Life history-Evolution in rezenten Reptilien (Reptilia, Laurenti 1768) und Amphibien (Lissamphibia, Haeckel 1866): Allometrische Zusammenhänge, evolutionäre Zwänge und Life history-Invarianten

Dissertation

Zur Erlangung des Grades

Doktor der Naturwissenschaften

Am Fachbereich Biologie

Der Johannes Gutenberg-Universität in Mainz

Konstantin Hallmann geboren am 19.01.1981 in Hadamar

Mainz, 2016

Amtierender Dekan:

Erster Berichterstatter:

Zweiter Berichterstatter:

Tag der mündlichen Prüfung: 16.12.2016

Eine modifizierte Version von Kapitel 3 wurde im Open Access Journal "PLOS ONE" publiziert.

2015. Eggshell Types and Their Evolutionary Correlation with Life-History Strategies in Squamates. *PLoS One* **10**: e0138785. 10.1371/journal.pone.0138785.

Eine modifizierte Version des Kapitels 4 wurde beim Journal "Evolutionary Ecology" eingereicht, begutachtet und befindet sich in der Überarbeitung (major revision). (in Vorbereitung). Allometric relationships of reptiles' life history traits and new insights into the phylogenetic position of the tuatara (*Sphenodon punctatus*) from its life history.

Eine modifizierte Version von Kapitel 5 wurde bei der Zeitschrift "Journal of Evolutionary Biology" eingereicht, begutachtet und befindet sich in Überarbeitung für Wiedervorlage (reject with resubmission allowed).

(in Vorbereitung). Identifying life history invariants of amphibians and reptiles resulting from different body mass ranges in a semi-aquatic or terrestrial environment.

"Why study life histories? Life histories lie at the heart of biology; no other field brings you closer to the underlying simplicities that unite and explain the diversity of living things and the complexities of their life cycles. (...) Life history theory is needed to understand the action of natural selection, a central element of evolution, the only theory that makes sense of all of biology."

Stephen C. Stearns in *The Evolution of Life Histories* (1992)

Inhaltsverzeichnis

| 1 | Zus | sammenfassung8 | | | | | | |
|--------------|------------------------|---|--|-----------|--|--|--|--|
| 2 | Allg | Allgemeine Einleitung | | | | | | |
| | 2.1 | Life h | <i>nistory</i> -Evolution | 11 | | | | |
| | 2.2 | Phylo | ogenetisches Signal | 16 | | | | |
| | 2.3 | Allom | ometrien20 | | | | | |
| | 2.4 | Life h | nistory-Invarianten | 25 | | | | |
| | 2.5 | Beso | nderheiten rezenter Reptilien und Amphibien für Life history-Analysen | 28 | | | | |
| | 2.6 | Ziele | der Arbeit | 33 | | | | |
| 3 | Egg | gshell i | types and their evolutionary correlation with life-history strategies in squamate | es 36 | | | | |
| | 3.1 | Abstr | act | 36 | | | | |
| | 3.2 | Introd | duction | 36 | | | | |
| | 3.3 | Mate | rial & Methods | 40 | | | | |
| | 3. | 3.1 | Life-history data | 40 | | | | |
| | 3. | 3.2 | Classification of eggshell types | 42 | | | | |
| | 3. | 3.3 | Data analyses | 43 | | | | |
| | 3. | 3.4 | Phylogenetic signal | 43 | | | | |
| | 3. | 3.5 | Methods for classification and ordination: cluster analysis and phylogenetic principal component analysis (pPCA) | 45 | | | | |
| | 3.4 | Resu | lts | 47 | | | | |
| | 3. | 4.1 | Phylogenetic signal | 47 | | | | |
| | 3. | 4.2 | Identification of life-history strategies with PCA and cluster analysis | 49 | | | | |
| | 3.5 | Discu | ussion | 55 | | | | |
| | 3. | 5.1 | Phylogenetic signals of eggshell types and life-history traits | 55 | | | | |
| | 3. | 5.2 | Relation between eggshell types and life-history traits and the influence of b mass | ody 57 | | | | |
| 4 | Allo pos | Allometric relationships of reptiles' life history traits and new insights into the phylogenetic position of the tuatara (<i>Sphenodon punctatus</i>) from its life history63 | | | | | | |
| 4.1 Abstract | | act | 63 | | | | | |
| | 4.2 | 4.2 Introduction | | | | | | |
| | 4.3 Material & Methods | | | | | | | |
| | 4. | 3.1 | Data collection | 66 | | | | |
| | 4. | 3.2 | Data analyses | 69 | | | | |
| | 4.4 | Resu | lts | 74 | | | | |

| | 4. | 4.1 | Allometric relationships of life history traits within the reptiles | 74 | | | |
|--------------------------|---|--|--|------|--|--|--|
| | 4. | 4.2 | Comparison of life history allometries between reptiles, mammals and birds . | 77 | | | |
| | 4. | 4.3 | The phylogenetic position of the order Rhynchocephalia (the tuatara, <i>S. punctatus</i>) within the reptiles based on its life history | 79 | | | |
| | 4.5 | Discu | ission | 80 | | | |
| | 4.5.1 | | Allometric relationships of life history traits within the reptiles | 80 | | | |
| | 4.5.2 | | Comparison of life history allometries between reptiles, mammals and birds . | 84 | | | |
| | 4. | 5.3 | Fast-slow continuum of life history traits of reptiles | 86 | | | |
| | 4.5.4 | | The phylogenetic position of the order Rhynchocephalia (the tuatara, <i>S. punctatus</i>) within the reptiles based on its life history | 86 | | | |
| 5 | Identifying life history invariants of amphibians and reptiles resulting from different body mass ranges in a semi-aquatic or terrestrial environment | | | | | | |
| | 5.1 Abstra | | act | 88 | | | |
| | 5.2 | 2 Introduction | | | | | |
| | 5.3 | Mate | rial & Methods | 92 | | | |
| | 5. | 3.1 | Data collection | 92 | | | |
| | 5. | 3.2 | Data analysis | 93 | | | |
| | 5.4 | Resu | lts | 96 | | | |
| | 5. | 4.1 | Invariance of life history traits in amphibians | 96 | | | |
| | 5. | 4.2 | Invariance of life history traits in reptiles | .112 | | | |
| | 5.5 | Discu | ission | .113 | | | |
| | 5. | 5.1 | Invariances in amphibian and reptilian life history traits | .113 | | | |
| | 5.5.2 | | Usability of the five criteria to identify invariant life history traits | .115 | | | |
| 6 | Allgemeine Diskussion11 | | | | | | |
| | 6.1 | 1 Bedeutung von phylogenetischen und physiologischen Zwängen für die Life histor Strategien von Reptilien (Squamata) | | | | | |
| | 6.2 | Bedeutung von allometrischen Zwängen (unter besonderer Berücksichtigung der Phylogenie) für die Life history-Strategien von Reptilien | | | | | |
| | 6.3 | Invarianzen in <i>Life history</i> -Merkmalen von semi-aquatischen Amphibien und terrestrischen Reptilien13 | | | | | |
| 7 | Sch | Igerung und Ausblick | .139 | | | | |
| 8 | Lite | eratur . | | .143 | | | |
| 9 | Anhang | | | | | | |
| | 9.1 | 1 Appendix A (Kapitel 3) | | | | | |
| | 9.2 | 2 Appendix B (Kapitel 4) | | | | | |
| | 9.3 Appendix C (Kapitel 5) | | ndix C (Kapitel 5) | .209 | | | |
| 10 Abbildungsverzeichnis | | | | | | | |
| 1. | 11 Tabellenverzeichnis | | | | | | |

| Danksagung | 237 |
|------------------|-----|
| Curriculum vitae | 238 |

1 Zusammenfassung

Die Diversität des Lebens ist das zentrale Thema der Biologie und lässt sich nicht nur bei der Größe, der Physiologie und der äußeren Erscheinung eines Lebewesens erkennen sondern auch bei dessen Lebenslauf bzw. Lebenszyklusstrategie (*Life history*). Die *Life history* beschreibt das lebenslange Muster von Wachstum, Reproduktion und Überleben eines Organismus, wobei die möglichen Variationen einer *Life history* durch verschiedene Zwänge begrenzt werden. In meiner Arbeit habe ich mich mit dem Einfluss von Körpergröße (allometrischer Zwang), Verwandtschaftsgrad zwischen Arten (phylogenetischer Zwang) und Physiologie (physiologischer Zwang) auf *Life history*-Merkmale von Amphibien und vor allem Reptilien (Krokodile, Schildkröten, Squamaten, Brückenechsen) beschäftigt. Alle Untersuchungen basierten dabei auf einem von mir zuvor erhobenen umfangreichen Datensatz für eine Vielzahl an *Life history*-Merkmalen von 86 Amphibien- und 756 Reptilienarten.

Eine kürzlich veröffentlichte Studie konnte bereits zeigen, dass Life history-Strategien einiger eierlegender Eidechsenarten durch Ausprägungen ihrer Eischale beeinflusst werden (Pike et al. 2012). Die Eischale ist eine wichtige physiologische Struktur für einen sich entwickelnden Embryo, da sie den Gasaustausch erlaubt, physikalischen Schutz bietet und als Calciumreserve dienen kann. Um zu überprüfen, ob dieser physiologische Zwang in Form der Eischale auch generell einen Einfluss auf Life history-Strategien von Squamaten (Eidechsen, Schlangen, Doppelschleichen) hat, habe ich zunächst die Stärke des phylogenetischen Signals von Eischalen und sechs weiterer Life history-Merkmale bestimmt, um die Wirkung phylogenetischer Zwänge auf die Life history-Strategien zu untersuchen. Vier von sechs Life history-Merkmalen zeigten ein deutliches phylogenetisches Signal (Geburtsgröße, Gelegegröße, Gelege pro Jahr, Alter bei Geschlechtsreife), während zwei Merkmale (Inkubationszeit, max. Lebensdauer) nur ein schwaches Signal besaßen. Auf Grund dieser Ergebnisse habe ich dann phylogenetische Hauptkomponentenanalysen (pPCA) verwendet, um Assoziationen zwischen Life history-Strategien und Eischaltypen zu identifizieren. Die Ergebnisse der pPCA ließen eine Assoziation von Life history-Strategien und Eischaltypen bei den Squamaten erkennen, welche in den Analysen nach Berücksichtigung des mittleren Adultgewichts der untersuchten Arten verschwand.

Eischaltypen korrelieren somit mit verschiedenen *Life history*-Strategien und reflektieren hauptsächlich Unterschiede bei den Adultgewichten der Arten, welche phylogenetisch verwandt sind.

Der gefundene Einfluss des Adultgewichts bzw. der Körpermasse (Skalierung) auf Life history-Merkmale ist vor allem bei Säugetieren und Vögeln hinreichend Über die Bedeutung allometrischer Zwänge untersucht worden. bei der paraphyletischen Gruppe der Reptilien insbesondere der Krokodile, Schildkröten und der Brückenechse (Sphenodon punctatus) ist deutlich weniger bekannt. Aus diesem Grund habe ich phylogenetische Regressionmodelle erstellt, um die allometrische Skalierung von neun Life history-Merkmalen (Alter und Größe bei Geschlechtsreife, Geburtsgröße und Geburtsgewicht, Gelegegröße und Gelege pro Jahr, Eigewicht, Inkubationszeit, maximale Lebensdauer) der Reptilien bzw. Reptilienordnungen zu untersuchen, wobei die phylogenetische Kontrolle eine Untersuchung der Bedeutung des phylogenetischen Zwangs für die Life history-Merkmale erlaubte. Innerhalb der Squamaten bzw. zwischen den Reptilienordnungen zeigten sich keine größeren Unterschiede bei der allometrischen Skalierung von Life history-Merkmalen. Auch gab es keine größeren Unterschiede zwischen Allometrien mit und ohne Berücksichtigung der Phylogenie.

Im Vergleich der Reptilien mit Vögeln und Säugetieren zeigten sich Ähnlichkeiten bei zeitbezogenen Merkmalen (Alter bei der Geschlechtsreife, max. Lebensdauer) und Unterschiede bei Reproduktionsmerkmalen (Gelegegröße, Inkubations- bzw. Tragezeit). Diese entgegengesetzten Assoziationen der *Life history*-Merkmale der Reptilien im Vergleich zu den Säugetieren stellen die Hypothese in Frage, dass die *Life history*-Strategien der Reptilien dem Schema des "fast-slow"-Kontinuums der Säugetiere (Stearns 1983) entsprechen.

Nicht alle *Life history*-Merkmale (Inkubationszeit, Gelege pro Jahr) der Reptilien zeigten einen Zusammenhang mit dem Adultgewicht bzw. der Körpermasse. Solche von Veränderungen der Körpermasse unabhängigen *Life history*-Merkmale werden Invarianten genannt. Diese *Life history*-Invarianten erlauben tiefere Einsichten in die Evolution von *Life history*-Strategien zwischen höheren taxonomischen Gruppen wie den semi-aquatischen Amphibien und den terrestrischen Reptilien. In einer aktuellen Studie (Price et al. 2014) wurden mehrere Kriterien für die Invarianz eines *Life history*-Merkmals vorgeschlagen. Ein entscheidendes Kriterium ist dabei die Relation zwischen der Variabilität der *Life history*-Merkmale und der Variabilität der

Körpermasse. Bei einem invarianten Merkmal ist die Variabilität dieses Life history-Merkmals kleiner als die Variabilität der Körpermasse einer Art. Auf Grundlage meiner bisherigen Ergebnisse und der Tatsache, dass Reptilien ein größeres Körpermassenspektrum als Amphibien aufweisen, erwartete ich mehr Invarianten für die Amphibien als für die Reptilien zu finden. In meiner Studie konnte ich tatsächlich einige Invarianten für die Amphibien aber keine für die Reptilien identifizieren. Dies bestätigt, dass Life history-Merkmale der terrestrischen Reptilien in großem Maße durch ihre Körpermasse bestimmt werden. Sowohl die Larvalstadien als auch die Adultstadien der Amphibien besitzen hingegen Charakteristika, welche invariant gegenüber der Körpermasse sind und nicht durch die Höhenverbreitung, das Nutzen spezifischer Habitattypen oder der Präsenz oder Absenz von Brutpflege erklärt werden können. Die Invarianz bei den Life history-Merkmalen der Amphibien scheint eine direkte Konsequenz ihres komplexen, biphasischen Lebenszyklus und ihrer Mikrohabitatnutzung in einer semi-aguatischen Umwelt zu sein, verursacht durch ökologische Zwänge. Die Berücksichtigung der Phylogenie hatte weder bei den Amphibien noch bei den Reptilien einen größeren Einfluss auf das Auftreten von Invarianz bei *Life history*-Merkmalen.

In meiner Arbeit konnte ich somit zeigen, dass allometrische, phylogenetische und physiologische Zwänge eine unterschiedliche Bedeutung für *Life history*–Merkmale von Amphibien und Reptilien haben. Die Körpermasse ist vor allem für die Reptilien von Bedeutung und Ausprägungen dieser sind phylogenetisch verwandt. Die Existenz von *Life history*-Invarianten bei den Amphibien bestätigte hingegen die vermutete, geringere Bedeutung von allometrischen Zwängen für die *Life history*-Merkmale von Amphibien und wies vielmehr auf das Wirken von ökologischen Zwängen hin. Auch konnte Charnovs (1993) Hypothese bestätigt werden, dass phylogenetische Zusammenhänge bei Betrachtungen von Invarianz vernachlässigbar sind.

2 Allgemeine Einleitung

2.1 Life history-Evolution

Es gibt viele verschiedene Typen von Organismen in der Welt. Sie unterscheiden sich in ihrer Größe, Physiologie, Erscheinung und ihrem Lebenslauf bzw. ihrer Lebenszyklusstrategie (*Life history;* Roff, 1992).

Die Life history eines Organismus beschreibt dessen lebenslanges Muster an Wachstum, Reproduktion und Überleben (Begon et al. 2006). Der grundsätzliche Ablauf jeder Life history besteht aus einer juvenilen Phase, die durch Wachstum dominiert ist, einer reproduktiven Phase und schließlich einer postreproduktiven Phase bei der alle Ressourcen für das Überleben aufgewendet werden (Abbildung 2.1). Life history-Variation entsteht dabei durch Abwandlungen dieses grundlegenden Schemas, was zu einer großen Diversität an Life history-Strategien in der Natur geführt hat. Die treibende Kraft für die unzähligen Variationen an Life history-Strategien ist die natürliche Selektion (Roff 1992). Darwin (1859) bezeichnete die Erhaltung von günstigen Variationen und die Verwerfung von schädlichen Variationen als natürliche Selektion. Eine günstige Variation würde dabei zu einem Vorteil an individueller Fitness gegenüber anderen Organismen führen (Darwin 1859). Obwohl man sich auf keine allgemeine Definition für Fitness einigen konnte (Murray Jr 1990), beschreibt die Fitness im Allgemeinen den individuellen Reproduktionserfolg. Dies impliziert, dass es Unterschiede in der Fitness zwischen Individuen geben muss. Bezogen auf die Life history ist Fitness ein zusammengesetztes, relatives Maß aus Geburts- und Todesraten (Begon et al. 2006).

Es gibt einige wichtige *Life history*-Merkmale, welche mit der Reproduktion und dem Überleben verbunden sind: z.B. Größe bei der Geburt, Wachstumsmuster, Alter und Größe bei der Geschlechtsreife, Anzahl und Größe der Nachkommen oder die Lebensdauer (Roff 1992; Stearns 1992; Roff 2002). Das Alter bei der Geschlechtsreife ist besonders wichtig, da es das primäre Ziel eines jeden Organismus ist sich zu reproduzieren und dies stellt die erste Entscheidung dar, die ein Organismus in Bezug auf seine Reproduktion treffen muss. Die *Life history*-Theorie beschäftigt sich mit individuellen *Life history*-Merkmalen und ihren

Ausprägungen, aber auch mit Verbindungen zwischen *Life history*-Merkmalen und Verknüpfungen zwischen *Life history*-Strategien und Habitaten. Darüber hinaus beschäftigt sich die *Life history*-Theorie mit der Analyse von Ursachen für Fitnessunterschiede zwischen *Life history*-Varianten (Stearns 1992) und wie Komponenten der *Life history* interagieren (Roff 1992). *Life history*-Strategien werden nicht durch die Ausprägung eines einzelnen *Life history*-Merkmals geformt sondern vielmehr durch die Kombination einer ganzen Reihe an *Life history*-Merkmalen und ihren Ausprägungen. Ohne jegliche Begrenzungen würde eine optimale *Life history* eine sofortige Fortpflanzung nach der Geburt, ein unendliches Leben und die Produktion einer unbegrenzten Menge an Nachkommen favorisieren (Roff 2002).



Abbildung 2.1 Aufbau einer Lebenszyklusstrategie (*Life history*) eines unitären Organismus. Die horizontale Achse stellt den zeitlichen Ablauf dar und beschreibt wichtige Phasen und Zeitpunkte im Leben eines Organismus, welche mit bestimmten *Life history*-Merkmalen assoziiert sind. Eine zweite Wachstumsphase gibt es nur bei Organismen, die unbegrenzt wachsen (z.B. Amphibien oder Reptilien). Die vertikale Achse beschreibt die Reproduktionsleistung des Organismus und gibt indirekt Aufschluss über die Verteilung von Ressourcen. Abbildung modifiziert nach Begon, Townsend und Harper (2006).

Tatsächlich stellt die *Life history* einen Kompromiss bezüglich der Allokation von verfügbaren Ressourcen dar, da bereits für ein Merkmal verwendete Ressourcen nicht mehr für ein anderes zur Verfügung stehen. Diese negative Beziehung zwischen zwei *Life history*-Merkmalen bei der als Resultat eines solchen Kompromisses der Zuwachs in dem einen assoziiert ist mit der Abnahme in dem

anderen Merkmal wird "trade-off" genannt (Roff 2002). Trade-offs haben sowohl eine genetische als auch eine phänotypische Komponente und können in zwei Typen unterteilt werden, wobei beim ersten Typ wichtige *Life history*-Merkmale involviert sind und beim zweiten Typ Merkmale, welche indirekt auf Komponenten der Fitness wirken, wie z.B. die Körpergröße (Roff 2002). Wichtige trade-offs spiegeln sich in den Kosten der Reproduktion und der Anzahl und Fitness der Nachkommen wider. Die Idee, dass Merkmalskombinationen durch trade-offs zwischen Merkmalen beschränkt werden und dass einige Maße der Fitness durch natürliche Selektion maximiert werden, sind die zwei zentralen Konzepte der *Life history*-Theorie (Roff 1992).

Es gibt weitere Zwänge, welche die Ausprägungen von Merkmalen limitieren und somit mögliche Life history-Strategien einschränken. Das Leben eines jeden Organismus wird begrenzt durch seine genetische Architektur, seine Stammesgeschichte, biophysikalische und biomechanische Faktoren und seinen Lebensstil. Konsequenterweise unterschied Roff (1992) zwischen fünf verschiedenen Typen von Zwängen, die er als genetische, phylogenetische, physiologische, mechanische und ökologische Zwänge klassifizierte. Ein Beispiel für Letztere findet sich bei ektothermen Tieren (wechselwarme Tiere, z.B. Eidechsen oder Schlangen), wo die Temperatur der Umwelt die Zeit und den Ort der Nahrungssuche bestimmen kann (Congdon 1989). Ökologische Zwänge sind somit ein Resultat der spezifischen Umwelt in der ein Organismus lebt. Genetische Zwänge basieren auf der Annahme, dass Life history-Merkmale eine kontinuierliche Variation aufweisen. Dies hängt mit der großen Anzahl an Genen, anstelle eines einzelnen Gens, zusammen, welche additiv wirken und ein kontinuierliches Spektrum an Phänotypen hervorbringen (Stearns 1992).

Im Gegensatz dazu sind physiologische Zwänge ein Resultat von internen Prozessen, welche in einem Organismus ablaufen, wie die metabolische Rate in endothermen Tieren (gleichwarme Tiere, z.B. Säugetiere oder Vögel), welche sich mit abnehmender Körpergröße beträchtlich erhöht (Peters 1983; Schmidt-Nielsen 1984; Brown et al. 2004). Ein weiteres Beispiel ist die Struktur der Eischale von oviparen (eierlegenden) Arten, welcher man einen Einfluss auf *Life history*-Strategien von bestimmten Geckoarten unterstellt (Pike et al. 2012).

Ein mechanischer Zwang ist ein sehr allgemeiner Faktor und definiert einen groben Rahmen für das Design eines Tieres wie z.B. der Einfluss von Gravitation, was zu einem schwereren Skelett von terrestrischen Arten im Vergleich mit aquatischen Arten geführt hat (Schmidt-Nielsen 1984). *Life history*-Strategien, welche durch die natürliche Selektion favorisiert wurden, entstammen nicht einem Pool an unendlichen Möglichkeiten sondern sind vielmehr begrenzt durch die taxonomische Position oder den phylogenetischen Hintergrund des spezifischen Organismus. Ein Element des phylogenetischen Zwangs ist das der Größe. Spezifische Gruppen von Organismen sind festgelegt auf spezifische Größenbereiche. Eine Maus kann beispielsweise niemals bis zur Größe eines Elefanten wachsen und ein Elefant wird niemals so klein wie eine Maus sein. Basierend auf der Tatsache, dass die Körpergröße einem phylogenetischen Zwang unterliegt, könnte dies auch für andere *Life history*-Merkmale zutreffend sein (z.B. das Alter bei der Geschlechtsreife ist stark korreliert mit der Körpergröße).

Es existieren verschiedene Ansätze für die Analyse der Evolution von Life history-Merkmalen: der genetische Ansatz, der Optimierungsansatz und die komparative Methode, welche hier hauptsächlich diskutiert werden soll und auch in meiner Arbeit Anwendung fand. Der genetische Ansatz beinhaltet die Verwendung von quantitativen, genetischen Methoden für die Analyse von Life history-Variation und ist ernsthaft betroffen von technischen Schwierigkeiten bei der experimentellen Messung relevanter Parameter, was zu vereinfachten Annahmen bezüglich der genetischen Architektur der untersuchten Merkmale führen kann (Roff 1992). Im Gegensatz dazu zielt der Optimierungsansatz (optimisation/optimality approach) auf die verschiedenen Merkmalskombinationen ab, welche trade-offs zwischen den Life history-Merkmalen erlauben. Eine Kombination wird im Bezug zur Fitness besser sein als eine andere und somit wird die natürliche Selektion genau diese Merkmalskombination, welche die Fitness maximiert, favorisieren. Beim Prinzip der Optimierung muss ein mathematisches Modell formuliert werden, welches gegen einen realen Datensatz getestet werden kann. Viele komparative Tests basieren auf Optimierungsansatz-Modellen und komplettieren die Ergebnisse von experimentellen Beobachtungen.

Besondere Bedeutung hat die komparative Methode, welche bis zu den Zeiten von Darwin (1859, 1871) zurückreicht und dessen hauptsächlichen Ansatz darstellte, um die Diversität des Lebens zu erklären. Seit Darwin ist es generell akzeptiert, dass man für die Adaptation von Merkmalen die natürliche Selektion verantwortlich macht. Nichtsdestotrotz transformierte die Berücksichtigung der phylogenetischen Verwandtschaft zwischen Arten (Felsenstein 1985) die komparative Methode, was auch Harvey und Pagel (1991) in einem grundlegenden Buch ausführlich beschrieben haben. Die Autoren sind der Meinung, dass der innovativste Aspekt dieser Methode darin bestand, dass mathematische Modelle nun auf expliziten evolutionären und statistischen Modellen beruhten. Frühere komparative Studien hatten das grundlegende Problem, dass der Einfluss der Phylogenie ignoriert wurde, was zur Inflation an Freiheitsgraden und damit zu fehlerhaften Annahmen in statistischen Tests führen konnte. Große Aufmerksamkeit wurde daher den statistischen Problemen bei der Analyse der *Life history*-Variation auf verschiedenen taxonomischen Ebenen gewidmet (Harvey und Pagel 1991). Man glaubte, dass die sorgfältige Verwendung von phylogenetischen Beziehungen dabei helfen könnte zu enthüllen, was bei komparativen Studien Ursache und was Effekt ist (Harvey und Pagel 1991).

Alle bisher erwähnten Themen zusammen stellen jedoch nur einen kleinen Teil des Ganzen dar, was von Roff (1992) wie folgt beschrieben wurde: "Das Feld der *Life history*-Evolution ist zu groß, um jeden einzelnen Ansatz oder die ganze Reihe an eng umgrenzten Problemen zu beschreiben. In einem Extrem versuchen wir zu erklären, warum gewisse Muster zwischen *Life history*-Ausprägungen über sehr breite taxonomische Gruppen hinweg existieren, während wir auf der anderen Seite versuchen zu verstehen, warum es so ist, dass eine spezifische Art keinen einzelnen Genotyp evolvieren kann, der der beste in allen Welten ist".

2.2 Phylogenetisches Signal

Ein Organismus kann für ein *Life history*-Merkmal nicht jede beliebige Ausprägung realisieren sondern ist beschränkt durch die stammesgeschichtlichen (phylogenetischen) Möglichkeiten bzw. Grenzen. Jedes *Life history*-Merkmal ist mehr oder weniger stark durch die Phylogenie beeinflusst, weshalb die Untersuchung der Stärke des phylogenetischen Signals einen wichtigen Schritt darstellt, bevor andere Gründe für eine spezifische Ausprägung eines Merkmals oder einer Merkmalskombination untersucht werden können.

Das Ziel einer Systematisierung oder Klassifizierung der Vielfalt der lebendigen Welt in voneinander abgegrenzte, hierarchische Gruppen findet sich schon in den ältesten Schriften der Menschheit. Bereits Aristoteles hat sich in seinen zoologischen Schriften (um 340 v.Chr.) mit der Systematik der Tiere beschäftigt und aufgrund von Ähnlichkeiten Gruppen von Wirbeltieren und Wirbellosen unterschieden (Balme 2002). Den Höhepunkt der Systematisierung stellten aber die Arbeiten von Carl von Linné (1753; 1758) dar, der die zu dieser Zeit bekannten ca. 6000 Pflanzen- und ca. 4000 Tierarten in seinem Werk "Systema Naturae" nach einer binären Nomenklatur bestehend aus Gattungsnamen und Artepitheton (wie z.B. Homo sapiens) sortierte. Der Begriff "Phylogenie" selbst wurde erst 1866 von Ernst Haeckel eingeführt und beschreibt ihm zufolge die "Entwicklungsgeschichte der Stämme (Phyla)", wobei er die wissenschaftliche Paläontologie als Grundlage der Phylogenie ansah (Haeckel 1866). Die zu dieser Zeit gängige Vorstellung von "niederen" bzw. "höheren" Organismengruppen hinsichtlich ihrer Entwicklungsstufe führte zu Haeckels "Stammbaum des Menschen" mit dem Menschen als Krone des Lebens (siehe Abbildung 2.2a). Unser heutiges Verständnis von Verwandtschaftsbeziehungen zwischen Taxa (= Gruppen von Lebewesen wie z. B. Stämme oder Arten als Einheiten innerhalb der biologischen Systematik) und den daraus resultierenden phylogenetischen Bäumen wurde jedoch vor allem durch die phylogenetische Systematik, auch "Kladistik" genannt, von Willi Hennig (1950; 1966) begründet. Er berücksichtigte die Erkenntnisse von Darwin (1859), dass heutige Organismen eine Evolution durchlaufen haben und durch abgestufte Verwandtschaftsgrade miteinander verbunden sind. Die Besonderheit seines Ansatzes bestand in der Abstraktion des Baumes, der Gruppierung von Arten auf der Grundlage von Synapomorphien (= abgeleitetes Merkmal bei zwei Schwestertaxa, das nur von eben diesen Taxa geteilt wird und damit eine gemeinsame Stammart begründet), welche zu monophyletischen Gruppen führen, und der Erkenntnis, dass alle Organismen aus einem Mosaik aus plesiomorphen (ursprünglichen) und apomorphen (abgeleiteten) Eigenschaften bestehen (siehe Abbildung 2.2b).



Abbildung 2.2 Verschiedene Vorstellungen von Phylogenie bzw. phylogenetischen Bäumen. A) Stammbaum des Menschen nach Ernst Haeckel (1866). Der Baum besaß einen Stamm mit höheren taxonomischen Gruppen (z.B. Amphibien, Halbaffen etc.) und davon ausgehenden Ästen an deren Spitzen sich Taxa befanden, welche den höheren Gruppen zugeordnet wurden. B) Phylogenetische Systematik bzw. Kladistik nach Willi Hennig (1950, 1966). Der abstrakte Baum verdeutlicht das Mosaik aus plesio- und apomorphen Eigenschaften. C) Cladogramm von 32 Squamatenarten mit Ausprägungen der Eischale (Dreieck = weichschalige Eier, Kreis = schalenlos, Kreuz = hartschalige Eier) zur Untersuchung von Zusammenhängen zwischen *Life history*-Merkmalen und physiologischen Zwängen (siehe Kapitel 3).

Während diese früheren phylogenetischen Bäume meist auf morphologische Merkmale von Fossilien oder rezenten Arten zurückgingen, beruhen die heutigen phylogenetischen Bäume meist auf DNA-Sequenzen von nukleärer (= Kern) als auch mitochondrialer DNA. Die daraus resultierenden molekularen Bäume besitzen Astlängen, die eine tatsächliche evolutionäre Distanz (meist Basenpaarsubstitutionen

in einer DNA-Sequenz) zwischen Taxa darstellen (siehe Abbildung 2.2c). Diese Information kann zu einer besseren Einschätzung auch von Verwandtschaftsbeziehungen über größere taxonomische Distanzen (Tiere, Pflanzen, Pilze) hinweg führen.

Heute existieren Superbäume, die Tausende von Arten und höhere taxonomische Gruppen umfassen, vor allem für die Säugetiere (Bininda-Emonds et al. 2002) und die Vögel (Jetz et al. 2012). Für andere Vertreter der Tetrapoden (= Landwirbeltiere bzw. Vierfüßer), wie Amphibien und die paraphyletischen (= Gruppe von Organismen, deren Mitglieder zwar alle von einer einzigen Stammart herkommen, die aber nicht alle Nachfahren dieser Stammart umfaßt) Reptilien, sind phylogenetische Bäume meist nur für einzelne Taxa innerhalb dieser Gruppen verfügbar (Oaks 2011; Guillon et al. 2012; Pyron und Burbrink 2014).

Phylogenetische Bäume werden heute mehrheitlich in der komparativen Methode verwandt, um Abhängigkeiten von Arten in einer statistischen Analyse zu berücksichtigen und somit die Bedingung vieler statistischer Verfahren, nämlich die Unabhängigkeit der Datenpunkte, zu gewährleisten (Harvey und Pagel 1991). Die phylogenetische Abhängigkeit von Arten drückt sich im "phylogenetischen Signal" aus und ist eine direkte Konsequenz der Merkmalsevolution (Paradis 2011). Arten werden durch Merkmale charakterisiert und stehen außerdem durch ihren phylogenetischen Hintergrund in Beziehung zueinander, was zur Folge hat, dass ein phylogenetisches Signal in jedem Merkmal zu finden ist (Paradis 2011). Ein phylogenetisches Signal kann aber gänzlich fehlen, wenn die Variabilität des Merkmals komplett von der Umwelt bestimmt wird oder das Merkmal sehr langsam evolviert und somit keine Variabilität aufweist (Paradis 2011). Zur Quantifizierung des phylogenetischen Signals wurde eine ganze Reihe von Indizes entwickelt, welche aber oft zu abweichenden Ergebnissen führten. Münkemüller et al. (2012) untersuchten daher die Eigenschaften von oft verwendeten Indizes und sprachen Empfehlungen für die zwei Indizes Abouheifs C_{mean} als auch Pagels λ (Pagel 1999a) aus, welche nach ihrer Einschätzung gut und besser als die anderen Indizes arbeiten. Im Generellen reagieren alle untersuchten Indizes unterschiedlich auf falsche phylogenetische Informationen, niedrige Stichprobengrößen oder die Abwesenheit von Astlängen. Während Abouheifs Cmean ein Autokorrelationsindex ist, und nur die Topologie (= Astmuster eines Baumes ohne Astlängen) des phylogenetischen Baumes berücksichtigt, benötigt Pagels λ ein Modell, dass

beschreibt, wie das untersuchte Merkmal evolviert bzw. evolviert ist.

Dieses Modell beruht auf der Brownschen Molekularbewegung, welche ursprünglich bei der unregelmäßigen Bewegung von Pollen im Wasser entdeckt wurde (Brown 1828), und wird mathematisch als stochastischer Prozess bzw. Wiener-Prozess betrachtet, wonach die Moleküle der Flüssigkeit mit gleicher Wahrscheinlichkeit aus allen Richtungen auf die Pollenpartikel treffen und diese damit einem "Random walk" (Pearson 1905). Ein Beispiel für die Quantifizierung unterliegen des phylogenetischen Signals nach Abouheifs Cmean findet sich in Kapitel 3, wo Life history-Merkmale und Eischaltypen von Squamaten (Eidechsen, Schlangen, Doppelschleichen) auf die Anwesenheit eines phylogenetischen Signals hin untersucht werden. Auch wird dort die Bedeutung von verschiedenen taxonomischen Ebenen (z.B. Gattung, Familie, Ordnung etc.) für das phylogenetische Signal näher betrachtet. Phylogenetische Methoden unter Verwendung von Pagels λ finde sich in den Kapiteln 3 und 4, wo Zusammenhänge zwischen Life history-Merkmalen und Körpermasse bei Reptilien (alle Sauropsiden außer Vögel), und Amphibien (nur Anura und Caudata) beschrieben werden.

2.3 Allometrien

Bei einer allometrischen (griech. *allos* = anders; *metrie* = messen) Beziehung ändert sich eine biologische Eigenschaft eines Organismus relative zu seiner Größe, wobei kein proportionaler (isometrischer) Zusammenhang vorliegt.

Solche allometrischen Beziehungen sind weit verbreitet in der Biologie, denn jeder Aspekt des Lebens ist mehr oder weniger assoziiert mit der Körpergröße (Kleiber 1932; Peters 1983; Schmidt-Nielsen 1984; Brown et al. 2004). Snell (1891) wird allgemeinhin die erste Verwendung einer allometrischen Gleichung zur Beschreibung eines biologischen Zusammenhangs zugeschrieben (Schmidt-Nielsen 1984). Er war daran interessiert die mentalen Fähigkeiten von Säugetieren im Verhältnis zu ihrer Gehirngröße zu untersuchen. Da der Anteil der Gehirnmasse an der Gesamtmasse bei größeren Säugetieren geringer ist, entwickelte Snell eine Gleichung für die Beziehung zwischen Gehirn- und Körpermasse bei Säugetieren, um diesem Problem Rechnung zu tragen:

$$M_{Gehirn} = a * (M_{K\"orper})^b;$$

M = Masse, a = Proportionalitätskoeffizient, b = "somatischer Exponent" ist gleich für alle Säugetiere.

Diese Formel stellt eine Potenzfunktion dar, weil sich die Gehirnmasse M_{Gehirn} als Potenz der Körpermasse $M_{K\"orper}$ verändert. Die meisten Analysen allometrischer Beziehungen beginnen jedoch mit der Transformation der beobachteten Daten durch Logarithmierung. Durch eine doppel-log-Transformation (Logarithmus sowohl der Y-Achse als auch der X-Achse) kann die Potenzfunktion in eine Geradengleichung umgewandelt werden:

$$log_{10} y = log_{10} a + b * log_{10} x;$$

 $y = a + b * x$

umgeformt werden. Diese Umwandlung vereinfacht deutlich die Interpretation des Zusammenhangs, da eine komplizierte, exponentielle Beziehung zu einer einfacheren, linearen Beziehung wird (Köhler et al. 2007). Der Exponent *b* repräsentiert dabei die Steigung der Geraden im doppelt-logarithmischen Raum. Es gilt allerdings zu beachten, dass kleinere Unterschiede der Steigung im

logarithmischen Raum tatsächliche, größere Unterschiede im linearen Raum bedeuten (siehe Abbildung 2.3).



Abbildung 2.3 Zusammenhang zwischen Merkmal und Körpermasse bei verschiedenen
Skalierungen. Lineare Skalierung zeigt deutlichen Unterschied zwischen proportionalem
Zusammenhang (Steigung = 1) und tatsächlichem Zusammenhang von Merkmal und Körpermasse.
B) Bei einer Potenzfunktion werden beide Achsen logarithmiert. Die Unterschiede zwischen proportionalem und tatsächlichem Zusammenhang scheinen gering zu sein.

Wenn die Exponenten von Allometrien gleich sind, können taxonomische Gruppen direkt über den Proportionalitätsfaktor oder Achsenabschnitt *a* miteinander verglichen werden. Der Vergleich der metabolischen Rate relativ zur Körpermasse bei Beutelund Plazentatieren zeigte beispielsweise, dass bei gleichem Exponenten die Beuteltiere einen kleineren Proportionalitätsfaktor und damit im Generellen eine geringere metabolische Rate aufweisen als die Plazentatiere (Kleiber 1961; Dawson und Hulbert 1970; Schmidt-Nielsen 1984).

Weiterführende Studien enthüllten die Wichtigkeit der allometrischen Skalierung nicht nur für Organe (z.B. Blut, Herz, Lunge, Skelett etc.), sondern auch für physiologische Funktionen (z.B. Fortbewegung bei Tieren, Blut- und Gastransport, Sauerstoffversorgung, Temperaturregulation etc.) und selbst für ökologische und evolutionäre Aspekte des Lebens (z.B. Abundanz, Reviergrößen, *Life history*-Strategien etc.; zusammengefasst in Peters, 1983 und Schmidt-Nielsen, 1984).

Es ist zu einer gängigen Praxis geworden, dass bei Regressionsanalysen (= statistisches Analyseverfahren, um Zusammenhänge zwischen einer abhängigen

und einer oder mehrerer unabhängigen Variablen quantitativ zu beschreiben oder Werte der abhängigen Variablen zu prognostizieren) von interspezifischen (zwischenartlichen) Daten zuerst auf die Anwesenheit eines phylogenetischen Signals hin getestet wird, bevor Regressionsanalysen unter Verwendung von phylogenetischen Methoden durchgeführt werden (Harvey und Pagel 1991; Felsenstein 2004: Revell 2010). Im Gegensatz zu dieser Vorgehensweise favorisierte Revell (2010) allerdings eine gleichzeitige Schätzung von phylogenetischem Signal und den Regressionsparametern, was durch eine phylogenetische Regression ermöglicht wird. Die Grundlage für die Methode der phylogenetischen Regression legte vor allem Felsensteins (1985) Verfahren der "Unabhängigen Kontraste" (independent contrasts). Dieses Verfahren zielt darauf ab, statistische Probleme bei der Analyse von Tier- und Pflanzenarten zu beheben, welche durch die Tatsache entstehen, dass Arten keine unabhängigen Einheiten darstellen sondern vielmehr, durch die Evolution verursacht, einen spezifischen Verwandtschaftsgrad aufweisen. Verfahren. welche diese verwandtschaftlichen Beziehungen von Arten unberücksichtigt lassen, können somit zu falschen Ergebnissen führen. Felsenstein erreichte die benötigte Unabhängigkeit der Daten indem er die Differenz von Merkmalsausprägungen zwischen sowohl Arten auf der niedrigsten, taxonomischen Ebene als auch zwischen Knoten (= Vorläufer-Taxon) auf höheren Ebenen berechnete (siehe Abbildung 2.2b).

Eine Modifizierung dieses Ansatzes, der neben der Topologie des phylogenetischen Baumes auch Informationen der Astlängen berücksichtigt, stellte Pagels Methode auf der Grundlage des Skalierungskoeffizienten λ dar (λ -Wert zwischen 0 und 1; 0 = kein Einfluss der Phylogenie, 1 = absoluter Einfluss der Phylogenie), bei der die phylogenetischen Distanzen durch eine Varianz-Kovarianz-Matrix in die Berechnung der Regressionskoeffizienten einfließen (Pagel 1999a).

Obwohl die meisten allometrischen Analysen in der Vergangenheit nur für Säugetiere durchgeführt wurden (z.B. Tuomi, 1980; Bekoff *et al.*, 1981; Stearns, 1983; Schmitz & Lavigne, 1984; Swihart, 1984; Gittleman, 1985; Jones, 1985; Dobson, 1992; Dobson & Oli, 2007), konnte der Einfluss der Körpergröße auf *Life history*-Merkmale auch für viele andere taxonomische Gruppen gezeigt werden (z.B. Blueweiss *et al.*, 1978; Peters, 1983; Schmidt-Nielsen, 1984; Hendriks & Mulder, 2008). In ihrer einflussreichen, groß angelegten Arbeit erstellten Blueweiss und Kollegen (1978) Allometrien von unterschiedlichen *Life history*-Merkmalen (Fekundität,

Neugeborenengewicht, Wurfgewicht, Populationswachstumsrate, Brutzeit, Trächtigkeitsdauer, Lebenserwartung, Geschlechtsreife) für ein breites taxonomisches Spektrum von Viren über Krebstiere, Fische, Reptilien und Vögel bis hin zu den Säugetieren mit dem Blauwal als größtem und schwerstem bekannten Tier der Erdgeschichte. Nichtsdestotrotz blieben Studien zur allometrischen Skalierung von Life history-Merkmalen bei Reptilien (Krokodilen, Squamaten, Schildkröten und die Brückenechse, Sphenodon punctatus) die Ausnahme und beschränkten sich meistens auf die Gruppe der Squamaten (Eidechsen, Schlangen und Doppelschleichen; Tinkle 1969; Tinkle et al. 1970; Stearns 1984; Andrews et al. 1985; Dunham und Miles 1985; Dunham et al. 1988; Warne und Charnov 2008; Scharf et al. 2014). Das hängt vor allem damit zusammen, dass 96.3% (> 9000 Arten) aller Reptilienarten Squamaten sind (Pincheira-Donoso et al. 2013). Vorhandene Studien zur Skalierung von Life history-Merkmalen bei Reptilien deuten jedoch darauf hin, dass sie sich von denen der Säugetiere und Vögel unterscheiden (Promislow et al. 1992; Werner und Griebeler 2011). Allometrische Beziehungen von Life history-Merkmalen weisen bei "Eidechsen" z.B. flachere Steigungen auf und sind mit zunehmender, taxonomischer Ebene weniger signifikant als es bei Säugetieren der Fall ist, bei denen sowohl die Steigungen als auch die Signifikanzen zunehmen (Promislow et al. 1992). Eine aktuelle komparative Studie, welche die komplette Gruppe der Squamaten und den Tuatara (Sphenodon punctatus) umfasste, enthüllte außerdem einen signifikant, niedrigeren Einfluss der Körpergröße auf die Lebenserwartung bei Squamaten im Vergleich zu Säugetieren und Vögeln (Scharf et al. 2014).

Weit weniger ist über den Einfluss der Körpermasse bei Krokodilen, Schildkröten und Brückenechsen bekannt. Für Krokodile wurde die allometrische Skalierung von z.B. der Gelegegröße und der Eimasse bisher nur ohne phylogenetische Korrektur untersucht (Thorbjarnarson 1996). Informationen zur allometrischen Skalierung von *Life history*-Merkmalen sind bei Schildkröten sehr oft sogar nur für einzelne Arten im Rahmen intraspezifischer Untersuchungen verfügbar (z.B. Ryan und Lindeman 2007; Portelinha et al. 2013) und interspezifische Studien beruhen oft auf Analysen ohne Berücksichtigung der Phylogenie unter Verwendung kleiner Stichprobengrößen (Werner und Griebeler 2013). Da es innerhalb der Ordnung der Brückenechsen (Rhynchocephalia) mit *S. punctatus* nur noch eine rezente Art gibt (Hay et al. 2010), sind allometrische Untersuchungen von *Life history*-Merkmalen schwierig bis unmöglich.

Das bisher gänzliche Ausblenden der Amphibien hat seine Ursache in der kaum bis gar nicht vorhandenen Daten- und Studienlage, wenn es um allometrische Zusammenhänge von *Life history*-Merkmalen geht. Groß angelegte, umfangreiche Arbeiten sind mir unbekannt und auch Analysen von einzelnen *Life history*-Merkmalen liegen nur für kleinere Stichproben und ohne Berücksichtigung der Phylogenie vor (siehe Peters, 1983). Ein Grund dafür könnte eine bisher fehlende, umfassende Phylogenie sein und dass die Variabilität der Körpermassen bei Amphibien eher begrenzt ist (Duellman und Trueb 1994).

2.4 *Life history*-Invarianten

Unter Symmetrie oder Invarianz versteht man im Allgemeinen, dass Eigenschaften eines Systems nach einer bestimmten Änderung (Transformation) unverändert bleiben. Während in der Geometrie anschauliche Transformationen, wie z.B. die Spiegelung (diskrete Symmetrie), eine Rolle spielen, haben Invarianzen von physikalischen Größen und Gleichungen gegenüber Transformationen vor allem in der theoretischen Physik eine große Bedeutung (z.B. Translations-, Zeit- oder Rotationssymmetrie; siehe Tipler & Mosca, 2007; Meschede, 2010). Beobachtungen in der Natur auf mikroskopischer als auch makroskopischer Ebene lassen das Prinzip der Symmetrie auch in der Biologie allgegenwärtig erscheinen. Man findet es z.B. beim geometrischen Verhältnis im Körperbau eines Lebewesens, wobei der Körper entlang einer oder mehrerer Achsen spiegelbildlich (bilateralsymmetrisch) aufgebaut ist. Weitere Beispiele reichen von Symmetrien bei Makromolekülen, wie RNA und DNA, bis zum Biorhythmus als zeitlicher Symmetrie, bei der bestimmte Lebensvorgänge eines Organismus in einer festen Periodisierung ablaufen.

