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Testing hypotheses of habitat use and temporal activity in relation to body plan in a Mediterranean lizard community

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1	Testing hypotheses of habitat use and temporal activity in relation to body plan
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24 Abstract

25 A body plan (= bauplan) is a suite of morphological characters shared by phylogenetically related 26 animals at some point during their development. Despite its value, the bauplan concept is still rarely 27 employed to characterize functional groups in community ecology. Here, we examine habitat use 28 and spatio-temporal activity correlates of an entire seven-species community of lizards with 29 different bauplans. The study was carried out in three locations in central Italy, encompassing a 30 complex landscape with a patchy mosaic of a wide variety of habitats and microclimates. We tested 31 four hypotheses regarding niche breadth, habitat use and activity patterns. The first hypothesis, 32 niche complementarity, in which species with similar body shapes should non-randomly partition 33 available habitats, was not supported. By contrast, the hypotheses that larger-bodied species should 34 have a wider niche breadth, that slower species should inhabit habitat types of higher cover, and 35 species inhabiting open sunny habitats should exhibit more seasonally variable activity patterns, 36 were all supported by the data. Sympatric lizard communities in our study area were clearly 37 organized by autecological constraints and eco-physiological attributes.

38

39 Key words: Sauria; Lacerta bilineata; Podarcis muralis; Podarcis sicula; Hemidactylus turcicus;
40 Tarentola mauritanica; Anguis veronensis; Chalcides chalcides; Mediterranean; resource
41 partitioning; bauplan; autecological constraints; eco-physiological attributes

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43 Introduction

In evolutionary biology, a suite of characters shared by a group of phylogenetically related animals at some point during their development is defined as body plan or "bauplan" (Woodger 1945; Rieppel 2006; Willmore 2012). The concept has represented an important element in evolutionary developmental biology, evo-devo (Tsessarsky 2020), and the evolutionary ecology of organisms (e.g., Hall 1999; Willmore 2012). However, bauplan has not been explicitly used in community ecology studies, despite this being a central concept for distinguishing the various

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50 guilds within truly "functional groups". Most often, community ecology studies define the various 51 guilds either in terms of phylogenetic units (for instance, varanids versus agamids, etc.) or "natural 52 history-characterized" units (for instance, terrestrial versus arboreal, etc.). Thus, the concept of 53 bauplan may be the ideal synthesis between phylogenetic and natural history characteristics 54 (Stankowich and Stensrud 2019) and, therefore, particularly useful for determining assembly rules 55 of biotic communities. To our knowledge, bauplan has not been explicitly used in community 56 ecology studies.

57 Lizards are traditionally the most popular model organisms in community ecology studies (e.g., Pianka 1986; Flesch et al. 2017; Grundler et al. 2017; Jiménez-Robles and De la Riva 2019). 58 59 This group of terrestrial vertebrates are particularly suited for this kind of study because they are 60 easily observed, are found in a large range of temperate and tropical ecosystems, and often 61 exhibiting a remarkable array of species diversity (Helmer et al. 1989; Maura et al. 2011; Zakkak et 62 al. 2015; Simbula et al. 2019; Vacheva et al. 2020). Although sympatric lizard species often display 63 patterns of niche partitioning along the trophic axis (Luiselli 2008; Sheu et al. 2020), the spatial 64 dimension of the niche is instead the usual primary partitioning axis (Toft 1985; Arnold 1987; 65 Gonçalves-Sousa et al. 2019; Sillero et al. 2020). Given this, the study of habitat use patterns by 66 sympatric lizards can greatly contribute to ecological community theory (Arnold 1987; Gonçalves-67 Sousa et al. 2019; Sillero et al. 2020). For instance, previous data demonstrated remarkable 68 discrepancies in the habitat selection patterns even within the same lizard clades, with some studies 69 documenting a clear ontogenetic shift in habitat use (e.g., Jenssen et al. 1998) whereas others failed 70 in finding any ontogenetic effect on structural niche use (e.g., Powell and Russell 1992).

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Like Caribbean *Anolis* Daudin, 1802 lizards (Losos 2011; Pringle et al. 2019) and Australian
 desert lizards (Pianka 1986), European lizards offer an interesting and logistically convenient
 system for testing predictions of community ecology theory (e.g., Sillero et al. 2020). These animals

are often abundant, conspicuous, and approachable, and therefore it is often easier to observe and
 record data on their spatial ecologies than for less abundant and more elusive animals.

