

# Dewlap color variation in *Anolis sagrei* is maintained among habitats within islands of the West Indies

## Abstract

Animal signals evolve in an ecological context. Locally adapting animal sexual signals can be especially important for initiating or reinforcing reproductive isolation during the early stages of speciation. Previous studies have demonstrated that dewlap color in *Anolis* lizards can be highly variable between populations in relation to both biotic and abiotic adaptive drivers at relatively large geographical scales. Here, we investigated differentiation of dewlap coloration among habitat types at a small spatial scale, within multiple islands of the West Indies, to test the hypothesis that similar local adaptive processes occur over smaller spatial scales. We explored variation in dewlap coloration in the most widespread species of anole, *Anolis sagrei*, across three characteristic habitats spanning the Bahamas and the Cayman Islands, namely beach scrub, primary coppice forest and mangrove forest. Using reflectance spectrometry paired with supervised machine learning, we found significant differences in spectral properties of the dewlap between habitats within small islands, sometimes over very short distances. Passive divergence in dewlap phenotype associated with isolation-by-distance did not seem to explain our results. On the other hand, these habitat-specific dewlap differences varied in magnitude and direction across islands, and thus our primary test for adaptation – parallel responses across islands – was not supported. We suggest that neutral processes or selection could be involved in several ways, including sexual selection. Our results shed new light on the scale at which signal color polymorphism can be maintained in the presence of gene flow, and the relative role of local adaptation and other processes in driving these patterns of dewlap color variation across islands.

**Keywords** — reflectance, adaptation, sexual signal, machine learning, polymorphism

## Introduction

The staggering diversity of animal communication signals has long been of interest to evolutionary biologists. Animals use chemical, mechanical, electromagnetic, and visual signals to communicate in a wide variety of contexts, including, competition for mates, species recognition, aposematism, and cooperation (Bradbury and Vehrenamp, 2011). A primary evolutionary factor shaping communication signals is the sensory system and behavior of recipients (the sensory drive hypothesis; Endler and McLellan 1988; Endler 1992, 1998). Over the past decades, scientists have established that signals evolve in an ecological context and are dependent on environmental conditions (Endler, 1992, 1993a,b). Just as different habitats may favor different combinations of ecomorphological traits to maximize performance and fitness (Arnold, 1983), they may also shape different forms of a signal, so as to maximize its transmission and detection (e.g. Seehausen 1997), or reduce its detection by unintended recipients such as predators (Endler, 1984, 1990, 1991; Halfwerk et al., 2014). This selective pressure may drive the local adaptation of communication signals.

One potential barrier to the maintenance of localized signal divergence is the homogenizing effect of gene flow. Population genetics theory suggests that gene flow may counteract local adaptation between localities and prevent divergence altogether, especially at small spatial scales, because of the inflow of maladapted alleles or because of the breaking of linkage between coevolving loci (Felsenstein, 1976; García-Ramos and Kirkpatrick, 1997; Dieckmann and Doebeli, 1999; Lenormand, 2002; Hendry et al., 2007a). This genetic homogenization has been confirmed empirically in systems such as stick insects (Nosil and Crespi, 2004) and stickleback (Hendry et al., 2007b). Yet, examples of microgeographic adaptation, i.e. adaptation at smaller scales than the range of dispersal, exist, highlighting the potential of some organisms to respond to selection in the face of

gene flow (see Richardson et al. 2014 and references therein). Examples include small scale adaptation in fragmented areas in Australian fruit flies (Willi and Hoffmann, 2012), and local adaptation to predation pressure in North American salamanders (Richardson and Urban, 2013). Therefore, despite evidence that local adaptation may be particularly difficult at small spatial scales where gene flow tends to cause adjoining populations to remain genetically homogeneous, the potential adaptive response of species traits, in particular communication signals, to localized differences in habitats remains relatively unknown (Richardson et al., 2014). Lizards of the neotropical genus *Anolis* are an excellent group for studying the eco-evolutionary dynamics of local adaptation and natural selection (Losos, 2009). A particularly conspicuous trait of anoles is their dewlap, an extensible flap of skin that is typically sexually dimorphic and used as a communication signal in courtship (Sigmund, 1983; Driessens et al., 2014, 2015) and territorial displays (Losos, 1985; Macedonia and Stamps, 1994; Macedonia et al., 2013) as well as in predator deterrence (Leal and Rodríguez-Robles, 1995, 1997; Leal and Rodriguez-Robles, 1997). Dewlap characteristics vary widely among the approximately 400 species of the genus (Nicholson et al., 2007). Interspecific variation in dewlap coloration is implicated in species recognition (Rand and Williams, 1970; Williams, 1969; Williams and Rand, 1977; Losos, 1985; Macedonia and Stamps, 1994; Fleishman, 2000; Macedonia et al., 2013), and this function could have had a role in initiating or reinforcing reproductive isolation during speciation (Lambert et al., 2013; Geneva et al., 2015; Ng et al., 2017).

Within species, studies have shown a link between variation in dewlap coloration and differences in habitats or climatic conditions (Macedonia, 2001; Leal and Fleishman, 2002; Thorpe and Stenson, 2002; Thorpe, 2002; Leal and Fleishman, 2004; Vanhooydonck et al., 2009; Ng et al., 2012, 2013, 2016; Vanhooydonck et al., 2009; Driessens et al., 2017). Some studies suggest that those differences may be adaptive and that dewlaps may have evolved to maximize detectability given local light conditions (Fleishman and Persons, 2001; Leal and Fleishman, 2002, 2004). Although this claim is further supported by recent findings that dewlap colors are perceived differently under different levels of shading (Fleishman et al., 2020), other studies found conflicting patterns of between-habitat variation that did not support the sensory drive hypothesis (Fleishman et al., 2009; Ng et al., 2012; Macedonia et al., 2014).

Previous studies investigating variation in anole dewlaps compared populations at relatively large geographical scales, e.g. between islands (Vanhooydonck et al., 2009; Driessens et al., 2017) or within large islands such as Puerto Rico (Leal and Fleishman, 2004) or Hispaniola (Ng et al., 2012, 2016). These large scales and marine barriers should reduce gene flow (Ng and Glor, 2011; Lambert et al., 2013; Richardson et al., 2014; Ng et al., 2017). That said, examples do exist of divergence in dewlap coloration at smaller scales or between populations with high degrees of gene flow (Thorpe and Stenson, 2002; Thorpe, 2002; Stapley et al., 2011; Ng et al., 2016).

*Anolis sagrei* is widespread across islands of the West Indies (Reynolds et al., 2020). It has been the subject of numerous studies concerning local adaptation (Losos et al., 1994, 1997, 2001; Kolbe et al., 2012), biological invasion (Kolbe et al., 2008), and sexual selection (Tokarz, 2002; Tokarz et al., 2005; Tokarz, 2006; Driessens et al., 2014; Steffen and Guyer, 2014; Driessens et al., 2015) among many other topics. Between-island variation in the mainly orange-red color of its dewlap was shown to be better explained by climatic variables such as annual precipitation and solar radiation (proposed to affect the average vegetation type on each island and among other things, its ambient light environment, Driessens et al. 2017), than by proxies for biotic factors such as sexual selection or predation pressure (Vanhooydonck et al., 2009; Baeckens et al., 2018). How intra-island differences in habitat may contribute to the diversity of dewlap coloration, however, remains unexplored, and may reveal new insights into the scale of local differentiation despite gene flow.

Here, we analyzed the color characteristics of *A. sagrei* dewlaps within nine islands in the Bahamas and Cayman Islands. These island systems presently, if not historically, comprise relatively small islands, with no major geographic barriers within islands limiting dispersal for this species. These islands all share three characteristic native West Indian small-island habitat-types – beach scrub bush, closed-canopy primary coppice forest, and mangrove forest – that are often spatially intermingled. These habitats contrast in environmental parameters including vegetation community, light irradiance, humidity, and temperature (Howard, 1950; Schoener, 1968). The Cay-

man Islands and the Bahamas have been colonized independently by *A. sagrei* from Cuba (van de Shoot 2016 unpublished thesis; Reynolds et al. 2020), such that these archipelagos constitute an ideal suite of natural replicates to explore within-island dewlap diversity across multiple islands. 107  
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Our sampling design included sites in close proximity; the median distance between two sites within an island was 11.2km. While this species has traditionally been considered territorial, recent study reveals that they are polygynandrous and that gene flow is not impeded by territorial-like behaviors exhibited by some males (Kamath and Losos 2018). Combining reflectance spectrometry and supervised machine learning, we tested for divergence in dewlap phenotype between habitats within islands and between islands across part of the range of *A. sagrei*. We predicted that if light conditions in the environment indeed drive color evolution, dewlaps should be most similar between beach scrub and mangrove forest, which both have high levels of light irradiance, compared to the darker, closed-canopy coppice forest. If detectability is maximized given the local conditions, we expected darker and more contrasting dewlaps in high irradiance habitats. Finally, if habitat characteristics are strong determinants of dewlap color variation, similar patterns should be observed across multiple islands (Harvey and Pagel, 1991; Losos, 2011). 111  
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123 **Methods**

124 **Data collection**

125 We sampled 466 male *A. sagrei* from seven islands in the Bahamas Archipelago – Abaco, North  
126 Andros, South Andros, South Bimini, Eleuthera, Long Island, and Ragged Island – and two in the  
127 Cayman Islands – Cayman Brac and Little Cayman (Figure S1A). These islands were chosen to  
128 span the breadth of the West Indian range of *A. sagrei*, because they have highly similar habitat  
129 types, and because the *A. sagrei* on each island group are derived from ancient and distinct  
130 colonization events from Cuba (i.e. relatively evolutionarily independent, Reynolds et al. 2020).  
131 Three habitats were sampled on each island based on characterizations by Howard (1950) and  
132 Schoener (1968). Each habitat is clearly distinguishable by its dominant vegetation type — xeric  
133 beach scrub (open, relatively dry habitat consisting of low vegetation or isolated trees), primary  
134 coppice forest (closed-canopy forest) and mangrove forest (wet coastal habitat with trees growing  
135 in brackish water and high light penetration, although lizards were sampled in dry soil areas).  
136 Sample sizes are given in Table S1. Our sampling design enabled us to test for differences between  
137 habitats at a coarse and fine geographical scale. The median distance between two localities within  
138 an island was ~ 11km (Figure S1B), and 80.3% of all pairwise distances within islands were less  
139 than 50km. Additionally, there are no major barriers to dispersal (such as mountains or grassland)  
140 on any of the islands that we sampled.

141 **Reflectance measurements**

142 We measured reflectance between 300nm and 700nm wavelength, a range from ultraviolet to red  
143 that encompasses the colors visible to most lizards and vertebrates in general (Lazareva et al.,  
144 2012). Measurements were taken with an Ocean Optics USB4000 spectrometer, a pulsed Xenon  
145 light source (PX-2, Ocean Optics, Largo, FL, USA) and a reflectance probe protected by a black  
146 anodized aluminum sheath. Measurements were taken with a 45-degree inclination to prevent  
147 specular reflection (Endler, 1990). The device was regularly standardized with a Spectralon white  
148 standard (Labsphere, North Sutton, NH, USA). Reflectance was measured at the center of the  
149 dewlap. Reflectance curves were smoothed using the R package pavo (Maia et al., 2013) as well  
150 as with custom R functions, down to one reflectance value at each nanometer in wavelength from  
151 300 to 700nm.

152 **Analysis**

153 We tested for detectable differences in dewlap coloration between populations from different habi-  
154 tats across islands by following an analytic pipeline in several steps. First, we used multivariate  
155 analyses of variance to assess the relative contributions of islands, habitats and habitat-by-island  
156 interactions on the partitioning of variation in color space. Second, and provided that habitat-by-  
157 island interactions were found, we investigated habitat-differences in dewlap color for each island  
158 separately using machine learning classification. Third, for each island where multivariate differ-  
159 ences were detected using our machine learning pipeline, we used univariate analyses of variance  
160 to decompose the signal among the different dimensions of color space. Fourth, for each signifi-  
161 cant between-habitat variation found in univariate analyses, we used post-hoc tests to determine  
162 which habitats were responsible for the differences. Last, to get insights into the spatial scale of  
163 phenotypic variation, for each significant contrast between two habitats detected along a given  
164 dimension on a given island, we performed multiple pairwise Wilcoxon tests to assess differences  
165 in dewlap coloration among the sites involved in that significant contrast, and recorded the geo-  
166 graphical distance between sites that were found significant. In parallel, we tested a possible effect  
167 of isolation-by-distance, an alternative cause of phenotypic divergence between localities, based on  
168 diffusion approximation and dispersal distance, irrespective of habitat types. We did so using a  
169 permutation test to assess the significance of the correlation between geographical distances and  
170 phenotypic distances among sites within each island.