Invariante Größen gehören somit zu den grundlegenden Prinzipien des biologischen Designs und sind fundamental für die Skalierung von morphologischen, physiologischen als auch ökologischen Eigenschaften von Organismen (Brown und West 2000). Invarianz eines Merkmals in einem biologischen Kontext muss dabei immer in Relation zu einem anderen Merkmal gesehen werden (Price et al. 2014). Während z.B. viele biologische Merkmale mit der Körpergröße skalieren, bleiben einige *Life history*-Merkmale unverändert bei Transformationen bezüglich der Körpergröße und werden deshalb invariant genannt (Charnov 1993).

Beverton und Holt (1959) waren die Ersten, die die Existenz spezifischer Muster des Wachstums und der Mortalität bei Fischarten und –populationen (Beverton 1963) identifizierten, welche in Verbindung standen mit Produkten und Verhältnissen von *Life history*-Merkmalen. Diese Beverton-Holt-Invarianten wurden später auch bei anderen Vertebratengruppen wie z.B. den Squamaten (Eidechsen, Schlangen, Doppelschleichen) innerhalb der Reptilien gefunden (Shine und Charnov 1992). Charnov (1993) war der Meinung, dass die Existenz der Beverton-Holt-Invarianten für Organismen mit unbegrenztem Wachstum, nämlich Fischen und Reptilien, ein starkes Argument dafür sei, dass die Evolution durch einige sehr generelle Eigenschaften von trade-offs zwischen *Life history*-Merkmalen bestimmt wird.

Beim Studium der *Life history*-Evolution wird der Begriff der Invarianz in zweifacher Weise verwendet. Er beschreibt sowohl ein *Life history*-Merkmal, das nicht systematisch mit der Körpergröße variiert als auch ein Merkmal, das eine unimodale, zentrale Tendenz aufweist und nur eine stark begrenzte Bandbreite an Variabilität besitzt (Savage et al. 2006). Gewöhnlich ist eine kausale Erklärung für die Existenz der vorliegenden Invarianz nicht bekannt (Charnov 1993). Auch muss beachtet werden, dass die Betrachtung der Invarianz nur in statistischem oder probabilistischem (= Aussage, die nicht streng kausal ist) Sinne möglich ist, weshalb der Grad an Invarianz reflektiert werden muss, nachdem das Merkmal schließlich als invariant bezeichnet wird (Charnov 1993).

Auf Grund dieser Bedingungen und der anhaltenden Kritik verschiedener Autoren am grundsätzlichem Konzept der Invarianz (siehe Günther & Morgado, 2005; Nee *et al.*, 2005; Nespolo, 2005; Savage *et al.*, 2006 für die Diskussion zu diesem Thema) haben Price et al. (2014) kürzlich eine objektive, statistische Definition des Konzepts der Invarianz vorgestellt. Sie empfehlen dabei verschiedene Kriterien für die Identifizierung von invarianten Merkmalen (siehe Kapitel 5). Außerdem weisen sie darauf hin, dass alle biologischen Größen eine gewisse Variabilität aufweisen und somit ein *Life history*-Merkmal, dem man Invarianz unterstellt, sich dieser Invarianz nur annähern kann. Die Varianz des invarianten Merkmals sollte z.B. geringer als die der Körpergröße sein und das Merkmal selbst sollte einer unimodalen Verteilung unterliegen. Eine allometrische Beziehung sollte, wenn überhaupt, nur schwach ausgeprägt sein. Auch die Anwesenheit von isometrischer Variabilität, also das proportionale Verhältnis zu einem anderen *Life history*-Merkmal, könnte ein Anzeichen für Invarianz sein (Price et al. 2014).

Auf höhere taxonomische Ebenen übertragen bedeuten diese Kriterien, dass bei der Suche nach Invarianten solche Taxa, welche eine niedrige bis mittlere Diversität an *Life history*-Strategien aber eine hohe Variabilität an Körpergrößen aufweisen, viele *Life history*-Invarianten besitzen sollten. Das entgegengesetzte Szenario sollte für Taxa zutreffen, welche eine große Diversität an *Life history*-Strategien aber nur eine niedrige Variabilität an Körpergrößen aufweisen.

Abschließend muss darauf hingewiesen werden, dass es viel einfacher ist Invarianten zu finden als ihre kausalen Ursachen zu erklären (Charnov 1993). Vor diesem Hintergrund erscheint die Suche nach Invarianten eher deskriptiv zu sein. Im Vergleich zwischen taxonomischen Gruppen allerdings ermöglichen Invarianten ähnliche Einsichten wie allometrische Zusammenhänge und, durch die bereits stattgefundene Berücksichtigung von allometrischen Zwängen, darüber hinausgehende Einsichten in die Evolution von *Life history*-Strategien.

2.5 Besonderheiten rezenter Reptilien und Amphibien für *Life history*-Analysen

Im Generellen werden *Life history*-Strategien durch natürliche Selektion, als Antwort auf eine heterogene Umwelt, hervorgebracht. Eines der wichtigsten Beispiele für Anpassung an eine spezielle Umwelt stellte die Evolution von *Life history*-Strategien dar, welche in Folge des Übergangs von aquatischer (= im Wasser) Lebensweise zu terrestrischer (= an Land) Lebensweise stattfand (zusammengefasst in Sumida & Martin, 1997). Dieser Übergang betraf innerhalb der Vertebraten vor allem zwei Gruppen, die Amphibien (Frösche, Salamander, Blindwühlen; Abbildung 2.5) und die Reptilien (Krokodile, Schildkröten, Squamaten, Brückenechsen; Abbildung 2.4). Amphibien und Reptilien bilden zusammen mit den Vögeln (Aves) und Säugetieren (Mammalia) die Gruppe der Landwirbeltiere (Tetrapoda).



Abbildung 2.4 Gruppen der Reptilien: (von links nach rechts, von oben nach unten) Schildkröten (Testudines), Brückenechsen (Rhynchocephalia), Squamaten (Squamata) und Krokodile (Crocodylia). Zusammenstellung von Petter Bøckman (2012). https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Extant_reptilia.jpg Während die modernen Amphibien (*Lissamphibia*, Haeckel 1866) eine monophyletische Gruppe darstellen (siehe Duellman und Trueb 1994 für eine kritische Diskussion zur Monophylie der Amphibien), sind die Reptilien (*Reptilia*, Laurenti 1768) eine paraphyletische Gruppe, da hierbei die Vögel, obwohl sie die Schwestergruppe der Krokodile (Crocodylia) sind und beide zusammen die Archosaurier bilden, nicht mitgezählt werden und damit nicht alle von einer gemeinsamen Stammform abgeleiteten Taxa in der Gruppe der Reptilien vertreten sind (Lecointre und Guyader 2005).

Die Amphibien waren innerhalb der Tetrapoden die eigentlichen Pioniere des Lebens in einer terrestrischen Umwelt, aber sie erreichten niemals eine völlige Unabhängigkeit vom Wasser (Duellman und Trueb 1994). Amphibien sind ektotherm und haben eine permeable Körperoberfläche, was sie deutlicher anfälliger für Umwelteinflüsse als alle andere Tetrapoden macht.



Abbildung 2.5 Vertreter der Amphibien (Lissamphibia): Frösche (Anura) und Salamander (Caudata; nicht gezeigt sind die Blindwühlen, Gymnophiona). Dargestellt sind die Goldkröte, *Bufo periglenes*, und Lanzas Alpensalamander, *Salamandra lanzai*. Fotos von Charles H. Smith (U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service, 2002) und Franco Andreone (2004). https://de.wikipedia.org/wiki/Datei:Bufo_periglenes1.jpg https://de.wikipedia.org/wiki/Datei:Salamandra_lanzai_%28Franco_Andreone%29.jpeg

Feuchtigkeit stellt für sie den wichtigsten Umweltfaktor dar und bestimmt auch maßgeblich deren Verbreitung. Die Amphibien haben eine ganze Reihe von Anpassungen gegen Austrocknung entwickelt, wie z.B. eine drüsige, feuchte Haut, reduzierte Lungen für den Gasaustausch, eine nächtliche Lebensweise oder die

Reduktion der Körperoberfläche (Duellman und Trueb 1994). Der primitive Lebenszyklus der Amphibien bestand aus zwei Teilen, dem Larvalstadium in einer aquatischen Umwelt und dem Adultstadium in einer terrestrischen Umwelt. Die entwickelten *Life history*-Strategien waren hauptsächlich Kompromisse für die Bedürfnisse und Zwänge dieser beiden unterschiedlichen Umwelten. Als Konsequenz sind die rezenten Amphibien, und hier besonders die Salamander, die Vertebratengruppe (Wirbeltiere) mit der höchsten Diversität an *Life history*-Strategien, was sich vor allem bei der Diversität ihrer Reproduktionsmodi zeigt (Duellman und Trueb 1994). Obwohl es größere Formen der Amphibien im Paläozoikum (vor mehr als 250 Millionen Jahren) gegeben hat, sind Amphibien bezogen auf die Körpergröße normalerweise kleine Tiere wobei der größte Salamander 1500 mm Gesamtlänge und der größte Frosch sogar nur 300 mm Gesamtlänge misst (Duellman und Trueb 1994).

Während Amphibien einige Anpassungen an die Terrestrialität hervorbrachten, waren es am Ende die Reptilien, welche das Leben in terrestrischen Umwelten meisterten. Der Schlüssel dazu war das Auftreten des ersten Amnioten vor 315 - 355 Millionen Jahren, der ein amniotisches Ei mit zusätzlichen extraembryonalen Membranen und einer kalkhaltigen Eischale besaß, welche die Entwicklung des Embryos unabhängiger vom Wasser machte (Hallmann und Griebeler 2015). Das Amniotenei zeigt charakteristische, taxonomische Eigenschaften wie z.B. eine teilweise mineralisierte Eischale, welche eine Autapomorphie (= abgeleitetes Merkmal, das eine monophyletische Gruppe gegenüber verwandten Taxa auszeichnet) der Sauropoden darstellt (deren rezente Mitglieder die Schildkröten, Krokodile und Vögel darstellen; Mikhailov, 1997). Die Eischale ist eine wichtige Struktur, welche die internen physiologischen Prozesse mit der äußeren Umgebung verknüpft (siehe Abbildung 2.6). Als Anpassung an die äußeren Bedingungen besitzt die Eischale spezielle Eigenschaften wie das Aufweisen von Permeabilität, welche den Gasaustausch mittels Diffusion und die Aufnahme von gewissen Mengen an Wasser erlaubt (Schleich und Kästle 1988). Zusätzlich bietet die Eischale physischen Schutz für den sich entwickelnden Embryo, sie reduziert das Risiko des Eies auf Beschädigung während der Eiablage und stellt eine Barriere gegen angreifende Arthropoden oder andere Prädatoren nach der Eiablage dar (Schleich und Kästle 1988). Eine kalkhaltige Schalenmatrix kann außerdem als Kalziumreserve für die Entwicklung des Embryos dienen (Stewart et al. 2009; Stewart und Ecay 2010).

Dennoch legen nicht alle Reptilienarten Eier (Oviparie), was sich an den mehr als 100 unabhängigen Ursprüngen von Viviparie (lebendgebärend) innerhalb der Squamaten zeigt (Blackburn 1985; Blackburn 1999). Viviparie involviert dabei Eiretention (= Zurückhaltung) und eine reduzierte Eischale. Die meisten Squamaten besitzen lecithotrophe Viviparie (Stewart 1992; Blackburn 2006; Stewart 2013) bei der Nährstoffe meistens durch den Dottersack bezogen werden. Nur wenige Squamaten zeigen eine matrotrophe Viviparie (Blackburn 2006; Thompson und Speake 2006) bei der Nährstoffe via maternalen, plazentaartigen Strukturen bereitgestellt werden. Unabhängig von diesen Unterschieden ist die Viviparie bei Squamaten nur mit einem rudimentären Rest an Eischale assoziiert, weshalb man bei diesen Arten von "schalenlosen Eiern" reden kann (Blackburn 1993).



Abbildung 2.6 Aufbau und Struktur von Eischaltypen der verschiedenen Reptilientaxa. Nur die Schalen von Krokodil- oder Schildkröteneiern besitzen richtige kalkhaltige Säulen (Schaleneinheiten). Die Eischale der Brückenechse, *Sphenodon punctatus*, stellt vermutlich eine Übergangsform dar, welche zwar noch eine Säulenstruktur besitzt, aber schon eine enge Assoziation von Fasern der Schalenmembran und der kalkhaltigen Matrix der Säule erkennen lässt. Bei den Squamaten hat die Eischale eine einfache und uniforme Struktur ohne eine kalkhaltige Matrix. Sie besteht hauptsächlich aus Proteinfasern. Geckoarten der Unterfamilie Gekkoninae produzieren hingegen typische stark kalzifizierte, 3-lagige Eier. Die Schalenmembran bildet dabei eine dichte Matte ohne auffällige Verankerung in der kalzifizierten Schicht. Abbildung folgt Schleich und Kästle (1988). Aufbau des Eischaltyps von *S. punctatus* basiert auf Beschreibung von Packard et al. (1982).

Als weitere Anpassungen an das Landleben verfügen die Reptilien über Schuppen auf ihrem gesamten Körper und, verglichen mit Amphibien, besser entwickelten Lungen, was zusammen eine deutlich geringere Empfindlichkeit gegenüber Austrocknung bedeutet. Zusätzlich ist der Einfluss der Gravitation in terrestrischen Umgebungen erhöht, was ein schwereres Skelett bei den Reptilien im Vergleich zu den Amphibien zur Folge hatte (Schmidt-Nielsen 1984). Terrestrialität war auch verantwortlich für die Evolution extremer Körpergrößen mancher Reptilien wie bei der größten noch lebenden Echsenart, dem Komodowaran (*Varanus komodoensis*; Collar *et al.*, 2011). Warane zeigen die größte Spanne an Körpergrößen von allen bekannten Gattungen der Vertebraten (Collar et al. 2011). Die Wichtigkeit der Größe bei den Reptilien zeigt sich darüber hinaus auch bei den vielen Studien zu allometrischen Beziehungen biologischer Merkmale einschließlich der *Life history*-Merkmale (siehe Fitch, 1970; Peters, 1983; Schmidt-Nielsen, 1984; Dunham und Miles, 1985; Scharf *et al.*, 2014; Hallmann und Griebeler, 2015).

2.6 Ziele der Arbeit

In meiner Arbeit habe ich mich mit der Evolution von Lebenszyklusstrategien (Life histories) von rezenten Amphibien (Lissamphibia, Haeckel 1866) und vor allem Reptilien (Reptilia, Laurenti 1768) beschäftigt. Die Evolution von Life history-Strategien wird besonders durch physiologische, phylogenetische und allometrische Zwänge beeinflusst und beschränkt. Grundlegende Arbeiten zur Life history-Evolution hatten meistens Säugetiere und Vögel zum Gegenstand und die anderen Tetrapodengruppen Amphibien und Reptilien sind deutlich weniger gut untersucht. Ziel meiner Arbeit war es deshalb die bisherigen Erkenntnisse zur Life history-Evolution von Amphibien und Reptilien zu erweitern und neuere Erkenntnisse zu gewinnen, wobei der Hauptfokus auf den Reptilien lag. Um diese Ziele zu erreichen führte ich drei Projekte durch, welche in dieser Arbeit die Hauptkapitel bilden und jeweils als komplette Beschreibung in Form eines Manuskripts aus einem internationalen Wissenschaftsjournal vorliegen. Alle Projekte basierten dabei auf einem von mir zuvor erhobenen umfangreichen Datensatz für eine Vielzahl an Life history-Merkmalen von 86 Amphibien- und 756 Reptilienarten auf der Grundlage einer ausgedehnten Literaturrecherche, welcher als Microsoft Access-Datenbank mit über 5600 Einträgen vorliegt. Die Analyse erfolgte mittels verschiedenster statistischer Verfahren unter Verwendung des Statistikprogramms R.

Das erste Projekt beschäftigte sich mit der Bedeutung von physiologischen und phylogenetischen Zwängen für die Life history-Strategien von Squamaten (Eidechsen, Schlangen, Doppelschleichen). Ausgehende von einer kürzlich veröffentlichten Studie von Pike und Kollegen (2012), in welcher unterschiedliche Typen von Eischalen bei eierlegenden Geckos (Eidechsenarten) für die Ausprägungen gewisser Life history-Strategien verantwortlich gemacht werden, habe ich untersucht, ob auch bei einer größere taxonomische Gruppe, nämlich den Squamaten, die Life history-Strategien durch einen physiologischen Zwang in Form der Eischale beeinflusst werden und inwieweit Phylogenie bzw. phylogenetische Zwänge von Bedeutung sind. Die Analysen beinhalteten die Bestimmung des phylogenetischen Signals mittels Abouheifs Cmean und phylogenetischen evolutionäre Hauptkomponentenanalysen (pPCA). Wahrscheinlichkeiten für Übergänge zwischen Eischaltypen habe ich durch die Verwendung von Markov-Modellen ermittelt.

Das zweite Projekt widmete sich den allometrischen Zwängen und somit dem Einfluss der Körpermasse auf *Life history*-Merkmale. In einem komparativen Ansatz verglich ich dabei zuvor erstellte allometrische Beziehungen von *Life history*-Merkmalen aller Reptilien (n = 369) und Reptilienordnungen (Schildkröten, Krokodile, Squamaten und die Brückenechse, *Sphenodon punctatus*) mit bereits bekannten Zusammenhängen von Säugetieren und Vögeln, um die Allgemeingültigkeit der *Life history*-Theorie zu untersuchen. Dabei berücksichtige ich sowohl aktuelle phylogenetische Bäume der einzelnen Reptilienordnungen als auch eine von mir erstellte Phylogenie aller Reptilien, um den Einfluss phylogenetischer Zwänge zu beschreiben und auszuschließen zu können. Zusätzlich nutzte ich die erstellten Allometrien der *Life history*-Merkmale, um die phylogenetische Stellung der Brückenechse, *S. punctatus*, innerhalb der Reptilien zu untersuchen.

Im dritten Projekt beschäftigte ich mich mit der Existenz von Life history-Merkmalen bei allen 86 europäischen Amphibienarten (Frösche, Salamander) und den bereits im zweiten Prójekt untersuchten Reptilien, welche nicht durch die Körpermasse beeinflusst werden und somit invariant sind. Diese Life history-Invarianten erlauben tiefere Einsichten in die Evolution von Life history-Strategien zwischen höheren taxonomischen Gruppen durch das Fehlen des Einflusses von allometrischen Zwängen, was schließlich zur Aufdeckung von trade-offs und dimensionslose Zahlen führen kann. Jedes Merkmal wurde auf mehrere Kriterien für Invarianz hin überprüft, welche von Price und Kollegen (2014) formuliert und von mir modifiziert worden waren. Ein entscheidendes Kriterium ist dabei die Relation zwischen der Variabilität der Life history-Merkmale und der Variabilität der Körpermasse. Bei einem invarianten Merkmal ist die Variabilität des Life history-Merkmals kleiner als die Variabilität der Körpermasse. Amphibien nutzen auf Grund ihrer semi-aquatischen Lebensweise zwei verschiedene Habitate, was zu einer höheren Variabilität der Life history-Merkmale führt. Zusätzlich weisen sie nur eine kleine Spannweite an Körpermassen auf. Bei Reptilien ist durch die terrestrische Lebensweise die Variabilität der Life history-Merkmale im Vergleich zu den Amphibien geringer ausgeprägt, das Körpermassenspektrum ist hingegen viel breiter. Ich untersuchte deshalb die Hypothese, dass die Amphibien deutlich mehr invariante Life history-Merkmale besitzen als die Reptilien. Abschließend sollte der Hypothese von Charnov (1993) nachgegangen werden, dass phylogenetische Zwänge für die Betrachtung von Life history-Invarianten keine Bedeutung haben. In diesem Zusammenhang
wurden außerdem zum ersten Mal allometrische Beziehungen von *Life history*-Merkmalen für alle 86 europäischen Amphibienarten (mit und ohne Berücksichtigung der Phylogenie) untersucht.

3 Eggshell types and their evolutionary correlation with lifehistory strategies in squamates

3.1 Abstract

The eggshell is an important physiological structure for the embryo. It enables gas exchange, physical protection and is a calcium reserve. Most squamates (lizards, snakes, worm lizards) lay parchment-shelled eggs, whereas only some gekkotan species, a subgroup of lizards, have strongly calcified eggshells. In viviparous (livebearing) squamates the eggshell is reduced or completely missing (hereafter "shellless"). Recent studies showed that life-history strategies of gekkotan species differ between species with parchment- and rigid-shelled eggshells. Here we test if the three different eggshell types found in the squamates are also associated with different life-history strategies. We first investigated the influence of the phylogeny on the trait "eggshell type" and on six life-history traits of 32 squamate species. Phylogenetic principal component analysis (pPCA) was then conducted to identify an association between life-history strategies and eggshell types. Finally, we also considered adult weight in the pPCA to examine its potential effect on this association. Eggshell types in squamates show a strong phylogenetic signal at a low taxonomical level. Four out of the six life-history traits showed also a phylogenetic signal (birth size, clutch size, clutches per year and age at female maturity), while two had none (incubation time, maximum longevity). The pPCA suggested an association of life-history strategies and eggshell types, which disappeared when adult weight was included in the analysis. We conclude that the variability seen in eggshell types of squamates is weakly influenced by phylogeny. Eggshell types correlate with different life-history strategies, and mainly reflect differences in adult weights of species.

3.2 Introduction

The advent of the first amniotes about 315 to 355 million years ago marked the transition from an exclusively water-dependent reproduction to the capability of a water-independent reproduction in drier environments, representing one of the most important events of evolution (Sander 2012). A precondition for this was the

development of the amniotic egg characterized by additional extra-embryonic membranes, which made embryogenesis independent from water. The amniotic egg shows characteristic taxonomic features such as an at least partially mineralized eggshell, which is an autapomorphy of *Sauropsida* (the extant members of which are the turtles, lepidosaurs, crocodiles and birds; Mikhailov, 1997).

The eggshell is an important structure, linking internal physiological processes to the ambient environment. As an adaption to exterior conditions, the eggshell exhibits specific characteristics such as permeability, which allows gas exchange via diffusion and the uptake of certain amounts of water (Schleich and Kästle 1988). Additionally, the eggshell physically protects the developing embryo, reducing the risk of egg damage during oviposition and defending it against attacking arthropods or other predators after oviposition (Schleich and Kästle 1988). A calcareous shell matrix is also a calcium reserve for the development of the embryo besides its physical protection (Stewart et al. 2009; Stewart and Ecay 2010).

The eggshell of most squamates (lizards, snakes, amphisbaenians ["worm lizards"]) has a simple and uniform structure, consisting of a thick shell membrane of protein fibrils, which adds to the flexibility of the egg (Schleich and Kästle 1988). On top, the shells can be superficially calcified (Schleich and Kästle 1988). Apart from this, the eggs of a subgroup of lizards, the *Gekkota*, have a very specialized and divergent shell structure. Their strongly calcified shell consists of three layers: a reticular boundary layer, a thin but dense shell membrane and a thick calcareous layer (Schleich and Kästle 1988). In the latter the calcite crystallites are irregularly arranged.

Besides oviparous (egg-laying) species, there are more than 100 independent origins of viviparity (live-bearing) within the squamates (Blackburn 1982; Blackburn 1985; Blackburn 1999), which makes this group a perfect choice for studying the evolution of viviparity in general. Viviparity involves egg retention and a reduced eggshell. Most squamates show lecithotrophic viviparity (Stewart 1992; Blackburn 2006; Stewart 2013), where nutrients are supplied mostly by the yolk sac. Only few squamates show matrotrophic viviparity (Blackburn 2006; Thompson and Speake 2006), where nutrients are supplied via maternal placenta-like structures. Irrespective of these differences in the nutrition of the embryo, in squamates viviparity is associated with only a vestigial remnant of the eggshell, thus the species have "shell-less eggs" (Blackburn 1993).

The interest in the evolution of life-history and reproductive strategies of lizards and snakes, and in general of squamates, started with some comparative studies in lizards (Tinkle 1969; Tinkle et al. 1970). These studies provided first references for different reproductive strategies among lizards: early maturing and multiple-brooded vs. late-maturing and single-brooded. In the early-maturing group oviparity is almost universal, while viviparity is one form of the late-maturing strategies for lizards, and they also discovered different life-history strategies within snakes for the reproduction modes.

Recently a study examined the relevance of eggshell types for the evolution of lifehistory strategies in the lizard group Gekkota (Pike et al. 2012). Pike et al. (2012) considered body length as a covariable in the analysis and were able to show, that life-history strategies (egg volume, hatchling size, developmental stage at oviposition, incubation duration) in *Gekkota* are actually related to the structure of their eggshells. For example, gekkotan species laying rigid-shelled eggs lay smaller eggs relative to adult body length and exhibit a smaller adult body length than species laying parchment-shelled eggs (Pike et al. 2012). However, that study only aimed at a small taxonomic group, and information on life-history traits besides body length was limited. For that reason, we considerably broadened the taxonomic scope in our analyses and used information on more life-history traits to test whether life-history strategies are linked to eggshell types in squamates as hypothesised by Pike et al. (2012) only for the lizard subgroup Gekkota. Squamates as a whole represent a highly heterogeneous group in terms of life-style (nocturnal/diurnal, aquatic/arboreal/terrestrial), body size (e.g., 16 mm for the dwarf gecko Sphaerodactylus ariasae to 10 m as seen in the python Malayopython reticulatus) and geographic distribution (worldwide; except for Antarctica). The broader taxonomic approach required to take into account the shell-less type as a third eggshell type (beside the rigid-shelled and parchment-shelled types studied by Pike et al., 2012). Life-history traits included in our analysis for life-history strategies covered different phases during the life of an animal, spanning from the incubation of the egg to the adult individual. Thus, our approach is based on Pike et al. (2012), but it goes considerably beyond that study.

First, we examined in our study whether eggshell types and studied life-history traits of species are actually influenced by their shared evolutionary history. In particular, we aimed at the following questions: Is the potential phylogenetic signal on eggshell types limited to the species level, or is it even present at higher taxonomic levels? What are the evolutionary transition rates between the different eggshell types?

Second, to explore whether eggshell types and life-history strategies (values of lifehistory traits and their combination) of species are actually associated, we used different statistical methods for data classification and ordination, which trace back to some classical comparative studies (Tinkle et al. 1970; Dunham et al. 1988). We expected, under the hypothesis of eggshell types being important in the evolution of squamate life-history strategies, that species clustering together because of similar life-history traits would share the identical eggshell type. We conducted further analyses to clarify whether in squamates the shared evolutionary history, or adult body mass are main drivers of the clustering seen in life-history strategies and their association to egg shell types.

3.3 Material & Methods

3.3.1 Life-history data

To test whether eggshell types are linked to different life-history strategies in squamates we mainly focused on age-related, reproductive and size-related lifehistory traits: age at maturity (days), adult weight (g), birth size (total length, cm), clutch size, number of clutches per year, incubation time (days) and maximum longevity (years). We selected adult weight instead of body length or snout-vent-length as a measure of animal size because of the great diversity of body shapes seen in squamates. To account for differences in the geographic distribution of species and their potential influence on the life-history traits of species, we also collected information on the maximum altitude (m) of areas inhabited by species (Tinkle and Gibbons 1977; Adolph and Porter 1993; Perry and Garland 2002; Hodges 2004). We chose only altitude and did not consider latitude because different studies on the squamate genera *Phrynosoma* and *Sceloporus* demonstrated that altitudinal variation is much more important for the evolution of viviparity (shell-less eggs) and the reproductive mode in general than latitudinal variation (Mathies and Andrews 1995; Méndez-de la Cruz et al. 1998; Hodges 2004).

Life-history data of species and maximum altitude were mainly taken from the multivolume encyclopedia on European reptiles, the "Handbuch der Reptilien und Amphibien Europas" (Böhme 1981; Böhme 1984; Böhme 1986; Böhme 1993; Bischoff 1998; Böhme 1999; Joger and Stümpel 2005). We also used the internet database AnAge for worldwide distributed squamate species (Tacutu et al. 2013) to fill in the geographic and phylogenetic gaps of the encyclopedia. Unfortunately, this database primarily focuses on age-related life-history traits, such as maximum longevity and age at first maturity. We therefore further conducted an intensive literature search comprising primary literature (Foufopoulos and Ives 1999; Gasso 2003; Delaugerre et al. 2011; Yu et al. 2014), field guides, textbooks and, only for the geckos (*Gekkota*), specific literature (e.g. Henkel and Schmidt 1991; Rogner 1992; Rösler 1995; Bartlett and Bartlett 2006). To ensure a sufficient standard of data quality, we did not consider anecdotal remarks given in these sources. In the cases we found ranges or multiple values for species traits we always averaged these for statistical analyses. This procedure in particular prevented a gender bias in

incubation time values, because sex-determination in squamate reptiles is based on temperature (Viets and Ewert 1994).

Information on maximum altitude of species was completed by estimates found in different papers (Kabisch 1990; Heygen 2004; Agasyan et al. 2009; Wise 2009; Raxworthy et al. 2011; Vences 2011).

In total, we collected data on the aforementioned seven life-history traits of 574 squamate species. The information on life-history traits and adult weight was not evenly distributed on the 574 squamate species. For multivariate analyses, this resulted in a substantial reduction of sample size to 32 squamate species. To address the issue that sample size is low, we re-examined our results by repeating analyses for a dataset with an order of magnitude more squamate species (n = 300) but comprising fewer traits (n = 5) from a recent publication (Scharf et al. 2014); see discussion for further details). With this larger dataset we were also able to address a potential geographic bias in the distribution of eggshell types within our dataset on 32 squamates. The dataset of Scharf et al. (2014) comprises worldwide distributed squamate species.

3.3.2 Classification of eggshell types

Although there is high structural variability in eggshells of squamates, we assigned species to only three types in order to study the association between eggshell types and life-history strategies (but see Pike et al. 2012). However, Schleich and Kästle (1988) pointed out: "While it is relatively easy to characterize shells of different orders, it is very difficult to do so at the family or species level, as for instance in squamate shell surfaces." The reasons for this are the similarity of eggshells of phylogenetically very distant forms and the extreme variability of organic and inorganic shell elements (Schleich and Kästle 1988). Nevertheless, we think, it is possible to classify eggshell types within the Squamata, if we relax the definition of the term "eggshell". Packard et al. (1982) used the term eggshell as "a generic term referring to all layers of a freshly laid egg external to the albumen". For the squamates this implies two eggshell types: (1) a 2-layered parchment shell, consisting of a boundary layer and a fibrous shell membrane, which is the most common shell type of the oviparous squamate species; (2) a strongly calcified 3layered shell with a reticular boundary layer, a dense fibrous shell membrane and a calcareous shell layer, which can only be found in a subclade of Gekkota (Gekkonidae, Phyllodactylidae and Sphaerodactylidae) (Packard et al. 1982; Schleich and Kästle 1988; Mikhailov 1997; Osborne and Thompson 2005; Pike et al. 2012). However, Pyron and Burbrink (2014) recently characterised the parity mode of 8006 of the ~ 9400 known extant species, and assigned 1336 species to the parity mode "viviparity", which comprised real viviparity and ovo-viviparity (sometimes called vivi-oviparity, see Lodé (2012) for details; nutrients mostly provided by yolk). Due to the large number of viviparous squamates, we think that there is no compelling reason to ignore all those species, which share the feature of having "no" eggshell (Blackburn 1993). We therefore considered in our analysis a further eggshell type, and thus, a putatively third life-history strategy, which comprises all the livebearing species, regardless of the way oxygen and nutrition is provided to the embryo. Characteristic for this "shell-less" eggshell type is the absence of a real eggshell defined by the existence of a boundary layer, a fibrous shell membrane and, in some rare cases, an additional calciferous shell layer. All shell-less species of our dataset were ovoviviparous. Thus, there was no systematic bias because of the broad concept of the term "shell-less".

We gathered information on eggshell types for all 574 squamate species through an extensive literature search and from previous synopses (Fitch 1970; Schleich and Kästle 1988; Pough 2001; Pike et al. 2012; Pyron and Burbrink 2014). We assigned each squamate species to a particular eggshell type: parchment-shelled, rigid-shelled or shell-less. For the common lizard *Zootoca vivipara*, for which both oviparous and viviparous forms exist, we assumed the shell-less type in our analyses, because of the considerably higher frequency of viviparous than oviparous animals found in the field (Heulin et al. 1989; Agasyan et al. 2010). Our classification revealed that most of the finally studied 32 squamate species belonged to the parchment-shelled type (18 species), and in equal proportions (7 species) to the rigid-shelled and shell-less type.

3.3.3 Data analyses

All statistical analyses were performed with the statistical software R v3.02 (R Development Core Team 2013) and additional packages (see below) available for this software. Initially, we tested for correlations between maximum altitude and life-history traits of species, by taking into consideration the effects of body mass. We therefore established phylogenetic generalized least square fit models (PGLS) for each of the life-history traits with maximum altitude and adult weight as independent variables using the function *gls* of the R-package *nlme* (Pinheiro et al. 2015). As the phylogenetic correlation matrix, we used the large-scale squamate phylogeny of Pyron and Burbrink (2014).

3.3.4 Phylogenetic signal

A phylogenetic signal is present in species traits, because traits characterize species and species are related by their phylogeny (Paradis 2011). To test for phylogenetic signals in egg shell types and studied life-history traits (age at maturity, birth size, clutch size, number of clutches per year, incubation time and maximum longevity) we always generated the respective phylogenetic tree for the squamate dataset studied by pruning an already published phylogeny, which is based on an ultrametric maximum likelihood tree of 4161 squamate species (Pyron et al. 2013; Pyron and Burbrink 2014).

Eggshell type. In all analyses the discrete trait eggshell type was coded as follows: 1 = shell-less, 2 = parchment-shelled, and 3 = rigid-shelled. To estimate the strength of the phylogenetic signal in the discrete trait "eggshell type" for our dataset consisting of 32 species, we used comparative statistics for this trait that are based on the maximum likelihood approach. We initially applied the function *transform.phylo* from the R-package *geiger* (Harmon et al. 2008), which effectively transforms the tree so that the scaling parameter λ fits the extent to which the phylogeny predicts the covariance among trait values for species. The resulting transformed tree indicates the strength of the phylogenetic structure: $\lambda = 0$ leads to a star-like tree with long terminal branches, indicating no phylogenetic structure of the observed trait values; $\lambda = 1$ corresponds to the original tree with untransformed branch lengths, thus recovering the Brownian motion (BM) model of evolution. From this approach we obtained the three trees assuming three λ values 0, 0.5 and 1 (original tree).

We then used the function *fitDiscrete* to establish continuous-time Markov models of discrete trait evolution based on these three trees considering different models of character states (all-rates-different, equal rates, meristic) in order to estimate transition rates between eggshell types. The all-rates-different (ARD) model allows different rates for each transition between two eggshell types (e.g. from eggshell type 1 to 2, but also from 2 to 1 etc.). The equal rates (ER) model assumes a single value for all transition rates between eggshell types. The meristic model allows only stepwise transitions between eggshell types. A direct transition from shell-less to rigid-shelled and vice versa was forbidden (Harmon et al. 2008). To identify the best of the nine models in terms of trait evolution (ARD, ER, meristic) and phylogeny ($\lambda = 0, 0.5, 1$) we compared their goodness of fit by using the Akaike information criterion (AIC) and the small-sample-size corrected AIC (AICc) (Akaike 1974; Hurvich and Tsai 1989).

We additionally used the function *fitDiscrete* with a lambda-transformation to estimate and optimize the λ values by maximum likelihood optimization given different character state models (ARD, ER, meristic) and an untransformed tree (equal to lambda λ = 1, Table 3.1). With this approach the evolutionary model of eggshell types is testable. To determine and visualize the phylogenetic autocorrelation at different taxonomic levels (genus, family, infraorder/superfamily) for the trait eggshell type, we calculated phylogenetic correlograms (Gittleman and Kot 1990) using our dataset with the 32 squamate species but also the complete dataset with 574 species. Gittleman and Kot (1990) suggested the use of those correlograms to visualize the results of phylogenetic autocorrelative analyses, but also to compare the correlation at different distance categories (Paradis 2011). Following these authors, we computed the correlation coefficient (Moran's I) at the genus level among pairs of species belonging to the same genus and for two higher taxonomic levels (family, infraorder/superfamily). We therefore used the function correlogram.formula from the R-package ape (Paradis et al. 2004). The allocation of species to the higher taxonomic groups followed the taxonomy of the Integrated Taxonomic Information System (ITIS), which is also used in the database AnAge (Tacutu et al. 2013). For the highest taxonomic level studied, we merged the taxonomic levels infraorder and superfamily. We derived information on species membership to these two levels from "The Reptile Database" (Uetz and Hošek 2013).

<u>Life-history traits.</u> To identify the phylogenetic autocorrelation of quantitative lifehistory traits among species, we used the function *abouheif.moran* as implemented in the R-package *adephylo* (Jombart and Dray 2010). It is a multivariate, nonparametric procedure based on Moran's I for detecting phylogenetic signals in traits by performing independent Monte Carlo tests for each trait analysed. As a measure of phylogenetic similarity we used the "oriAbouheif" proximity, which is based on Abouheif's test for serial independence (TFSI) and provides a mean C-statistic (Abouheif 1999). With this approach we were able to compare phylogenetic patterns seen in some life-history traits to those seen in the trait "eggshell type" for the species from our squamate dataset.

3.3.5 Methods for classification and ordination: cluster analysis and phylogenetic principal component analysis (pPCA)

To explore if species having a particular eggshell type share the same life-history strategy (in terms of the other traits) we first carried out a classical statistical approach (Tinkle et al. 1970; Dunham et al. 1988). We standardized the distribution of trait values for each life-history trait to a mean of zero and unit variance to ensure

that each trait contributed equally to the dissimilarity matrix. We conducted a cluster analysis based on a dissimilarity matrix established from life-history traits of species to create a phenogram. Its coefficients of dissimilarity were calculated as $d_{ij} = \sum_{i,k} (X_{ik} - X_{jk})$ where X_{ik} is the state of the *k*th trait of species *i* and X_{jk} is the state of the kth trait of species *j* (Tinkle et al. 1970). For the clustering process, we used the function *hclust* as implemented in the package *vegan* (Oksanen et al. 2013) that applies the nearest neighbour algorithm as clustering algorithm, which is closely related to the algorithm used to construct a minimal spanning tree (Gower and Ross 1969). We transformed the resulting dendrogram into a phylogram with the function as.phylo from the package ape (Paradis et al. 2004). To compare it to the respective pruned phylogenetic tree from a recently published squamate phylogeny (Pyron and Burbrink 2014), we used the function compare.phylo from the R-package phyloch (Heibl 2008). The function compare.phylo compares the topological arrangements of two ultrametric trees based on branching times (Paradis 2011). Thus, we could explore if the resulting clusters derived for life-history traits of species (or life-history traits and adult weight of species) coincide with the phylogeny or if species sharing the same eggshell type cluster together based on similar life-history trait values (or similar life-history trait and adult weight values).

A comparison of a cluster analysis and a principal component analysis (PCA) can explain or confirm differences between groups of objects (Borcard et al. 2011). We therefore next conducted phylogenetic principal component analyses (pPCA) by using the function ppca from the R-package adephylo (Jombart and Dray 2010). The phylogenetic proximity matrix between trait vectors of species was computed as implemented in the method "oriAbouheif" of the function ppca (Pavoine et al. 2008). We again first standardized the dataset to a distribution with a mean of zero and unit variance to ensure equal contribution of the traits. For evaluation of the pPCA we selected the principal component with the largest (i.e., most positive) eigenvalue, indicating global structures (close-to-root variation in trait states) and the principal component with the lowest (i.e., most negative) eigenvalue, indicating local structures (close-to-tips variation in trait states) (Jombart et al. 2010a). To correct for the effect of body mass on life-history traits in the pPCA, we additionally established univariate linear regression models for each life-history trait with adult weight as the predictor variable (Jombart et al. 2010a). We repeated the pPCA using only the residuals from these linear models for species traits, to compare this weight-adjusted pPCA with a non-weight-adjusted pPCA. To test for significant differences between the clustering of the eggshell types, we conducted MANOVAs using the scores of PC1 and PC2 obtained from the pPCAs as dependent variables and the eggshell types as grouping factor. This was done with the function *manova* from the R-package *stats* (R Development Core Team 2013).

3.4 Results

The difference in the geographic distribution of the species as assessed by maximum altitude had no significant effect on any of the life-history traits of the squamates in our dataset (see Appendix, Table 9.3). Multiple regression analyses using maximum altitude and adult weight as predictors of life-history traits indicated only a significant influence of adult weight on some of the life-history traits. Thus, maximum altitude was excluded from our further analyses.

3.4.1 Phylogenetic signal

Eggshell type. There was a clear phylogenetic signal for the trait "eggshell type" (Table 3.1).

Table 3.1 Results of continuous-time Markov models of discrete trait evolution for the trait eggshell type for 32 squamate species. Shown are models of discrete trait evolution that assume different character states models (ER = equal rates, ARD = all-rates-different, meristic = stepwise transition between countable traits) and different lambda (λ) values (star-like tree with λ = 0; original tree with λ = 1). Additionally presented are the model likelihoods based on the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) (AICc = sample-size-corrected AIC). Models with an untransformed phylogenetic tree (original tree) provided the best AIC values for the different models of character states (ER, ARD, meristric). Only for these models the transition rates (q_{nm} with subscripts for eggshell types; 1 = shellless, 2 = parchment-shelled, 3 = rigid-shelled) from one eggshell type to another are shown. *The λ value was additionally estimated and optimized by the *fitDiscrete* function (see main text). In the case of the meristic trait model, a direct transition from shell-less to rigid-shelled and vice versa is impossible (q₁₃ or q₃₁ = 0).

| Character | Lambda | AIC | AICc | q ₁₂ | q 13 | q ₂₁ | q 23 | q ₃₁ | q ₃₂ |
|-----------|--------|-------|-------|------------------------|-------------|------------------------|-------------|------------------------|------------------------|
| states | | | | | | | | | |
| models | | | | | | | | | |
| ER | 0 | 65.27 | 65.41 | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| ARD | 0 | 75.27 | 78.77 | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| meristic | 0 | 67.27 | 67.70 | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| ER | 0.5 | 47.36 | 47.49 | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| ARD | 0.5 | 53.01 | 56.51 | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| meristic | 0.5 | 45.40 | 45.83 | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| ER | 1.0* | 42.51 | 42.93 | 0.0017 | 0.0017 | 0.0017 | 0.0017 | 0.0017 | 0.0017 |
| ARD | 1.0* | 47.94 | 52.81 | 0.0119 | 0.0023 | 0.0043 | < 0.0001 | < 0.0001 | 0.0017 |

| meristic | 1.0* | 40.76 | 41.65 | 0.0036 | Fixed(0) | 0.0036 | 0.0010 | Fixed(0) | 0.0010 |
|----------|------|-------|-------|--------|----------|--------|--------|----------|--------|
| | | | | | (- / | | | (- / | |

The best model in terms of AIC and AICc used a meristic model for trait evolution and the original phylogenetic tree (λ = 1; AIC = 40.76, AICc = 41.65). Assuming no phylogenetic relation (λ = 0) for eggshell types gave the worst fit (meristic: AIC = 67.27, AICc = 67.70), whereas AIC and AICc values were intermediate for λ = 0.5.



Figure 3.1 Phylogenetic correlogram showing the strength of the phylogenetic signal in the trait "eggshell type" at different taxonomic levels of the order Squamata. The phylogenetic signal was assessed by Moran's I and was calculated for two different datasets (n = 32 and n = 574; see text for details). Unfilled triangle and dashed line: Moran's I values calculated for the 32 squamate species for which we had a complete dataset on life-history traits. Solid circle and solid line: Moran's I values calculated for 574 squamate species, for which the dataset on life-history traits was incomplete. Autocorrelation was significant at all taxonomic levels in both analyses.

For the best model based on the original phylogenetic tree and a meristic character states model, the continuous-time Markov model of discrete trait evolution estimated a λ of 1.00 (value close to the bounds of the parameter space) and thus corroborated the previous results (Table 3.1). The continuous-time Markov models with a fixed λ (= 1) also estimated the transition rates between the eggshell types (Table 3.1). The meristic trait model predicted a high transition rate from shell-less to parchmentshelled ($q_{12} = 0.0036$), and a low rate for parchment-shelled to rigid-shelled ($q_{23} =$ 0.0010). For our dataset comprising 32 species the phylogenetic signal of the trait "eggshell type" did not scale with increasing taxonomic levels. The strongest phylogenetic signal on eggshell type was observed at the lowest taxonomic level (genus: Moran's I = 0.71, p < 0.001), but the signal did not clearly diminish with increasing taxonomic levels (Figure 3.1). From the genus to the family level there was a decrease in Moran's I (0.38, p < 0.001), whereas it increased again from the family to the infraorder/superfamily level (Moran's I = 0.56, p < 0.001). Contrary, the analysis of 576 squamate species clearly indicated a decrease in Moran's I from the genus to the infraorder/superfamily level.

Life-history traits. Abouheif's test for serial independence (TFSI) revealed different results for life-history traits of the 32 species. It detected significant phylogenetic autocorrelation for birth size (Abouheif's $C_{mean} = 0.38$, p = 0.001), clutch size (Abouheif's $C_{mean} = 0.63$, p = 0.001), clutches per year (Abouheif's $C_{mean} = 0.40$, p = 0.001) and age at female maturity (Abouheif's $C_{mean} = 0.18$, p = 0.023), but no significant phylogenetic autocorrelation for incubation time (Abouheif's $C_{mean} = 0.11$, p = 0.126) and maximum longevity (Abouheif's $C_{mean} = -0.15$, p = 0.855).

3.4.2 Identification of life-history strategies with PCA and cluster analysis

The comparison of the life-history traits based phenogram with the phylogenetic tree (Figure 3.2a and b) indicated differing patterns of relationships for the 32 studied squamate species, and thus their eggshell types (branching times differences: mean = 109.61, median = 122.38, standard deviation σ = 62.17).

While species sharing the same eggshell type clearly grouped together in the

phylogenetic tree (Figure 3.2a), there was only a weak association between the lifehistory strategy of species and eggshell types as shown by the cluster analysis (Figure 3.2b). A phenogram based on a life-history traits and adult weight of species was more similar to the phylogenetic tree (Figure 3.2c; branching times differences: mean = 76.14, median = 61.41, σ = 65.32) and species sharing the same eggshell type grouped together (Figure 3.2c). The shell-less snake Vipera berus and the shellless lizard Anguis fragilis formed a single cluster, and also the two rigid-shelled species from the gekkotan genus Phelsuma. The largest cluster of species that share an eggshell type consisted of five parchment-shelled lizard species (Eublepharis macularius, Gallotia atlantica, Gallotia galloti, Podarcis muralis, Podarcis siculus). Most of the clusters of the phenogram contained species having two different eggshell types, and one cluster even comprised species from all three eggshell types. The latter group consisted of four lizard species (shell-less: Zootoca vivipara, parchment-shelled: Gallotia simonyi and rigid-shelled: Phelsuma madagascariensis, Tarentola mauritanica) and one parchment-shelled snake, the viper Hemorrhois ravergieri. In both the phenogram and the phylogenetic tree the parchment-shelled lizard Phrynocephalus helioscopus was most distantly related to any of the other species.

