for both the 187 dependent and independent variables. However, any differences in multivariate allometric slopes 188 among habitats will be discernable, and revealed by a significant $SVL \times habitat$ interaction. To 180 evaluate this possibility, we compared the direction of multivariate allometric vectors for each 190 habitat group to one another, and to a vector representing multivariate isometry, by calculating 191 pairwise angular differences in their angular direction in morphospace, and evaluating these relative 192 to empirical sampling distributions obtained through RRPP (Collyer and Adams 2007; Adams and 193 Collyer 2009; Collyer and Adams 2013). Here, residuals were obtained from a common isometry 194 reduced model, whose common slope component described a pattern of multivariate isometry, 195 and whose intercepts allowed for differences in least-squares means among groups. Patterns of 196 multivariate allometry relative to body size were visualized via regression scores (Drake and 197 Klingenberg 2008) and predicted lines (Adams and Nistri 2010), based on the coefficients and fitted 198 values from the linear model described above. 199

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 204 respective trait covariance matrix (Pavlicev et al. 2009). This measure (V_{rel}) was subsequently 205 converted to an effect size (a Z-score), which quantified the strength of morphological integration 206 (Conaway and Adams 2022). We then performed a series of two-sample tests to compare the 207 strength of morphological integration across habitat groups, following the procedures of Conaway 208 and Adams (2022). Additionally and for comparison, we repeated these analyses on the set of 209 size-standardized trait data, found as a set of shape ratios (Mosimann 1970) where each trait was 210 divided by body size (Supplementary Material). 211

To determine the extent to which static and evolutionary allometry were concordant, we evaluated 213 the directions in morphospace of both the evolutionary (species-level) and static (habitat-based) 214 allometric trends. Specifically, we obtained the set of regression coefficients from both the 215 phylogenetic multivariate regression and the multivariate analysis of covariance analyses above, 216 and calculated the differences in angular angular difference in direction between the evolutionary 217 allometry trajectory and the static allometry trend for each habitat group. The observed angles 218 were then statistically evaluated relative to empirical sampling distributions obtained through 219 permutation (RRPP), based on the common isometry model described above. 220

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Next, to discern how allometric trends resulted in the evolution of distinct body forms, we examined 222 changes in the body shape proportions relative body form across the phylogeny. Here we treated 223 the head dimensions and limb dimensions separately, as allometric trends could potentially differ 224 between these body regions due to differential functional or selective constraints (Kaliontzopoulou 225 et al. 2010). Because both the head and limb data were multivariate, we first performed a partial 226 least squares (PLS) analysis (Rohlf and Corti 2000) of the used regression scores (sensu Drake 227 and Klingenberg 2008) of a multivariate regression of head traits versus SVL, and the and limb 228 traits versus SVL, to describe the direction of maximal covariation between each body region 229 and size to represent the allometric trends in each dataset. We then measured the mean residuals 230 of each species to the inferred allometric trend, which described the extent to which head and limb proportions of species were greater or smaller than expected for their body size. The species 232

residuals were then mapped on the phylogeny of *Pristurus* using a Brownian motion model of evolution, to qualitatively evaluate shifts in head and limbs proportionality across the phylogeny for the group. Similarly, within-species patterns of static allometry were visualized by plotting regressions of PLS scores on regression scores versus SVL for both head and limb traits separately.

