

1 From micro to macroevolution: drivers of shape variation in an island radiation of *Podarcis* lizards

2 Abstract

3 Phenotypic traits have been shown to evolve in response to variation in the environment. However,
4 the evolutionary processes underlying the emergence of phenotypic diversity can typically only be
5 understood at the population level. Consequently, how subtle phenotypic differences at the
6 intraspecific level can give rise to larger-scale changes in performance and ecology remains poorly
7 understood. We here tested for the covariation between ecology, bite force, jaw muscle
8 architecture, and the three-dimensional shape of the cranium and mandible in 16 insular populations
9 of the lizards *Podarcis melisellensis* and *P. sicula*. We then compared the patterns observed at the
10 among-population level with those observed at the interspecific level. We found that three-
11 dimensional head shape as well as jaw musculature evolve similarly under similar ecological
12 circumstances. Depending on the type of food consumed or on the level of sexual competition,
13 different muscle groups were more developed and appeared to underlie changes in cranium and
14 mandible shape. Our findings show that the local selective regimes are primary drivers of phenotypic
15 variation resulting in predictable patterns of form and function. Moreover, intraspecific patterns of
16 variation were generally consistent with those at the interspecific level, suggesting that
17 microevolutionary variation may translate into macroevolutionary patterns of ecomorphological
18 diversity.

19 **Keywords:** bite force, diet, geometric morphometrics, head shape, intraspecific variation, island,
20 lizards, sexual competition.

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21 Introduction

22 Any biological structure is the result of the interplay between the phylogenetic heritage of the
23 organism, its function, and its development (D'Arcy Thompson, 1942; Gould & Lewontin, 1979;
24 Goodwin & Trainor, 1980; Pigliucci & Kaplan, 2000). The morphology of an organism thus reflects the
25 constraints imposed by the physical and biological characteristics of its environment (Sagnes et al.
26 1997; Fish, 1998; Fish et al. 2008; Segall et al. 2019; Hedenström, 2002; Altshuler et al. 2015;
27 Hedenström & Johansson, 2015) within the limits imposed by its genetic and developmental
28 repertoire. Comparative studies have convincingly demonstrated that the evolution of phenotypic
29 diversity occurs in response to the selective pressures imposed by different ecological contexts (e.g.,
30 Boag & Grant, 1981; Losos, 1990) or life-history strategies (Fabre et al. 2020, 2021). However,
31 functional and constructional trade-offs may limit or constrain the expression of a given phenotype
32 (Cheverud, 1982; Barel et al. 1989; Herrel et al. 2009). Moreover, genetic architecture may drive the
33 direction and magnitude of phenotypic change (Lande, 1976), thus driving the evolution of traits
34 along genetic lines of least resistance (Schluter, 1996, 2000; McGlothlin et al. 2018). This concept has
35 been extended to phenotypic traits (Marroig & Cheverud, 2005; Renaud et al. 2011) suggesting that
36 variation within and between populations is often aligned with selection acting on axes of variation
37 most prominent within populations. Population-level studies are consequently particularly insightful
38 in helping to understand the drivers of phenotypic variation because they can inform us on the
39 processes driving variation in morphology (Stuart et al. 2014; Campbell-Staton et al. 2017; Donihue
40 et al. 2018).

41 The skull has been studied extensively as it fulfills many essential tasks including feeding, the
42 protection of the sensory organs and the brain, interactions with conspecifics or other species, and
43 even locomotion in some taxa (Wake, 2003; Herrel et al. 2007). Consequently, the skull of
44 vertebrates likely evolves in response to a variety of factors including physical constraints (Segall et
45 al. 2020; Roscito & Rodrigues, 2010; Rodrigues et al. 2015; Da Silva et al. 2018), activity patterns
46 (Martin & Ross, 2005), and foraging strategies (Reilly, Miles & McBrayer, 2007). However, complex
47 integrated systems such as the vertebrate feeding system are not mechanically optimized structures
48 (Zweers, 1979; Wake & Roth, 1989), rendering inferences of function from form often difficult and
49 complex. The skull is composed of multiple bones arranged to carry out the aforementioned
50 functions, while providing attachment areas for the masticatory muscles, and resisting the external
51 forces generated during a behavior. As bone is a living tissue that is remodeled by the magnitude and
52 the direction of the forces it experiences (Currey, 2002; Renaud et al. 2010), it can be expected that
53 the shape of cranium and mandible are strongly integrated with jaw muscle architecture (Fabre et al.
54 2014a; Cornette et al. 2015; Fabre et al. 2018), masticatory function, and by inference, with the diet

55 of an animal. For these reasons, cranial shape can be expected to diverge quickly among populations
56 that differ in local selective regimes. The skull thus represents a biological structure that is relevant
57 to address questions on how microevolutionary processes drive changes in morphology which
58 subsequently may translate into macroevolutionary patterns of phenotypic variation. Islands
59 represent excellent study systems to address these questions as they are relatively simple and
60 replicated ecosystems, allowing the drivers of variation in form and function to be teased apart
61 (Losos, 2009; Losos & Ricklefs, 2009; Kueffer, Drake & Fernandez-Palacios, 2014). Moreover, insular
62 systems often impose strong ecological pressures, thus favoring the emergence of adaptive
63 responses in morphology (Baeckens & Van Damme, 2020).

64 A previous study (Taverne et al. 2019) highlighted natural variation in the diet and the ecology of
65 insular populations of *Podarcis* lizards living on small islands in the Adriatic. These populations range
66 from insectivorous to omnivorous, with lizards relying on difficult to chew food items (i.e., plant
67 material and hard prey) to face the food scarcity observed in the smallest and most depauperate
68 environments. Additionally, a recent study demonstrated that the proportion of these mechanically
69 resistant items in the diet as well as the level of sexual competition are important drivers of variation
70 in bite force in these lizards (Taverne et al. 2020). Variation in bite force is partly driven by variation
71 in head shape (Herrel et al. 2001, 2010; Verwajen et al. 2002; Lappin et al. 2006; Huyghe et al. 2009;
72 Wittorski et al. 2016), as taller and wider heads provide more space for muscles (Herrel et al. 2007).
73 However, relatively weak correlations between bite force and external head dimensions were
74 detected in these insular *Podarcis* lizards (Taverne et al. 2020), suggesting that variation in bite force
75 is probably driven more by variation in muscle architecture. Subtle morphological differences
76 between populations underlying variation in muscle architecture are, however, likely not quantifiable
77 through external and linear measurements (Lappin & Husak, 2005; Fabre et al. 2014b). Three-
78 dimensional geometric morphometrics (Bookstein, 1997; Klingenberg, 2002, 2011; Gunz et al. 2005;
79 Kaliontzopoulou, 2011; Adams, 2013) represents a powerful alternative for quantifying
80 morphological variation, and determining how it relates to variation in performance and diet. Despite
81 the availability of this tool, surprisingly few studies have quantified intraspecific morphological
82 variation in skull shape in association with variation in muscles and bite force (but see Herrel et al.
83 2007; Fabre et al. 2014a).

84 The Croatian archipelago of the Adriatic is the second largest archipelago in the Mediterranean,
85 comprising almost 700 islands and islets. This archipelago provides a unique opportunity to study
86 independent populations of two species of *Podarcis* lizards, *Podarcis melisellensis* and *Podarcis sicula*.
87 The islands in this archipelago were separated at the end of the last glaciation (approximately 18,000
88 years ago), when sea levels rose. Given the presence of both species on multiple islands, this system

89 permits us to explore whether intraspecific ecomorphological patterns are repeated at the
90 interspecific level. To tackle this question, we carried out a comparative study including 139
91 specimens from 16 insular populations of the two *Podarcis* species. We first asked ourselves whether
92 patterns of evolution in cranial morphology and anatomy occurring among populations are similar in
93 similar ecological contexts. To do so, we used geometric morphometrics to test for the covariation
94 between the shape of the skull and mandible in 3D, jaw musculature, bite force, and ecological
95 variables.

96 We predict that variation in bite force and jaw musculature will co-vary with the type of food items
97 consumed and with the level of sexual competition within the populations; that skull and mandible
98 shape will covary with muscle architecture and with ecological traits. We predict that these patterns
99 would hold even when accounting for the phylogenetic relationships between populations,
100 suggesting that the masticatory apparatus is independently evolving towards similar morphologies
101 under comparable ecological circumstances. Additionally, we predict that the evolutionary
102 trajectories within each species will be congruent with those among species. Specifically, we predict
103 that the functional associations of the skull and diet will be similar irrespective of the species
104 considered.

105 **Material and Methods**

106 *Specimens, ecological, and bite force data*

107 The 16 populations of interest were sampled across 14 islands in the Adriatic and two mainland sites.
108 Adult lizards were captured by noose or by hand at the end of the summer of 2016. In total, 455
109 specimens were captured ([Table S1](#)). All individuals were stomach-flushed right after capture using a
110 syringe with ball-tipped steel needle ([Herrel et al. 2006](#)). Stomach contents were preserved in
111 individual vials containing a 70% aqueous ethanol solution and analyzed as described in [Taverne et al](#)
112 [\(2019\)](#). Briefly, we recorded the volumetric proportion of plants and hard arthropods consumed
113 relative to the total volume of the bolus. Sexual dimorphism in head dimensions of each population
114 was calculated. To do so, we measured head dimensions of every specimen, \log_{10} -transformed them,
115 and calculated the mean distance between males and females along the first axes of a PCA. This
116 measure of sexual dimorphism in head dimensions was previously demonstrated to be a good
117 indicator for the level of sexual competition in these populations ([Taverne et al. 2020](#)). *In vivo* bite
118 force was measured for all individuals as described in [Taverne et al. \(2020\)](#). To do so, we made lizards
119 bite on the plates of a bite force set-up containing an isometric Kistler force transducer (type 9203)
120 connected to a Kistler charge amplifier (type 5995, Kistler Inc., Winterthur, Switzerland; see [Herrel et](#)
121 [al. 1999](#) for a detailed description of the set-up) while standardizing gape and bite point.

122 *CT scanning*

123 We sacrificed five male and five female lizards of each population, where authorized (see [Table S1](#)),
124 by means of an intramuscular injection of pentobarbital. Lizards were fixed in a 10% aqueous
125 formaldehyde solution for 48h, rinsed and transferred to a 70% ethanol solution. Specimens were
126 scanned using an X-Tek HMX 160 μ CT system (Nikon, X-Tek Systems Ltd, UK) at a voxel size of 24.90
127 μ m with the following parameters: X-ray voltage, 90 kV; X-ray intensity, 70 μ A; exposure time, 2000
128 ms; number of projections, 2500. Scans were segmented using Avizo 9.0 (Thermo Fischer Scientific)
129 and 3D surfaces of the cranium and mandible were reconstructed and exported separately.

130 *Geometric morphometrics*

131 Anatomical landmarks were placed on the left side of the skull and mandible in Idav Landmark 3.6
132 (Institute for Data Analysis and Visualization, University of California, Davis). Each hemi-mandible was
133 defined by 33 anatomical landmarks, and each half of the cranium by 47 landmarks ([Table 1](#)). In
134 addition, 54 and 49 semi-landmarks on curves were digitized on the cranium and mandible,
135 respectively ([Figures 1, 2](#)). The set of points was chosen to describe the whole three-dimensional
136 structure, focusing on areas of muscle insertion (e.g., the quadrate, the lateral side of the mandible)
137 and other areas potentially relevant from a mechanical perspective (e.g., the shape of the snout, the
138 curvature of the mandible). Sliding semi-landmarks were projected onto the surface using a thin-
139 plate spline deformation ([Gunz & Mitteroecker, 2013](#)) and slid. Next, three iterations of thin-plate
140 spline relaxation were performed against a Procrustes consensus, using the library “Morpho”
141 ([Schlager, 2013](#)). Anatomical landmarks and curves of the skull were mirrored across the sagittal
142 plane (“mirrorfill” function from “paleomorph” package) ([Cardini, 2016; 2017](#)).

143 *Musculature*

144 After scanning, cranial muscles were dissected on the left side of the skull of each specimen, blotted
145 dry and weighed using a digital balance (Mettler AE100; \pm 0.1 mg). Muscle volume was obtained by
146 dividing muscle mass by density (1.06 g.cm⁻³; [Mendez & Keys, 1960](#)). Muscles were immersed in an
147 aqueous solution of nitric acid (30%) for 20 to 24 hours to digest the connective tissues and to
148 separate muscle fibers. Muscles were then transferred into a 50% aqueous glycerol solution to stop
149 the reaction. Approximately 10 muscle fibers per muscle were randomly selected, and drawn using a
150 camera lucida mounted on a Leica binocular scope. Drawings including a scale bar were scanned and
151 muscle fiber lengths were measured using Image J 1.52 ([National Institutes of Health, USA](#)). The
152 physiological cross-sectional area (PCSA) of each muscle was calculated by dividing muscle volume by
153 the mean fiber length. We identified 12 jaw muscle bundles representing five functional groups. The

154 jaw openers included *m. depressor mandibulae* (mDM). The group of the external adductors included
155 the *m. adductor mandibulae externus pars superficialis anterior* (mAMESA) and *posterior* (mAMESP),
156 the *pars medialis* (mAMEM), and the *profundus* (mAMEP). The *M. adductor mandibulae posterior*
157 (mAMP) was considered part of this group although it is not an external adductor *sensu stricto*. The
158 group of the pseudotemporalis muscles was composed of *m. pseudotemporalis superficialis* (mPSTS)
159 and *profundus* (mPSTP). The pterygoids included *m. pterygoideus pars lateralis* (mPTL) and *medialis*
160 (mPTM), while the constrictor dorsalis muscles encompassed the *m. levator pterygoidei* (mLPT) and
161 *m. protractor pterygoidei* (mPPT).

162 *Statistical analyses*

163 All statistical analyses were performed using R (R Core Team, 2020). Bite force and muscle data were
164 \log_{10} -transformed, proportions of the type of food consumed (e.g., plants, hard arthropods) were
165 arcsine-transformed, and the homogeneity of variances and normality of the distribution of the
166 residuals were verified using Bartlett and Shapiro tests, respectively. For analyses including
167 phylogeny we used a previously published tree describing the relationships between the populations
168 in this study system (see Taverne et al. 2020). Preliminary genomic analyses (Sabolić et al. in
169 preparation) indicated that there is effectively no gene flow between populations, and thus treating
170 them as independent evolving lineages for phylogenetic comparative analyses is justified. Mentions
171 of residual data in all subsequent analyses refer to the residuals of the variables extracted from
172 simple or multivariate regressions on size (more specifically, the centroid size of the skull) performed
173 on the sub-dataset considered (e.g., all females, or females of a single species).

