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3 **Stable isotopes and diet uncover trophic-niche divergence and ecological**
4 **diversification processes of endemic reptiles on Socotra Island**

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24 **Abstract:** Ecological diversification on islands typically results in divergence of
25 ecological niches. As diet is a major component of species niches, we hypothesize that
26 sister species within island monophyletic groups diversify in their dietary preferences.
27 We have examined this hypothesis in two *Haemodracon* and four *Hemidactylus* species
28 endemic reptiles of from Socotra Island (Yemen), corresponding to two independent
29 colonization events. Convergence i.e., similar dietary patterns of phylogenetically
30 unrelated species, was also examined. Trophic niches were studied by the analysis of
31 carbon and nitrogen stable isotopes combined with faecal samples. We collected tail tips
32 (for isotopes) and faecal pellets during two visits in 2013 and 2014 to Socotra. Specific
33 trophic niche widths inferred from stable isotopes were estimated from ellipse-based
34 metrics, whereas interspecific differences were compared by linear mixed models and
35 examined in a phylogenetic framework. From faecal samples, diet variation among
36 species was quantified by the Bray-Curtis index. Isotope and dietary interspecific
37 divergence was compared with Mantel tests. For both isotopes, models detected
38 interspecific differences between sister species i.e., trophic niche divergence and also
39 interspecific similarities of distant lineages that use similar microhabitats i.e., ecological
40 convergence. We did not find any phylogenetic signal neither in the interspecific
41 differences in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ nor in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ isotopic values; thus species phylogenetically more
42 closely related did not have more similar isotopic niches. The Mantel test demonstrated
43 similar interspecific divergence using isotopes and faecal samples. In a phylogenetic
44 context, trophic-niche interspecific comparisons highlight some mechanisms that are
45 driving ecological diversification and speciation of Socotra Island.

46

47 **Key words:** ecological diversification, endemism, reptile, Socotra, stable isotopes,
48 trophic niche.

49 **1. Introduction**

50 Islands have long been recognized as natural laboratories to study the patterns of
51 species diversification (Parent and Crespi, 2006; Grant and Grant, 2008; Losos and
52 Ricklefs, 2009; Algar et al., 2013). Colonization of islands represents the opportunity
53 for colonizers to find new resources unconstrained by mainland biota, then facilitating
54 diversification in novel directions (Losos and Ricklefs, 2009). The degree of such a
55 diversification can be mediated by inherent islands characteristics such as geological
56 history, geographic location, size, and isolation time (MacArthur and Wilson, 1967; Del
57 Arco et al., 2006; Fernández-Palacios et al., 2011). The absence of top predators, low
58 species richness and short trophic chains are common rules on islands (MacArthur and
59 Wilson, 1967; Losos and Ricklefs, 2009) that ultimately reduce antagonistic interactions
60 and may facilitate ecological diversification. Ecological diversification and speciation
61 on islands typically results in divergence of ecological niches (Nosil, 2012). Defined as
62 the ways in which organisms obtain resources and interact with the environment, the
63 ecological-niche concept has multiple components being diet and habitat use two major
64 axes (Schoener, 1989). Thus, description of the realized niche (i.e. the subset of
65 fundamental niche where species are restricted due to their interspecific interactions;
66 Soberón and Nakamura, 2009) among phylogenetically related species may illustrate
67 which are the drivers of ecological divergence and increase our understanding of
68 mechanisms that govern intra-island speciation (Diamond, 1986; Losos, 2010).
69 Independent lineages in islands (i.e. those resulted from independent colonization
70 events) can develop similar diversification modes producing consistent patterns of eco-
71 morphological convergence (Losos et al., 1998). This similarity among phylogenetically
72 independent lineages could evidence similar evolutionary processes in response to

73 island environmental factors (Montaña and Winemiller, 2013), for example related to
74 exploitation of a limited set of available food and habitat resources.

75 In this study, we have described and compared the isotopic signature of six
76 reptile species inhabiting Socotra, by the quantification of carbon and nitrogen stable
77 isotope ratios. Stable isotope analysis (SIA) is a widespread tool in studies of diet
78 composition, trophic interactions, habitat use, and migration (Layman et al., 2007; Caut,
79 2013). SIA quantifies the ratio between any given element and its stable isotope.
80 Comparisons can then be made between isotopic ratios in tissues of different organisms
81 to make dietary or trophic level inferences. The most commonly used elements are
82 carbon (C) and nitrogen (N); the carbon isotope ratio ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$) changes minimally through
83 food webs (Rounick and Winterbourn, 1986), whereas the nitrogen isotope ratio ($\delta^{15}\text{N}$)
84 of a consumer enriched by ~3‰ relative to that in the diet (Minagawa and Wada, 1984).
85 Thus, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ shows original carbon source of a consumer' nutrients (e.g. type of habitat),
86 and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ estimates consumer relative trophic position (Post, 2002). SIA provides
87 insights into trophic relationships among organisms, and hence it has been an important
88 advance in food-web ecology dynamics (Layman et al., 2012). However, isotopic ratios
89 can vary according to a number of environmental and physiological factors, notably the
90 C3/C4 photosynthetic pathway of plant species (higher $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values for C4 plants;
91 Rounick and Winterbourn, 1986) and precipitation rates (higher $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values in more
92 arid zones; Kohn, 2010). SIA is an indirect characterization of organisms' diet, and
93 interpretation of isotope data is exposed to potential ambiguity (Layman et al., 2012).
94 Hence, environmental variation of sampling sites and additional data sets particularly
95 diet analysis are necessary to provide answers for questions regarding trophic ecology
96 of organism (Layman and Post, 2008). For this reason, we also examined faecal pellets
97 from a subsample of reptiles used in the isotope study. Isotope and diet studies in

98 parallel are adequate tools to examine dietary niche segregation (e. g. in cichlid fishes;
99 Genner et al., 1999; Hata et al., 2015) and convergence (cichlids and centrarchids;
100 Montaña and Winemiller, 2013).

101 This study was conducted in Socotra Island, the main island of an archipelago of
102 continental origin located in the northern part of the Indian Ocean and isolated from
103 Arabia in the Red Sea and Gulf of Aden around 30-17 Mya (Autin et al., 2013). The
104 island show an elevational / climatic gradient (arid in lowlands and more humid in
105 mountains), and two main lithologies, namely granitic and limestone (Fig. 1). Almost
106 all reptile species in Socotra are endemic (29 out 31; Razzetti et al., 2011; Sindaco et al.,
107 2012; Vasconcelos and Carranza, 2014), with phylogenetic studies demonstrating a
108 number of independent colonizers from the mainland that diversified on the island,
109 which then over time led to the current endemic species (Gómez-Díaz et al., 2012;
110 Badiane et al., 2014). Because of their low metabolic rate and resistance to dryness and,
111 in some groups, to salinity (e.g. geckos), reptiles are the second most capable vertebrate
112 group of colonizing islands after birds (Carranza et al. 2000). For this reason, they
113 represent a good model group to understand evolutionary patterns and processes of
114 island colonization and diversification (Losos and Ricklefs, 2009; Camargo et al.,
115 2010). The six gecko species studied, two species of the genus *Haemodracon* Bauer et
116 al., 1997 and four species of the genus *Hemidactylus* Oken, 1817, conform two
117 monophyletic lineages based on independent colonization events and further intra-island
118 diversification (Gómez-Díaz et al., 2012; Simó, 2012). *Haemodracon* is an endemic
119 Socotran genus and only these two species have been described. In contrast,
120 *Hemidactylus* is a widespread genus on the world with seven species occurring in the
121 island; from these species, only four were selected for this study according to their
122 phylogenetic relatedness within a single colonizer event (Gómez-Díaz et al., 2012).

123 Within an historical context, the description of their trophic niches is expected to
124 contribute to understand how the reptile ecological diversification occurred in Socotra.
125 Specifically we tested the hypothesis that there was trophic diversification between
126 phylogenetically related species, and eventual convergence between phylogenetically
127 unrelated ones.