Finally, to relate within-species allometric trends with patterns of phenotypic diversification in the 238 group we generated a phylomorphospace (sensu Sidlauskas 2008), based on a phylogenetic principal 239 component analyses (PCA) on of the size-standardized species means (i.e., relative body proportions) 240 obtained from a phylogenetic regression (see Tejero-Cicuéndez et al. 2021a). Here, phenotypic 241 similarities among species, relative to their phylogenetic relationships and habitat affiliations, were observed. Additionally, representative specimens (scaled to unit size) were also visually compared 243 to aid in describing these trends. A similar phylomorphospace was constructed for species means 244 not corrected for body size, and the phenotypic disparity among species means in each habitat was 245 calculated and subsequently compared (Supplementary Material). Additionally, anatomical changes 246 associated with allometric trends across taxa were visually depicted via representative specimens 247 from the largest and smallest ground-dwelling species (scaled to unit size), and specimens from a 248 large and small rock-dwelling species, to aid in describing these allometric trends. All analyses were 240 conducted in R 4.2.1 (R Core Team 2022), using RRPP version 1.3.1-.2 (Collyer and Adams 2018; 250 Collyer and Adams 2022) and geomorph 4.0.4.5 (Baken et al. 2021a) for statistical analyses and 251 the tidyverse version 1.3.0 (Wickham et al. 2019), phytools version 0.7-77 (Revell 2012), and 252 a modified version of the function ggphylomorpho [https://github.com/wabarr/ggphylomorpho] 253 for data manipulation and visualization, as well as scripts written by the authors (Supplementary 254 Material). 255

3. Results

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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 = 7910.8; Z = 9.20, Z = 8.24; Z = 9.20. Further, the vectors of regression coefficients between

the two analyses were highly correlated ($\rho = 0.94$) and were oriented in nearly parallel directions oriented in a similar direction and were nearly parallel in morphospace ($\theta = 1.49^{\circ}\theta = 5.64^{\circ}$). 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.

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Our analyses also exposed significant differences in the allometry of body form among Pristurus 267 utilizing distinct habitats (Table 1). Further, pairwise comparisons of multivariate allometric 268 vectors revealed that patterns of static allometry in each habitat differed significantly from 269 isometry, indicating the presence of multivariate allometry in each (Table 2). Additionally, comparisons identified that ground-dwelling Pristurus displayed the most distinct allometric 271 trend as compared with *Pristurus* occupying both the rock and tree habitats (Table 2; Figure 272 2). Here, regression coefficients of each trait versus size (Supplementary Material) revealed that 273 ground-dwelling Pristurus exhibited strong positive allometry for all head and limb traits (i.e., 274 $\beta > 1.0$ higher coefficients for head traits as compared with rock-dwelling and tree-dwelling taxa 275 $(\beta_{ground} > \beta_{rock}; \beta_{ground} > \beta_{tree})$. By contrast, rock and tree-dwelling *Pristurus* displayed negative 276 allometry (i.e., β < 1.0) for head traits, and were more varied for limb traits; with rock-dwelling 277 Pristurus displaying positive limb allometry (though less extreme than that of coefficients for limb 278 traits were somewhat smaller for ground-dwelling taxa), whereas most limb traits in tree-dwelling 279 taxa showed negative allometry or near-isometry (Supplementary Material Pristurus as compared 280 with other taxa ($\beta_{ground} < \beta_{rock}$; $\beta_{ground} < \beta_{tree}$). Thus, these findings implied that within species 281 larger individuals of ground-dwelling Pristurus species displayed disproportionately displayed 282 proportionately larger heads and limbs, slightly smaller limbs as compared with large individuals in 283 taxa utilizing other habitat types. Multivariate visualizations of these multivariate Visualizations 284 of the allometric trends (Figure 2) confirmed these statistical findings, and indicated that the 285 allometric trajectory in ground-dwelling *Pristurus* was more extreme as compared with either rock-286 or tree-dwelling *Pristurus*. 287

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Examination of patterns of trait covariation for the pooled within-species data revealed strong levels

of morphological integration within each habitattype ($Z_{ground} = 3.97$; $Z_{rock} = 3.72$; $Z_{tree} = 2.15$). 290 Further, 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 morphological integration 292 was significantly greater in both ground-dwelling and tree-dwelling Pristurus than either in 293 those utilizing rock ($Z_{ground-rock} = 6.59Z_{ground-rock} = 6.05$; P << 0.001) or tree habitats $(Z_{ground-tree} = 11.17; Z_{tree-rock} = 4.07; P << 0.001)$. Arboreal Pristurus displayed the lowest 295 levels of integration, which were also significantly lower than in the rock habitat $(Z_{rock-tree} = 7.19;$ 296 $P \ll 0.001$). When size was accounted for in the data Levels of morphological integration did not 297 differ between ground and tree-dwelling Pristurus ($Z_{tree-rock} = 0.38$; P = 0.702). Finally, when 298 body size was taken into account, levels of integration dropped considerably, though the overall 299 pattern and differences among habitat groups remained the same (Supplementary Material). 300