174 The effect of sex and species on the muscle architecture variables (including the summed muscle
175 mass, the average fiber length, and the summed PCSA of each muscle group) was investigated by
176 means of a two-way multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA, “mancova” function, “jmv”
177 package) with the centroid size of the skull (Csize) as co-variable. MANCOVAs with Csize as co-
178 variable were subsequently performed to test for differences between sexes and localities within
179 each species. Permutation tests were performed (1000 iterations, with randomization of the
180 residuals) to examine the effect of Csize (of the skull or the mandible, depending on the situation),
181 sex, and species, and the effect of Csize, sex, and locality on the mandible and skull shape, using the
182 function “procD.lm” function (“geomorph” package).

183 Next, muscle and morphological data were averaged by population and by sex. Relationships
184 between all muscle variables (mass, fiber length, and PCSA), bite force, the proportion of plants
185 consumed, the proportion of hard prey consumed, and sexual dimorphism in head dimensions were
186 investigated in males and females separately given the known sexual dimorphism in these species. To

187 do so, stepwise regressions were performed either on raw or on residual muscular data (generated
188 by regressing traits against skull Csize) using the function “stepAIC”, or using the function “phylostep”
189 (“phylolm” package) when accounting for phylogeny.

190 The contribution of allometry to the observed variability in shape was estimated using a Procrustes
191 ANOVA with permutation (“procD.lm” function) which tested the relationship between the
192 Procrustes coordinates and the centroid size of either the skull or the mandible of each specimen
193 (the “procD.pgls” function was used when including phylogeny).

194 The relationships between mandible or skull shape and muscle variables, muscle residual variables
195 (obtained after multiple regressions on skull Csize or mandible Csize), bite force, residual bite force,
196 and ecological variables were assessed by running two-block partial least-squares (2b-PLS)
197 regressions using the function “two.b.pls” (“geomorph” package), or using the function
198 “phylo.integration” (“geomorph” package) when accounting for phylogeny. The contributions of the
199 variables included in the tested block to the covariation axis were extracted. Then, these interspecific
200 patterns of covariation between morphology, musculature, performance, and ecology were
201 compared with those occurring at the intraspecific level. To do so, additional 2b-PLS regressions were
202 computed for each sex in each species. The coefficient of correlation between scores of projected
203 values on the first singular vectors of the two blocks (rPLS), accounting for the strength of the
204 covariation axis, was extracted for each 2b-PLS regression. The rPLS of 2b-PLS regressions performed
205 at different levels (intra or interspecific) were compared using the function “compare.pls”
206 (“geomorph” package).

207 Finally, additional two-block partial least-squares regressions were used to investigate the
208 relationships between the residual muscular variables (again, obtained by a regression on mandible
209 or skull Csize), diet variables, and the allometry-free (AF) mandible and skull shape (obtained with
210 the functions “CAC” and “showPC” - “morpho” package). The covariation patterns at the inter and
211 intraspecific levels were compared as detailed previously. All shape changes associated with the
212 covariation patterns were extracted using the function “tps3d” (“morpho” package).

213 **Results**

214 *Inter-population variability in muscle architecture and shape*

215 The results of the two-way MANCOVAs carried out on the muscle architecture variables are
216 summarized in [Table 2](#) and show that muscle architecture differs between sexes and species. The
217 effect of Csize was also significant. A significant interaction between sex and species was also
218 detected prompting us to run analyses for each species separately. A subsequent MANCOVA found

219 significant sex, locality, and Csize effects for *P. melisellensis*. No interaction between sex and locality
220 was detected. The same patterns were detected for *P. sicula* (Table 2).

221 The results of the permutation analyses carried out on cranial and mandible shape are summarized in
222 Table 3, and variability in morphology within the dataset is illustrated in Supplementary Information
223 1. The tests performed on the mandible shapes of all specimens revealed significant effects of Csize,
224 sex, species, and the interaction between Csize and species. In *P. melisellensis*, significant effects of
225 Csize, sex, locality, and the interaction between Csize and locality were detected. In *P. sicula*,
226 significant effects of Csize, sex, and locality were detected, as well as interaction effects between
227 Csize and sex, and between sex and locality. The permutation tests, performed on the skull shape of
228 all specimens showed an effect of Csize, sex, species, as well as the interaction between Csize and
229 species, and between sex and species. In *P. melisellensis*, the tests revealed an effect of Csize, sex
230 and locality, and the interaction between sex and locality. In *P. sicula*, the tests revealed an effect of
231 Csize, sex and locality, and the interaction between Csize and sex.

232 *Relationships between muscle architecture, bite force, and ecology*

233 The physiological cross-sectional area (PCSA) of the jaw muscles explained variation in bite force
234 (Table 4). In females, greater absolute ($R^2 = 0.85$, $P < 0.001$) and residual ($R^2 = 0.71$, $P = 0.001$) bite
235 force was associated with relatively stronger external adductors and weaker pseudotemporalis
236 muscles. In males an increase in absolute bite force ($R^2 = 0.30$, $P = 0.04$) was associated with stronger
237 external adductors and weaker pterygoid muscles. These results held when accounting for
238 phylogeny.

239 The proportion of plants consumed was also significantly correlated with the absolute and relative
240 PCSA of jaw adductor muscles in both females and males (absolute data in females: $R^2 = 0.54$, $P =$
241 0.012 ; in males: $R^2 = 0.53$, $P = 0.013$; residual data in females: $R^2=0.42$, $P = 0.013$; in males $R^2=0.42$, P
242 $= 0.037$). In females, a higher proportion of plants in the diet was associated with relatively stronger
243 pseudotemporalis muscles and weaker pterygoids. In males an increase in the amount of plant
244 material in the diet was associated with relatively stronger jaw openers and external adductors, and
245 relatively weaker pterygoids and constrictor dorsalis muscles. These results were largely upheld
246 when accounting for phylogeny (Table 4).

247 The multiple regressions also revealed a significant association between the proportion of hard prey
248 items consumed and the PCSA of the jaw muscles in females ($R^2 = 0.43$, $P = 0.033$) and residual PCSA
249 in both females and males (females: $R^2 = 0.44$, $P = 0.030$; males: $R^2 = 0.57$, $P = 0.008$). In females, a
250 greater proportion of hard prey was associated with stronger pterygoids and relatively weaker

251 external adductors. In males, the same pattern was observed but the PCSA of the pseudotemporalis
252 muscles was also associated with an increase in hard prey in the diet. Despite some small differences,
253 the results of these regressions remained consistent when accounting for phylogeny (Table 4).

254 The sexual dimorphism in head dimensions, which was considered here as a proxy for the intensity of
255 sexual competition, correlated with the absolute PCSA of the jaw muscles in both females ($R^2 = 0.54$,
256 $P = 0.004$) and males ($R^2 = 0.29$, $P = 0.040$). In females, a higher dimorphism was associated with
257 weaker pterygoid muscles, whereas it was associated with weaker pseudotemporalis muscles and
258 stronger jaw openers in males. When accounting for phylogeny, a higher dimorphism correlated with
259 relatively stronger pseudotemporalis muscles in both females and males, and with relatively stronger
260 pterygoids in males (Table 4).

261 *Allometry*

262 Allometry explained a significant part of the variability in skull and mandible shape in males and
263 females at the intra and interspecific levels (Table 5). For example, allometry explained 13.4% and
264 18.0 % of the total variation in mandible and cranium shape, respectively (all $P = 0.001$). In males,
265 allometry explained 9.7% and 7.1 % of the total variation in mandible and cranial shape (all $P =$
266 0.001). When accounting for phylogeny, allometries were no longer significant ($P > 0.05$). Although
267 they were significant, allometry trajectories did not differ much between species (Supplementary
268 Information 2).

269 *Co-variation between head shape, performance, muscle architecture, and ecology*

270 For both sexes of each species, the 2b-PLS analyses at the interspecific level revealed that mandible
271 and cranial shapes significantly covaried with bite force (except in males), muscular, and ecological
272 variables (Table 6). Most patterns of covariation still held when accounting for the phylogeny.
273 Residual musculature variables and ecology also strongly covaried with cranial and mandible shape
274 corrected for allometry, in both females and males, even when correcting for phylogeny (except in a
275 few cases, see Table 6). The PCSA and the volume of three muscle groups, the external adductors,
276 the pseudotemporalis muscles and the pterygoids were the muscular variables that drove this
277 covariation (Supplementary Information 3). On the other hand, the proportion of plants consumed
278 was the ecological variable that best explained the covariation between ecology and cranial shape. In
279 all cases, the shapes associated with bigger and stronger muscles were similar to those associated
280 with a higher proportion of plants consumed. Specifically, an increase in muscle PCSA as well as an
281 increased consumption of plants were both associated with an increased overall robustness of the
282 mandible, with larger areas for muscle insertions (e.g., the coronoid process as the insertion site for

283 pseudotemporalis muscles, or the lateral side of the mandible serving as an attachment site for
284 external adductors). Additionally, the snout was pointier, the skull was taller (mostly due to a more
285 pronounced ventral curvature of the pterygoid bone), and presented a wider temporal window and a
286 more curved quadrate (Figure 3).

287 No pattern of covariation was detected between residual bite force and shape or residual bite force
288 and allometry-free shape, whereas a few significant patterns were detected between residual
289 musculature and cranial or mandible shape (Table 6). For instance, the skull shape of males covaried
290 with residual jaw musculature (especially the PCSA and the volume of the external adductors, the
291 pseudotemporalis muscles and the pterygoids, see Supplementary Information 3). The skull shape
292 variation was somewhat similar to that described above, except that the increase in skull height was
293 enabled by a rounder skull roof instead of having a more ventrally curved pterygoid bone. Residual
294 musculature variables and ecological variables also covaried with allometry-free skull and mandible
295 shape (Table 6), yet covariation patterns differed by sex. In females, stronger and larger constrictor
296 dorsalis muscles were associated with a narrower posterior section of the skull, characterized by
297 quadrates and posterior processes of the parietals pushed towards the midsagittal plane. In males,
298 relatively stronger and bigger external adductors, pseudotemporalis muscles, and pterygoids were
299 associated with a more robust mandible, a bigger coronoid process, and taller skull roof, a more
300 ventrally curved pterygoid bone, and a shorter snout. In males, similar deformations were observed
301 associated with an increase in the proportion of hard items in the diet (Figure 4). Similar patterns
302 were generally detected when accounting for the phylogeny (Table 6).

303 *Comparison of the evolutionary trajectories*

304 The rPLS of each 2b-PLS were compared to explore whether the strength of the patterns of
305 covariation was similar between sexes, species, and at the intra- (Supplementary Information 4) and
306 interspecific levels (Table 6, 7). Overall, we found no or little statistical difference in the strength of
307 the covariation. The nature of the covariations between ecology, muscles architecture and
308 morphology also appeared qualitatively similar, as illustrated by the comparison in covariation
309 pattern between muscle architecture and skull shape in males of *P. melisellensis* and in all males, for
310 example (Figure 5). Indeed, the increase in the same set of muscle architecture variables (the mass
311 and PCSA of the adductor muscle groups) contributes to similar morphological variation (a wider
312 temporal window, enabled by a higher skull roof, a pterygoid bone that is more ventrally and
313 medially curved, a more curved quadrate, a more vertical jugal).

314 **Discussion**

315 *Differences in selective regimes across independent insular populations*

316 The populations included in the present study vary greatly in their ecology as they inhabit islands that
317 differ in their size and habitat structure (Taverne et al. 2019). Island area and island isolation further
318 influence the diversity and the abundance of resources available, predation pressure, and population
319 densities which together drive ecological dynamics (Novosolov & Meiri, 2013; Novosolov et al. 2016,
320 Whittaker et al. 2017; Itescu et al. 2019). In the Adriatic archipelago, the lizard populations present
321 dietary specializations, ranging from a strictly insectivorous diet to an omnivorous diet including a
322 majority of plant items (Taverne et al. 2019). The consumption of mechanically resistant items (e.g.,
323 hard arthropods, plant material) was observed on the smallest and the most depauperate islands.
324 These populations also vary in the intensity of sexual competition, as expressed by the level of sexual
325 dimorphism in head dimensions. Ecological pressures such as sexual competition and the
326 consumption of difficult-to-reduce items are reflected in variation in bite force (Taverne et al. 2020).
327 Additionally, these factors impact muscular anatomy and cranial shape. These patterns differed
328 depending on the trait considered (Tables 4 and 6, Figures 3 and 4), suggesting that different
329 selective regimes operate on these islands. Because different associations between form and
330 function were detected in males and females, sexes appear to be confronted with different selective
331 pressures. Interestingly sex-related specificities were replicated among populations within a species,
332 but were species-specific.

333 *Evolution of phenotypes*

334 The present study allowed us to partly tease apart the drivers of phenotypic variation. Lizards grow
335 continuously during their life (Haines, 1969). For this reason, size is often a central life-history trait
336 enabling rapid responses to environmental fluctuations (Meiri, 2007; Hall & Warner, 2017), especially
337 in insular habitats (Lomolino, 2005; Losos & Ricklefs, 2009; Sagonas et al. 2014). A significant part of
338 phenotypic variation often originates from allometric growth in ectotherms like lizards (Urošević et
339 al. 2012a,b). As expected, our results showed that phenotypic variation across populations and sexes
340 was partly explained by allometry (Table 5). Interspecific differences observed here are congruent
341 with diversification along the allometric trajectory (Felsenstein, 1985). Besides allometry, dietary
342 specialization, the intensity of sexual competition, and bite force were important drivers of
343 phenotypic variation.