128 To attain this general aim, the specific objectives and questions were: (i) to
129 describe the carbon and nitrogen isotopic ratios of two *Haemodracon* and four
130 *Hemidactylus* endemic geckos from Socotra Island; (ii) to examine whether isotopic
131 signatures are related to habitat selection (expectation of lower $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ ratios in vegetation
132 habitats for the foreseeable presence of more herbivorous arthropods which would be in
133 lower trophic levels; Layman et al., 2012), elevation (expectation of lower $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values
134 at higher wetter altitudes; Kohn, 2010), and soil lithology (expectation of higher $\delta^{13}\text{C}$
135 values in limestone than igneous ground due to the rich carbon composition and sea
136 origin; Jardine et al., 1989), as sources of isotopic variation; (iii) within a phylogenetic
137 comparative framework, to examine the phylogenetic signal of the trophic niche
138 diversification within the six species studied; and (iv) to compare whether isotope and
139 dietary interspecific differences are related.

140

141 **Material and methods**

142 *2.1. Study area*

143 The Socotra Archipelago is located in the northern part of the Indian Ocean, 230
144 km NE of the Horn of Africa and 350 km south of Ras Fartak, on the Arabian coast
145 (Fig. 1). It has a total area of 3,625 km², and it is composed of a large main island,
146 Socotra, and three islets, Samha, Dharsa, and Abd al Kuri. This archipelago is a
147 fragment of the Gondwana Supercontinent, isolated in the Indian Ocean around 17-30

148 Mya (Autin et al., 2013). In 2008, Socotra was recognized as a World Natural Heritage
149 site by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO,
150 2014), because of its singularity and endemism rate of flora and fauna. For example,
151 there are about 825 species of vascular plants, 307 of which are regarded as endemic
152 (Miller and Morris, 2004). Similarly, there is a high level of endemism of fauna (Van
153 Damme, 2009; Batelka, 2012). The lithology of Socotra Island consists of igneous
154 stones basically located on the Haggar Mountains, and limestones occupying the rest of
155 the island (Scholte and De Geest, 2010). Overall, the climate corresponds to the
156 boundaries of the monsoonal precipitation regime with mean annual rainfall being 216
157 mm (Scholte and De Geest, 2010) and mean annual temperatures ranging between
158 17.9°C and 28°C (Batelka, 2012). However, there is climatic variation along the
159 altitudinal gradient with arid climate up to 1000 m elevation and semi-arid conditions
160 due to the presence of fog and mist brought by sea winds from 1000 m to the top
161 Haggar Mountains at 1500 m. Accordingly, Socotra has a remarkably diverse vegetation
162 cover, with 19 land-cover classes (Král and Pavlis, 2006) and homogeneous land units
163 (Attorre et al., 2014), arranged on a geo-altitudinal gradient (De Sanctis et al., 2013). In
164 summary, De Sanctis et al. (2013) identified four main vegetation zones each of them
165 including several types of woody, shrub and herbaceous vegetation types: 1) between 0
166 and 200 m altitude, an arid coastal plain on alluvial substrata with shrubland and
167 grassland communities; 2) between 200 and 400 m, a transition zone; 3) between 400
168 and 1000 m, an arid limestone zone interspersed with hills and plateaus; and 4) between
169 1000 and 1500 m, a semi-arid upper zone of the Haggar mountains on a granitic
170 substratum.

171

172 *2.2. The reptile community and species sampling*

173 There are 31 reptile species, 29 of those endemic to the archipelago (Razzetti et
174 al., 2011; Sindaco et al., 2012; Vasconcelos and Carranza, 2014). Phylogenetic studies
175 have fixed the historical relatedness of Socotran to Arabian and Malagasian reptiles
176 (Schätti and Utiger, 2001; Nagy et al., 2003; Sindaco et al., 2012; Gómez-Díaz et al.,
177 2012; Badiane et al., 2014). Recent phylogenetic studies suggested old colonization
178 events from mainland and further intra-island speciation (Gómez-Díaz et al., 2012;
179 Badiane et al., 2014).

180 Stable isotopes and diet were described in two groups of phylogenetically related
181 endemic species, all of them with nocturnal activity. The first group is composed of two
182 species of the endemic Socotran gecko genus *Haemodracon* (*H. riebeckii* [Peters,
183 1882]; and *H. trachyrhinus* [Boulenger, 1899]; Supplementary Materials S1) which
184 diversified on the island (Simó, 2012). The second group is composed by four gecko
185 species of the globally distributed genus *Hemidactylus* (*H. dracaenacolus* Rösler and
186 Wranik, 1999; *H. granti* Boulenger, 1899; *H. inintellectus* Sindaco et al., 2009; and *H.*
187 *pumilio* Boulenger, 1903; Supplementary Materials S1). These *Hemidactylus* species
188 form a monophyletic lineage resulting from intra-island speciation with a common
189 ancestor that originated by vicariance from Arabian mainland taxa ca. 14 Mya (Gómez-
190 Díaz et al., 2012). Other independent *Hemidactylus* transmarine colonization events
191 arrived more recently to Socotra (e.g. *H. oxyrhinus* Boulenger, 1899; *H. forbesii*
192 Boulenger, 1899; and *H. homoeolepis* Blanford, 1881; Vasconcelos and Carranza,
193 2014); the lack of samples and their independent origin were the reason to exclude these
194 species from analyses.

195 Field sampling was conducted between March and April in 2013 and 2014. Two
196 to four researchers systematically visited 34 sites throughout the island (Fig. 1). Sites
197 were chosen randomly in order to cover an altitudinal gradient, different habitat types,

198 and the two main lithologies of the island. Reptiles were collected by hand or noosing,
199 and tail tips of 87 specimens of the six focal species were collected for isotopic
200 analyses. Each reptile specimen was identified to species level, sexed and measured
201 (SVL, snout-vent length, accuracy= 0.5 mm). These specimens were gently palpated in
202 the abdomen, and pellets were collected from 59 of them. Major microhabitat type (i. e.
203 cliff, ground and vegetation) and geographic coordinates of each individual were
204 registered for further analyses. Cliff was assigned to geckos found on vertical positions
205 of big rocks and stony walls, and ground to specimens found on the ground or under
206 stones. Vegetation was assigned to geckos found on tree trunk or branches tree and
207 shrub. We acknowledge that this is a broad microhabitat classification; however in
208 Socotra there is relatively little microhabitat specialization among lizards compared to
209 that found in the tropics. Given the more generalist nature of the lizards in Socotra,
210 these broader categories seemed more useful when trying to detect different nitrogen
211 ratios for geckos found on vegetation due to the particular consumption of herbivorous
212 prey. Tail tips and pellets were transported to the laboratory for further analyses at the
213 Department of Animal Biology of the Universitat de Barcelona. All specimens were
214 released to the exact place of capture.

215

216 *2.3. Laboratory procedures*

217 Tail tips were used for the analysis of carbon and nitrogen stable isotopes
218 (hereafter $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$). Since the carbon isotope ratio $^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$ (expressed in standard
219 delta notation as $\delta^{13}\text{C}$) changes minimally (circa 1‰) as carbon moves through food
220 webs (Rounick and Winterbourn, 1986), it is commonly used to identify the source of
221 carbon in the tested individuals and ultimately at the base of the food web. In contrast,
222 the nitrogen isotope ratio $^{15}\text{N}/^{14}\text{N}$ ($\delta^{15}\text{N}$) in consumer's tissues is typically considered to

223 be enriched by circa 3‰ relative to that in the diet (Minagawa and Wada, 1984). It is
224 thus commonly used to estimate trophic position along food chains with increase
225 between 2 - 6‰ per trophic level (Caut, 2013). Thus, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ can be used to track the
226 original sources of consumer nutrients, and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ can be used to estimate a consumer
227 relative trophic position, i.e. higher $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ indicates higher trophic position (Post, 2002).
228 The data have not been corrected for diet-tissue discrimination since all the samples
229 were from the same tissues (tail tip). We acknowledge that it can be intra- specific
230 (size/age-related) differences in the discrimination factor within a single tissue (Steinitz
231 et al., 2015). To minimize such issues, we excluded any lizards with regrown tails from
232 the study.