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Comparisons of evolutionary allometry with static allometry in each habitat revealed substantial 302 concordance between allometric trends at these hierarchical across these levels. Here, vectors 303 of regression coefficients representing static allometry within habitat groups were oriented in 304 very similar directions with the regression vector representing evolutionary allometry, with small 305 pairwise angles between them $(\theta: 2.3^{\circ} \to 5.9^{\circ}\theta: 5.8^{\circ} \to 7.2^{\circ})$. Subsequent permutation tests 306 indicated no differences between the static allometry vectors and the in direction between the 307 regression vector representing evolutionary allometry and the static allometry vectors for *Pristurus* 308 in both the ground or tree habitats, indicating strong congruence between them (Table 3). By contrast, rock-dwelling *Pristurus* differed most in their static allometry trend relative to patterns 310 of evolutionary allometry. Notably, static allometry in ground-dwelling *Pristurus* was most similar 311 to trends of evolutionary allometry, displaying the smallest angular difference and largest effect size. Thus, static and evolutionary allometry trends were essentially parallel in this group, indicating a 313 direct correspondence between the two. This result in direction when compared to evolutionary 314 allometry. Overall, these findings implied that phenotypic evolution across species aligned closely 315 with directions of allometric variation within habitat groups at the individual level; namely that 316 larger individuals -, describing a trend where larger individuals - and larger ground-dwelling species 317 $_{\sim}$ exhibited disproportionately larger heads and limbs, while smaller individuals $_{\sim}$ and smaller 318

ground-dwelling species – displayed disproportionately smaller heads and limbs.

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Mapping the residuals of species into phylogenetic regression onto the phylogeny showed that large ground-dwelling 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 comparing small species utilizing these habitats: ground-dwelling species showed small relative head proportions while rock-dwelling species displayed generally larger head proportions. In contrast, limb shape showed more variable patterns. Although all large ground-dwelling species consistently displayed large relative limb proportions, large rock-dwelling species were more variable in this trait, with P. insignis exhibiting large and P. insignoides small limb proportions. For small species, 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). Visual inspection of Likeweise, static allometry trends within species (Figure 4) largely confirmed these patterns, illustrating revealed that ground-dwelling species generally displayed 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, affirming that the association between evolutionary allometry and habitat-based static allometry was robust.

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Viewing body shape differentiation in differentiation in relative body proportions in Pristurus 338 in phylomorphospace (Figure 5) revealed broad overlap among habitat groups in the first few 339 dimensions, though arboreal (tree-dwelling) species were somewhat more separated constrained in 340 morphospace. Rock-dwelling species occupied a slightly larger region of morphospace as compared 341 with the other groups, though this pattern was not statistically significant (Supplementary Material). 342 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 344 species were found in close proximity to the smallest ground-dwelling species, indicating that they 345 were similar in overall body shape relative body proportions. Likewise, the smallest rock-dwelling species were found close to large ground-dwelling species in morphospace, indicating they displayed 347

similar body shapes proportions as well.

Finally, when representative specimens were scaled to a similar body size (Figure 6), the anatomical consequences of differences in allometric trends on body proportions 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. Conversely, smaller rock-dwelling species were found to have disproportionately larger heads and limbs as compared with smaller ground-dwelling species. These patterns corresponded closely with those identified in morphospace (Figure 5), where large 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, synthesizing the patterns revealed in the phylomorphospace with those from the other analyses revealed that the same body shape proportions 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 shapes proportions displayed differing overall size, were found in distinct habitats, and exhibited different allometric trends.