The phylogenetic principal component analysis (pPCA) indicated a clear clustering of species' life-history strategies based on their eggshell types (Figure 3.3; Pillai's trace = 0.48, F(2,29) = 13.21, p < 0.001). All species of the shell-less group, except for Zootoca vivipara (only in the two left-hand quadrants), are mapped in the lower righthand quadrant of the pPCA plot. Species laying rigid-shelled eggs are located in the two right-hand quadrants. The global axis (first principal component, PC1) had a positive eigenvalue of 1.851 and explained 30.85% of the total variance in life-history strategies; the eigenvalue of the local axis PC2 was negative (-0.199) and explained 3.32% of the variance. The trait loadings of PCs suggested different contributions of life-history traits to axes (PC1: birth size = -0.48, clutch size = -0.55, clutches per year = 0.50, age at female maturity = -0.46, incubation time = -0.04, maximum longevity = -0.08; PC2: birth size = -0.20, clutch size = 0.18, clutches per year = 0.24, age at female maturity = 0.06, incubation time = 0.37, maximum longevity = 0.85). PC1 was strongest influenced by the traits age at female maturity, birth size, clutches per year and clutch size, whereas PC2 by incubation time and maximum longevity. The adult weight-adjusted pPCA did not reveal any association of eggshell types and life-history strategies (Figure 3.4a; Pillai's trace < 0.01, F(2,29) = 0.03, p = 0.97). Species of any eggshell type were found in all guadrants of the adult weight-adjusted pPCA plot. Further, the trait loadings indicated differing contributions of traits to the two principal components (PC1: birth size = 0.34, clutch size = -0.04, clutches per year = -0.29, age at female maturity = 0.53, incubation time = 0.56, maximum longevity = 0.45; PC2: birth size = 0.29, clutch size = 0.50, clutches per year = -0.67, age at female maturity = -0.17, incubation time = 0.03, maximum longevity = -0.44). Contrary to the non-weight-adjusted pPCA, the main contributors to PC1 were age at female maturity, incubation time and maximum longevity, and for PC2 clutch size, clutches per year and maximum longevity. The eigenvalues of both axes were low compared to the non-weight-adjusted pPCA with 0.655 for PC1 and -0.225 for the PC2 and the amount of variability explained by the two PCs was much lower (PC1: explained variance = 10.91%; PC2: 3.75%). However, a non-weight-adjusted pPCA considering adult weight as a further trait (Figure 3.4b) besides the life-history traits of species retained the association of eggshell types and life-history strategies and led to a PC1 with a higher degree of variance explained (33.14%; Pillai's trace = 0.44, F(2,29) = 11.24, p < 0.001).



Figure 3.2 Phenograms of the 32 squamate species based on different analyses and a graphical display of trait values. a) Pruned phylogenetic tree of our squamate dataset derived from a recently published phylogeny (Pyron and Burbrink 2014). b) Phenogram as the result of a cluster analysis based on life-history traits of species. c) Phenogram as the result of a cluster analysis evaluating life-history traits and additionally adult weight of species. d) Graphical display of phylogeny and trait values of species. In a) through c) filled circles = shell-less, open triangles = parchment-shelled, and black crosses = rigid-shelled. In b) and c) red circles indicate internal nodes of trees. The numbers give the differences in branching times as time shifts of internal nodes which are present in both trees. For mean branching times see main text. In d) circle diameters and colours represent values of traits. Horizontal numbers: 1. adult weight, 2. birth size, 3. clutch size, 4. clutches per year, 5. age at female maturity, 6. incubation time, 7. maximum longevity, 8. eggshell type. For trait eggshell: open circles = shell-less, no circles = parchment-shelled, and filled circles = rigid-shelled.



Figure 3.3 Phylogenetic principal component analysis (pPCA) based on the life history of the studied 32 squamate species with one global principal component (PC1) and one local principal component (PC2). Axes are based on life-history traits of species. Arrows indicate loadings, thus the contribution of life-history traits to PC1 and PC2. The phylogenetic weight matrix was taken from the phylogeny of Pyron and Burbrink (2014). In this analysis we did not consider adult weight (see Figure 3.4). Species numbers: 1. Anguis fragilis, 2. Coronella girondica, 3. Eryx jaculus, 4. Eublepharis macularius, 5. Euleptes europaea, 6. Gallotia atlantica, 7. Gallotia galloti, 8. Gallotia simonyi, 9. Gallotia stehlini, 10. Hemidactylus turcicus, 11. Hemorrhois ravergieri, 12. Lacerta agilis, 13. Lacerta strigata, 14. Macrovipera lebetina, 15. Malpolon monspessulanus, 16. Natrix natrix, 17. Phelsuma laticauda, 18. Phelsuma lineata, 19. Phelsuma madagascariensis, 20. Phrynocephalus helioscopus, 21. Podarcis muralis, 22. Podarcis siculus, 23. Ptyodactylus hasselquistii, 24. Tarentola mauritanica, 25. Timon lepidus, 26. Vipera aspis, 27. Vipera berus, 28. Vipera latastei, 29. Vipera renardi, 30. Zamenis longissimus, 31. Zamenis situla, 32. Zootoca vivipara. Clutches pa = clutches per annum (per year).



Figure 3.4 Weight-adjusted principal component analysis (pPCA) based on the life history of the studied 32 squamate species with one global principal component (PC1) and one local principal component (PC2). Axes are based on life-history traits of species. Arrows indicate loadings, thus the contribution of life-history traits to PC1 and PC2. The phylogenetic weight matrix was taken from the phylogeny of Pyron and Burbrink (2014). a) In this analysis life-history traits were analysed thereby correcting for adult weight. b) Adult weight was added as further trait to life-history traits. For species numbers please refer to Figure 3.3. Clutches pa = number of clutches per annum (per year).

3.5 Discussion

3.5.1 Phylogenetic signals of eggshell types and life-history traits

The hypothesis that ecological and phylogenetic similarity between species are linked (Felsenstein 1985; Pagel 1999b; Losos 2008) was one of the main drivers for this study. Blomberg et al. (2003) were already able to show for phylogenetic trees with 20 or more species that for a broad range of living organisms 92% of the analysed traits exhibited a significant phylogenetic signal. We asked in our study whether related squamate species share the same eggshell type. Our investigation clearly showed that the discrete trait "eggshell type" has a strong phylogenetic signal (Table 3.1). It is a meristic trait, which evolves under Brownian motion (estimated lambda λ = 1.00). We further showed, that the phylogenetic signal vanishes with increasing distances from the root to the tips of the phylogenetic tree ($\lambda < 1$), indicating a location of the signal at a low taxonomic level (Table 3.1). This is consistent with the result of the phylogenetic correlogram (Figure 3.1), which has the advantage of not explicitly assuming an evolutionary model (Münkemüller et al. 2012). The noticeably higher Moran's I value for the infraorder/superfamily level in the correlogram seems to be an artefact of the small dataset (n = 32), because the same analysis applied to a larger dataset of 574 squamate species showed a steady decline with higher taxonomic levels for eggshell type (Figure 3.1). If we interpret the discrete trait "eggshell type" as a morphological trait (e.g. shell thickness or shell strength), we can follow the suggestion from Wiens and Slingluff (2001) and treat the eggshell type as a continuous and quantitative character. In this case, a likelihood model of continuous character evolution (Pagel 1999b; Blomberg et al. 2003; Harmon et al. 2008) confirmed the results of the discrete trait evolution model for eggshell types (AIC = 34.60, AICc = 35.49, λ = 1, close to bounds of the parameter space). Thus, regardless of whether the trait "eggshell type" is treated as a discrete or continuous character, it has a strong phylogenetic signal.

To assess the evolutionary distances between eggshell types, we estimated the transition rates between eggshell types assuming the meristic model, which got the highest statistical support (Table 3.1). It predicts a higher likelihood for a transition between the shell-less type and the parchment-shelled type than for a transition

between the parchment-shelled type and rigid-shelled type. This indicates that there is less evolutionary distance between the shell-less and the parchment-shelled type, than between the parchment-shelled and rigid-shelled type. This result is unexpected, as the transition from parchment-shelled to shell-less, thus oviparity to viviparity, has involved more physiological changes like egg-retention or formation of placenta-like structures (De Fraipont et al. 1996; Blackburn 1998; Blackburn and Flemming 2009; Stewart 2013) than the transition from parchment-shelled to rigid-shelled eggs. The emergence of the rigid-eggshell type was a unique evolutionary event within the squamates, rigid eggshells only exist in some gekkotan families (Schleich and Kästle 1988; Pike et al. 2012). It has been argued that the rigid eggshell is only a special variant of the parchment-shelled type, because after oviposition the eggs are still soft and during the subsequent hardening process the eggs are transformed within about one hour into rigid-shelled eggs (Schleich and Kästle 1988; Henkel and Schmidt 1991; Rogner 1992; Rösler 1995).

We also explored whether a phylogenetic signal is seen in the life-history traits to understand their possible association. This analysis revealed a dichotomy for species' life-history traits: the phylogenetically related traits (birth size, clutch size, clutches per year and age at female maturity) and the traits lacking such a relation (incubation time and maximum longevity). Few studies on the influence of the shared evolutionary history on the life-history traits including those investigated by us exist for different squamate taxa (summarized in Blomberg et al. 2003). For lizards, especially traits concerning body size do in general possess a phylogenetic signal (Clobert et al. 1998; Perry and Garland 2002), e.g. body mass for members of the genus Anolis (Losos 1990) and SVL or tail length for the family Anguidae (Wiens and Slingluff 2001). But exceptions have also been reported, such as the iguana family *Phrynosomatidae*, where body size is not influenced by a shared evolutionary history (Bonine et al. 2001). For the life-history traits of lizards, studied by Clobert et al. (1998), a significant phylogenetic signal existed for the traits age at maturity, clutch size and number of clutches per year after correcting traits for snout-vent-length (SVL). When we corrected the traits in our dataset for adult mass, this resulted in a complete loss of phylogenetic relatedness for all traits except for incubation time, which now showed a significant phylogenetic signal (Abouheif's $C_{mean} = 0.23$, p = 0.03). However, we think that these results provide further evidence that not all traits correlate to their phylogenetic history (Abouheif 1999; Blomberg et al. 2003).

3.5.2 Relation between eggshell types and life-history traits and the influence of body mass

We tested the hypothesis, that species which share the same eggshell type possess similar characteristics of life-history traits. As the trait "eggshell type" has a strong phylogenetic signal, it can be seen as a substitute for phylogeny (see discussion about "Phylogenetic signal of eggshell types and life-history traits"). Consequently, phylogenetically related species should also have the same eggshell type. This expectation is supported by the phylogenetic tree (Pyron et al. 2013), which shows a grouping of phylogenetically related species sharing the same eggshell type (Figure 3.2b). If life-history strategies are associated with particular eggshell types, the phylogenetic tree. Interestingly, this phenogram and the phylogenetic tree differed (Figure 3.2a and b).

There was no clear consensus on the positions of squamate species in both, and thus of eggshell types. In the cluster analysis based phenogram there were mostly groups of species which represented two eggshell types. Only the combinations shell-less/parchment-shelled and parchment-shelled/rigid-shelled could be found, which supports the finding that eggshell type is a meristic character. However, there was one group (Gallotia simonyi, Hemorrhois ravergieri, Tarentola mauritanica, Zootoca vivipara), which comprised members of all three eggshell types. Here, the differences between the phenogram from cluster analysis and the phylogenetic tree were strongest. Especially the position of the only snake of this group, *H. ravergieri*, differed strongly between the phenogram and the phylogenetic tree (Figure 3.2a and b). The reason for this could be the exceptionally low age at female maturity and the small birth size of Hemorrhois ravergieri compared to other snakes. If we included adult weight as a further parameter in our cluster analysis, H. ravergieri was placed close to parchment-shelled species with a more similar adult weight (Figure 3.2c). This also happened for Gallotia simonyi, the second species of this group (Figure 3.2c). The third species of this group, the rigid-shelled Tarentola mauritanica, clustered together with species of different eggshell types but similar adult weights (Figure 3.2c). Thus, adult weight seems to have a greater effect on the positioning of the squamate species within the life-history trait based phenogram than the other lifehistory traits studied. The fourth species of this cluster, the shell-less species Zootoca

vivipara, is extremely widespread. This reptile has the most northern distribution with presences up to the 70th parallel of latitude of all squamate species. Individuals of northern populations can be viviparous (shell-less eggs), as assumed for this species in our analyses, whereas those of extreme southwestern populations lay parchmentshelled eggs (Heulin et al. 1989; Guillaume et al. 2006; Agasyan et al. 2010; Uetz and Hošek 2013). Life-history traits also show large variability due to local adaption and reflect the broad range of environmental conditions that are found within the distribution range of Z. vivipara. This explains the considerable distance of Z. vivipara to the other shell-less species in the cluster analysis based phenogram. The parchment-shelled agama Phrynocephalus helioscopus has the highest distance to each of the other species in this phenogram (Figure 3.2b and c). Its considerable shorter average lifespan of 2.5 years compared to that of all other species (Darewskij, cited in Böhme, 1981) have added to these large distances. A low lifespan is also seen in other species of the genus *Phrynocephalus*. For example, *P*. *guttatus* individuals can live for 1 - 2 years, and in a *P. mystaceus* population only few animals lived up to 6 years (Böhme 1981).

In conclusion, the order of species in the life-history traits based phenogram matched only to a low degree their order in the phylogenetic tree, and thus of the eggshell types, but the degree of consensus between both increased if adult weight was additionally included in the analysis. We thus conclude that life-history traits reflect only to a certain amount the shared evolutionary history of squamate species. This is consistent with our results on a phylogenetic signal in life-history traits (see discussion about "Phylogenetic signal of eggshell types and life-history traits").

Consequently, to derive to what extent life-history traits are related to particular eggshell types and vice versa, we removed the phylogenetic signal in the pPCA, and also the effect of body size. Additionally, the findings from the trait-based phenogram necessitated taking care of the effect of body size as well. After removal of a phylogenetic signal by utilizing a phylogenetic principal component analysis (pPCA), we could identify distinct life-history strategies for all of the three eggshell types (Figure 3.3). The pPCA revealed a strongly explanatory global axis (30.8% explained variance) associated with large positive Moran's I values and a weak explanatory local axis (4.4% explained variance) associated with large negative Moran's I values. Jombart et al. (2010), however, recommended an interpretation of the local axis even when the corresponding eigenvalue is small in comparison to that of the global axis, if

it is biologically informative. Following the suggestion of that paper, the local axis predicts that the shell-less type corresponds with a lifestyle characterized by late sexual maturity of females, production of few, large clutches and offspring with a large birth size. Shell-less species also have a considerable higher life expectancy. while incubation time (or more precisely gestation time) is prolonged compared to rigid-shelled species. For the reasons explained above, the life-history traits of Z. vivipara did not match this shell-less strategy. Rigid-shelled species show early sexual maturity, a production of multiple, small clutches and have offspring of a small birth size. There were no differences in terms of lifespan or incubation time compared to the shell-less or parchment-shelled type. Parchment-shelled species were the most diverse group with respect to life-history strategies. They either covered the strategy of the shell-less and rigid-shelled species, or had an intermediate strategy with respect to the age at female maturity, clutch size, frequency of clutches per year and birth size. Our results on life-history strategies in squamates did not completely corroborate the results on gekkotan species (Pike et al. 2012). While consistent with the findings of Pike et al. (2012) the offspring of rigid-shelled squamates had smaller birth sizes than of parchment-shelled squamates (rigid-shelled: mean 4.31, parchment-shelled: mean 12.77; t = 4.01; p < 0.001), contrary to these authors incubation time did not differ between these two eggshell types (rigid-shelled: mean 67.29; parchment-shelled: mean 58.28; t = -1.10; p = 0.30).

Analyses of reproductive strategies seen in different squamate groups have been carried out by several authors (Tinkle 1969; Tinkle et al. 1970; Dunham and Miles 1985; Dunham et al. 1988; Bauwens and Díaz-Uriarte 1997; Shine 2005; Meiri et al. 2012). Tinkle et al. (1970) proposed different reproduction strategies for oviparous and viviparous lizards. Oviparous lizards mature early and produce clutches frequently, the reproduction strategy that is seen in the rigid-shelled squamates (Tinkle et al. 1970). Viviparous lizards mature late and produce few, small or large clutches (Tinkle et al. 1970), which is consistent with our characterisation of the shell-less squamates, although the shell-less species in our dataset were mostly snakes and not lizards. Tinkle et al. (1970) also described two intermediary reproduction strategy combines early reproduction and multiple, small clutches and the other a delayed reproduction with one large clutch per year (Tinkle et al. 1970). Dunham et al. (1988) validated the results of Tinkle et al. (1970) for lizards and repeated their

analyses for snakes. They identified three reproductive strategies in snakes: singlebrooded, oviparous species, as well as annually-breeding and biennially-breeding viviparous species (Dunham et al. 1988). The biennially-breeding viviparous species are larger, have larger clutches and a more delayed maturity than the annuallybreeding viviparous species (Dunham et al. 1988). As all shell-less species in our study (except for Z. vivipara) are snakes or snake-like (Anguis fragilis), this dichotomy in life-history strategies of viviparous snakes partly corroborates our unclear results on the life-history strategy of shell-less species. Stearns (1984) already analysed the effects of body size and phylogeny on patterns of covariation in life-history traits of lizards and snakes. He recognized that, although these patterns are influenced by phylogeny, the main reason for the patterns of covariation is the correlation of the life-history traits with the average adult female length, and thus body size (Stearns 1984). Dunham and Miles (1985) questioned the results of Stearns (1984). After removing size effects from a corrected version of Stearns' dataset, they demonstrated a significant impact of phylogeny on the covariation in life-history traits. Dunham et al. (1988) argued that similarities between life-history strategies of squamate species most likely result from physiological constraints that are linked to the mode of reproduction and to breeding frequency (Dunham et al. 1988). In our study, the original grouping of eggshell types in the pPCA diagram almost completely vanished when life-history traits were corrected for adult weight and their residuals were used (Figure 3.4a). This observation points to a strong size effect on life-history traits as suggested by Stearns (1984). When adult weight was included as a further life-history trait in the pPCA (Figure 3.4b), the original grouping of eggshell types was recovered, which points to a stronger effect of phylogeny on life-history strategies and thus corroborates Dunham and Miles (1985). Differences in adult body sizes between parchment-shelled and rigid-shelled gekkotan species were also observed by Pike et al. (2012). In our study on squamate species the mean adult weight also differed between the eggshell types (Kruskal-Wallis test $\chi^2 = 11.94$, df = 2, p-value < 0.01, Figure 3.5).

Overall, we conclude from our analyses that a distinct eggshell type is correlated with a particular body size, which in turn is associated with a distinct life-history strategy. However, the squamate dataset analysed by us was small, because only for 32 species all studied traits were available, and the phylogeny of squamates as well as the geographic distribution of the eggshell types could have been insufficiently covered.



Figure 3.5 Relative frequencies of adult weights (in grams) of the analysed 32 squamate species presented for each of the three eggshell types. White = viviparous, grey = parchment-shelled eggs, black = rigid-shelled eggs.

We therefore repeated the pPCAs with a dataset comprising 300 worldwide distributed squamates and only 5 life-history traits for each species from a recent publication (Scharf et al. 2014). This dataset lacks direct measurements of body mass of species (g), and estimated species' body mass from length-weight allometries (snout-vent-length or total length of animals). We think that this approach is problematic as large differences between the estimated and the real body mass can result (see Appendix, Table 9.2). Nevertheless, the results of a pPCA for a dataset which is an order of magnitude larger (300 species) and covers fewer life-history traits resembled the results obtained for our 32 studied squamates (see Appendix, Figure 9.1). The rigid-shelled and the shell-less species were clearly separated in the pPCA plot, while the parchment-shelled species were found in each of the quadrants. When we corrected for body mass in this pPCA again the explained variance decreased significantly and the previously found pattern disappeared (see Appendix, Figure 9.2).

Our results indicate a high impact of body mass on life-styles associated with egg shells. However, metabolic rate influences all levels of biological organization including life-histories of species (Brown et al. 2004). Since metabolic rate and body mass are linked (for squamates see Andrews *et al.*, 1985; Chappell & Ellis, 1987; Thompson *et al.*, 1997), an analysis disentangling the effects of body mass and metabolic rate on the association of eggshell types and life-histories of squamates would be very intriguing, but the inclusion of metabolic rate in this study would have presumably further reduced our dataset, because data on metabolic rates are insufficiently available for the species under study.

4 Allometric relationships of reptiles' life history traits and new insights into the phylogenetic position of the tuatara (*Sphenodon punctatus*) from its life history

4.1 Abstract

Allometric relationships linking species characteristics (e.g. life history traits, organ size, metabolic rate) to body size or mass (scaling) are important in biology. However, studies on allometric scaling of life history traits in reptiles (crocodiles, squamates, turtles and the tuatara, Sphenodon punctatus) are rather scarce, especially for the orders Crocodilia, Testudines and Rhynchocephalia (single recent species, the tuatara). Most studies on Rhynchocephalia place them phylogenetically close to squamates, while others propose a more basal position within reptiles. Existing studies on scaling of reptilian life history traits indicate that they differ from those seen in the other amniotes mammals and birds, but most studies used nonphylogenetic informed analyses and small samples. For nine life history traits, we conducted analyses on their allometric relation to body mass in reptiles (n = 369) and used for the first time a phylogenetically informed approach. We explored differences in allometric relationships between the reptilian orders Crocodilia, Squamata and Testudines as well as to the other amniotes (mammals and birds). Finally, we used our scaling relationships on life history traits to gain new insights into the phylogenetic position of the tuatara and potentially of the Rhynchocephalia. We observed for none of the life history traits any difference in scaling between crocodiles and turtles. Only for clutch size and egg weight there were differences in scaling relationships between some of the reptile orders. Compared to birds and mammals, our life history allometries on all reptiles showed similarities for timesrelated traits (age at female maturity, maximum longevity) and differences for reproductive traits (clutch size, incubation/gestation time). The tuatara's life history fitted better to a similar-sized turtle or crocodile than to a squamate. Six out of eight traits corroborated a more basal position of the tuatara, and potentially of the Rhynchocephalia within reptiles.

4.2 Introduction

Allometric relationships linking species characteristics to body size or mass (scaling) are very common in biology, because every aspect of life is more or less associated with body size and metabolic rate (Kleiber 1932; Peters 1983; Schmidt-Nielsen 1984; Brown et al. 2004). After Snell's (1891) first use of an allometric equation describing the relationship between brain mass and body mass in mammals, subsequent studies unveiled the importance of allometric scaling not only for organs (e.g. blood, heart, lungs, skeleton etc.), but also for physiological functions (e.g. animal locomotion, blood and gas transport, oxygen supply, temperature regulation etc.) and even for ecological and evolutionary aspects of life (e.g. abundance, home-range sizes, life history strategies etc.; summarized in Peters 1983 and Schmidt-Nielsen 1984). These investigations led ultimately to the discovery of a "fast-slow"-continuum of life histories of mammals, where species are arranged on a single axis with small, early maturing, highly fecund and short-lived species on the "fast" side and large species with opposite trait characteristics on the "slow" side of the continuum (Stearns 1983).

The fundamental relevance of allometric relationships was recently confirmed and refined by the metabolic theory of ecology (MTE, Brown et al. 2004). The MTE relies on a ³/₄ power scaling of resting (basal) metabolic rate with body mass and utilizes an Arrhenius approach to model differences in metabolic rates due to body temperature differences of similar-sized species. The MTE "predicts how metabolic rate, by setting the rates of resource uptake from the environment and resource allocation to survival, growth, and reproduction, controls ecological processes at all levels of organization from individuals to the biosphere" (Brown et al. 2004).

Although most allometric analyses especially on life history traits have been carried out for mammals (e.g. Tuomi 1980; Bekoff et al. 1981; Stearns 1983; Schmitz and Lavigne 1984; Swihart 1984; Gittleman 1985; Jones 1985; Dobson 1992; Dobson and Oli 2007), the impact of body size on life histories has been demonstrated for many other taxonomic groups (e.g. Blueweiss et al. 1978, Peters 1983, Schmidt-Nielsen 1984, Hendriks and Mulder 2008). The majority of these studies did not correct for the shared evolutionary history of species, although phylogeny is known to strongly influence regression coefficients of allometric equations (Harvey and Pagel 1991; Clauss et al. 2014; Lemaître et al. 2014). This is because phylogenetic

correction requires phylogenies of taxa. At the clade level these became available during the last years (Bininda-Emonds et al. 2002 for mammals, Jetz et al. 2012 for birds).

Studies on the allometric scaling of life history traits in (non-avian) reptiles (crocodiles, squamates, turtles and the tuatara, Sphenodon punctatus) are generally rather scarce, and are mostly limited to the Squamata ("lizards", snakes, and amphisbaenians - "worm lizards"; Tinkle 1969; Tinkle et al. 1970; Stearns 1984; Andrews et al. 1985; Dunham and Miles 1985; Dunham et al. 1988; Warne and Charnov 2008; Scharf et al. 2014). This is most probably due to the fact that 96.3% (> 9000 species) of all reptilian species are squamates (Pincheira-Donoso et al. 2013). Existing studies on scaling of life history traits in reptiles suggest that they differ from those seen in mammals and birds (Promislow et al. 1992; Werner and Griebeler 2011). For example, allometric relations of life history traits among lizards have shallower slopes and become less significant with increasing taxonomic level, while in mammals the slopes and the significance of the allometric regression lines increase with an increasing taxonomic level (Promislow et al. 1992). The life histories of some reptilian taxa show also deviations from the fast-slow continuum. The lizard species of the family Lacertidae have small clutches but relatively large young and are placed at the "fast" end, and species with large clutches and small young are placed at the "slow" end of the continuum (Bauwens and Díaz-Uriarte 1997). The latter study also emphasized the existence of different life history strategies in lacertids based on body size, where e.g. small species mature earlier than large species. Furthermore, a current large-scale comparative study comprising the whole squamate group and the tuatara (Sphenodon punctatus) revealed a significantly lower impact of body size on longevity than it does in mammals and birds (Scharf et al. 2014).

In contrast to squamates, for the orders Crocodilia, Testudines and Rhynchocephalia far less is known on the influence of body mass on their life history traits. For the order Crocodilia the allometric scaling of e.g. clutch size and egg mass was so far only studied without correcting for phylogeny (Thorbjarnarson 1996). Information on the allometric scaling of turtles' life histories is very often only available for single species (e.g. Ryan and Lindeman 2007; Portelinha et al. 2013) or in interspecific studies non-phylogenetic analyses on small sample sizes were used (Werner and Griebeler 2013). In some cases the authors used carapace length of turtles and

tortoises instead of body mass (e.g. Wilbur and Morin 1988; Elgar and Heaphy 1989; Iverson 1992).

The order Rhynchocepalia is nowadays only represented by one extant species, the tuatara, *Sphenodon punctatus* (Hay et al. 2010), which makes any allometric analysis for this group impossible. Phylogenetic position of the tuatara is controversially discussed in literature. Most studies using nuclear and mitochondrial markers place the tuatara and thus the Rhynchocephalia next to the squamates as a sister group (Cree 2014), while other studies based on the spermatozoal ultrastructure suggest a more basal position of the Rhynchocephalia and place them between the turtles and crocodiles (Jamieson 2014).

In this paper, we conducted analyses on allometric relationships between life history traits and body mass for reptiles and used for the first time a phylogenetically informed approach. We aimed at the following questions:

(1) Which life history traits show an allometric relationship to body mass in reptiles? Are there differences in these relationships between the reptilian orders Crocodilia, Squamata and Testudines? Are there even differences in relationships within these clades? Have the most species-rich suborders lizards and snakes the same life history allometries, or do these differ between suborders?

(2) Are there differences in the allometric relationships of life history traits between different amniote groups? Do reptiles differ from mammals and from their closest relatives (Lecointre and Guyader 2005), the birds?

We also discuss our results on allometric relationships in reptiles, in the context of the theory on a fast-slow continuum of life history strategies, and also to gain new insights into the phylogenetic position of the tuatara (*S. punctatus*), and thus of the order Rhynchocephalia, within the reptiles.

4.3 Material & Methods

4.3.1 Data collection

We conducted an extensive search for data on life history and adult weight for reptilian species (see Appendix, Table 9.10). We used primary literature (e.g. Thorbjarnarson, 1996 for crocodiles; Meiri 2010 and Feldman and Meiri 2013 for

squamate body sizes), encyclopedias (e.g. for reptiles: "Handbuch der Reptilien und Amphibien Europas", Böhme 1981; Böhme 1984; Böhme 1986; Böhme 1993; Bischoff 1998; Böhme 1999; Fritz 2001; Fritz 2005; Joger and Stümpel 2005; for turtles: "Turtles of the World", Ernst and Barbour 1989), textbooks for particular reptile groups (e.g. for geckos: Henkel and Schmidt 1991; Rogner 1992; Rösler 1995), as well as the Internet databases AnAge which provides additional information (mainly on maximum longevity and age at first maturity) on worldwide distributed reptilian species (Tacutu et al. 2013), and The Animal Diversity Web (ADW, http://animaldiversity.org, Myers et al. 2015). We focused on nine life history traits which comprise the complete life cycle of an animal: age at female maturity (days), birth size (total length, cm), birth weight (g), clutch size, number of clutches per year, egg weight (g), incubation time (days), maximum longevity (years) and size at maturity (cm). We selected adult weight (g) instead of body length or snout-ventlength as a measure of animal size, because of the great diversity of body shapes seen in reptiles (Hallmann and Griebeler 2015), and also for comparability of our reptilian allometries to previous studies and as well as to studies on mammals and birds.

Anecdotal remarks on species' life history traits given in the sources were not taken into account. In the cases we found ranges or multiple values for a species, traits were always averaged for statistical analyses. In total, we collected data on the aforementioned nine life history traits from 743 species. Information for adult weight was only available for 369 reptile species (294 squamates, 52 turtles, 22 crocodiles and the tuatara, *Sphenodon punctatus*). We used this reduced dataset without the tuatara (n = 368) for all further analyses.

Squamates. Data on life history and adult weight was available for 294 squamate species: 173 lizards (58.8%), 119 snakes (40.5%) and two amphisbaenids (0.7%). Most lizards in our dataset belonged to the families Lacertidae (n = 29), Gekkonidae (n = 22) and Scincidae (n = 19). Most snakes in our dataset were from the families Colubridae (n = 35) and Viperidae (n = 35).

According to a recent assessment of the global diversity of living reptiles 96.3% of all non-avian reptiles are squamates (59% lizards, 35% snakes, and 2% amphisbaenians; Pincheira-Donoso et al. 2013). Most lizards belong to the families Scincidae and Gekkonidae, while most snake species can be found in the family Colubridae (Pincheira-Donoso et al. 2013). Thus, our dataset showed a very good

agreement with the global reptilian diversity, with only the amphisbaenids being slightly underrepresented (n = 2) in our dataset at both the order and family level.

Turtles. We collected data on life history and adult weight of 52 turtle species. Thus 17% of all 327 currently known turtle species on earth were represented in our dataset (Pincheira-Donoso et al. 2013). Most of our turtle species were from the suborder Cryptodira (n = 50) and the family Testudinidae (n = 35). The families Cheloniidae and Emydidae accounted for 5 species each. Only two species are from the suborder Pleurodira: *Podocnemis expansa* and *Podocnemis unifilis* (family Podocnemididae). We had no species from the most species-rich turtle family Geoemydidae (Pincheira-Donoso et al. 2013) in our dataset.

Crocodiles. Data on life history and adult weight was available for 22 crocodile species. Of the species covered by the phylogeny of Oaks (2011) only *Caiman yacare* was missing (no information on adult weight and life history), Pincheira-Donoso et al. (2013) considered two crocodile species more than Oaks (2011) in their global assessment of living reptile species: *Crocodylus raninus* (Ross 1992) and *Crocodylus suchus*. However, the latter taxon was formerly assigned to *Crocodylus niloticus* and is now thought to be a distinct species (Hekkala et al. 2011). The systematic status of both species is still highly controversial (Uetz and Hošek 2013). We therefore based our dataset on the phylogeny of Oaks (2011), and did not include *C. raninus* and *C. suchus* in our dataset.

Unfortunately, for all crocodilian species we were unable to gather information on all nine life history traits. Information on birth size was only available for six species, on birth weight for four species and on the number of clutches per year for two species. Thus, in the analysis of the complete crocodilian dataset, only six life history traits could be studied.

Geographic distribution. To account for differences in the geographic distribution of species and their potential influence on the life history traits of species, we also collected information on the maximum altitude (m) of areas inhabited by species (Tinkle and Gibbons 1977; Adolph and Porter 1993; Hodges 2004). Information on maximum altitude of reptilian species was extracted from various sources (see Appendix Table 9.10), except for the crocodilian species where it was mainly taken from ADW.

4.3.2 Data analyses

All statistical analyses were performed with the statistical software R v3.02 (R Development Core Team 2013) and additional packages (see below) available for this software. Initially, we tested for correlations between maximum altitude and life history traits of species, by taking into consideration the effects of body mass. We therefore established generalized least squares linear regression models (GLS) for each of the life history traits (log₁₀-transformed) with maximum altitude and adult weight (both log₁₀-transformed) as independent variables (see text 4.3.1). All analyses were done with and without phylogenetic correction. The non-phylogenetic analyses (see Appendix Table 9.4 - Table 9.9) were done to enable a comparison of results with older studies. However, we found no qualitative differences between the results obtained from phylogenetic (PGLS) and non-phylogenetic (GLS) regression models for the reptiles (Figure 4.3, see Appendix Table 9.4 - Table 9.9).

4.3.2.1 Allometries on life history traits of different reptilian taxa

We established phylogenetic univariate linear regression models to investigate the relation between each of the life history traits (log₁₀-transformed) and adult weight (log₁₀-transformed) for each of the different reptilian orders (Squamata, Testudines, Crocodilia) and for the two squamate groups, the lizards and snakes. We therefore used the function gls from the R-package nlme (Pinheiro et al. 2015). This method of generalized least squares (GLS) relaxes the assumption that observations have the same variance, and that the covariance equals zero (Paradis 2011). The latter is important, because observations of species are never statistically independent because of their shared evolutionary history. The GLS method also allows the consideration of a variance-covariance matrix among species during the fitting process and thus to correct for phylogeny. To estimate the variance parameters we used the residual maximum likelihood (REML) fitting method of the function gls, because it enables an estimation of regression coefficients prior to the calculation of the variance parameters. The trait evolution model was the Brownian motion model modified by Pagel (1999). For the Brownian-motion model the covariance between species *i* and *j* is $v_{ij} = \sigma^2 d_a$; d_a is the distance between the root and the most common recent ancestor of species *i* and *j*, and σ^2 is the variance of the Brownian process (Paradis 2011). In Pagel's model version the off-diagonal elements of the variancecovariance matrix are additionally multiplied by the parameter λ (Pagel 1999a). The phylogenetic correlation structure was then created with the function *corPagel* (Paradis et al. 2004).

Depending on the sample, we generated the respective phylogenetic trees by pruning already published phylogenies of the different reptile groups under study. The phylogenetic tree of squamates was extracted from a recently published maximum likelihood tree of 4161 species (Pyron and Burbrink 2014). This timecalibrated molecular tree (7 nuclear genes, 5 mitochondrial genes) comprises all currently known squamate families and sub-families. For the phylogenetic tree of the crocodilians, we also used a time-calibrated tree, which is based on four mitochondrial loci and nine nuclear loci from 23 crocodilian species (Oaks 2011). We used the program "TREETHIEF" v. 1.0 (Rambaut 2000) to extract the majority-rule consensus tree of the crocodiles from this publication. We did not consider the separation of Crocodylus niloticus and Osteolaemus tetraspis into two distinct species each, found by (Oaks 2011), because of unavailable life history data. We therefore modified the extracted tree via branch deletion (see Appendix Figure 9.3 for modified crocodilian tree). For the turtles, we used a maximum likelihood tree based on mitochondrial and nuclear genes of 230 turtle species (Guillon et al. 2012). This tree is not time-calibrated so we had to use weights for the gls function. Thus, we first used the function vcv.phylo of the R-package ape to compute the expected phylogenetic variances and covariances of a continuous trait given a respective phylogenetic tree thereby assuming it evolves under a Brownian motion model. We next extracted the diagonal values of the computed variance-covariance matrix with the function diag from the package base. We finally set the diagonal of the variancecovariance matrix as the fixed variance weights for the GLS model with the constructor-function varFixed to correct for the non-contemporaneous tips within the phylogenetic tree of the turtles (Revell 2012).

To compare allometric models between different reptilian taxa we used their 95% confidence intervals of estimated slopes and intercepts. We applied the function *intervals* from the R-package *nlme* to calculate these intervals.
4.3.2.2 Life history allometries of reptiles and their comparison with mammals and birds

For all reptiles (n = 369), except for the tuatara, we analogously established (see 2.2.1) phylogenetic and non-phylogenetic univariate linear regression models between each of the life history traits (log₁₀-transformed) and adult weight (log₁₀-transformed). For phylogenetic models we first created a composite tree based on the available phylogenetic trees for the squamates (Pyron and Burbrink 2014), the crocodiles (Oaks 2011) and the turtles (Guillon et al. 2012). As a basis for the merging of the three different phylogenetic trees which are based on different markers, we used the cladogram given in Pincheira-Donoso et al. (2013). We then created a topology where all branch lengths were set to unity to make the branch lengths comparable between the indivdual trees (see Appendix Figure 9.4 for general reptile topology). The order Rhynchocephalia was excluded from the topology to avoid problems in our analyses with a predetermined phylogenetic position of the tuatara, *S. punctatus*. The final topology derived was used in the phylogenetic regression analyses.

To compare life history allometries of reptiles to those seen in mammals and birds we searched for allometric equations in the literature. Only those equations on mammals and birds were used that met at least two of three criteria: large sample size, a current publication and a recent phylogeny used for phylogenetic correction (Table 4.1).

To assess the phylogenetic position of the tuatara we compared its values of life history traits with the respective phylogenetic corrected regression line from the squamate, crocodile and turtle model. We therefore calculated for each model the residual distance (expected value under the model – tuatara value).

Table 4.1 Allometric equations and datasets of life history traits on mammals and birds used for comparison and their references. s = slope; i= intercept; n.a. = not available. # Single datapoint for the monotreme echidna (egg-laying mammal, adult weight = 4500g, egg weight = 1.75g, Wildcare Australia Inc., "http://wildcare.org.au/species-information/echidnas/") was added to scatterplot in Figure 4.3 Scatter plots of life history traits and allometric relations in reptiles, and respective relations seen in mammals and birds.. *Original intercepts were log10-transformed herein (for original values see Rahn 1975, Clauss et al. 2014, Lemaître et al. 2014).**Original intercepts were multiplied by 365 herein for a transformation from years to days and then log10-transformed (for original values see De Magalhães et al., 2007).

| Trait | Taxonomic group | Coefficients | Sample size | Phylogenetic correction | Reference |
|---------------------------|--|--------------------------|-------------|-------------------------|--------------------------------|
| Clutch size | Birds (Paleognathae, Galliformes, Anseriformes) | s = 0.06, i = 0.82 | n = 116 | PGLS | Werner and Griebeler (2011) |
| Clutch size (litter size) | Mammals | s = -0.05, i = 0.16 | n = 353 | PGLS | Werner and Griebeler (2011) |
| Egg weight (g) | Birds (passerine) | s = 0.746, i = 0 | n = 74 | independent contrasts | Martin et al. (2006) |
| Egg weight (g) | Mammals (monotremata) | n.a. | n = 1# | n.a. | n.a.# |
| Age at maturity (days) | Birds | s = 0.303, i = 1.89** | n = 69 | independent contrasts | De Magalhães et al. (2007) |
| Age at maturity (days) | Mammals (without cetaceans) | s = 0.214, i = 1.98** | n = 606 | independent contrasts | De Magalhães et al. (2007) |

| Trait | Taxonomic group | Coefficients | Sample size | Phylogenetic correction | Reference |
|---|---------------------|---|---|---------------------------------------|---|
| Incubation time (days) | Birds | s = 0.167, i = 0.96* | n.a. | None | Rahn (1975) in Schmidt- Nielsen (1984) |
| Incubation time (gestation time, days) | Mammals (eutherian) | s = 0.09, i = 1.72* | n = 1214 | PGLS with Pagel's λ transformation | Clauss et al. (2014) |
| Maximum longevity (years) | Mammals | s = 0.127,il = 1.18* ; s = 0.170, i = 9.8 | n = 938 (AnAge); n = 919 (Pantheria) | PGLS with Pagel's λ transformation | Lemaître et al. (2014) |
| Maximum longevity (years) | Birds | s = 0.218, i = 0.72* | n = 518 | independent contrasts | De Magalhães et al. (2007) |
| Size at maturity (cm) | Birds | s=1, i=0 | n.a. | n.a. | Charnov (1993) |
| Size at maturity (cm) | Mammals | s=1, i=0 | n.a. | n.a. | Charnov (1993) |

4.4 Results

The differences in the geographic distribution of reptile species as assessed by maximum altitude had no significant effect on any of the life history traits of the squamates, crocodiles and turtles studied (results of multiple GLS regressions, see Appendix Table 9.11 + Table 9.12). These analyses reconfirmed that for some of the life history traits (e.g. birth weight, clutch size or max. longevity) adult weight is an important predictor. We therefore excluded maximum altitude from our further analyses.

4.4.1 Allometric relationships of life history traits within the reptiles

We were able to establish phylogenetic and non-phylogenetic allometric regression models for all life history traits studied for both suborders lizards and snakes, but also for the orders Crocodilia, Squamata and Testudines.

The suborders lizards and snakes. The 95% confidence intervals (CI) of the slopes and intercepts from the phylogenetic regression models of lizards and snakes overlapped for all life history traits (Figure 4.1 + Figure 4.2, Appendix Table 9.5 + Table 9.6). We therefore pooled lizards and snakes (with two additional amphisbaenian species) as Squamata in our further analyses.

The orders Crocodilia, Squamata, Testudines. For crocodiles and turtles CIs of slopes and intercepts overlapped for all life history traits studied (Figure 4.1 + Figure 4.2). In all other pairwise comparisons of reptilian orders differences were observed, except for birth size, birth weight, clutch size, egg weight and age at female maturity (Figure 4.1 + Figure 4.2). For birth size and birth weight, slopes and intercepts were only significant for squamates and turtles, whereas for crocodiles sample sizes were too small to establish a regression model (n = 6, n = 4, Table 9.7). The CI of the intercept of the birth size model differed between squamates (lower and upper value of CI-intercept: 0.483, 0.806) and turtles (CI-intercept: 0.007, 0.405).



Figure 4.1 Estimated slopes with 95% confidence intervals obtained from phylogenetic regression analyses (PGLS) for different reptilian groups. Slopes are from the regression models (Table 9.4 through Table 9.9) describing the relation of different life history traits (response variable) to adult weight (predictor). Missing bars indicate lack of data for the respective taxonomic group (only for the crocodiles).



Figure 4.2 Estimated intercepts with 95% confidence intervals obtained from phylogenetic regression analyses (PGLS) for different reptilian groups. Intercepts are from the regression models (Table 9.4 through Table 9.9) describing the relation of different life history traits (response variable) to adult weight (predictor). Missing bars indicate lack of data for the respective taxonomic group (only for the crocodiles).

The CIs of the slope and intercept of the birth weight model differed between squamates (CI-slope: 0.502, 0.772; CI-intercept: -0.978, -0.457) and turtles (CI-slope: 0.131, 0.276; CI-intercept: -0.200, 0.922). For clutch size, only the CI of the slope differed between squamates (CI-slope: 0.116, 0.243) and crocodiles (CI-slope: 0.268, 0.653). For egg weight, the CI of the slope and intercept differed between squamates (CI-slope: 0.457, 0.717; CI-intercept: -0.944, -0.328) and turtles (CI-slope: -0.022, 0.293; CI-intercept: -0.023, 1.497), and also between squamates and crocodiles (CI-slope: 0.246, 0.453; CI-intercept: -0.147, 0.841). For age at female maturity, only the CI of the intercept differed between squamates (CI-intercept: 2.613, 2.860) and turtles (CI-intercept: 2.928, 3.647).

4.4.2 Comparison of life history allometries between reptiles, mammals and birds

Because information on birth size, birth weight and number of clutches per year was insufficient for crocodiles (see material & methods), overall reptile models were only established for clutch size, egg weight, incubation time, maximum longevity, age at female maturity and size at maturity. A comparison of our allometric models to respective models from literature published on birds and mammals (Table 4.1) revealed several differences. *Clutch/litter size*. The regression lines differed between reptiles, mammals and birds (Figure 4.3, see also Appendix Table 9.4 for GLS and PGLS regression models; for allometric equations of mammals and birds see Table 4.1). The influence of adult weight on clutch size was strongest in reptiles (s = 0.23, with s slope of the regression line). In birds (s = 0.06, Table 4.1) and mammals it was much weaker (s = -0.05, Table 4.1). While in reptiles and precocial, flightless birds (although not significant) clutch size increased with increasing adult weight, litter size decreased in mammals.



Figure 4.3 Scatter plots of life history traits and allometric relations in reptiles, and respective relations seen in mammals and birds. The grey areas mark the 95% confidence belts of phylogenetically corrected reptilian regression models. The solid lines represent the respective phylogenetic relationships of reptiles. Regression lines for mammals and birds are taken from Table 4.1. In the plot on egg weight, the egg weight of the mammal echidna is shown (filled circle, see text). As in the determinate growers birds and mammals the onset of sexual maturity is seen at full size, in both taxa size at maturity scales isometric with adult weight (dotted line in this plot, slope = 1, intercept = 0; see main text for further information). In all plots the filled square marks the tuatara, open diamonds are species of Squamata, open triangles of Testudines, and crosses of Crocodila.

Egg weight. The influence of adult weight on egg weight was weaker in reptiles (s = 0.45) than in birds (s = 0.77; Figure 4.3 and Table 4.1). The egg weight of the echidna (egg-laying mammal, adult weight is 4500g, egg weight is 1.75g, Wildcare

Australia Inc., "http://wildcare.org.au/species-information/echidnas/") was smaller than of a similar-sized reptile and even outside of the confidence belt of the reptile model (Figure 4.3).

Incubation time (gestation time). Contrary to mammals and birds, incubation time was independent of adult weight in reptiles (s = 0.03, p = 0.06; Table 4.1 and Figure 4.3).

Maximum longevity. The slopes of the regression lines linking maximum longevity to adult weight were equal in reptiles (s = 0.13) and mammals (s = 0.13) and indicated a similar strong positive effect of adult weight on maximum longevity in both taxa. In birds the influence of adult weight on maximum longevity was strongest (s = 0.22).

Age at female maturity. The impact of adult weight on age at female maturity was weakest in reptiles (s = 0.12), strongest in birds (s = 0.303) and intermediary in mammals (s = 0.214).

Size at maturity. We found a non-isometric allometry (s = 0.27) on size at maturity and adult weight for the reptiles, whereas in birds and mammals it is isometric (Table 4.1 and Figure 4.3).

4.4.3 The phylogenetic position of the order Rhynchocephalia (the tuatara, *S. punctatus*) within the reptiles based on its life history

The comparison of life history traits of the tuatara and those predicted from allometries for a similar-sized average reptile or a similar-sized crocodile, turtle or squamate revealed no clear pattern (Figure 4.3). The value of its clutch size, egg weight and size at maturity was inside the confidence belt of the respective regression model for all reptiles (Figure 4.3), whereas those of age at female maturity, incubation time and maximum longevity were clearly outside of the respective confidence belts (Figure 4.3). For clutch size, the residual value (difference between the logarithmized value, here clutch size and the value predicted by the regression line for the body mass of the tuatara) was lowest (0.10) for the turtle model, 0.18 for the squamate model and highest (0.46) for the crocodile model. For egg weight, the residual value was lowest for the squamate model (0.29), 0.40 for the turtle model and again highest (0.62) for the crocodile model. For size at maturity, the residual value was lowest (0.15) for the turtle model, 0.22 for the squamate model, and 0.57 for the crocodiles. For age at female maturity, the residual value

was lowest for the turtle model (0.32), 0.51 for the crocodile model, and 0.78 for the squamate model. For incubation time, the residual value was lowest (0.58) for the crocodile model, 0.69 for the squamate model, and 0.79 for the turtle model. For maximum longevity, the residual value was again lowest (0.34) for the crocodile model, 0.49 for the turtle model and 0.74 for the squamate model. For the traits birth weight and number of clutches per year, a comparison of the tuatara was only possible to turtles and squamates, because information on these traits was missing in crocodiles. The observed, logarithmized birth weight of the tuatara was 0.60, while the turtle model (0.92) and the squamate model (1.04) predicted higher values. For the number of clutches per year, the observed value was -0.46 for the tuatara, whereas the squamate model (0.16) and the turtle model (0.39) again predicted higher values.