233 In the laboratory, tail tips were cleaned, dried and cut to very small pieces.
234 Subsamples were weighed to the nearest μg (0.25-0.5 μg) and placed into tin capsules
235 for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ analyses. Analyses were carried out at the Serveis Científic-Tècnics
236 (Universitat de Barcelona, Spain) by means of a Thermo-Finnigan Flash 1112 (CE
237 Elantech, Lakewood, NJ, USA) elemental analyzer coupled to a Delta-C isotope ratio
238 mass spectrometer via a CONFLOIII interface (Thermo Finnigan MAT, Bremen,
239 Germany). Stable isotope ratios were expressed in conventional notation as parts per
240 thousand (‰), using: $\delta X = ((R_{\text{sample}}/R_{\text{standard}}) - 1) * 1000$, where X is ^{15}N , ^{13}C and
241 R is the corresponding ratio $^{15}\text{N}:^{14}\text{N}$, $^{13}\text{C}:^{12}\text{C}$. Reference materials from the International
242 Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA CH6, IAEA CH7 and USGS 24 for C, and IAEA N1,
243 IAEA N2 and IAEA NO3 for N) were inserted every 12 samples to calibrate the system
244 and compensate for any drift over time. $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values are expressed relative to
245 atmospheric nitrogen (VAIR) and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values are expressed relative to Pee Dee
246 Belemnite (VPDB). Replicate assays of standards indicated analytical measurement
247 errors of $\pm 0.1\%$ and $\pm 0.2\%$ for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$, respectively. For animals, there is a

248 strong effect of lipid content on $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, resulting in lipid-rich tissues showing lower
249 carbon isotope ratios (Post et al., 2007). These authors suggest that C:N ratios higher
250 than 4 for terrestrial animals indicate high lipid content on the tissues analysed; in these
251 cases, lipid extraction would have little influence on the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values. In the Socotran
252 geckos examined, C:N ratios were similar among species and never exceeded 3.5 (Table
253 1), indicating low lipid content of tail tip samples.

254 In order to find the maximum differences between the six gecko species and to
255 correlate them with differences in isotopic signatures among species, diet remains from
256 pellets were photographed with an Olympus SZX10 stereoscope and identified at least
257 to the Order level. The examination of Coleopteran elytra allowed these items to be
258 identified at Family level. Some Hymenoptera items were classified to Family level by
259 distinguishing between ants (Fam. Formicidae) and other Hymenoptera. Unfortunately,
260 other arthropods could not be identified to a lower taxonomic level due to the
261 exoskeleton fragmentation. The maximum lengths of Coleopteran elytra were measured
262 with the program cellSens Standard 1.6. (2011). Samples were deposited in scientific
263 collections at the Universitat de Barcelona (UB) and the Natural Science Museum of
264 Barcelona (MCNB).

265

266 *2.4. Data analysis for isotopes*

267 The trophic niche width of each species was assessed by calculating several metrics
268 (Layman et al., 2007): the convex hull area (TA) occupied by all individuals of each
269 group in the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ - $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ biplot, and the mean distance to the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ centroid
270 (CD). The latter is the average Euclidean distance of each sample to the ellipse centroid,
271 and provides a measure of the average degree of trophic diversity within a particular
272 species. The application of these metrics can be biased according to sampling size and

273 the existence of extreme values; for this reason, Jackson et al. (2011) proposed the
274 calculation of the standard ellipse areas (SEA) with a correction for small sample sizes
275 (SEAc). This method applies a Bayesian approach that takes into account uncertainty of
276 the data, and allows at comparing isotopic community metrics between groups (Jackson
277 et al., 2011). For each species, the ellipse centroid is the mean $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values
278 among the samples. Euclidean distances between ellipse centroids for the six species
279 studied (i.e. difference in centroid location) were assessed following Turner et al.
280 (2010). Two centroids occupied different locations (i.e. different trophic niches) if the
281 Euclidean distance between them is significantly greater than zero. We also calculated
282 the eccentricity (E; Turner et al., 2010) that gives insights into differences of the
283 distribution of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values within a particular species (i.e. a measure of the
284 covariation between both isotopes); thus, $E = 0$ means a circular ellipse and $E = 1$
285 describes a perfect relationship between both isotope values. Interspecific comparisons
286 of these metrics were based on analysis of nested linear models and residual
287 permutation procedures (RPP) implemented by Turner et al. (2010). SEAs were
288 calculated following Jackson et al. (2011) implemented in the R package SIBER
289 (Parnell and Jackson, 2013).

290 Sampling individuals at different locations can mask the identification of intra-
291 population niche variation (Araújo et al., 2007), and may inflate variation in isotope
292 values when sources vary spatially (Layman et al., 2012). Our aim was to examine
293 variation in isotopic signatures of six reptile species within a phylogenetic comparative
294 framework. Accordingly, knowledge of organisms' natural history can aid in the
295 interpretation of isotope data (Layman et al., 2012). Moreover, several sources of
296 isotope variation, i. e. lithology, altitude, microhabitat, and locality of capture, were
297 considered on statistical analyses. For example, species can segregate spatially by the

298 soil lithology since the island is mainly composed by two main soil lithologies, namely
299 limestone of marine origin and igneous rocks (Scholte and De Geest, 2010). Isotope
300 values (especially $\delta^{13}\text{C}$) can be very sensitive to differences between terrains of marine
301 and terrestrial origin (Harding and Reynolds, 2014). Altitude and microhabitat where
302 animals were collected was considered since some of the species considered segregate
303 spatially according to these factors (Razzetti et al., 2011).

304 Plant photosynthetic pathways, i.e. C3 and C4 plants, are also source of carbon
305 and nitrogen isotope variation (e.g. C4 species have enriched carbon isotope ratios
306 relative to C3 species; Rounick and Winterbourn, 1986). How C3 / C4 plants are
307 distributed along the geo-altitudinal gradient in Socotra could contribute to better
308 understand the causes of isotope variation in the six reptile species studied.

309 Unfortunately, C3 / C4 plant distribution in Socotra is unknown; likewise, the
310 proportion in which arthropods (the main geckos' prey) are feeding on plants with
311 different isotopic ratio is also unknown. This makes very difficult the predictability of
312 isotopic variation with altitude. In contrast, there is general evidence that $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values
313 increase at smaller precipitation rates within C3 and C4 plants (Weiguo et al., 2005;
314 Kohn, 2010). Accordingly, the potential isotopic variation in lizards placed at different
315 altitudes can be explained by the climatic and altitudinal gradient observed in Socotra.

316 A complete barcoding analysis of reptile species from Socotra recently
317 demonstrated high levels of cryptic diversity (Vasconcelos et al., 2016). Although we
318 do not know potential ecological or morphological differences between cryptic species,
319 for those species involved in our study, we only used specimens from the more
320 widespread clade.

321 Differences in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values among the six species studied were
322 examined by fitting Linear Mixed Models (LMMs) with the package nlme (Pinheiro et

323 al., 2014). LMMs were conducted separately for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ as both values refers to
324 different trophic and habitat information. As potential fixed effects we included taxa,
325 altitude, soil lithology and microhabitat. Altitude of localities was included as a
326 continuous variable in the models as a potential covariable. The factor lithology was
327 included as a predictor variable with two levels: limestone and igneous. Microhabitat
328 where each reptile was collected was also considered as a categorical predictor with
329 three main types namely cliff, vegetation and ground, given that it could influence
330 isotopic signatures of specimens (Clementz and Koch, 2001). Locality was always
331 included as a random effect in order to account for lack of independence of isotopic
332 signatures of reptiles collected in the same localities. Sex were excluded as a factor
333 from the analysis as a preliminary MANOVA test demonstrated no sexual differences
334 within the six species studied ($F_{2,69} = 2.3$, $P = 0.06$).