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 shape 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 static 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 phe-notypic diversity generally, and the evolution of phenotypic diversification in *Pristurus* in particular.

First, our analyses revealed that patterns of body shape allometry 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 378 regression coefficients differed significantly from what was expected under isometry (Table 2) for 379 taxa utilizing all habitat types (ground, rock, tree), indicating that in Pristurus, allometric scaling 380 patterns predominate. Further, our interrogation of allometric trends revealed differences between 381 habitat types, where ground-dwelling *Pristurus* displayed steeper (i.e., positively allometric) trends 382 for both head and limb traits, while allometric trends for head traits as compared with rock and 383 tree-dwelling taxadisplayed shallower (negatively allometric) trends for head traits and more varied 384 patterns for limb proportions. Biologically, these patterns revealed that not only does shape differ 385 between large and small *Pristurus*, but this pattern differs across habitat types. Specifically, large 386 ground-dwelling *Pristurus* present disproportionately larger heads and longer limbs-relative to large 387 individuals in other habitats, while small ground-dwelling *Pristurus* exhibit disproportionately 388 smaller heads and shorter limbs (Figure 3). These findings are consistent with previous work at 380 the macroevolutionary level (Tejero-Cicuéndez et al. 2021a), where large ground species were also 390 found to display disproportionately large headsand long limbs. 391

Second, our findings revealed that, within species, rock-dwelling *Pristurus* show a converse pattern, 393 where smaller individuals displayed relatively larger heads, while larger individuals have smaller 394 heads relative to their body size. These allometric patterns also corresponded with findings at 395 macroevolutionary scales (Tejero-Cicuéndez et al. 2021a), where similar patterns at the species 396 level were observed. Regarding relative limb proportions, we found a high variability among 397 small rock-dwelling species rather than a common pattern (Figure 3B). Indeed, earlier work in 398 the subclade comprising several of these species (the *P. rupestris* species complex) found two 399 well-differentiated phenotypes in populations of these lineages segregated by elevation (Garcia-Porta 400 et al. 2017). These two ecotypes, defined as 'slender' and 'robust', differed in their head and limb 401 characteristics. Our work is consistent with this, and extends these patterns to the allometric realm. Tejero-Cicuéndez et al. (2021a) also performed habitat ancestral estimation, finding that the 403 rock habitat was the most likely ancestral condition in the group, with subsequent colonization by 404

Pristurus of ground habitats. When patterns of allometry are viewed through this lens, it suggests the hypothesis that habitat shifts from rock-dwelling to ground-dwelling incurred a concomitant evolutionary shift in allometric trajectories as well (Adams and Nistri 2010). Indeed, our analyses 407 are consistent with this hypothesis, as allometric trends are inferred to be more rock-like towards 408 the root of the *Pristurus* phylogeny (Figure 3), with subsequent shifts along branches leading to 409 ground-dwelling species. This further suggests that the segregation in body size and shape through 410 differential allometric relationships across habitats responds to adaptive dynamics concerning 411 the colonization of new habitats. Thus, in *Pristurus*, there is support for the hypothesis that 412 colonization of ground habitats has been a trigger for morphological change (Tejero-Cicuéndez 413 et al. 2021a), as there appears to be a link between shifts in allometric trajectories as a result 414 of habitat-induced selection, and differential patterns of body shape form observed across taxa. 415 Similar patterns have been observed in other taxa, where differences in allometric trajectories are 416 associated with ecological differences across species (Esquerré et al. 2017: Patterson et al. 2022: 417 Chatterji et al. 2022). More broadly, these findings are consistent with prior discoveries in other 418 lizards, where the differential selective pressures imposed by rocky and ground habitats have 419 resulted in the differentiation of head and limb morphology (Goodman et al. 2008; Kaliontzopoulou 420 et al. 2010; Garcia-Porta et al. 2017; Foster et al. 2018). Indeed, such phenotypic differences 421 resulting from the effects of habitat-based ecological selection have been extensively documented 422 in reptiles as well as in other vertebrates (Losos 2009; Reynolds et al. 2016; Hipsley and Müller 423 2017; Samuels and Hopkins 2017; Watanabe et al. 2019; Busschau and Boissinot 2022; Navalón et 424 al. 2022; Friedman et al. 2022), and our work in *Pristurus* thus contributes to this growing body 425 of literature. Nonetheless, because the ecological shift to ground-dwelling habitats occurred only 426 once on the phylogeny, it is also possible that some unmeasured feature that evolved on the same 427 branch could have affected the observed patterns. Thus, some caution in interpreting the causal 428 direction of this trend is warranted. 429