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172 All analyses in this study were performed in R 3.6.1 (R Core Team, 2019).

## Dimensionality reduction

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Because neighboring wavelengths are highly collinear and redundant in reflectance, we reduced the dimensionality of the data using principal component analysis (PCA), as per Cuthill et al. (1999) and Leal and Fleishman (2002). We performed PCA on data from all islands combined, as well as on each island separately and systematically retained the first four principal components (PC), which together always explained more than 88.8% of the variance across islands (Table S2). PCs need not represent the same wavelengths across islands because they are fitted on different datasets. Nevertheless, PC1 was highly collinear with brightness for all islands (Figure S11), while the other PCs captured the chromatic variation (i.e. irrespective of brightness) in dewlap color.

## Among-island variance partitioning

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We performed a two-way nonparametric multivariate analysis of variance (PERMANOVA, Anderson 2001, R package vegan, Oksanen et al. 2019) to identify differences in coloration between islands, habitats and habitats within islands, using principal components fitted on data from all islands together. We used a nonparametric test because although no multivariate outliers were detected based on the Mahalanobis distance, the assumption of multivariate normality was violated in several habitats on several islands (Henze-Zirkler's test, Henze and Zirkler 1990, R package MVN, Korkmaz et al. 2014,  $P < 0.05$ , Table S3).

## Within-island machine learning

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We performed a machine learning classification analysis on the first four principal components within each island separately, using random forests (Breiman, 2001). Random forests are a versatile, intuitive, and powerful algorithm commonly used in machine learning, using decision trees to predict the labels of particular observations based on their multivariate coordinates. These coordinates, or variables, are passed through a series of successive decision nodes, each examining a given variable of any given observation (James et al., 2013). The prediction for each observation is an aggregate over a large number of decision trees, each tree being trained on a subset of observations sampled with replacement from the dataset, and each tree being allowed to examine only a subset of the variables. This allows the random forest to overcome the individual errors of all trees in the predictions it makes.

To detect differences in dewlap coloration between habitats, we measured the success of random forests in reassigning individual lizards to their correct habitat of origin, based solely on their principal component scores. In machine learning, this so-called cross-validation procedure is typically done in two steps (James et al., 2013). First, a random forest is trained in recognizing features of dewlap coloration most associated with the different habitats, by being presented with multiple observations, making predictions about them, and updating its own decision rules based on whether the prediction deviates from the truth. Then, once trained, the patterns that the random forest has learned to recognize are tested by presenting new, previously unseen observations to the random forest, and measuring the proportion of correct predictions. This proportion, or success score, can then be statistically assessed against random guessing using a binomial test.

The cross-validation procedure requires that the data be split into a training set and a testing set. To remove any bias due to the set that is being sampled for training, it is common practice to use k-fold cross-validation (James et al., 2013), where the data are split into  $k$  random bins and  $k$  independent machines are trained, each taking one of the bins as a testing set and the rest for training, and where classification success is measured by summing all correct classifications from the  $k$  machines.

Here, we used a k-fold cross-validation procedure with  $k = 5$ , where each training set consisted of 80% of the data and the machine was tested on the remaining 20%. Each training set was conditioned on containing at least five lizards from each of the three habitats. We also down-sampled the training set to the sample size of the least represented habitat, to ensure that the different habitats were equally represented. To further remove any bias due to the specific random split into the different bins, we replicated each k-fold cross-validation five times. We then averaged the five resulting confusion matrices across replicates, where each confusion matrix shows the number

of lizards from each habitat reassigned into each habitat. For each island, we then used the average proportion of correctly reassigned lizards (i.e. the proportion of observations on the diagonal of the average confusion matrix) as an estimate of classification success. This score was tested against random guessing by comparing it to a binomial distribution with number of trials being the number of lizards on that island and success probability 1/3, representing the rate of successful classification by chance when three habitats are involved.

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We used the machine learning fitting functions in the R package rminer (Cortez, 2020), which calls random forest routines from the randomForest package (Liaw and Wiener 2002, implementation from the original random forest algorithm Breiman, 2001). For each random forest, we optimized the number of trees in the forest and the number of variables examined by each tree using the grid hyperparameter search procedure implemented in rminer, to choose between two numbers of trees (500 or 1,000) and four numbers of principal components examined per tree (1 to 4), using rminer's ordered holdout validation method with 2/3 of the data used for training.

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We validated the results of our analysis by using two other widely used machine learning classification methods: linear discriminant analysis and support vector machines (Cristianini and Shawe-Taylor, 2000; James et al., 2013), both accessible in rminer (Cortez, 2020).

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To know which wavelengths were most used to assign data points to each habitat, we trained another set of random forests, this time directly on reflectance data (taken every 5nm from 300 to 700nm) instead of principal components. We recorded the relative importance of each wavelength for each habitat, as measured by the mean decrease in accuracy during wavelength permutation, implemented in the randomForest package (Liaw and Wiener, 2002).

## 251 Univariate analyses

For each island where significant differences in dewlap coloration were detected between habitats, we used multiple univariate analyses of variance (ANOVA) to identify possible principal components underlying the observed differences. We constructed our ANOVA models in two steps, as per Zuur (2009). In a first step, we accounted for heterogeneity of variances across groups by systematically comparing the goodness-of-fit of an ANOVA model estimated with ordinary least squares (OLS) with that of a model estimated with generalized least squares (GLS), which allowed one estimate of residual variance per habitat (using the R package nlme, Pinheiro and Bates 2000; Pinheiro et al. 2020). Both models were fitted with restricted maximum likelihood (REML). Goodness-of-fit was estimated using Akaike's Information Criterion corrected for small sample sizes (AICc, R package MuMIn, Bartoń 2019), and the estimation method yielding the lowest AICc was retained. In a second step, we re-fitted the retained model with maximum likelihood (ML) to test for the effect of habitat type using likelihood ratio tests (LRT) between a model including a habitat-term and a null model lacking the habitat-term.

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We evaluated the normality of the standardized residuals (residuals divided by their standard error, which can differ among habitats in a GLS model) of each fitted ANOVA model using Shapiro-Wilk's test, with P-values adjusted for multiple testing using the Benjamini-Hochberg correction (Benjamini and Hochberg, 1995). In cases where significant deviations from normality were detected ( $P_{adj} < 0.05$ , Table S4) we performed Kruskal-Wallis's nonparametric test to back up the ANOVA results.

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To know which habitat-populations were different from which in dewlap coloration, we performed different post-hoc multiple comparison tests (all implemented in the PMCMRplus package, Pohlert, 2020), depending on which assumptions were met. In cases where normality and homoscedasticity were met (i.e. OLS-ANOVA was the best fit), we used Tukey's honest significant difference test. When normality was met but not homoscedasticity (i.e. GLS-ANOVA was the best fit), we used Dunnett's T3 test. Finally, whenever we used Kruskal-Wallis's test because the ANOVA residuals were not normally distributed, we used Nemenyi's test for post-hoc comparisons.

## Spatial autocorrelation 280

We tested for within-island spatial autocorrelation between the geographical distances among sampling sites and their Euclidean distances in multivariate color space (mean PC1 to PC4 per site, Table S5), regardless of habitat type. For this, we performed Mantel's test (Legendre and Legendre 2012, R package vegan; Oksanen et al. 2019) on each island, using 999 permutations and geographical distances computed as geodesic distances from latitude and longitude data (R package geosphere, Hijmans 2019).

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## Site differences 288

In this study, we were interested in the minimum spatial scale at which significant differences between habitats could be detected within islands. We performed multiple pairwise nonparametric Wilcoxon-Mann-Whitney tests (Hollander et al., 2013) to compare dewlap coloration between sites with different habitat types, for each pair of habitats and each variable where significant differences were detected with our analyses of variance. The P-values were adjusted using a Benjamini-Hochberg correction for multiple testing (Benjamini and Hochberg, 1995).

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295 **Results**

296 We tested for variation in *A. sagrei* dewlap coloration between populations living in three charac-  
297 teristic habitat types across nine islands that span the West Indian range of the brown anole (beach  
298 scrub, primary coppice and mangroves). We found that most of the variation in coloration was  
299 partitioned between islands (two-way PERMANOVA,  $F(df = 8) = 43.7$ ,  $P = 0.0001$ , explained  
300 variance  $R^2 = 40.9\%$ ). Nonetheless, we did find evidence for differences in dewlap coloration  
301 between habitat types, and those were mostly island-specific (habitat-by-island interaction term,  
302  $F(16) = 3.53$ ,  $P = 0.0001$ ,  $R^2 = 6.6\%$ ), with a significant portion of the variation explained by  
303 an habitat effect across all islands, but this effect was relatively small ( $F(2) = 4.7$ ,  $P = 0.0001$ ,  
304  $R^2 = 1.1\%$ ).

305 We subsequently tested for differences in dewlap coloration between habitat-populations within  
306 each island, using within-island principal component scores (to maximize the variation captured  
307 for each island, see Methods). Our within-island random forest classification analyses revealed  
308 detectable differences in dewlap coloration on eight out of the nine islands in our sample: Abaco,  
309 Bimini, Cayman Brac, Eleuthera, Little Cayman, Long Island, North Andros and South Andros.  
310 The accuracy of random forest classification exceeded random expectation more often than ex-  
311 pected by chance for all these islands (Table 1). Accuracy was as high as 73% for Cayman Brac.  
312 We obtained similar results using other machine learning approaches such as support vector ma-  
313 chines (Table S7) and linear discriminant analysis (Table S8), except that these methods did not  
314 detect significant differences on Eleuthera and North Andros. We describe in details the specific  
315 differences detected on each island in the Appendix, and focus here on the general patterns emerg-  
316 ing from our data.

317 Overall, we found significant differences in dewlap coloration between populations that were  
318 often in close geographical proximity. On Bimini, notably, we found a significant difference be-  
319 tween dewlaps from beach scrub and primary coppice forest, at a distance of a few hundred meters,  
320 making this contrast the smallest geographical scale at which differences in coloration were found  
321 in our study (Fig. S3). We also detected significant differences in dewlap coloration at distances  
322 below one kilometer on Abaco (Fig. S2G), and at distances between one and ten kilometers on  
323 Bimini (Fig. S3G), Cayman Brac (Fig. S4G), Little Cayman (Fig. S6G), Long Island (Fig. S7G)  
324 and South Andros (Fig. S10G).

325 We found evidence of spatial autocorrelation in dewlap coloration between the sites within is-  
326 lands for Abaco (Table 2), suggesting that populations from closer sites tend to have more similar  
327 dewlaps on this island than expected by chance. Abaco was the island we sampled at the largest  
328 scale, with some sites nearly a hundred kilometers away from each other (Fig. 2A). That said, some  
329 sites were also in close proximity, and significant differences in coloration were detected between  
330 habitats sometimes less than a kilometer away (Fig. S2G), suggesting that differences in dewlap  
331 coloration between distant sites may be partly attributable to isolation-by-distance, but this may  
332 not necessarily be the case for sites in close proximity. We did not find evidence for spatial auto-  
333 correlation on other islands than Abaco (although Eleuthera was nearly significant, Table 2).

334 A striking feature of our data was inconsistencies in between-habitat differences among is-  
335 lands, in terms of which habitats differ from which, which dimensions of coloration were involved,  
336 and in which direction. For example, while on Cayman Brac the random forests could well dis-  
337 tinguish between all three habitats (Fig. S4D), on Abaco dewlaps from beach scrub and primary  
338 coppice were often mistaken, and on Bimini beach scrub dewlaps were more often classified into  
339 primary coppice or mangrove than into beach scrub (Fig. S3D). In terms of variable importance,  
340 for multiple islands the random forests used information in the UV range to discriminate between  
341 at least some habitats, particularly on Abaco (Fig. S2F), Bimini (Fig. S3F), Cayman Brac (Fig.  
342 S4F), Little Cayman (Fig. S6F) and Long Island (Fig. S7F), but differences in UV reflectance  
343 involved different habitats and were in different directions among these islands.