335 In a first step, we fitted a full LMM with all taxa and all potential predictors
336 using maximum likelihood (ML) to subsequently evaluate each fixed effect using
337 likelihood ratio tests (LRTs). Therefore, we dropped from the model only the predictor
338 of interest in each case, obtaining AIC values for the full and simplified models, plus a
339 LRT and a p-value of the simplified model tested against the full model in each case. In
340 a second step, we examined particular effects and their interactions (e. g. the effect of
341 microhabitat on isotope ratios among species located on limestone sites). To conduct
342 these analyses, some species were removed (e. g. *H. pumilio* as it is only present in
343 ground microhabitats and *H. granti* only found in igneous lithologies) before refitting
344 and testing the terms of the model using the same procedures. In all cases we did
345 residual analysis of the models to discard geographic or non-random patterns in the
346 residuals, that is, patterns in the data that would not be explained by the models.

347 Snout-vent length (SVL) is a potentially interesting variable to be included in
348 LMM analyses since many reptile species show ontogenetic dietary shift, and this can
349 be reflected in variation of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ signatures according to body size. A recent
350 study has demonstrated that for *Hemidactylus* and *Haemodracon* species from Socotra,
351 intra-island diversification resulted in great differences in body size (García-Porta et al.,
352 2016). Within the samples used in our study, the biggest individuals of some species
353 were smaller than the smallest individuals of others (Table 1). In parallel to this
354 morphological differentiation, the studied species experienced habitat segregation
355 (Supplementary Materials S2). For example, within the six species studied, the soil
356 specialists *H. pumilio* were the smallest species, vegetation species had intermediate
357 size, and a cliff species were the largest ones (*H. riebecki*). In order to avoid a collinear
358 effect between SVL and the habitat where species inhabit, we did not consider lizards
359 SVL in the LMM analyses. Analyses of isotopic data were done using R software (R
360 Core Team, 2014).

361

362 2.5. A comparative analysis of intraspecific isotopic differences

363 We examined the phylogenetic signal of the isotopic differences between the six
364 species studied. To conduct this analysis we first inferred an ultrametric tree using
365 Bayesian Inference with the software BEAST v.1.8.0 (Drummond and Rambaut, 2007)
366 (Fig. 2). The dataset included 371 base pairs of the 12S rRNA mitochondrial gene for
367 one representative of each one of the six species of geckos included in this study. Three
368 individual runs of 5×10^7 generations were carried out, sampling at intervals of 10000
369 generations. Models and prior specifications applied were as follows (otherwise by
370 default): model of sequence evolution for the 12S gene GTR+G (inferred with
371 jModeltest v.0.1.1; Guindon and Gascuel, 2003; Darriba et al., 2012); Yule process tree

372 prior; random starting tree; base substitution prior Uniform (0,100); alpha prior Uniform
373 (0,10). Posterior trace plots and effective sample sizes (ESS) of the runs were monitored
374 in Tracer v1.5 (Rambaut and Drummond, 2007) to ensure convergence. The results of
375 the individual runs were combined in LogCombiner discarding 10% of the samples and
376 the maximum clade credibility (MCC) ultrametric tree was produced with
377 TreeAnnotator (both provided with the BEAST package). The ultrametric tree was
378 loaded into R (R core team, 2015) using the functions from the package ape (Paradis et
379 al., 2004). Since the tests for phylogenetic signal are poor with a small number of
380 species, we tested for phylogenetic signal using two different indices. We estimated and
381 tested the significance of Pagel's λ (Pagel, 1999) and Blomberg's K (Blomberg et al.,
382 2003) indices using *phylosig* from the *phytools* package (Revell, 2012), which
383 incorporates individual variation (following Ives et al., 2007). We used the implemented
384 randomization tests (5000 iterations) to determine the significance level of both indices.
385

386 2.6. Comparisons of diet, stable isotopes and genetic distances of gecko species

387 From the abundance matrix of the taxonomic prey groups identified in the 59
388 pellets analyzed, dietary similarities between pairs of individuals were calculated with
389 the Bray-Curtis similarity index. An ANOSIM analysis was further performed based on
390 the Bray-Curtis similarity scores, using 999 random permutations. This test compares
391 how similar diets are among species, by giving a general R-value and further pairwise
392 comparisons between species. A Cluster Analyses was performed to visualize which
393 species have more similar diets.

394 To evaluate the completeness of the sampling, diversity accumulation curves
395 were calculated for the six species studied. Curves were computed with EstimateS
396 (Colwell, 2013), in order to eliminate the effect of the order in which the data is

397 included in the analysis (Moreno and Halffter, 2000). Diversity accumulation was
398 calculated by the Chao1 metric (Chao, 1984) which estimates taxa richness identified
399 from pellet analysis. Correlation between predator (reptiles) size (snout-vent length,
400 SVL) and prey sizes (maximum length of coleopteran elytra) was inferred from 33
401 elytra measured in the laboratory from pellets of four species: *H. riebeckii* (n = 4), *H.*
402 *dracaenacolus* (n = 13), *H. granti* (n = 3) and *H. inintellectus* (n = 13). We used
403 maximum length of coleopteran elytra as surrogate of coleopteran body length. Based
404 on data from elytra and body size measured from species of the same Families found in
405 pellets, the relative elytra length (and range) averaged 63.58% of the coleopteran size
406 (range 58,41% - 69,36%; A. Viñolas, unpublished data). We used coleopteran elytra as
407 this is the commonest prey type among the six geckos examined (see Results). Due to
408 the low sample size of some species, we pooled all the data in a single correlation in
409 order to get exclusively a general trend of the predator-size vs prey-size relationship.

410 Diet description is based on the pellets collected from specimens used for SIA.
411 We acknowledge that this subsample is not enough to describe the diet of the six target
412 species, but it is a useful approach to independently corroborate the reliability of
413 intraspecific differences in isotopes. The correlation between diet and stable isotope
414 values of the six gecko species analyzed was performed by Partial Mantel tests using
415 the genetic distance between species as a covariate. To run Mantel test, first similarity
416 matrices between pairs of species in stable isotopes (ISOT), diet (DIET), and genetic
417 distance (GENET) were performed. ISOT was calculated from the individual $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and
418 $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values of geckos using Euclidean Distances between pairs of species. DIET was
419 calculated from the matrix of relative abundances of prey types consumed by gecko
420 species using the Bray-Curtis index. Finally, GENET was calculated as the evolutionary
421 divergence over 37 published sequence pairs of the 12S mitochondrial gene among the

422 six studied species (Gómez-Díaz et al., 2012; Simó, 2012), and represented the average
423 number of base differences per site among species. There were a total of 376 base pairs
424 in the final dataset. This analysis was conducted in MEGA5 (Tamura et al., 2011). The
425 Partial Mantel test correlation of ISOT and DIET was performed with Passage 2
426 (Rosenberg and Anderson, 2011). To take into account the phylogenetic relations
427 among species, DIET and ISOT matrices were compared keeping GENET matrix
428 constant.

429

430 **2. Results**

431 *3.1. SVL and microhabitat of the target species*

432 Based on our own data set, the six species varied greatly in body size (see body-
433 size range in Table 1): *H. pumilio* and *H. trachyrhinus* were the smallest species,
434 individuals of *H. inintellectus*, *H. dracaenacolus*, and *H. granti* had intermediate sizes,
435 and *H. riebeckii* was the largest species (Supplementary Materials S2). In terms of
436 habitat preference, *H. pumilio* was a ground-dwelling specialist, *H. trachyrhinus* and *H.*
437 *dracaenacolus* were mostly or exclusively found on vegetation (i. e. *Cissus* bushes,
438 *Dracaena cinnabari* Balf. f. trees; respectively), and the rest of species largely occupied
439 vegetation or cliff habitats (Supplementary Materials S3). The six species also differed
440 in terms of altitudinal range (Supplementary Materials S4): *H. dracaenacolus* and
441 especially *H. granti* were highland species whereas the rest of species occur on
442 medium-high to lowlands (Razzetti et al., 2011).