However, considering the habitat-driven morphology perspective, the findings revealed here may reflect ecological and behavioral changes linked to the adoption of a new lifestyle. For lizards, the transition to utilizing ground habitats implies adopting an existence in more open environments

than in rocky substrates. As such, numerous aspects of daily existence (including activity patterns, 434 climatic factors, prey availability, abundance of predators, etc.) are expected to exert a differential 435 influence on an organism's phenotype when compared with life in their ancestral environment 436 (Fuentes and Cancino 1979). Indeed, the largest ground-dwelling Pristurus species (P. carteri, 437 P. ornitocephalus, and P. collaris) differ from the rest of the genus in having developed partially 438 nocturnal habits, which would presumably have major ecological consequences for their survival 439 and reproduction. In this sense, these species might have been subjected to evolutionary processes 440 selecting for larger relative head proportions, which would allow them to accommodate larger or 441 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 large relative proportions found in the 443 limbs of large ground-dwelling species (Figure 3B) might be related to selective processes favoring 444 longer limbs in large species present in this new ecological context. Longer limbs in open habitats -445 particularly for large species – might be advantageous for rapidly running and hiding in the sparse 446 vegetation (Arnold 2009) and, in hyper-arid areas such as the Arabian Peninsula, this morphology 447 might contribute to thermoregulation separating the body from the ground (Huey 1974; Arnold 448 1980; Avery et al. 1982). A more detailed examination of behavioral and morphological traits (e.g., 449 eye shape, limb insertion) might shed light on the factors driving this pattern and serve to establish 450 a stronger adaptive link between habitat use and morphological and allometric trends in *Pristurus*. 451

Another important finding of our study was the strong concordance between static allometry 453 across individuals and evolutionary allometry among *Pristurus* species. Our analyses revealed 454 small pairwise angles between static and evolutionary allometry vectors, indicating that allometric 455 trends at these two hierarchical levels were oriented in similar directions and were essentially 456 parallel largely concordant. As such, size-associated changes in body shape-form among individuals 457 were predictive of evolutionary shifts across taxa at higher macroevolutionary scales. This in 458 turn, suggests that body shape form evolution in Pristurus follows may follow an allometric 459 line of least resistance (Marroig and Cheverud 2005). In other empirical systems, a similarly tight correspondence between static and evolutionary allometry has also been observed (Marroig 461 and Cheverud 2005; Firmat et al. 2014; Voje et al. 2014; Brombacher et al. 2017; Marcy 462

et al. 2020), though the trend is not universal across all taxa or traits (see Klingenberg
and Zimmermann 1992; Voje et al. 2022). Nonetheless, when such trends 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
the growing literature on this topic, and suggests that perhaps such patterns may be more widespread.