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## Discussion

Two main insights follow from our results. First, we detected significant differences in dewlap coloration between habitats within seven out of the nine islands investigated (excluding North Andros where the follow-up univariate analyses were not significant), suggesting a putatively high potential for local differentiation of dewlap coloration in *Anolis sagrei*. Second, we found differences in coloration along different dimensions of color space, and in different directions, on different islands.

Detectable differences in dewlap color between populations are surprising, as habitats were often in close geographical proximity to each other (as close as a few hundred meters on Bimini and most of the time within ten kilometers). Indeed, given that (1) the populations were continuously distributed between the habitats, (2) populations from different habitats were not monophyletic with respect to mitochondrial haplotypes (van de Schoot 2016 unpublished thesis), and (3) *A. sagrei* is highly mobile (Kamath and Losos, 2018b), we would have expected more homogeneous distributions of color phenotypes within islands due to gene flow, with fewer differences between populations, especially those in close proximity., and we would have expected gene flow to cause a more homogeneous distribution of color phenotypes within islands. While little is known about the cruising range of individuals from our study populations (but see Steinberg and Leal 2017; Kamath and Losos 2018b for other systems), *A. sagrei* are polygynandrous (both males and females mate with multiple mates, Kamath and Losos 2017, 2018a,b), thus offering opportunity for gene flow, especially given that lizards were distributed continuously and at high densities within the islands we sampled. Consistent with that, while populations from different islands were monophyletic, individuals within islands were not monophyletic with respect to habitat based on mitochondrial haplotypes (van de Schoot 2016 unpublished thesis).

Several scenarios could account for these findings. One explanation is an adaptive one: populations living in different habitats could be phenotypically adapted to their local environmental conditions. Given that the brightly colored dewlap of *A. sagrei* is used as a communication signal, its color may be a target for selection if the transmission or perception of the signal differs from one habitat to another, for example because of differences in ambient light, according to the sensory-drive hypothesis (Endler and McLellan, 1988; Endler, 1992, 1998). The sensory-drive hypothesis has been tested multiple times for dewlap coloration in *Anolis* lizards, with mixed results. Some authors found support for it (Leal and Fleishman, 2002, 2004), while others found differences in dewlap coloration between habitats inconsistent with the sensory-drive hypothesis (Fleishman et al., 2009; Ng et al., 2012).

If our results were an example of sensory drive, we would have expected to see consistent differences between populations from different habitats across islands, given the apparent environmental consistency each of the three habitat types across the islands we sampled. In particular, we would have expected divergence in line with increased detectability given local light conditions, such as the high contrasts with background vegetation found in the UV range in Leal and Fleishman (2002) and Leal and Fleishman (2004). We might also have expected mangrove and beach scrub lizards, both inhabiting areas with high light penetration, to have more similar dewlaps, and to differ significantly from lizards from the coppice habitat, where irradiance is low. Instead, we found inconsistencies in the way dewlap color differed between habitats across islands. While short-wavelengths (UV reflectance) were often involved in color differences, they were not involved on all islands where significant differences were detected. On some islands, other or additional variables differed, such as brightness, red reflectance or the reflectance at the ends of the spectrum visible to *Anolis* lizards (UV and red, Lazareva et al. 2012) relative to intermediate wavelengths (blue-to-yellow). Similar portions of the spectrum were sometimes involved in opposite directions on different islands, such as on Abaco and Cayman Brac, where mangrove lizards had a higher UV-reflectance than beach scrub lizards on the former, but a lower UV-reflectance on the latter. Overall, the observed heterogeneity of divergence patterns across islands provides no support to a sensory-drive explanation.

It is presently not known if the reported differences in coloration have a genetic basis. Yet, we find it unlikely that these differences arose through phenotypic plasticity, as although the carotenoids that partly make up the red and orange colors of anole dewlaps must be found in

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406 the diet (Goodwin, 1984; Hill et al., 2002; Hill and McGraw, 2006), studies testing the effect of  
407 carotenoid deprivation (Steffen et al., 2010; Ng et al., 2013) and heritability (Cox et al., 2017) of  
408 dewlap coloration in *A. sagrei* and *A. distichus* (another species with a carotenoid-based dewlap),  
409 found little support for phenotypic and developmental plasticity in dewlap coloration. One excep-  
410 tion is a study demonstrating that lizards heavily parasitized by skin mites had duller dewlaps  
411 (Cook et al., 2013), but we found no sign of that in our study.

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413 We found no evidence for a role of genetic drift in explaining the observed patterns either.  
414 First, *A. sagrei* was distributed across the islands continuously, usually at relatively high popula-  
415 tion densities, rather than in small and isolated populations where drift might be expected to have  
416 a strong effect. Second, we found no evidence of isolation-by-distance except on Abaco, which was  
417 sampled at the largest geographical scale, with sites nearly a hundred kilometers apart from each  
418 other. Hence, while isolation-by-distance may explain long-range differences on this island, most of  
419 the differences among habitats across the rest of the sampling region are unlikely to be explained  
420 by genetic drift, as habitats were often in close proximity (less than 10km).

421

422 Genetic drift could contribute to some of the observed variation. Indeed, while only Abaco  
423 showed significant patterns consistent with isolation-by-distance (which may emerge under limited  
424 dispersal and drift, Wright 1943; Kimura and Weiss 1964; Slatkin 1987), there may have been  
425 too few sites on most islands to conclusively detect it, and even then, the absence of detectable  
426 isolation-by-distance may not necessarily constitute evidence for the absence of drift. Besides,  
427 spatial autocorrelation was the strongest on islands sampled at the largest scales (e.g. some sites  
428 on Abaco were nearly 100km apart, and Eleuthera – the second strongest signal, albeit nonsignif-  
429 icant – had sites more than 30km apart), such that it is possible that neutral processes and/or  
430 dispersal limitations might contribute to shaping variation over long distances. That said, many  
431 significant differences were found between habitats in close proximity, contrary to what would be  
432 expected under isolation-by-distance, including on islands where spatial autocorrelation was de-  
433 tected. Moreover, *A. sagrei* was distributed across the islands continuously, usually at relatively  
434 high population densities, rather than in small and isolated populations particularly prone to drift.  
435 Together with the fact that isolation-by-distance may not necessarily only emerge from drift (e.g.  
436 if there is a spatial environmental gradient), this indicates that genetic drift may have limited  
437 potential to explain the differences observed between habitats, at least at a local scale.

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439 In this study, we found larger differences among than within islands, a pattern already reported  
440 and linked to climatic conditions (Driessens et al., 2017) and to densities of predators and of anole  
441 congeners (Vanhooydonck et al., 2009; Baeckens et al., 2018). Differences among habitats within  
442 islands, however, are still difficult to account for. Remaining hypotheses may include, for example,  
443 runaway sexual selection (i.e. arbitrary preferences of females for some colors over others, Anders-  
444 son 1994) arbitrarily operating in different directions across islands, but no evidence so far suggests  
445 that dewlap is a target of mate choice in anoles (Tokarz, 2002; Tokarz et al., 2005; Lailvaux and  
446 Irschick, 2006; Nicholson et al., 2007). Another hypothesis is that the different genetic constitu-  
447 tions of different islands, perhaps resulting from founder effects (the islands have been colonized  
448 independently, van de Schoot 2016 unpubl.; Driessens et al. 2017; Reynolds et al. 2020), may have  
449 predisposed populations to adapt differently to similarly selective circumstances. Either way, new  
450 data would be needed to test these hypotheses. Visual modeling, for instance, would be a valuable  
451 follow-up analysis as it would indicate whether the differences we detected may be detectable by  
452 the organisms themselves (as has been done in *Anolis* in Leal and Fleishman 2004; Fleishman  
453 et al. 2020), but such approach requires irradiance profiles from the habitats in the field, which we  
454 presently do not have.

455

456 Last, some patterns may arise owing to factors we did not measure. For one, signalling can be  
457 a multifaceted behavior, and while we focused on dewlap color here, other potentially important  
458 elements of behavioral interactions include dewlap size, dewlap patterning, display activity as well  
459 as behaviors associated with dewlap extensions such as headbobs and pushups (Vanhooydonck  
460 et al., 2005; Driessens et al., 2014, 2015; Lailvaux et al., 2015). These have been linked in various  
461 ways (and not always consistently across studies) not only with environmental variables but also  
462 with proxies for sexual selection, predation and species recognition (Vanhooydonck et al., 2005;  
463 Lailvaux and Irschick, 2007; Vanhooydonck et al., 2009; Driessens et al., 2017; Baeckens et al.,

2018), which do vary among islands but may also vary within islands, possibly in interaction with dewlap color. Besides, while the three habitats were clearly recognizable and consistent across islands to the human eye (Fig. 1), we did not precisely quantify irradiance within each habitat and did not consider any more subtle differences there might have been between islands.

Altogether, our results show that dewlap color of *A. sagrei* commonly varies between habitat types, even in close geographical proximity, within islands of the West Indies. However, coloration differs in different ways across similar habitats from one island to another. We discussed several non-mutually exclusive mechanisms that could explain these observations. Nevertheless, heterogeneous patterns of divergence across islands do not support an adaptive sensory-drive scenario, and we propose that within-island dewlap color variation may be underlain by a more subtle mosaic of factors.

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476 **Figures**

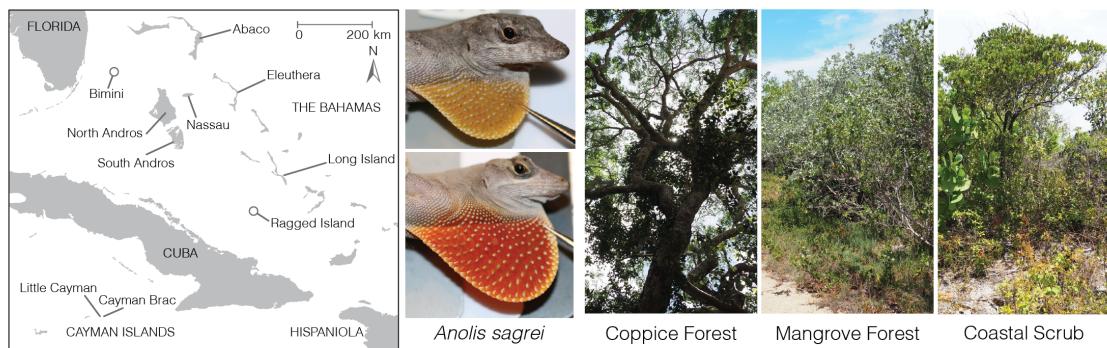


Figure 1: Overview of our study design, including a map of the Bahamas and the Cayman Islands, on which are indicated the nine islands we sampled, two representatives of our study species *Anolis sagrei* with their dewlaps deployed, and the three types of habitats we considered on each island.