77 Microhabitat features useful in studying the ecology of European lizards can be divided into 78 structural and climatic (Arnold 1987). Structural features include whether the microhabitat is flat or 79 elevated, whether its surfaces are more or less continuous or broken, the nature of the substrate 80 (e.g., rock, stones, vegetation) and the types of refuges used. These are responsible for much of the 81 apparent differences in species' spatial distribution, for instance, species that climb high have 82 elevated scores for occurrence on rock or its functional equivalents, and for using crevices as 83 refuges (Arnold 1987). Climatic features include humidity, temperature and shadiness of the 84 habitats and are often inter-correlated with structural features. These are more important in large 85 scale studies of niche ecology than in smaller scale studies (Escoriza and Amat 2021).

86

87 In the present study we examined habitat use and temporal activity correlates of an entire 88 community of lizards in three locations in central Italy (Tolfa Mountains, province of Rome). These 89 study sites consist of a complex landscape composed of habitat patches that include a variety of 90 environmental typologies typical of the area. Habitats range from open dry Mediterranean maquis to 91 habitat types with damp vegetation, tall trees with cooler climate and higher humidity. Using this 92 wide range of habitat features potentially available to lizards, we explored the spatio-temporal 93 patterns of lizard community structure. This community is composed of species belonging to three main types of bauplan: type (i) was a typical "lacertid bauplan" with long legs, long tail and slender 94 95 body, allowing them to run quickly on the ground but also climb efficiently on vertical substrates 96 (three species: the larger sized Lacerta bilineata Daudin, 1802 and the smaller-sized Podarcis 97 muralis Laurenti, 1768 and Podarcis sicula Rafinesque, 1810); type (ii) was a typical "gecko 98 bauplan" with adhesive toe pads allowing them to climb well even on vertical surfaces (two species: 99 Hemidactylus turcicus (Linnaeus, 1758) and Tarentola mauritanica (Linnaeus, 1758)); type (iii)

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100 was an elongated, slender "snake-like" bauplan, allowing them to only move on ground and burrow
101 underground (two species: *Anguis veronensis* Pollini, 1818, *Chalcides chalcides* Linnaeus, 1758).

102

103 Using this suite of sympatric species with different bauplans, we analysed four explicit 104 hypotheses. The "niche complementarity" theory (Schoener 1974) which suggests that bauplans that 105 use similar structural habitats tend to differ in climatic requirements and vice versa, to minimize 106 potential interspecific competition. In lizards, species with similar bauplans tend to select 107 structurally similar habitats (e.g., Arnold 1987) and hence potentially compete when resources are 108 limited (Toft 1985). Therefore, we hypothesized that species with similar bauplans should non-109 randomly partition available habitats, showing less overlap in habitat niche overlap than for species 110 belonging to different bauplans. For instance, the different species belonging to type (i) should 111 differ in shadiness/vegetation cover of the habitats they occupy, with some species being linked to 112 open sunny habitats and others to closed wet habitats. Again, the same habitat partitioning pattern 113 should occur between geckos (type (ii)) or between the "elongated lizards" (type (iii)). For instance, 114 in Salamanca (Spain) the lizard community was distributed in clusters, with species of the same 115 genus (same bauplan according to our criteria presented herein) segregated almost totally by inhabiting different habitats, whereas species of different genera presented partial segregation, 116 117 sharing some habitats (Sillero and Gomes 2016). In the latter study, ground-dwelling species 118 showed partial spatial segregation whereas the saxicolous species presented a high degree of spatial 119 segregation (Sillero and Gomes 2016). If the niche complementarity theory is supported, we 120 predicted that (a) the habitat niche overlap between species belonging to a same bauplan group 121 should be significantly lower than that observed between species of different bauplan groups, and 122 (b) an evidence of a community structure compatible with non-random niche partitioning should be 123 detected.