4.5 Discussion

4.5.1 Allometric relationships of life history traits within the reptiles

The orders Squamata, Crocodilia, Testudines. Although there is a good understanding of phylogenetic relationships among extant reptiles (Lecointre and Guyader 2005), most allometric studies focused on different taxonomic levels like orders or families, and especially comparisons between reptilian orders are rare. In this study, we successfully established phylogenetic regression models on life history allometries for the squamate groups lizards and snakes. For all nine life history traits under study the confidence intervals of slopes and of intercepts of allometries obtained did not significantly differ between lizards and snakes (Figure 4.1 + Figure 4.2). This suggests that life history traits of lizards and snakes scale equally with adult body mass. When pooling the amphisbaenians, lizards and snakes to Squamata the allometric relationships of traits resembled again those seen in lizards and snakes (Appendix Table 9.9). Our results are corroborated by Stearns (1984). He stated that after removing the effect of body size life histories would no longer differ between lizards and snakes (Stearns 1984). He also stressed a significant impact of phylogeny on patterns of covariation in life history traits, which he contrary to our study ignored. Subsequent other work on squamates used phylogenetically

informed methods to derive trait allometries (e.g. Harvey and Pagel 1991; Promislow et al. 1992). For example, Shine (1994; 1996) investigated interspecific patterns in ecological traits of Australian snakes and observed high intercorrelations among reproductive traits like clutch size and offspring size, especially with mean adult body size, which were not always due to phylogenetic conservatism. In contrast, a study on the offspring size/clutch size trade-off and on reproductive allometries in lizards indicated that phylogenetic regression models had a significantly better fit than nonphylogenetic models (Warne and Charnov 2008).

Our results on squamates also indicate important quantitative differences in terms of slope and intercept values between some allometric relationships established with and without phylogenetic correction (Appendix Table 9.9), and thus partly corroborate that phylogenetically informed analysis is needed. In general, our phylogenetic controlled allometries on the size-related traits of birth weight, egg weight and size at maturity had the steepest slopes; these traits were thus most strongly influenced by adult body weight. In contrast, our allometries on the times-related traits age at maturity, incubation time and maximum longevity had much shallower slopes and thus traits were less effected by adult body weight. The impact of adult weight on birth size and clutch size was intermediary, and the number of clutches per year was even independent of adult body weight. Our results on a similar scaling of clutch size and age at maturity in lizards and snakes contradict Stearns (1984) and Dunham and Miles (1985), but these authors did not account for phylogeny in their analyses. The slopes of allometric relationships found for lizards, snakes and Squamata are also more or less inconsistent with those predicted by the Metabolic Theory of Ecology (MTE, Brown et al. 2004). While only two (birth weight and egg weight) size-related traits (Figure 4.1) scale with an exponent of about 0.75 in lizards, snakes and Squamata, all times-related traits (Figure 4.1) show exponents inconsistent with 0.25. For the crocodiles, the results of our analyses were limited to six out of the nine life history traits, because we could not find enough information on species' birth size, birth weight and number of clutches per year. Studies on scaling in life history traits in crocodiles are to the best of our knowledge absent in the literature, except for the study of Thorbjarnarson (1996). This author established allometric relationships on reproductive traits from 22 crocodile species, but did not account for phylogeny. The author argued that any phylogenetic control is inappropriate for such a small number of crocodile species, although he also stated that the covariance between the

independent variables was evident in his analyses. Thorbjarnarson (1996) observed significant positive slopes and significant non-zero intercepts for allometric relationships between adult female body size and egg mass, clutch size, and clutch mass (s = 0.29 - 0.72; p = 0.001). As expected, we reproduced his allometries on these traits under non-phylogenetic informed analyses, but we observed differences between phylogenetic and non-phylogenetic informed analyses for two of these traits. For clutch size and egg weight our phylogenetic slopes were also positive, but differed significantly from those estimated by Thorbjarnarson (1996) (clutch size: sGLS = 0.348, spgls = 0.461, p < 0.001; egg weight: sgls = 0.295, spgls = 0.350, p < 0.001), whereas intercepts did not (clutch size: igLs = -0.152, pgLs = 0.684, iPgLs = -0.655, ppgls = 0.142; egg weight: igls = 0.158, pgls = 0.010, ipgls = 0.347, ppgls = 0.158). In our study, size and age at maturity showed consistent with his study a positive allometric relationship, but our slope for age at female maturity did not significantly differ from zero (p = 0.110). Contrary to Thorbjarnarson (1998) we found that both incubation time and maximum longevity do not depend on adult weight (incubation time: s = -0.064, p = 0.203; maximum longevity: s = -0.026, p = 0.822). As smaller animals generally face a higher predation risk than larger ones (Owen-Smith 1988), this was unexpected. Fully-grown crocodiles are nearly safe from predation, only territorial struggles with other crocodiles cause mortalities (Pooley and Ross 2002). This could explain the independence of maximum longevity from adult weight in crocodiles. In contrast, during their first year of life hatchlings of crocodiles are subject to mortalities of up to 90% caused by predation (Pooley and Ross 2002). Mortality is thus more or less independent of hatchling size over the adult body weight range seen in crocodiles. An increase in hatchling size would imply larger eggs and an increase in incubation time.

For turtles, our results indicated no clear allometric patterns. Egg weight, clutch size, birth size, birth weight and size at maturity scaled with adult body mass, but the slope of the allometry on egg weight was not significant (p = 0.082). In terms of slope values the four traits of number of clutches per year, age at female maturity, incubation time and maximum longevity were independent or only weakly dependent on adult weight, but none of these slopes were significant.

Many studies on the allometric scaling of life history traits in turtles exist in literature (e.g. Congdon and Gibbons 1985; Elgar and Heaphy 1989; Iverson 1992; Iverson et al. 1993), but most of these have the same limitations as those on crocodiles.

Information on life history traits and body size (usually carapace length) is only available for a few species (for example Congdon and Gibbons 1985; Elgar and Heaphy 1989; Iverson 1992; n = 12 - 35; but see Wilbur and Morin 1988; Iverson et al. 1993), only a few of the traits (mostly clutch size, clutch mass and egg size) studied by us are analysed, and most studies ignore the phylogenetic relatedness of species. Nevertheless, all those previous studies showed a significant, positive relationship between body size and the traits studied herein (Congdon and Gibbons 1985: clutch mass, clutch size, egg mass; Wilbur and Morin 1988: egg mass, clutch size, clutch mass; Elgar and Heaphy 1989: egg weight, clutch size; lverson 1992: clutch size, egg mass, clutch mass, annual clutch mass, age at maturity). While our results on clutch size corroborate previous studies, those on all other traits differed. The latter could be explained by differing species samples and the use of nonphylogenetic informed analysis for traits (except for age at maturity) in the literature studies. For age at maturity lverson (1992) found without conducting a phylogenetic correction a significant, positive relationship with body mass (i = 0.78, s = 2.25, p < 0.001, n = 35). His observation is contrary to our phylogenetic, but also to our nonphylogenetic results. Both analyses indicate an independence of age at maturity from adult body weight. However, the confidence intervals of our slopes are large (Figure 4.1). This leads us to question whether the relationship between age at maturity and adult weight is indeed not positive. The confidence intervals reflect a large variability in ages at maturity in the studied species, which could be linked to environmental variability. Not only the life history of turtles but also their latitudinal distribution correlates inversely with body size (Wilbur and Morin 1988; Iverson 1992). Unfortunately, the relation of birth size, birth weight, incubation time or maximum longevity to adult weight has so far not been investigated in turtles. The small slopes and their non-significance observed in this study for some of these traits could reflect that they approach invariance (for an overview, see Charnov 1993).

Our analysis on differences in scaling of life history traits between Squamata, Crocodilia, and Testudines was only based on six traits for which sufficiently large samples were available for all orders (birth size, birth weight and number of clutches per year had to be excluded). For most of these traits, the confidence intervals (CI) of the slopes and intercepts overlapped for all three reptile orders (female maturity, incubation time, maximum longevity and size at maturity; Figure 4.1 + Figure 4.2). For none of the traits any difference in scaling was observed between crocodiles and turtles. For clutch size, the CI of the slopes of squamates and crocodiles differed. For egg weight, both the CI of the slope and the CI of the intercept differed from crocodiles and turtles. The statistical differences in the allometries on clutch size and egg weight in squamates compared to crocodiles and turtles could result from differences in sample sizes (clutch size: squamates, n = 137, crocodiles = 22, turtles = 49; egg weight: squamates = 29, crocodiles = 22, turtles = 10). Larger sample sizes are expected to lead to narrower confidence intervals of estimated slopes and intercepts, which in turn increases the probability to find significant differences between two slopes. Hence, despite the small differences in the regression coefficients between the squamate models and the crocodile or turtle models, we are convinced that it was unnecessary to proceed with separate analyses for each reptile order and that all reptile species in our dataset could be analysed together.

4.5.2 Comparison of life history allometries between reptiles, mammals and birds

We compared our established phylogenetic regression models for the reptiles to respective models on birds and mammals from the literature (Table 4.1) in order to explore differences in scaling of life history traits within different amniote groups. Compared to birds and mammals our life history allometries on all reptiles showed similarities for biological times related traits (age at female maturity, maximum longevity) and differences for reproductive traits (clutch size, incubation time resp. gestation time), while size-related traits are not comparable (size at maturity, egg weight) between groups.

Reptiles, mammals and birds showed a positive allometry for age at maturity, but slopes differed considerable between them (reptiles: s = 0.118, mammals: s = 0.214, birds: s = 0.303). For reptiles the positive slope is corroborated by a study on snakes and lizards by Shine and Charnov (1992). These authors found that the instantaneous mortality rate is inversely proportional to age at maturity. If we assume that larger reptile species are older at maturity than smaller reptile species, then they should have a lower mortality rate than smaller species. For maximum longevity, the slopes were equal in reptiles and mammals (0.127 for both), but the intercepts clearly differed (reptiles: i = 0.918, mammals: i = 1.72). This would imply that mammals have

in general a higher maximum longevity than similar-sized reptiles. Our finding is supported by one of the mammalian datasets studied by Clauss et al. (2014), whereas their other dataset analysed suggests a considerably higher slope (s = 0.170). Western and Ssemakula (1982), however, corroborate our finding again. They found that birds actually have a longer maximum longevity than similar-sized mammals, and these in turn have a longer maximum longevity than similar-sized reptiles.

For clutch size and incubation/gestation time allometries differed considerably between reptiles, birds and mammals. We found a positive relation between clutch size and adult weight in reptiles, whereas Werner and Griebeler (2011) found no significant effect of body mass on clutch size in precocial, flightless birds and a slightly negative scaling in mammals. In birds and mammals, incubation/ gestation time scales positively, but the slope is steeper in birds than in mammals. In reptiles, incubation time is independent of adult body weight. However, the allometric bird model is not well constrained as Rahn et al. (1975) did no phylogenetic control. Moreover, the authors provide no information on the number of species analysed.

The differences in the scaling of size at maturity between reptiles, birds and mammals reflect different growth strategies. Birds and mammals show a determinate growth and reach sexual maturity when they are more or less fully grown (except for the largest mammals, e.g. elephants, Owen-Smith 1988). They have therefore an isometric relationship (s = 1) between size at maturity and adult weight. In contrast, reptiles show indeterminate growth and grow considerably after having reached sexual maturity (Reiss 1989; Ritz et al. 2010). They thus show a weaker, positive non-isometric relationship (s = 0.272).

For egg weight, the relation to adult weight is weaker in reptiles (s = 0.450) than in birds (s = 0.746). Interestingly, the egg weight of the monotreme echidna (family *Tachyglossidae*) is located below the confidence belt of the reptile model and much smaller than that of a similar-sized bird (Figure 4.3). If we assume that the echidna data point is representative for Monotremata, this would suggest that the relationship between egg weight and adult weight is significantly weaker in Monotremata than in reptiles or birds.

4.5.3 Fast-slow continuum of life history traits of reptiles

Stearns (1983) suggested a single body size axis for life history strategies in mammals. Small mammals mature early and have large litters, whereas large species mature late and have small litters. For reptiles, more precisely squamates, Stearns (1984) proposed a continuum where at one end the small, early maturing species with small, but frequent clutches per year are found, and at the other end the large, late maturing species with large, but few clutches per year. His results were confirmed by Promislow et al. (1992) for lizards. These authors observed that the absolute value of allometric slopes of life history traits decreases with increasing taxonomic level, and that the relationships are less significant at higher levels. Hence, differences in slopes between reptilian orders should be negligible. As predicted by Promislow et al. (1992) we observed no differences in slopes between the reptilian orders and also none within Squamata between lizards and snakes. Our results also suggest contrary assocciations in life history traits in reptiles compared to mammals (Stearns 1983): small reptiles have an early maturity that is reached at smaller body sizes, have smaller clutches that are incubated for a shorter period and yield smaller hatchlings, and have a shorter lifespan than larger species which show opposite characteristics. Our results strongly question the hypothesis that the life histories of squamates conform to the fast vs. slow continuum seen in mammals (Stearns 1983).

4.5.4 The phylogenetic position of the order Rhynchocephalia (the tuatara, *S. punctatus*) within the reptiles based on its life history

Rhynchocephalia is one of the six groups forming the Amniota (besides turtles, squamates, crocodiles, birds and mammals). Their phylogenetic position is highly discussed (Rheubert et al., 2014). Amniota ancestrally possess an amniotic egg with a unique set of extra-embryonic membranes (amnion, chorion and allantois) making reproduction independent from water. Palaeontological studies have shown that Rhynchocephalia was widely distributed and genusrich in the Mesozoic (Jones et al. 2013). Today, only one genus with one living species, the tuatara *Sphenodon punctatus*, remains of the Rhynchocephalia. The tuatara is found on few

geographically isolated islands located along the coast of New Zealand (Hay et al. 2010). The species is considered to be a phylogenetic relict (Hugall et al. 2007) or a living fossil, with characteristics of early reptiles. Those are seen in its morphology and physiology but also in its life history. The tuatara has a long incubation period. the highest age at maturity of all known living reptiles and a high life expectancy (Dawbin cited in Deckert et al. 1991). Our results on life history traits of the tuatara corroborate those findings. Its incubation time, age at female maturity and maximum longevity differed clearly from the respective values predicted by our allometries for a similar-sized reptile (Figure 4.3). In contrast, the predicted clutch size, egg weight and size at maturity of a similar-sized reptile matched field observations of the tuatara. Furthermore, at the order level six out of eight life history traits of the tuatara conformed better to those of a similar-sized crocodile or turtle than to a squamate (Figure 4.3). Currently two contrary hypotheses on the phylogenetic position of the tuatara within the reptiles and thus of the Rhynchocephalia exist (Rheubert et al. 2014). Most molecular studies suggest that rhynchocephalians are a sister group of the squamates (Cree 2014), whereas studies on the structure of spermatozoa, suggest a more basal position within the Amniota (Jamieson 2014). Our results indicated a better accordance of the tuatara's life history with a similar-sized turtle or crocodile than with a squamate for six out of eight traits. Trait values are consistent with the second hypothesis and would suggest that rhynchocephalians are closer related to crocodiles and turtles than to the squamates. For incubation time the better fit of the tuatara to the turtle than to the reptile model was as expected, because the poorly developed embryo in a newly laid egg seen in the tuatara resembles the situation in turtles (Cree 2014). On the one hand, a life history strategy is the result of an interaction of a huge amount of genes, whereas molecular studies mostly examine short sequences (Hugall et al. 2007; Crawford et al. 2012; Pyron et al. 2013). On the other hand, it is questionable whether the tuatra is indeed a good representive of

other hand, it is questionable whether the tuatra is indeed a good representive of Rhynchocephalia. The tuatara is carnivorous and terrestrial (Cree 2014). Its life style could not be typical for all Mesozoic rhynchocephalians (Reynoso and Clark 1998; Reynoso 2000), as other squamate species, e.g. geckos, living on the same islands and in the same habitat show a similar life style (Dawbin, cited in Deckert et al. 1991). Overall, our analysis of the life history of the tuatara points to a basal position within reptiles, but whether this is only due to its exceptional life style and whether this is true for all Rhynchocephalia is still unclear (Cree 2014).

5 Identifying life history invariants of amphibians and reptiles resulting from different body mass ranges in a semi-aquatic or terrestrial environment

5.1 Abstract

Invariant quantities are a basic principle of biological design and fundamental to the scaling of morphological, physiological, and ecological characteristics of organisms. While many biological traits scale with body size, some life history traits are unchanged under body size transformation and are thus called invariant. A recent study recommended different criteria to identify invariant traits. We used these to compare two vertebrate groups, the amphibians and the reptiles. The ancestors of both taxa conquered the terrestrial environment, but only the reptiles reached full terrestriality. We investigated whether nine life history traits covering both stages of an amphibian life cycle and eight reptilian life history traits are invariant. We hypothesized that in amphibians many life history traits are invariant due to their semi-aquatic life style and their low range in body size. In contrast, the terrestrial reptiles showing a broader body size range due to their terrestriality would show considerably less invariant traits. Because the semi-aquatic amphibians use two different environments and this could have influenced their life history traits, we also tested whether maximum altitude or habitat type effect invariances. Four life history traits of the amphibians fulfilled all criteria. They are thus most probably invariant. None of the environmental factors explained these invariances. In reptiles, no invariant life history trait was identified. Our results confirm our initial hypothesis that the semi-aquatic amphibians have more invariant life history traits than the terrestrial reptiles. Not all criteria used had an equal explanatory power in detecting invariant traits in amphibians and reptiles.

5.2 Introduction

Invariant quantities are a basic principle of biological design and are fundamental to the scaling of morphological, physiological, and ecological characteristics of organisms (Brown and West 2000). Invariance in a biological context emerges between two traits of organisms (Price et al. 2014). While many biological traits scale with body size, some life history traits are unchanged under body size transformation and are thus called invariant (Charnov 1993). Beverton & Holt (1959) were the first who identified invariant patterns between traits of growth and mortality across fish species and populations (Beverton 1963). They described these by products or ratios of life history traits. The Beverton-Holt invariants were later corroborated in other vertebrate groups including squamate reptiles (lizards and snakes; Shine & Charnov, 1992). Charnov (1993) concluded from the Beverton-Holt invariants seen in organisms with indeterminate growth, namely fishes and reptiles, that evolution is governed by some very general features of life history trade-offs. Currently, in studies on life history evolution the term invariance is used in two ways: first, a life history trait that does not vary systematically with body size, and second, a life history trait with a unimodal central tendency and a limited variability (Savage et al. 2006). Usually, a causal reason for the existence of an invariance is unknown (Charnov 1993). This is problematic, as in this case the evidence for invariance is only statistical or probabilistic and we therefore have to reflect the degree of invariance which finally makes a trait invariant (Charnov 1993). This led to the questioning of the whole concept of invariance by several authors (see Günther & Morgado, 2005; Nee et al., 2005; Nespolo, 2005; Savage et al., 2006 for a discussion on this topic), but also to an improvement of methods used for their identification. Recently, Price et al. (2014) proposed an objective statistical definition for the concept of invariance. These authors recommended five different criteria to identify invariant traits or, more accurately, traits approaching invariance. These criteria are (1) a low variance in the trait relative to body size, (2) a unimodal distribution of the trait, (3) a low coefficient of determination (R² value), or (4) a low slope, when regressing the trait against body size, and (5) the presence of an isometric relationship (slope = 1) between two life history traits (Price et al. 2014). For criterion (1) the authors noted that variability exists in all biological quantities and that thus the variability seen in a life history trait under study should at least be much lower than that seen in body size (Price et al. 2014).

The transition from an aquatic to a terrestrial life, which was accompanied by considerable changes in the life histories of organisms (summarized in Sumida and Martin 1997) is one of the most important macroevolutionary events. It involved especially two vertebrate groups, the most primitive tetrapods, the amphibians, and the reptiles. The amphibians conquered the terrestrial environment but they never became totally independent from water (Duellman and Trueb 1994), contrary to their closest relatives the reptiles. Today, amphibians are found in nearly all terrestrial habitats from the Arctic Tundra to dry desserts with an altitudinal distribution from sea level to 5000m ASL. Amphibians have a permeable body covering, which makes them more susceptible against environmental changes than any other tetrapod. Moisture is the most important environmental factor limiting the distribution of amphibians. They, thus, show adaptations against desiccation like moist skin and reduced lungs for gas exchange, a nocturnal lifestyle or a reduction of the surface area (Duellman and Trueb 1994). The primitive life cycle of the amphibians was originally split into two parts: the larval stage in an aquatic environment and the adult stage in a terrestrial environment. As a consequence of their adaptation to two strikingly different environments, amphibians and especially salamanders are the vertebrate groups with the highest diversity seen in life history strategies, which has been particularly apparent in the diversity of their reproductive modes (Duellman and Trueb 1994). Although there were larger forms in the Paleozoic, todays amphibians are generally small animals with the largest salamander measuring 1500mm total length (TL) and the largest frog only 300mm TL (Duellman and Trueb 1994). Amphibian body size shows a low variability compared to other vertebrate taxa.

Although modern amphibians have some adaptations to terrestriality, in the end it was the reptiles, which completely mastered the life in terrestrial environments. The reptilian key adaptation was the amniotic egg with additional extraembryonic membranes and a calcareous egg shell, which made the development of the embryo independent from water, contrary to the amphibians (Sander 2012). Reptiles have scales on their skin and their lungs are better developed than those of the amphibians are. Both adaptations make them less susceptible against desiccation than amphibians. Their full terrestriality enabled the evolution of extremely large body sizes in reptiles, e.g. of the largest extant lizard species, the Komodo dragon

(*Varanus komodoensis*; Collar *et al.*, 2011). Monitor lizards show the largest size range among any recognized genus of vertebrates (Collar et al. 2011). Additionally, in terrestrial environments the impact of gravity is increased and as a result reptiles have a heavier skeleton than amphibians (Schmidt-Nielsen 1984). The importance of size is also supported by the many studies on allometric relationships of biological traits including life history traits in reptiles (see Fitch, 1970; Peters, 1983; Schmidt-Nielsen, 1984; Dunham & Miles, 1985; Scharf *et al.*, 2014; Hallmann & Griebeler, 2015).

Because amphibians and reptiles considerably differ in the variability seen in their life history strategies (Duellman and Trueb 1994) and in their body masses (Collar et al. 2011), and because both vertebrate taxa live in very different environments, we chose both taxa to disentangle the correlation between life history strategies and body size by identifying their life history invariants. We thus examined whether nine life history traits of the amphibians covering both parts of their life cycle and eight life history traits of the reptiles approach invariance using the five criteria from Price et al. (2014). With these traits, we tested the hypothesis that the amphibians showing a broader range of life history strategies and a lower range of body sizes show more invariants than the reptiles with a lower variability in strategies and a broader body size range. Our hypothesis would imply that in amphibians the adaptation to a semiaquatic life is more important for the evolution of their life history strategies than body size. Because the two environments used by the semi-aquatic amphibians could influence their life history traits (Morrison and Hero 2003), we also tested whether maximum altitude, and habitat types, but also parental care effect the invariance of life history traits towards body size in amphibians. In contrast to Charnov (1993) and because of the general lack of studies on allometric relationships of amphibians we established, besides ordinary linear least squares models needed to elaborate invariances (criterion 3 and 4), phylogenetically corrected regression models for the amphibians. This enabled us to test the hypothesis of Charnov (1993) that the shared evolutionary history of species could be ignored in studies on invariant life history traits. Finally, with our study we aimed to validate the usability of the newly proposed criteria by Price et al. (2014) for identifying invariant traits.

5.3 Material & Methods

5.3.1 Data collection

Amphibians. We mainly used the recently published and comprehensive database of life history traits of European amphibians from Trochet et al. (2014). The database contains information on life history traits, morphological traits as well as reproductive strategies and habitat preferences of 86 amphibian species (50 Anura and 36 Caudata species). As a measure of animal size, we used adult body mass (g) instead of body length or snout-vent-length given in this database, because of the different shapes seen in amphibians. To account for differences in the geographic distribution and the environment of species and their potential influence on life history traits of species, we also used the information given therein on the maximum altitude (m) and on the habitat type used by species. For example, Morrison & Hero (2003) demonstrated that intraspecific patterns and differences in life history traits of amphibian populations are related to maximum altitude. From the ten different habitat types considered by Trochet et al. (2014) we finally used six types in our analysis assessing their influence on life history trait variability. We did not include the habitat types "savanna" and "desert", because these are not inhabited by the species under study. We further excluded two other habitat types as these were inhabited by only few species (shrublands = 7, other = 5).

Besides adult body mass, we extracted the following life history traits of species from the database of Trochet *et al.* (2014): clutch size (this term is used herein for both the number of eggs and also for the number of offspring in viviparous species), egg mass (g), metamorphosis size (mm) and adult sexual maturity (days, this term is also used for amphibians that become sexually mature within the larval stage and show no metamorphosis, e.g. the Mexican Axolotl, *Ambystoma mexicanum* Safi *et al.*, 2004; Voss *et al.*, 2009). To cover further aspects of both phases of the biphasic life cycle of amphibians, we added information on the incubation time (days) of the embryo, the larval duration (days) of a larva/tadpole, birth weight (g), the size at maturity (mm) and finally on maximum longevity (years).

For these traits we compiled the multivolume encyclopedia on European amphibians (Böhme 1981; Böhme 1984; Böhme 1986; Böhme 1993; Bischoff 1998; Böhme

1999; Joger and Stümpel 2005), the internet database AnAge (Tacutu et al. 2013), primary literature, field guides and textbooks. For a detailed list of all references used, please see the supplementary material (Appendix Table 9.13). To ensure a sufficient standard of data quality, we did not consider anecdotal remarks given in the aforementioned sources. In the cases, we found ranges or multiple values for species traits we always averaged these for statistical analyses.

Reptiles. All reptile data (n = 369) were extracted from a recent publication (K. Hallmann and E. M. Griebeler unpublished data, see supplementary information from that publication for raw data and references, Table 9.10). We used the life history traits birth weight, clutch size, clutches p.a. (= per annum), egg weight, female maturity (days), incubation time, maximum longevity and size at maturity from this compilation. The amphibian traits metamorphosis size and larval duration are not applicable to reptiles. Please note that differences in the geographic distribution as assessed by maximum altitude have no significant influence on adult weight and these life history traits in reptiles (Hallmann and Griebeler 2015).

5.3.2 Data analysis

All statistical analyses were performed with the statistical software R v3.02 (R Development Core Team 2013) and additional packages (see below) available for this software. Initially, we tested for correlations between maximum altitude and life history traits of amphibian species, by taking into consideration the effects of body mass. We therefore established for amphibians phylogenetic generalized least squares fit models (PGLS) for each of the life history traits (log₁₀-transformed) with maximum altitude and adult weight (log₁₀-transformed) as independent variables using the function *gls* of the R-package *nlme* (Pinheiro et al. 2015). For the phylogenetic correlation matrix, we used the large-scale amphibian phylogeny of Pyron and Wiens (2011).

Identifying life history invariants. We basically followed the approach given in Price *et al.* (2014), but considerably improved their statistical framework. We applied the five criteria given by these authors to all amphibians, to each of the amphibian orders the Anura and Caudata, and to all reptiles.

Criterion (1) Low variance in the life history trait relative to body mass. For criterion 1, contrary to Price *et al.* (2014) we normalized and transformed life history traits and body mass because of their highly differing ranges and medians of body masses between amphibians and reptiles (see results). For normalization, we calculated the median for each life history trait (raw data) and body mass (raw data) for the respective group under study (all amphibians, orders Anura and Caudata, reptiles). To retain the relative variance of the traits we then divided the raw data by the respective median and used a subsequent log₁₀-transformation on normalized data to ensure that data were approximately evenly distributed (Steuer et al. 2007). From these new datasets, we calculated the ratios between body mass variance and life

history trait variances as $\frac{Body \, mass_{var}}{Trait_{var}}$ for each life history trait.

Criterion (2) Unimodal distribution with 95% of observations within two standard deviations. To explore whether a life history trait has a maximum value or its distribution is unimodal, we log₁₀-transformed raw data of all amphibians and reptiles and established histograms. We also calculated the percentage of values of the life history traits that fell within two standard deviations of the mean for each histogram to assess whether they matched the expectations from a normal distribution. Finally, we performed Hartigans' dip tests to test for unimodality and performed Shapiro-Wilk tests to assesses normality for all life history traits under study using the functions *dip.test* from the R-package "diptest" (Maechler 2015) and *shapiro.test* from the R-package "stats" (R Development Core Team 2013).

Criteria (3) Low coefficient of determination (R²) and (4) low slope when regressing life history traits against body mass. We log₁₀-transformed life history traits and body masses of species prior to all regression analyses. Following Price *et al.* (2014), we first established ordinary linear least squares regression (OLS) models for each life history trait and all four taxa studied. We therefore used the function *Im* from the R-package *stats* (R Development Core Team 2013) and used the trait as dependent variable and body mass the independent variable. The slope values, their p-values and R² values obtained indicate whether an association between a life history trait and body mass exists (Price et al. 2014). To assess whether habitat type or parental care affected the relationship between the trait and body mass, we additionally established OLS regression models for separate groups of amphibian species based on shared habitat types or the presence or absence of parental care to test for

environmental influences. To relax the assumption of normally distributed trait residuals, which was needed for some life history traits, we additionally established for all life history traits of all amphibians and reptiles robust median-based linear regression models with Siegel's repeated medians (Siegel, 1982, hereafter medianbased linear models). The repeated median estimates maintain a high 50% breakdown value (corruption of data) and can resist the effects of outliers even when they comprise nearly half of the data (Siegel 1982; Komsta 2013). For this regressions we used the function *mblm* from the R-package "*mblm*" (Komsta 2013). As this function provides no R²-values (criterion 3), only the examination of slope values (criterion 4) was feasible. However, p-values of slopes and intercepts estimated by the function *mblm* have to be interpreted cautiously. They are based on a Wilcoxon signed rank test, which uses the median absolute deviation (MAD) instead of the standard errors, which are used in OLS analysis. In the case of ties or zeroes exact p-values are not calculable. Furthermore, the Wilcoxon test can deflate the estimated confidence interval compared to the true interval (Tóth and Somorčík 2015).

We finally established phylogenetic regressions on life history traits against body mass for amphibians. Respective phylogenetic regression models on reptiles are from K. Hallmann and E. M. Griebeler (unpublished data). Charnov (1993) mentioned three reasons for ignoring the shared evolutionary history of species in analyses on life history invariants: independence of species under the normalizing selection assumption, similarity of species because of similar trade-offs, and difficulties of continuous rather than discrete life history traits with historical predictions. He nevertheless pointed out that phylogeny is important for detecting the commonality of trade-offs, because similar ecologies, and thus similar selective forces, shape the life histories of species (Charnov 1993). Phylogenetic generalized least squares (PGLS) regression models for amphibians were derived from the function *gls* provided in the R-package *nlme* (Pinheiro et al. 2015). We applied the modified version of the Brownian motion model from Pagel (1999) as trait evolution model and created the phylogenetic correlation structure with the function *corPagel* (Paradis et al. 2004). Depending on the sample, we generated the needed phylogenetic trees by pruning a large scale phylogenetic tree of 2871 amphibian species (Pyron and Wiens 2011). As this tree is not time-calibrated, we had to use weights for the *gls* function. We thus set the diagonal of the variance-covariance matrix as the fixed variance weights for the

GLS model with the constructor-function *varFixed* to correct for the noncontemporaneous tips within the phylogenetic tree of the amphibians (Revell, 2012; http://blog.phytools.org/2012/04/using-nlmegls-for-phylogenetic.html). Then, we used the function *intervals* from the R-package *nlme* to calculate the confidence intervals of estimated intercepts and slopes.

Criterion (5) Isometric variation (e.g., a slope of 1 on a log-log plot) between two life history traits. Following Price *et al.* (2014) we established linear models for pairs of life history traits for all amphibians and reptiles using standard major axis (SMA) regression on log₁₀-transformed data. Uncorrelated traits have a slope of unity under SMA (Price *et al.* 2014). These regressions were established using the function *sma* of the R-package "smatr" (Warton et al. 2012). With these regressions we aimed to identify dimensionless numbers, which indicate trade-offs between two life history traits.

5.4 Results

Our analyses on invariant life history traits in amphibians based on the five criteria of Price *et al.* (2014) identified four life history traits (larval period, maximum longevity, metamorphosis size, size at maturity) fulfilling all criteria, two traits (age at maturity, egg mass) fulfilling three criteria, and three traits (birth weight, clutch size, incubation time) fulfilling two criteria (Table 5.1). Thus, all amphibian traits studied fulfilled at least two criteria. Contrary, for reptiles, none of the life history traits fulfilled all criteria. The trait "clutches p.a." fulfilled two criteria (Table 5.1). All other life history traits of reptiles fulfilled only one criterion (age at maturity, birth weight, clutch size, egg mass, incubation time, maximum longevity, size at maturity; Table 5.1).

5.4.1 Invariance of life history traits in amphibians

Body mass variance. The body mass of the amphibian species in our dataset varied between a minimum of 0.98 g in *Lissotriton italicus* and a maximum of 307.23 g in *Rana catesbeiana* (mean = 20.54 g, median = 7.77 g). These are 2.5 orders of magnitude. At the level of orders, body mass varied between 2.31 g and 307.23 g for

the order Anura and between 0.98 g and 35.23 g for the order Caudata.

(1) Relative variance and (2) unimodal distribution of life history traits. For 5 out of 9 life history traits (age at maturity, larval period, max. longevity, metamorphosis size, size at maturity) body mass showed a higher variance than the respective life history traits in all amphibians. The body mass variance was 1.80 up to 7.93 times larger than the trait variance (Table 5.2). All traits showed a unimodal distribution except for the trait "age at maturity" (for histograms see Figure 5.1, for Hartigans' dip test results see Table 5.2), where Hartigans' dip test failed (D = 0.08, p = 0.01), although 98.5% of observations fell within plus/minus two standard deviations (SD) of the mean. For 8 out of 9 life history traits at least 95% of observations fell within ±2 SD of the mean (Table 5.2, Figure 5.1). For the trait birth weight, 89% of observations were within ±2 SD (Table 5.2). Except for three cases, results obtained for all amphibians on ratios of variances, unimodality of trait distributions and 95% of observations within ±2 SD were resembled in both orders. For Anura, the variance of the trait "incubation time" was smaller than of body mass (body mass var / trait var = 2.70). For Caudata, Hartigans' dip test could not demonstrate a unimodal distribution for the traits "clutch size" (D = 0.09, p = 0.01) and "age at maturity" (D = 0.10, p = 0.01).

(3) Coefficient of determination / R^2 , (4) slope of OLS linear models and (5) isometric variation. Under ordinary least squares (OLS) regression analysis coefficients of determination (R²) of models were generally very low for all life history traits of amphibians, with a mean value of R^2 and adjusted R^2 of 0.08 (Table 5.3). The only exception was the trait clutch size which had a higher coefficient ($R^2 = 0.38$, adjusted $R^2 = 0.37$). At the order level the mean R^2 -value of all relationships between life history traits and body mass was considerably higher than in all amphibians with a mean value of 0.17 for Anura (adjusted $R^2 = 0.16$) and 0.15 for Caudata (adjusted R^2 = 0.14, Table 5.3). Due to too low sample sizes, no regression model on birth weight and size at maturity against body mass was established for the order Caudata. For 6 out of 9 life history traits, the slopes of the linear OLS models were not statistically different from zero for all amphibians (Table 5.3). Only median-based linear models (mblm) on age at maturity (s = 0.02, p < 0.01), birth weight (s = 0.55, p < 0.05) and incubation time (s = -0.27, p < 0.01) had slopes significantly different from zero for all amphibians (Table 5.3). For the order Anura, 8 out of 9 OLS models had slopes not significantly different from zero. Only the trait "size at maturity" was significantly related to body mass (s = 0.21, p < 0.01, n = 12). For the order Caudata, slopes of 5

out of 9 OLS models were not significantly different from zero. Only the slope of the OLS model on maximum longevity was significant (s = 0.40, p <0.01, n =16). Slopes of median-based linear models were significant for age at maturity (s = 0.24, p < 0.01, n = 21), incubation time (s = 0.54, p < 0.05, n = 15) and larval period (s = 0.13, p < 0.01, n = 16) in Caudata. Phylogenetically corrected regression models (PGLS) for all amphibians showed for 4 out of 9 life history traits (birth weight, clutch size, max. longevity, metamorphosis size) slopes significantly differing from zero. They were all positive, but differed across traits (Table 5.3). For metamorphosis size the slope was 0.12 (p < 0.05), for the trait max. longevity (s = 0.23, p < 0.01) it was moderate, whereas for clutch size (s = 0.65, p < 0.01) and birth weight (s = 0.80, p < 0.01) slopes were considerably steeper.

Linear standardized major axis (SMA) regression models for pairs of life history traits (criterion 5) failed to demonstrate any isometric relation for all amphibians. Slopes of models did not match unity and models had low R²-values (see Appendix Table 9.23 - Table 9.31).

Environmental (habitat type, altitudinal distribution) and reproductive factors (parental *care).* The multiple linear regression models indicated that maximum altitude affects the traits "age at maturity", "egg mass" and "size at maturity" in amphibians (see Appendix Table 9.14). The OLS linear models on the relationships between life history traits and body mass in amphibians separated by habitat types had generally low R²-values. Across all life history traits the mean R²-value was 0.08 for the habitat type forest (adjusted $R^2 = 0.07$), 0.04 for grassland (adjusted $R^2 = 0.09$), 0.07 for wetlands (adjusted $R^2 = 0.07$), 0.16 for rocky areas (adjusted $R^2 = 0.02$), 0.11 for artificial/terrestrial (adjusted $R^2 = 0.09$) and 0.21 for caves (adjusted $R^2 = 0.08$, Table 5.4). For the habitat types rocky areas and caves the slopes were not significantly different from zero (Table 5.4). Three median-based linear models on life history traits of species in wetlands (age at maturity: s = 0.00, p < 0.01; incubation time: s = -0.34, p < 0.01; max. longevity: s = 0.11, p < 0.05), and one median-based model for those in artificial/terrestrial habitats (age at maturity: s = 0.12, p < 0.01), in forests (age at maturity: s = 0.04, p < 0.01) and in grasslands (age at maturity: S = 0.10, p<0.01) had a slope significantly different from zero (Table 5.4).

If maximum altitude was included in the phylogenetic (PGLS) linear regression models on the relationship between life history traits and body mass in amphibians, an impact of maximum altitude was only significant for age at maturity, egg mass and size at maturity (see Appendix, Table 9.14).

If amphibian species were grouped by presence or absence of parental care, the OLS linear models linking life history traits and body mass had low mean R²-values (parental care: $R^2 = 0.10$, adjusted $R^2 = 0.11$; no parental care: $R^2 = 0.14$, adjusted $R^2 = 0.10$, Table 5.4). Only the linear regression model for the trait "incubation time" (s = -0.47, p < 0.01, Table 5.4) and the median-based linear model of egg mass (s = 0.41, p = 0.03) for amphibian species showing no parental care had a slope significantly differing from zero.

Table 5.1 Brief overview of evidences that life history traits approach invariance in amphibians and reptiles. Criteria are based on Price *et al.* (2014). Criterion 1 = relative variance between the trait and body mass; Criterion 2 = unimodal and normal distribution of the trait (brackets indicate that less than 95% of the observations are within plus/minus two standard deviations of the mean); Criterion 3 = R^2 value is very low; Criterion 4 = slopes are small. For results of fifth criterion of Price *et al.* (2014), the isometric variation of two life history traits, see main text. n.a. = not available.

| | Age at maturity | Birth weight | Clutch size | Clutches p.a. | Egg mass | Incubation time | Larval period | Max. longevity | Metamorphosis size | Size at maturity |
|-------------|-----------------|-----------------|----------------|------------------|-------------|--------------------|---------------|-------------------|-----------------------|---------------------|
| Amphibians | | | | | | | | | | |
| Criterion 1 | + | - | - | n.a. | - | - | + | + | + | + |
| Criterion 2 | - | (+) | + | n.a. | + | + | + | + | + | + |
| Criterion 3 | + | + | - | n.a. | + | + | + | + | + | + |
| Criterion 4 | + | - | + | n.a. | + | - | + | + | + | + |
| | | | | | | | | | | |
| Reptiles | | | | | | | | | | |
| Criterion 1 | - | - | - | - | - | - | n.a. | - | n.a. | - |
| Criterion 2 | + | + | + | - | + | + | n.a. | + | n.a. | + |
| Criterion 3 | - | - | - | + | - | - | n.a. | - | n.a. | - |
| Criterion 4 | - | - | - | + | - | - | n.a. | - | n.a. | - |

Table 5.2 Results on criteria 1 and 2 given in Price et al. (2014) for invariance in life history traits. These are listed for all amphibians, the amphibian orders Anura and Caudata, and reptiles. Variance: variance of the life history trait; body mass var/trait var: relative variance, ratio of the body mass variance and life history trait variance; Hartigans' dip test D (p-value): D and p-value of this test on unimodality of the trait; % within ±2 SD of mean: percentage of observations which are within plus/minus two standard deviations (SD) of the mean, test for normality/unimodality. All traits were log₁₀-transformed prior to the analyses.

| | Age at maturity | Birth weight | Clutch size | Clutches p.a. | Egg mass | Incubation time | tion Earval period M Iong | | Metamorphosis size | Size at maturity |
|------------------------------------|--------------------|-----------------|-------------|------------------|---------------------|--------------------|---------------------------------|-------------|-----------------------|---------------------|
| Variance all amphibians | 0.04 | 1.41 | 1.28 | - | 1.27 | 0.41 | 0.13 | 0.05 | 0.06 | 0.03 |
| Body mass var/trait var | 7.69 | 0.19 | 0.23 | - | 0.31 | 0.77 | 1.80 | 5.86 | 5.41 | 7.93 |
| Hartigans' dip test D (p-value) | 0.08 (0.01) | 0.08 (0.38) | 0.05 (0.14) | - | 0.07 (0.64) | 0.04 (0.89) | 0.05 (0.45) | 0.04 (0.84) | 0.06 (0.12) | 0.07 (0.59) |
| % within ±2 SD of mean | 98.48 | 88.89 | 97.67 | - | 100 | 95.65 | 95.45 | 95.35 | 98.51 | 100 |
| | | | | | | | | | | |
| Variance Anura | 0.04 | 1.21 | 1.45 | - | 0.88 0.11 0.02 0.04 | | 0.06 | 0.02 | | |
| Body mass var/trait var | 7.47 | 0.16 | 0.17 | - | 0.38 | 2.70 | 8.14 | 4.26 | 4.12 | 11.81 |
| Hartigans' dip test D (p-value) | 0.08 (0.04) | 0.09 (0.72) | 0.06 (0.19) | - | 0.10 (0.36) | 0.06 (0.50) | 0.06 (0.57) | 0.07 (0.49) | 0.08 (0.09) | 0.07 (0.81) |
| | | | | | | | | | | |
| Variance Caudata | 0.04 | 1.75 | 1.07 | - | 2.20 | 0.47 | 0.22 | 0.06 | 0.05 | 0.01 |
| Body mass var/trait var | 2.10 | 0.11 | 0.16 | - | 0.03 | 0.31 | 1.07 | 3.33 | 3.36 | 2.89 |
| Hartigans' dip test D (p-value) | 0.10 (0.01) | 0.13 (0.25) | 0.09 (0.01) | - | 0.13 (0.35) | 0.10 (0.14) | 0.08 (0.47) | 0.09 (0.31) | 0.05 (0.68) | 0.13 (0.78) |
| Variance all reptiles | 0.13 | 0.61 | 0.25 | 0.09 | 0.77 | 0.04 | - | 0.08 | - | 0.29 |
| Body mass var/trait var | 0.06 | 0.29 | 0.12 | 0.05 | 0.30 | 0.02 | - | 0.06 | - | 0.15 |
| Hartigans' dip test D (p-value) | 0.04 (0.08) | 0.04 (0.60) | 0.03 (0.13) | 0.06 (0.01) | 0.04 (0.73) | 0.02 (0.85) | - | 0.02 (0.52) | - | 0.04 (0.82) |
| % within ±2 SD mean | 99.17 | 98.72 | 95.28 | 95.62 | 96.77 | 97.16 | - | 99.29 | - | 100 |

Table 5.3 Results on ordinary least squares regressions exploring relationships between life history traits and body mass for all amphibians, the amphibian orders Anura and Caudata and all reptiles. DF = degrees of freedom; R² = coefficient of determination; Adj R² = adjusted R²; P = p-value; Cl_s = 95% confidence interval of slopes; Cl_i = 95% confidence interval of intercepts. For life history traits for which residuals are not normally distributed (tested with Shapiro-Wilk test, results not shown) Siegel's repeated medians method (mblm) was used to calculate linear models (see main text for details). P-values for relationships, which differ significantly from zero are highlighted in bold. Phylogenetic informed regression models (PGLS) were established only for the amphibians. Models for reptiles are from K. Hallmann and E. M. Griebeler (unpublished data). Lambda (λ) values give the impact of the phylogeny on studied relationships between life history traits and body mass. *P-values are not exact, because of ties or zeroes.