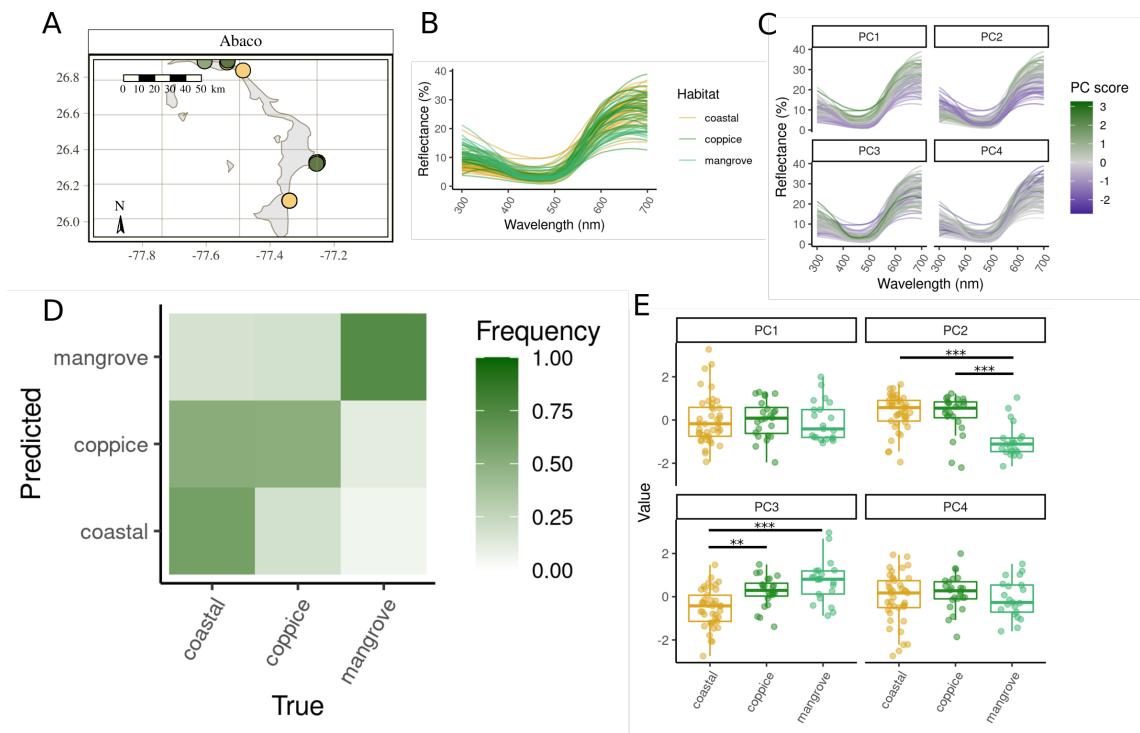


Figure 2: Comparison of dewlap coloration across habitats on Abaco. (A) Map of the island with the sampling sites colored by habitat. (B) Reflectance profiles of all the dewlaps on the island. (C) How reflectance profiles map onto the within-island principal components. (D) Confusion matrix showing the proportion of lizards from each (true) habitat reassigned to each (predicted) habitat by the random forests, based on the first four within-island principal components and averaged across replicates. Each column sums to one. (E) Within-island principal component scores across habitats. Bars indicate significant contrasts. \*,  $P < 0.05$ ; \*\*,  $P < 0.01$ ; \*\*\*,  $P < 0.001$ .

## Tables

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Table 1: Random forest classification results. For each island are shown the sample size ( $N$ ) and the proportion of correctly reassigned observations (or success score). P-values were computed using a binomial test and assess the significance of the observed success score relative to the score expected under random guessing. \*,  $P < 0.05$ ; \*\*,  $P < 0.01$ , \*\*\*,  $P < 0.001$ .

Island	$N$	Score	$P$
Abaco	86	0.612	< 0.0001 ***
Bimini	67	0.510	0.0011 **
Cayman Brac	50	0.728	< 0.0001 ***
Eleuthera	56	0.493	0.0072 **
Little Cayman	45	0.649	< 0.0001 ***
Long Island	53	0.634	< 0.0001 ***
North Andros	28	0.507	0.0216 *
Ragged Island	50	0.368	0.2874
South Andros	31	0.484	0.0270 *

Table 2: Mantel's test of spatial autocorrelation. For each island are shown the correlation (Pearson's  $\rho$ ) between the matrix of phenotypic distances between populations from each site and the matrix of geographic distances between sites, where phenotypic distances are Euclidean distances between the mean phenotypes of each site in the multivariate space consisting of the first four within-island principal components. P-values assess the significance of the observed correlation against the correlation expected if population means were randomly permuted among sites (999 permutations). \*,  $P < 0.05$ .

Island	$\rho$	$P$
Abaco	0.448	0.033 *
Bimini	0.810	0.250
Cayman Brac	-0.737	0.833
Eleuthera	0.844	0.058
Little Cayman	-0.042	0.667
Long Island	0.367	0.333
North Andros	0.051	0.667
Ragged Island	-0.363	0.708
South Andros	-0.979	1.000



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## Appendix

735

Here we describe more precisely the patterns identified on each island.

736

On Abaco, dewlaps from the mangrove habitat were the best discriminated, while dewlaps from the beach scrub habitat were often mistaken for dewlaps from the coppice habitat (Fig. 2D). Importance analysis revealed that beach scrub and mangrove lizards mostly differed in reflectance in the ultraviolet (UV) end of the spectrum (below 400nm, Fig. S2F), where mangrove dewlaps had higher UV reflectance relative to beach scrub lizards, and coppice lizards had an intermediate UV reflectance between the two other habitats (Fig. 2B). Consistent with this, our analyses of variance detected significantly lower PC2 scores in mangrove lizards than in the two other habitats (Fig. 2E, Table 3), representing a higher UV-reflectance relative to red (Fig. 2C). Beach scrub lizards also scored lower on PC3 (Fig. 2E, Table 3), indicating less curvature of the reflectance profile and relatively higher reflectance at intermediate wavelengths (blue-to-yellow) than at the ends of the range (Fig. 2C). Differences were detected between sites both at large ( $\sim 100\text{km}$ ) and short ( $< 1\text{km}$ ) distances (Fig. S2G). Abaco was the only island where we detected significant spatial autocorrelation (Table 2), that is, sites that were closer geographically tended to have populations of lizards with more similar dewlap colors.

737

On Bimini, the random forests mostly correctly classified lizards from the coppice and mangrove habitats while often misclassifying lizards from the beach scrub habitat (Fig. S3D). Relatively flat importance profiles for beach scrub lizards suggested that brightness was used instead of a particular wavelength to identify some of the beach scrub dewlaps (Fig. S3F). Indeed, some beach scrub dewlaps were substantially brighter than the rest (Fig. S3B, C), a pattern that was captured by our analysis of variance along PC1 (i.e. brightness, Fig. S3C, E, Table 3). The random forests also used UV reflectance to discriminate between coppice and mangrove dewlaps (Fig. S3F), which could reflect the significant difference we detected along PC3 between these two habitats (Fig. S3C, E, Table 3). Beach scrub lizards were characterized by elevated red reflectance relative to UV (as represented by PC2, (Fig. S3C, E)), and beach scrub and mangrove lizards were characterized by a more even distribution of the reflectance along the spectrum (as represented by PC3, (Fig. S3C, E)), in contrast to coppice lizards which harbored a stronger curvature at intermediate wavelengths (Fig. S3C, E). On this island, the beach scrub and coppice habitats were separated by a few hundred meters, making this contrast the smallest geographical scale at which differences in coloration were found in our study (Fig. S3G).

738

On Cayman Brac, all three habitats could be well discriminated against each other (Fig. S4D), with UV reflectance appearing to be an important variable differentiating beach scrub and mangrove dewlaps (Fig. S4F). In contrast, coppice dewlaps had a relatively flat importance profile, suggesting that brightness made them more distinct rather than any particular wavelength (Fig. S4F). Consistent with this, coppice dewlaps were significantly different from all other dewlaps along PC1 (Fig. S4E, Table 3). At a distance between 2 and 3km (Fig. S4G), dewlaps in the beach scrub habitat reflected more red light (as represented by PC2, Fig. S4C, E) and more UV (as represented by PC3, Fig. S4C, E) than in the mangrove habitat. Coppice lizards were also characterized by a higher UV reflectance than mangrove dewlaps (PC3, Fig. S4C, E, Table 3).

739

On Eleuthera, although random forests detected between-habitat differences in dewlap color, other approaches did not (Tables S8 and S7), suggesting that the differences may be small. Consistent with this, the only significant univariate difference detected was for PC2 between beach scrub and mangrove lizards, where beach scrub lizards had higher levels of red reflectance and mangrove lizards higher levels of UV reflectance (Fig. S5C, E, Table 3).

740

Little Cayman was characterized by a better discrimination of mangrove lizards from the rest than between beach scrub and coppice lizards (Fig. S6D). Mangrove dewlaps were most distinct with respect to their reflectance in short wavelengths (Fig. S6F), with significantly lower UV reflectance (as represented by PC2, Fig. S6C, E, Table 3). Beach scrub lizards were characterized by brighter dewlaps than coppice lizards (PC1), and also more convex curves, i.e. slightly higher UV and red reflectance (as represented by higher PC3 scores), than lizards from the other two habitats (Fig. S6C, E, Table 3).

741

792  
793 On Long Island the three habitats were relatively well discriminated (Fig. S7D). Importance  
794 profiles indicated that short wavelengths were used to discriminate between beach scrub and man-  
795 grove lizards (Fig. S7F). Beach scrub lizards had more curved reflectance profiles than in either of  
796 the two other habitats, with higher levels of UV and red reflectance relative to intermediate wave-  
797 lengths (PC3, Fig. S7C, E, Table 3). Beach scrub lizards also differed from mangrove lizards along  
798 PC4 (Fig. S7E), which represented a rather small portion of the variance not already explained  
799 by the first three principal components, and is therefore difficult to interpret (Fig. S7C). Coppice  
800 lizards were significantly darker than mangrove and beach scrub lizards (PC1, Fig. S7C, E, Table  
801 3).

802  
803 On North Andros, although the random forest classification was significant ( $P = 0.0216$ , Table  
804 1) and the average confusion matrix indicated that lizards from beach scrub were particularly well  
805 predicted (Fig. S8D), no significant univariate differences were detected along any of the four PCs  
806 (Fig. S8E, Table 3). Importance analysis of full-spectrum random forests showed higher impor-  
807 tance scores near the UV-end of the spectrum in discriminating beach scrub dewlaps from the rest  
808 (Fig. S8F). Besides, reflectance curves of beach scrub dewlaps appeared more similar to each other  
809 in the UV range than dewlaps from other habitats (Fig. S8B), suggesting that the machines may  
810 have used this low within-habitat variance, as opposed to between-habitat differences in means,  
811 to correctly classify beach scrub lizards. A small sample size on this island may also have con-  
812 tributed to a lack of power in detecting univariate differences using analyses of variance (Table S1).

813  
814 On South Andros beach scrub and coppice dewlaps could be discriminated better against  
815 each other than with mangrove dewlaps (Fig. S10D), with importance profiles supporting UV-  
816 reflectance as a predictor of coppice lizards (Fig. S10F). Coppice lizards had more curved re-  
817 flectance profiles than beach scrub lizards (PC3), and lizards from both habitats differed along  
818 PC4, which is again more difficult to interpret (Fig. S10C, E, Table 3). Beach scrub lizards also  
819 differed from mangrove lizards in PC4 (Fig. S10C, E, Table 3).

820  
821 Classification success was not significantly better than expected by chance on Ragged Island  
822 (Table 1) where nearly no habitat could be differentiated from any other based on reflectance.