344 We found that musculature strongly drives variation in bite force in the two species studied.
345 Moreover, our analyses suggest that this relationship is not purely allometric. An increase in bite
346 force was associated with an increase in the absolute and the relative PCSA of the external jaw
347 adductors in both males and females (Table 4) suggesting that increasing the force of this muscle

348 group is the most effective way to induce variation in bite force. This is corroborated by previous
349 studies that showed that the external adductor muscles of lizards are the primary drivers of variation
350 in bite force at the interspecific level (Wittorski et al. 2016). In males, the variation in the
351 contribution of the external adductors is largely the result of the variation in muscle volume
352 (Supplementary Information 5). As these muscles are positioned laterally in the head, their volume
353 might be less constrained by other cranial structures than deeper muscle bundles (Rieppel &
354 Gronowski, 1981; Herrel et al. 1998; Herrel et al. 2007). Functionally relevant associations between
355 musculature and ecology were also detected. The inclusion of greater amounts of plant items in the
356 diet was associated either with stronger pseudotemporalis muscles in females, or with stronger
357 external adductors in males, whereas greater amounts of hard prey in the diet were associated with
358 stronger pterygoids in both sexes. The pterygoids are more efficient at generating bite force at large
359 gape as their moment arm increases significantly with gape (Herrel et al. 1999 a,b). Hence, dietary
360 specialization seems to be allowed by a preferential investment in muscle groups that optimize force
361 generation in a context of biting at low or wide gapes (when eating plant items or hard prey,
362 respectively). The same logic seems to operate in males, with more intense sexual competition, such
363 as male-male combat, going along with more strongly developed pterygoid muscles.

364 Our analyses of covariation revealed strong associations between ecology, bite force, and muscle
365 architecture on the one hand, and mandible and cranial shape on the other hand. However, the fact
366 that residual bite force and muscle variables only rarely showed significant covariation with shape
367 highlights the influence of size, as corroborated by the significant allometry in the shape of the
368 mandible and cranium in both males and females. The importance of allometric effects in allowing
369 skull shape changes in relation to habitat use is common in lizards (at the intraspecific level:
370 Kaliontzopoulou, Carretero & Llorente, 2010; at the interspecific level: Urošević et al. 2012a). Yet,
371 residual data showed covariations with allometry-free mandible and cranial shapes, indicating that
372 variation in shape is not explained by allometry alone. Instead, it appears that the covariation
373 between bite force and morphology is explained primarily by size effects and allometry, whereas
374 muscle forces appear to covary with shape corrected for allometry. Thus, shape variation beyond
375 that imposed by overall size variation seems to reflect local constraints imposed by the development
376 of more forceful jaw muscles in these lizards. We identified two types of shape variation patterns
377 associated with variation in other traits. The first type includes covariation patterns that are
378 functionally related to muscle packing constraints (e.g., the height of skull roof, the robustness of the
379 coronoid process), while the second includes patterns (e.g., the height of the snout, the ventral
380 curvature of the mandible) likely reflecting the mechanical constraints associated with the
381 distribution of strains throughout the masticatory system. Biomechanical models aiming at

382 understanding the functional and mechanical consequences of the observed morphological variation
383 are needed to fully understand the observed patterns, however.

384 At present we cannot demonstrate that the observed patterns are convergent at the intra and
385 interspecific level in this island system. This is because, to our knowledge, no reliable statistical tool
386 exists to directly test for convergence in the association between groups of continuous multivariate
387 traits (such as shape and the ecological variables used in the present study; but see [Bergmann &](#)
388 [McElroy, 2014](#) for a possible approach).

389 *From micro to macroevolution in an island radiation*

390 The comparison of the rPLS ([Table 7](#)) and the qualitative description of the evolutionary trajectories
391 suggest that patterns of intraspecific variation are replicated at the interspecific level. In other words,
392 we showed that under similar ecological circumstances, predictable response in musculature occurs,
393 and that in turn, variation in muscle architecture is associated with similar patterns of morphological
394 variation among populations and among species. Such consistency between hierarchical levels of
395 biological integration was proposed to be the result of selection ([Calsbeek, Knouft & Smith, 2006](#)),
396 and likely to underlie the genesis of phenotypic diversity ([Kaliontzopoulou, Pinho & Martinez-Freiria,](#)
397 [2018](#)). Gould ([1989](#)) proposed that evolution is the result of selection plus contingency rendering
398 convergence less likely in more distantly related organisms. Additionally, [Blount and co-authors](#)
399 [\(2018\)](#) showed that repeatable evolution of traits is more likely to occur in closely related lineages as
400 is observed in our study comparing two species of the same genus. Put another way, the power of
401 selection to produce convergent phenotypes in similar ecological contexts decreases in distant taxa
402 because of the genetic differences that accumulate over time, while the power of contingency
403 increases. The patterns of covariation described here suggest that at least part of the hypothesis is
404 true. Whether this can be extrapolated to the genus or even family level remains to be tested,
405 however.

406 *Main conclusions*

407 The relationships between head dimensions, bite force, and ecology at the interspecific level have
408 received great attention over the past decades. The weak link between morphology and diet at the
409 intraspecific level has been proposed to be caused by the prevalence of other agents of selection
410 such as intraspecific competition and the need for food partitioning ([Schoener, 1967; Herrel et al.](#)
411 [1999, Vanhooydonck et al. 2010](#)), or sexual selection through male-male combat ([Sagonas et al.](#)
412 [2014; Lopez-Darias et al. 2015; Donihue et al. 2016](#)). Using insular *Podarcis* lizards as a model system,
413 we demonstrated that diet and sexual competition are both important drivers of phenotypic diversity

414 at the intra- and interspecific level. However, phenotypic evolution is sometimes fluctuating and may
415 only rarely be translated into long-term directional change (Gibbs & Grant, 1987; Hairston & Dillon,
416 1990; Ellner et al. 1999; Grant & Grant, 2006). The present study shows that ecological pressures at
417 the population level are strong enough to allow the emergence of macroevolutionary patterns of
418 variation across the Adriatic thus linking population-level processes to interspecific patterns of
419 variation.

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647 **Tables:**648 **Table 1:** Definitions of the anatomical landmarks (LM)

Skull	LM n°	Mandible
Anterior tip of the premaxillar	1	Anterior tip of the dentary
Most medial anterior part of nasal opening	2	Antero-lateral tip of the coronoid
Dorsal point of nasal at the midline	3	Antero-lateral junction between the angular and the surangular
Lateral dorsal protuberance of nasal	4	Antero-lateral tip of the surangular
Anterior end of the joint between the internasal scales	5	Junction between the dentary, the coronoid and the surangular
Anterior corner of the frontal scale	6	Posterior border of the angular foramen below the coronoid
Antero-lateral corner of the frontal scale	7	Dorso-lateral edge of the coronoid
Postero-lateral corner of the frontal scale	8	Dorsal tip of the coronoid
Posterior corner of the frontal scale	9	Dorsal posterior most constriction of the coronoid
Lateral corner of the fronto-parietal scale	10	Mid distance between landmarks 9 and 11
Anterior corner of the interparietal scale	11	Posterior junction between the coronoid and the surangular
Antero-lateral corner of the interparietal scale	12	Junction between the surangular, the angular and the articular
Postero-lateral corner of the interparietal scale	13	Posterior tip of the retroarticular process
Most posterior part of the junction between parietal and occipital scales	14	Antero-ventral junction between the angular and the articular
Junction between the lacrymal, the maxillar and the prefrontal bones	15	Antero-lateral corner of the articular surface
Ventro-medial tip of the frontal bone	16	Postero-lateral corner of the articular surface
Anterior tip of jugal	17	Medial edge of the retroarticular process
Posterior tip of the maxillar, at the junction with the jugal	18	Maximum of curvature between the points 17 and 19
Antero-lateral tip of the pterygoid, at the junction with the ectopterygoid	19	Postero-medial corner of the articular surface
Posterior tip of the jugal	20	Antero-medial corner of the articular surface
Dorsal tip of the jugal	21	Posterior edge of the adductor fossa
Anterior tip of the squamosal	22	Anterior edge of the adductor fossa
Anterior part of the junction between the epipterygoid and the pterygoid	23	Hollow between the posterior and the medial ridges of the coronoid
Dorsal tip of the epipterygoid	24	Postero-ventral tip of the medial ridge of the coronoid
Maximum of curvature of the alar process of prootic	25	Dorsal tip of the medial ridge of the coronoid
Maximum of curvature of the anterior semi-circular canal	26	Dorso-medial tip of the coronoid
Anterior tip of the alar process of sphenoid	27	Antero-ventral tip of the medial ridge of the coronoid
Dorsal tip of the alar process of sphenoid	28	Maximum of curvature of the ventro-medial hollow of the coronoid
Lateral maximum of curvature of the crista prootica	29	Junction between the prearticular, the angular and the splenial
Medial tip of the jugal, at the junction with the ectopterygoid	30	Antero-medial tip of the coronoid
Ventral tip of the postorbital	31	Posterior edge of the Meckelian foramen
Posterior tip of the pterygoid	32	Anterior edge of the Meckelian foramen
Posterior tip of the squamosal	33	Dorso-anterior tip of the dentary
Posterior tip of the paroccipital process of the parietal	34	
Posterior most point of the parietal at the midline	35	
Maximum of curvature of the posterior ridge of the occipital	36	
Ventral bead surrounding the fenestra ovalis	37	
Junction between the vomer and the premaxillar	38	
Anterior junction between the palatin and the maxillar	39	
Posterior junction between the palatin and the maxillar	40	
Anterior tip of the ectopterygoid, at the junction with the maxillar	41	
Posterior tip of the palatin, at the junction with the pterygoid	42	
Postero-medial tip of the ectopterygoid, at the junction with the pterygoid	43	
Anterior tip of the basipterygoid process	44	
Posterior tip of the basipterygoid process	45	
Lateral process of the basioccipital	46	
Lateral process of the basioccipital	47	
Top of the medial parasagittal bead of the quadrate	48	
Antero-ventro-medial tip of the quadrate	49	
Antero-ventro-medial tip of the quadrate	50	
Maximum of curvature of the anterior face of the quadrate	51	
Postero-ventro-lateral tip of the quadrate	52	
Postero-ventro-medial tip of the quadrate	53	
Postero-dorsal tip of the quadrate, at the junction with the supratemporal	54	

649

650 **Table 2:** Results of the analyses of covariance carried out on muscle architecture data at the
 651 individual level, either on the whole dataset or for each species separately (df: degrees of freedom,
 652 P: P-value). Bold values are statistically significant.

653

		Wilk's λ	F	df	<i>P</i>
Entire data set	Species	0.490	8.77	1	0.001
	Sex	0.280	21.85	1	0.001
	Csize	0.340	16.50	138	0.001
	Species x Sex	0.780	2.38	1	0.006

		Wilk's λ	F	df1	<i>P</i>
<i>P. melisellensis</i>	Locality	0.005	3.17	9	0.001
	Sex	0.110	29.10	1	0.001
	Csize	0.640	2.01	79	0.036
	Locality x Sex	0.220	1.30	5	0.080

		Wilk's λ	F	df1	<i>P</i>
<i>P. sicula</i>	Locality	0.013	2.76	5	0.001
	Sex	0.240	7.33	1	0.001
	Csize	0.350	4.24	58	0.001
	Locality x Sex	0.190	0.96	5	0.610

654

655 **Table 3:** Results of the permutation tests carried out on shape data at the individual level, either on
 656 the whole dataset or for each species separately (df: degrees of freedom, R²: coefficient of
 657 determination, F: F statistic, Z: effect sizes based on F distribution, P: P-value). Bold values are
 658 statistically significant (< 0.05).

		Skull					Mandible				
		df	R ²	F	Z	P	df	R ²	F	Z	P
Whole dataset	Csize	1	0.213	41.78	7.66	0.001	1	0.265	56.92	8.11	0.001
	species	1	0.059	11.73	5.55	0.001	1	0.067	14.47	6.85	0.001
	sex	1	0.016	3.06	2.60	0.010	1	0.027	5.79	4.84	0.001
	Csize:species	1	0.012	2.36	2.09	0.031	1	0.013	2.74	2.89	0.004
	Csize:sex	1	0.007	1.42	0.97	0.177	1	0.006	1.21	0.71	0.232
	species:sex	1	0.012	2.44	2.27	0.019	1	0.007	1.56	1.36	0.088
	Csize:species:sex	1	0.011	2.08	1.75	0.058	1	0.005	0.98	0.10	0.454
<i>P. melisellensis</i>	Csize	1	0.272	40.79	6.78	0.001	1	0.347	62.47	7.37	0.001
	sex	1	0.028	4.23	3.43	0.001	1	0.022	4.03	3.58	0.001
	locality	9	0.211	3.51	6.53	0.001	9	0.231	4.63	9.49	0.001
	Csize:sex	1	0.013	1.99	1.64	0.071	1	0.009	1.55	1.39	0.086
	Csize:locality	9	0.066	1.10	0.53	0.285	9	0.072	1.45	2.59	0.005
	sex:locality	5	0.058	1.76	2.22	0.018	5	0.027	0.99	0.06	0.463
	Csize:sex:locality	5	0.032	0.98	-0.01	0.478	5	0.025	0.91	-0.49	0.691
<i>P. sicula</i>	Csize	1	0.121	11.52	5.08	0.001	1	0.196	19.92	6.93	0.001
	sex	1	0.046	4.38	3.25	0.002	1	0.067	6.80	4.95	0.001
	locality	5	0.269	5.15	6.37	0.001	5	0.192	3.90	7.19	0.001
	Csize:sex	1	0.023	2.22	1.94	0.043	1	0.022	2.24	2.47	0.007
	Csize:locality	5	0.061	1.17	0.77	0.225	5	0.049	1.01	0.09	0.461
	sex:locality	5	0.052	1.00	0.02	0.470	5	0.076	1.53	2.41	0.007
	Csize:sex:locality	5	0.061	1.18	0.68	0.249	5	0.052	1.06	0.37	0.368

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660

661 **Table 4:** Results of the multiple regressions between bite force (BF), the proportion of plants
 662 (PLANT), the proportion of hard prey items (HARD), the sexual dimorphism in head dimensions
 663 (SDhead) and the PCSA of the 5 muscle groups (DM: jaw opener, ADD: external adductors, PSEU:
 664 pseudotemporalis, PTG: pterygoids, CONST: constrictor dorsalis muscles). *s*: slope, β : standardized
 665 coefficient, R^2 : coefficient of determination, *P*: p-value. Bold values indicate retained models. Values
 666 in blue and red indicate a negative and a positive correlation, respectively.