| Taxon | Trait | DF | R ² | Adj R ² | Р | Slope | Cls | Intercept | Cli | λ |
|---------------|-----------------------|----|----------------|--------------------|--|-----------------------------------|---------------|--------------------|-------------|------|
| Amphibia | Age at maturity | 47 | 0.05 | 0.03 | 0.13 | 0.08 | -0.06 , 0.13 | 2.88 | 2.77 , 2.98 | - |
| Amphibia mblm | Age at maturity | 47 | - | - | <0.01* | 0.02 | 0.10 , 0.25 | 2.99 | 2.84 , 2.99 | - |
| Amphibia | Birth weight | 15 | 0.12 | 0.06 | 0.17 | 0.80 | -0.39 , 1.99 | -0.39 , 1.99 -0.64 | | - |
| Amphibia mblm | Birth weight | 15 | - | - | <0.05 0.55 0.12 , 1.21 -0.65 -1.39 | | -1.39 , -0.31 | - | | |
| Amphibia | Clutch size | 60 | 0.38 | 0.37 | 0.76 | 0.76 0.08 -0.46 , 0.63 2.51 1 | | 1.91 , 3.10 | - | |
| Amphibia mblm | Clutch size | 60 | - | - | 0.58 | 0.58 -0.02 -0.47 , -0.26 2.50 2.3 | | 2.36 , 2.93 | - | |
| Amphibia | Egg mass | 18 | <0.01 | -0.07 | 0.98 -0.01 -1.05 , 1.02 -1.65 -2.93 | | -2.93 , -0.38 | - | | |
| Amphibia | Incubation time | 41 | 0.13 | 0.10 | <0.05 | -0.41 | -0.74 , -0.07 | 1.69 | 1.33 , 2.05 | - |
| Amphibia mblm | Incubation time | 41 | - | - | <0.01 | -0.27 | -0.40 , -0.20 | 1.44 | 1.37 , 1.56 | - |
| Amphibia | Larval period | 39 | <0.01 | -0.02 | 0.86 | 0.02 | -0.22 , 0.26 | 1.97 | 1.72 , 2.21 | - |
| Amphibia mblm | Larval period | 39 | - | - | 0.48 | -0.01 | -0.08 , 0.05 | 1.94 | 1.88 , 1.97 | - |
| Amphibia | Max. longevity | 40 | 0.08 | 0.05 | 0.08 | 0.11 | -0.01 , 0.24 | 0.98 | 0.83 , 1.13 | - |
| Amphibia | Metamorphosis size | 45 | 0.04 | 0.02 | 0.16 | -0.09 | -0.22 , 0.04 | 1.49 | 1.35 , 1.62 | - |
| Amphibia | Size at maturity | 16 | 0.01 | -0.05 | 0.68 | 0.04 | -0.15 , 0.22 | 0.59 | 0.39 , 0.78 | - |
| Amphibia PGLS | Age at maturity | 59 | - | - | 0.07 | 0.10 | -0.01 , 0.20 | 2.90 | 2.66 , 3.15 | 0.73 |

| Taxon | Trait | DF | R ² | Adj R ² | Р | Slope | Cls | Intercept | Cli | λ |
|---------------|-----------------------|----|----------------|--|-----------------------------------|-------------------|--------------|---------------|---------------|-------|
| Amphibia PGLS | Birth weight | 17 | - | - | <0.01 | 0.80 | 0.33 , 1.28 | -0.63 | -1.24 , -0.01 | -0.20 |
| Amphibia PGLS | Clutch size | 62 | - | - | <0.01 | 0.65 | 0.38 , 0.93 | 1.63 | 0.55 , 2.72 | 0.96 |
| Amphibia PGLS | Egg mass | 20 | - | - | 0.74 | -0.23 | -1.68 , 1.21 | -1.39 | -2.94 , 0.16 | 0.42 |
| Amphibia PGLS | Incubation time | 34 | - | - | 0.13 | 0.25 -0.05 , 0.55 | | 1.12 | 0.04 , 2.19 | 1.00 |
| Amphibia PGLS | Larval period | 41 | - | - | - 0.39 0.11 -0.15 , 0.38 1. | | 1.97 | 1.50 , 2.43 | 0.61 | |
| Amphibia PGLS | Max. longevity | 42 | - | - < 0.01 0.26 0.13, 0.39 0.92 0.58, | | 0.58 , 1.26 | 0.89 | | | |
| Amphibia PGLS | Metamorphosis size | 58 | - | - | <0.05 | 0.12 | 0.01 , 0.23 | 1.30 | 0.99 , 1.62 | 0.87 |
| Amphibia PGLS | Size at maturity | 18 | - | - | 0.31 | 0.07 | -0.07 , 0.22 | 0.60 0.35 , 0 | | 0.92 |
| Anura | Age at maturity | 32 | 0.04 | <0.01 | <0.01 0.31 0.08 -0.08 , 0.23 2.87 | | 2.87 | 2.68 , 3.06 | - | |
| Anura mblm | Age at maturity | 24 | - | - | <0.05 | 0.00 | 0.05 , 0.36 | 3.04 | 2.75 , 3.04 | - |
| Anura | Birth weight | 8 | <0.01 | -0.12 | 0.87 | -0.15 | -2.20 , 1.91 | 0.59 | -2.16 , 3.35 | - |
| Anura mblm | Birth weight | 8 | - | - | 0.84 | 0.04 | -1.60 , 1.58 | -0.11 | -1.89 , 2.48 | - |
| Anura | Clutch size | 32 | <0.01 | -0.02 | 0.65 | 0.19 | -0.67 , 1.06 | 2.50 | 1.37 , 3.62 | - |
| Anura mblm | Clutch size | 32 | - | - | 0.98 | 0.00 | -0.50 , 0.53 | 2.57 | 2.17 , 3.27 | - |
| Anura | Egg mass | 8 | <0.01 | -0.12 | 0.97 | 0.02 | -1.30 , 1.35 | -1.64 | -3.61 , 0.33 | - |
| Anura | Incubation time | 24 | 0.13 | 0.09 | 0.07 | -0.22 | -0.46 , 0.02 | 1.24 | 0.94 , 1.55 | - |
| Anura | Larval period | 21 | 0.02 | -0.02 | 0.48 | -0.05 | -0.21 , 0.10 | 1.91 | 1.74 , 2.09 | - |
| Anura | Max. longevity | 22 | 0.07 | 0.03 | 0.21 | 0.13 | -0.08 , 0.34 | 0.90 | 0.60 , 1.19 | - |
| Anura | Metamorphosis size | 30 | <0.01 | -0.04 | 0.67 | -0.05 | -0.26 , 0.17 | 1.40 | 1.11 , 1.69 | - |

| Taxon | Trait | DF | R ² | Adj R ² | Р | Slope | Cls | Intercept | Cli | λ |
|---------------|-----------------------|-----|----------------|--------------------|---|--|--------------|-------------|---------------|---|
| Anura | Size at maturity | 12 | 0.52 | 0.48 | <0.01 | 0.21 | 0.08 , 0.34 | 0.34 | 0.19 , 0.48 | - |
| Caudata | Age at maturity | 23 | 0.09 | 0.05 | 0.16 | 0.21 | -0.09 , 0.51 | 2.83 | 2.65 , 3.00 | - |
| Caudata mblm | Age at maturity | 21 | - | - | <0.01 | 0.24 | 0.11 , 0.35 | 2.82 | 2.75 , 2.91 | - |
| Caudata | Clutch size | 26 | 0.06 | 0.02 | 0.22 -0.60 -1.57 , 0.37 2.80 2.06 , 3. | | 2.06 , 3.55 | - | | |
| Caudata | Incubation time | 15 | 0.09 | 0.03 | 0.24 0.54 -0.41 , 1.48 1.52 0.8 | | 0.88 , 2.15 | - | | |
| Caudata mblm | Incubation time | 15 | - | - | <0.05 | <0.05 0.54 0.08 , 1.12 1.32 | | 1.23 , 1.67 | - | |
| Caudata | Larval period | 16 | 0.13 | 0.08 | 0.14 | 0.35 -0.13 , 0.83 1.90 1.50 | | 1.50 , 2.30 | - | |
| Caudata mblm | Larval period | 16 | - | - | <0.01 | <0.01 0.13 0.08 , 0.90 1.94 1.67 | | 1.67 , 1.95 | - | |
| Caudata | Max. longevity | 16 | 0.53 | 0.50 | <0.01 0.40 0.20 , 0.60 0.86 0.6 | | 0.69 , 1.02 | - | | |
| Caudata | Metamorphosis size | 21 | <0.01 | -0.04 | 0.78 | -0.03 | -0.28 , 0.21 | 1.48 | 1.30 , 1.66 | - |
| Reptilia | Age at maturity | 118 | 0.65 | 0.64 | <0.01 | 0.20 | 0.17 , 0.22 | 2.60 | 2.52 , 2.68 | - |
| Reptilia mblm | Age at maturity | 119 | - | - | <0.01 | 0.21 | 0.20 , 0.22 | 2.57 | 2.53 , 2.60 | - |
| Reptilia | Birth weight | 75 | 0.69 | 0.68 | <0.01 | 0.44 | 0.37 , 0.51 | -0.40 | -0.60 , -0.19 | - |
| Reptilia mblm | Birth weight | 76 | - | - | <0.01 | 0.48 | 0.46 , 0.51 | -0.39 | -0.52 , -0.34 | - |
| Reptilia | Clutch size | 209 | 0.47 | 0.47 | <0.01 | 0.24 | 0.20 , 0.27 | 0.31 | 0.21 , 0.41 | - |
| Reptilia mblm | Clutch size | 210 | - | - | <0.01 | 0.21 | 0.20 , 0.24 | 0.37 | 0.33 , 0.41 | - |
| Reptilia | Clutches p.a. | 134 | <0.01 | -0.01 | 0.86 | 0.01 | -0.03 , 0.04 | 0.23 | 0.14 , 0.31 | - |
| Reptilia mblm | Clutches p.a. | 135 | - | - | 0.32 | 0.00 | -0.06 , 0.02 | 0.00 | 0.12 , 0.30 | - |
| Reptilia | Egg mass | 59 | 0.90 | 0.90 | <0.01 | 0.52 | 0.47 , 0.57 | -0.52 | -0.68 , -0.37 | - |

| Taxon | Trait | DF | R ² | Adj R ² | Р | Slope | Slope Cl _s | | Cli | λ |
|---------------|------------------|-----|----------------|--------------------|-------|-------|-----------------------|-------|---------------|---|
| Reptilia mblm | Egg mass | 60 | - | - | <0.01 | 0.52 | 0.50 , 0.54 | -0.41 | -0.53 , -0.34 | - |
| Reptilia | Incubation time | 173 | 0.10 | 0.09 | <0.01 | 0.04 | 0.02 , 0.06 | 1.79 | 1.74 , 1.85 | - |
| Reptilia mblm | Incubation time | 174 | - | - | <0.01 | 0.04 | 0.02 , 0.06 | 1.79 | 1.74 , 1.85 | - |
| Reptilia | Max. longevity | 277 | 0.39 | 0.38 | <0.01 | 0.15 | 0.13 , 0.17 | 0.85 | 0.79 , 0.91 | - |
| Reptilia | Size at maturity | 51 | 0.60 | 0.59 | <0.01 | 0.29 | 0.23 , 0.36 | 0.70 | 0.47 , 0.94 | - |

Table 5.4 Results from ordinary least squares regression analysis exploring the relationships between life history traits and body mass of amphibians when separating species according to habitat type or the presence or absence of parental care. Habitat types and parental care status is given in the first column. For the definition of the different habitat types see Trochet *et al.* (2014). Shown are only relationships with a sufficient sample size on species from a habitat type or with and without parental care for regression analysis. For life history traits for which residuals were not normally distributed (tested with Shapiro-Wilk test, results not shown) Siegel's repeated medians method was used to calculate linear models (mblm). DF = degrees of freedom; R^2 = coefficient of determination; Adj R^2 = adjusted R^2 ; P = p-value; Cl_s = 95% confidence interval of slopes; Cl_i = 95% confidence interval of intercepts. Significant p-values are indicated in bold.

| Subgroups | Trait | DF | R ² | Adj R ² | Р | Slope | Cls | Intercept | Cl _i |
|----------------|--------------------|----|----------------|--------------------|-------|-------|--------------|-----------|-----------------|
| Forest | Age at maturity | 13 | 0.21 | 0.15 | 0.09 | 0.20 | -0.03 , 0.44 | 2.72 | 2.45 , 2.99 |
| Forest mblm | Age at maturity | 13 | - | - | 0.01 | 0.04 | 0.02 , 0.35 | 2.99 | 2.63 , 3.02 |
| Forest | Clutch size | 15 | 0.13 | 0.07 | 0.16 | 0.70 | -1.70 , 0.31 | 3.46 | 2.27 , 4.66 |
| Forest | Incubation time | 9 | 0.09 | -0.02 | 0.38 | -0.30 | -1.03 , 0.43 | 1.50 | 0.64 , 2.36 |
| Forest | Larval period | 9 | <0.01 | -0.11 | 0.98 | -0.01 | -0.23 , 0.22 | 1.84 | 1.58 , 2.10 |
| Forest | Max. longevity | 10 | 0.03 | -0.07 | 0.58 | -0.06 | -0.31 , 0.19 | 0.58 | 0.84 , 1.51 |
| Forest | Metamorphosis size | 13 | <0.01 | -0.07 | 0.87 | 0.02 | -0.27 , 0.32 | 1.29 | 0.94 , 1.64 |
| Grassland | Age at maturity | 13 | 0.16 | 0.10 | 0.14 | 0.15 | -0.05 , 0.34 | 2.81 | 2.61 , 3.02 |
| Grassland mblm | Age at maturity | 13 | - | - | <0.01 | 0.10 | 0.06 , 0.31 | 2.92 | 2.61 , 3.01 |
| Grassland | Clutch size | 13 | <0.01 | -0.08 | 0.95 | 0.03 | -1.01 , 1.08 | 2.96 | 1.89 , 4.03 |
| Grassland | Incubation time | 6 | 0.02 | -0.15 | 0.76 | -0.09 | -0.79 , 0.61 | 1.17 | 0.56 , 1.77 |
| Grassland mblm | Incubation time | 6 | - | - | 0.94 | -0.04 | -0.31 , 0.30 | 1.33 | 0.73 , 1.43 |
| Grassland | Larval period | 8 | 0.03 | -0.09 | 0.62 | 0.12 | -0.42 , 0.66 | 1.86 | 1.46 , 2.25 |
| Grassland | Max. longevity | 9 | <0.01 | -0.11 | 0.87 | -0.02 | -0.24 , 0.20 | 1.08 | 0.86 , 1.29 |
| Grassland | Metamorphosis size | 11 | <0.01 | 0.03 | 0.26 | -0.18 | -0.51 , 0.16 | 1.56 | 1.21 , 1.91 |
| Subgroups | Trait | DF | R ² | Adj R ² | Р | Slope | Cls | Intercept | Cli |
|------------------------------|--------------------|----|----------------|--------------------|-------|-------|---------------|-----------|---------------|
| Wetlands | Age at maturity | 40 | 0.03 | 0.01 | 0.27 | 0.06 | -0.05 , 0.17 | 2.87 | 2.76 , 2.98 |
| Wetlands mblm | Age at maturity | 40 | - | - | <0.01 | 0.00 | 0.07 , 0.21 | 3.01 | 2.80 , 2.98 |
| Wetlands | Birth weight | 11 | 0.12 | 0.04 | 0.25 | 0.74 | -0.59 , 2.07 | -0.59 | 1.36 , 1.94 |
| Wetlands | Clutch size | 45 | 0.02 | -0.01 | 0.34 | 0.26 | -0.28 , 0.80 | 2.66 | 2.09 , 3.22 |
| Wetlands | Egg mass | 12 | 0.01 | -0.08 | 0.79 | -0.14 | -1.28 , 1.00 | -1.56 | -2.89 , -0.22 |
| Wetlands | Incubation time | 32 | 0.27 | 0.25 | <0.01 | -0.47 | -0.75 , -0.19 | 1.65 | 1.36 , 1.94 |
| Wetlands mblm | Incubation time | 32 | - | - | <0.01 | -0.34 | -0.57 , -0.28 | 1.39 | 1.36 , 1.59 |
| Wetlands | Larval period | 29 | <0.01 | -0.03 | 0.97 | -0.01 | -0.19 , 0.18 | 1.94 | 1.76 , 2.11 |
| Wetlands mblm | Larval period | 29 | - | - | 0.83 | 0.00 | -0.13 , 0.12 | 1.95 | 1.87 , 1.98 |
| Wetlands | Max. longevity | 28 | 0.13 | 0.10 | 0.05 | 0.11 | 0.01 , 0.21 | 0.98 | 0.86 , 1.10 |
| Wetlands | Metamorphosis size | 37 | 0.05 | 0.03 | 0.16 | -0.10 | -0.25 , 0.04 | 1.51 | 1.35 , 1.66 |
| Wetlands | Size at maturity | 16 | 0.01 | -0.05 | 0.68 | 0.04 | -0.15 , 0.22 | 0.59 | 0.39 , 0.78 |
| Rocky areas | Clutch size | 6 | 0.16 | 0.02 | 0.32 | -0.66 | -2.15 , 0.83 | 2.40 | 0.72 , 4.07 |
| Artificial/terrestrial | Age at maturity | 14 | 0.35 | 0.31 | 0.01 | 0.25 | 0.06 , 0.44 | 2.67 | 2.49 , 2.86 |
| Artificial /terrestrial mblm | Age at maturity | 14 | - | - | <0.01 | 0.12 | 0.06 , 0.28 | 2.89 | 2.62 , 2.94 |
| Artificial/terrestrial | Clutch size | 14 | 0.09 | 0.03 | 0.25 | 0.62 | -0.50 , 1.74 | 2.42 | 1.32 , 3.51 |
| Artificial/terrestrial | Incubation time | 9 | 0.08 | -0.02 | 0.41 | -0.35 | -1.27 , 0.57 | 1.67 | 0.85 , 2.49 |
| Artificial/terrestrial | Larval period | 9 | 0.06 | -0.05 | 0.47 | 0.09 | -0.18 , 0.35 | 1.81 | 1.58 , 2.04 |
| Artificial/terrestrial | Max. longevity | 7 | 0.01 | -0.13 | 0.76 | 0.03 | -0.21 , 0.27 | 1.08 | 0.85 , 1.32 |

| Subgroups | Trait | DF | R ² | Adj R ² | Р | Slope | Cls | Intercept | Cli |
|------------------------|--------------------|----|----------------|--------------------|-------|-------|---------------|-----------|---------------|
| Artificial/terrestrial | Metamorphosis size | 12 | 0.06 | -0.02 | 0.41 | -0.11 | -0.37 , 0.16 | 1.40 | 1.13 , 1.67 |
| Caves | Clutch size | 6 | 0.21 | 0.08 | 0.25 | -0.69 | -2.04 , 0.65 | 2.23 | 0.76 , 3.70 |
| Parental care | Age at maturity | 6 | 0.33 | 0.22 | 0.14 | 0.22 | -0.09 , 0.53 | 2.89 | 2.64 , 3.14 |
| Parental care mblm | Age at maturity | 6 | - | - | 0.36 | 0.00 | -0.15 , 0.62 | 2.96 | 2.77 , 3.00 |
| Parental care | Clutch size | 9 | 0.02 | -0.09 | 0.72 | -0.14 | -0.95 , 0.68 | 1.56 | 0.79 , 2.32 |
| Parental care mblm | Clutch size | 9 | - | - | 0.84 | 0.00 | -0.48 , 0.36 | 1.40 | 1.14 , 2.06 |
| Parental care | Incubation time | 6 | 0.06 | -0.09 | 0.55 | 0.46 | -1.34 , 2.26 | 1.44 | -0.22 , 3.10 |
| Parental care mblm | Incubation time | 6 | - | - | 0.44 | 0.07 | -0.21 , 0.97 | 1.49 | 1.31 , 1.94 |
| Parental care | Larval period | 7 | 0.02 | -0.12 | 0.70 | -0.13 | -0.90 , 0.64 | 2.28 | 1.52 , 3.03 |
| Parental care | Metamorphosis size | 8 | 0.07 | -0.04 | 0.45 | -0.11 | -0.44 , 0.22 | 1.54 | 1.22 , 1.86 |
| Parental care mblm | Metamorphosis size | 8 | - | - | 0.27 | -0.06 | -0.59 , 0.21 | 1.39 | 1.30 , 1.77 |
| No parental care | Age at maturity | 23 | 0.08 | 0.04 | 0.18 | 0.09 | -0.05 , 0.23 | 2.99 | 2.88 , 3.10 |
| No parental care mblm | Age at maturity | 23 | - | - | 0.07 | 0.00 | -0.03 , 0.24 | 3.04 | 2.76 , 3.04 |
| No parental care | Clutch size | 28 | 0.04 | 0.01 | 0.27 | 0.24 | -0.19 , 0.67 | 2.95 | 2.44 , 3.46 |
| No parental care | Egg mass | 8 | 0.11 | -0.01 | 0.35 | 0.53 | -0.69 , 1.74 | -2.55 | -4.28 , -0.81 |
| No parental care mblm | Egg mass | 8 | - | - | 0.03 | 0.41 | 0.03 , 1.64 | -3.02 | -3.84 , -1.45 |
| No parental care | Incubation time | 18 | 0.35 | 0.32 | <0.01 | -0.47 | -0.79 , 0.15 | 1.64 | 1.25 , 2.03 |
| No parental care | Larval period | 17 | 0.02 | -0.04 | 0.55 | 0.07 | -0.17 , 0.31 | 1.81 | 1.57 , 2.06 |
| No parental care mblm | Larval period | 17 | - | - | 0.05 | 0.07 | <-0.01 , 0.19 | 1.81 | 1.72 , 1.89 |

| Subgroups | Trait | DF | R ² | Adj R ² | Р | Slope | Cls | Intercept | Cli |
|------------------|--------------------|----|----------------|--------------------|------|-------|--------------|-----------|-------------|
| No parental care | Max. longevity | 18 | 0.22 | 0.18 | 0.04 | 0.14 | 0.01 , 0.27 | 0.99 | 0.82 , 1.16 |
| No parental care | Metamorphosis size | 23 | 0.13 | 0.09 | 0.08 | -0.15 | -0.32 , 0.02 | 1.52 | 1.32 , 1.71 |



Figure 5.1 Histograms of log10-transformed data for each of the amphibian life history traits studied. The dashed line represents the mean value of each distribution, and the two solid lines represent +/- two standard deviations from the mean. The percentage of observations that fall within +/- two standard deviations of the mean are reported in Table 5.2. Results of Shapiro-Wilk tests for normality for each trait: age at maturity (W = 0.88, p < 0.01), birth weight (W = 0.87, p = 0.02), clutch size (W = 0.95, p < 0.01), egg mass (W = 0.89, p = 0.06), incubation time (W = 0.88, p < 0.01), larval period (W = 0.74, p < 0.01), max. longevity (W = 0.97, p = 0.37), metamorphosis size (W = 0.98, p = 0.51) and size at maturity (W = 0.91, p = 0.08).



Figure 5.2 Histograms of log10-transformed data for each of the reptilian life history traits studied. The dashed line represents the mean value of each distribution, and the two solid lines represent +/- two standard deviations from the mean. The percentage of observations that fall within +/- two standard deviations of the mean are reported in Table 5.2. Results of Shapiro-Wilk tests for normality for each trait: age at maturity (W = 0.96, p < 0.01), birth weight (W = 0.97, p = 0.04), clutches p.a. (W = 0.90, p < 0.01), clutch size (W = 0.98, p < 0.01), egg mass (W = 0.91, p < 0.01), incubation time (W = 0.96, p < 0.01), max. longevity (W = 0.99, p = 0.08), and size at maturity (W = 0.96, p = 0.05).

5.4.2 Invariance of life history traits in reptiles

Body mass variance. The body mass of the reptilian species under study ranged from a minimum of 0.60 g in *Ablepharus kitaibelii* to a maximum of 428.42 kg in *Dermochelys coriacea* (mean = 9578.33 g, median = 210.90 g). These are six orders of magnitude.

(1) Relative variance and (2) unimodal distribution of life history traits. None of the life history traits of the reptiles showed a smaller variance than body mass (Table 5.2). All traits had unimodal distributions (for Hartigans' dip test results see Table 5.2), except for "clutches p.a.". For clutches p.a., Hartigans' dip test failed to demonstrate a unimodal distribution (D = 0.06, p = 0.01), although 95.62% of observations fell within plus/minus two standard deviations (SD) of the mean. For all studied life history traits, at least 95% of observations fell within ±2 SD of the mean (Table 5.2).

(3) Coefficient of determination / R^2 , (4) slope of OLS linear models and (5) isometric variation. In reptiles, the coefficients of determination (R^2) of ordinary least squares (OLS) linear regression models on life history traits against body mass were generally high across traits, with a mean value of $R^2 = 0.48$ (adjusted $R^2 = 0.47$, Figure 5.2). The only exception was the trait "clutches p.a." showing a small R^2 value ($R^2 < 0.01$, adjusted $R^2 = -0.01$). All OLS models had slopes significantly differing from zero, except for the trait clutches p.a. (s = 0.01, p = 0.86, Table 5.2).

Under SMA an isometric relationship between life history traits was only corroborated between birth weight and egg mass ($R^2 = 0.60$, s = 0.94, p < 0.01) and between age at maturity and maximum longevity ($R^2 = 0.48$, s = 1.06, p < 0.01) in reptiles (see Appendix Table 9.15 - Table 9.22).

5.5 Discussion

5.5.1 Invariances in amphibian and reptilian life history traits

Biological traits possess an inherent variable nature, Price et al. (2014) therefore refers to invariance in a biological context as "approaching invariant" or "effectively invariant". It is difficult to give a judgement about the invariance of a trait, thus a chain of evidence is necessary for the decision whether a trait is invariant or not. However, we think it is indisputable that a trait which fulfills all criteria proposed by Price et al. (2014) can be regarded as invariant. The five criteria applied indicate that most of the life history traits of amphibians are invariant towards changes in adult body mass, while reptilian life history traits showed much less invariance. We found four amphibian traits which fulfill all criteria of invariance proposed by Price et al. (2014). These included size-related traits (metamorphosis size, size at maturity) as well as biological times related traits (larval period, max. longevity). Interestingly, these four traits cover different phases during the amphibian life cycle. The invariance in metamorphosis size results from the changes during metamorphosis, which are most extensive in anurans and weaker in salamanders and lead to morphologically and ecologically very divergent adults (Dodd and Dodd 1976). That life history traits linked to the larval stage could be independent of adult body mass is obvious (Duellman and Trueb 1994) but that maximum longevity as well as size at maturity are invariant is surprising as in other vertebrates they are generally associated with body mass (Peters 1983). Clutch size shows the weakest signs of invariance in terms of the five criteria used. This is in accordance with already known allometric relationships between clutch size and body mass (Duellman and Trueb 1994) that are corroborated in our phylogenetic analyses, too (Table 5.3). Although the orders Anura and Caudata show mostly the same invariances, they can provide insights into the causes of invariances in amphibian life history traits. Most amphibians in our dataset were anurans (50 out of 86) and they had more invariant traits than the salamanders (Table 5.3). This could reflect that anurans more frequently have the ancestral biphasic life cycle with a complex metamorphosis of an aquatic larva to a terrestrial juvenile and almost entirely show an external fertilization, whereas some salamander species have internal fertilization, which was a precursory stage to the direct development of terrestrial eggs (Duellman and Trueb 1994). This trend towards terrestriality in caudatan species is also seen in maximum longevity. Contrary to Anura, Caudata showed an allometric relationship on maximum longevity (s = 0.40, p < 0.01), which is consistent with the generally higher life expectancy observed in salamanders compared to anurans (Duellman and Trueb 1994). Contrary to our expectation that environmental factors influence the existence of invariant life history traits in amphibians (Morrison and Hero 2003), neither habitat types nor maximum altitude effected patterns of invariances in life history traits (Table 5.4, for max. altitude see Appendix, Table 9.14). Maybe the habitat types used by us (Trochet et al. 2014) did not sufficiently capture the microhabitat use of amphibians (Seebacher and Alford 1999; Searcy et al. 2013; Warguez et al. 2013). Although intraspecific patterns support an effect of maximum altitude on some life history traits studied (reviewed in Morrison & Hero, 2003), the lack of an interspecific effect provides further evidence of inconsistent results on the geographic variation in life history characteristics of amphibians published to date and cannot easily be explained. Whether species provided parental care or not had no effect on invariances of life history traits (Table 5.4). Maybe our dichotomous distinction oversimplifies the real variability in this trait for amphibians (Duellman and Trueb 1994). The low frequency of invariances in reptilian life history traits agrees with our initial hypothesis that these relate to body mass, which could be a consequence of their terrestrial life style (Collar et al. 2011). There was no reptilian trait, which fulfilled all criteria on invariance. Only the trait "clutches p.a." fulfilled more than one criterion of the five criteria studied (Table 5.2 + Table 5.3). While a variable clutch size is ancestral in reptiles and its invariance is only known from gekkotan species (Kratochvíl and Kubička 2007a), the invariance of clutch frequency is unknown in general and we think that it is caused by the regression of a discrete trait (clutches p.a.) with a small variability against a continuous trait (body mass) with a large variability. In total, our results on potential invariances in reptilian life history traits are consistent with many studies demonstrating allometric relationships of biological traits including life history traits in this taxon (see Fitch, 1970; Peters, 1983; Schmidt-Nielsen, 1984; Dunham & Miles, 1985; Scharf et al., 2014; Hallmann & Griebeler, 2015).

5.5.2 Usability of the five criteria to identify invariant life history traits

The five newly proposed criteria by Price *et al.* (2014) address and solve some problems discussed in the theory on life history invariants (Charnov 1993; Nee et al. 2005; Savage et al. 2006). Two different definitions of life history invariances currently exist in literature that Price *et al.* (2014) capture by these criteria. The first is that a life history trait does not vary systematically with body mass (Charnov, 1993; Savage *et al.*, 2006; criterion 3 and 4). The second is that it exhibits a unimodal central tendency and varies over a limited range relative to body mass (Charnov, 1993; Savage *et al.*, 2006; criterion 1 and 2). While the first definition of invariance is widely accepted and the methods used for identification are again corroborated in this study, the second definition and especially the methods used for its identification were harshly criticized and commented (Nee et al. 2005; Nespolo 2005).

(1) Relative variance and (2) unimodal distribution of life history traits. Price et al. (2014) proposed that invariant life history traits should have a lower variance relative to the variance in body mass, but also mentioned limitations of this criterion, which we successfully tackled by using our relative variance approach. The authors noted a "guideline for exactly how much more variability is expected in the x-variable than the y-variable is challenging" and suggested that other investigators should "simply report the ratios of variances and interpret their findings in the light of this value" (Price et al. 2014). The authors also noted that if all variables have the same units and are examined on logarithmic scale that "this approach is valid" (Price et al. 2014). Taking the logarithm of variables prior to the analyses makes highly skewed distributions less skewed but it does not solve the problem that traits could have different units or considerably differing means. The latter can happen when comparing variance ratios between groups that comprise different orders of magnitude of body masses but similar values for life history traits (e.g. amphibians: median of \log_{10} body mass = 0.89, reptiles: median of \log_{10} body mass = 2.32). We therefore modified the original criterion of Price et al. (2014), and used the relative variances, by dividing raw data on body mass and life history traits by their medians prior to the calculation of the variances studied by this criterion (Steuer et al. 2007). Without doing this, original variances indicated invariance for all reptilian life history traits (results not shown). This result would strongly contradict previous publications showing that life history traits of reptiles are strongly related to body mass (Peters, 1983; Dunham & Miles, 1985; Scharf *et al.*, 2014). The criterion of modal variance in the y-variable or a frequency distribution close to normal (Price et al. 2014) raised problems at least in reptiles. Except for the trait "clutches p.a." all life history traits of the reptiles showed a unimodal distribution (Table 5.2, Figure 5.2), which suggests that these are invariant (Charnov 1993; Savage et al. 2006; Price et al. 2014). In contrast, all other criteria indicated that almost all reptilian life history traits studied depend on body mass. Price *et al.* (2014) already noted the problem that "some traits will have frequency distributions which depart from normality, yet still contain much less variability". However, our results even demonstrate that traits with a unimodal distribution and 95% of observations falling within plus/minus two standard deviations are not necessarily invariant towards body mass. This observation questions the applicability of the criterion of a unimodal trait distribution at least for reptiles. We therefore suggest that it should be carefully interpreted.

(3) Coefficient of determination / R^2 . (4) slope of OLS linear models and (5) isometric variation. Criterion 3 and 4 are based on the first definition of invariance. An invariant life history trait does not vary systematically with body mass (Charnov 1993; Savage et al. 2006). In our study relative variances (criterion 1), R² values and slopes of regressions linking life history traits to body mass mostly revealed consistent results in amphibian and reptiles (Table 5.2 + Table 5.4). For the amphibians, this means very low R² values and small slopes of regressions between all life history traits and body mass and the opposite scenario for the reptiles. These results corroborate previous studies on life history traits for the different taxa (Blueweiss et al., 1978; Peters, 1983; Schmidt-Nielsen, 1984; Scharf et al., 2014 etc.). After phylogenetic correction the slopes of regressions between four life history traits of the amphibians and body mass were statistically significant and different from zero (Table 5.3). While metamorphosis size (s = 0.12, p < 0.05) and max. longevity (s = 0.25, p < 0.01) still showed small to moderate slopes and thus more or less fulfilling criterion 4, the slopes of the clutch size (s = 0.65, p < 0.01) and birth weight (s = 0.80, p < 0.01) regressions were considerably steeper and contradicted criterion 4. The latter was not surprising, because the traits "birth weight" and "clutch size" showed more variability than body mass and in the case of birth weight criterion 2 was only partly fulfilled (Table 5.1). Referring to criterion 4, the results for the reptiles mostly corroborate the amphibian results and also indicate no significant differences between slopes of regressions with and without using a phylogenetic correction (K.

Hallmann and E. M. Griebeler unpublished data, see Appendix Table 9.4 - Table 9.9). Therefore, the hypothesis of Charnov (1993) that the shared evolutionary history of species could be ignored in studies on invariant life history traits could be confirmed. Because criterion 5 is so widely used in the study of life history invariants (Charnov 1993), we also analysed relationships between pairs of life history traits (not body mass) in order to test whether they scale isometrically (e.g. a slope of 1.0 of a SMA regression, see material & methods). An isometric relationship between two traits leads ultimately to products or ratios of life history traits, which can be dimensionless numbers (Charnov 1993; Günther and Morgado 2005; Savage et al. 2006). Some authors warn that "caution is needed when allometric equations are multiplied or divided to make new ones" (Nespolo 2005). Nee et al. (2005) stated that the used approaches have "created an illusion of invariants that do not necessarily exist". They especially criticize that a regression slope or a R² value of approximately 1.0 does not imply invariance (Nee et al. 2005). Our application of the isometric variation criterion identified no invariant traits for amphibians (see Appendix, Table 9.23 - Table 9.31) and only two isometric relationships for reptiles (birth weight versus egg mass, $R^2 = 0.60$, s = 0.94; age at maturity versus maximum longevity, R^2 = 0.48, s = 1.06; see Appendix, Table 9.15 - Table 9.22). We think that these two reptilian cases demonstrate limitations of the isometric variation criterion. First, as egg mass, birth weight, age at maturity and maximum longevity scale with body mass in reptiles (and also other life history traits, Peters 1983, Werner & Griebeler, 2011, 2013, K. Hallmann and E. M. Griebeler unpublished data) correlations (indirect) between trait pairs are expected, and they do not necessarily imply the invariance of traits. Second, these invariances match a limitation already mentioned by Nee et al. (2005), namely that one of the life history traits is simply a "fraction of the other trait" (birth weight of egg mass, age at maturity of maximum longevity). Nee et al. (2005) suggested instead of regressions relating traits against each other to develop "procedures to compare the relative variation in the proposed invariant across species to variation in other scale-free, but not necessarily invariant, measures". We think that the criteria of Price et al. (2014) can serve as such procedures, which address all mentioned criticism and provide through the synthesis of a range of criteria a robust decision whether a life history trait is invariant or not.

Our study demonstrates that the five criteria proposed by Price *et al.* (2014) for the identification of invariant life history traits worked for amphibians and reptiles. Not all

criteria have an equal power of explanation, and the statistical methods have to be adapted to the studied taxa in order to avoid erroneous conclusions and comparisons between taxa. For amphibians and reptiles, it was necessary to transform and normalize traits and body mass before variance ratios are analysed (criterion 1) due to their considerably differing body mass ranges. In our study we identified some life history invariants for the amphibians and none for the reptiles. This confirms our initial hypothesis that the semi-aquatic amphibians have in general more invariant life history traits than the terrestrial reptiles, whose life history traits are largely shaped by their body masses contrary to amphibian. For the amphibians, both larval stage and adult stage possess characteristics, which are invariant towards body mass and cannot explained by altitude, habitat types or the presence or absence of parental care. We think that invariances seen in life history traits of amphibians are a consequence of their complex biphasic life cycle and their microhabitat use in a semiaquatic environment.

6 Allgemeine Diskussion

Die allgemeine Diskussion enthält im Wesentlichen überarbeitete und gekürzte Versionen der bereits in den Hauptkapiteln 3, 4 und 5 in englischer Sprache erfolgten Diskussionen der einzelnen drei Projekte. Der erste Teil der allgemeinen Diskussion beschäftigt sich mit physiologischen und phylogenetischen Zwängen bei Squamaten. Die offensichtlich gewordene Bedeutung von allometrischen Zwängen für *Life history*-Merkmale von Reptilien wird im zweiten Teil der Diskussion von mir thematisiert. Invariante *Life history*-Merkmale von Reptilien und Amphibien, die auf die Existenz weiterer Zwänge hinweisen, untersuche ich im letzten Teil der Diskussion. Es folgen eine Synthese der wichtigsten gefundenen Erkenntnisse und eine abschließende Aussage zum Einfluss der verschiedenen evolutionären Zwänge auf die *Life history*-Strategien von Amphibien und Reptilien. Am Ende gebe ich einen kurzen Ausblick auf offene Fragen und Themen für zukünftige Arbeiten.

6.1 Bedeutung von phylogenetischen und physiologischen Zwängen für die *Life history*-Strategien von Reptilien (Squamaten)

Mein erstes Projekt beschäftigte sich mit der Bedeutung von physiologischen und phylogenetischen Zwängen für die *Life history*-Strategien von Squamaten (Eidechsen, Schlangen, Doppelschleichen). In einer kürzlich veröffentlichten Studie von Pike und Kollegen (2012) wurden *Life history*-Strategien bei eierlegenden Geckos (Eidechsenarten) in Verbindung mit unterschiedlichen Typen von Eischalen gebracht. Aus diesem Grund habe ich untersucht, ob auch auf einer höheren taxonomischen Ebene, nämlich bei den Squamaten, die *Life history*-Strategien durch einen physiologischen Zwang in Form der Eischale beeinflusst werden und inwieweit Phylogenie bzw. phylogenetische Zwänge von Bedeutung sind. Hierzu habe ich zuerst einen Datensatz mit Angaben zu *Life history*-Merkmalen (Alter bei weiblicher Geschlechtsreife, Geburtsgröße, Größe und Anzahl der Gelege pro Jahr, Inkubationszeit, maximale Lebenserwartung) und der Körpermasse für 574 Squamatenarten erstellt, welcher sich im Rahmen der multivariaten Analysen auf 32

Arten reduzierte. Für die phylogenetischen Analysen verwendete ich einen aktuellen phylogenetischen Baum der Squamaten von Pyron und Burbrink (2014).

Phylogenetische Zwänge. Im ersten Teil des Projekts habe ich mich mit dem Grad an Verwandtschaft von Squamatenarten, welche den gleichen Eischaltyp besitzen, beschäftigt. Meine Untersuchung konnte hier eindeutig zeigen, dass das Merkmal "Eischaltyp" ein starkes phylogenetisches Signal aufweist. Als weiteres Ergebnis zeigte sich, dass dieses phylogenetische Signal mit zunehmender taxonomischer Ebene (von der Ebene der Art bis zur Superfamilie) abnimmt. Die evolutionäre Distanz zwischen den Eischalen lässt sich an den Übergangswahrscheinlichkeiten zwischen den einzelnen Eischaltypen ablesen. Die zeitstetigen Markov-Modelle (= stochastischer Prozess bei dem die Übergangswahrscheinlichkeiten unabhängig vom Beobachtung sind) höhere Zeitpunkt der letzten sagten dabei eine Wahrscheinlichkeit für einen Übergang zwischen Schalenlosigkeit und Weichschaligkeit im Vergleich zu einem Übergang zwischen Weichschaligkeit und Hartschaligkeit voraus. Die evolutionäre Distanz zwischen dem schalenlosen Eischaltyp und dem weichschaligen Typ ist somit geringer als zwischen dem weichschaligen Eischaltyp und dem hartschaligen. Dieses Ergebnis war unerwartet, weil der Übergang von weichschaligen zu schalenlosen Eiern, und damit von Oviparie zu Viviparie, eine Menge an physiologischen Veränderungen wie Eiretention oder die Bildung von placentaartigen Strukturen (De Fraipont et al. 1996; Blackburn 1998; Blackburn and Flemming 2009; Stewart 2013) benötigte. Das Auftreten von hartschaligen Eiern war ein einmaliges evolutionäres Ereignis innerhalb der Squamaten, wobei eine harte Eischale nur in einigen Geckofamilien vorkommt (Schleich und Kästle 1988; Pike et al. 2012). Es wurde spekuliert, dass die harte Eischale nur eine spezielle Variante des weichschaligen Typs darstellt, denn nach der Eiablage sind die Eier zunächst noch weich und sie werden erst innerhalb einer Stunde durch einen Härtungsprozess zu hartschaligen Eiern umgewandelt (Schleich und Kästle 1988; Henkel und Schmidt 1991; Rogner 1992; Rösler 1995).

Ich habe auch verschiedene *Life history*-Merkmale auf ein phylogenetisches Signal hin untersucht. Diese Analyse enthüllte eine Dichotomie der untersuchten Merkmale: Merkmale mit phylogenetischem Signal (Geburtsgröße, Gelegegröße, Gelege pro Jahr, Alter bei weiblicher Geschlechtsreife) und Merkmale ohne phylogenetischem Signal (Inkubationszeit, maximale Lebenserwartung). Im Generellen existieren nur wenige Studien, die einen gemeinsamen evolutionären Hintergrund von *Life history*-

Merkmalen bei verschiedenen Squamatentaxa untersucht haben (zusammengefasst in Blomberg et al. 2003). Bei Eidechsen besitzen vor allem Merkmale mit Bezug zur Körpergröße ein phylogenetisches Signal (Clobert et al. 1998; Perry und Garland 2002), wie z.B. die Körpermasse bei einigen Arten der Gattung Anolis (Losos 1990) und die Kopf-Rumpf-Länge (KRL) oder die Schwanzlänge bei der Familie Anguidae (Wiens und Slingluff 2001). Es lassen sich aber auch Ausnahmen finden, wie die Phrynosomatidae, wo Körpergröße keinen Iguana-Familie phylogenetischen Hintergrund besitzt (Bonine et al. 2001). Bei den von Clobert und Kollegen (Clobert et al. 1998) untersuchten *Life history*-Merkmalen von Eidechsen lag ein signifikantes phylogenetisches Signal für die Merkmale Alter bei der Geschlechtsreife, Gelegegröße, Anzahl der Gelege pro Jahr, wenn die Merkmale für KRL korrigiert wurden, vor. Bei meinem Datensatz führte die Korrektur für Körpermasse zu einem kompletten Verlust von phylogenetischem Signal bei allen Merkmalen mit Ausnahme der Inkubationszeit. Dieses Ergebnis scheint ein weiterer Beleg dafür zu sein, dass nicht alle Merkmale einem phylogenetischen Zwang unterliegen (Abouheif 1999; Blomberg et al. 2003). Nichtsdestotrotz besitzt das Merkmal "Eischaltyp" ein starkes phylogenetisches Signal, was es zu einem geeigneten Stellvertreter für die Phylogenie macht. Diese Erwartung wird vom phylogenetischen Baum der 32 Squamatenarten bestätigt.

Physiologische Zwänge. Im zweiten Teil des Projekts habe ich untersucht, ob Arten mit gleichem Eischaltyp ähnliche Eigenschaften in ihren *Life history*-Merkmalen aufweisen.

Phänogramme, die auf Clusteranalysen von *Life history*-Merkmalen beruhten, führten zu Gruppen von Squamatenarten mit maximal zwei verschiedenen Eischaltypen, wobei es sich hier entweder um die Kombination aus schalenlosem und weichschaligem Eischaltyp oder weichschaligem und hartschaligem Typ handelte. Dies spiegelte die Ergebnisse der Markov-Modelle wider und war noch annähernd konsistent mit den Positionen der Squamatenarten im phylogenetischen Baum. Es gab aber auch größere Abweichungen vom phylogenetischen Baum, wie z.B. bei der Art *Zootoca vivipara* (= Waldeidechse), welche sich nicht in der Nähe anderer Arten mit einem schalenlosen Eischaltyp befand. Dieses Reptil ist extrem weit verbreitet und hat die nördlichste Ausprägung aller Squamatenarten mit einem Vorkommen bis zum 70sten Breitengrad. Die Individuen nördlicher Populationen können vivipar sein (schalenlose Eier), was ich in meinen Analysen angenommen habe, während

Individuen der extremen südwestlichen Populationen weichschalige Eier legen (Heulin et al. 1989; Guillaume et al. 2006; Agasyan et al. 2010; Uetz und Hošek 2013). Es existiert aber auch eine hohe Variabilität der *Life history*-Merkmale auf Grund lokaler Anpassung und sie reflektieren die Breite der Umweltbedingungen, welche man im Verbreitungsgebiet von *Z. vivipara* finden kann. Wurde in den Clusteranalysen neben den *Life history*-Merkmalen auch die Körpermasse berücksichtigt, so erhöhte sich die Übereinstimmung zwischen Phänogramm und phylogenetischem Baum.

Um den bereits bekannten Einfluss der Phylogenie auszuschließen, nutzte ich eine phylogenetische Hauptkomponentenanalyse (pPCA), was zur Identifizierung von spezifischen Life history-Strategien für jeden Eischaltyp führte. Der schalenlose Eischaltyp steht demnach für eine Lebensstrategie charakterisiert durch späte Geschlechtsreife der Weibchen, der Produktion von wenigen, aber großen Gelegen, Nachkommen mit großer Geburtsgröße, einer deutlich höheren Lebenserwartung und einer verlängerten Tragezeit. Im Gegensatz dazu zeigen hartschalige Arten eine frühe Geschlechtsreife, eine Produktion von vielen, kleinen Gelegen und die Nachkommen besitzen eine kleine Geburtsgröße. Unterschiede bei Lebenserwartung und Inkubationszeit verglichen mit dem schalenlosen oder weichschaligen Typ gab es nicht. Arten mit weichschaligem Eischaltyp bildeten die diverseste Gruppe in Bezug auf Life history-Strategien. Sie deckten entweder Strategien der schalenlosen oder hartschaligen Arten ab, oder besaßen eine intermediäre Strategie bezogen auf die Geschlechtsreife, die Größe und Häufigkeit von Gelegen und die Geburtsgröße. Meine Ergebnisse für die Squamaten stimmten nur zu einem Teil mit denen der Geckos (Pike et al. 2012) überein. Während, genau wie in der Arbeit von Pike und Kollegen (2012), die Nachkommen von hartschaligen Arten im Vergleich zu weichschaligen kleine Geburtsgrößen aufwiesen, unterschied sich im Gegensatz dazu die Inkubationszeit nicht zwischen den beiden Eischaltypen.

Im Generellen sind Analysen zu Reproduktionsstrategien für die verschiedenen Squamatengruppen schon von mehreren Autoren durchgeführt worden (Tinkle 1969; Tinkle et al. 1970; Dunham und Miles 1985; Dunham et al. 1988; Bauwens und Díaz-Uriarte 1997; Shine 2005; Meiri et al. 2012). Tinkle und Kollegen (1970) gehörten zu den Ersten, die unterschiedliche Reproduktionsstrategien für ovipare und vivipare Eidechsen entdeckt und beschrieben haben. Danach werden ovipare Eidechsen früh geschlechtsreif und haben häufige Gelege, was einer Strategie entspricht, welche man auch bei den hartschaligen Squamaten findet (Tinkle et al. 1970). Vivipare Arten werden nach Tinkle und Kollegen (1970) spät geschlechtsreif und haben wenige, kleine oder große Gelege, was konsistent ist mit meiner Charakterisierung der schalenlosen Squamaten. Auch intermediäre Reproduktionsstrategien finden sich bei Tinkle und Kollegen (1970), welche mit der Strategie der weichschaligen Arten aus meinem Datensatz übereinstimmen. Die Ergebnisse von Tinkle und Kollegen (1970) konnten später von Dunham und Kollegen (1988) für die Eidechsen bestätigt werden. Der Frage nach dem Einfluss von Körpergröße und Phylogenie auf die Muster der Kovariation von Life history-Merkmalen von Eidechsen und Schlangen ist Stearns (1984) nachgegangen. Er erkannte, dass trotz des Einflusses der Phylogenie, der Hauptgrund für die Muster der Kovariation in der Korrelation der Life history-Merkmale mit der durchschnittlichen Länge der adulten Weibchen, und damit Körpergröße, besteht (Stearns 1984). Dieses Ergebnis wurde allerdings von Dunham und Miles (1985) infrage gestellt, da sie Fehler in Stearns Datensatz ausmachten. Nach Entfernung des Größeneffekts aus dem korrigierten Datensatz von Stearns konnten sie einen signifikanten Einfluss der Phylogenie auf die Kovariation zwischen den Life history-Merkmalen nachweisen. Dunham und Kollegen (1988) schlossen daraus, dass Ahnlichkeiten zwischen Life history-Strategien von Squamaten höchstwahrscheinlich von physiologischen Zwängen verursacht werden, welche eng verknüpft sind mit Reproduktionsmodi und der Fortpflanzungshäufigkeit. In meiner Arbeit verschwand die ursprüngliche Gruppierung der Eischaltypen im pPCA-Diagramm fast vollständig, wenn zusätzlich für die Körpermasse korrigiert wurde. Dieses Ergebnis weist auf einen starken Effekt der Größe auf die Life history-Merkmale hin, wie von Stearns (1984) postuliert. Das Hinzufügen von Körpermasse als weiterem Merkmal in der pPCA führte zu einer Wiederherstellung der ursprünglichen Gruppierung der Eischaltypen, was auf einen stärkeren Effekt der Phylogenie auf die Life history-Merkmale hinweist und damit Dunham und Miles (1985) bestätigt. Hinweise für unterschiedliche durchschnittliche Körpermassen, welche mit den einzelnen Eischaltypen assoziiert sind, finden sich sowohl bei den Geckos von Pike und Kollegen (2012) als auch bei den von mir untersuchten Squamaten.