## Supplementary Figures

823

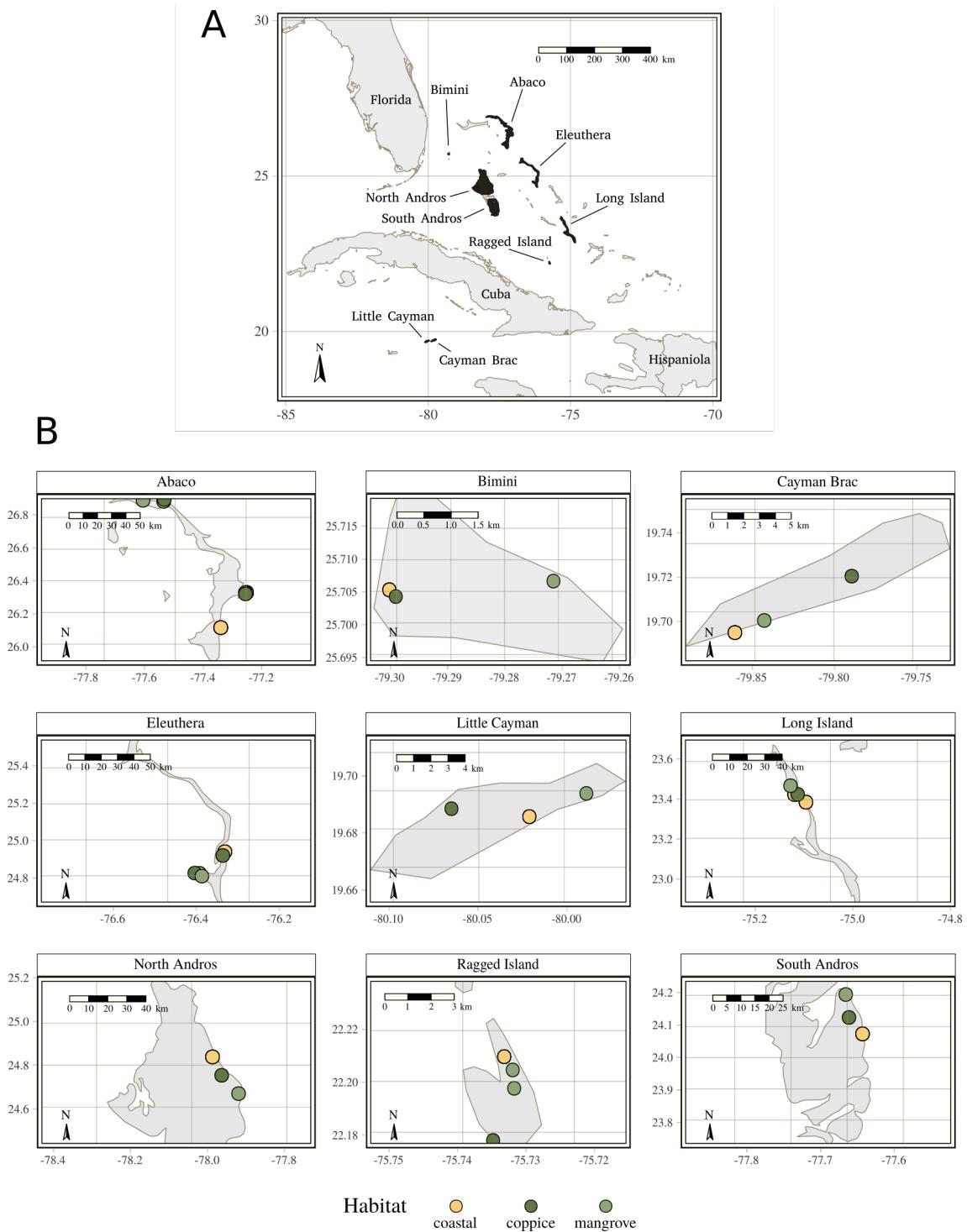


Figure S1: Maps of the islands. (A) Map of the West Indies with sampled islands highlighted in black. (B) Sampling sites within islands colored after their respective habitat types.

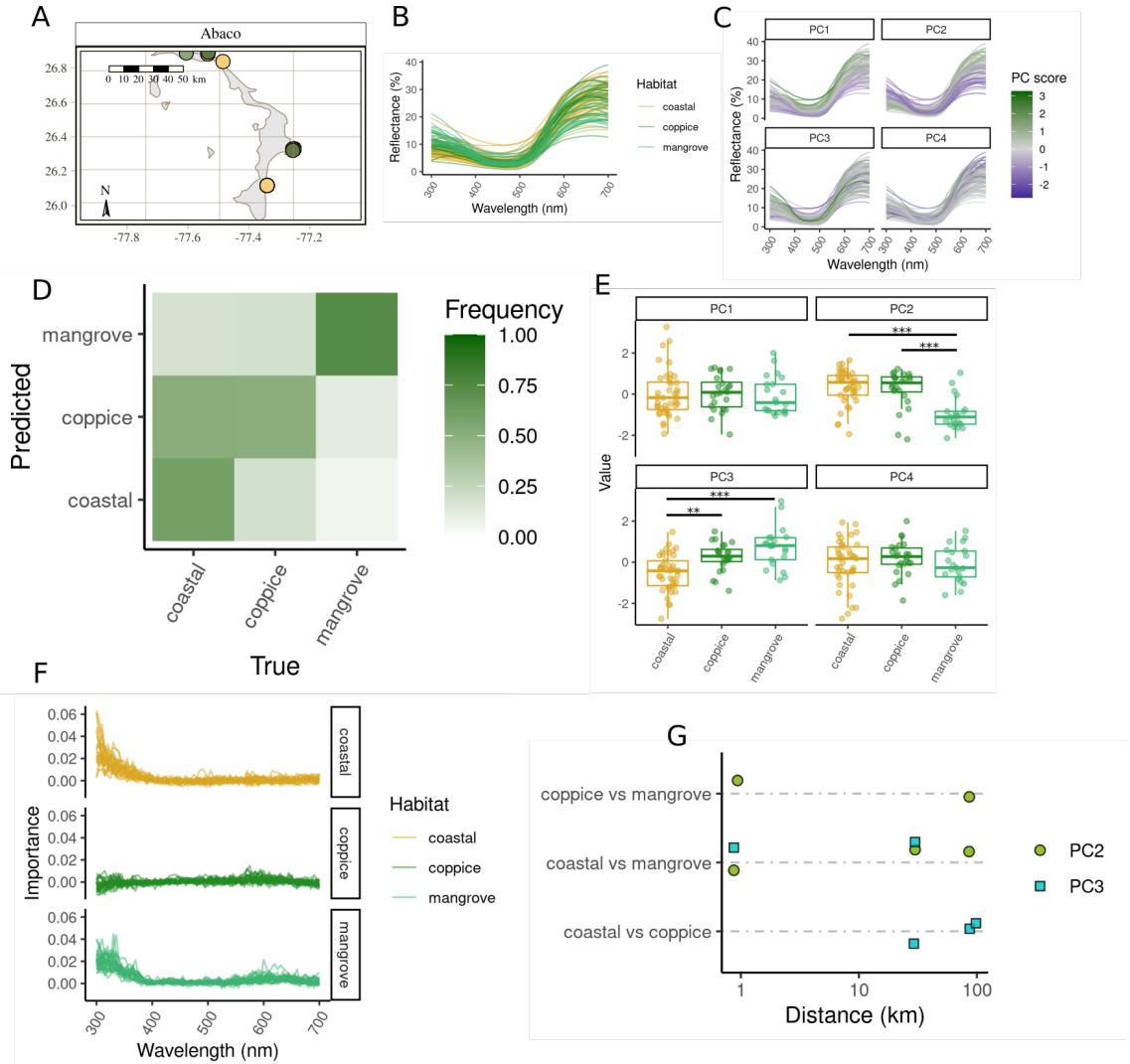


Figure S2: Comparison of dewlap coloration across habitats on Abaco, with extended results. (A–E) Legend as per Figure 2. (F) One-dimensional sensitivity analysis showing the relative importance (mean decrease in accuracy) of the various wavelengths in random forest classification of the whole spectrum. (G) Geographical distance between sites where significant differences were detected in within-island principal component scores (Wilcoxon test, Benjamini-Hochberg correction,  $P < 0.05$ ), including only pairs of sites whose habitats were involved in between-habitat dewlap differences.

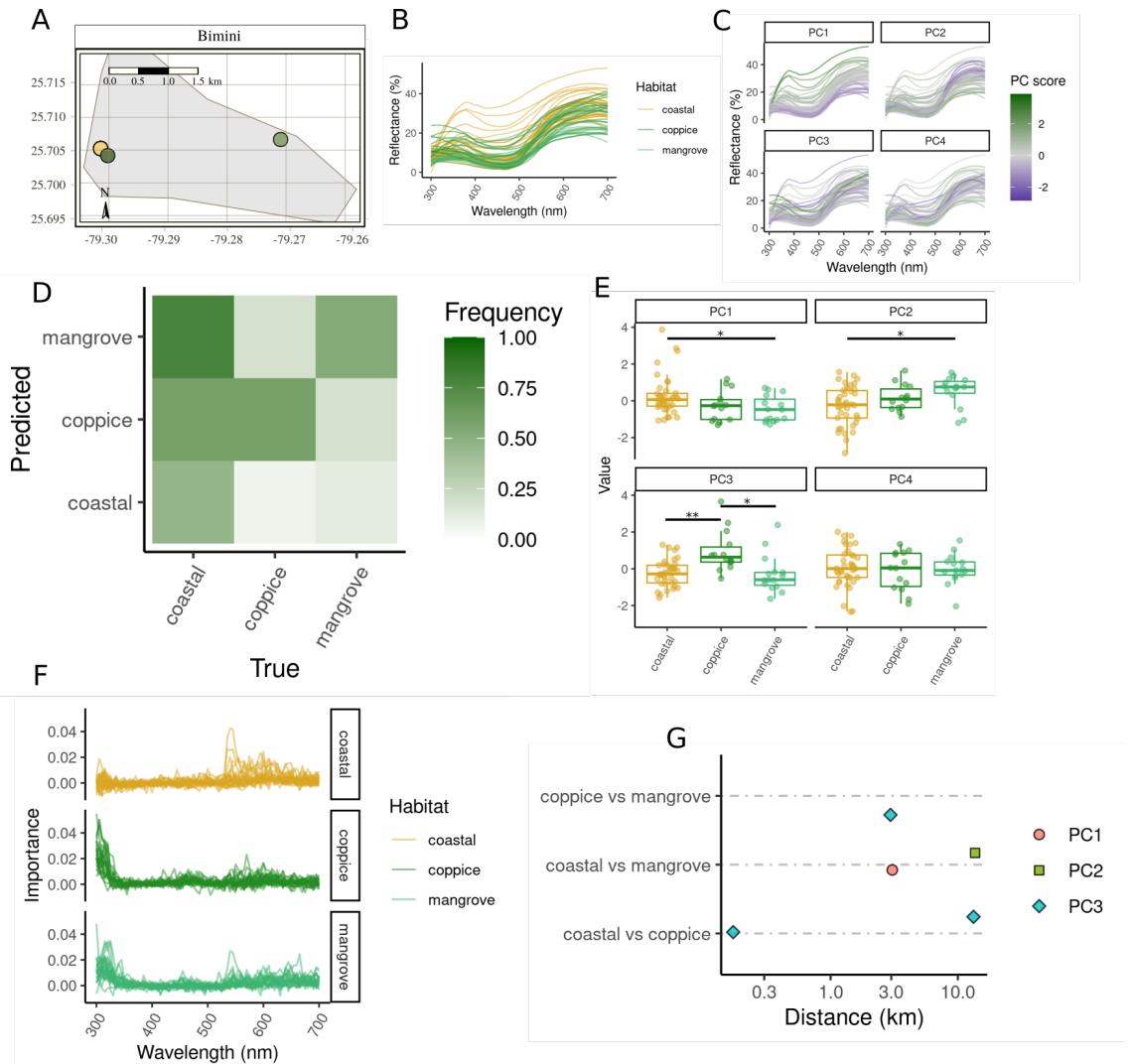


Figure S3: Comparison of dewlap coloration across habitats on Bimini. Legend is as per Figure S2.