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Given the observation that static and evolutionary allometry in *Pristurus* are so-largely concordant, an obvious question is: why might this be the case? One possible explanation is that when 470 genetic covariation remains relatively constant, selection on body size will generate an evolutionary 471 allometric trajectory along the trend described by static allometry (Lande 1979, 1985). Here, 472 allometry effectively acts as a constraint on evolutionary change, as size-associated shape changes 473 at one hierarchical level are linked to changes at another level (Voje et al. 2014, 2022; Pélabon et al. 474 2014). Further, when this is the case, one may also expect high levels of phenotypic integration 475 in traits associated with body size changes. Indeed, our analyses reveal precisely this pattern 476 in *Pristurus*, with the highest levels of integration in the group (ground-dwelling) whose static 477 allometry is most similar to that of evolutionary allometry. Thus, our results reveal that patterns 478 of trait covariation are more constrained in ground-dwelling species, such that their differences 479 in body form are most likely found along the primary allometric axis. When viewed in this light, 480 integration and allometry may thus be interpreted as potential drivers that facilitate morphological 481 change, as they provide a phenotypic pathway through adaptive lines of least resistance that enable 482 rapid evolutionary changes in particular phenotypic directions but not in others (Felice et al. 2018; 483 Navalón et al. 2020). The fact that ground-dwelling species in *Pristurus* have been found to have 484 the widest phenotypic disparity, greatest range of body sizes, and highest rates of morphological 485 evolution (Tejero-Cicuéndez et al. 2021a) are all consistent with this hypothesis, and suggest that 486 in this group, integration describes the path of morphological evolution along allometric lines of 487 least resistance. 488

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Finally, interpreting the observed patterns of phenotypic integration and allometry relative to
habitat-specific differences helps to shed light on the possible pathways by which phenotypic

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 and phenotypic responses. This was particularly true of the invasion of ground habitats, where 494 ground-dwelling species displayed the largest variation in body size in the genus. This observation 495 implies some level of ecological selection on body size. In lizards, the ecological context in which species exist is known to play a pervasive role in body size evolution (James and M'closkey 2004; 497 Meiri 2008; Tamar et al. 2019), as it does in other animal groups (Bergmann 1847; Calder 1983; 498 Peters 1983; LaBarbera 1989; Olson et al. 2009). While to date this has not been thoroughly 499 explored in *Pristurus*, the evolutionary patterns revealed by our analyses suggest that the body size 500 diversity in this clade conforms, at least in part, with patterns expected under ecological selection 501 on body size. Intriguingly, such patterns are not only observed in ground- and rock-dwelling taxa, 502 but also in arboreal species, whose restricted phenotypic diversity in both size and shape (Figures 3 503 & 5) is consistent with strong ecological selection in the arboreal habit (Baken and Adams 2019: 504 Baken et al. 2021b). Furthermore, our study identified the presence of strong integration and 505 allometric trajectories, such that evolutionary changes in body size elicit corresponding changes in body shapeform. However, these trends differed significantly across habitats, implying that, at 507 evolutionary scales, these trends they serve to channel phenotypic responses to selection, but do 508 so in differing directions for the different habitat groups. This, in turn, suggests that Pristurus 509 species occupying different habitats display differing combinations of body size with body shapeform. 510 The evolutionary consequence of ecological selection is that species have evolved similar shapes 511 (Figure 6), but do so in differing habitats, and at different body sizes (Figure 5). Therefore, the 512 phenotypic diversity observed in *Pristurus* is best explained as the result of a complex interplay 513 between ecological selection, body size differentiation, and differing allometric trajectories across 514 ecological habitats. 515

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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 <u>svl</u>	1	516.04 - <u>36.04</u>	516.04 - <u>36.04</u>	0.92 0.63	10188.70_1177.2	9.49-8.24	0.001
habitat	2	$\underbrace{6.22}_{}\underline{0.00}$	3.11 <u>0.00</u>	0.01 - <u>0.00</u>	61.39 0.0	9.32	0.001
$\frac{\text{SVL}_{\text{SV}}}{\text{SVL}}$:habitat	2	3.97 <u>0.13</u>	$\underbrace{1.99}_{-0.06}$	0.01-0.00	39.23 2 .1	7.08-1.90	$\underbrace{0.001}_{0.025} \underbrace{0.025}_{0.025}$
Residuals	681	34.49-20.85	$\underbrace{0.05}_{0.03} \underbrace{0.03}_{0.03}$	0.06-0.37			
Total	686	560.72 <u>57.02</u>					