Zusammenfassend lässt sich deshalb sagen, dass jeder Eischaltyp mit einer spezifischen Spannweite an phylogenetisch verwandten Körpermassen verknüpft ist, welche wiederum mit einer spezifischen *Life history*-Strategie assoziiert ist.

Abschließend will ich näher auf einige potentielle Probleme meiner Studie eingehen. Der von mir verwendete Datensatz war mit 32 Squamatenarten recht klein. Als Folge davon könnte es zu einer unzureichenden Berücksichtigung der Phylogenie der Squamaten als auch der geographischen Verbreitung der Eischaltypen gekommen sein. Ich habe deshalb die Analysen mit einem größeren Datensatz aus einer aktuellen Studie (Scharf et al. 2014) von 300 weltweit verbreiteten Squamatenarten, aber weniger *Life history*-Merkmalen, wiederholt. Die Resultate der pPCA für den um eine Größeneinheit größeren Datensatz (300 Arten) entsprachen denen, welche ich für meinen Datensatz mit den 32 untersuchten Arten erhalten habe. Die hartschaligen und schalenlosen Arten waren im pPCA-Diagramm deutlich voneinander getrennt, während Arten mit einem weichschaligen Eischaltyp in allen Quadranten zu finden waren. Nach Korrektur für Körpermasse verringerte sich auch hier der Wert der erklärten Varianz und das zuvor gefundene Muster verschwand völlig.

6.2 Bedeutung von allometrischen Zwängen (unter besonderer Berücksichtigung der Phylogenie) für die *Life history*-Strategien von Reptilien

Im zweiten Projekt (Kapitel 4) habe ich mich mit den allometrischen Zwängen und somit dem Einfluss der Körpermasse auf *Life history*-Merkmale von Reptilien beschäftigt. Dafür habe ich Regressionsmodelle zur Beschreibung der allometrischen Skalierung von *Life history*-Merkmalen für einzelne Reptilienordnungen (Schildkröten, Krokodile, Squamaten und die Brückenechsen bzw. die Tuatara, *Sphenodon punctatus*) als auch für alle Reptilien (n = 369) zusammen erstellt. In allen Regressionsmodellen wurden zusätzlich die phylogenetischen Zusammenhänge der Arten berücksichtigt, um den Einfluss phylogenetischer Zwänge zu untersuchen, aber auch Einflüsse derselben auszuschließen. Dabei fanden sowohl aktuelle phylogenetische Bäume der einzelnen Reptilienordnungen (Oaks 2011; Guillon et al. 2012; Pyron und Burbrink 2014) als auch eine von mir erstellte Phylogenie aller Reptilien (Topologie ohne Astlängen, Figure 9.4) Verwendung.

Allometrische Zwänge bei Reptilien. Im ersten Teil des Projekts habe ich zunächst Allometrien für neun *Life history*-Merkmale (Alter und Größe bei Geschlechtsreife, Geburtsgröße und Geburtsgewicht, Gelegegröße und Gelege pro Jahr, Eigewicht, Inkubations- bzw. Tragezeit, maximale Lebensdauer) der Reptilien und der einzelnen Reptilienordnungen erstellt, was sowohl mit als auch ohne Berücksichtigung der Phylogenie erfolgte.

Innerhalb der Squamaten zeigten sich keine Unterschiede bei der Skalierung von *Life history*-Merkmalen zwischen Eidechsen und Schlangen. Dieses Ergebnis für die Squamaten findet sich schon in ähnlicher Weise in einer Arbeit von Stearns (1984). Der Autor konstatierte, dass sich nach Entfernung des Effekts der Körpergröße *Life history*-Strategien von Eidechsen und Schlangen nicht mehr unterscheiden (Stearns 1984). Er wies außerdem auf einen signifikanten Einfluss der Phylogenie auf Muster der Kovariation in *Life history*-Merkmalen hin, welchen er aber, im Gegensatz zu meiner Studie, nicht näher untersucht hat. Weiterführende Arbeiten zu den Squamaten verwendeten jedoch phylogenetische Methoden zur Erzeugung von Allometrien von *Life history*-Merkmalen (z.B. Harvey & Pagel, 1991; Promislow *et al.*, 1992). Eine Studie über den trade-off zwischen Nachkommensgröße und Gelegegröße sowie über Allometrien zur Reproduktion von Eidechsen legt nahe, dass phylogenetische Regressionsmodelle signifikant besser geeignet sind als nichtphylogenetische Modelle zur Beschreibung der Zusammenhänge (Warne und Charnov 2008). Dass die Berücksichtigung von Phylogenie notwendig sein kann, wird auch zum Teil durch meine Ergebnisse für die Squamaten bekräftigt, welche deutliche Unterschiede in den Regressionskoeffizienten zwischen phylogenetischen und nicht-phylogenetischen Modellen bei einigen Life history-Merkmalen zeigten (siehe Appendix, Table 9.9). Im Generellen waren dabei größenbezogene Merkmale wie die Geburtsgröße, das Eigewicht oder die Größe bei der Geschlechtsreife am stärksten durch die Körpermasse beeinflusst. Zeitbezogene Merkmale wie das Alter bei der Geschlechtsreife, die Inkubationszeit oder die maximale Lebensdauer zeigten hingegen einen deutlich geringeren Einfluss der Körpermasse. Die Bedeutung der Körpermasse für die Geburts- und Gelegegröße lässt sich als moderat beschreiben. Die Anzahl der Gelege pro Jahr war bei den Squamaten sogar unabhängig von der Körpermasse. Die ähnliche Skalierung der Gelegegröße und dem Alter bei Geschlechtsreife von Eidechsen und Schlangen, welche meine Ergebnisse zeigten, widerspricht somit Stearns (1984) und Dunham und Miles (1985). Es muss allerdings daraufhin gewiesen werden, dass diese Autoren nicht-phylogenetische Methoden verwendet haben, was den Unterschied erklären könnte.

Die Analysen und Ergebnisse für die Krokodile waren auf sechs der neun Life history-Merkmale beschränkt, da nicht genügend Informationen für die Merkmale Geburtsgröße, Geburtsgewicht und Anzahl der Gelege pro Jahr vorhanden waren. Meines Wissens nach fehlen Studien zur Skalierung von Life history-Merkmalen von Krokodilen gänzlich in der Literatur mit Ausnahme der Arbeit von Thorbjarnarson (1996). Dieser Autor hat allometrische Beziehungen von Reproduktionsmerkmalen von 22 Krokodilarten untersucht, dafür aber nicht-phylogenetische Analysen verwandt. Seiner Meinung nach stelle dies aber kein Problem dar, da für eine solch kleine Anzahl an Krokodilarten eine phylogenetische Kontrolle generell unnötig sei. Nichtsdestotrotz bemerkte auch er, dass es eine Kovarianz zwischen den unabhängigen Variablen bei den Analysen seines Datensatzes gab. Thorbjarnarson (1996) beobachtete signifikant positive Beziehungen zwischen adulter weiblicher Körpergröße und Eimasse, Gelegegröße sowie Gelegemasse. Wie zu erwarten konnte ich diese Allometrien bei Verzicht auf eine phylogenetische Korrektur replizieren, allerdings zeigten sich stärkere Zusammenhänge mit der Körpermasse für zwei dieser Merkmale (Gelegegröße, Eigewicht) bei den phylogenetischen

Analysen. Das Alter und die Größe bei der Geschlechtsreife zeigten in Übereinstimmung mit dessen Studie einen positiven allometrischen Zusammenhang, wobei die Steigung für das Alter bei weiblicher Geschlechtsreife sich nicht signifikant von null unterschied (p = 0.110). Im Gegensatz zu Thorbjarnarson (1996) fand ich keinen Zusammenhang zwischen der Inkubationszeit als auch der maximalen Lebensdauer und der Körpermasse. Da kleinere Tiere generell einem höheren Prädationsrisiko ausgesetzt sind (Owen-Smith 1988), war dieses Ergebnis durchaus überraschend. Vollständig ausgewachsene Krokodile sind nahezu sicher vor jeder Art von Prädation und nur territoriale Kämpfe mit anderen Krokodilen haben einen Einfluss auf die Mortalität eines Krokodils (Pooley und Ross 2002). Dies könnte auch den mangelnden Einfluss der Körpermasse auf die maximale Lebenserwartung bei Krokodilen erklären. Dem steht allerdings entgegen, dass während des ersten Jahres im Leben eines neugeborenen Krokodils die Mortalitätsrate von bis zu 90% vor allem durch Prädation bedingt ist (Pooley und Ross 2002). Die Mortalität ist somit über das gesamte Körpermassenspektrum der Krokodile hinweg mehr oder weniger unabhängig von der Geburtsgröße. Eine Zunahme der Geburtsgröße würde größere Eier nach sich ziehen und eine erhöhte Inkubationszeit bedeuten.

Bei den Schildkröten zeigten sich keine klaren allometrischen Muster. Die Gelegegröße, die Geburtsgröße, das Geburtsgewicht und die Größe bei der Geschlechtsreife skalierten mit adulter Körpermasse, wobei die Steigung der Allometrie vom Eigewicht nicht signifikant (p = 0,082) war. Keinen Zusammenhang mit der Körpermasse zeigten die vier Merkmale Anzahl der Gelege pro Jahr, Alter bei der Geschlechtsreife, Inkubationszeit und maximale Lebensdauer. In der Literatur sind bereits viele Studien zur allometrischen Skalierung von Life history-Merkmalen von Schildkröten bekannt (z.B. Congdon & Gibbons, 1985; Elgar & Heaphy, 1989; Iverson, 1992; Iverson et al., 1993), aber die meisten dieser Studien weisen die gleichen Limitierungen auf, wie sie auch die Studien der Krokodile besitzen. Informationen zu Life history-Merkmalen und Körpergröße (bei Schildkröten gewöhnlich die Carapax-Länge) sind nur für einige wenige Arten verfügbar (siehe Congdon & Gibbons, 1985; Elgar & Heaphy, 1989; Iverson, 1992, n = 12-35, siehe dazu auch Wilbur & Morin, 1988; Iverson et al., 1993), nur wenige Merkmale (meistens Gelegegröße, Gelegemasse und Eigröße) wurden untersucht, und außerdem ignorieren die meisten Studien die phylogenetischen Beziehungen von Arten. Nichtsdestotrotz zeigten alle bisherigen Studien einen signifikant positiven Zusammenhang zwischen Körpergröße und den von mir untersuchten Merkmalen. Während meine Resultate für die Gelegegröße mit den bisherigen Studien übereinstimmten, zeigten sich für alle anderen Merkmale Unterschiede. Diese Unterschiede könnten durch unterschiedliche Stichproben von Schildkrötenarten und der Verwendung von nicht-phylogenetischen Methoden verursacht worden sein. Für das Alter bei Geschlechtsreife fand Iverson (1992) ohne phylogenetische Kontrolle einen signifikanten positiven Zusammenhang mit der Körpermasse. Meine Ergebnisse zeigten jedoch eine Unabhängigkeit des Alters bei der Geschlechtsreife von der Körpermasse. Es zeigte sich zudem eine große Variabilität des Alters bei der Geschlechtsreife in den untersuchten Arten, welche mit der Variabilität der Umwelt verknüpft sein könnte. Nicht nur die Life history-Strategien von Schildkröten sind dabei invers mit der Körpergröße korreliert, sondern auch ihre Verbreitung hinsichtlich der geographischen Breite (Wilbur und Morin 1988; Iverson 1992). Überraschenderweise wurden Beziehungen von Geburtsgewicht und Geburtsgröße, Inkubationszeit und maximaler Lebenserwartung mit der Körpermasse bei Schildkröten bisher noch nicht untersucht. Die geringen Steigungen und ihre mangelnde Signifikanz bei den Allometrien einiger Merkmale in meiner Studie könnten auf die Existenz von Invarianzen hinweisen (für einen Überblick, siehe Charnov, 1993). Ein Vergleich der Allometrien von Life history-Merkmalen zwischen den einzelnen Reptilienordnungen (Krokodile, Schildkröten und Squamaten) war wegen unzureichenden Stichprobengrößen nur für sechs Merkmale möglich. Dabei zeigten sich trotz kleinerer Abweichungen bei den Regressionskoeffizienten vergleichbare allometrische Zusammenhänge der Life history-Merkmale. Aus diesem Grund erschien mir eine weitere getrennte Analyse einzelner Reptilienordnung unnötig zu sein und es empfahl sich eine gemeinsame Analyse aller Reptilien. Zudem gab es auch keine qualitativen Unterschiede bei den Allometrien nach Berücksichtigung der Phylogenie. Phylogenetische Zwänge scheinen somit eine geringere Bedeutung für die Life history-Merkmale der Reptilien zu haben.

Allometrische Zwänge im Vergleich zwischen Reptilien, Säugetieren und Vögeln. Im zweiten Teil dieses Projekts wurden die von mir erstellten Allometrien der Reptilien mit bereits veröffentlichten Modellen der Säugetiere und Vögel aus der Literatur verglichen, um Unterschiede in der Skalierung von *Life history*-Merkmalen innerhalb der verschiedenen Gruppen der Amnioten zu untersuchen. Im Vergleich mit Vögeln und Säugetieren zeigten meine Allometrien der Reptilien Ähnlichkeiten bei zeitbezogenen Merkmalen (Alter bei Geschlechtsreife, maximale Lebenserwartung) und Unterschiede für Reproduktionsmerkmale (Gelegegröße, Inkubationszeit). Reptilien als auch Säugetiere und Vögel zeigen einen positiven Sowohl allometrischen Zusammenhang für das Alter bei der Geschlechtsreife, obwohl sich die Steigungen unterscheiden. Eine Studie von Shine und Charnov (1992) für Eidechsen und Schlangen bestätigt die Ergebnisse für die Reptilien. Die Autoren fanden heraus, dass sich die momentane Mortalitätsrate umgekehrt proportional zum Alter bei der Geschlechtsreife verhält. Angenommen größere Reptilienarten sind älter bei der Geschlechtsreife als kleinere Arten, dann sollten größere Arten eine geringere Mortalitätsrate aufweisen als kleiner Arten. Für die maximale Lebensdauer sind die Steigungen von Reptilien und Säugetieren gleich, wobei sich die intercepts (y-Achsenabschnitt) deutlich unterscheiden. Dies impliziert, dass Säugetiere im Generellen eine höhere Lebenserwartung besitzen als ähnlich große Reptilien. Dieses Resultat wird durch Analysen eines Säugetierdatensatzes von Clauss und Kollegen (2014) unterstützt, wobei ein anderer von diesen Autoren untersuchter Datensatz eine höhere Steigung als Ergebnis lieferte. Meine Ergebnisse wurden hingegen von Western und Ssemakula (1982) bestätigt. Sie fanden heraus, dass Vögel tatsächlich eine längere Lebensdauer als gleichgroße Säugetiere und diese wiederum eine längere Lebensdauer als gleichgroße Reptilien besitzen. Allometrien für die Merkmale Gelegegröße und Inkubations- bzw. Tragezeit zeigten deutliche Unterschiede zwischen Reptilien, Vögeln und Säugetieren. Während ich einen positiven Zusammenhang zwischen der Gelegegröße und der Körpermasse für die Reptilien finden konnte, beobachteten Werner und Griebeler (2011) keinen signifikanten Einfluss der Körpermasse auf nestflüchtende, flugunfähige Vögel und nur eine leicht negative Skalierung für die Säugetiere. Bei Reptilien war die Inkubationszeit unabhängig von der Körpermasse. Vögel und Säugetiere zeigen hingegen eine positive Skalierung der Inkubations- bzw. Tragzeit mit der Körpermasse. Es muss jedoch angemerkt werden, dass das verwendete Vogelmodell von Rahn und Kollegen (1975) wegen fehlender phylogenetischer Kontrolle für einen Vergleich nur eingeschränkt geeignet ist. Die unterschiedlichen Skalierungen für die Größe bei der Geschlechtsreife zwischen Reptilien, Vögeln und Säugetieren reflektieren verschiedene Wachstumsstrategien. Vögel und Säugetiere zeigen ein begrenztes Wachstum und erreichen ihre Geschlechtsreife, wenn sie mehr oder weniger ausgewachsen sind (mit Ausnahme der größten Säugetiere, z. B.

den Elefanten, Owen-Smith, 1988). Sie haben deshalb eine isometrische Beziehung zwischen der Größe bei der Geschlechtsreife und der Körpermasse. Im Gegensatz dazu besitzen Reptilien ein unbegrenztes Wachstum und zeigen einen deutlichen Zuwachs auch nach Erreichen der Geschlechtsreife (Reiss 1989; Ritz et al. 2010). Sie zeigen deshalb eine schwächere, positive nicht-isometrische Beziehung. Der positive Zusammenhang zwischen Eigewicht und Körpermasse ist schwächer in Reptilien als in Vögeln. Interessanterweise liegt das Eigewicht des Monotrematen (eierlegende Säugetiere) Echidna bzw. Ameisenigel (Familie *Tachyglossidae*) außerhalb des Konfidenzintervalls des Reptilienmodells und ist auch deutlich kleiner als das eines Vogels mit ähnlicher Größe (Figure 4.3). Angenommen der Ameisenigel ist repräsentativ für die Monotrematen, dann würde das bedeuten, dass die Beziehung zwischen Eigewicht und Körpermasse signifikant schwächer in Monotrematen ist, und damit in eierlegenden Säugetieren, als in Reptilien und Vögeln.

Die Unterschiede in den Allometrien zwischen Reptilien und Säugetieren zeigten sich auch im Hinblick auf die weitverbreitete Theorie des "fast-slow"-Kontinuums. Stearns (1983) hat dabei eine einzelne Achse auf der Grundlage der Körpergröße vorgeschlagen nach der sich Life history-Strategien von Säugetieren anordnen lassen. Kleine Säugetiere besitzen demnach eine frühe Geschlechtsreife und weisen große Würfe auf, große Arten eine späte Geschlechtsreife und kleine Würfe. Für die Reptilien, genauer Eidechsen und Schlangen, postulierte Stearns (1984) ein Kontinuum bei dem an einem Ende kleine, frühgeschlechtsreife Arten mit kleinen, aber häufigen Gelegen zu finden sind ("fast") und am anderen Ende große, spätgeschlechtsreife Arten mit großen, aber seltenen Gelegen ("slow"). Seine Resultate wurden durch Promislow und Kollegen (1992) für die Eidechsen bestätigt. Diese Autoren beobachteten eine Abnahme allometrischer Steigungen von Life history-Merkmalen mit steigender taxonomischer Ebene und eine geringere Signifikanz der Zusammenhänge auf höheren taxonomischen Ebenen. Unterschiede in den Steigungen zwischen Reptilienordnungen sollten somit vernachlässigbar sein. Wie schon von Promislow und Kollegen (1992) vorhergesagt, konnte ich keine Unterschiede in den Steigungen zwischen den Reptilienordnungen feststellen. Auch zeigen meine Ergebnisse die entgegengesetzten Assoziationen für die Life history-Merkmale der Reptilien im Vergleich zu den Säugetieren (Stearns 1983): Kleine Reptilien haben eine frühe Geschlechtsreife, die bei kleineren Körpergrößen erreicht wird. Sie haben kleinere Gelege mit kürzerer Inkubationszeit und weisen kleinere Geburtsgrößen und außerdem eine kürzere Lebensdauer auf. Größere Arten zeigen entgegengesetzte Charakteristika. Meine Ergebnisse stellen somit die Hypothese in Frage, dass die *Life history*-Strategien der Reptilien dem Schema des "fast-slow"-Kontinuums der Säugetiere (Stearns 1983) entsprechen.

Phylogenetische Position der Brückenechsen. Im dritten Teil dieses Projekts sollte die phylogenetische Position der Ordnung Rhynchocephalia (Brückenechsen) bzw. der Tuatara (*Sphenodon punctatus*) innerhalb der Reptilien mit Hilfe der zuvor erstellten Allometrien der *Life history*-Merkmale untersucht werden.

Paläontologische Studien haben gezeigt, dass die Rhynchocephalier eine weitverbreitete und gattungsreiche Gruppe im Mesozoikum (vor 252 – 66 Millionen Jahren) waren (Jones et al. 2013). Heute bestehen die Rhynchocephalier nur noch aus einer Gattung mit einer einzelnen Art, dem Tuatara (S. punctatus). Die Tuatara findet man auf einigen geografisch isolierten Inseln vor der Küste Neuseelands (Hav et al. 2010). Diese Art wird als phylogenetisches Relikt (Hugall et al. 2007) oder als lebendes Fossil mit Charakteristika früherer Reptilien angesehen. Von diesen Ausprägungen sind vor allem die Morphologie und Physiologie, aber auch ihre Life history-Strategie betroffen. Die Tuatara haben eine lange Inkubationszeit, das höchste Alter bei der Geschlechtsreife aller bekannten, lebenden Reptilien und eine hohe Lebensdauer (Deckert et al. 1991). Meine Ergebnisse zu den Life history-Merkmalen der Tuatara bestätigen diese bereits bekannten Erkenntnisse. Die Inkubationszeit, das Alter bei der weiblichen Geschlechtsreife und die maximale Lebensdauer unterschieden sich deutlich von den jeweiligen Werten, welche von meinen allometrischen Modellen für ein gleichgroßes Reptil vorhergesagt wurden (Figure 4.3). Im Gegensatz dazu stimmten die vorhergesagten Werte für die Gelegegröße, das Eigewicht und die Größe bei der Geschlechtsreife eines gleichgroßen Reptils mit Beobachtungen von Feldstudien über die Tuatara überein. Die meisten molekularen Studien sehen die Tuatara, und somit auch die Rhynchocephalier, als Schwestergruppe der Squamaten (Cree 2014). Eine Studie zur Struktur der Spermatozoa (= Spermien) schlägt jedoch eine eher basalere Position innerhalb der Amnioten vor (Jamieson 2014). Meine Ergebnisse zeigten eine bessere Übereinstimmung der Life history der Tuatara mit gleichgroßen Schildkröten oder Krokodilen als mit gleichgroßen Squamaten bei sechs von acht Merkmalen. Die Ergebnisse stimmen mit der zweiten Hypothese überein und unterstützen somit, dass

die Tuatara bzw. die Rhynchocephalier näher mit Krokodilen und Schildkröten als mit Squamaten verwandt sind. Die größere Übereinstimmung der Inkubationszeit der Tuatara mit den Schildkröten im Vergleich zum allgemeinen Reptilienmodell war nicht unerwartet, da der bei Tuataras zu findende geringe Entwicklungsstand des Embryos nach Eiablage mehr der Situation in Schildkröten entspricht (Cree 2014). Bei der Bewertung meiner auf Life history-Merkmalen beruhenden Ergebnisse muss beachtet werden, dass auf der einen Seite eine Life history-Strategie das Resultat der Interaktion einer großen Menge an Genen ist, wohingegen die bisherigen molekularen Studien meistens nur kurze DNA-Sequenzen untersucht haben (Hugall et al. 2007; Crawford et al. 2012; Pyron et al. 2013). Auf der anderen Seite ist es iedoch fragwürdig. ob die Tuatara tatsächlich geeignete Vertreter der Rhynchocephalier darstellen. Die Tuatara leben karnivor und terrestrisch (Cree 2014). Diese Lebensweise muss aber nicht typisch für alle im Mesozoikum vorgekommenen Rhynchocephalier gewesen sein (Reynoso und Clark 1998; Reynoso 2000), da andere Squamatenarten, wie z.B. Geckos, die auf den gleichen Inseln und in den gleichen Habitaten leben wie die Tuatara, eine ähnliche Lebensweise pflegen (Deckert et al. 1991).

Zusammenfassend lässt sich daher feststellen, dass meine Analysen der *Life history*-Merkmale der Tuatara auf eine basalere Position innerhalb der Reptilien hinweisen, aber ob dies nun an dem außergewöhnlichem Lebensstil dieser Tiere liegt, und ob dies auch für alle Rhynchocephalier zutrifft, bleibt unklar (Cree 2014).

6.3 Invarianzen in *Life history*-Merkmalen von semi-aquatischen Amphibien und terrestrischen Reptilien

Voruntersuchungen (nicht veröffentlicht) mit einer geringeren Anzahl an Amphibienarten deuteten auf einen mangelnden Zusammenhang zwischen *Life history*-Merkmalen der Amphibien und deren Körpermasse hin. Auch einige *Life history*-Merkmale der Reptilien waren, wie bereits gezeigt, von der Körpermasse unbeeinflusst (siehe vorhergehendes Kapitel 6.2.).

In meinem dritten Projekt (Kapitel 5) habe ich mich deshalb mit Life history-Merkmalen von allen 86 europäischen Amphibienarten (Frost et al. 2006; Temple und Cox 2009; Trochet et al. 2014) und den bereits untersuchten 369 Reptilienarten (siehe Kapitel 4) beschäftigt, welche nicht durch die Körpermasse beeinflusst werden und somit invariant sind. Jedes Merkmal wurde auf mehrere Kriterien für Invarianz hin überprüft, welche von Price und Kollegen (2014) formuliert und von mir modifiziert wurden. Indirekt wurde dabei auch zum ersten Mal der Einfluss von allometrischen Zwängen auf Life history-Merkmale von Amphibien untersucht. Abschließend ging ich der Hypothese von Charnov (1993) nach, dass phylogenetische Zwänge für die Betrachtung von Life history-Invarianten generell keine Bedeutung haben. Dazu erstellte ich phylogenetische Regressionsmodelle unter Berücksichtigung eines kürzlich veröffentlichten phylogenetischen Baumes der Amphibien (Alexander Pyron und Wiens 2011). In diesem Zusammenhang erfolgte zum ersten Mal überhaupt eine größere, interspezifische Untersuchung der allometrischen Zusammenhänge von neun Life history-Merkmalen von Amphibien und der Amphibientaxa Frösche (Anura) und Salamander (Caudata).

Die zu Grunde gelegten fünf Kriterien (siehe Kapitel 5) legten nahe, dass die meisten *Life history*-Merkmale der Amphibien invariant gegenüber Veränderungen in der adulten Körpermasse sind, wohingegen *Life history*-Merkmale der Reptilien deutlich weniger Invarianz zeigen. Vier Amphibien-Merkmale erfüllten alle Kriterien für Invarianz, wie sie von Price et al. (2014) vorgeschlagen wurden. Diese schlossen größenbezogene Merkmale (Größe bei Metamorphose, Größe bei Geschlechtsreife) als auch zeitbezogenen Merkmale ein (Larvaldauer, maximale Lebensdauer). Interessanterweise decken diese vier Merkmale verschiedene Phasen des Lebenszyklus von Amphibien ab. Die Invarianz der Größe bei der Metamorphose resultiert aus Veränderungen während der Metamorphose, welche am stärksten in Anuren und schwächer bei Caudaten ausgeprägt sind und zu morphologisch und ökologisch sehr unterschiedlichen Adulten führen (Dodd und Dodd 1976). Dass Life history-Merkmale, welche mit dem Larvenstadium verknüpft sind, unabhängig von adulter Körpermasse sein können, ist offensichtlich (Duellman und Trueb 1994), aber dass die maximale Lebensdauer und die Größe bei der Geschlechtsreife invariant sind ist überraschend, da diese in anderen Vertebraten (= Wirbeltiere) im Generellen mit der Körpermasse korreliert sind (Peters 1983). Gelegegröße zeigt das schwächste Signal der Invarianz in Bezug zu den fünf verwendeten Kriterien. Dies ist in Übereinstimmung mit bereits bekannten allometrischen Beziehungen zwischen Gelegegröße und Körpermasse (Duellman and Trueb 1994), welche auch von den phylogenetischen Analysen bestätigt werden (Table 5.3). Obwohl die Ordnungen Anura und Caudata meistens die gleichen Invarianzen zeigten, könnten deren Betrachtung nähere Einsichten in die Ursachen der Invarianz von Life history-Merkmalen der Amphibien ermöglichen. Die meisten Amphibien in meinem Datensatz gehörten den Anuren an (50 von 86) und sie zeigten mehr invariante Merkmale als die Caudaten (Table 5.1). Dies könnte widerspiegeln, dass Anuren häufiger den anzestralen, biphasischen Lebenszyklus aufweisen, welcher eine komplexe Metamorphose einer aquatischen Larve zu einem terrestrischen Juvenilen bedeutet. Zusätzlich zeigen Anuren fast gänzlich eine externe Befruchtung, wohingegen einige Salamander eine interne Befruchtung zeigen, welche eine Vorstufe zur direkten Entwicklung von terrestrischen Eiern darstellte (Duellman und Trueb 1994). Diese Tendenz zur Terrestrialität bei Caudaten sieht man auch bei der maximalen Lebensdauer (s = 0,40; p < 0,01), was konsistent ist mit der generell höheren Lebenserwartung von Salamandern verglichen mit Anuren (Duellman und Trueb 1994).

Im Gegensatz zu meiner Erwartung, dass Umweltfaktoren Einfluss auf die Existenz von invarianten *Life history*-Merkmalen bei Amphibien nehmen (Morrison und Hero 2003), hatten weder Habitattypen noch die maximale Höhenverbreitung einer Art einen Einfluss auf die Muster der Invarianz in den *Life history*-Merkmalen (Table 5.4, für Einfluss der maximalen Höhenverbreitung siehe Appendix, Table 9.14). Vielleicht haben die verwendeten Habitattypen (Trochet et al. 2014) nicht ausreichend genug die Mikrohabitatnutzung der Amphibien berücksichtigt (Seebacher und Alford 1999; Searcy et al. 2013; Warguez et al. 2013). Obwohl intraspezifische Muster einen Effekt der maximalen Höhenverbreitung von Arten auf einige bereits untersuchte *Life*

history-Merkmale unterstützen (zusammengefasst in Morrison und Hero, 2003), liefert der Mangel eines interspezifischen Effekts einen weiteren Beweise für inkonsistente Ergebnisse bezüglich der geographischen Variationen von *Life history*-Ausprägungen von Amphibien. Ob Arten Brutpflege betreiben oder nicht hatte keinen Effekt auf die Invarianz von *Life history*-Merkmalen (Table 5.4). Vielleicht hat die dichotome Unterscheidung des Merkmals die real existierende Variabilität von Ausprägungen der Brutpflege zu stark vereinfacht (Duellman und Trueb 1994).



Abbildung 6.1 Allometrische Zusammenhänge (phylogenetisch kontrolliert) von vier Life history-Merkmalen der untersuchten 86 Amphibienarten. Gezeigt sind nur Allometrien von Life history-Merkmalen, deren Steigungen sich signifikant von null unterschieden. Bei fünf weiteren Merkmalen (Alter und Größe bei Geschlechtsreife, Eimasse, Inkubationszeit, Larvaldauer) haben sich die Steigungen nicht signifikant von null unterschieden und sie zeigten somit keine allometrischen Zusammenhänge. Beim Geburtsgewicht liegt die Regressionsgerade des linearen (Im) Modells auf der PGLS-Geraden. Die graue Fläche markiert die 95% Konfidenzbänder der phylogenetisch korrigierten Regressionsmodelle der Amphibien. Die durchgezogene Linie beschreibt den allometrischen

Zusammenhang basierend auf einem phylogenetischen Regressionsmodell (PGLS), während die gepunkteten Linien auf Modellen ohne Berücksichtigung der Phylogenie basieren (gepunktete Linie mit größeren Punkten = einfaches lineares Modell, gepunktete Linie mit kleineren Punkten = medianbasiertes lineares Modell, wenn Residuen nicht normalverteilt waren, siehe Kapitel 5); Kreise = Froscharten (Anura), Dreiecke = Salamanderarten (Caudata).

Das geringere Auftreten von Invarianzen in *Life history*-Merkmalen von Reptilien stimmt mit meiner anfänglichen Hypothese überein, dass diese Merkmale mit der Körpermasse verbunden sind, was eine Konsequenz ihres terrestrischen Lebensstils sein könnte (Collar et al. 2011). Es gab kein Merkmal bei den Reptilien, das alle Invarianzkriterien erfüllt hat. Das Merkmal "Anzahl der Gelege pro Jahr" erfüllt immerhin mehr als eines der fünf Kriterien (Table 5.2 + Table 5.3).

Während eine variable Gelegegröße den anzestralen Zustand für die Reptilien darstellt und dessen Invarianz nur von Geckos bekannt ist (Kratochvíl und Kubička 2007b), ist eine Invarianz bei der Gelegehäufigkeit im Generellen unbekannt und resultiert wahrscheinlich aus dem statistischen Effekt einer Regression eines diskreten Merkmals (z.B. Anzahl der Gelege pro Jahr) mit kleiner Variabilität gegen ein stetiges Merkmal (z.B. Körpermasse) mit großer Variabilität.

Insgesamt lässt sich sagen, dass meine Ergebnisse zu potentiell invarianten Life *history*-Merkmalen von Reptilien mit vielen Studien übereinstimmen, die allometrische Beziehungen von biologischen Merkmalen einschließlich Life history-Merkmalen bei diesem Taxon gezeigt haben (siehe Fitch, 1970; Peters, 1983; Schmidt-Nielsen, 1984; Dunham und Miles, 1985; Scharf et al., 2014; Hallmann und Griebeler, 2015). Ein Einfluss von phylogenetischen Zwängen auf Life history-Invarianten zeigte sich in größerem Maße weder bei den Amphibien noch bei den Reptilien, was die Hypothese von Charnov (1993) bestätigt. Während sich allometrische Zusammenhänge nach phylogenetischer Korrektur nur bei vier der neun untersuchten Life history-Merkmale der Amphibien zeigten und sich zudem das lineare und median-basierte lineare Modell für das Merkmal Geburtsgewicht kaum vom phylogenetisch korrigierten Modell (PGLS) unterschied (Abbildung 6.1), hatten phylogenetische Zwänge bekanntlich keinen Effekt auf allometrische Zusammenhänge von Life history-Merkmalen der Reptilien (siehe vorherigen Abschnitt 6.2, Appendix Table 9.4). Charnov (1993) führte ein solches Ergebnis vor allem auf die Ähnlichkeit von Arten auf der Grundlage von ähnlichen trade-offs zurück. Da Körpermassen von Arten phylogenetisch eng verwandt sind, scheint die

Berücksichtigung von Phylogenie bei der Frage nach der Invarianz von *Life history*-Merkmalen keine Rolle zu spielen. Ich will an dieser Stelle noch mal besonders darauf hinweisen, dass nach meiner Kenntnis bisher noch keine Allometrien für *Life history*-Merkmale von Amphibien oder Amphibiengruppen (Anura, Caudata) existierten und meine Ergebnisse somit die ersten Einsichten in die allometrische Skalierung von *Life history*-Merkmalen der Amphibien (hier: alle 86 Europäischen Amphibienarten) darstellen (Table 5.3).

Zusammenfassend bleibt festzuhalten, dass ich in meiner Studie einige *Life history*-Invarianten für die Amphibien aber keine für die Reptilien identifizieren konnte. Dies bestätigt meine anfängliche Hypothese, dass semi-aquatische Amphibien im Generellen mehr invariante *Life history*-Merkmale besitzen als terrestrische Reptilien, deren *Life history*-Merkmale in großem Maße durch ihre Körpermasse bestimmt werden. Bei den Amphibien weißen sowohl die Larvalstadien als auch die Adultstadien Merkmale auf, welche invariant gegenüber der Körpermasse sind und nicht durch maximale Höhenverbreitung, Habitattypen oder der Präsenz oder Absenz von Brutpflege erklärt werden können. Ich vermute vielmehr, dass die Invarianz bei *Life history*-Merkmalen von Amphibien eine direkte Konsequenz ihres komplexen, biphasischen Lebenszyklus und ihrer Mikrohabitatnutzung in einer semi-aquatischen Umwelt darstellt und damit ein Resultat ökologischer Zwänge ist.

Abschließend will ich noch auf die von Price und Kollegen (2014) eingeführten Kriterien für Invarianz und ihrer Nützlichkeit beim Auffinden von *Life history*-Invarianten eingehen (für eine längere Diskussion siehe Kapitel 5).

Generell konnte ich zeigen, dass die von Price und Kollegen (2014) neu eingeführten fünf Kriterien für die Identifikation von *Life history*-Invarianten sowohl bei Amphibien als auch Reptilien geeignet waren. Nicht alle Kriterien hatten dabei allerdings den gleichen Erklärungswert. Das Kriterium des Aufweisens einer modalen Varianz bzw. einer Häufigkeitsverteilung, die einer Normalverteilung entspricht, führte dazu, dass, im Gegensatz zu den Ergebnisse aller anderen Kriterien, *Life history*-Merkmale der Reptilien eine unimodale Verteilung zeigten und somit als invariant anzusehen wären. Auch einige statistische Methoden mussten für die untersuchten Taxa zuerst angepasst werden, um falsche Schlussfolgerungen und Vergleiche zwischen den Taxa zu vermeiden. Es hatte sich nämlich gezeigt, dass bei den Amphibien und Reptilien eine Transformation und Normalisierung der *Life history*-Daten und Körpermassedaten nötig war, bevor man deren Varianzverhältnisse vergleichen konnte, da beide Gruppen doch sehr unterschiedliche Körpermassenspektren aufwiesen.

7 Schlussfolgerung und Ausblick

Die *Life history* beschreibt das lebenslange Muster von Wachstum, Reproduktion und Überleben eines Organismus, wobei die möglichen Variationen einer *Life history* durch verschiedene Zwänge begrenzt werden.

Meine Arbeit beschäftigte sich vor allem mit dem Einfluss von allometrischen, phylogenetischen und physiologischen Zwängen auf *Life history*-Merkmale von Reptilien (Crocodylia, Rhynchocephalia, Squamata, Testudines) und Amphibien (Anura, Caudata) und zeigte zwei Hauptergebnisse: Erstens, es sind meistens nicht einzelne Zwänge sondern eine Kombination von Zwängen, welche auf *Life history*-Merkmale wirken und darüber hinaus sind sie oft miteinander korreliert. Zweitens, von den untersuchten Zwängen hatten einige Zwänge eine größere Bedeutung als andere hinsichtlich ihres Einflusses auf *Life history*-Merkmale der unterschiedlichen Taxa.

Der Einfluss der Körpermasse und somit allometrischer Zwänge war bei Reptilien am größten. Dies zeigte der Zusammenhang zwischen Eischaltypen, Life history-Merkmalen und Adultgewichten bei den von mir untersuchten Squamaten. Entgegen früherer Ergebnisse für die Geckos (Pike et al. 2012) konnte ich zeigen, dass nicht physiologische Zwänge in Form der Eischale die Life history-Strategien von Squamaten beeinflussen sondern die unterschiedlichen Eischaltvpen mit spezifischen Ausprägungen der Körpermasse assoziiert sind, welche wiederum phylogenetisch verwandt sind. Ein Einfluss phylogenetischer Zwänge zeigte sich sowohl beim starken phylogenetischen Signal der Eischaltypen der Squamaten als auch bei vielen Life history-Merkmalen (Geburtsgröße, Gelegegröße, Gelege pro Jahr, Alter bei der Geschlechtsreife), welche ein solches phylogenetisches Signal zeigten. Nichtsdestotrotz besitzen phylogenetisch verwandte Squamatenarten auch ähnliche Adultgewichte. Hierbei zeigt sich die enge Verbindung von allometrischen und phylogenetischen Zwängen bei den Squamaten.

Auch zeigten sich allometrische Zusammenhänge der *Life history*-Merkmale bei den erstellten Regressionsmodellen der Reptilien, welche sich auch nach Berücksichtigung der Phylogenie nicht veränderten. Es gab keine größeren Unterschiede bei den Allometrien zwischen den einzelnen Reptilienordnungen. Unterschiede zeigten sich jedoch zwischen höheren taxonomischen Gruppen. Der Vergleich von Allometrien der Reptilien mit denen von Vögeln (Aves) und Säugetieren (Mammalia) zeigte zwar Ähnlichkeiten bei zeitbezogenen Merkmalen (Alter bei der Geschlechtsreife, max. Lebensdauer), aber auch deutliche Unterschiede vor allem bei Reproduktionsmerkmalen (Gelegegröße, Inkubationsbzw. Tragezeit). Diese entgegengesetzten Assoziationen der *Life history*-Merkmale der Reptilien im Vergleich zu den Säugetieren stellen die Hypothese in Frage, dass die *Life history*-Strategien der Reptilien dem Schema des "fast-slow"-Kontinuums der Säugetiere (Stearns 1983) entsprechen.

Auf der Grundlage der Allometrien konnte ich einen Vergleich zwischen Life history-Strategien der Brückenechse, Sphenodon punctatus, und gleichgroßen Vertretern der verschiedenen Reptilienordnungen durchführen, um die phylogenetische Position der Brückenechsen innerhalb der Reptilien zu untersuchen. Meine Ergebnisse zeigten überraschenderweise, dass die Life history von S. punctatus eher der einer gleichgroßen Schildkröte oder eines gleichgroßen Krokodils entspricht als der Life history eines gleichgroßen Squamaten, was im Gegensatz zu den meisten bisherigen Studien steht und auf eine basalere Position von S. punctatus, und damit der Brückenechsen, innerhalb der Reptilien hinweist.

Da die generelle Bedeutung der Körpermasse für die Evolution von Life history-Strategien bereits für viele taxonomische Gruppen innerhalb der Tetrapoden (z.B. für Vögel und Säugetiere) gezeigt und von meinen Ergebnissen bestätigt werden konnte, habe ich zusätzlich nach Life history-Merkmalen gesucht, welche unabhängig von der Körpermasse sind, und somit Life history-Invarianten darstellen. Hier hat sich vor allem der Vergleich der semi-aquatischen Amphibien und terrestrischen Reptilien angeboten. Es hatte sich bereits in Voranalysen mit wenigen Amphibienarten gezeigt, dass der Einfluss der Körpermasse auf Life history-Merkmale von Amphibien eher gering ist. Dieses Ergebnis konnte mit Hilfe der Life history-Invarianten bestätigt werden, denn viele Life history-Merkmale der Amphibien erfüllten alle oder große Teile der von Price und Kollegen (2014) eingeführten Kriterien für Invarianz. Diese Invarianz konnte auch nicht durch die Höhenverbreitung, das Nutzen spezifischer Habitattypen oder der Präsenz oder Absenz von Brutpflege erklärt werden.

Bei den Reptilien zeigten sich nahezu keine Hinweise auf eine Invarianz von Life history-Merkmalen. Charnovs (1993) Hypothese, dass phylogenetische Zwänge keinen Effekt auf Life history-Invarianten haben, konnte zudem durch meine Ergebnisse bestätigt werden, da auch Allometrien von *Life history*-Merkmalen der Amphibien nach Berücksichtigung der Phylogenie keine größeren Änderungen zeigten und somit für Betrachtungen der Invarianz unbedeutend waren.

Insgesamt konnte ich somit den Einfluss von besonders allometrischen aber auch phylogenetischen Zwängen auf *Life history*-Merkmale von Reptilien nachweisen. Bei den Amphibien scheinen diese Zwänge allerdings einen deutlich geringeren Einfluss zu haben, was auf das Wirken von ökologischen Zwängen auf Grund des biphasischen Lebenszyklus, welcher in zwei verschiedenen Habitaten stattfindet, hinweisen könnte. Weitere Untersuchungen zum Einfluss von anderen evolutionären Zwängen auf *Life history*-Strategien von Amphibien bieten sich daher an.

Einen Impuls für zukünftige Arbeiten könnte auch der Zusammenhang von Körpermasse und metabolischer Rate liefern, da die metabolische Rate alle Ebenen der biologischen Organisation, einschließlich der Life history-Strategien von Arten, beeinflusst (Brown et al. 2004). Ihre fundamentale Bedeutung wurde kürzlich durch die metabolische Theorie der Ökologie (MTE) von Brown und Kollegen (2004) formuliert und bestätigt. Die MTE beruht dabei auf einer Potenz-Beziehung zwischen der basalen metabolischen Rate und der Körpermasse mit einem 3⁄4 Skalierungsexponenten, welche zusätzlich die Arrhenius-Gleichung (= beschreibt näherungsweise eine quantitative Temperaturabhängigkeit bei physikalischen und chemischen Prozessen) verwendet, um die unterschiedlichen Körpertemperaturen von gleichgroßen Arten zu berücksichtigen. Dadurch ermöglicht es die MTE vorherzusagen, wie die metabolische Rate die ökologischen Prozesse auf allen Organisationsebenen von Individuen bis hin zu Biosphären durch Aufnahme von Ressourcen aus der Umwelt und der Allokation dieser auf das Überleben, das Wachstum und die Reproduktion reguliert (Brown et al. 2004). Sibly und Kollegen (2012) postulierten außerdem, dass neue Einsichten zur Skalierung von Life history-Merkmalen aus der Synthese der MTE und der Theorie der Life history-Evolution entstehen könnten. Weitere Studien seien nötig, um eine sichere mechanistische Erklärung für die Faktoren zu finden, welche die Life history-Evolution beschränken (Sibly et al. 2012).

Dass man Allometrien verwenden kann, um phylogenetische Positionen von Taxa zu untersuchen, konnte ich bereits am Beispiel der Brückenechse, *S. punctatus*, zeigen. Auch die Position der Squamaten und der Schildkröten innerhalb der Sauropsida (= Großtaxon der Amnioten, welches aus Reptilien und Vögeln besteht) ist umstritten

(Bever et al. 2015; Reeder et al. 2015). Zukünftige Studien auf der Basis von *Life history*-Merkmalen könnten analog zu meinem Ansatz durchgeführt werden, um Ergebnisse bisheriger molekularer Studien zu bestätigen.