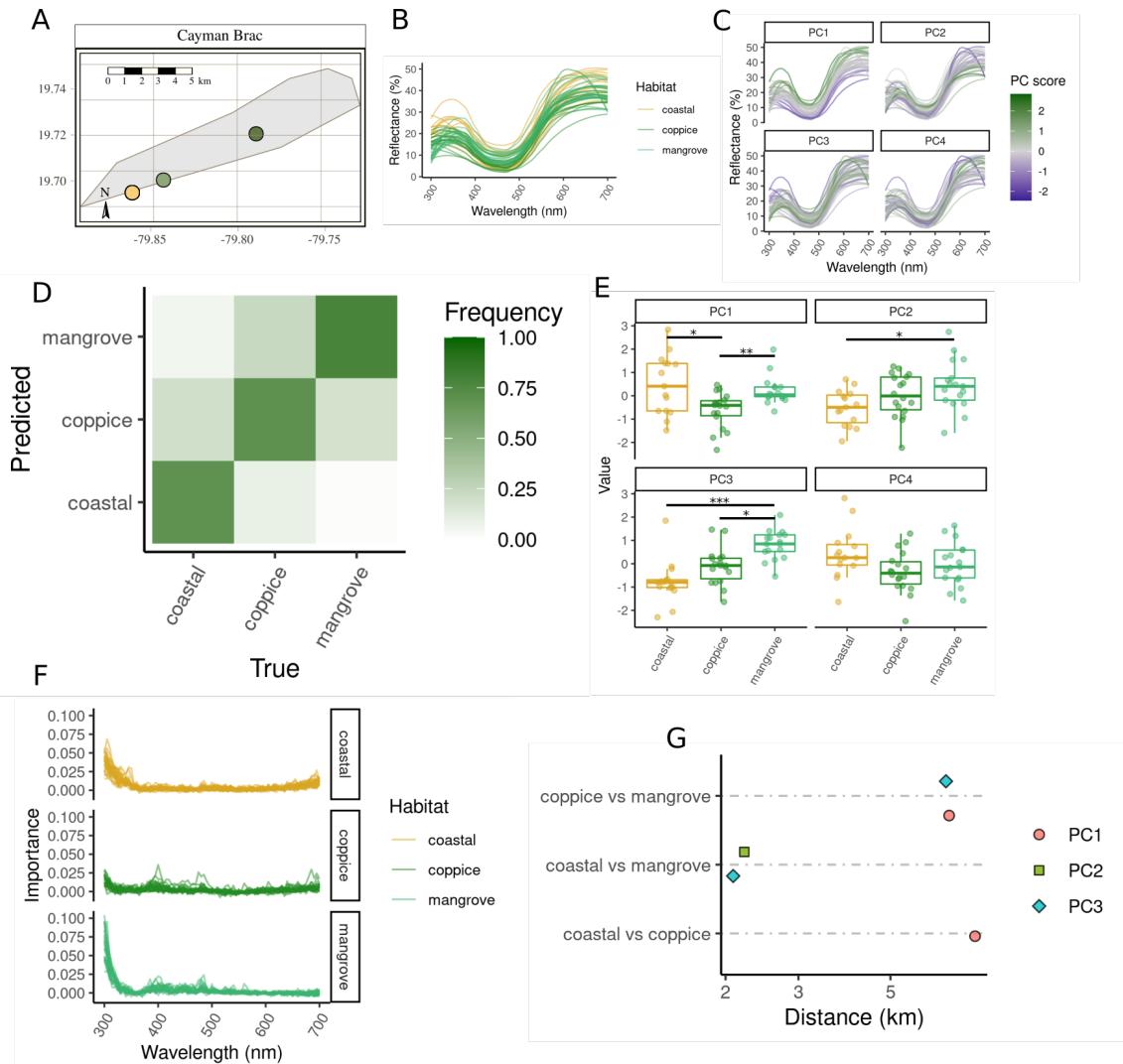


Figure S4: Comparison of dewlap coloration across habitats on Cayman Brac. Legend is as per Figure S2.

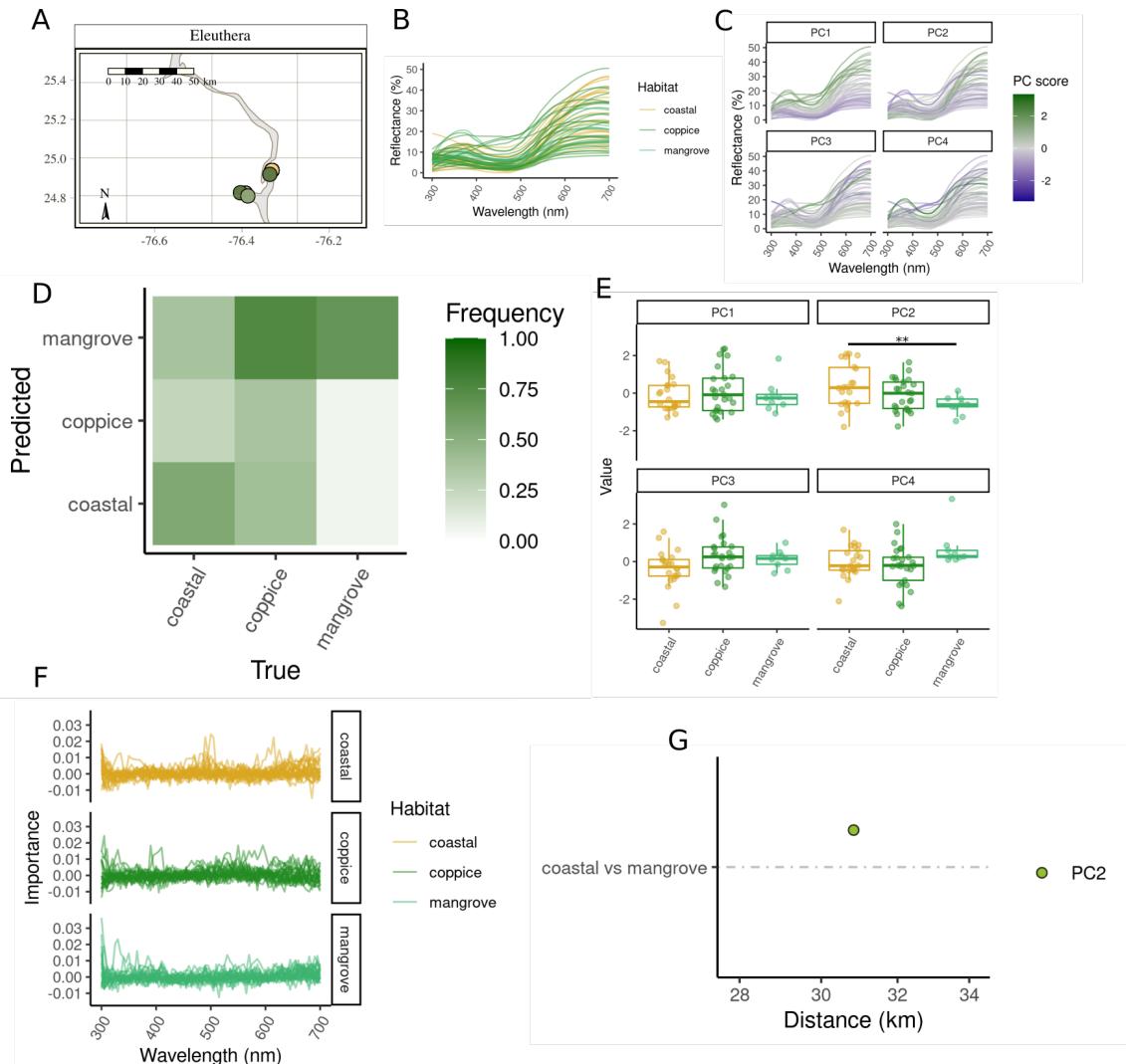


Figure S5: Comparison of dewlap coloration across habitats on Eleuthera. Legend is as per Figure S2.

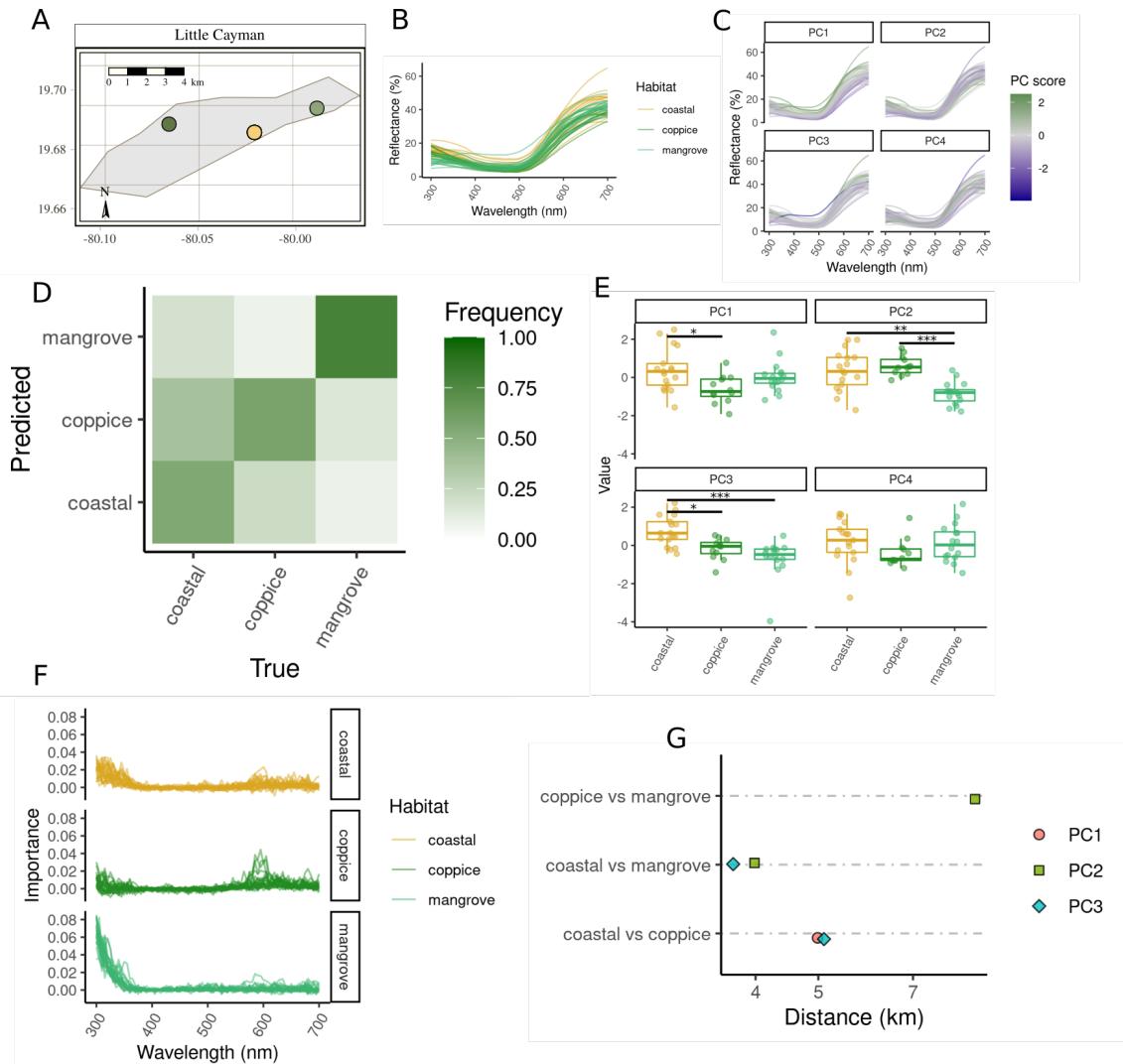


Figure S6: Comparison of dewlap coloration across habitats on Little Cayman. Legend is as per Figure S2.

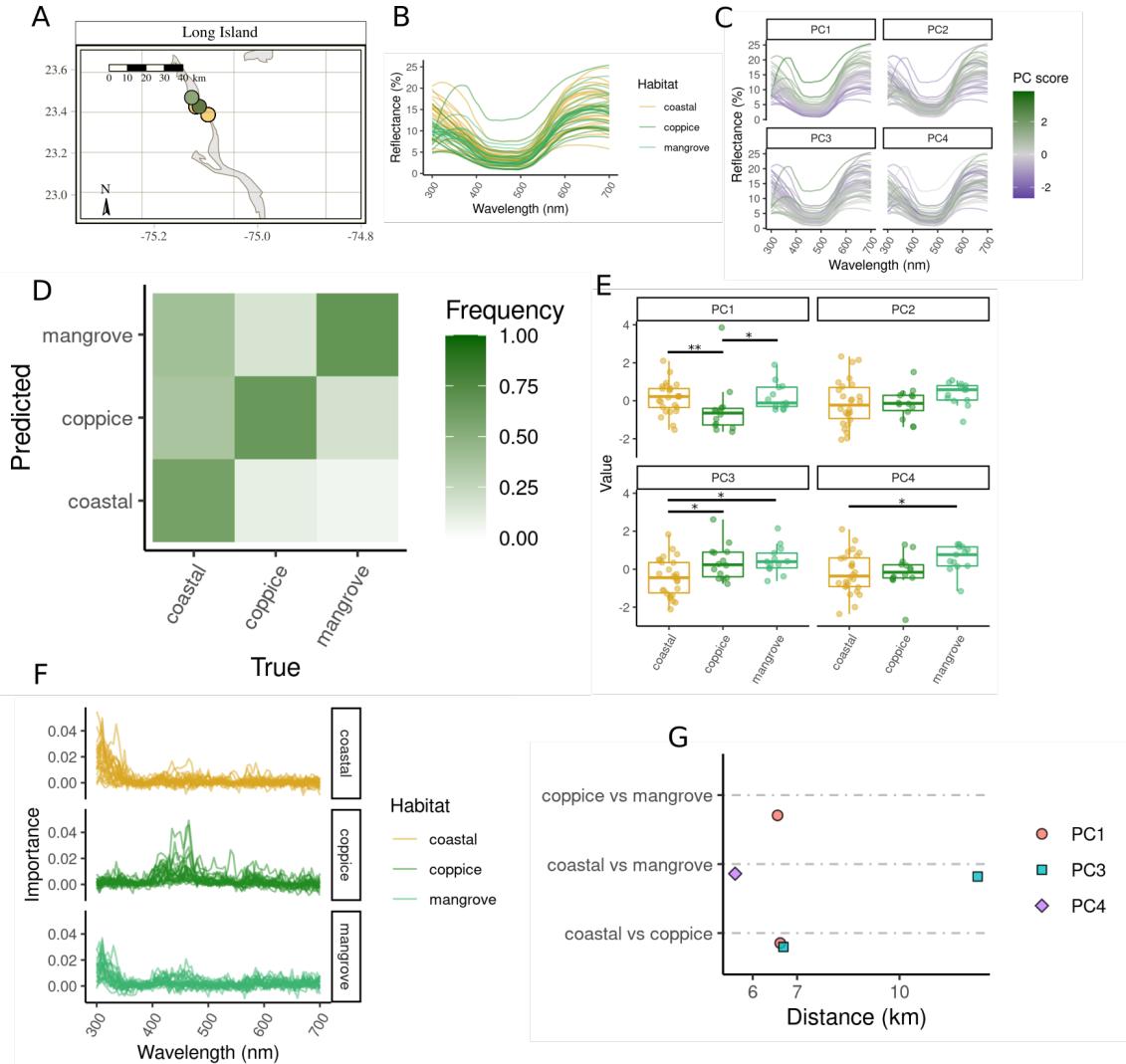


Figure S7: Comparison of dewlap coloration across habitats on Long Island. Legend is as per Figure S2.