443

444 *3.2. Stable isotope differences*

445 SEAc varied among the six species studied, being *H. trachyrhinus* and *H.*
446 *pumilio* the species with the largest and *H. dracaenacolus* and *H. granti* the smallest

447 areas (Table 2; Fig. 3). *Hemidactylus granti* showed the most different SEAc with no
448 overlap with the rest of species. *Haemodracon trachyrhinus* and *H. pumilio* partially
449 diverged with respect to *H. riebeckii*, *H. dracaenacolus* and *H. inintellectus* that almost
450 completely overlapped (Fig. 3). The distance between ellipse centroids was significantly
451 different of 0 for *H. granti* and *H. pumilio* with respect to the rest of species
452 (Supplementary Materials S5).

453 We also found interspecific differences in MDC and E. Thus, *H. trachyrhinus*
454 and *H. pumilio* had significantly higher MDC values than the rest of species ($p < 0.05$ in
455 all the comparisons), suggesting larger ellipses (Fig. 3). *Haemodracon riebeckii* differed
456 in E respect to *H. trachyrhinus*, *H. granti* and *H. dracaenacolus*, and *H. granti* and *H.*
457 *inintellectus* also differed ($P < 0.05$ in all the comparisons).

458 Likelihood ratio tests on LMMs showed that the only significant factor
459 explaining differences for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ was Lithology (LRT = 18.96, $P < 0.0001$), whereas
460 Taxa, Habitat and Elevation were not significant ($P > 0.4$; Supplementary Materials S6).
461 Reptile samples collected on limestone had higher $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values than those collected on
462 igneous localities. On a second step, we repeated LMMs for sites located in limestone
463 (*H. granti* excluded) and igneous soil (*H. riebeckii* and *H. dracaenacolus* excluded)
464 separately. In these new LMMs, we found interspecific differences both in limestone
465 (LRT = 11.53, $P = 0.02$) and igneous localities (LRT = 9.78, $P = 0.02$; Table 1). On
466 limestone localities, differences among taxa were motivated by high *H. trachyrhinus*
467 and *H. pumilio* $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values (Fig. 4a), whereas on igneous localities by low *H. granti*
468 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values (Fig. 4a).

469 The LMM for $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ showed that microhabitat and elevation were influential
470 factors (LRT = 5.56, $P = 0.06$; LRT = 4.45, $P = 0.03$ respectively), whereas taxa and
471 lithology were not significant ($P > 0.1$; Supplementary Materials S6). Thus, we repeated

472 the LMMs excluding lithology and removing *H. granti*, because it was a species with
473 clear altitudinal segregation from the rest (Supplementary Materials S4), and *H.*
474 *pumilio*, because it was a species almost exclusively found on ground microhabitat
475 (Supplementary Materials S3). In this model, microhabitat maintained a significant
476 effect (Table 1, LRT = 5.66, $P = 0.02$) whereas elevation and taxa did not ($P > 0.4$).
477 Finally, in the LMM conducted with *H. inintellectus* and *H. riebeckii*, the only geckos
478 that were consistently found in two different microhabitats (cliff and vegetation), the
479 only significant effect was Habitat (LRT = 4.38, $P = 0.04$); whereas Taxa, Elevation and
480 the interaction Habitat x Taxa were not significant ($P > 0.2$). For both species,
481 individuals collected on cliff had higher $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values than those collected on vegetation
482 (Fig. 4b).

483 We did not find any phylogenetic signal either in the interspecific differences in
484 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ isotopic values ($K = 0.256$, $p = 0.8$; $\lambda = 0$, $P = 1.0$) or in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ isotopic values ($K =$
485 0.191 , $P = 0.8$; $\lambda = 0$, $P = 1.0$). In other words, phylogenetically closer species did not
486 have more similar isotopic niches.

487

488 3.3. Diet description and isotope-diet correlation

489 In total, 160 prey from 10 different arthropod orders were found as prey in gecko
490 pellets: Araneae, Pseudoscorpionida, Chilopoda, Hymenoptera, Heteroptera, Orthoptera,
491 Neuroptera, Homoptera, Blattodea and Coleoptera. The order Coleoptera was the
492 commonest group found in pellets (71 prey, 44.4%), and was represented by seven
493 families (Table 3). *Haemodracon riebeckii*, *H. dracaenacolus* and *H. inintellectus* were
494 the species with a greatest number of orders represented in their pellets (seven Orders
495 found in the diet within each these three species), while *H. granti* showed the lowest
496 number of groups in its diet (Table 3). *Hemidactylus granti* had the most different diet

497 since it was the only species that foraged on Cleridae and Histeridae beetles, and did not
498 present Araneae and Chilopoda on its diet (Table 3).

499 Accumulative curves of diversity for the six species studied showed different
500 shapes (Supplementary Materials S7). For some species, the number of pellets was too
501 low to account for a complete diet (e.g. *H. trachyrhinus*, *H. granti* and *H. pumilio*).
502 Accordingly, more samples would be required to have a complete view of the diet of
503 these geckos. Those species with a bigger sample size, *H. dracaenacolus* and *H.*
504 *riebeckii* showed low prey diversity; the asymptotic shape of the curve for these two
505 species suggested that the sample size was enough to describe their diet. In contrast, *H.*
506 *inintellectus* showed the highest diversity in the diet, although the shape of the curve
507 suggested that more pellets were needed to know the complete prey spectrum of this
508 species (Supplementary Materials S7).

509 The ANOSIM indicated significant interspecific differences in diet ($r = 0.081$, P
510 $= 0.02$). Pairwise comparisons indicated that pairs with the highest differences were: *H.*
511 *trachyrhinus* - *H. pumilio* ($r = 0.333$, $P = 0.04$), *H. riebeckii* - *H. granti* ($r = 0.322$, $P =$
512 0.003), *H. trachyrhinus* - *H. granti* ($r = 0.550$, $P = 0.008$) and *H. granti* - *H.*
513 *dracaenacolus* ($r = 0.268$, $P = 0.001$). The cluster tree showed four groups of species
514 according to their diet (Fig. 5): (1) *H. granti*, (2) *H. pumilio*, (3) *H. trachyrhinus* and
515 finally (4) a group composed by the three biggest reptiles that commonly used vertical
516 environments (*H. riebeckii*, *H. dracaenacolus* and *H. inintellectus*).

517 The size of elytra ranged between 1-7 mm. As expected, smaller reptile
518 individuals foraged on smaller beetles, whereas the largest individuals foraged generally
519 on bigger prey. The correlation between predator size and prey size was significant (all
520 predators and prey pooled; $r = 0.414$, $P < 0.0001$). The individual that consumed the
521 largest prey was not *H. riebeckii* but *H. dracaenacolus*. Large individuals also

522 consumed small prey, this fact meaning that there was some potential competition
523 between species for small prey items.

524 The Partial Mantel test showed a correlation between DIET and ISOT matrices
525 with GENET matrix keeping constant ($R = 0.49$, $P = 0.07$, 999 permutations). This
526 means that the isotopic differences among species most probably reflected variation of
527 diet among the six gecko species examined in Socotra.

528

529 **3. Discussion**

530 *4.1. Intraspecific variation in isotope ratios and diets*

531 This study describes for the first time the trophic niche of six endemic lizard
532 species from Socotra using in tandem stable isotope and pellet analyses. The analysis of
533 carbon and nitrogen stable isotopes described a scenario of contrasted trophic niches for
534 some species and considerable overlap for others. The contrast is motivated by the soil
535 lithology of sampling localities ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values) but also by the microhabitat where
536 samples were collected ($\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values). When the lithology factor was controlled, some
537 species also diverged in their $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values suggesting that isotope analyses may
538 contribute to identify interspecific trophic niche variation for Socotran reptiles.