Ein weiterer vielversprechender Weg stellt die Betrachtung von Zusammenhängen dar, welche unabhängig von der Körpermasse sind, nämlich die *Life history*-Invarianten. Interessanterweise hatte bereits Charnov (1993) in seinem einführenden Werk eine ganze Reihe von heute noch offenen Fragen formuliert. Dabei war der wichtigste Punkt, *Life history*-Strategien durch die Verwendung von dimensionslosen Zahlen zu beschreiben. Dimensionslose Zahlen werden oft bei dynamischen Problemen verwendet und stellen ein Kriterium der Ähnlichkeit für Objekte mit unterschiedlicher Größe dar (z.B. Maus und Elefant). Zusammen mit den von Price und Kollegen (2014) eingeführten und von mir überarbeiteten neuen Kriterien für Invarianz kann auch diese Methodik zukünftig dazu beitragen, tiefere Erkenntnisse zur Evolution von *Life history*-Strategien und dem Einfluss unterschiedlicher evolutionärer Zwänge zu gewinnen.
8 Literatur

- Abouheif E (1999) A method for testing the assumption of phylogenetic independence in comparative data. Evol Ecol Res 1:895–909.
- Adolph S, Porter W (1993) Temperature, activity, and lizard life histories. Am Nat 142:273–295.
- Agasyan A, Avci A, Tuniyev B, et al. (2009) Hemidactylus turcicus. In: IUCN Red List Threat. Species. Version 2014.3. <www.iucnredlist.org>. Abgerufen am 09 Febr. 2015.
- Agasyan A, Avci A, Tuniyev B, et al. (2010) Zootoca vivipara. In: IUCN 2013. IUCN Red List Threat. Species. Version 2013.2. <www.iucnredlist.org>. Abgerufen am 09 Febr. 2015.
- Akaike H (1974) A new look at the statistical model identification. IEEE Trans Automat Contr 19:716–723.
- Alexander Pyron R, Wiens JJ (2011) A large-scale phylogeny of Amphibia including over 2800 species, and a revised classification of extant frogs, salamanders, and caecilians. Mol Phylogenet Evol 61:543–583.
- Andrews RM, Pough FH, Zoology SP, Apr NM (1985) Metabolism of Squamate Reptiles: Allometric and Ecological Relationships. Physiol Zool 58:214–231.
- Balme D.M. (Hrsg., 2002) Aristotle: Historia animalium. Bd. 1: Books I-X: Text. Cambridge
- Bartlett RD, Bartlett PP (2006) Geckos. Barron's Educational Series, Inc., Hauppauge, NY
- Bauwens D, Díaz-Uriarte R (1997) Covariation of life-history traits in lacertid lizards: a comparative study. Am Nat 149:91–111.
- Begon M, Harper JL, Townsend CR (2006) Ecology: Individuals, Populations and Communities. Blackwell Sci.
- Bekoff M, Diamond J, Mitton JB (1981) Life-history patterns and sociality in canids: body size, reproduction, and behavior. Oecologia 3:386–390.
- Bever GS, Lyson TR, Field DJ, Bhullar B-AS (2015) Evolutionary origin of the turtle skull. Nature 525:239–242. doi: 10.1038/nature14900
- Beverton RJH (1963) Maturation, Growth and Mortality of Clupeid and Engraulid Stocks in Relation to Fishing. Rapp Procès-verbaux des Réunions Cons Perm Int pour l'Explor la Mer 154:44–67.
- Beverton RJH, Holt SJ (1959) A review on the lifespans and mortality rates of fish in nature, and their relation to growth and other physiological characteristics. CIBA Found Colloq Ageing 5:142–180.
- Bininda-Emonds ORP, Gittleman JL, Steel M a. (2002) THE (SUPER)TREE OF LIFE: Procedures, Problems, and Prospects. Annu Rev Ecol Syst 33:265–289.
- Bischoff W (1998) Handbuch der Reptilien und Amphibien Europas, Band 6: Die Reptilien der Kanarischen Inseln, der Selvagens-Inseln und des Madeira Archipels, 1. Aufl. AULA-Verlag, Wiesbaden

- Blackburn D (1985) Evolutionary origins of viviparity in the Reptilia. II. Serpentes, Amphisbaenia, and Ichthyosauria. Amphibia-Reptilia 6:259–291.
- Blackburn D (1999) Are viviparity and egg-guarding evolutionarily labile in squamates? Herpetologica 55:556–573.
- Blackburn D (2006) Squamate reptiles as model organisms for the evolution of viviparity. Herpetol Monogr 20:131–146.
- Blackburn D (1993) Standardized criteria for the recognition of reproductive modes in squamate reptiles. Herpetologica 49:118–132.
- Blackburn DG (1998) Structure, function, and evolution of the oviducts of squamate reptiles, with special reference to viviparity and placentation. J Exp Zool 282:560–617.
- Blackburn DG (1982) Evolutionary Origins of Viviparity in the Reptilia. I. Sauria. Amphibia-Reptilia 3:185–205.
- Blackburn DG, Flemming AF (2009) Morphology, development, and evolution of fetal membranes and placentation in squamate reptiles. J Exp Zool B Mol Dev Evol 312:579– 89.
- Blomberg SP, Garland T, Ives AR (2003) Testing for phylogenetic signal in comparative data: behavioral traits are more labile. Evol Int J Org Evol 57:717–745.
- Blueweiss L, Fox H, Kudzma V, et al. (1978) Relationships between body size and some life history parameters. Oecologia 37:257–272.
- Böhme W (1981) Handbuch der Reptilien und Amphibien Europas, Band 1: Echsen (Sauria) I (Gekkonidae, Agamidae, Chamaeleonidae, Anguidae, Amphisbaenidae, Scincidae, Lacertidae I), 1. Aufl. Akademische Verlagsgesellschaft, Wiesbaden
- Böhme W (1984) Handbuch der Reptilien und Amphibien Europas, Band 2/I: Echsen (Sauria) II (Lacertidae II: Lacerta), 1. Aufl. AULA-Verlag, Wiesbaden
- Böhme W (1986) Handbuch der Reptilien und Amphibien Europas, Band 2/II: Echsen (Sauria) III (Lacertidae III: Podarcis), 1. Aufl. AULA-Verlag, Wiesbaden
- Böhme W (1993) Handbuch der Reptilien und Amphibien Europas, Band 3/I: Schlangen (Serpentes) I (Typhlopidae, Boidae, Colubridae 1: Colubrinae), 1. Aufl. AULA-Verlag, Wiesbaden
- Böhme W (1999) Handbuch der Reptilien und Amphibien Europas, Band 3/IIA: Schlangen (Serpentes) II (Colubridae 2: Boiginae, Natricinae), 1. Aufl. AULA-Verlag, Wiebelsheim
- Bonine KE, Gleeson TT, Garland T (2001) Comparative analysis of fiber-type composition in the iliofibularis muscle of phrynosomatid lizards (Squamata). J Morphol 250:265–280.
- Borcard D, Gillet F, Legendre P (2011) Numerical Ecology with R. Springer, New York
- Brown JH, Gillooly JF, Allen AP, et al. (2004) Toward a metabolic theory of ecology. Ecology 85:1771–1789.
- Brown JH, West GB (2000) Scaling in Biology, 1. Aufl. Oxford University Press, Inc., New York

- Brown R (1828) A brief account of microscopical observations made in the months of June, July and August, 1827, on the particles contained in the pollen of plants; and on the general existence of active molecules in organic and inorganic bodies. Edinburgh New Philos J 5:358–371.
- Chappell MA, Ellis TM (1987) Resting metabolic rates in boid snakes : allometric relationships and temperature effects *. J Comp Physiol B 157:227–235.
- Charnov EL (1993) Life history invariants: Some explorations of symmetry in evolutionary ecology, 1. Aufl. Oxford University Press, New York
- Clauss M, Dittmann MT, Müller DWH, et al. (2014) Low scaling of a life history variable: Analysing eutherian gestation periods with and without phylogeny-informed statistics. Mamm Biol 79:9–16.
- Clobert J, Garland Jr. T, Barbault R (1998) The evolution of demographic tactics in lizards: a test of some hypotheses concerning life history evolution. J Evol Biol 11:329–364.
- Collar DC, Schulte II JA, Losos JB (2011) Evolution of Extreme Body Size Disparity in Monitor Lizards (Varanus). Evolution (N Y) 65:2664–2680.
- Congdon JD (1989) Proximate and Evolutionary Constraints on Energy Relations of Reptiles. Physiol Zool 62:356–373.
- Congdon JD, Gibbons JW (1985) Egg Components And Reproductive Characteristics Of Turtles : Relationships To Body Size. Herpetologica 41:194–205.
- Crawford NG, Faircloth BC, McCormack JE, et al. (2012) More than 1000 ultraconserved elements provide evidence that turtles are the sister group of archosaurs. Biol Lett 8:783–786.
- Cree A (2014) Reproductive Anatomy and Cycles of Tuatara (Sphenodon punctatus), an Intriguing Non-squamate Lepidosaur. In: Rheubert JL, Siegel DS, Trauth SE (Hrsg.) Reprod. Biol. Phylogeny Lizards Tuatara, 1. Aufl. CRC Press, pp 620–646
- Darwin C (1859) On the Origin of the Species by Means of Natural Selection, or The Preservation of Favoured Races in the Struggle for Life., 1. Aufl. John Murray, London
- Darwin C (1871) The Descent of Man, and Selection in Relation to Sex., 1. Aufl. John Murray, London
- Dawson TJ, Hulbert a J (1970) Standard metabolism, body temperature, and surface areas of Australian marsupials. Am J Physiol 218:1233–1238.
- Deckert K, Deckert G, Freytag GE, et al. (1991) Die große farbige Enzyklopädie Urania-Tierreich : Fische, Lurche, Kriechtiere. Urania-Verlagsgesellschaft mbH, Leipzig Jena Berlin
- Delaugerre M, Ouni R, Nouira S (2011) Is the European Leaf-toed gecko Euleptes europaea also an African? Its occurrence on the Western Mediterranean landbrige islets and its extinction rate. Herpetol Notes 4:127–137.
- Dobson FS (1992) Body Mass, Structural Size, and Life-History Patterns of the Columbian Ground Squirrel. Am Nat 140:109–125.

Dobson FS, Oli MK (2007) Fast and slow life histories of mammals. Ecoscience 14:292.

- Dodd MHI, Dodd JM (1976) The biology of metamorphosis. In: Lofts BA (ed) Physiol. Amphib., 1. Aufl. Academic Press, New York, pp 467–599
- Duellman WE, Trueb L (1994) Biology of Amphibians, 1. Aufl. The Johns Hopkins University Press, Baltimore
- Dunham AE, Miles DB (1985) Patterns of covariation in life history traits of squamate reptiles: the effects of size and phylogeny reconsidered. Am Nat 126:231–257.
- Dunham AE, Miles DB, Reznick DN (1988) Life history patterns in squamate reptiles. In: Gans C (ed) Biol. Reptil. Academic Press, London New York San Francisco, pp 441– 522
- Elgar MA, Heaphy LJ (1989) Covariation between clutch size, egg weight and egg shape: comparative evidence for chelonians. J Zool 219:137–152.
- Ernst CH, Barbour RW (1989) Turtles of the World. Smithsonian Institution Press, Washington, D.C., and London
- Feldman A, Meiri S (2013) Length-mass allometry in snakes. Biol J Linn Soc 108:161–172.
- Felsenstein J (1985) Phylogenies and the comparative method. Am Nat 125:1–15.
- Felsenstein J (2004) Inferring Phylogenies. Am J Hum Genet 74:1074.
- Fitch HS (1970) Reproductive Cycles of Lizards and Snakes. Museum of Natural History, University of Kansas (Lawrence)
- Four poulos J, Ives A (1999) Reptile extinctions on land-bridge islands: life-history attributes and vulnerability to extinction. Am Nat 153:1–25.
- De Fraipont M, Clobert J, Barbault R (1996) The evolution of oviparity with egg guarding and viviparity in lizards and snakes: a phylogenetic analysis. Evolution (N Y) 50:391–400.
- Fritz U (2001) Handbuch der Reptilien und Amphibien Europas, Band 3/IIIA Schildkröten (Testudines) I (Bataguridae, Testudinidae, Emydidae). AULA-Verlag, Wiebelsheim
- Fritz U (2005) Handbuch der Reptilien und Amphibien Europas, Band 3/IIIB: Schildkröten (Testudines) II (Cheloniidae, Dermochelyidae, Fossile Schildkröten Europas), 1. Aufl. AULA-Verlag, Wiebelsheim
- Frost DR, Grant T, Faivovich J, et al. (2006) The Amphibian Tree of Life. Bull Am Museum Nat Hist 297:1–291.
- Gasso VY (2003) Some Ecological Parameters And Heavy Metals Body Burden Of The Steppe Viper Vipera renardi In The Dniprovsko-Orelsky Nature Reserve, Ukraine (Poster). 12th Ordinary General Meeting of the Societas Europaea Herpetologica, St. Petersburg
- Gittleman JL (1985) Carnivore body size: Ecological and taxonomic correlates. Oecologia 67:540–554.
- Gittleman JL, Kot M (1990) Adaptation: Statistics and a Null Model for Estimating Phylogenetic Effects. Syst Biol 39:227 –241.

- Gower JC, Ross GJS (1969) Minimum spanning trees and single linkage cluster analysis. Appl Stat 18:54–64.
- Guillaume CP, Heulin B, Pavlinov D V, et al. (2006) Morphological variation in the common lizard Lacerta (Zootoca) vivipara. Russ J Herpetol 13:1–10.
- Guillon JM, Guéry L, Hulin V, Girondot M (2012) A large phylogeny of turtles (Testudines) using molecular data. Contrib to Zool 81:147–158.
- Günther B, Morgado E (2005) Reply to Nespolo 's paper entitled "New invariants and dimensionless numbers : Futile renaissance of old fallacies ?" Biol Res 38:117–119.
- Haeckel E (1866) Generelle Morphologie der Organismen. Allgemeine Grundzüge der organischen Formen-Wissenschaft, mechanisch begründet durch die von Charles Darwin reformirte Descendenz-Theorie., 1. Aufl. Georg Reimer, Berlin.
- Hallmann K, Griebeler EM (2015) Eggshell Types and Their Evolutionary Correlation with Life-History Strategies in Squamates. PLoS One 10:e0138785. 10.1371/journal.pone.0138785
- Harmon LJ, Weir JT, Brock CD, et al. (2008) GEIGER: investigating evolutionary radiations. Bioinformatics 24:129–131.
- Harvey PH, Pagel MD (1991) The comparative method in evolutionary biology.
- Hay JM, Sarre SD, Lambert DM, et al. (2010) Genetic diversity and taxonomy: A reassessment of species designation in tuatara (Sphenodon: Reptilia). Conserv Genet 11:1063–1081.
- Heibl C (2008) PHYLOCH: R language tree plotting tools and interfaces to diverse phylogenetic software packages. http://www.christophheibl.de/Rpackages.html.
- Hekkala E, Shirley MH, Amato G, et al. (2011) An ancient icon reveals new mysteries: Mummy DNA resurrects a cryptic species within the Nile crocodile. Mol Ecol 20:4199– 4215.
- Hendriks AJ, Mulder C (2008) Scaling of offspring number and mass to plant and animal size: model and meta-analysis. Oecologia 155:705–716.
- Henkel F-W, Schmidt W (1991) Geckos Biologie, Haltung und Zucht., 1. Aufl. Eugen Ulmer GmbH & Co, Stuttgart
- Hennig W (1966) Phylogenetic Systematics. Univ Illinois Press Urbana Humphries C J.
- Heulin B, Arrayago MJ, Bea A (1989) Experience d'hybridation entre les souches ovipare et vivipare du lezard Lacerta vivipara. COMPTES RENDUS L Acad DES Sci Ser III-SCIENCES LA VIE-LIFE Sci 308:341–346.
- Heygen E Van (2004) The genus Phelsuma GRAY, 1825 on the Ampasindava peninsula, Madagascar. Phelsuma 12:99–117.
- Hodges WL (2004) Evolution of viviparity in horned lizards (Phrynosoma): testing the coldclimate hypothesis. J Evol Biol 17:1230–1237.
- Hugall AF, Foster R, Lee MSY (2007) Calibration choice, rate smoothing, and the pattern of tetrapod diversification according to the long nuclear gene RAG-1. Syst Biol 56:543–

563.

- Hurvich CM, Tsai C-L (1989) Regression and time series model selection in small samples. Biometrika 76:297–307.
- Iverson J (1992) Correlates of reproductive output in turtles (Order Testudines). Herpetol Monogr 6:25–42.
- Iverson JB, Balgooyen CP, Byrd KK, Lyddan KK (1993) Latitudinal variation in egg and clutch size in turtles. Can J Zool 71:2448–2461.
- Jamieson B (2014) The Ultrastructure of Spermatogenesis and Spermatozoa of the Tuatara Sphenodon punctatus (Sphenodontida, Amniota). In: Rheubert JL, Siegel DS, Trauth SE (Hrsg.) Reprod. Biol. Phylogeny Lizards Tuatara, 1. Aufl. CRC Press, pp 647–675
- Jetz W, Thomas GH, Joy JB, et al. (2012) The global diversity of birds in space and time. Nature 491:444–8.
- Joger U, Stümpel N (2005) Handbuch der Reptilien und Amphibien Europas, Band 3/IIB: Schlangen (Serpentes) III (Viperidae), 1. Aufl. AULA-Verlag, Wiebelsheim
- Jombart T, Balloux F, Dray S (2010a) adephylo: new tools for investigating the phylogenetic signal in biological traits. Bioinformatics 26:1907–9.
- Jombart T, Dray S (2010) Adephylo: Exploratory Analyses for the Phylogenetic Comparative Method. Bioinformatics 26:1–21.
- Jombart T, Pavoine S, Devillard S, Pontier D (2010b) Putting phylogeny into the analysis of biological traits: a methodological approach. J Theor Biol 264:693–701.
- Jones MEH, Anderson CL, Hipsley C a, et al. (2013) Integration of molecules and new fossils supports a Triassic origin for Lepidosauria (lizards, snakes, and tuatara). BMC Evol Biol 13:208.
- Jones WT (1985) Body size and life-history variables in heteromyids. J Mammal 66:128–132.
- Kabisch K (1990) Wörterbuch der Herpetologie, 1. Aufl. VEB Gustav Fischer Verlag Jena, Jena
- Kleiber M (1932) Body size and metabolism. Hilgardia 6:315–351.
- Kleiber M (1961) The Fire of Life. An Introduction to Animal Energetics. 1. Aufl. Wiley, New York.
- Köhler W, Schachtel G, Voleske P (2007) Biostatistik: Eine Einführung für Biologen und Agrarwissenschaftler, 4. Aufl.
- Komsta L (2013) mblm (Median-Based Linear Models). http://CRANRproject.org/package=mblm R package version 0.12.
- Kratochvíl L, Kubička L (2007a) Why reduce clutch size to one or two eggs? Reproductive allometries reveal different evolutionary causes of invariant clutch size in lizards. Funct Ecol 21:171–177.
- Kratochvíl L, Kubička L (2007b) Why reduce clutch size to one or two eggs? Reproductive allometries reveal different evolutionary causes of invariant clutch size in lizards. Funct

Ecol 21:171–177.

Laurenti JN (1768) Specimen medicum exhibens synopsin reptilium emendatam cum experimentis circa venena et antidota reptilium Austriacorum. Viennae (Trattnern).

Lecointre G, Guyader HL (2005) Biosystematik, 1. Aufl. Springer, Berlin, Heidelberg.

- Lemaître JF, Müller DWH, Clauss M (2014) A test of the metabolic theory of ecology with two longevity data sets reveals no common cause of scaling in biological times. Mamm Rev 44:204–214.
- Linnaeus C (1753) Species plantarum: exhibentes plantas rite cognitas ad genera relatas cum differentiis specificis, nominibus trivialibus, synonymis selectis, locis natalibus secundum systema sexuale digestas. Laurentii Salvii, Stockholm
- Linnaeus C (1758) Systema naturae per regna tria naturae. 2 vols. L. Salmii, Holmiae
- Lodé T (2012) Oviparity or viviparity? That is the question.... Reprod Biol 12:259-64.
- Losos JB (1990) Ecomorphology, Performance Capability, and Scaling of West Indian Anolis Lizards: An Evolutionary Analysis. Ecol Monogr 60:369–388.
- Losos JB (2008) Phylogenetic niche conservatism, phylogenetic signal and the relationship between phylogenetic relatedness and ecological similarity among species. Ecol Lett 11:995–1003.
- Maechler M (2015) diptest: Hartigan's Dip Test Statistic for Unimodality Corrected. http://cran.r-project.org/package=diptest R package version 0.75–7.
- Mathies T, Andrews RM (1995) Thermal and reproductive biology of high and low elevation populations of the lizard Sceloporus scalaris: implications for the evolution of viviparity. Oecologia 104:101–111.
- Meiri S (2010) Length-weight allometries in lizards. J Zool 281:218–226.
- Meiri S, Brown JH, Sibly R (2012) The ecology of lizard reproductive output. Glob Ecol Biogeogr 21:592–602.
- Méndez-de la Cruz FR, Villagrán-Santa Cruz M, Andrews RM (1998) Evolution of Viviparity in the Lizard Genus Sceloporus. Herpetologica 54:521–532.
- Meschede D (2010) Gerthsen Physik, 24. überarbeitete Auflage. Springer-Verlag, Berlin, Heidelberg
- Mikhailov KE (1997) Fossil and recent eggshell in amniotic vertebrates: fine structure, comparative morphology and classification. Spec Pap Palaeontol 56:1–83.
- Morrison C, Hero JM (2003) Geographic variation in life-history characteristics of amphibians: A review. J Anim Ecol 72:270–279.
- Münkemüller T, Lavergne S, Bzeznik B, et al. (2012) How to measure and test phylogenetic signal. Methods Ecol Evol 3:743–756.
- Murray Jr B (1990) Population dynamics, genetic change, and the measurement of fitness. Oikos 59:189–99.
- Myers P, Espinosa R, Parr CS, et al. (2015) The Animal Diversity Web (online). In: Museum

Zool. http://animaldiversity.org.

- Nee S, Colegrave N, West S a, Grafen A (2005) The illusion of invariant quantities in life histories. Science (80-) 309:1236–1239.
- Nespolo R (2005) New invariants and dimensionless numbers: futile renaissance of old fallacies? Biol Res 27–29.
- Oaks JR (2011) A Time-Calibrated Species Tree of Crocodylia Reveals a Recent Radiation of the True Crocodiles. Evolution (N Y) 65:3285–3297.
- Oksanen J, Blanchet FG, Kindt R, et al. (2013) Package "vegan." R Packag ver 20-8 254.
- Osborne L, Thompson MB (2005) Chemical Composition and Structure of the Eggshell of Three Oviparous Lizards. Copeia 2005:683–692.
- Owen-Smith RN (1988) Megaherbivores The influence of very large body size on ecology, 1. Aufl. Cambridge University Press 1988, Cambridge
- Packard M (1982) Structure of the shell from eggs of the tuatara, Sphenodon punctatus. J Morphol 174:197–205.
- Packard M, Packard G, Boardman T (1982) Structure of eggshells and water relations of reptilian eggs. Herpetologica 38:136–155.
- Pagel M (1999a) Inferring the historical patterns of biological evolution. Nature 401:877-884.
- Pagel M (1999b) The maximum likelihood approach to reconstructing ancestral character states of discrete characters on phylogenies. Syst Biol 48:612–622.
- Paradis E (2011) Analysis of Phylogenetics and Evolution with R. Springer, New York, Dordrecht, Heidelberg, London
- Paradis E, Claude J, Strimmer K (2004) APE: Analyses of Phylogenetics and Evolution in R language. Bioinformatics 20:289–290.
- Pavoine S, Ollier S, Pontier D, Chessel D (2008) Testing for phylogenetic signal in phenotypic traits: new matrices of phylogenetic proximities. Theor Popul Biol 73:79–91.
- Pearson K (1905) The Problem of the Random Walk. Nature 72:294.
- Perry G, Garland T (2002) Lizard Home Ranges Revisited: Effects of Sex, Body Size, Diet, Habitat, and Phylogeny. Ecology 83:1870–1885.
- Peters RH (1983) The ecological implications of body size, 1. Aufl. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge
- Pike D a., Andrews RM, Du W-G (2012) Eggshell morphology and gekkotan life-history evolution. Evol Ecol 26:847–861.
- Pincheira-Donoso D, Bauer AM, Meiri S, Uetz P (2013) Global Taxonomic Diversity of Living Reptiles. PLoS One. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0059741
- Pinheiro J, Bates D, DebRoy S, et al. (2015) nlme: Linear and Nonlinear Mixed Effects Models. http://CRANR-project.org/package=nlme R package version 3.1–120.
- Pooley AC, Ross CA (2002) Sterblichkeit und natürliche Feinde. In: Ross CA (ed) Krokodile und Alligatoren - Entwicklung, Biol. und Verbreitung, 1. Aufl. Orbis Verlag in der

Verlagsgruppe FALKEN/Mosaik, Niedernhausen, p 239

- Portelinha TCG, Malvasio A, Piña CI, Bertoluci J (2013) Reproductive Allometry of Podocnemis expansa (Testudines: Podocnemididae) in Southern Brazilian Amazon. J Herpetol 47:232–236.
- Pough FH (2001) Herpetology, 2. Aufl. Prentice Hall, New York
- Price CA, Wright IJ, Ackerly DD, et al. (2014) Are leaf functional traits "invariant" with plant size and what is "invariance" anyway? Funct Ecol 28:1330–1343.
- Promislow D, Clobert J, Barbault R (1992) Life History Allometry in Mammals and Squamate Reptiles: Taxon-Level Effects. Oikos 65:285–294.
- Pyron RA, Burbrink FT (2014) Early origin of viviparity and multiple reversions to oviparity in squamate reptiles. Ecol Lett 17:13–21.
- Pyron RA, Burbrink FT, Wiens JJ (2013) A phylogeny and revised classification of Squamata, including 4161 species of lizards and snakes. BMC Evol Biol 13:93.
- R Development Core Team (2013) R: A language and environment for statistical computing. R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria. URL http://www.R-project.org/. R Found. Stat. Comput. Vienna, Austria.
- Rahn H, Paganelli C V, Ar A (1975) Relation of avian egg weight to body weight. Auk 92:750–765.
- Rambaut A (2000) TREETHIEF. A Tool for Manual Phylogenetic Tree Entry. http://evolve.zoo.ox. ac.uk/software/TreeThief/mai.
- Raxworthy CJ, Glaw F, Vences M (2011) Phelsuma madagascariensis. In: IUCN Red List Threat. Species. Version 2014.3. <www.iucnredlist.org>. Abgerufen am 09 Febr. 2015.
- Reeder TW, Townsend TM, Mulcahy DG, et al. (2015) Integrated analyses resolve conflicts over squamate reptile phylogeny and reveal unexpected placements for fossil taxa. PLoS One. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0118199
- Reiss MJ (1989) The allometry of growth and reproduction. Comp Biochem Physiol Part A Physiol 96:182.
- Revell L (2010) Phylogenetic signal and linear regression on species data. Methods Ecol Evol 1:319–329.
- Revell LJ (2012) Using nlme::gls for phylogenetic regression with non-contemporaneous tips. http://blog.phytools.org/2012/04/using-nlmegls-for-phylogenetic.html. Abgerufen am 16 Nov 2015
- Reynoso VH (2000) AN UNUSUAL AQUATIC SPHENODONTIAN (REPTILIA: DIAPSIDA) FROM THE TLAYUA FORMATION (ALBIAN), CENTRAL MEXICO. J Paleontol 74:133– 148.
- Reynoso V-H, Clark JM (1998) A dwarf sphenodontian from the Jurassic La Boca Formation of Tamaulipas, México. J Vertebr Paleontol 18:333–339.
- Rheubert JL, Siegel DS, Trauth SE (2014) Reproductive Biology and Phylogeny of Lizards and Tuatara, 1. Aufl. CRC Press

- Ritz J, Griebeler EM, Huber R, Clauss M (2010) Body size development of captive and freeranging African spurred tortoises (Geochelone sulcata): High plasticity in reptilian growth rates. Herpetol J 20:213–216.
- Roff DA (1992) The evolution of life histories : theory and analysis, 1. Aufl. Chapman & Hall, New York.
- Roff DA (2002) Life history evolution, 1. Aufl. Sinauer Associates, Inc., Sunderland, MA.
- Rogner M (1992) Echsen 1: Haltung, Pflege und Zucht im Terrarium Geckos, Flossenfüsse, Agamen, Chamäleons und Leguane, 1. Aufl. Eugen Ulmer GmbH & Co, Stuttgart
- Rösler H (1995) Geckos der Welt: alle Gattungen, 1. Aufl. Urania-Verlagsgesellschaft mbH, Leipzig, Jena, Berlin
- Ross CA (1992) Designation of a Lectotype for Crocodylus Raninus S. Müller and Schlegel (Reptilia: Crocodylidae), the Borneo Crocodile. PROC BIOL SOC WASH 105:400–402.
- Ryan KM, Lindeman P V. (2007) Reproductive Allometry in the Common Map Turtle, Graptemys geographica. Am Midl Nat 158:49–59.
- Safi R, Bertrand S, Marchand O, et al. (2004) The Axolotl (Ambystoma mexicanum), a Neotenic Amphibian, Expresses Functional Thyroid Hormone Receptors. Endocrinology 145:760–772.
- Sander PM (2012) Reproduction in early amniotes. Science 337:806-8.
- Savage VM, White E, Moses ME, et al. (2006) Comment on "The Illusion of Invariant Quantities in Life Histories." Science 312:
- Scharf I, Feldman A, Novosolov M, et al. (2014) Late bloomers and baby boomers: ecological drivers of longevity in squamates and the tuatara. Glob Ecol Biogeogr. doi: 10.1111/geb.12244
- Schleich HH, Kästle W (1988) Reptile Egg-Shells SEM Atlas, 1. Aufl. Gustav Fischer Verlag, Stuttgart; New York
- Schmidt-Nielsen K (1984) Scaling Why is animal size so important?, 1. Aufl. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge
- Schmitz OJ, Lavigne DM (1984) Intrinsic rate of increase, body size, and specific metabolic rate in marine mammals. Oecologia 62:305–309.
- Searcy C a., Gabbai-Saldate E, Bradley Shaffer H (2013) Microhabitat use and migration distance of an endangered grassland amphibian. Biol Conserv 158:80–87.
- Seebacher F, Alford RA (1999) Movement and Microhabitat Use of a Terrestrial Amphibian (Bufo marinus) on a Tropical Island: Seasonal Variation and Environmental Correlates. J Herpetol 33:208–214.
- Shine R (2005) Life-History Evolution in Reptiles. Annu Rev Ecol Evol Syst 36:23-46.
- Shine R (1994) Allometric Patterns in the Ecology of Australian Snakes. Copeia 1994:851– 867.
- Shine R (1996) Life-history evolution in Australian snakes: a path analysis. Oecologia

107:484-489.

- Shine R, Charnov EL (1992) Patterns of survival, growth, and maturation in snakes and lizards. Am Nat 139:1257–1269.
- Sibly RM, Brown JH, Kodric-Brown A (2012) Metabolic Ecology: A Scaling Approach. Metab Ecol A Scaling Approach. Wiley-Blackwell, Hoboken (New Jersey).
- Siegel AF (1982) Robust regression using repeated medians. Biometrika 69:242-244.
- Snell O (1891) Die Abhängigkeit des Hirngewichtes von dem Körpergewicht und den geistigen Fähigkeiten. Arch Psychiatr Nervenkr 23:436–445.
- Stearns S (1983) The influence of size and phylogeny on patterns of covariation among lifehistory traits in the mammals. Oikos 41:173–187.
- Stearns SC (1992) The evolution of life histories, 1. Aufl. Oxford University Press, New York
- Stearns SC (1984) The effects of size and phylogeny on patterns of covariation in the life history traits of lizards and snakes. Am Nat 123:56–72.
- Steuer R, Morgenthal K, Weckwerth W, Selbig J (2007) A Gentle Guide to the Analysis of Metabolomic data. In: Weckwerth W (ed) Metabolomics Methods Protoc., 1. Aufl. Humana Press Inc., Totowa, New Jersey, pp 105–128
- Stewart J (1992) Placental structure and nutritional provision to embryos in predominantly lecithotrophic viviparous reptiles. Am Zool 32:303–312.
- Stewart JR (2013) Fetal nutrition in lecithotrophic squamate reptiles: toward a comprehensive model for evolution of viviparity and placentation. J Morphol 274:824–43.
- Stewart JR, Ecay TW (2010) Patterns of maternal provision and embryonic mobilization of calcium in oviparous and viviparous squamate reptiles. Herpetol Conserv Biol 5:341–359.
- Stewart JR, Ecay TW, Heulin B (2009) Calcium provision to oviparous and viviparous embryos of the reproductively bimodal lizard Lacerta (Zootoca) vivipara. J Exp Biol 212:2520–2524.
- Sumida SS, Martin KLM (1997) Amniote Origins Completing the Transition to Land, 1. Aufl. Academic Press, San Diego
- Swihart RK (1984) Body Size, Breeding Season Length, and Life History Tactics of Lagomorphs. Oikos 43:282–290.
- Tacutu R, Craig T, Budovsky A, et al. (2013) Human Ageing Genomic Resources: integrated databases and tools for the biology and genetics of ageing. Nucleic Acids Res 41:D1027–D1033.
- Temple HJ, Cox NA (2009) European Red List of Amphibians. Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities.
- Thompson GG, Withers PC, Cowan E (1997) Standard and Maximal Metabolic Rates of Goannas (Squamata: Varanidae). Physiol Zool 70:307–323.

- Thompson MB, Speake BK (2006) A review of the evolution of viviparity in lizards: structure, function and physiology of the placenta. J Comp Physiol B 176:179–189.
- Thorbjarnarson J (1996) Reproductive characteristics of the order Crocodylia. Herpetologica 52:8–24.
- Tinkle D (1969) The concept of reproductive effort and its relation to the evolution of life histories of lizards. Am Nat 103:501–516.
- Tinkle D, Gibbons J (1977) The distribution and evolution of viviparity in reptiles. Misc Publ Museum Zool Univ Michigan 1–55.
- Tinkle D, Wilbur H, Tilley S (1970) Evolutionary strategies in lizard reproduction. Evolution (N Y) 24:55–74.
- Tipler PA, Mosca G (2007) Physik: für Wissenschaftler und Ingenieure. Spektrum Akad Verlag, Heidelb.
- Tóth R, Somorčík J (2015) On a non-parametric confidence interval for the regression slope. http://arxiv.org/abs/1502.06412v2.
- Trochet A, Moulherat S, Calvez O, et al. (2014) Database for life-history traits for European amphibians. Biodivers Data J 2:e4123.
- Tuomi J (1980) Mammalian reproductive strategies: A generalized relation of litter size to body size. Oecologia 45:39–44.
- Uetz P, Hošek J (2013) The Reptile Database. In: http://www.reptile-database.org, Abgerufen am 01 April 2013.
- Vences M (2011) Phelsuma lineata. In: IUCN Red List Threat. Species. Version 2014.3. <www.iucnredlist.org>. Abgerufen am 09 Febr. 2015.
- Viets B, Ewert M (1994) Sex-determining mechanisms in squamate reptiles. J Exp Zool 270:45–56.
- Voss SR, Epperlein HH, Tanaka EM (2009) Ambystoma mexicanum, the axolotl: A versatile amphibian model for regeneration, development, and evolution studies. Cold Spring Harb Protoc 4(8):pdb.emo128.
- Warguez D a, Mondejar EP, Demayo CG (2013) Frogs and their Microhabitat Preferences in the Agricultural and Secondary Forest areas in the Vicinity of Mt. Kalatungan Mountain , Bukidnon , Philippines. 2:51–63.
- Warne RW, Charnov EL (2008) Reproductive allometry and the size-number trade-off for lizards. Am Nat 172:E80–98.
- Warton DI, Duursma RA, Falster DS, Taskinen S (2012) smatr 3-an R package for estimation and inference about allometric lines. METHODS Ecol Evol 3:257–259.
- Werner J, Griebeler EM (2011) Reproductive biology and its impact on body size: Comparative analysis of mammalian, avian and dinosaurian reproduction. PLoS One. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0028442
- Werner J, Griebeler EM (2013) New Insights into Non-Avian Dinosaur Reproduction and Their Evolutionary and Ecological Implications: Linking Fossil Evidence to Allometries of

Extant Close Relatives. PLoS One. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0072862

- Western D, Ssemakula J (1982) Life History Patterns in Birds and Mammals and Their Evolutionary Interpretation. Oecologia 54:281–290.
- Wiens JJ, Slingluff JL (2001) How lizards turn into snakes: a phylogenetic analysis of bodyform evolution in anguid lizards. Evolution 55:2303–2318.
- Wilbur HM, Morin PJ (1988) Life history evolution in turtles. In: Gans C, Huey RB (Hrsg.) Biol. Reptil. Vol 16B. Alan R. Liss, New York, pp 387–439
- Willi H (1950) Grundzüge einer Theorie der phylogenetischen Systematik, 1. Aufl. Deutscher Zentralverlag, Berlin
- Wise P (2009) An embryonic staging table for in ovo development of Eublepharis macularius, the leopard gecko. Anat Rec 292:1198–212.
- Yu Y, Karbowski J, Sachdev RNS, Feng J (2014) Effect of temperature and glia in brain size enlargement and origin of allometric body-brain size scaling in vertebrates. BMC Evol Biol 14:178.

9 Anhang

9.1 Appendix A (Kapitel 3)

Table 9.1 Trait values and literature sources of examined 32 squamata species. Clutches p.a. = number of clutches per annum (per year); eggshell type classification: 1 = shell-less, 2 = parchment-shelled, 3 = rigid-shelled. Literature numbers: 1. Böhme (1981), 2. Deckert et al. (1981), 3. Böhme (1984), 4. Böhme (1985), 5. Böhme (1988), 6. Kabisch (1990), 7. Henkel and Schmidt (1991), 8. Rogner (1992), 9. Böhme (1993), 10. Rösler (1995), 11. Böhme (1999), 12. Foufopoulos et al. (1999), 13. Gasso (2003), 14. Heygen (2004), 15. Joger and Stümpel (2005), 16. Agasyan et al. (2009), 17. Green et al. (2009), 18. Wise (2009), 19. Meiri (2010), 20. Delaugerre et al. (2011), 20. Raxworthy et al. (2011), 21. Vences (2011), 22. Feldman and Meiri (2013), 23. Tacutu et al. (2013), 24. Yu et al. (2014). For a more detailed description of the literature see main text.

| | Species | Adult weight (g) | Birth size (cm) | Clutch size | Clutches p.a. | Female maturity (days) | Incubation time (days) | Max. longevity (years) | Eggshell type | Max. altitude (m) | Literature |
|----|---------------------------|------------------------|--------------------|----------------|------------------|------------------------------|------------------------|---------------------------|------------------|----------------------|--------------------------|
| 1 | Anguis fragilis | 14 | 8 | 12.25 | 1 | 1825 | 84 | 44.33 | 1 | 2400 | 1,2,6,17,19 ,24 |
| 2 | Coronella girondica | 50.22 | 15.02 | 6.86 | 1 | 1460 | 47.5 | 14 | 2 | 3200 | 9 |
| 3 | Eryx jaculus | 134.5 | 16.75 | 11.33 | 1 | 730 | 107 | 24.7 | 1 | 1700 | 9,22,23 |
| 4 | Eublepharis macularius | 59.7 | 8.18 | 1.75 | 4 | 400 | 54.25 | 24.25 | 2 | 2500 | 2,7,8,10,17 ,18,19,24 |
| 5 | Euleptes europaea | 1.5 | 3 | 1.5 | 1 | 730 | 79.5 | 21.5 | 3 | 450 | 1,2,7,10 |
| 6 | Gallotia atlantica | 12.8 | 7.56 | 2.68 | 1.95 | 730 | 68.25 | 15 | 2 | 580 | 2,5,19 |
| 7 | Gallotia galloti | 72.75 | 12.33 | 5.24 | 1.5 | 730 | 65.86 | 7.03 | 2 | 2000 | 2,5,19,24 |
| 8 | Gallotia simonyi | 252.31 | 3.63 | 10.8 | 1.5 | 913 | 64.5 | 5.4 | 2 | 500 | 2,5,24 |
| 9 | Gallotia stehlini | 326.5 | 13.23 | 10.33 | 1.5 | 1346.5 | 80 | 13 | 2 | 1950 | 5,19,24 |
| 10 | Hemidactylus turcicus | 2.8 | 2.8 | 2.5 | 2.88 | 650 | 58.75 | 7.9 | 3 | 1100 | 1,7,9,19,24 |
| 11 | Hemorrhois ravergieri | 157.75 | 2.05 | 11.5 | 1 | 913 | 65 | 13.8 | 2 | 3300 | 9,23 |
| 12 | Lacerta agilis | 8.3 | 5.89 | 11.5 | 1.25 | 365 | 50 | 11 | 2 | 2400 | 3,6,19 |
| 13 | Lacerta strigata | 20.6 | 8.25 | 10.17 | 1.25 | 645 | 50 | 7 | 2 | 2000 | 3,19 |

| | Species | Adult weight (g) | Birth size (cm) | Clutch size | Clutches p.a. | Female maturity (days) | Incubation time (days) | Max. longevity (years) | Eggshell type | Max. altitude (m) | Literature |
|----|-------------------------------|------------------------|--------------------|----------------|------------------|------------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|------------------|----------------------|---------------------|
| 14 | Macrovipera lebetina | 1037.83 | 20.04 | 21.67 | 1 | 1350 | 40 | 15.15 | 2 | 2500 | 15,24 |
| 15 | Malpolon monspessulanus | 649.92 | 27.26 | 11.95 | 1.25 | 1642.5 | 48.5 | 13.5 | 2 | 2000 | 11 |
| 16 | Natrix natrix | 190.16 | 17.35 | 17.51 | 1.25 | 1369 | 50 | 21.42 | 2 | 2300 | 11,24 |
| 17 | Phelsuma laticauda | 2.9 | 4 | 2 | 3.5 | 330 | 46.88 | 8.7 | 3 | 300 | 7,8,10,14,1 9,24 |
| 18 | Phelsuma lineata | 3.8 | 4 | 1.75 | 4.5 | 240 | 48.25 | 10 | 3 | 1350 | 7,8,10,19,2 3,24 |
| 19 | Phelsuma madagascariensis | 20.7 | 6.07 | 1.75 | 6 | 367.5 | 56.94 | 13.6 | 3 | 1000 | 7,8,10,19,2 1,24 |
| 20 | Phrynocephalus helioscopus | 6.9 | 4.55 | 4.5 | 1.75 | 345 | 40 | 2.5 | 2 | 1000 | 1,6,19 |
| 21 | Podarcis muralis | 15.18 | 6.05 | 6 | 2.75 | 365 | 76.25 | 8.5 | 2 | 2700 | 4,19,24 |
| 22 | Podarcis siculus | 10.75 | 9.13 | 7.17 | 3.1 | 365 | 49.11 | 13 | 2 | 2000 | 4,19 |
| 23 | Ptyodactylus hasselquistii | 9.3 | 5.3 | 2 | 5 | 638.75 | 99.25 | 10.45 | 3 | 1800 | 10,19,24 |
| 24 | Tarentola mauritanica | 7.3 | 5 | 2 | 1 | 1095 | 81.5 | 10.7 | 3 | 1283 | 1,7,8,10,19 ,24 |
| 25 | Timon lepidus | 213.28 | 11.76 | 13.38 | 1.5 | 1026 | 91.75 | 18.5 | 2 | 2100 | 2,3,17,19,2 4 |
| 26 | Vipera aspis | 74.1 | 19.7 | 14.16 | 0.69 | 1369 | 78 | 19.5 | 1 | 3000 | 15,22,24 |
| 27 | Vipera berus | 153.15 | 18.3 | 10.33 | 2 | 1551.5 | 94.33 | 19 | 1 | 3000 | 2,6,15,17,2 4 |
| 28 | Vipera latastei | 87 | 17.67 | 7.91 | 0.88 | 1156 | 90 | 9.7 | 1 | 3030 | 15,22,24 |
| 29 | Vipera renardi | 71.8 | 14.2 | 12.17 | 1.5 | 1095 | 105.6 | 7.5 | 1 | 2500 | 15 |
| 30 | Zamenis Iongissimus | 783.33 | 23.85 | 10.6 | 1 | 1460 | 60 | 20.33 | 2 | 1700 | 9,24 |
| 31 | Zamenis situla | 95.5 | 33.83 | 2.67 | 1 | 1824.5 | 48 | 23.5 | 2 | 1260 | 9,24 |
| 32 | Zootoca vivipara | 3.9 | 4.53 | 5.67 | 1 | 6.95 | 74 | 11 | 1 | 2400 | 3,17,19,23 |

Table 9.2 Comparison between measurements of adult weight (g) and weights estimated from length-weight allometries for the examined 32 squamate species. The devation (in %) between real and estimated body mass ranges from 2.80% and 91.80% (mean = 39.81%, SD = 24.92; median = 33.55%). All calculations were based on length-weight allometries established either by Meiri (2010) or Feldman and Meiri (2013). For the lizards we used the PGLM (phylogenetic general linear model) equation based on snout-vent-length (SVL): log10(mass) = ($3.053 \times (log10SVL)$) - 4.727. Only for the species Anguis fragilis, we used the PGLM equation for legless lizards: log10(mass) = ($2.232 \times (log10SVL)$) - 4.499. For body mass calculations in snakes we used the equation based on total length (TL): log10(mass) = ($2.443 \times ((log10TL))$) - 4.989.

| | Species | Adult weight (g) | Estimated adult weight (g) | Deviation (%) |
|----|-------------------------------|------------------|-------------------------------|---------------|
| 1 | Anguis fragilis | 14.00 | 6.28 | 55.18 |
| 2 | Coronella girondica | 50.22 | 79.65 | 58.61 |
| 3 | Eryx jaculus | 134.50 | 73.30 | 45.51 |
| 4 | Eublepharis macularius | 59.70 | 47.36 | 20.67 |
| 5 | Euleptes europaea | 1.50 | 1.35 | 9.96 |
| 6 | Gallotia atlantica | 12.80 | 9.34 | 27.02 |
| 7 | Gallotia galloti | 72.75 | 39.81 | 45.27 |
| 8 | Gallotia simonyi | 252.31 | 164.71 | 34.72 |
| 9 | Gallotia stehlini | 326.50 | 275.04 | 15.76 |
| 10 | Hemidactylus turcicus | 2.80 | 3.55 | 26.80 |
| 11 | Hemorrhois ravergieri | 157.75 | 299.27 | 89.71 |
| 12 | Lacerta agilis | 8.30 | 0.88 | 12.52 |
| 13 | Lacerta strigata | 20.60 | 26.68 | 29.52 |
| 14 | Macrovipera lebetina | 1037.83 | 387.61 | 62.65 |
| 15 | Malpolon monspessulanus | 649.92 | 271.39 | 58.24 |
| 16 | Natrix natrix | 190.16 | 299.12 | 57.30 |
| 17 | Phelsuma laticauda | 2.90 | 3.46 | 19.14 |
| 18 | Phelsuma lineata | 3.80 | 4.13 | 8.73 |
| 19 | Phelsuma madagascariensis | 20.70 | 20.12 | 2.81 |
| 20 | Phrynocephalus helioscopus | 6.90 | 4.08 | 40.93 |
| 21 | Podarcis muralis | 15.18 | 6.10 | 59.79 |
| 22 | Podarcis siculus | 10.75 | 12.42 | 15.58 |
| 23 | Ptyodactylus hasselquistii | 9.30 | 12.11 | 30.21 |
| 24 | Tarentola mauritanica | 7.30 | 11.42 | 56.42 |
| 25 | Timon lepidus | 213.28 | 144.23 | 32.38 |
| 26 | Vipera aspis | 74.10 | 129.96 | 75.38 |
| 27 | Vipera berus | 153.15 | 122.37 | 20.10 |
| 28 | Vipera latastei | 87.00 | 38.27 | 56.01 |
| 29 | Vipera renardi | 71.80 | 46.21 | 22.74 |
| 30 | Zamenis longissimus | 783.33 | 856.11 | 9.29 |
| 31 | Zamenis situla | 95.50 | 183.17 | 91.80 |
| 32 | Zootoca vivipara | 3.90 | 7.14 | 83.17 |

Table 9.3 Results of multiple, phylogenetic regression analyses (PGLS) with maximum altitude (m) and adult weight (g) as predictors of life-history traits. Phylogeny from Pyron & Burbrink (2013), Pyron et al. (2014). AIC = Akaike information criterion; λ = Pagels' lambda as measure of phylogenetic impact (Pagel 1991); data was on logarithmic scale (log10).

| Trait | Intercept | P-value | Max. altitude | P-value | Adult weight | P-value | λ | AIC |
|-----------------|--------------|---------|---------------|---------|--------------|---------|-------|--------|
| Birth size | -0.139±0.528 | 0.795 | 0.211±0.173 | 0.234 | 0.253±0.059 | <0.001 | 0.00 | 14.29 |
| Clutch size | -0.019±0.500 | 0.970 | 0.145±0.156 | 0.360 | 0.212±0.061 | 0.002 | 0.76 | 6.37 |
| Clutches p.a. | -0.046±0.474 | 0.923 | 0.065±0.145 | 0.658 | 0.033±0.059 | 0.581 | 0.94 | 5.25 |
| Female maturity | 3.017±0.384 | <0.001 | -0.086±0.116 | 0.465 | 0.099±0.048 | 0.046 | 0.98 | -6.33 |
| Incubation time | 1.536±0.268 | <0.001 | 0.090±0.091 | 0.330 | -0.011±0.026 | 0.683 | -0.13 | -20.94 |
| Max. longevity | 0.760±0.546 | 0.175 | 0.081±0.171 | 0.638 | 0.059±0.067 | 0.388 | 0.75 | 11.46 |



Figure 9.1 Phylogenetic principal component analysis (pPCA) with two global principal components (PC1/PC2) for 5 life-history traits of 300 squamate species. Dataset is taken from Scharf et al. (2014). Instead of direct measurements of adult weight (g), Scharf et al. (2014) used length-weight allometries to estimate the body mass of squamate species from snout-vent-length (SVL) or total length (TL). Axes are based on life-history traits of species. Arrows indicate loadings, thus the contribution of life-history traits to PC1 and PC2. The phylogenetic weight matrix was taken from the phylogeny of Pyron et al. (2013). Loadings of PC1: hatchling mass = 0.52, clutches pa = -0.47, clutch size = 0.37, maturity = 0.45, longevity = 0.41; loadings of PC2: hatchling mass = -0.12, clutches pa = -0.20, clutch size = 0.79, maturity = -0.30, longevity = -0.48.