		Females				Males				
		Raw		Residuals		Raw		Residuals		
No correction for phylogeny	Model	<i>P</i> < 0.001		<i>P</i> = 0.001		<i>P</i> = 0.04		<i>P</i> = 0.084		
		$R^2 = 0.854$		$R^2 = 0.71$		$R^2 = 0.3$		$R^2 = 0.212$		
	BF	DM								
		ADD	<i>s</i> = 2.838	β = 0.35	<i>s</i> = 3.06	β = 0.16	<i>s</i> = 1.629	β = 0.16		
		PSEU	<i>s</i> = -1.384	β = -0.20	<i>s</i> = -1.212	β = -0.07				
		PTG					<i>s</i> = -1.231	β = -0.13		
		CONST								
	Model	<i>P</i> = 0.012		<i>P</i> = 0.013		<i>P</i> = 0.013		<i>P</i> = 0.037		
		$R^2 = 0.541$		$R^2 = 0.422$		$R^2 = 0.53$		$R^2 = 0.423$		
	PLANT	DM					<i>s</i> = 2.635	β = 0.23	<i>s</i> = 2.524	β = 0.16
	ADD					<i>s</i> = 7.716	β = 0.76	<i>s</i> = 7.479	β = 0.40	
	PSEU	<i>s</i> = 7.550	β = 1.07	<i>s</i> = 3.966	β = 0.24					
	PTG	<i>s</i> = -6.912	β = -0.88			<i>s</i> = -6.656	β = -0.70	<i>s</i> = -6.713	β = -0.38	
	CONST					<i>s</i> = -2.644	β = -0.23	<i>s</i> = -2.578	β = -0.19	
	Model	<i>P</i> = 0.033		<i>P</i> = 0.030		<i>P</i> = 0.113		<i>P</i> = 0.008		
		$R^2 = 0.425$		$R^2 = 0.439$		$R^2 = 0.175$		$R^2 = 0.574$		
HARD	DM									
	ADD	<i>s</i> = -4.607	β = -0.56	<i>s</i> = -4.455	β = -0.23			<i>s</i> = -3.955	β = -0.21	
	PSEU							<i>s</i> = 2.729	β = 0.15	
	PTG	<i>s</i> = 4.167	β = 0.53	<i>s</i> = 3.592	β = 0.15			<i>s</i> = 3.485	β = 0.20	
	CONST							<i>s</i> = -0.703	β = -0.05	
	Model	<i>P</i> = 0.004		<i>P</i> = 0.198		<i>P</i> = 0.040		<i>P</i> = 0.150		
		$R^2 = 0.540$		$R^2 = 0.077$		$R^2 = 0.289$		$R^2 = 0.138$		
SDhead	DM					<i>s</i> = 0.991	β = 0.09			
	ADD									
	PSEU					<i>s</i> = -1.311	β = -0.14			
	PTG	<i>s</i> = -1.149	β = -0.15							
	CONST									
With correction for phylogeny	Model	$\sigma^2 < 0.001$		$\sigma^2 = 0.001$		$\sigma^2 = 0.001$		$\sigma^2 = 0.001$		
	BF	DM								
		ADD	<i>s</i> = 3.451	<i>P</i> = 0.003	<i>s</i> = 3.493	<i>P</i> = 0.003	<i>s</i> = 2.568	<i>P</i> = 0.013	<i>s</i> = 3.193	<i>P</i> = 0.007
		PSEU	<i>s</i> = -2.065	<i>P</i> = 0.023	<i>s</i> = -2.097	<i>P</i> = 0.024				
		PTG					<i>s</i> = -1.934	<i>P</i> = 0.029	<i>s</i> = -2.009	<i>P</i> = 0.020
		CONST								
	Model	$\sigma^2 = 0.011$		$\sigma^2 = 0.021$		$\sigma^2 = 0.008$		$\sigma^2 = 0.009$		
	PLANT	DM					<i>s</i> = 1.768	<i>P</i> = 0.052	<i>s</i> = 1.395	<i>P</i> = 0.132
		ADD					<i>s</i> = 7.384	<i>P</i> = 0.015	<i>s</i> = 5.595	<i>P</i> = 0.049
		PSEU	<i>s</i> = 5.709	<i>P</i> = 0.043						
	PTG	<i>s</i> = -3.333	<i>P</i> = 0.156			<i>s</i> = -5.523	<i>P</i> = 0.027	<i>s</i> = -4.222	<i>P</i> = 0.101	
	CONST					<i>s</i> = -2.771	<i>P</i> = 0.011	<i>s</i> = -2.797	<i>P</i> = 0.017	
	Model	$\sigma^2 = 0.003$		$\sigma^2 = 0.003$		$\sigma^2 = 0.008$		$\sigma^2 = 0.002$		
HARD	DM	<i>s</i> = -1.891	<i>P</i> = 0.025	<i>s</i> = -1.852	<i>P</i> = 0.037			<i>s</i> = -0.964	<i>P</i> = 0.066	
	ADD	<i>s</i> = -2.840	<i>P</i> = 0.139	<i>s</i> = -2.752	<i>P</i> = 0.104	<i>s</i> = -2.506	<i>P</i> = 0.092	<i>s</i> = -4.177	<i>P</i> = 0.003	
	PSEU					<i>s</i> = 3.245	<i>P</i> = 0.039	<i>s</i> = 4.345	<i>P</i> = 0.002	
	PTG	<i>s</i> = 3.920	<i>P</i> = 0.040	<i>s</i> = 3.951	<i>P</i> = 0.042			<i>s</i> = 2.599	<i>P</i> = 0.004	
	CONST									
	Model	$\sigma^2 = 0.003$		$\sigma^2 = 0.002$		$\sigma^2 = 0.001$		$\sigma^2 = 0.002$		
SDhead	DM					<i>s</i> = -1.736	<i>P</i> = 0.098	<i>s</i> = -1.985	<i>P</i> = 0.079	
	ADD	<i>s</i> = -2.104	<i>P</i> = 0.129	<i>s</i> = -2.408	<i>P</i> = 0.144			<i>s</i> = 1.361	<i>P</i> = 0.094	
	PSEU			<i>s</i> = 1.724	<i>P</i> = 0.169			<i>s</i> = 1.049	<i>P</i> = 0.222	
	PTG					<i>s</i> = 0.977	<i>P</i> = 0.083			
	CONST									

667 **Table 5:** Results of the Procrustes ANOVAs with permutation testing for the effect of allometry on
 668 observed variation in mandible and skull shape (P : p-value, F : F-statistic, R^2 : coefficient of
 669 determination, Z : effect sizes based on F distribution). Bold values indicate statistically significant
 670 influence of allometry ($P < 0.05$).

	Without correction for phylogeny				With correction for phylogeny			
	Skull		Mandible		Skull		Mandible	
Females	$P = 0.001$ * $R^2 = 0.134$	$F = 8.965$ $Z = 4.362$	$P = 0.001$ * $R^2 = 0.180$	$F = 12.732$ $Z = 6.058$	$P = 0.453$ $R^2 = 0.081$	$F = 0.879$ $Z = 0.076$	$P = 0.030$ * $R^2 = 0.214$	$F = 2.728$ $Z = 1.793$
Males	$P = 0.001$ * $R^2 = 0.097$	$F = 8.237$ $Z = 4.796$	$P = 0.001$ * $R^2 = 0.071$	$F = 5.919$ $Z = 4.671$	$P = 0.415$ $R^2 = 0.064$	$F = 0.952$ $Z = 0.154$	$P = 0.281$ $R^2 = 0.079$	$F = 1.209$ $Z = 0.643$
<i>P. melisellensis</i>	$P = 0.001$ * $R^2 = 0.272$	$F = 29.085$ $Z = 6.229$	$P = 0.001$ * $R^2 = 0.343$	$F = 40.809$ $Z = 6.678$	$P = 0.291$ $R^2 = 0.121$	$F = 1.118$ $Z = 0.238$	$P = 0.178$ $R^2 = 0.094$	$F = 1.492$ $Z = 0.847$
<i>P. sicula</i>	$P = 0.001$ * $R^2 = 0.121$	$F = 7.810$ $Z = 4.380$	$P = 0.001$ * $R^2 = 0.195$	$F = 13.805$ $Z = 6.159$	$P = 0.624$ $R^2 = 0.089$	$F = 0.636$ $Z = -0.162$	$P = 0.744$ $R^2 = 0.071$	$F = 0.524$ $Z = -0.289$
Females <i>P. melisellensis</i>	$P = 0.004$ * $R^2 = 0.142$	$F = 4.648$ $Z = 3.153$	$P = 0.017$ * $R^2 = 0.077$	$F = 2.327$ $Z = 2.195$	$P = 0.846$ $R^2 = 0.101$	$F = 0.448$ $Z = -0.922$	$P = 0.625$ $R^2 = 0.152$	$F = 0.719$ $Z = -0.293$
Males <i>P. melisellensis</i>	$P = 0.001$ * $R^2 = 0.108$	$F = 5.809$ $Z = 4.088$	$P = 0.001$ * $R^2 = 0.089$	$F = 4.663$ $Z = 3.783$	$P = 0.213$ $R^2 = 0.150$	$F = 1.413$ $Z = 0.808$	$P = 0.604$ $R^2 = 0.083$	$F = 0.729$ $Z = -0.273$
Females <i>P. sicula</i>	$P = 0.199$ $R^2 = 0.048$	$F = 1.419$ $Z = 0.838$	$P = 0.001$ * $R^2 = 0.094$	$F = 2.901$ $Z = 2.916$	$P = 0.588$ $R^2 = 0.126$	$F = 0.575$ $Z = -0.396$	$P = 0.098$ $R^2 = 0.429$	$F = 3.009$ $Z = 1.565$
Males <i>P. sicula</i>	$P = 0.040$ * $R^2 = 0.078$	$F = 2.292$ $Z = 1.916$	$P = 0.001$ * $R^2 = 0.149$	$F = 4.731$ $Z = 4.286$	$P = 0.911$ $R^2 = 0.088$	$F = 0.385$ $Z = -1.218$	$P = 0.186$ $R^2 = 0.256$	$F = 1.377$ $Z = 0.623$

671

672 **Table 6:** Results of the two-block partial least-squares analyses (2b-PLS) between bite force (BF),
 673 muscular data (muscle PCSA, mass and fiber length), ecology (proportion of plants and hard items
 674 consumed, and the level of intraspecific competition) and 3D morphology at the population level.
 675 Also listed are the results of analyses using residual data (r) against raw shapes and allometry-free
 676 shapes (AF). P: P-value, rPLS: coefficient of covariation, % covar: percentage of covariance explained
 677 by the PLS axis considered. Bold values are statistically significant ($P < 0.05$) and associated results
 678 are highlighted in grey.

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		Without correction for phylogeny				With correction for phylogeny				
		Female		Male		Female		Male		
		Skull	Mandible	Skull	Mandible	Skull	Mandible	Skull	Mandible	
BF	P	0.005	0.001	0.131	0.351	0.036	0.445	0.398	0.465	Raw shape
	rPLS	0.831	0.866	0.637	0.655	0.756	0.616	0.598	0.590	
	%covar	100	100	100	100	-	-	-	-	
Musculature	P	0.003	0.002	0.011	0.067	0.001	0.045	0.042	0.080	
	rPLS	0.855	0.905	0.782	0.727	0.946	0.827	0.771	0.739	
	%covar	96.560	96.878	87.127	88.219	-	-	-	-	
Ecology	P	0.017	0.013	0.019	0.011	0.281	0.422	0.037	0.014	
	rPLS	0.790	0.815	0.769	0.868	0.661	0.664	0.782	0.831	
	%covar	90.397	90.310	68.359	74.995	-	-	-	-	
rBF	P	0.622	0.768	0.306	0.291	0.089	0.378	0.320	0.506	
	rPLS	0.538	0.599	0.626	0.649	0.723	0.644	0.623	0.579	
	%covar	100	100	100	100	-	-	-	-	
rMusculature	P	0.393	0.764	0.036	0.195	0.001	0.061	0.008	0.063	
	rPLS	0.708	0.771	0.874	0.833	0.941	0.844	0.841	0.787	
	%covar	63.232	53.887	61.496	60.359	-	-	-	-	
rBF	P	0.411	0.414	0.180	0.145	0.399	0.446	0.184	0.293	
	rPLS	0.749	0.689	0.748	0.649	0.629	0.623	0.679	0.705	
	%covar	100	100	100	100	-	-	-	-	
rMusculature	P	0.005	0.119	0.001	0.043	0.001	0.027	0.006	0.048	AF shape
	rPLS	0.904	0.859	0.877	0.844	0.963	0.883	0.858	0.827	
	%covar	63.013	54.795	66.935	65.803	-	-	-	-	
Ecology	P	0.649	0.213	0.001	0.001	0.192	0.351	0.023	0.011	
	rPLS	0.898	0.793	0.892	0.845	0.729	0.681	0.810	0.875	
	%covar	61.512	86.521	42.825	76.967	-	-	-	-	

F. sicula	x	all females	0.254	0.799	0.898	1.141	0.812	0.940	0.793	0.237
M. meli	x	all males	0.604	0.959	0.843	0.519	0.932	0.966	0.845	0.085
M. sicula	x	all males	0.175	0.861	0.843	1.354	0.071	0.824	0.845	1.804

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695 **Figure legends:**

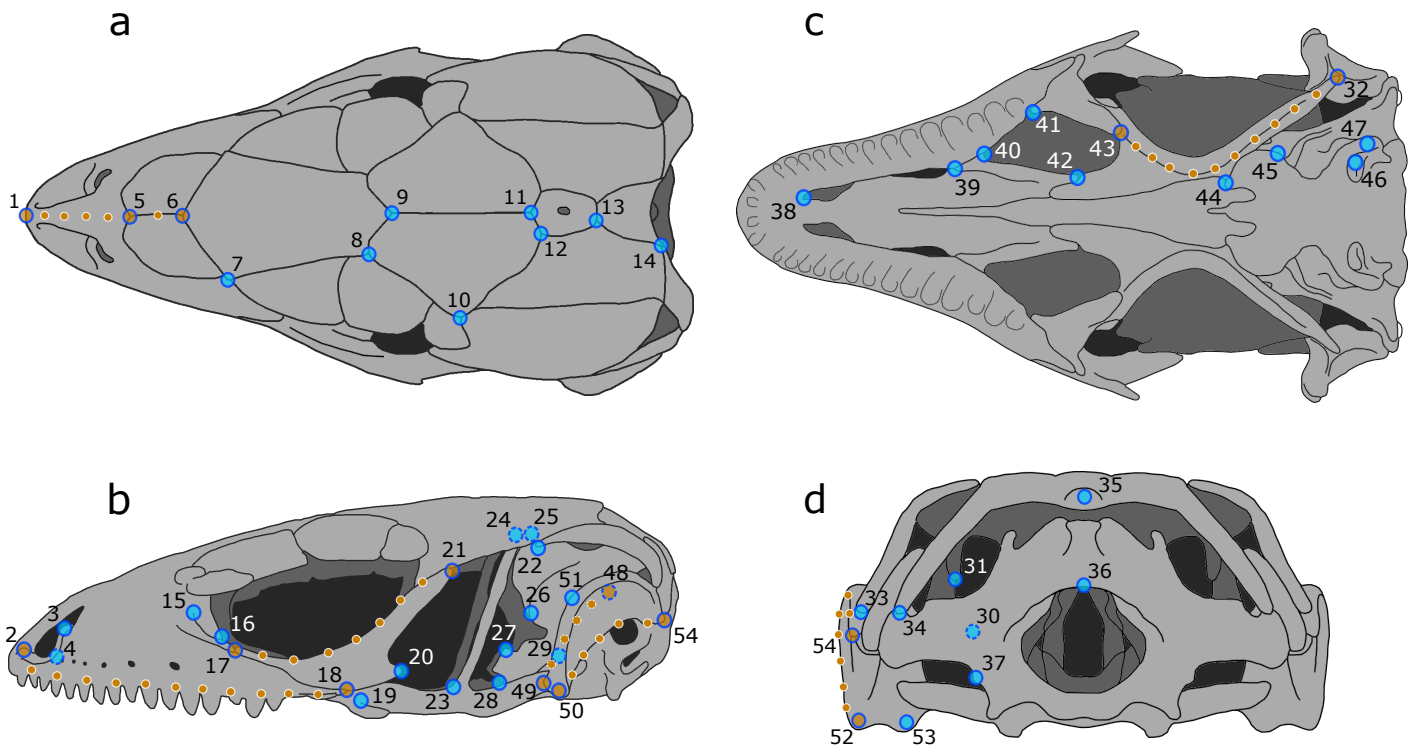
696 **Figure 1:** illustration of the landmarks used to quantify the shape of the cranium. Large blue circles
697 represent anatomical landmarks and small orange circles represent sliding landmarks on curves (a-b-
698 c-d: dorsal, left lateral, ventral, caudal views of the skull).