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	6.629 <u>6.316</u> €	0					
Tree	8.095-6.549	$3.628 \begin{array}{c} 3.37 \end{array}$	0				
Isometry	$\underline{5.034.5.87}$	5.901 - 9.319	7.189 - <u>8.774</u> €	0			
Effect Size							
Ground	0						
Rock	7.004 - <u>3.112</u>	0					
Tree	$2.1 \underbrace{1.9}_{}$	-0.4080.454	0				
Isometry	7.673 <u>4.461</u>	7.357 - <u>6.567</u>	1.779 - <u>3.727</u> ∼	0			
P-value							
Ground	1						
Rock	0.001 - <u>0.003</u>	1					
Tree	0.027-0.026	$\underbrace{0.673}_{0.67}\underbrace{0.67}_{0$	1				
Isometry	0.001	0.001	0.042-0.001	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.

	$ heta_{ES}$	$Z_{ heta_{ES}}$	P-value
Evol. vs. Ground	2.37 - <u>5.85</u>	-4.26 -1.61	1.0000.063
Evol. vs. Rock	4.55 7.23	0.87 2.54	$\underbrace{0.191}_{0.0009}$
Evol. vs. Tree	5.96 <u>6.79</u>	0.211.11	$\underbrace{0.405}_{0}.\underbrace{139}_{}$

Figures

814

- Figure 1. Linear Measurements used in this study. SVL = snout-vent length, TL = trunk length, 815 HL = head length, HW = head width, HH = head height, Lhu = humerus length, Lun = ulna 816
- length, Lfe = femur length, Ltb = tibia length (for details see Tejero-Cicuéndez et al. 2021a). 817
- Figure 2. Plot of regression scores and predicted lines representing the relationship between linear 818 body measurements and size (SVL). Individuals are colored by habitat use: ground (beige), rock 819 (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 821 phylogenetic tree of *Pristurus*. Colors represent an evolutionary mapping of residuals from 822 phylogenetic regressions describing the relationship of (A) head morphology versus body size, 823 and (B) limb proportions versus body size (see text for descriptions). Species names are colored 824 by habitat use: ground (beige), rock (dark purple), and tree (magenta). 825
- Figure 4. Patterns of static allometry for each species for head traits (upper panel) and limb traits 826 (lower panel). Species are separated by their habitat groups and colored by the magnitude of 827 their regression slope (purple: steeper slopes, yellow: shallower slopes). 828
- Figure 5. Phylomorphospace of *Pristurus*, based on residuals from a phylogenetic regression of 829 body measurements on size (SVL). Species means are colored by habitat use: ground (beige), 830 rock (dark purple), and tree (magenta). Large and small rock-dwelling and ground-dwelling 831 are highlighted with darker colors to highlight their differentiation and relative positions in 832 morphospace. Point size is proportional to mean species body size. 79% of the total variation 833 is displayed in the first two PC axes (PC1 = 62.8%; PC2 = 16.3%). 834
- Figure 6. Representative specimens (based on real specimens) from large and small *Pristurus* 835 species, colored by habitat use: ground (beige) and rock (dark purple). Specimens are scaled 836 to a common body size (SVL, gray rectangles) to emphasize the relative differences in limb 837 and head proportions. Relatively slender-headed and short-limbed species shown on the left. 838 Original scale shown as the gray bar. 839



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).