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125 As a second hypothesis, we tested whether the species with largest body size exhibited a 126 wider habitat niche breadth in the patchy mosaic landscape than smaller sized species. This hypothesis is based on the fact that, in lizards, home range sizes are generally positively correlated 127 128 with individual's body size (e.g., Turner et al. 1969; Christian and Waldschmidt 1984) and therefore 129 we predicted that the space requirements of larger bodied species exceeded the space available in 130 habitat types within the relatively narrow mosaics of woods, maguis and pastures in the study area. 131 Thus, in our study case, we predicted that the largest bodied species, Lacerta bilineata, would 132 exhibit a wider habitat niche breadth than the other, smaller-sized species, as it has much larger 133 individual home range size than the other species (Saint Girons and Bradshaw 1989). 134 135 Lizards represent important prey for a variety of predators in Mediterranean ecosystems (carnivores, birds of prey and snakes; e.g., Rugiero et al. 1995; Capizzi and Luiselli 1996), and 136 137 thereby rely on running speed and/or cryptic colourations/behaviours to avoid predation 138 (Vanhooydonck and Van Damme 2003). As a third hypothesis, we predicted that lizard species with 139 slower movements and cryptic colouration would inhabit more closed habitats than those that are 140 able to run more quickly for antipredator reasons. In our study case, Anguis veronensis is much 141 slower in movements than any other lizard species in the assemblage, and therefore we predicted 142 that it should inhabit habitats that are much denser in vegetation than any other species. 143 144 In Mediterranean environments, the high ambient temperatures (> 35°C) typical during 145 summers may represent a constraint for reptile above-ground activities (Carretero and Llorente 146 1995; Rouag et al. 2007; Zamora-Camacho et al. 2013; Bouam et al. 2016). As a fourth hypothesis 147 we predicted that those species inhabiting open sunny habitats would exhibit more seasonally

148 variable activity patterns, with peaks during the early spring months, and scarce above-ground

149 activity in the summer (Burke and Ner 2005). By contrast, species that are very linked to closed and

150 cooler habitats would show a more constant above-ground activity pattern throughout the year.

7

Thus, the number of observed individuals by month should be seasonally more variable in the

152 species from open-sunny habitats than those in more vegetated and cooler habitats. 153 154 Using a suite of statistical procedures including univariate, multivariate and null model (Monte Carlo methods) analyses, we tested each of the four hypotheses presented above to describe 155 156 the main "functional" characteristics of the studied lizard community. 157 158 **Materials and Methods** 159 Study area 160 Field data were collected in a woodland area surrounding the villages of Manziana, Oriolo Romano and Canale Monterano (approximate coordinates: E 12° 05' N 42° 06'), about 50 km northwest of 161 Rome and just outside west of the regional natural park Bracciano-Martignano (Latium, Central 162 163 Italy). The study area was a mixed oak woodland with Quercus cerris Linnaeus, 1753 and Q. 164 frainetto Ten, 1819 as dominant species, and with open grasslands surrounding the wooded patches. 165 In the drier parts of the forest, the trees were mainly Quercus ilex Linnaeus, 1753; Acer campestre 166 Linnaeus, 1753 and Tilia sp. were also common inside the main forest patches. Rubus ulmifolius 167 Schott, 1818, Rubus Cesius Linnaeus, 1753, Cytisus scoparius Linnaeus and Link, 1822, Smilax 168 aspera Linnaeus, 1753, Pteridium aquilinum L. (Kuhn, 1753), Prunus spinosa Linnaeus, 1753, 169 Hedera helix Linnaeus, 1753, Crataegus monogyna Jacq, 1775, Rosa canina Linnaeus, 1753 and 170 Sorbus domestica Linnaeus, 1753 were the most common undergrowth species. 171 172 Monitoring 173 Details of the monitoring protocol were described by Rugiero et al. (2021) for L. bilineata. In 174 the present paper, we also include the dataset presented in Rugiero et al. (2021). Monitoring was 175 conducted during April-October 1991, 1992, 1993, 1996, and 1997. On each monitoring day, two or

176 three researchers walked independently along haphazard transects without revisiting the same spots

177 to avoid multiple sightings of the same individuals and, thus, statistical pseudoreplication (Hurlbert 178 1984). No fixed distance occurred between transects and there was no fixed time or fixed number of walked transects daily. Data collection was restricted to sunny days between 0900 to 1600 hrs to 179 180 minimize the impact of inter-daily weather conditions. We observed lizards without any 181 interference such as capture. We considered only those individuals that were observed active above-182 ground, i.e., not under stones, tree branches or other ground objects. We identified observed lizards 183 by species, sex based on external features for those species that can be distinguished by them (not 184 for the two gecko species and C. chalcides) and age class (adult or juvenile), based on both body 185 size and, for some species (L. bilineata, P. muralis), dorsal coloration. For each sighted lizard we 186 recorded a habitat category defined by the dominance of a specific bushy plant taxon. Six habitat 187 types were distinguished (Figure 1): 188 (1) Rubus spp., that was the most wet habitat available to lizards at the study area and had in 189 May a vegetation cover (established at 300 random 1 x 1 m spots by eye) = $72.3 \pm 21.4\%$; 190 (2) Cytisus scoparius, with a vegetation cover = $42.1 \pm 33.1\%$; 191 (3) Spartium junceum Linnaeus, 1753, with a vegetation cover = $38.7 \pm 11.1\%$; 192 (4) open grassland with no bushy species, with a vegetation cover = $12.1 \pm 3.3\%$; 193 (5) stony wall (locally called "muretti a secco"), with a vegetation cover = $52.1 \pm 43.2\%$. This 194 habitat was the only human-made feature available to lizards at the study areas; 195 (6) Smilax aspera, with a vegetation cover = $59.4 \pm 27.1\%$. 196 The vegetation cover calculations at each site were always undertaken by the same person; 197 cover percentages were assessed at the moment of sighting of individual lizards. The relative 198 availability of the various habitat types at the study areas is summarized in Table 1. 199 Mean body mass (g) of the various species was obtained from measurements made by one of 200 us (MC) during previous studies on the genetics of these species (e.g., Capula and Ceccarelli 2003)