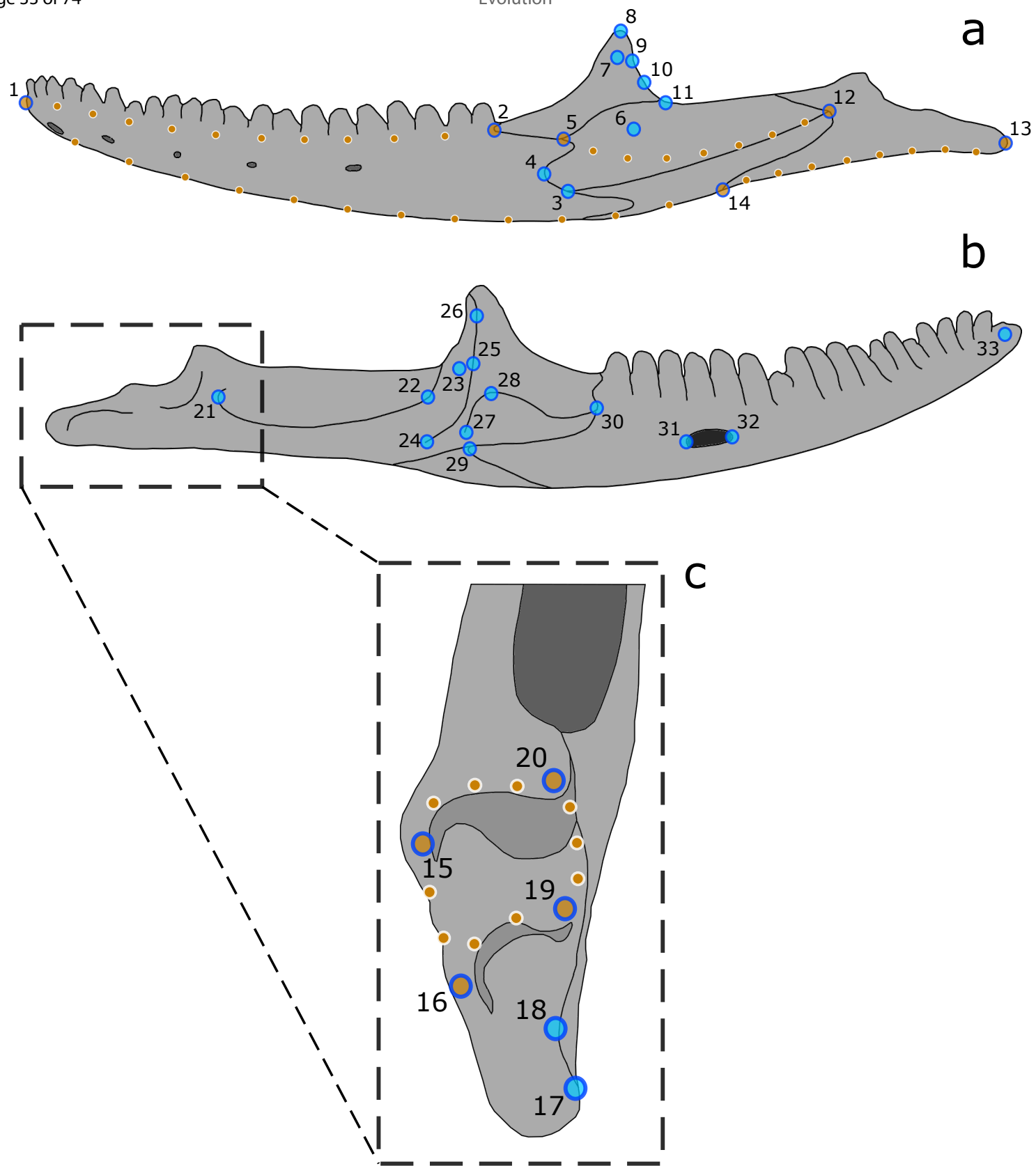
699 **Figure 2:** illustration of the landmarks used to quantify the shape of the mandible. Large blue circles
700 represent anatomical landmarks and small orange circles represent sliding landmarks on curves (a-b-
701 c: left lateral and medial views of the left mandible, and dorsal focus on the retro-articular process).

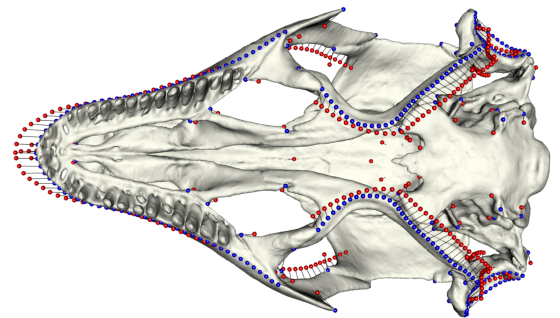
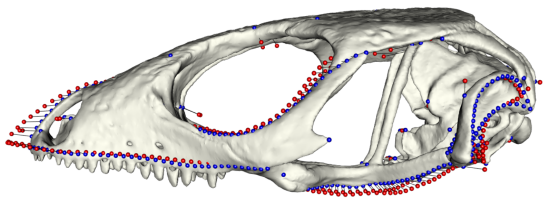
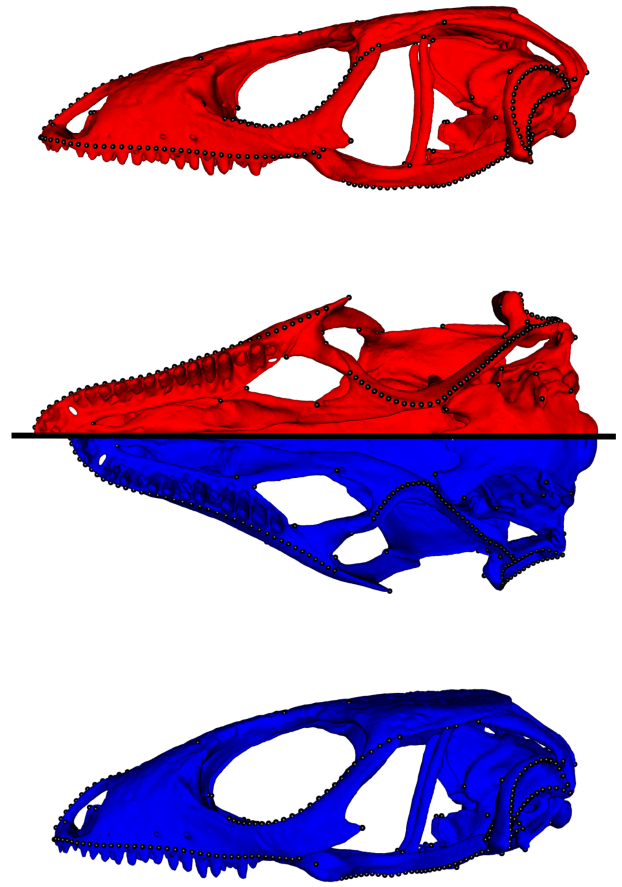
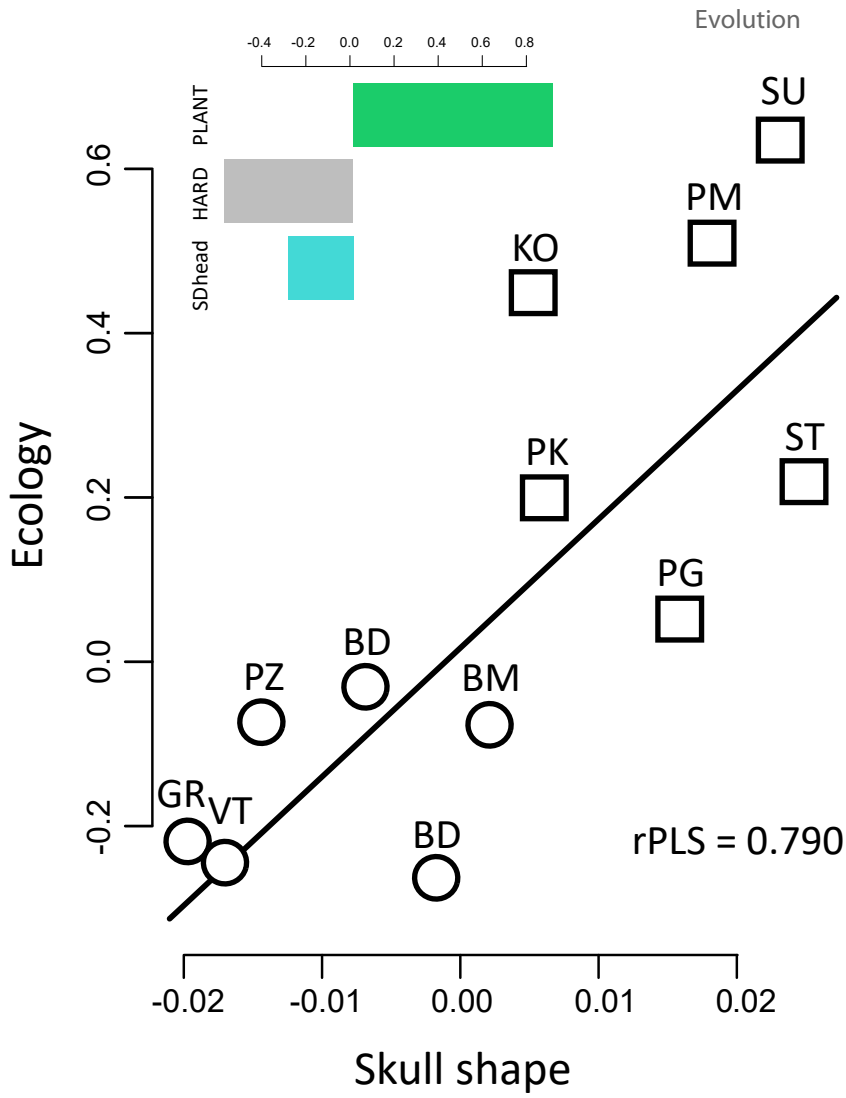
702 **Figure 3:** results of the 2b-PLS analysis exploring the covariation between ecology and skull shape in
703 females (circles: *P. melisellensis* populations, squares: *P. sicula* populations). Red shapes (and red
704 lollipops) represent the theoretical deformations associated with the positive side of the covariation
705 axis (blue shapes: negative side). The histogram gives the contributions of each variable to the axis of
706 covariation. Note the differences in the adductor chamber size, snout length, and the curvature of
707 the quadrate.