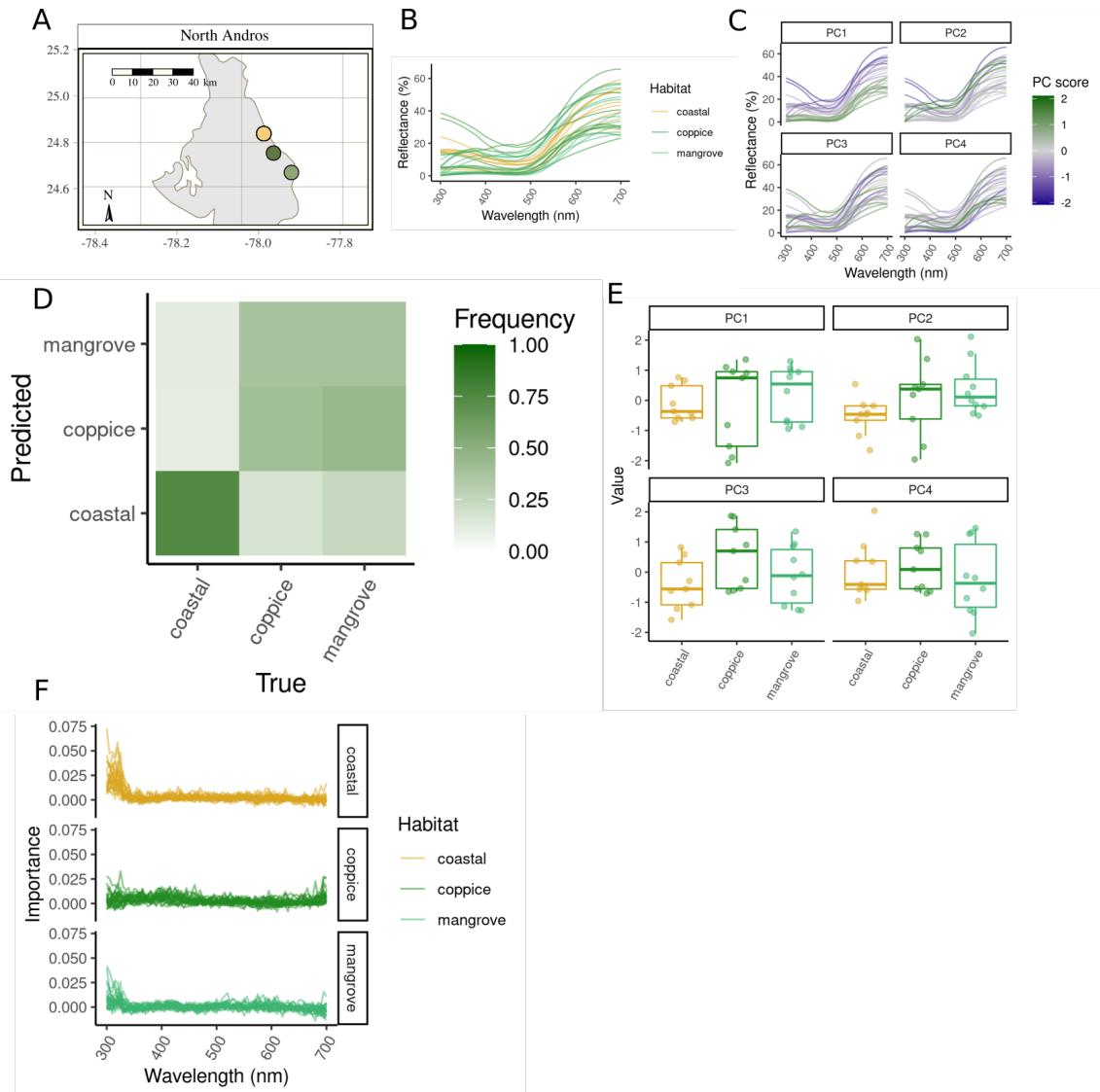


Figure S8: Comparison of dewlap coloration across habitats on North Andros. Legend is as per Figure S2, but without panel G.

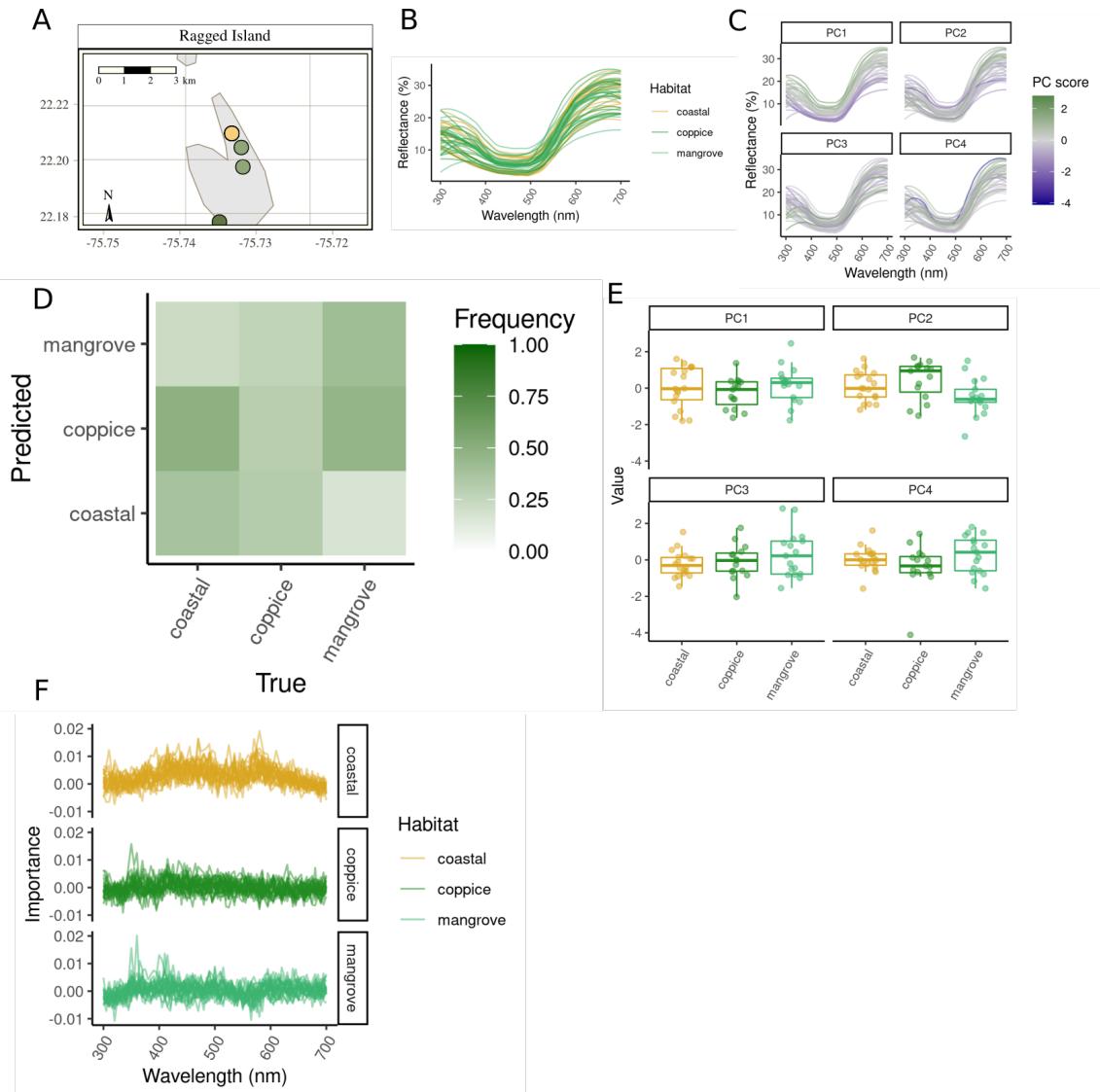


Figure S9: Comparison of dewlap coloration across habitats on Ragged Island. Legend is as per Figure S2, but without panel G.

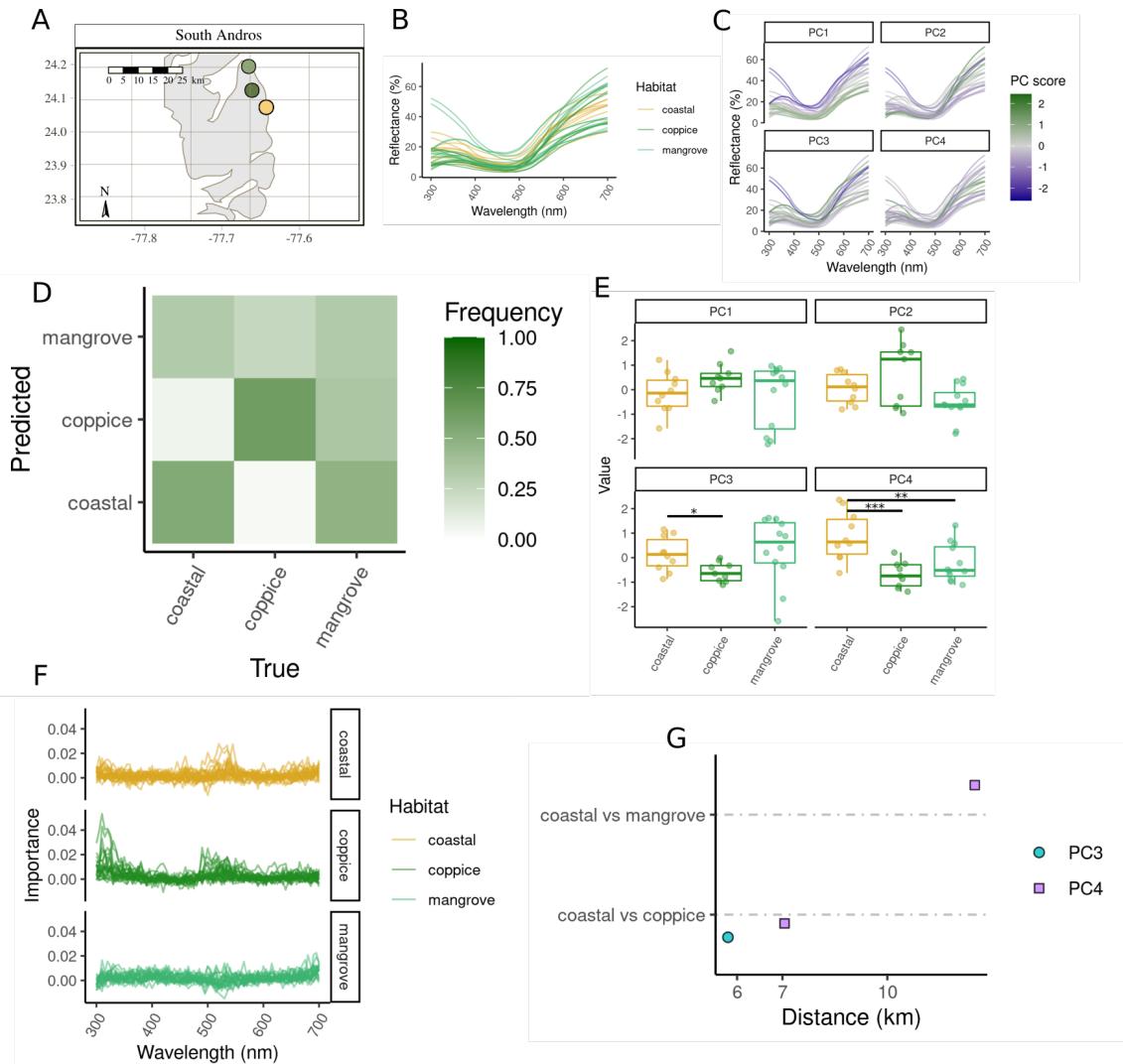


Figure S10: Comparison of dewlap coloration across habitats on South Andros. Legend is as per Figure S2.