and from the literature (e.g., Ferrandino et al. 2001 for *Chalcides chalcides*). Also, no individual

animals were killed for the genetic studies that preceded the current research.

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206	Statistical procedures
207	Niche breadths of habitats used by species and, for those species in which it was possible to
208	discriminate sexes, by sex, were assessed by Simpson's (1949) index (B_s) and by a standardized
209	equation transformed from Levins' (1968) formula (B_L) with its values ranging from 0 (maximum
210	specialisation) to 1 (maximum opportunism) (Luiselli 1992).
211	
212	To verify whether one sex had, independently for each species, a higher habitat niche
213	breadth than the other (hypothesis that can be anticipated because home ranges in reptiles are
214	generally much larger in males than in females; see Rocha 1999), we pooled the various species and
215	examined their average habitat niche breadth. We also examined the habitat breadth hypothesis by
216	season, using spring (April, May and June), summer (July, August) and autumn (September and
217	October) as season categories.
218	A non-metric multidimensional scaling (nMDS) analysis with the cosine distance, using
219	PAST 4.3 software (https://www.nhm.uio.no/english/research/infrastructure/past/) was carried out
220	to cluster lizard individuals by sex, age class and species in relation to habitat availability, with the
221	centroids being reported in the output of the analyses for the various species, individual categories
222	and habitat availability.
223	For the simulations study, datasets were inspected to determine the nonrandom structure in
224	the studied lizard community by contrasting the actual data matrix as given in the original literature
225	source (or as in the original data) with random 'pseudo-communities' generated by Monte Carlo
226	simulations (Gotelli and Graves 1996). We used the EcoSim software (Aquired Intelligence Corp.,
227	Kesey-Bear, VT, USA) to calculate habitat niche overlap indices between sympatric species and to

generate Monte Carlo simulations. For each lizard sighting, we parameterized resource (habitat)

229 items data as presence versus absences. As too many zeroes in the matrices can distort error levels 230 while too often rejecting structure, we fixed zeroes prior to any analyses (Pianka 1986). Pianka's 231 (1986) overlap formula was calculated for all lizard's group combinations; then, the original species 232 utilization matrices were randomized by shuffling the original values among the resource states 233 (habitats). We used three randomization algorithms RA2, RA3 and RA4 of Lawlor (1980) as they 234 have been shown to be particularly robust for niche overlap studies (Gotelli and Graves 1996). RA2 235 explores the assemblage structure in the generalist-specialist nature of the resource utilization 236 matrix by conserving guild structure, but destroying observed niche breadth (Gotelli and Graves 1996). RA3 explores the guild structure by conserving niche breadth for each species, but 237 238 destroying guild structure manifested by the zero structure of the resource utilization matrix (Gotelli 239 and Graves 1996). RA4 retains both the niche breadth of the lizard species and the zero states in the 240 resource utilization matrix, so among the lizards only the original non-zero electivities were 241 randomly reassigned among the set of resource states originally used by that consumer (Lawlor 242 1980). For each pair of species, 30,000 random Monte Carlo permutations were generated. This 243 number of permutations is enough to avoid biases in the results in calculations (Lehsten and 244 Harmand 2006). Niche overlap values were calculated for each randomly generated matrices, and 245 species-pair and community-summary statistics were computed (Friggens and Brown 2005). Actual 246 overlap values were then compared to the distributions of the expected values, with the nonrandom 247 structure being assumed when P(obs < exp) = 0.05 or less either with RA2, RA3 or RA4 (Gotelli and 248 Graves 1996). In all cases, we define the resource use based on its availability (%) in the field.