539 We acknowledge that the isotopic signature of the six reptiles alone may not be
540 sufficient to infer their trophic position and carbon source without an appropriate
541 isotopic baseline, i. e. the isotopic signature of the food resources (Post, 2002).
542 Moreover, the time scale information for tail tip isotopes (the entire life of a gecko for
543 an original tail) versus faecal pellets (the last few days of an individual's diet) is
544 different. Despite these limitations, pellet analyses showed that the six species studied
545 were exclusively anthropophagous. And more importantly, the Mantel test demonstrated
546 that diet similarities between pairs of species were correlated to isotope similarities; this

547 last result showed parallelism between isotopes and diet despite the time scale
548 differences between both methods. The number of pellets used in this study was
549 unfortunately small in some species (e. g. *H. pumilio*), and diversity accumulation
550 curves suggest that more samples would be needed to know the complete dietary
551 spectrum of the six analyzed species. The diet description was not the objective of this
552 study since examination of pellets has a potential bias of information on reptile dietary
553 studies (Francesco et al., 1997; Pérez-Mellado et al., 2011). However, the pellets
554 examined were enough to identify some dietary differences that in turn were correlated
555 with the isotopic signatures. *Hemidactylus pumilio* and *H. granti* had the most different
556 diets probably related to the contrasted microhabitats (*H. pumilio* is the only typical
557 ground-dwelling species), and altitudinal range (*H. granti* is typically a highland
558 species) occupied by these species. The combination of pellet and stable-isotope
559 analyses showed differences in trophic niche position among the six Socotran geckos
560 studied.

561 Why *H. granti* showed the most divergent isotopic values? After controlling for
562 lithology, the most likely explanation is that this species only occupies Socotran
563 highlands. According to Schmiedl and Mackensen (2006), $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ can vary depending on
564 the microhabitat occupied by the prey consumed by predators following environmental
565 aridity gradients. This seems observed both in C₃ and C₄ plants (Weiguo et al., 2005;
566 Kohn, 2010). Moreover, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ratio is higher in arid environments where C₄ plants
567 (higher $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values; O'Leary, 1988; Farquhar et al., 1989) are more abundant as they are
568 more adapted to dry conditions than C₃ plants (lower $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values). Although Socotra
569 shows variation in vegetation types according to a geo-altitudinal gradient (De Sanctis
570 et al., 2013), the distribution of C₄/C₃ plants and also which plant resources are
571 consumed by gecko's prey are unknown. However, lower $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ratios for plants living in

572 more humid environments seem a general trend (Kohn, 2010), and moving up to the
573 food web, reptiles that live in more humid habitats are expected to have a lower $\delta^{13}\text{C}$
574 ratio. Taking into account the marked precipitation (rainfall and mist) increase in
575 Socotra with altitude (Batelka, 2012), the lowest $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values for *H. granti* matched the
576 distribution of this gecko at the highest (and more humid) sites of Socotra.

577 Interestingly, we found a significant effect of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ according to the
578 microhabitats where species were primarily found. These differences accounted for
579 reptiles on cliffs and vegetation (higher values on reptiles collected on cliffs), and this
580 pattern persisted at the intraspecific level (e.g. between *H. riebeckii* and *H. inintellectus*
581 individuals collected on these microhabitats). We acknowledge that plant resources
582 could have disparate nitrogen tissue ratios, which then propagate up the food chain from
583 herbivorous arthropods to geckos. Although we now have information on arthropods
584 found in the diet of the gecko species from this study, we lack information of the plant
585 species fed upon by these various arthropods. $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values consistently differ between
586 trophic levels (Minagawa and Wada, 1984). For this reason, differences at a
587 microhabitat level observed within our study species could indicate consumption of
588 prey types from different trophic position, perhaps related to prey type availability at
589 each microhabitat (e.g. more predatory arthropods in cliffs and more herbivorous
590 arthropods in vegetation). Indeed, our results would indicate that $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values are
591 sensitive enough to detect interspecific differences in microhabitat use among Socotran
592 geckos.

593 Interspecific differences in microhabitat use and altitudinal segregation has
594 promoted several *Haemodracon* and *Hemidactylus* species to present different isotopic
595 niches. This argument is valid for *H. granti* (altitudinal segregation), *H. pumilio*
596 (ground-dwelling specialist) and *H. trachyrhinus* (small size and vegetation specialist).

597 The other three species, *H. dracaenacolus*, *H. inintellectus* and *H. riebeckii* have more
598 similar trophic niches. However, the examination of ellipse metrics gives new insights:
599 *H. dracaenacolus* has the smallest ellipse area (surrogate of trophic niche width) that
600 matches its ecological specialization. This gecko is listed as Critically Endangered
601 (IUCN, 2015) as only occurs on a reduced part of the island and lives exclusively on
602 *Dracaena cinnabari* trees (Razzetti et al., 2011). Extensive sampling on *Dracaena* trees
603 across the island indicated that *H. dracaenacolus* and the couple *H. inintellectus*/*H.*
604 *riebeckii* are not syntopic (authors, unpublished data). Thus, small ellipse area of *H.*
605 *dracaenacolus* would reflect microhabitat extreme specialization that in turn may be
606 related to ecological segregation among Socotran reptiles in face of evolutionary
607 diversification.

608

609 4.2. Divergent trophic niches in a phylogenetic framework

610 The analysis of isotope quantification and faecal samples for the six Socotran
611 geckos support some degree of trophic niche divergence. According to Losos and
612 Ricklefs (2009), sympatry and high population densities reached by island reptile
613 species induce competition for resources; in this scenario, selection may favor
614 adaptations that reduce competition between species, including morphological
615 divergence and resource segregation. Our results support this statement since within the
616 six species studied, we found trophic divergence linked to microhabitat and also
617 altitudinal (vicariance) segregation. For example, *H. dracaenacolus* and *H. granti*, two
618 species with contrasting trophic niches, have parapatric distributions possibly linked to
619 a vicariance process that occurred on the island approximately 2.3 Mya (Gómez-Díaz et
620 al., 2012).

621 We did not find a phylogenetic signal in the isotopic differences among the six
622 species studied. Thus, isotopic niche similarity between species of different genera
623 suggests that diet diversification is largely uncoupled from the phylogenetic
624 background. Although our sample is small (six species), this conclusion agrees with
625 those regarding the cichlid fish community at the Lake Tanganyika (Muschick et al.,
626 2012). The lack of phylogenetic signal seems a common pattern in evolutionary studies
627 of islands (Losos, 2008) because of the high rates of evolutionary diversification early
628 in the history of the new colonizers (Schluter, 2000). In contrast, phylogenetically
629 unrelated species like *H. riebeckii* and *H. inintellectus* have the more similar trophic
630 niches. They have rather comparable body sizes and were found in vertical
631 microhabitats (cliff and vegetation); this correspondence could suggest evolutionary
632 convergence that explains similarities between these species without having a common
633 phylogenetic origin. Convergent evolution in reptiles has been largely studied in
634 Caribbean *Anolis* lizards (Harmon et al., 2005) for which independent diversification at
635 each island produced a set of convergent (specialist) lizard forms. Patterns of ecological
636 convergence in independent lineages also have provided evidence for adaptation
637 involving morphological feeding traits in fish communities (Montaña and Winemiller,
638 2012). Futures studies with the whole reptile community in Socotra will examine
639 convergence within independent lineages that colonized the archipelago linking habitat
640 selection, diet and morphology.

641 Isotopic-niche comparisons of the six gecko species in a phylogenetic
642 framework (Gómez-Díaz et al., 2012; Simó, 2012) uncovered some diversification
643 mechanisms occurring in Socotra during intra-island speciation. Microhabitat,
644 altitudinal and body-size segregation have promoted Socotra to be an island with an
645 amazing and very rich endemic reptile community (29 species; Razzetti et al., 2011;

646 Sindaco et al., 2012; Vasconcelos and Carranza, 2014) despite its rather small surface
647 area (3,625 km²) and aridity (Kier et al., 2009). This fact has promoted Socotra to be
648 considered the Galapagos of the Indian Ocean (Van Damme and Banfield, 2011; Hájek
649 and Bezděk, 2012). This study is the first attempt aimed at uncovering the ecological-
650 based mechanisms that have promoted reptile diversification in Socotra.