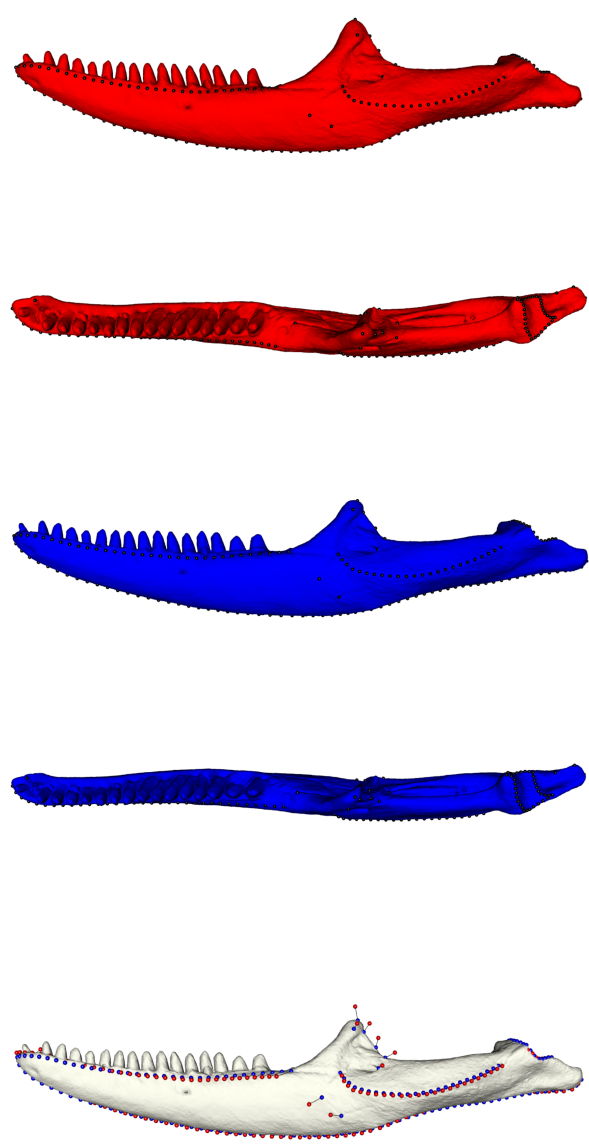
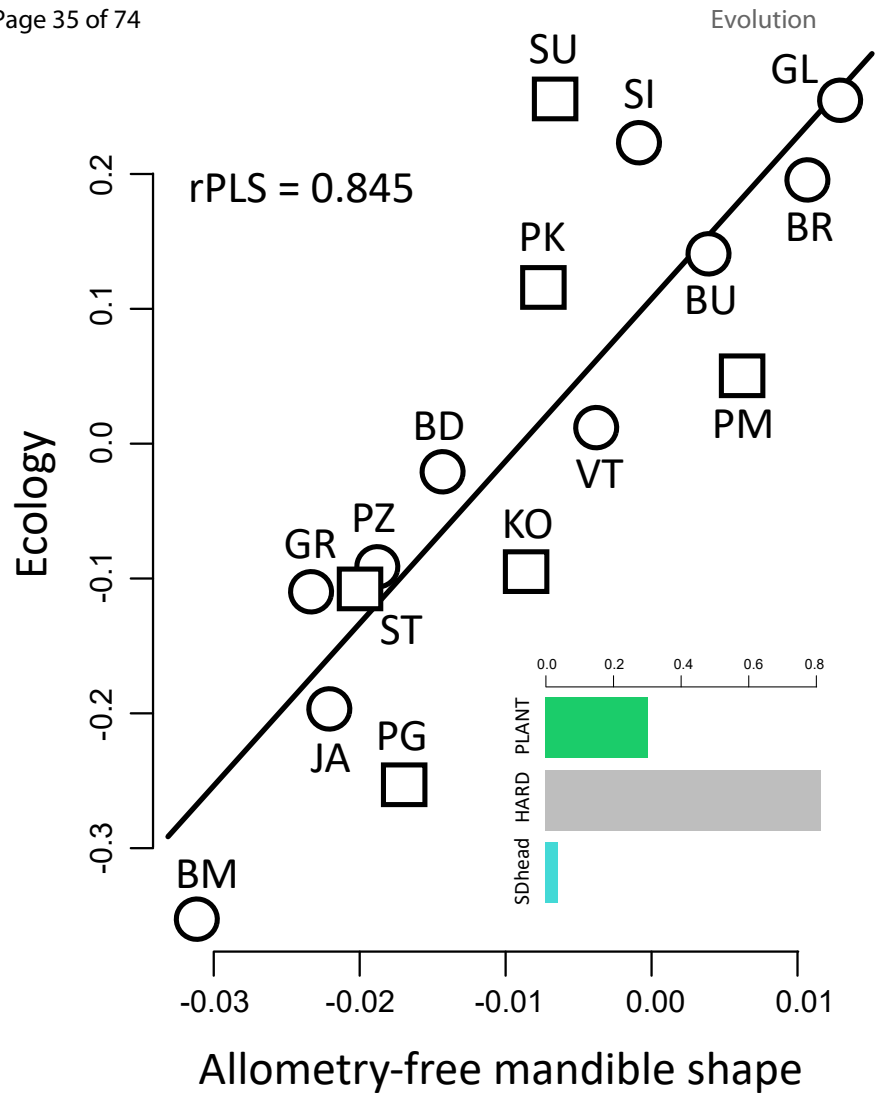
708 **Figure 4:** results of the 2b-PLS analysis exploring the covariation between ecology and allometry-free
709 mandible shape in males (circles: *P. melisellensis* populations, squares: *P. sicula* populations). Red
710 shapes (and red lollipops) represent the theoretical deformations associated with the positive side of
711 the axis of covariation (blue shapes: negative side). The histogram gives the contributions of each
712 variable to the axis of covariation. Note the differences in overall mandible robustness, the thickness
713 of the coronoid process, and the lateral area for muscle insertion.

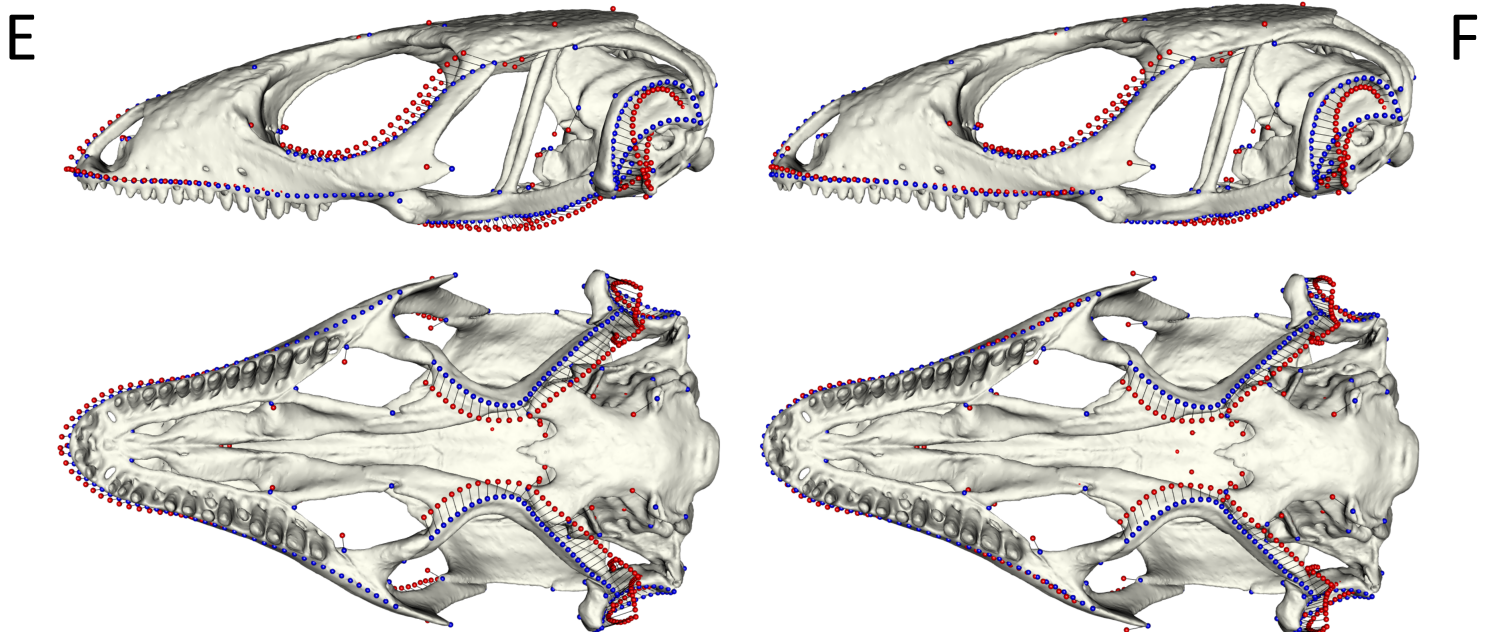
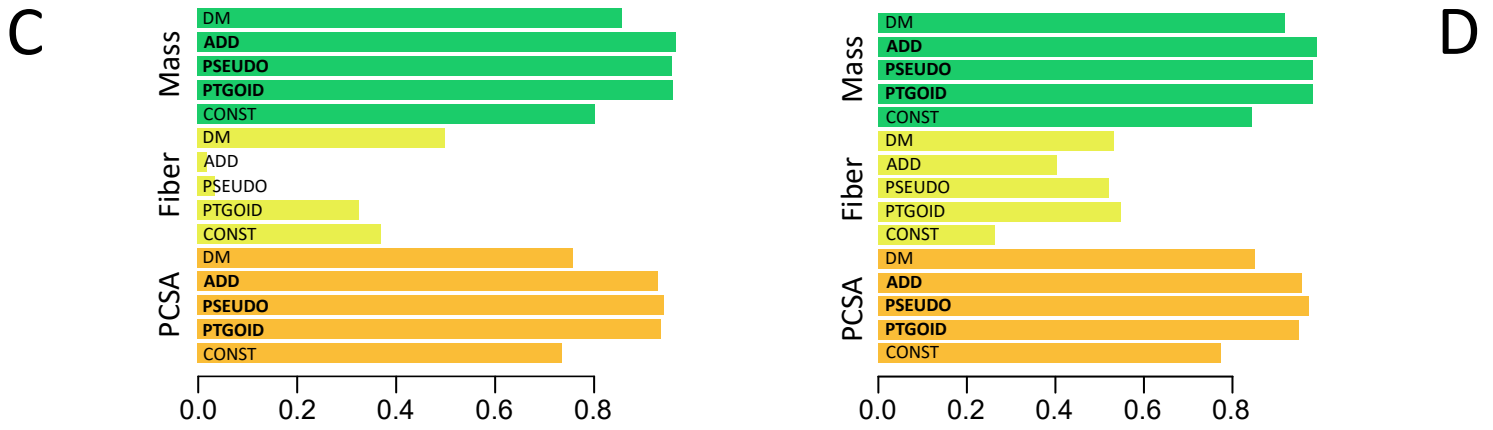
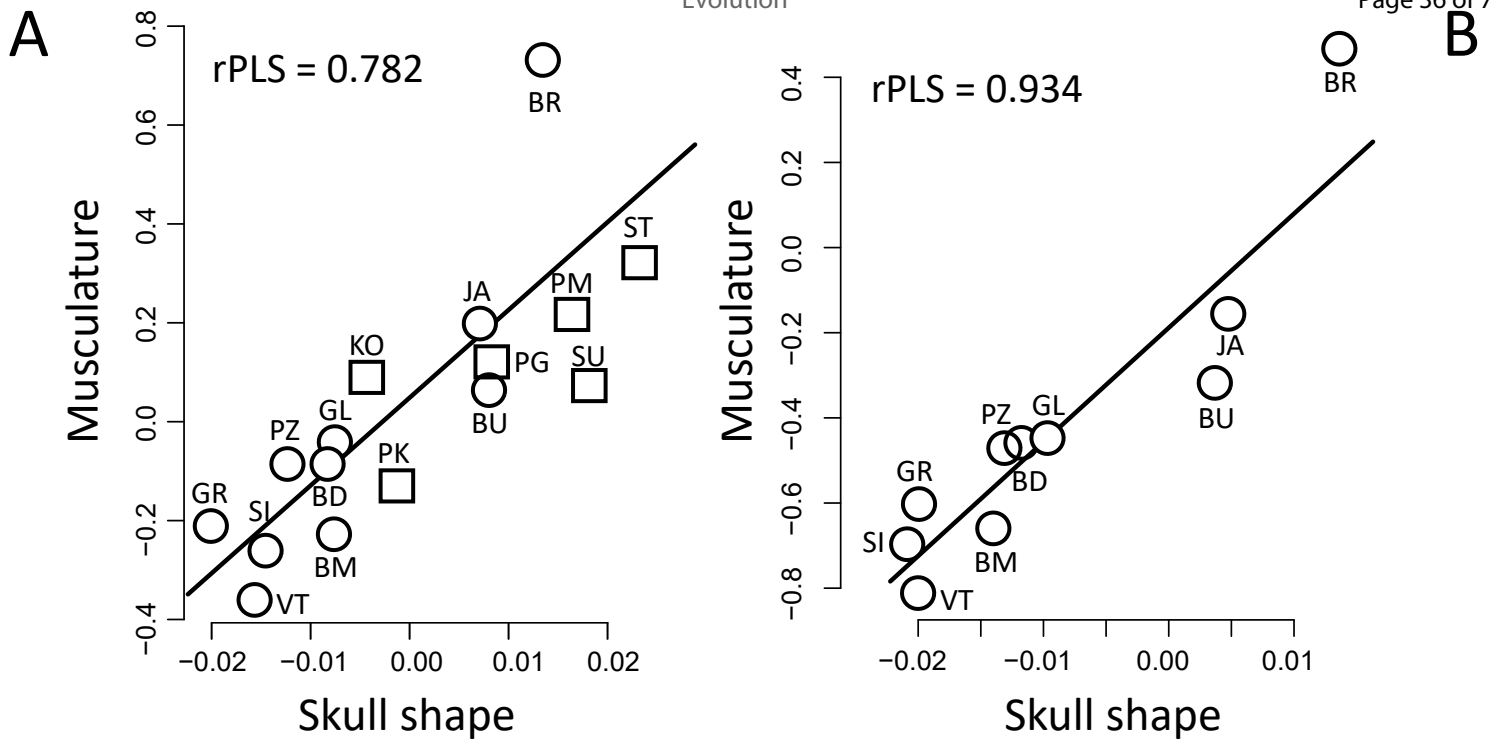
714 **Figure 5:** comparison of the results of the 2b-PLS analysis exploring the covariation between muscle
715 architecture and skull shape in all males (A, C, E) (circles: *P. melisellensis*, squares: *P. sicula*), and in
716 males of *P. melisellensis* populations only (B, D, F). Red lollipops represent the theoretical
717 deformations associated with the positive side of the axis of covariation (blue lollipops: negative
718 side). The histograms give the contributions of each muscular variable to the axis of covariation. Note
719 the differences in the adductor chamber size, snout length, and the curvature of the quadrate and of
720 the pterygoid bone.