249

For the seasonal analyses, we processed the data independently for spring (April, May and June), summer (July, August) and autumn (September and October). Contingency table analysis by χ^2 tests was carried out to analyze the frequency differences of lizard individuals observed by season and by species. Pearson's correlation coefficient was used to analyse the relationship between lizard

body mass and habitat niche breadth, and between the observed sample sizes per species and the habitat niche breadth. In the text, means are presented ± 1 Standard Deviation, with alpha set at 5%.

- 256
- 257
- 258 **Results**
- 259 General considerations

260 A total of 7257 lizard sightings, belonging to seven distinct species, were observed in the 261 study area (Table 1). The commonest species was *P. muralis* (n = 4708 sightings), followed by *P*. sicula (n = 1706), L. bilineata (n = 397) and C. chalcides (n = 394). The other species were 262 263 remarkably less common in the study area: T. mauritanica was seen only 31 times, H. turcicus 11 times and A. veronensis 10 times. Lacertidae species accounted for 93.8% of the total number of 264 265 observed lizard individuals. A nMDS plot arranged the various groups of lizard individuals in 266 clearly distinct sectors of the multidimensional space by sex, age class and species (Figure 2). The coordinate 1 explained 87.3% of the overall variance, and coordinate 2 explained 11.9%. Chalcides 267 268 chalcides, P. sicula and L. bilineata juveniles were joined in the same cluster; P. muralis and A. 269 veronensis were separate from each other; L. bilineata females clustered very close with the overall 270 habitat availability; T. mauritanica and H. turcicus were separated from the other clusters but did 271 not cluster jointly in the multidimensional space.

272

273 Hypothesis 1: the "niche complementarity" theory

Overall, there were no differences between the two groups (same bauplan, mean niche overlap = 0.57 ± 0.37 ; different bauplan, mean niche overlap = 0.51 ± 0.28 ; t = 0.433, P = 0.669). The three random reorganization algorithms indicated inconsistant patterns of variation in mean habitat overlaps from the overlaps actually observed for the seven species along the six habitat variables: in RA3 the observed overlap was significantly higher than the mean simulated value, whereas in RA4 the observed overlap was significantly lower, and in RA2 it was random (Table 2).

Thus, no evidence of a community structure compatible with overall interspecific competition was detected from our analyses. Therefore, the hypothesis that species with the same bauplan should non-randomly partition the available habitats and show less overlap in habitat niche overlap than species with different bauplans was not confirmed by our data.

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285 In L. bilineata, the habitat niche overlap was very high between males and females (O =286 (0.929), low between males and juveniles (O = 0.343), and intermediate between females and 287 juveniles (O = 0.554). In *P. sicula*, all the individual categories exhibited extremely high habitat niche overlaps: O = 0.998 between males and females, O = 0.981 between males and juveniles and 288 289 O = 0.989 between females and juveniles. In *P. muralis*, the trend was very similar as that of *P*. sicula, with very high overlap between males and females (O = 0.994), males and juveniles (O =290 (0.970) or females and juveniles (O = 0.939). For the other sympatric species it was impossible to 291 292 calculate these intraspecific overlap values because we were unable to sex them in the field.

293

294 *Hypothesis 2: larger species have wider niche breadth*

295 The largest species in the assemblage (L. bilineata) showed the widest habitat niche breadth $(B_1 = 0.38)$, followed by *P. muralis* $(B_1 = 0.28)$ and *P. sicula* $(B_1 = 0.22)$. The other four species had 296 a considerably narrower niche breadth: A. veronensis ($B_L = 0.16$), H. turcicus ($B_L = 0.09$), C. 297 298 *chalcides* ($B_I = 0.08$), and *T. mauritanica* ($B_I = 0$). These niche breadth values were not associated 299 with respective sample sizes for each species (r = 0.462, n = 7, P = 0.297), but were significantly dependent on the relative body size of each species (r = 0.857, $r^2 = 0.734$, n = 7, P = 0.0018). The 300 301 niche breadth values, by category of individuals within each species, are given in Table 3. Pooling 302 the various species, males had on average niche breadth values similar to females ($x = 0.31 \pm 0.08$ 303 versus 0.29±0.25), so it may concluded that species body size, and not the sex, significantly 304 influenced the habitat niche breadth of these lizards. Overall, the null hypothesis 2 of larger species 305 have no wider niche breath was rejected, thus, hypothesis 2 was supported by our field data. The

306 niche breadth values did not vary by seasons (in all cases, P > 0.05), and are, therefore, not further 307 presented here.