651

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665

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925 **Table 1:** SVL range (in mm), C/N proportion, and total isotopic mean values and standard error (SE) of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ for the six Socotran
 926 lizards examined and grouped by microhabitats where individuals were observed. Sample sizes (n) are also given.

	SVL range (mm)	C:N	Total $\delta^{13}\text{C} \pm \text{SE}$	n	Cliff $\delta^{13}\text{C} \pm \text{SE}$	n	Vegetation $\delta^{13}\text{C} \pm \text{SE}$	n	Ground $\delta^{13}\text{C} \pm \text{SE}$	n
<i>Haemodracon riebeckii</i>	66-118	2.92±0.05	-20.86±0.37	12	-20.35±0.54	7	-21.56±0.80	5		
<i>Haemodracon trachyrhinus</i>	23-42	2.99±0.03	-19.56±0.78	13			-19.56±0.50	13		
<i>Hemidactylus dracaenacolus</i>	31-75	2.95±0.02	-20.65±0.18	14			-20.65±0.48	14		
<i>Hemidactylus granti</i>	54-74	3.07±0.01	-23.23±0.28	6	-22.77±0.83	4	-23.47±1.27	2		
<i>Hemidactylus inintellectus</i>	35-64	3.09±0.03	-20.64±0.27	27	-20.63±0.32	22	-20.67±0.80	5		
<i>Hemidactylus pumilio</i>	21-33	3.06±0.02	-19.72±0.57	15					-19.72±0.57	15
			$\delta^{15}\text{N} \pm \text{SE}$	n	$\delta^{15}\text{N} \pm \text{SE}$	n	$\delta^{15}\text{N} \pm \text{SE}$	n	$\delta^{15}\text{N} \pm \text{SE}$	n
<i>Haemodracon riebeckii</i>			11.11±0.37	12	11.69±0.59	7	10.31±0.57	5		
<i>Haemodracon trachyrhinus</i>			11.46±0.37	13			11.46±0.35	13		
<i>Hemidactylus dracaenacolus</i>			11.01±0.28	14			11.01±0.34	14		
<i>Hemidactylus granti</i>			5.87±0.59	6	6.71±0.9	4	4.61±0.90	2		
<i>Hemidactylus inintellectus</i>			11.72±0.33	27	12.01±0.35	22	10.98±0.57	5		
<i>Hemidactylus pumilio</i>			9.97±0.48	15					9.97±0.48	15

927

928

929 **Table 2:** Total area (TA), Standard ellipse areas (SEA), standard ellipse areas corrected
 930 for small sample size (SEAc), standard deviation (SD), and ellipse centroids as the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$
 931 and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ average values for the six gecko species examined.

932

	TA	SEA	SEAc	SD	Centroids	
					$\delta^{13}\text{C}$	$\delta^{15}\text{N}$
<i>Haemodracon riebeckii</i>	9.68	5.248	5.549	1.599	-20.858	11.125
<i>Haemodracon trachyrhinus</i>	22.045	11.397	12.647	3.276	-19.562	11.454
<i>Hemidactylus dracaenacolus</i>	4.33	2.331	1.872	0.645	-20.664	11.007
<i>Hemidactylus granti</i>	1.67	3.486	2.261	1.680	-23.040	5.880
<i>Hemidactylus inintellectus</i>	24.655	7.451	7.743	1.465	-20.633	11.715
<i>Hemidactylus pumilio</i>	25.945	12.035	13.371	3.187	-19.720	9.980

934 **Table 3.** Number (n) and abundance (%) of prey items per taxa for each studied species. * Coleoptera families; + Hymenoptera family; °
 935 Hymenoptera infraorder. Total number of faecal samples examined is given between brackets.

Taxa arthropods	<i>Haemodracon</i>						<i>Hemidactylus</i>					
	<i>H. riebeckii</i>		<i>H. trachyrhinus</i>		<i>H. dracaenacolus</i>		<i>H. granti</i>		<i>H. inintellectus</i>		<i>H. pumilio</i>	
	(n = 19)		(n = 5)		(n = 14)		(n = 5)		(n = 13)		(n = 3)	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Araneae	11	29.7	4	50.0	8	16.3	–		6	15.8	2	14.3
Pseudoscorpionida	–		–		–		–				7	50.0
Chilopoda	3	8.1	1	12.5	5	10.2	–		1	2.6	1	7.1
Hymenoptera (total)	4	10.8	–		9	18.4	–		7	18.4	–	
Formicidae +	2		–		8		–		5		–	
Aculeata °	2		–		–		–		–		–	
Other Hymenoptera	–		–		1		–		2		–	
Heteroptera	–		–		–		3	21.4	1	2.6	–	
Orthoptera	2	5.4	1	12.5	1	2.0	–		1	2.6	–	
Neuroptera	2	5.4	–		–		–		1	2.6	–	
Homoptera	–		1	12.5	1	2.0	–		–		–	
Blattodea	1	2.7	–		3	6.1	2	14.3	–		–	
Coleoptera (total)	14	37.8	1	12.5	22	44.9	9	64.3	21	55.3	4	28.6
Curculionidae *	4		1		7		–		13		–	
Tenebrionidae *	5		–		1		–		1		1	
Sylvanidae *	1		–		4		2		2		–	
Chrysomelidae *	–		–		2		–		–		–	
Ptinidae *	–		–		3		–		–		–	
Cleridae *	–		–		–		1		–		–	
Histeridae *	–		–		–		2		–		–	

936

Other Coleoptera	4	-	-	5	4	5	3
TOTAL PREY	37	8		49	14	38	14

937 **Legend of Figures**

938 **Figure 1.** Location of the Socotra Archipelago, and locations where pellets (faecal
939 analysis) and tail (isotopic analysis) samples were collected from each of the six reptile
940 species studied. The elevations and soil types on Socotra are also depicted.

941 **Figure 2.** Phylogeny of the six Socotra gecko species included in the present study
942 based on sequences of the 12S rRNA mitochondrial gene (see Material and methods).
943 Black points in nodes indicate posterior probability values > 0.95 .

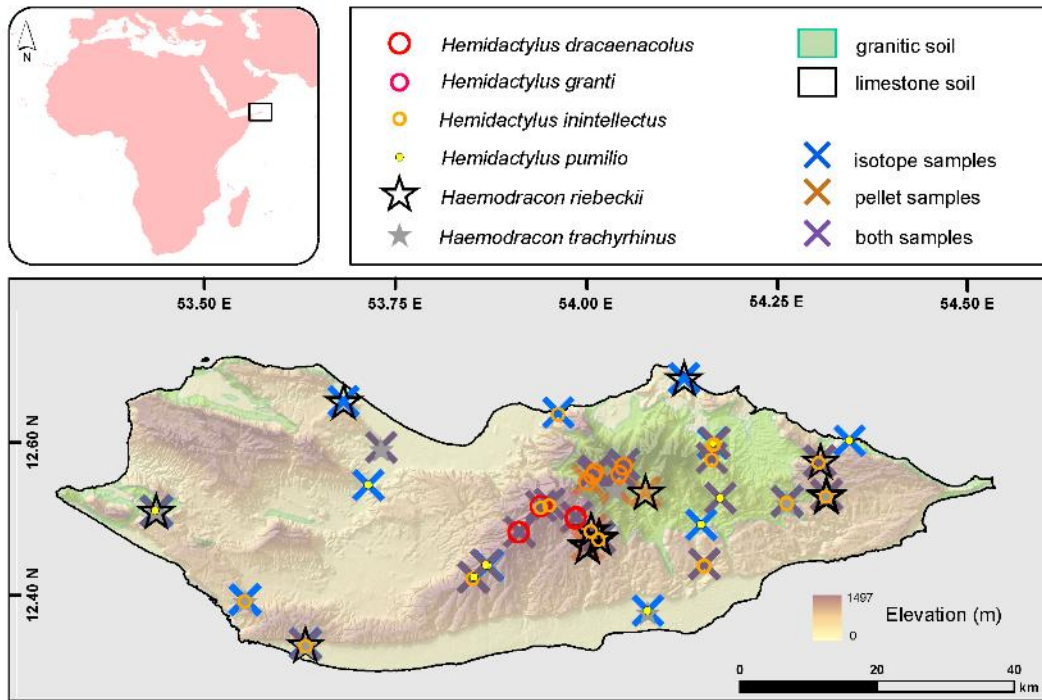
944 **Figure 3.** Standard ellipse areas based on $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ ratios of the six reptile species
945 studied in Socotra. Each point represents the isotopic values of a sample.