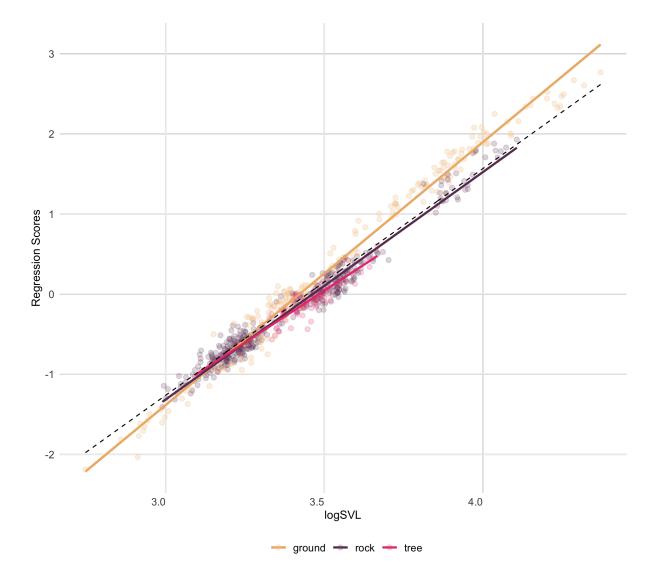


Figure 2: Plot of regression scores and predicted lines representing the relationship between linear body measurements and size (SVL). Individuals are colored by habitat use: ground (beige), rock (dark purple), and tree (magenta). Isometric trend represented by the dashed line.

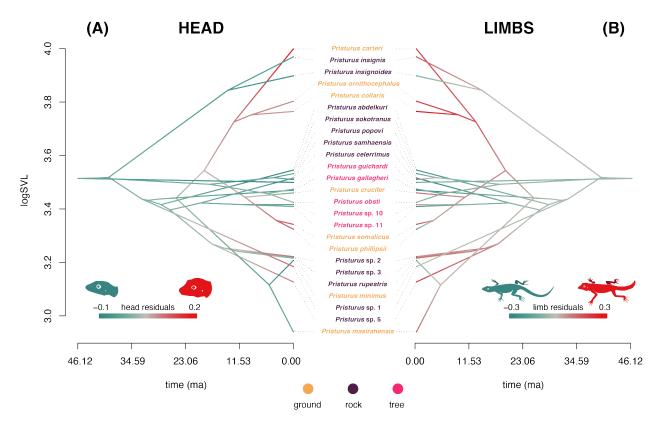


Figure 3: Traitgrams showing the evolution of body size (SVL) through time based on the phylogenetic tree of *Pristurus*. Colors represent an evolutionary mapping of residuals from phylogenetic regressions describing the relationship of (A) head morphology versus body size, and (B) limb proportions versus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

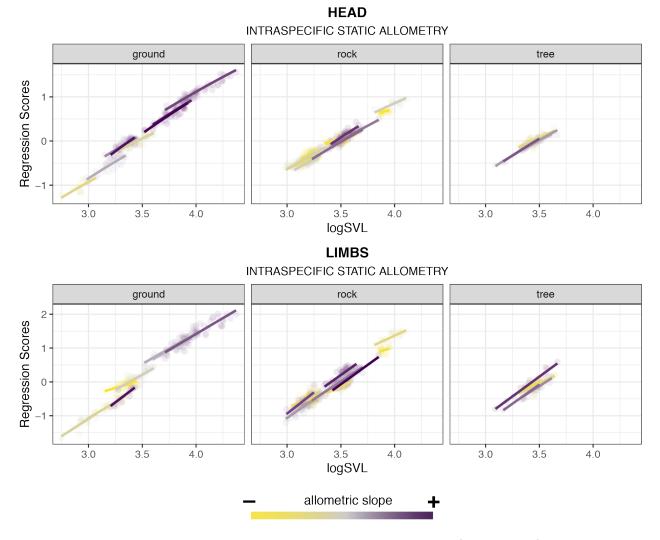


Figure 4: Patterns of static allometry for each species for head traits (upper panel) and limb traits (lower panel). Species are separated by their habitat groups and colored by the magnitude of their regression slope (purple: steeper slopes, yellow: shallower slopes).

Phylomorphospace (largest and smallest species highlighted) *P.* sp. 1 *P.* sp. 2 0.1 P. carteri 0 *P.* sp. 5 P. ornithocephalus *P.* sp. 3 0.0 P. rupestris P. collaris P. insignoides -0.1P. minimus P. insignis P. masirahensis -0.3-0.2-0.10.0 0.1 0.2 PC1 ground rock tree

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.