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311 Hypothesis 3: the slower species inhabit the most covered habitat types

At our study areas, the frequency of occurrence of the various species in the two habitats with densest vegetation (*Rubus* and *Smilax*) differed significantly from equality (observed-versusexpected $\chi^2 = 136.8$, df = 6, P < 0.0001), with the slowest/most criptically coloured species (*A. veronensis*) being observed in these two habitats much more frequently (50% of the cases) than any other species (in descending order: *P. muralis* 38%, *L. bilineata* 28%, *P. sicula* 10.4%, *C. chalcides* 1.5%, *T. mauritanica* and *H. turcicus* 0%). Overall, our data rejected null hypothesis 3 of no impact of species' speed, thus, supporting the hypothesis 3.

319

320 Hypothesis 4: the species inhabiting open sunny habitats exhibit more seasonally variable activity
321 patterns

322 The percentage of individuals observed by season, for each of the study species, are given in 323 Figure 3. Contingency table analysis revealed that there were significant differences among species $(\chi^2 = 1262, df = 24, P < 0.0001)$, with L. bilineata and C. chalcides being mostly observed in the 324 springtime and the two *Podarcis* species more regularly throughout the year. If we consider the 325 326 species that occurred more frequently in the most open-sunny habitat (open grasslands) versus those 327 that occurred more frequently in the most covered habitats (i.e., C. chalcides versus A. veronensis), there were significant differences ($\chi^2 = 135.7$, df = 2, P < 0.0001), with the former species showing 328 329 a strong seasonality (peak of activity during springtime; sequential $\chi^2 = 274.8$, df = 2, P < 0.0001) and the latter showing no significant seasonality in its activity patterns ($\chi^2 = 4.6$, df = 2, P = 0.148) 330

331 (Figure 3). Thus, the null hypothesis of no impact of sunnyness was rejected, thus supporting our332 hypothesis 4.

333

334 Discussion

335 General considerations

336 The studied lizard assemblages were characterized by a clear prevalence (over 90%) of 337 Lacertidae species in terms of frequency of observed individuals: the two species of Podarcis were 338 the most common, followed by L. bilineata, which is also the largest bodied of the seven saurians species present. Among the non-Lacertidae species, only C. chalcides were recorded frequently, 339 340 while the remaining three species were clearly more rarely observed. These general frequency differences among lizard families mirror previous data from Mediterranean communities (e.g., 341 Rugiero 2004; Santos and Poquet 2010), that are often inhabited by a remarkable variety of 342 343 sympatric Lacertidae (Pérez Mellado 1982; Zakkak et al. 2015). The nMDS analysis showed that two clear groups of species were recognizable: one group of "open" areas, consisting of C. 344 345 chalcides, P. sicula and L. bilineata juveniles, and one group of "close vegetation" consisting of P. 346 muralis and A. veronensis, with the other species being not clearly assignable to any of these two 347 well-defined groups of taxa. This result appears to mirror the known habitat characteristics that 348 have been described for these species (e.g., Corti et al. 2011), however this is not sufficient per se to 349 define whether the various species co-occurrences in the various habitats were determined 350 essentially by ecological constraints ("bauplan" characteristics mediated by climatic and structural 351 factors sensu Arnold 1987) or by interspecific relationships (niche partitioning, e.g., Luiselli 2008). 352 However, the four hypotheses tested in the present paper allow us to make some inferences on the 353 reasons behind the observed habitat use patterns by species at the study areas in Mediterranean 354 central Italy.

355

356 *Testing the four hypotheses*

357 In our first hypothesis, we predicted that habitat niche overlap between species with the 358 same bauplans should be significantly lower than the overlaps between species of different bauplan 359 groups. Thus, we hypothesized that species with a same bauplan would have non-randomly 360 partitioned the habitat types. We found no consistent support for either of these predictions, indeed, 361 patterns of habitat use overlap were not associated with bauplan. In Anolis lizards, species that use 362 similar habitats tend to evolve similar body plans (i.e., ecomorphological convergence, Williams 363 1983; Losos et al. 1998). In cases where species with similar body plans overlap in habitat use, they 364 may partition resources in other ways, such as temporally or along other resource axes (Luiselli 365 2008). Thus, our observations of a central Italian lizard community are not similar to those of 366 Anolis lizards, perhaps because many tropical communities have higher species richness and competition can be quite intense (e.g., on small islands, Calsbeek and Cox 2010). 367