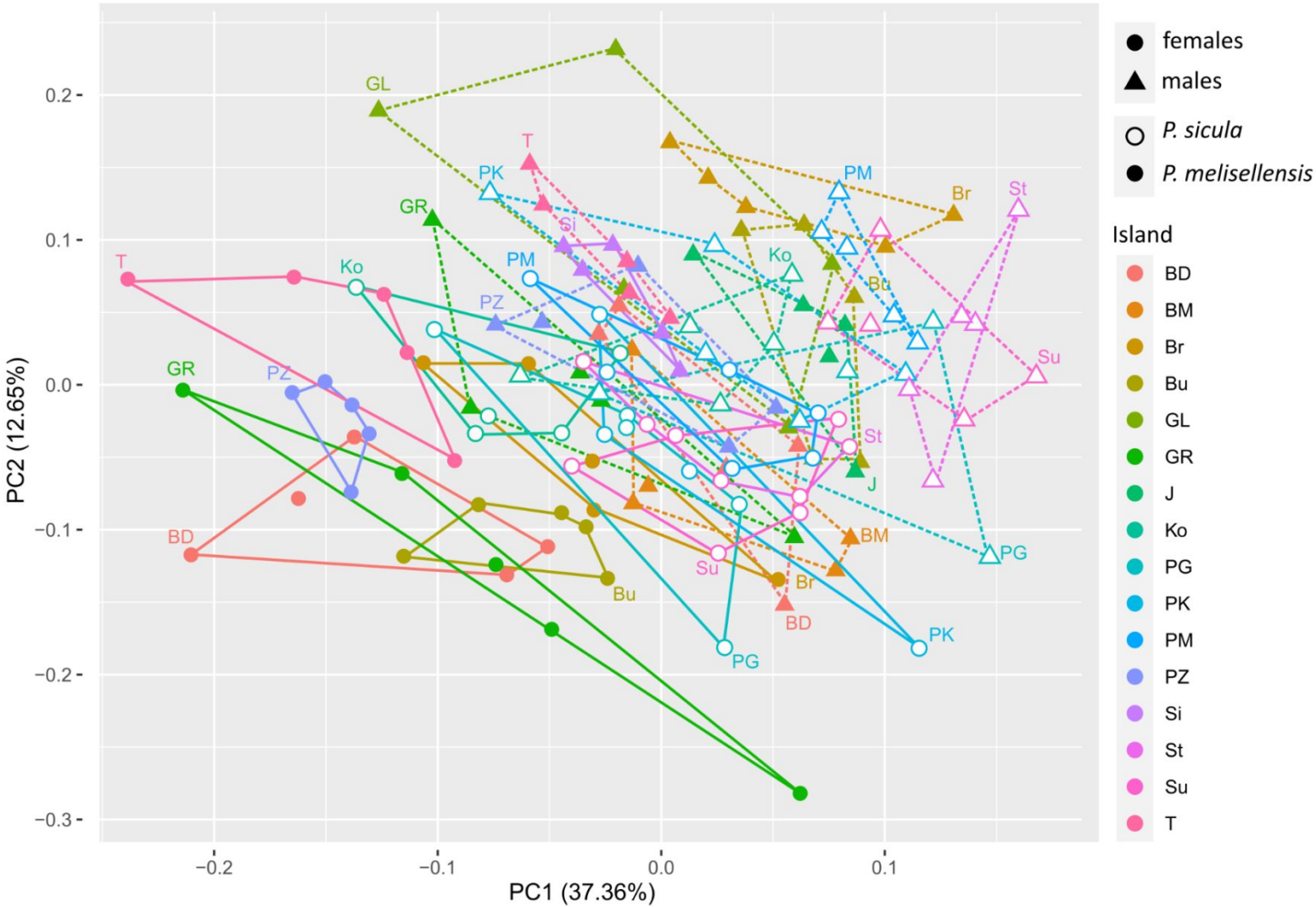




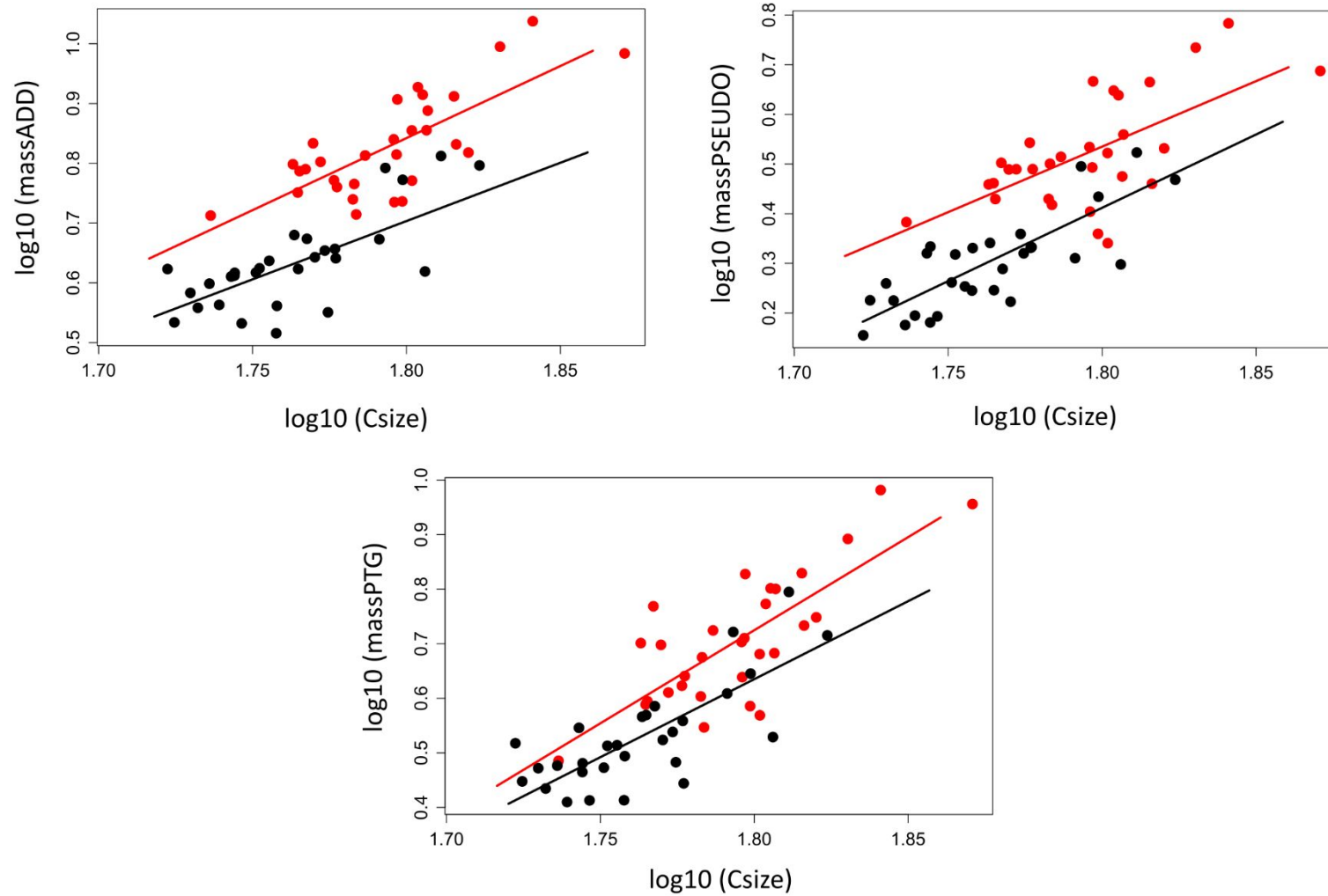




Supplementary Information 1: Distribution of all the individuals included in the present study in the morphospace based on skull shape data. BD: Veli Budikovać, BM: Mali Barjak, Br: Brusnik, Bu: Veli Barjak, GL: Glavat, GR: Greben, J: Jabuka, Ko: Kopište, PG: Mala Palagruža, PK: Pod Kopište, PM: Pod Mrčaru, PZ: Mali Parzanj, Si: Sinj, St: Split, Su: Susač, T: Veli Tajana.



Supplementary Information 2: Interspecific comparisons of the allometric trajectories between the PCSA of the main jaw muscle groups and skull centroid size (Csize). Represented are female individuals of *P. sicula* (in red) and of *P. melisellensis* (in black). Note that although significant, differences in allometric slopes between species are slight.



Supplementary Information 3: Contributions of the variables within each block to the axes of covariation resulting from the two-block partial least squares analyses (2b-pls). DM: depressor mandibulae, ADD: external adductors, PSEUDO: pseudotemporalis muscles, PTGOID: pterygoids, CONST: constrictor dorsalis, mass: muscle mass, fiber: fiber length, pcsa: Physiological Cross-Sectional Area of the muscle, AF shape: shape corrected for the allometry.

		Without correction for phylogeny				With correction for phylogeny				
		Females		Males		Females		Males		
		Skull	Mandible	Skull	Mandible	Skull	Mandible	Skull	Mandible	
Musculature	massDM	0.890	0.886	0.870		0.056	0.401	-0.311		vs. Raw shape
	massADD	0.956	0.965	0.981		-0.174	0.267	-0.233		
	massPSEUDO	0.976	0.982	0.973		-0.106	0.268	-0.287		
	massPTGOID	0.977	0.981	0.974		-0.197	0.387	-0.354		
	massCONST	0.797	0.785	0.815		0.576	0.374	-0.001		
	fiberDM	0.782	0.790	0.508		-0.099	0.037	-0.018		
	fiberADD	-0.165	-0.153	0.018		-0.169	0.077	0.141		
	fiberPSEUDO	-0.121	-0.102	0.035		-0.256	0.057	0.075		
	fiberPTGOID	0.385	0.399	0.331		-0.224	0.088	0.177		
	fiberCONST	0.543	0.549	0.376		-0.107	0.052	-0.072		
	pcsaDM	0.814	0.807	0.770		0.146	0.361	-0.293		
	pcsaADD	0.963	0.966	0.944		0.014	0.192	-0.365		
	pcsaPSEUDO	0.973	0.973	0.956		0.121	0.209	-0.345		
	pcsaPTGOID	0.982	0.983	0.949		0.013	0.288	-0.486		
	pcsaCONST	0.806	0.792	0.747		0.618	0.304	-0.067		
Ecology	Vplant	0.972	0.979	0.924	0.976			-0.604	0.123	
	Vhard	-0.548	-0.669	-0.290	-0.513			-0.782	-0.939	
	SDhead	-0.284	-0.241	0.665	-0.139			0.152	0.322	
resMusculature	massDM			0.267		0.058		-0.298		
	massADD			0.802		-0.164		-0.156		
	massPSEUDO			0.813		-0.093		-0.217		
	massPTGOID			0.794		-0.189		-0.266		
	massCONST			-0.045		0.574		0.096		
	fiberDM			-0.225		-0.096		0.037		
	fiberADD			-0.467		-0.175		0.219		
	fiberPSEUDO			-0.314		-0.261		0.133		
	fiberPTGOID			-0.501		-0.226		0.293		
	fiberCONST			-0.228		-0.107		-0.054		
	pcsaDM			0.350		0.145		-0.334		
	pcsaADD			0.939		0.028		-0.364		
	pcsaPSEUDO			0.949		0.139		-0.327		
	pcsaPTGOID			0.956		0.023		-0.502		
	pcsaCONST			0.259		0.619		-0.026		
resMusculature	massDM	-0.508		0.281	0.518	0.058	0.063	-0.32	-0.364	vs. AF shape
	massADD	0.599		0.815	0.956	-0.159	0.251	-0.151	-0.153	
	massPSEUDO	0.324		0.826	0.962	-0.073	0.261	-0.221	-0.268	
	massPTGOID	0.379		0.809	0.962	-0.185	0.315	-0.256	-0.269	
	massCONST	-0.813		-0.038	0.188	0.553	-0.539	0.093	0.062	
	fiberDM	0.476		-0.218	-0.007	-0.091	0.099	0.058	0.227	
	fiberADD	0.419		-0.445	0.012	-0.204	0.001	0.208	0.043	
	fiberPSEUDO	0.667		-0.291	0.133	-0.287	0.104	0.132	-0.001	
	fiberPTGOID	0.537		-0.481	-0.051	-0.238	0.132	0.283	0.181	
	fiberCONST	0.159		-0.221	-0.055	-0.109	0.102	-0.05	-0.025	
	pcsaDM	-0.572		0.360	0.489	0.139	-0.020	-0.378	-0.592	
	pcsaADD	-0.057		0.932	0.782	0.062	0.241	-0.346	-0.184	
	pcsaPSEUDO	-0.337		0.945	0.833	0.179	0.163	-0.331	-0.239	
	pcsaPTGOID	-0.282		0.959	0.925	0.034	0.176	-0.482	-0.408	

	pcsaCONST	-0.907		0.259	0.290	0.607	-0.557	-0.008	0.036
Ecology	Vplant			-0.237	0.299			-0.589	0.181
	Vhard			-0.789	0.806			-0.793	-0.939
	SDhead			0.283	-0.006			0.152	0.293

Supplementary Information 4: Results of the intraspecific two-block partial least-squares analyses (2b-PLS) between bite force (BF), muscular data (muscle PCSA and MASS), resource use (PLANT: proportion of plants, HARD: proportion of hard prey items in the diet) at the population level. Also listed are the results of analyses using residual data (r) against raw shapes and allometry-free shapes. P: P-value, rPLS: coefficient of covariation, % covar: percentage of covariance explained by the PLS axis considered. Bold values are statistically significant ($P < 0.05$).

		<i>P. melisellensis</i>				<i>P. sicula</i>				
		Females		Males		Females		Males		
		Skull	Mandible	Skull	Mandible	Skull	Mandible	Skull	Mandible	
BF	<i>P</i>	0.080	0.457	0.678	0.894	0.519	0.388	0.538	1.000	Raw shape
	rPLS	0.910	0.853	0.673	0.617	0.750	0.918	0.749	0.605	
	%covar	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Musculature	<i>P</i>	0.277	0.587	0.002	0.530	0.321	0.033	0.029	0.398	
	rPLS	0.836	0.828	0.934	0.732	0.813	0.978	0.946	0.902	
	%covar	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Ecology	<i>P</i>	0.240	0.981	0.001	0.040	0.235	0.306	0.096	0.409	
	rPLS	0.869	0.692	0.956	0.902	0.837	0.909	0.915	0.855	
	%covar	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
rBF	<i>P</i>	0.419	0.650	0.735	0.888	0.547	0.290	0.785	0.985	
	rPLS	0.822	0.805	0.661	0.620	0.728	0.887	0.681	0.670	
	%covar	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
rMusculature	<i>P</i>	0.320	0.084	0.020	0.012	0.024	0.747	0.078	0.918	
	rPLS	0.869	0.963	0.904	0.922	0.915	0.844	0.924	0.761	
	%covar	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
rBF	<i>P</i>	0.380	0.509	0.391	0.622	0.473	0.504	0.679	0.451	AF shape
	rPLS	0.866	0.793	0.712	0.798	0.715	0.877	0.781	0.863	
	%covar	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
rMusculature	<i>P</i>	0.086	0.035	0.001	0.072	0.104	0.415	0.021	0.551	
	rPLS	0.951	0.956	0.918	0.924	0.878	0.910	0.973	0.866	
	%covar	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Ecology	<i>P</i>	0.652	0.964	0.001	0.002	0.353	0.240	0.396	0.697	
	rPLS	0.828	0.665	0.959	0.966	0.799	0.940	0.861	0.824	
	%covar	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	

Supplementary Information 5: Results of the multiple regressions between bite force (BF), the proportion of plants (PLANT), the proportion of hard prey items (HARD), or the sexual dimorphism in head dimensions (SDh) on one hand, and the PCSA (Physiological Cross-Sectional Area), the mass and the mean fiber length of the 5 muscle groups (DM: jaw opener, ADD: external adductors, PSEU: pseudotemporalis, PTG: pterygoids, CONST: constrictor dorsalis muscles) on the other hand. *s*: slope, β : standardized coefficient, R^2 : coefficient of determination, *P*: p-value. Bold values indicate retained models. Values in blue and red indicate a negative and a positive correlation, respectively.