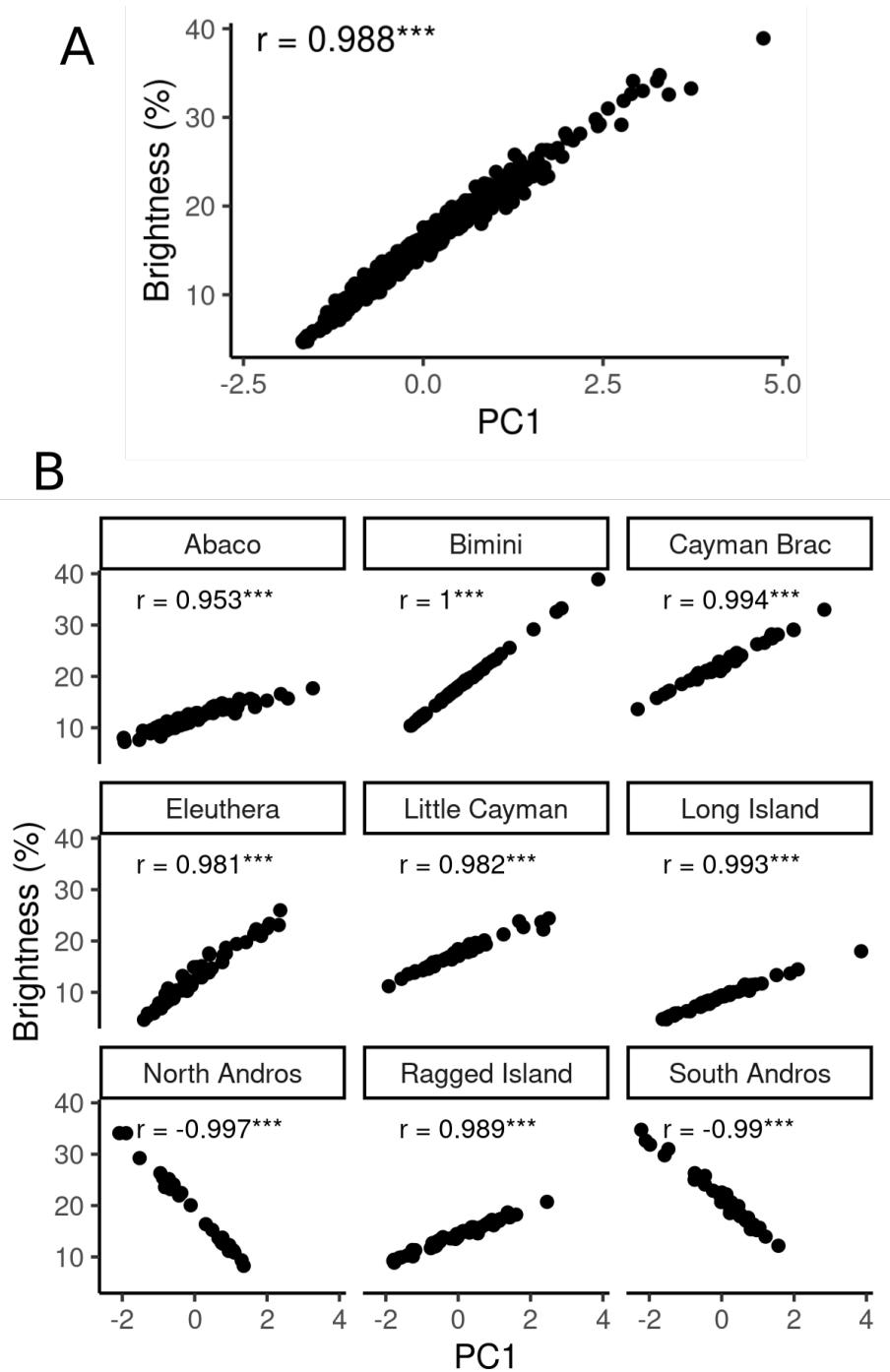


Figure S11: PC1 captures brightness across all islands. (A) Correlation between dewlap brightness (as measured by the mean reflectance from 300 to 700nm in wavelength) and PC1 score across all islands. (B) Correlation between brightness and within-island PC1, for each island. Pearson's correlation coefficients are reported. \*\*\*,  $P < 0.001$ .

<sup>824</sup> **Supplementary Tables**

Table S1: Number of lizards sampled in each habitat on each island.

	coastal	coppice	mangrove
Abaco	41	24	21
Bimini	38	14	15
Cayman Brac	15	18	17
Eleuthera	22	25	9
Little Cayman	17	12	16
Long Island	26	14	13
North Andros	9	9	10
Ragged Island	18	15	17
South Andros	10	9	12

Table S2: Proportion of variance explained by the first four principal components on each island, as well as in the PCA performed on all islands together (last row).

Island	Total	PC1	PC2	PC3	PC4
Abaco	0.906	0.400	0.279	0.147	0.079
Bimini	0.921	0.502	0.208	0.160	0.051
Cayman Brac	0.888	0.438	0.190	0.155	0.105
Eleuthera	0.926	0.490	0.233	0.138	0.066
Little Cayman	0.907	0.441	0.212	0.176	0.078
Long Island	0.925	0.515	0.205	0.161	0.043
North Andros	0.937	0.560	0.170	0.152	0.054
Ragged Island	0.907	0.483	0.226	0.127	0.072
South Andros	0.948	0.488	0.247	0.146	0.067
All islands	0.913	0.473	0.197	0.164	0.079

Table S3: Henze-Zirkler's test of multivariate normality, performed on global principal components (i.e. fitted on data from all islands together) in each habitat and on each island. The number of outlier points detected based on the Mahalanobis distance is reported.  $HZ$ , test statistic. \*,  $P < 0.05$ ; \*\*,  $P < 0.01$ ; \*\*\*,  $P < 0.001$ .

Island	Habitat	Outliers	$HZ$	$P$
Abaco	coastal	0	1.099	0.0027 **
Abaco	coppice	0	1.074	0.0022 **
Abaco	mangrove	0	1.063	0.0023 **
Bimini	coastal	0	1.281	< 0.0001 ***
Bimini	coppice	0	0.850	0.0482 *
Bimini	mangrove	0	1.191	0.0001 ***
Cayman Brac	coastal	0	0.647	0.5311
Cayman Brac	coppice	0	0.701	0.3940
Cayman Brac	mangrove	0	0.657	0.5357
Eleuthera	coastal	0	1.614	< 0.0001 ***
Eleuthera	coppice	0	1.481	< 0.0001 ***
Eleuthera	mangrove	0	0.729	0.1423
Little Cayman	coastal	0	0.624	0.6599
Little Cayman	coppice	0	0.638	0.4867
Little Cayman	mangrove	0	0.873	0.0413 *
Long Island	coastal	0	0.824	0.1468
Long Island	coppice	0	0.923	0.0150 *
Long Island	mangrove	0	0.773	0.1289
North Andros	coastal	0	0.658	0.3174
North Andros	coppice	0	0.763	0.0900
North Andros	mangrove	0	0.668	0.3185
Ragged Island	coastal	0	0.756	0.2268
Ragged Island	coppice	0	0.797	0.1115
Ragged Island	mangrove	0	0.542	0.9022
South Andros	coastal	0	0.660	0.3451
South Andros	coppice	0	0.659	0.3154
South Andros	mangrove	0	0.911	0.0144 *

Table S4: Shapiro-Wilk's test of univariate normality of the standardized residuals from OLS and GLS-ANOVAs performed on each island where significant differences were detected by random forest classification.  $W$ , test statistic. \*,  $P_{adj} < 0.05$ ; \*\*,  $P_{adj} < 0.01$ ; \*\*\*,  $P_{adj} < 0.001$ .

Island	Variable	$W$	$P$	$P_{adj}$	
Abaco	PC1	0.961	0.0109	0.0497	*
Abaco	PC2	0.960	0.0089	0.0473	*
Abaco	PC3	0.988	0.5938	0.7308	
Abaco	PC4	0.982	0.2709	0.4816	
Bimini	PC1	0.890	0.0000	0.0008	***
Bimini	PC2	0.984	0.5179	0.6906	
Bimini	PC3	0.959	0.0281	0.0997	
Bimini	PC4	0.980	0.3386	0.5418	
Cayman Brac	PC1	0.986	0.8236	0.8785	
Cayman Brac	PC2	0.989	0.9299	0.9299	
Cayman Brac	PC3	0.934	0.0079	0.0473	*
Cayman Brac	PC4	0.981	0.5926	0.7308	
Eleuthera	PC1	0.930	0.0031	0.0330	*
Eleuthera	PC2	0.975	0.3090	0.5204	
Eleuthera	PC3	0.981	0.4989	0.6906	
Eleuthera	PC4	0.970	0.1788	0.4082	
Little Cayman	PC1	0.955	0.0821	0.2539	
Little Cayman	PC2	0.982	0.6854	0.7833	
Little Cayman	PC3	0.891	0.0005	0.0081	**
Little Cayman	PC4	0.977	0.4858	0.6906	
Long Island	PC1	0.937	0.0074	0.0473	*
Long Island	PC2	0.989	0.9039	0.9299	
Long Island	PC3	0.971	0.2170	0.4341	
Long Island	PC4	0.983	0.6261	0.7420	
North Andros	PC1	0.937	0.0952	0.2539	
North Andros	PC2	0.978	0.8075	0.8785	
North Andros	PC3	0.905	0.0147	0.0587	
North Andros	PC4	0.949	0.1913	0.4082	
South Andros	PC1	0.941	0.0879	0.2539	
South Andros	PC2	0.946	0.1199	0.2952	
South Andros	PC3	0.965	0.3950	0.6019	
South Andros	PC4	0.957	0.2480	0.4668	



Table S7: Support vector machine classification results. Legend is as per Table 1.

Island	<i>N</i>	Score	<i>P</i>	
Abaco	86	0.581	< 0.0001	***
Bimini	67	0.555	< 0.0001	***
Cayman Brac	50	0.708	< 0.0001	***
Eleuthera	56	0.443	0.0513	
Little Cayman	45	0.711	< 0.0001	***
Long Island	53	0.664	< 0.0001	***
North Andros	28	0.429	0.1039	
Ragged Island	50	0.424	0.0756	
South Andros	31	0.574	0.0040	**

Table S8: Linear discriminant analysis classification results. Legend is as per Table 1.

Island	<i>N</i>	Score	<i>P</i>	
Abaco	86	0.644	< 0.0001	***
Bimini	67	0.585	< 0.0001	***
Cayman Brac	50	0.780	< 0.0001	***
Eleuthera	56	0.425	0.0871	
Little Cayman	45	0.738	< 0.0001	***
Long Island	53	0.574	0.0001	***
North Andros	28	0.414	0.1911	
Ragged Island	50	0.400	0.1259	
South Andros	31	0.587	0.0013	**