368

369 Concerning hypothesis 2, the wider habitat niche breadth of the largest bodied species (L. 370 *bilineata*) is interesting because in this species we detected a significant diversification of habitat 371 use in relation to age. The strong propensity of juveniles to use open environments, which led them 372 to be classified in the group also consisting of *P. sicula* and *C. chalcides*, changes ontogenetically, 373 with adults being significantly more generalized (Rugiero et al. 2021). This is a further confirmation 374 that it is the body size, and not other ecological characteristics, that is strongly associated with the 375 wider habitat niche breadth of this species. Furthermore, habitat niche breadth was nearly identical in 1-2 years-old juvenile L. bilineata population cohorts in comparison to similarly-sized lizards of 376 377 other species. Intraspecific competition avoidance and cannibalism appear to be the main reasons 378 pushing juveniles to minimize habitat overlap with adults in the large-sized L. bilineata at these 379 study areas (Rugiero et al. 2021). The same pattern was also recorded from Anolis lizards, with 380 adult male density having significant effects on juvenile perch height, perch width, and substrate 381 use, thus suggesting that strong age-class competition may contribute to the ontogenetic differences 382 in habitat choice (Delaney and Warner 2017a, 2017b).

383

Our third hypothesis, that lizard species with slower movements and cryptic colouration would inhabit more closed habitats, was supported in that *Anguis veronensis* was observed in the two habitat types with the densest vegetations significantly more frequently than was any other species. However, the patterns of dense habitat use for other lizard species did not indicate decreasing movement speeed and crypticity. It is possible that this relationship is non-linear, and the benefits of dense vegetation are outweighed by other factors for lizards of a threshold movement speed sand/or crypticity.

391

392 Our fourth hypothesis was also related to vegetation density; we predicted that lizard species that use habitats with denser vegetation would show more temporally consistent, unseasonal 393 394 activity, whereas those that use more open habitats would exhibit more seasonally variable activity. 395 We found that lizard species that occurred primarily in open habitat had distinct seasonal activity 396 peaks, while those that occurred primarily in densely vegetated habitats had unseasonal activity 397 patterns. This interesting result should be examined more fully with detailed studies of energy 398 budgets and metabolic rates because these dramatic differences in behaviour associated with 399 adjacent habitats could have important life history implications.

400

401 Our data supported three of the four hypotheses of our study, with the niche 402 complementarity hypothesis being clearly rejected by our study. The niche complementarity 403 hypothesis was the only one that involved interspecific relationships as a causal factor for its 404 acceptance, given that, under its assumptions, the habitat differences between species with a same 405 bauplan should be due to the need to minimize interspecific competition (Schoener 1974). On the 406 other hand, the other three hypotheses are based on size-related autecological exigencies 407 (hypothesis 2), morphological constraints and physical performance (hypothesis 3), and eco-408 physiological constraints (hypothesis 4). Therefore, we think that these lizard communities are more

409 clearly organized by autecological constraints and eco-physiological attributes, whereas the 410 interspecific interactions produced apparent patterns of habitat niche divergences that are unlikely 411 due to interspecific competition and the ghost-of-the-competition-past (Connell 1980; Alatalo and 412 Lundberg 1983; Cressman and Křivan 2013; Bottin et al. 2016). This general conclusion was also confirmed by our null model analyses, that did not provide any evidence for a competitively-413 414 structured assemblage of species under any of the randomization algorithms (Lawlor 1980) that we 415 used and that have been shown elsewhere to be powerful tools for detecting structure signs of nonrandom niche partitioning in biotic communities (e.g., Gotelli and Graves 1996; Solida et al. 416 417 2011; Vignoli and Luiselli 2012). Nonetheless, our data cannot give firm conclusions on this issue, 418 as we would need to examine habitat use in sites with and without competitors to examine variation 419 in habitat use in absence of potential competition.

420

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- 582

21

- 584 **Table 1**. Synthesis of the number of lizard species observed at the study area by habitat type and by individual category (male, female or juvenile).
- 585 Data from all seasons are pooled.