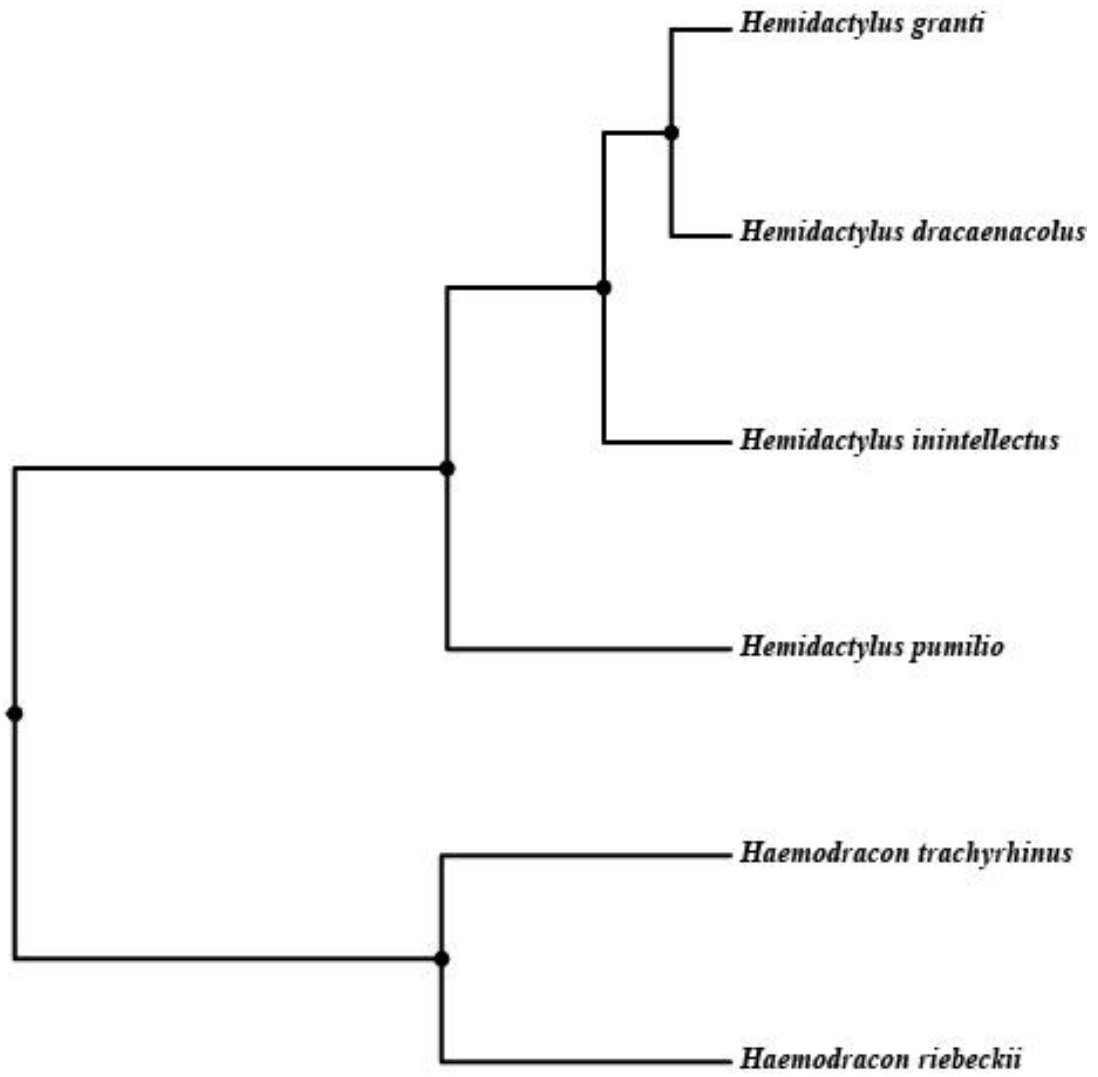
946 **Figure 4:** (A) Mean (point) and standard error (box) $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values for animals collected
947 on limestone (grey boxes) and igneous (open boxes) ground. Note that some species
948 were only collected on one or the other substrate. (B) $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values for *Haemodracon*
949 *riebeckii* and *Hemidactylus inintellectus* as the only species for which specimens were
950 collected on vegetation and cliff microhabitats.

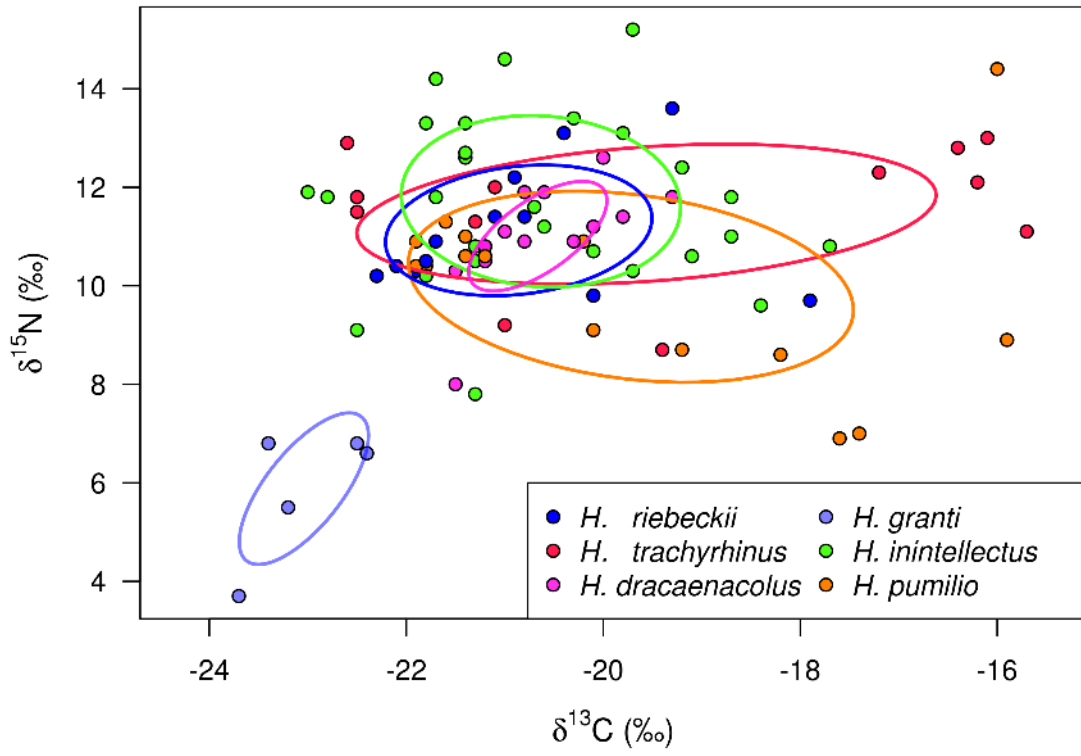
951 **Figure 5.** Cluster dendrogram based on Bray-Curtis diet similarities among six gecko
952 species of Socotra Island. Split points in the cluster indicate the dietary similarity
953 between pairs of species: for example, *Haemodracon dracaenacolus* and *Hemidactylus*
954 *initellectus* had the more similar diets with a mean similarity index around 70%.

955 Pictures are scaled for the body size of each species.

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