		No correction for phylogeny				With correction for phylogeny			
		Females		Males		Females		Males	
		Raw	Residuals	Raw	Residuals	Raw	Residuals	Raw	Residuals
PCSA	Model	<i>P</i> < 0.001 $R^2 = 0.854$	<i>P</i> = 0.001 $R^2 = 0.71$	<i>P</i> = 0.04 $R^2 = 0.3$	<i>P</i> = 0.084 $R^2 = 0.212$	$\sigma^2 < 0.001$	$\sigma^2 = 0.001$	$\sigma^2 = 0.001$	$\sigma^2 = 0.001$
	DM								
	ADD	<i>s</i> = 2.838 β = 0.35	<i>s</i> = 3.06 β = 0.16	<i>s</i> = 1.629 β = 0.16		<i>s</i> = 3.451 <i>P</i> = 0.003	<i>s</i> = 3.493 <i>P</i> = 0.003	<i>s</i> = 2.568 <i>P</i> = 0.013	<i>s</i> = 3.193 <i>P</i> = 0.007
	PSEU	<i>s</i> = -1.384 β = -0.20	<i>s</i> = -1.212 β = -0.07			<i>s</i> = -2.065 <i>P</i> = 0.023	<i>s</i> = -2.097 <i>P</i> = 0.024		
	PTG			<i>s</i> = -1.231 β = -0.13				<i>s</i> = -1.934 <i>P</i> = 0.029	<i>s</i> = -2.009 <i>P</i> = 0.020
	CONST								
Bite Force	Model	<i>P</i> < 0.001 $R^2 = 0.812$	<i>P</i> = 0.01 $R^2 = 0.559$	<i>P</i> = 0.212 $R^2 = 0.09$	<i>P</i> = 0.355 $R^2 = 0.016$	$\sigma^2 < 0.001$	$\sigma^2 < 0.001$	$\sigma^2 < 0.001$	$\sigma^2 = 0.001$
	DM								<i>s</i> = 1.604 <i>P</i> = 0.006
	ADD							<i>s</i> = 0.961 <i>P</i> = 0.033	<i>s</i> = 5.477 <i>P</i> = 0.002
	PSEU	<i>s</i> = 2.640 β = 0.36	<i>s</i> = 2.689 β = 0.15			<i>s</i> = 1.268 <i>P</i> < 0.001	<i>s</i> = 2.300 <i>P</i> = 0.029	<i>s</i> = -4.053 <i>P</i> = 0.016	<i>s</i> = -5.599 <i>P</i> = 0.001
	PTG	<i>s</i> = -1.466 β = -0.22	<i>s</i> = -1.333 β = -0.08						
	CONST							<i>s</i> = 1.312 <i>P</i> = 0.005	
Fiber length	Model	<i>P</i> = 0.001 $R^2 = 0.7$	<i>P</i> = 0.054 $R^2 = 0.359$	<i>P</i> = 0.027 $R^2 = 0.34$	<i>P</i> = 0.057 $R^2 = 0.256$	$\sigma^2 = 0.001$	-	$\sigma^2 = 0.002$	-
	DM	<i>s</i> = 4.204 β = 0.14							
	ADD	<i>s</i> = -1.039 β = -0.04		<i>s</i> = -2.175 β = -0.10					
	PSEU								
	PTG			<i>s</i> = 1.7 β = 0.08					
	CONST					<i>s</i> = 2.483 <i>P</i> = 0.010			
PCSA	Model	<i>P</i> = 0.012 $R^2 = 0.541$	<i>P</i> = 0.013 $R^2 = 0.422$	<i>P</i> = 0.013 $R^2 = 0.53$	<i>P</i> = 0.037 $R^2 = 0.423$	$\sigma^2 = 0.011$	$\sigma^2 = 0.021$	$\sigma^2 = 0.008$	$\sigma^2 = 0.009$
	DM			<i>s</i> = 2.635 β = 0.23	<i>s</i> = 2.524 β = 0.16			<i>s</i> = 1.768 <i>P</i> = 0.052	<i>s</i> = 1.395 <i>P</i> = 0.132
	ADD			<i>s</i> = 7.716 β = 0.76	<i>s</i> = 7.479 β = 0.40			<i>s</i> = 7.384 <i>P</i> = 0.015	<i>s</i> = 5.595 <i>P</i> = 0.049
	PSEU	<i>s</i> = 7.550 β = 1.07	<i>s</i> = 3.966 β = 0.24			<i>s</i> = 5.709 <i>P</i> = 0.043			
	PTG	<i>s</i> = -6.912 β = -0.88		<i>s</i> = -6.656 β = -0.70	<i>s</i> = -6.713 β = -0.38	<i>s</i> = -3.333 <i>P</i> = 0.156		<i>s</i> = -5.523 <i>P</i> = 0.027	<i>s</i> = -4.222 <i>P</i> = 0.101
	CONST			<i>s</i> = -2.644 β = -0.23	<i>s</i> = -2.578 β = -0.19			<i>s</i> = -2.771 <i>P</i> = 0.011	<i>s</i> = -2.797 <i>P</i> = 0.017
PLANT	Model	<i>P</i> = 0.019 $R^2 = 0.578$	<i>P</i> = 0.033 $R^2 = 0.428$	<i>P</i> = 0.208 $R^2 = 0.094$	<i>P</i> = 0.061 $R^2 = 0.174$	$\sigma^2 = 0.006$	$\sigma^2 = 0.006$	$\sigma^2 = 0.009$	$\sigma^2 = 0.010$
	DM						<i>s</i> = -3.406 <i>P</i> = 0.093	<i>s</i> = 3.053 <i>P</i> = 0.026	<i>s</i> = 2.815 <i>P</i> = 0.049
	ADD	<i>s</i> = -15.265 β = -1.85	<i>s</i> = -13.382 β = -0.68			<i>s</i> = -13.131 <i>P</i> = 0.002	<i>s</i> = -12.304 <i>P</i> = 0.005		
	PSEU	<i>s</i> = 15.440 β = 2.13	<i>s</i> = 14.422 β = 0.81			<i>s</i> = 7.117 <i>P</i> = 0.047		<i>s</i> = -7.595 <i>P</i> = 0.035	<i>s</i> = -7.883 <i>P</i> = 0.047
	PTG					<i>s</i> = 4.850 <i>P</i> = 0.064	<i>s</i> = 10.253 <i>P</i> = 0.007	<i>s</i> = 4.669 <i>P</i> = 0.086	<i>s</i> = 4.748 <i>P</i> = 0.170
	CONST	<i>s</i> = -1.677 β = -0.18					<i>s</i> = 1.034 <i>P</i> = 0.118		
Fiber length	Model	<i>P</i> = 0.004 $R^2 = 0.785$	<i>P</i> = 0.003 $R^2 = 0.668$	<i>P</i> = 0.002 $R^2 = 0.606$	<i>P</i> = 0.009 $R^2 = 0.512$	$\sigma^2 = 0.003$	$\sigma^2 = 0.010$	$\sigma^2 = 0.003$	$\sigma^2 = 0.005$
	DM	<i>s</i> = -1.239 β = 0.19	<i>s</i> = 9.247 β = 0.16			<i>s</i> = 11.252 <i>P</i> = 0.012		<i>s</i> = -2.382 <i>P</i> = 0.044	<i>s</i> = -1.790 <i>P</i> = 0.110
	ADD	<i>s</i> = -7.048 β = -0.28					<i>s</i> = -6.326 <i>P</i> = 0.071		<i>s</i> = 3.912 <i>P</i> = 0.064
	PSEU			<i>s</i> = -7.905 β = -0.34	<i>s</i> = -8.290 β = -0.35	<i>s</i> = -8.854 <i>P</i> = 0.001		<i>s</i> = -9.162 <i>P</i> = 0.001	<i>s</i> = -9.000 <i>P</i> = 0.003
	PTG	<i>s</i> = 5.707 β = 0.23		<i>s</i> = 3.540 β = 0.17	<i>s</i> = 3.949 β = 0.17	<i>s</i> = 6.344 <i>P</i> = 0.004	<i>s</i> = 6.767 <i>P</i> = 0.078	<i>s</i> = 3.688 <i>P</i> = 0.017	
	CONST	<i>s</i> = -7.860 β = -0.24	<i>s</i> = -15.008 β = -0.32	<i>s</i> = 3.042 β = 0.08	<i>s</i> = 3.654 β = 0.08	<i>s</i> = -7.162 <i>P</i> = 0.079	<i>s</i> = -6.345 <i>P</i> = 0.137	<i>s</i> = 7.815 <i>P</i> = 0.001	<i>s</i> = 7.608 <i>P</i> = 0.002

Model		P = 0.033 R² = 0.425	P = 0.030 R² = 0.439	P = 0.113 R ² = 0.175	P = 0.008 R² = 0.574	$\sigma^2 = 0.003$	$\sigma^2 = 0.003$	$\sigma^2 = 0.008$	$\sigma^2 = 0.002$
PCSA	DM					$s = -1.891$ $P = 0.025$	$s = -1.852$ $P = 0.037$		$s = -0.964$ $P = 0.066$
	ADD	$s = -4.607$ $\beta = -0.56$	$s = -4.455$ $\beta = -0.23$		$s = -3.955$ $\beta = -0.21$	$s = -2.840$ $P = 0.139$	$s = -2.752$ $P = 0.104$	$s = -2.506$ $P = 0.092$	$s = -4.177$ $P = 0.003$
	PSEU				$s = 2.729$ $\beta = 0.15$			$s = 3.245$ $P = 0.039$	$s = 4.345$ $P = 0.002$
	PTG	$s = 4.167$ $\beta = 0.53$	$s = 3.592$ $\beta = 0.15$		$s = 3.485$ $\beta = 0.20$	$s = 3.920$ $P = 0.040$	$s = 3.951$ $P = 0.042$		$s = 2.599$ $P = 0.004$
	CONST				$s = -0.703$ $\beta = -0.05$				
Model		P = 0.374 R ² = 0.082	P = 0.324 R ² = 0.130	P = 0.006 R² = 0.471	P < 0.001 R² = 0.692	$\sigma^2 = 0.003$	$\sigma^2 = 0.003$	$\sigma^2 = 0.003$	$\sigma^2 = 0.003$
HARD	DM					$s = -1.991$ $P = 0.015$	$s = -1.859$ $P = 0.057$		$s = -4.718$ $P = 0.116$
	ADD			$s = -10.662$ $\beta = -1.05$	$s = -5.573$ $\beta = -0.23$			$s = 10.667$ $P = 0.001$	$s = 10.336$ $P = 0.001$
	PSEU			$s = 9.583$ $\beta = 1.05$	$s = 7.604$ $\beta = 0.37$			$s = -4.637$ $P = 0.090$	$s = -4.072$ $P = 0.157$
	PTG					$s = 1.698$ $P = 0.009$	$s = 1.741$ $P = 0.011$		$s = -1.788$ $P = 0.042$
	CONST				$s = -1.108$ $\beta = -0.07$				$s = -1.686$ $P = 0.049$
Model		P = 0.095 R ² = 0.426	P = 0.038 R² = 0.568	P = 0.194 R ² = 0.104	P = 0.212 R ² = 0.091	$\sigma^2 = 0.005$	$\sigma^2 = 0.003$	$\sigma^2 = 0.008$	$\sigma^2 = 0.010$
Fiber length	DM		$s = -5.240$ $\beta = -0.09$				$s = 3.142$		$s = 3.698$ $P = 0.206$
	ADD								
	PSEU		$s = -4.522$ $\beta = -0.19$				$s = -2.475$		
	PTG		$s = 3.458$ $\beta = 0.13$			$s = 1.483$ $P = 0.073$		$s = -4.593$ $P = 0.092$	$s = -1.393$ $P = 0.153$
	CONST		$s = 10.926$ $\beta = 0.23$						
Model		P = 0,004 R² = 0,540	P = 0,198 R ² = 0,077	P = 0,040 R² = 0,289	P = 0,150 R ² = 0,138	$\sigma^2 = 0,003$	0,002	$\sigma^2 = 0,001$	0,002
PCSA	DM			$s = 0,991$ $\beta = 0,09$		$s = -2,104$ $P = 0,129$	$s = -2,408$ $P = 0,144$	$s = -1,736$ $P = 0,098$	$s = -1,985$ $P = 0,079$
	ADD						$s = 1,724$ $P = 0,169$	$s = 1,361$ $P = 0,094$	$s = 1,049$ $P = 0,222$
	PSEUDO			$s = -1,311$ $\beta = -0,14$					
	PTGOID	$s = -1,149$ $\beta = -0,15$							
	PTGDEI								
Model		P = 0,018 R² = 0,501	P = 1	P = 0,07 R ² = 0,226	P = 0,009 R² = 0,506	$\sigma^2 = 0,002$	0,002	$\sigma^2 = 0,001$	0,002
SDh	DM				$s = 1,273$ $\beta = 0,07$				$s = 0,884$ $P = 0,167$
	ADD	$s = -0,679$ $\beta = -0,08$						$s = -4,435$ $P = 0,023$	$s = 4,949$ $P = 0,010$
	PSEUDO				$s = -5,846$ $\beta = -0,28$				
	PTGOID				$s = 5,671$ $\beta = 0,27$				
	PTGDEI	$s = -0,734$ $\beta = -0,08$							
Model		P = 0,010 R² = 0,713	P = 0,119 R ² = 0,381	P = 0,182 R ² = 0,192	P = 0,139 R ² = 0,195	$\sigma^2 = 0,003$	0,001	$\sigma^2 = 0,002$	0,003
Fiber length	DM	$s = -7,639$ $\beta = -0,25$					$s = -2,553$ $P = 0,078$		
	ADD	$s = -7,913$ $\beta = -0,32$							
	PSEUDO	$s = 5,820$ $\beta = 0,24$							
	PTGOID	$s = 3,225$ $\beta = 0,13$					$s = -2,852$ $P = 0,061$		
	PTGDEI								