Genus	Species	Category	Symbol	Rubus	Cytisus	Spartium	grassland	stony walls	Smilax aspera	TOTAL
Podarcis	sicula	males	PsM	51	77	13	369	114	41	665
Podarcis	sicula	females	PsF	39	73	22	401	133	28	696
Podarcis	sicula	juveniles	PsJ	7	17	8	211	91	11	345
Podarcis	muralis	males	PmM	598	233	189	31	916	176	2143
Podarcis	muralis	females	PmF	668	321	273	9	894	203	2165
Podarcis	muralis	juveniles	PmJ	133	16	4	5	231	11	400
Chalcides	chalcides		Cc	6	41	33	311	3	0	394
Anguis	veronensis	males	AvM	1	0	0	0	2	1	4
Anguis	veronensis	females	AvF	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
Anguis	veronensis	juveniles	AvJ	2	1	0	0	2	0	5
Tarentola	mauritanica		Tm	0	0	0	0	31	0	31
Hemidactylus	turcicus		Ht	0	0	0	3	8	0	11
Lacerta	bilineata	males	LbM	51	18	10	10	22	7	118

	\mathbf{a}	
Z	2	

Lacerta	bilineata	females	LbF	34	22	14	20	16	11	117
Lacerta	bilineata	juveniles	LbJ	7	9	12	111	22	1	162
HABITAT TYPE AV	AILABILITY (%)		Availability	20.69	16.73	15.41	16.87	17.54	12.75	

23

588 **Table 2.** Testing the "niche complementarity" hypothesis using habitat niche overlap simulation 589 analysis for lizards at the study area in central Italy. The used algorithms were Lawlor's (1980) 590 RA2, RA3 and RA4 algorithms, after 30,000 Monte Carlo simulations. These simulations were 591 done from data of all seasons being pooled.

592

	RA2	RA3	RA4
Observed mean Overlap	0.53870	0.53870	0.53870
Mean simulated Overlap	0.57851	0.42382	0.76684
Variance simulated Overlap	0.00095	0.00053	0.00092
Standardized Effect Size	-1.29004	5.01184	-7.50843
Random seed	-1645502148	-1800479482	-1525427312
$p(observed \le expected)$	0.10400	0.99999	0.00001
$p(observed \ge expected)$	0.89600	0.00001	0.99999
Observed variance	0.09309	0.09309	0.09309
Mean of simulated variances	0.06089	0.07930	0.01587
Variance of simulated variances	0.00006	0.00004	0.00002
$p(observed \le expected)$	1.00000	0.97000	0.99999
$p(observed \ge expected)$	0.00000	0.03000	0.00001

593

595 **Table 3.** Testing the hypothesis that larger species should have wider niche breadth using the values 596 of habitat niche breadth, calculated for each individual category of the various species, at the study 597 area in central Italy. Data from all seasons are pooled. $B_S = Simpson's$ formula; $B_L = Levins'$ 598 formula.

599

Genus	Species	Category	B_S	B _L
Podarcis	sicula	males	2.77	0.25
Podarcis	sicula	females	2.60	0.23
Podarcis	sicula	juveniles	2.23	0.18
Podarcis	muralis	males	3.48	0.35
Podarcis	muralis	females	3.20	0.31
Podarcis	muralis	juveniles	2.24	0.18
Chalcides	chalcides		1.56	0.08
Anguis	veronensis	males	2.67	0.24
Anguis	veronensis	females	1.00	0.00
Anguis	veronensis	juveniles	2.78	0.25
Tarentola	mauritanica		1.00	0.00
Hemidactylus	turcicus		1.66	0.09
Lacerta	bilineata	males	3.81	0.40
Lacerta	bilineata	females	5.24	0.61
Lacerta	bilineata	juveniles	2.01	0.14

600

Figure 1. Some of the habitat types at the study area, during the early spring: (a) *Rubus*; (b)
grassland; (c) and (d) two types of stony walls

604

Figure 2. Scatter plot of a non-metric multidimensional scaling (nMDS), using the cosine distance, graphically representing the resemblance matrix between lizard individuals and in relation to the habitat availability. Shown are the centroids of clusters of lizard individuals by sex, age class and species and of habitat availability. Data from all seasons are pooled. Symbols: Cc = Chalcides*chalcides*; Av = Anguis veronensis; Ht = Hemidactylus turcicus; <math>Lb = Lacerta bilineata; Pm =*Podarcis muralis*; Ps = Podarcis sicula; Tm = Tarentola mauritanica; <math>M = males; F = females; J =juveniles; Availability = habitat availability.

612

Figure 3. Testing the hypothesis that species inhabiting open sunny habitats should exhibit more seasonally variable activity patterns using the percent of lizard individuals observed by season at the study area in central Italy. Symbols: Cc = Chalcides chalcides (n = 394); Av = Anguis veronensis (n = 10); Ht = Hemidactylus turcicus (n = 11); LB = Lacerta bilineata (n = 397); Pm = Podarcis muralis (n = 4708); Ps = Podarcis sicula (n = 1706); Tm = Tarentola mauritanica (n = 28); M = males; F = females; J = juveniles

620 Figure 1



622 Figure 2



625 Figure 3