Figure 9.2 Weight-adjusted principal component analysis (pPCA) with two global principal components (PC1/PC2) for life-history traits of 300 squamate species. Dataset is taken from Scharf et al. (2014). Instead of direct measurements of adult weight (g), Scharf et al. (2014) used length-weight allometries to calculate the body mass of squamate species from snout-vent-length (SVL, mm) or total length (TL, mm). Axes are based on life-history traits of species. Arrows indicate loadings, thus the contribution of life-history traits to PC1 and PC2. The phylogenetic weight matrix was taken from the phylogeny of Pyron et al. (2013). a) In this analysis life-history traits were analysed thereby correcting for body mass. Clutch size and clutches per year did mainly contribute to the PC2. This is due to the life history of the geckos, which lay 1 or 2 eggs but for multiple times per year (Rogner 1992; Rösler 1995; Bartlett and Bartlett 2006). Loadings of PC1: body mass=0.43, hatchling mass=-0.24, clutches pa=-0.45, clutch size=-0.45, maturity=0.48, longevity=0.57; loadings of PC2: hatchling mass=-0.04, clutches pa=-0.68, clutch size=0.68, maturity=0.28, longevity=0.04. b) Body mass was added as further trait to life-history traits. Loadings of PC1: body mass=-0.47, hatchling mass=-0.48, clutches pa=0.39, clutch size=0.34, maturity=-0.38, longevity=-0.35; loadings of PC2: body mass=-0.07, hatchling mass=-0.16, clutch size=-0.78, maturity=0.32, longevity=0.50. Clutches pa = number of clutches per annum (per year).

9.2 Appendix B (Kapitel 4)

Table 9.4 Allometric relations of life-history traits in reptiles based on generalized least square (GLS) fit regression and phylogenetic GLS regression (PGLS) of log_{10} -transformed data with adult weight as independent variable. Phylogeny based on a composite tree made up from different recently published phylogeness for the reptilian orders (see main text). df = degrees of freedom, Cl_i = confidence interval of intercept, Cl_s = confidence interval of slope, λ = Pagels' lambda as measure of phylogenetic impact (Pagel 1991).

| Trait | Statistics | Intercept | P-value | 95%Cl _i | Slope | P-value | 95%Cls | df | λ |
|------------------|------------|-----------|---------|--------------------|--------|---------|---------------|-----|------|
| | | | | | | | | | |
| Birth size TL | PGLS | 0.575 | <0.001 | 0.333, 0.817 | 0.129 | <0.001 | 0.080, 0.177 | 144 | 0.84 |
| | GLS | 0.801 | <0.001 | 0.694, 0.908 | 0.030 | 0.127 | -0.009, 0.069 | 145 | - |
| Birth weight | PGLS | -0.358 | 0.027 | -0.675, -0.041 | 0.411 | <0.001 | 0.318, 0.505 | 77 | 0.26 |
| | GLS | -0.400 | <0.001 | -0.605, -0.195 | 0.442 | <0.001 | 0.374, 0.511 | 77 | - |
| Clutch size | PGLS | 0.370 | 0.006 | 0.109, 0.631 | 0.234 | <0.001 | 0.185, 0.284 | 208 | 0.77 |
| | GLS | 0.311 | <0.001 | 0.214, 0.408 | 0.235 | <0.001 | 0.201, 0.269 | 211 | - |
| Clutches p.a. | PGLS | 0.287 | 0.012 | 0.065, 0.510 | -0.001 | 0.968 | -0.056, 0.054 | 134 | 0.67 |
| | GLS | 0.228 | <0.001 | 0.140, 0.315 | 0.003 | 0.862 | -0.034, 0.040 | 136 | - |
| Egg weight | PGLS | -0.343 | 0.029 | -0.650, -0.037 | 0.450 | <0.001 | 0.371, 0.529 | 61 | 0.85 |
| | GLS | -0.524 | <0.001 | -0.683, -0.366 | 0.520 | <0.001 | 0.475, 0.566 | 61 | - |
| Female maturity | PGLS | 2.820 | <0.001 | 2.661, 2.980 | 0.118 | <0.001 | 0.079, 0.157 | 119 | 0.55 |
| | GLS | 2.602 | <0.001 | 2.524, 2.680 | 0.197 | <0.001 | 0.170, 0.223 | 120 | - |
| Incubation time | PGLS | 1.817 | <0.001 | 1.670, 1.964 | 0.030 | 0.057 | -0.001, 0.061 | 174 | 0.72 |
| | GLS | 1.794 | <0.001 | 1.737, 1.850 | 0.041 | <0.001 | 0.022, 0.060 | 175 | - |
| Max. longevity | PGLS | 0.918 | <0.001 | 0.746, 1.090 | 0.127 | <0.001 | 0.095, 0.159 | 274 | 0.73 |
| | GLS | 0.853 | <0.001 | 0.792, 0.914 | 0.147 | <0.001 | 0.125, 0.169 | 279 | - |
| Size at maturity | PGLS | 0.751 | <0.001 | 0.459, 1.043 | 0.272 | <0.001 | 0.202, 0.343 | 53 | 0.93 |
| | GLS | 0.704 | <0.001 | 0.472, 0.935 | 0.295 | <0.001 | 0.227, 0.363 | 53 | - |

Table 9.5 Allometric relations of life-history traits in lizards based on generalized least square (GLS) fit regression and phylogenetic GLS regression (PGLS) of log10-transformed data with adult weight as independent variable. Phylogeny from Pyron & Burbrink (2014). df = degrees of freedom, Cli = confidence interval of intercept, Cls = confidence interval of slope, λ = Pagels' lambda as measure of phylogenetic impact (Pagel 1991).

| Trait | Statistics | Intercept | P-value | 95%Cl _i | Slope | P-value | 95%Cls | df | λ |
|------------------|------------|-----------|---------|--------------------|--------|---------|----------------|-----|-------|
| | | | | | | | | | |
| Birth size TL | PGLS | 0.722 | <0.001 | 0.366, 1.077 | 0.106 | 0.020 | 0.018, 0.195 | 63 | 1.04 |
| | GLS | 0.638 | <0.001 | 0.538, 0.739 | 0.169 | <0.001 | 0.094, 0.244 | 63 | - |
| Birth weight | PGLS | -0.725 | <0.001 | -1.039, -0.412 | 0.611 | <0.001 | 0.383, 0.839 | 27 | -0.09 |
| | GLS | -0.684 | 0.001 | -1.072, -0.296 | 0.578 | <0.001 | 0.333, 0.823 | 27 | - |
| Clutch size | PGLS | 0.465 | <0.001 | 0.230, 0.700 | 0.139 | 0.002 | 0.053, 0.224 | 88 | 0.58 |
| | GLS | 0.361 | <0.001 | 0.232, 0.490 | 0.201 | <0.001 | 0.122, 0.281 | 90 | - |
| Clutches p.a. | PGLS | 0.249 | 0.030 | 0.025, 0.473 | -0.022 | 0.679 | -0.127, 0.084 | 70 | 0.57 |
| | GLS | 0.407 | <0.001 | 0.267, 0.547 | -0.129 | 0.029 | -0.244, -0.013 | 71 | - |
| Egg weight | PGLS | -0.812 | <0.001 | -1.150, -0.473 | 0.662 | <0.001 | 0.509, 0.816 | 18 | 0.87 |
| | GLS | -0.740 | <0.001 | -0.944, -0.535 | 0.592 | <0.001 | 0.451, 0.734 | 18 | - |
| Female maturity | PGLS | 2.737 | <0.001 | 2.577, 2.898 | 0.085 | 0.010 | 0.021, 0.149 | 41 | 0.58 |
| | GLS | 2.637 | <0.001 | 2.539, 2.735 | 0.124 | <0.001 | 0.063, 0.184 | 41 | - |
| Incubation time | PGLS | 1.724 | <0.001 | 1.580, 1.869 | 0.068 | 0.012 | 0.016, 0.120 | 74 | 0.70 |
| | GLS | 1.765 | <0.001 | 1.697, 1.832 | 0.043 | 0.049 | 0.000, 0.085 | 74 | - |
| Max. longevity | PGLS | 0.827 | <0.001 | 0.672, 0.982 | 0.136 | <0.001 | 0.087, 0.186 | 124 | 0.70 |
| | GLS | 0.892 | <0.001 | 0.807, 0.976 | 0.098 | <0.001 | 0.062, 0.135 | 125 | - |
| Size at maturity | PGLS | 0.547 | 0.006 | 0.213, 0.881 | 0.253 | <0.001 | 0.110, 0.396 | 9 | 1.10 |
| | GLS | 0.471 | 0.006 | 0.188, 0.755 | 0.294 | 0.003 | 0.048, 0.540 | 9 | - |

Table 9.6 Allometry of life-history traits in snakes based on phylogenetically controlled GLS regression models (PGLS) and non-phylogenetic GLS regression models of log10-transformed data with adult weight as independent variable. Phylogeny from Pyron & Burbrink (2014). df = degrees of freedom, Cl_i = confidence interval of intercept, Cl_s = confidence interval of slope, λ = Pagels' lambda as measure of phylogenetic impact (Pagel 1991).

| Trait | Statistics | Intercept | P- value | 95%Cl _i | Slope | P-value | 95%Cl _s | df | λ |
|------------------|------------|-----------|-------------|--------------------|-------|---------|--------------------|-----|-------|
| | | | | | | | | | |
| Birth size TL | PGLS | 0.844 | 0.007 | 0.251, 1.436 | 0.202 | 0.009 | 0.056, 0.349 | 28 | 1.05 |
| | GLS | 0.816 | <0.001 | 0.579, 1.053 | 0.199 | <0.001 | 0.106, 0.292 | 29 | - |
| Birth weight | PGLS | -0.117 | 0.539 | -0.519, 0.284 | 0.398 | <0.001 | 0.240, 0.558 | 15 | 0.40 |
| | GLS | -0.077 | 0.650 | -0.433, 0.279 | 0.377 | <0.001 | 0.226, 0.528 | 16 | - |
| Clutch size | PGLS | 0.522 | 0.023 | 0.075, 0.969 | 0.243 | <0.001 | 0.154, 0.332 | 48 | 0.93 |
| | GLS | 0.553 | <0.001 | 0.357, 0.749 | 0.211 | <0.001 | 0.137, 0.285 | 49 | - |
| Clutches p.a. | PGLS | -0.011 | 0.892 | -0.174, 0.153 | 0.013 | 0.719 | -0.061, 0.087 | 28 | 0.09 |
| | GLS | -0.010 | 0.899 | -0.165, 0.146 | 0.012 | 0.737 | -0.059, 0.082 | 29 | - |
| Egg weight | PGLS | -0.081 | 0.751 | -0.638, 0.476 | 0.433 | 0.002 | 0.201, 0.666 | 11 | -0.44 |
| | GLS | 0.004 | 0.988 | -0.598, 0.606 | 0.401 | 0.005 | 0.155, 0.646 | 11 | - |
| Female maturity | PGLS | 2.814 | <0.001 | 2.662, 2.966 | 0.089 | 0.005 | 0.028, 0.151 | 39 | -0.01 |
| | GLS | 2.814 | <0.001 | 2.660, 2.968 | 0.088 | 0.006 | 0.026, 0.149 | 40 | - |
| Incubation time | PGLS | 1.775 | <0.001 | 1.485, 2.065 | 0.059 | 0.142 | -0.021, 0.138 | 32 | 0.83 |
| | GLS | 1.664 | <0.001 | 1.457, 1.871 | 0.086 | 0.023 | 0.013, 0.159 | 33 | - |
| Max. longevity | PGLS | 1.002 | <0.001 | 0.805, 1.198 | 0.106 | <0.001 | 0.055, 0.158 | 99 | 0.70 |
| | GLS | 0.851 | <0.001 | 0.743, 0.960 | 0.155 | <0.001 | 0.111, 0.199 | 103 | - |
| Size at maturity | PGLS | 1.107 | <0.001 | 0.771, 1.444 | 0.272 | 0.001 | 0.130, 0.414 | 16 | -0.08 |
| - | GLS | 1.139 | <0.001 | 0.791, 1.487 | 0.260 | 0.002 | 0.114, 0.406 | 16 | - |

| Trait | Statistics | Intercept | P-value | Cli | Slope | P-value | Cls | df | λ |
|------------------|------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------|---------|----------------|----|-------|
| Birth size TL | PGLS | - | _ | - | - | - | - | 6 | - |
| | GLS | - | - | - | - | - | - | 6 | - |
| Birth weight | PGLS | - | - | - | - | - | - | 4 | - |
| | GLS | - | - | - | - | - | - | 4 | - |
| Clutch size | PGLS | -0.655 | 0.142 | -1.547, 0.238 | 0.461 | <0.001 | 0.268, 0.653 | 22 | 0.70 |
| | GLS | -0.152 | 0.684 | -0.922, 0.618 | 0.348 | <0.001 | 0.180, 0.515 | 22 | - |
| Clutches p.a. | PGLS | - | - | - | - | - | - | 2 | - |
| | GLS | - | - | - | - | - | - | 2 | - |
| Egg weight | PGLS | 0.347 | 0.158 | -0.147, 0.841 | 0.350 | <0.001 | 0.246, 0.453 | 22 | 0.95 |
| | GLS | 0.609 | 0.010 | 0.177, 1.042 | 0.295 | <0.001 | 0.201, 0.389 | 22 | - |
| Female maturity | PGLS | 2.825 | <0.001 | 1.934, 3.716 | 0.154 | 0.110 | -0.039, 0.347 | 17 | -0.10 |
| | GLS | 2.756 | <0.001 | 1.725, 3.786 | 0.171 | 0.130 | -0.057, 0.398 | 17 | - |
| Incubation time | PGLS | 2.198 | <0.001 | 1.715, 2.681 | -0.064 | 0.203 | -0.166, 0.038 | 22 | 0.93 |
| | GLS | 2.331 | <0.001 | 1.924, 2.739 | -0.093 | 0.041 | -0.182, -0.004 | 22 | - |
| Max. longevity | PGLS | 1.683 | 0.006 | 0.553, 2.813 | -0.026 | 0.822 | -0.267, 0.214 | 21 | 0.87 |
| | GLS | 1.513 | 0.006 | 0.490, 2.535 | -0.003 | 0.980 | -0.225, 0.220 | 21 | - |
| Size at maturity | PGLS | 1.053 | <0.001 | 0.662, 1.444 | 0.273 | <0.001 | 0.192, 0.355 | 11 | -0.28 |
| | GLS | 0.868 | <0.001 | 0.302, 1.433 | 0.309 | <0.001 | 0.190. 0.429 | 11 | - |

Table 9.7 Allometry of life history traits of the crocodiles based on phylogenetically controlled GLS regressions of log10-transformed data with adult weight as independent variable. Phylogeny from Oaks (2011). df = degrees of freedom. CI_i = confidence interval of intercept, CI_s = confidence interval of slope, λ = Pagels' lambda as measure of phylogenetic impact (Pagel 1991).

| Trait | Statistics | Intercept | p-value | Cli | Slope | p-value | Cls | df | λ |
|--------------------|------------|-----------|---------|----------------|--------|---------|---------------|----|-------|
| | | | | | | | | | |
| Birth size TL | PGLS | 0.205 | 0.044 | 0.007, 0.405 | 0.098 | <0.001 | 0.069, 0.128 | 47 | 0.90 |
| | GLS | 0.323 | <0.001 | 0.216, 0.430 | 0.076 | <0.001 | 0.048, 0.104 | 47 | - |
| Birth weight | PGLS | 0.347 | 0.225 | -0.226, 0.920 | 0.207 | <0.001 | 0.130, 0.284 | 30 | 0.97 |
| | GLS | 0.600 | 0.002 | 0.250, 0.949 | 0.176 | <0.001 | 0.085, 0.267 | 30 | - |
| Clutch size | PGLS | 0.315 | 0.391 | -0.417, 1.047 | 0.311 | <0.001 | 0.214, 0.408 | 49 | 0.94 |
| | GLS | -0.844 | <0.001 | -1.258, -0.430 | 0.498 | <0.001 | 0.387, 0.609 | 49 | - |
| Clutches p.a. | PGLS | 0.242 | 0.067 | -0.018, 0.501 | 0.054 | 0.150 | -0.021, 0.129 | 33 | -0.16 |
| | GLS | 0.160 | 0.318 | -0.161, 0.481 | 0.056 | 0.190 | -0.029, 0.142 | 33 | - |
| Egg weight | PGLS | 0.737 | 0.056 | -0.023, 1.497 | 0.136 | 0.082 | -0.022, 0.293 | 10 | 1.09 |
| | GLS | 0.381 | 0.240 | -0.311, 1.072 | 0.232 | 0.012 | 0.067, 0.397 | 10 | - |
| Female maturity | PGLS | 3.315 | <0.001 | 2.982, 3.647 | 0.048 | 0.235 | -0.034, 0.131 | 22 | 0.05 |
| | GLS | 3.362 | <0.001 | 3.039, 3.684 | 0.037 | 0.365 | -0.047, 0.121 | 22 | - |
| Incubation time | PGLS | 1.826 | <0.001 | 1.374, 2.279 | -0.005 | 0.895 | -0.065, 0.056 | 46 | 0.95 |
| | GLS | 2.253 | <0.001 | 1.991, 2.514 | -0.061 | 0.083 | -0.131, 0.008 | 46 | - |
| Max. longevity | PGLS | 1.246 | <0.001 | 0.762, 1.730 | 0.077 | 0.131 | -0.023, 0.177 | 28 | 0.32 |
| | GLS | 1.351 | <0.001 | 0.986, 1.717 | 0.073 | 0.122 | -0.020, 1.68 | 28 | - |
| Size at maturity | PGLS | 0.809 | 0.003 | 0.312, 1.306 | 0.210 | <0.001 | 0.107, 0.312 | 17 | 1.02 |
| | GLS | 0.219 | 0.270 | -0.188, 0.627 | 0.328 | <0.001 | 0.226, 0.430 | 17 | - |

Table 9.8 Allometry of life history traits of the turtles based on phylogenetically controlled GLS regressions of log10-transformed data with adult weight as independent variable. Phylogeny from Guillon et al. (2012). df = degrees of freedom. CI_i = confidence interval of intercept, CI_s = confidence interval of slope, λ = Pagels' lambda as measure of phylogenetic impact (Pagel 1991).

| Trait | Statistics | Intercept | p-value | Cli | Slope | p-value | Cls | df | λ |
|------------------|------------|-----------|---------|----------------|--------|---------|----------------|-----|-------|
| | | | | | | | | | |
| Birth size TL | PGLS | 0.645 | <0.001 | 0.483, 0.806 | 0.191 | <0.001 | 0.128, 0.254 | 91 | 0.39 |
| | GLS | 0.598 | <0.001 | 0.510, 0.687 | 0.248 | <0.001 | 0.199, 0.297 | 92 | - |
| Birth weight | PGLS | -0.696 | <0.001 | -0.959, -0.433 | 0.626 | <0.001 | 0.488, 0.764 | 42 | -0.06 |
| | GLS | -0.657 | <0.001 | -0.952, -0.363 | 0.594 | <0.001 | 0.440, 0.748 | 43 | - |
| Clutch size | PGLS | 0.404 | <0.001 | 0.190, 0.617 | 0.179 | <0.001 | 0.116, 0.243 | 137 | 0.68 |
| | GLS | 0.337 | <0.001 | 0.232, 0.441 | 0.257 | <0.001 | 0.206, 0.309 | 140 | - |
| Clutches p.a. | PGLS | 0.189 | 0.047 | 0.002, 0.375 | -0.009 | 0.810 | -0.086, 0.067 | 99 | 0.63 |
| | GLS | 0.393 | <0.001 | 0.286, 0.500 | -0.146 | <0.001 | -0.215, -0.078 | 101 | - |
| Egg weight | PGLS | -0.636 | <0.001 | -0.944, -0.328 | 0.587 | <0.001 | 0.457, 0.717 | 29 | 0.70 |
| | GLS | -0.753 | <0.001 | -0.949, -0.556 | 0.665 | <0.001 | 0.561, 0.769 | 29 | - |
| Female maturity | PGLS | 2.735 | <0.001 | 2.613, 2.860 | 0.090 | <0.001 | 0.045, 0.135 | 80 | 0.41 |
| | GLS | 2.663 | <0.001 | 2.583, 2.742 | 0.134 | <0.001 | 0.097, 0.172 | 81 | - |
| Incubation time | PGLS | 1.738 | <0.001 | 1.596, 1.880 | 0.063 | 0.006 | 0.018, 0.107 | 106 | 0.73 |
| | GLS | 1.750 | <0.001 | 1.690, 1.810 | 0.054 | 0.001 | 0.025, 0.083 | 107 | - |
| Max. longevity | PGLS | 0.877 | <0.001 | 0.733, 1.021 | 0.121 | <0.001 | 0.086, 0.156 | 225 | 0.77 |
| | GLS | 0.886 | <0.001 | 0.820, 0.952 | 0.121 | <0.001 | 0.093, 0.149 | 230 | - |
| Size at maturity | PGLS | 0.741 | <0.001 | 0.392, 1.091 | 0.262 | <0.001 | 0.127, 0.397 | 25 | 0.97 |
| | GLS | 0.239 | 0.047 | 0.003, 0.475 | 0.614 | <0.001 | 0.498, 0.731 | 25 | - |

Table 9.9 Allometric relations of life-history traits for the order squamata (lizards, snakes and amphisbaenians) based on phylogenetic regression models of log10-transformed data with adult weight as independent variable. Phylogeny from Pyron & Burbrink (2014). df = degrees of freedom. $Cl_i = confidence$ interval of intercept, $Cl_s = confidence$ interval of slope, $\lambda = Pagels'$ lambda as measure of phylogenetic impact (Pagel 1991).

Table 9.10 Life history and adult weight data of 369 reptile species. Order: C = Crocodilia, S = Squamata, T = Testudines, R = Rhynchocephalia. Squamata group: 1 = lizards, 2 = snakes, 3 = amphisbaenians. Units of traits: adult weight = g, birth size = cm, birth weight = g, egg weight = g, female maturity = days, incubation time = days, max. altitude = m, max. longevity = years, size at maturity = cm. NA = not available.

| Species | Adult weight | Birth size | Birth weight | Clutch size | Clutches pa | Egg weight | Female maturity | Incubation time | Max altitude | Max longevity | Size at maturity | Order | Squamata_grou p | Family | Genus | Infraorder/Super family | References |
|--------------------------------|--------------|------------|--------------|-------------|-------------|------------|-----------------|-----------------|--------------|---------------|------------------|-------|--------------------|------------|-----------------|----------------------------|------------|
| Ablepharus kitaibelii | 0.6 | NA | NA | 3 | 1 | NA | 810 | 65 | 800 | 3.25 | NA | S | 1 | Scincidae | Ablepharus | Scincomorpha | 6,18 |
| Acanthocercus atricollis | 121.5 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 6 | NA | S | 1 | Agamidae | Acanthocercus | Iguania | 1,18 |
| Acanthodactyl us erythrurus | 8.7 | 6.85 | NA | 4.5 | 1.25 | NA | 905 | 73 | 1900 | NA | NA | S | 1 | Lacertidae | Acanthodactylus | Scincomorpha | 6,18 |
| Acanthophis antarcticus | 252 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 9.3 | NA | S | 2 | Elapidae | Acanthophis | Colubroidea | 1,19 |
| Agama impalearis | 100 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 6 | NA | S | 1 | Agamidae | Agama | Iguania | 1,18 |
| Agkistrodon bilineatus | 51.1 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 24.3 | NA | S | 2 | Viperidae | Agkistrodon | Colubroidea | 1,19 |
| Agkistrodon contortrix | 258.6 | NA | NA | 7.5 | NA | NA | 730 | 117 | NA | 29.4 | NA | S | 2 | Viperidae | Agkistrodon | Colubroidea | 1,4,19 |

168

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | - |
|-----------------------------------|-------|-----------|-------|-----------|----|------|------------|----|------|-------|-----|---|---|----------------|---------------|--------------|----------------|
| Agkistrodon piscivorus | 204 | NA | NA | 8 | NA | NA | 1095 | NA | NA | 24.5 | NA | S | 2 | Viperidae | Agkistrodon | Colubroidea | 1,5,19 |
| Algyroides moreoticus | 3.2 | 22 | NA | NA | 1 | NA | NA | NA | 1000 | NA | NA | S | 1 | Lacertidae | Algyroides | Scincomorpha | 6,18 |
| Alligator mississippiensi s | 47800 | 23.3 9 | 44.37 | 42.7 | NA | 76.6 | 4015 | 60 | NA | 73.1 | 180 | С | 0 | Alligatoridae | Alligator | NA | 1,3,4 |
| Alligator sinensis | 14600 | NA | NA | 25.7 | NA | 48.2 | 1642. 5 | 70 | 100 | 60.7 | NA | С | 0 | Alligatoridae | Alligator | NA | 1,2,3 |
| Alsophylax pipiens | 1.5 | 2.65 | NA | 1.5 | 1 | NA | 600 | NA | NA | NA | NA | S | 1 | Gekkonidae | Alsophylax | Gekkota | 6,18 |
| Amblyrhynchu s cristatus | 3000 | NA | NA | 3.5 | NA | NA | NA | 95 | NA | 9.2 | NA | S | 1 | Iguanidae | Amblyrhynchus | Iguania | 1,4,18 |
| Ameiva ameiva | 107.9 | NA | NA | 5.5 | NA | NA | NA | 75 | NA | 4.6 | NA | S | 1 | Teiidae | Ameiva | Scincomorpha | 1,4,18 |
| Amphisbaena alba | 210 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 15.1 | NA | S | 3 | Amphisbaenidae | Amphisbaena | Amphisbaenia | 1,18 |
| Anguis fragilis | 14 | 8 | NA | 12.2 5 | 1 | NA | 1825 | 84 | NA | 44.33 | NA | S | 1 | Anguidae | Anguis | Diploglossa | 1,4,5,6, 18 |
| Anniella pulchra | 4.7 | NA | NA | 2.5 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | S | 1 | Anniellidae | Anniella | Diploglossa | 5,18 |
| Anolis carolinensis | 2.3 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 7.2 | NA | S | 1 | Dactyloidae | Anolis | Iguania | 1,18 |

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 170 |
|---------------------------------|-------|-----|----|------|-----|----|----|-----|----|------|----|---|---|----------------|--------------|---------------|--------------|
| Anolis equestris | 56 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 16.5 | NA | S | 1 | Dactyloidae | Anolis | Iguania | 1,18 |
| Arizona elegans | 161 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 19.1 | NA | S | 2 | Colubridae | Arizona | Colubroidea | 1,19 |
| Aspidelaps scutatus | 75.7 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 13.5 | NA | S | 2 | Elapidae | Aspidelaps | Colubroidea | 1,19 |
| Aspidites melanocephal us | 1362 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 22.6 | NA | S | 2 | Pythonidae | Aspidites | Pythonoidea | 1,19 |
| Aspidoscelis tigris | 15.5 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 7.8 | NA | S | 1 | Teiidae | Aspidoscelis | Scincomorpha | 1,18 |
| Astrochelys radiata | 7700 | 3.6 | 30 | 5.1 | 5.5 | NA | NA | 188 | NA | NA | NA | т | 0 | Testudinidae | Astrochelys | Testudinoidea | 1,42,43 |
| Astrochelys yniphora | 8000 | 4.4 | 25 | 4 | 7 | NA | NA | 217 | NA | NA | NA | т | 0 | Testudinidae | Astrochelys | Testudinoidea | 42,43 |
| Atractaspis bibronii | 34.3 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 23.9 | NA | S | 2 | Lamprophiidae | Atractaspis | Henophidia | 1,19 |
| Basiliscus plumifrons | 250 | NA | NA | 10.5 | NA | NA | NA | 60 | NA | 13.7 | NA | S | 1 | Corytophanidae | Basiliscus | Iguania | 1,4 |
| Basiliscus vittatus | 70 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 9.1 | NA | S | 1 | Corytophanidae | Basiliscus | Iguania | 1,18 |
| Bitis arietans | 743.3 | NA | NA | 79 | NA | NA | NA | 105 | NA | 15.8 | NA | S | 2 | Viperidae | Bitis | Colubroidea | 1,4,5,1 9 |

| Bitis gabonica | 4023.7 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 18 | NA | S | 2 | Viperidae | Bitis | Colubroidea | 1,5,19 |
|------------------------------|--------|-----------|----|----|----|----|------|-----|------|------|----|---|---|------------|--------------|--------------|--------|
| Bitis peringueyi | 8.6 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | S | 2 | Viperidae | Bitis | Colubroidea | 5,19 |
| Blanus cinereus | 6 | NA | NA | 1 | 1 | NA | NA | NA | 1400 | 16 | NA | S | 3 | Blanidae | Blanus | Amphisbaenia | 1,6,18 |
| Boa constrictor | 3532 | NA | NA | 35 | NA | NA | 1095 | 125 | NA | 40.4 | NA | S | 2 | Boidae | Воа | Booidea | 1,5,19 |
| Bogertophis subocularis | 213.4 | NA | NA | 5 | NA | NA | 730 | NA | NA | 23.8 | NA | S | 2 | Colubridae | Bogertophis | Colubroidea | 1,19 |
| Boiga cynodon | 417.3 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 9.6 | NA | S | 2 | Colubridae | Boiga | Colubroidea | 1,19 |
| Boiga dendrophila | 182 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 17 | NA | S | 2 | Colubridae | Boiga | Colubroidea | 1,19 |
| Boiga irregularis | 146.9 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 13.1 | NA | S | 2 | Colubridae | Boiga | Colubroidea | 1,19 |
| Bothriechis schlegelii | 102 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 19.5 | NA | S | 2 | Viperidae | Bothriechis | Colubroidea | 1,19 |
| Brachylophus fasciatus | 162 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 5.9 | NA | S | 1 | Iguanidae | Brachylophus | Iguania | 1,5,18 |
| Broghammeru s reticulatus | 32000 | 68.5 8 | NA | 80 | NA | NA | 2008 | 90 | NA | 29.4 | NA | S | 2 | Pythonidae | Broghammerus | Pythonoidea | 1 |

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 172 |
|--------------------------|--------|------|------|-----------|------|-------|------|----|------|------|------|---|---|---------------|-------------|--------------|--------------|
| Caiman crocodilus | 10900 | NA | NA | 24.4 | NA | 62.9 | 2190 | 84 | 800 | 24.1 | NA | С | 0 | Alligatoridae | Caiman | NA | 1,3,25 |
| Caiman Iatirostris | 14600 | NA | 30 | 31.4 | NA | 76.2 | 1825 | 70 | 600 | 22 | NA | С | 0 | Alligatoridae | Caiman | NA | 1,3,25 |
| Callopistes maculatus | 77.4 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | S | 1 | Teiidae | Callopistes | Scincomorpha | 5,18 |
| Calotes versicolor | 23.8 | NA | NA | 15 | NA | NA | NA | 46 | NA | 5 | NA | S | 1 | Agamidae | Calotes | Iguania | 1,4,18 |
| Candoia aspera | 293 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 9.9 | NA | S | 2 | Boidae | Candoia | Booidea | 1,19 |
| Candoia bibroni | 45.2 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 16.9 | NA | S | 2 | Boidae | Candoia | Booidea | 1,19 |
| Candoia carinata | 93 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 16.6 | NA | S | 2 | Boidae | Candoia | Booidea | 1,19 |
| Caretta caretta | 350250 | 5.08 | 16.1 | 97.7 3 | 2.03 | 34.22 | 3650 | 61 | NA | 37.6 | 88.4 | т | 0 | Cheloniidae | Caretta | Chelonioidea | 1,4,5,1 4 |
| Causus rhombeatus | 94.8 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 6.6 | NA | S | 2 | Viperidae | Causus | Colubroidea | 1,19 |
| Cerastes cerastes | 186.6 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 18 | NA | S | 2 | Viperidae | Cerastes | Colubroidea | 1,19 |
| Chalcides bedriagai | 7 | 4.33 | NA | 2.5 | 1 | NA | NA | NA | 1100 | 4.5 | NA | S | 1 | Scincidae | Chalcides | Scincomorpha | 6,18 |

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 173 |
|---------------------------|--------|------|-------|-----------|------|------|------|-------|-------------|-------|----|---|---|--------------------|-------------|--------------|--------------|
| Chalcides chalcides | 18.8 | 9.4 | NA | 8 | 1 | NA | 730 | NA | 1523.3 3 | NA | NA | S | 1 | Scincidae | Chalcides | Scincomorpha | 5,6,18 |
| Chalcides ocellatus | 25 | NA | NA | 8.75 | 1 | NA | NA | 63.67 | 2500 | 13.5 | NA | S | 1 | Scincidae | Chalcides | Scincomorpha | 1,6,18 |
| Chalcides sexlineatus | 6.85 | 7.89 | 0.45 | 3.75 | 1 | NA | NA | NA | 1949 | NA | NA | S | 1 | Scincidae | Chalcides | Scincomorpha | 10,18 |
| Chalcides viridanus | 8.5 | 7.37 | 0.96 | 3.25 | 1 | NA | 730 | 89 | 2800 | NA | NA | S | 1 | Scincidae | Chalcides | Scincomorpha | 10 |
| Chamaeleo chamaeleon | 36.3 | 4.95 | NA | 35 | 1 | NA | NA | 255 | NA | 3.6 | NA | S | 1 | Chamaeleonida e | Chamaeleo | Iguania | 1,6,18 |
| Chamaeleo dilepis | 13.2 | NA | NA | 30 | NA | NA | NA | 90 | NA | 4 | NA | S | 1 | Chamaeleonida e | Chamaeleo | Iguania | 1,5,18 |
| Chamaeleo jacksonii | 37.5 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 8.2 | NA | S | 1 | Chamaeleonida e | Chamaeleo | Iguania | 1,18 |
| Chamaeleo namaquensis | 58.1 | NA | NA | 14 | 3 | NA | NA | 105 | NA | NA | NA | S | 1 | Chamaeleonida e | Chamaelao | Iguania | 1,18 |
| Chamaesaura macrolepis | 11.6 | NA | NA | 3 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | S | 1 | Cordylidae | Chamaesaura | Scincomorpha | 5,18 |
| Charina bottae | 39.8 | 19 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 26.5 | NA | S | 2 | Boidae | Charina | Booidea | 1,5,19 |
| Chelonia mydas | 205400 | 5.01 | 26.35 | 114. 8 | 3.33 | 47.5 | 6479 | 62.5 | NA | 50.96 | 99 | Т | 0 | Cheloniidae | Chelonia | Chelonioidea | 1,4,5,1 4 |

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 174 |
|-------------------------------|-------------|------|----|-----|----|----|------|-------|------|-------|-------|---|---|--------------|---------------------|---------------|-----------------|
| Chelonoidis carbonaria | 3961 | 4.2 | 30 | 8.5 | NA | NA | NA | 150 | NA | 49 | NA | т | 0 | Testudinidae | Chelonoidis | Testudinoidea | 1,20,43 |
| Chelonoidis chilensis | 2640 | 5.5 | NA | 4 | 3 | NA | 4380 | 365 | 1000 | NA | NA | Т | 0 | Testudinidae | Chelonoidis | Testudinoidea | 30,43 |
| Chelonoidis denticulata | 9800 | 5.35 | 40 | 6 | NA | NA | NA | 135 | NA | NA | NA | т | 0 | Testudinidae | Chelonoidis | Testudinoidea | 1,39,43 |
| Chelonoidis nigra | 184000 | 6 | 50 | 6 | NA | NA | NA | 152.5 | NA | 177.2 | NA | т | 0 | Testudinidae | Chelonoidis | Testudinoidea | 1,40,43 |
| Chelydra serpentina | 29562. 5 | 2.75 | 9 | 25 | 1 | 10 | 3285 | 100 | NA | 47 | 141.5 | т | 0 | Chelydridae | Chelydra | NA | 1,5 |
| Chersina angulata | 760 | 3.45 | 12 | NA | 1 | NA | NA | 180 | 900 | NA | NA | Т | 0 | Testudinidae | Chersina | Testudinoidea | 28,30,4 9,43 |
| Chitra indica | 112500 | 4.1 | NA | 118 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | т | 0 | Trionychidae | Chitra | Trionychoidea | 5 |
| Chlamydosaur us kingii | 635 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 9.9 | NA | S | 1 | Agamidae | Chlamydosauru s | Iguania | 1,18 |
| Chondrodactyl us angulifer | 15.7 | 6.7 | NA | 1.5 | 1 | NA | NA | 72 | NA | 10.8 | NA | S | 1 | Gekkonidae | Chondrodactylu s | Gekkota | 1,15,17 ,18 |
| Christinus marmoratus | 3.7 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 12.8 | NA | S | 1 | Gekkonidae | Christinus | Gekkota | 1,18 |
| Chrysemys picta | 371.8 | 2.54 | NA | 11 | 4 | NA | 2750 | 74 | NA | 40.5 | 10.5 | т | 0 | Emydidae | Chrysemys | Testudinoidea | 1,4 |

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 175 |
|----------------------------|-------|-----------|----|-----------|------|------|------------|------|------|------|----|---|---|------------|------------|--------------|------|
| Clelia clelia | 2050 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 11.5 | NA | S | 2 | Colubridae | Clelia | Colubroidea | 1,19 |
| Coluber constrictor | 121 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 10 | NA | S | 2 | Colubridae | Coluber | Colubroidea | 1,19 |
| Conolophus pallidus | 4200 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 17.1 | NA | S | 1 | Iguanidae | Conolophus | Iguania | 1,18 |
| Conolophus subcristatus | 7000 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 15 | NA | S | 1 | Iguanidae | Conolophus | Iguania | 1,18 |
| Corallus caninus | 586.5 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 18.6 | NA | S | 2 | Boidae | Corallus | Booidea | 1,19 |
| Corallus hortulanus | 207 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 15 | NA | S | 2 | Boidae | Corallus | Booidea | 1,19 |
| Cordylus cataphractus | 5400 | NA | NA | 1.5 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 20.2 | NA | S | 1 | Cordylidae | Cordylus | Scincomorpha | 1,4 |
| Cordylus cordylus | 17.3 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 15.6 | NA | S | 1 | Cordylidae | Cordylus | Scincomorpha | 1,18 |
| Cordylus giganteus | 131.2 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 24.9 | NA | S | 1 | Cordylidae | Cordylus | Scincomorpha | 1,18 |
| Coronella austriaca | 140 | 20.5 | 3 | 13.1 7 | 0.83 | NA | 1460. 5 | 140 | 2600 | NA | 45 | S | 2 | Colubridae | Coronella | Colubroidea | 5,9 |
| Coronella girondica | 50.22 | 15.0 2 | NA | 6.86 | 1 | 3.52 | 1460 | 47.5 | 3200 | 14 | NA | S | 2 | Colubridae | Coronella | Colubroidea | 9,19 |

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 176 |
|----------------------------|--------|-----------|----|------|-----|------------|------------|-------|-----|------|-------|---|---|----------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| Corucia zebrata | 1013.7 | 30.4 8 | NA | 1.5 | 0.5 | NA | 1095 | NA | NA | 24.3 | NA | S | 1 | Scincidae | Corucia | Scincomorpha | 1,4,5,1 8 |
| Corytophanes cristatus | 43.4 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 7.1 | NA | S | 1 | Corytophanidae | Corytophanes | Iguania | 1,18 |
| Crocodylus acutus | 76700 | 25 | NA | 35.6 | NA | 112.8 | 3285 | 66.5 | NA | 32.9 | 210 | С | 0 | Crocodylidae | Crocodylus | NA | 1,2,3 |
| Crocodylus intermedius | 107900 | NA | NA | 39.8 | NA | 110.4 | NA | 70 | NA | 21.8 | NA | С | 0 | Crocodylidae | Crocodylus | NA | 1,2,3 |
| Crocodylus johnstoni | 19500 | NA | 42 | 12.4 | NA | 68 | 4562. 5 | 80 | NA | 20 | 118.5 | С | 0 | Crocodylidae | Crocodylus | NA | 1,3 |
| Crocodylus mindorensis | 36900 | NA | NA | 18.3 | NA | 73.6 | NA | 85 | NA | NA | NA | С | 0 | Crocodylidae | Crocodylus | NA | 2,3 |
| Crocodylus moreletii | 31700 | NA | NA | 30.2 | NA | 79.5 | 2555 | 75 | NA | 25.4 | NA | С | 0 | Crocodylidae | Crocodylus | NA | 1,2,3 |
| Crocodylus niloticus | 94200 | NA | NA | 47.6 | NA | 107.1 | 4927. 5 | 90 | NA | 43.8 | 250 | С | 0 | Crocodylidae | Crocodylus | NA | 1,2,3 |
| Crocodylus novaeguineae | 39900 | 29 | NA | 29.4 | NA | 85.15 | NA | 87 | 600 | 24.6 | 205 | С | 0 | Crocodylidae | Crocodylus | NA | 1,2,3,2 5 |
| Crocodylus palustris | 42700 | 25 | NA | 41.7 | 1 | 99.5 | 2190 | 72.5 | 700 | 31.5 | 222.5 | С | 0 | Crocodylidae | Crocodylus | NA | 1,2,3,5 |
| Crocodylus porosus | 78700 | NA | 72 | 58.9 | NA | 117.3 5 | 3650 | 87.38 | NA | 41.7 | 285 | С | 0 | Crocodylidae | Crocodylus | NA | 1,2,3,4 |

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 177 |
|-------------------------|-------------|----|----|------|----|-------|------|-------|----|------|----|---|---|--------------|------------|-------------|--------|
| Crocodylus rhombifer | 57500 | NA | NA | 25.4 | NA | 112 | NA | 64 | NA | 38.2 | NA | С | 0 | Crocodylidae | Crocodylus | NA | 1,2,3 |
| Crocodylus siamensis | 42500 | NA | NA | 28.4 | NA | 106.9 | 3650 | 73.75 | NA | 21.9 | NA | С | 0 | Crocodylidae | Crocodylus | NA | 1,2,3 |
| Crotalus atrox | 1000 | NA | NA | 14 | NA | NA | 1095 | NA | NA | 27 | NA | S | 2 | Viperidae | Crotalus | Colubroidea | 1,19 |
| Crotalus cerastes | 104.79 | NA | NA | 11.5 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 27.3 | NA | S | 2 | Viperidae | Crotalus | Colubroidea | 1,4,19 |
| Crotalus durissus | 2115.3 8 | NA | 14 | 20.5 | NA | NA | 1095 | 120 | NA | 19.8 | NA | S | 2 | Viperidae | Crotalus | Colubroidea | 1,5,19 |
| Crotalus horridus | 581.9 | NA | NA | 9 | NA | NA | 2555 | 135 | NA | 30.2 | NA | S | 2 | Viperidae | Crotalus | Colubroidea | 1,19 |
| Crotalus molossus | 438.4 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 20.7 | NA | S | 2 | Viperidae | Crotalus | Colubroidea | 1,19 |
| Crotalus pricei | 62.6 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 15.7 | NA | S | 2 | Viperidae | Crotalus | Colubroidea | 1,19 |
| Crotalus ruber | 285 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 19.2 | NA | S | 2 | Viperidae | Crotalus | Colubroidea | 1,19 |
| Crotalus viridis | 318.3 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 24.1 | NA | S | 2 | Viperidae | Crotalus | Colubroidea | 1,19 |
| Ctenosaura bakeri | 399.4 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 13.8 | NA | S | 1 | Iguanidae | Ctenosaura | Iguania | 1,18 |

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 0 |
|-----------------------------|--------|-----|-----|-----|-----|----|-----|-----|------|------|----|---|---|------------|---------------|-------------|--------|
| Ctenosaura hemilopha | 2800 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 9.6 | NA | S | 1 | Iguanidae | Ctenosaura | Iguania | 1,18 |
| Ctenosaura pectinata | 961.4 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 8.2 | NA | S | 1 | Iguanidae | Ctenosaura | Iguania | 1,18 |
| Ctenosaura similis | 1034 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 22.4 | NA | S | 1 | Iguanidae | Ctenosaura | Iguania | 1,18 |
| Cyclura cornuta | 4134.5 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 22.9 | NA | S | 1 | Iguanidae | Cyclura | Iguania | 1,18 |
| Cyclura cychlura | 10380 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 23.4 | NA | S | 1 | Iguanidae | Cyclura | Iguania | 1,18 |
| Cyclura nubila | 4100 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 47.6 | NA | S | 1 | Iguanidae | Cyclura | Iguania | 1,18 |
| Cyclura rileyi | 683 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | S | 1 | Iguanidae | Cyclura | Iguania | 1,18 |
| Cyrtopodion fedtschenkoi | 9 | NA | NA | 1.2 | 1 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | S | 1 | Gekkonidae | Cyrtopodion | Gekkota | 15,18 |
| Cyrtopodion kotschyi | 2 | 1.9 | 0.4 | 1.5 | 1 | NA | NA | 103 | 800 | 9 | NA | S | 1 | Gekkonidae | Mediodactylus | Gekkota | 6,18 |
| Cyrtopodion russowii | 3 | 35 | NA | 1.5 | 1.5 | NA | 660 | 51 | 2000 | NA | NA | S | 1 | Gekkonidae | Mediodactylus | Gekkota | 6,15 |
| Daboia russelii | 675 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 15 | NA | S | 2 | Viperidae | Daboia | Colubroidea | 1,5,19 |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 179 |
|----------------------------|---------------|------|------|-----------|------|------|------------|-------|------|-------|------|---|---|----------------|-------------|---------------|--------------|
| Darevskia rudis | 12.95 | 5.25 | NA | 5 | 1 | NA | NA | NA | 2100 | NA | NA | S | 1 | Lacertidae | Darevskia | Scincomorpha | 7 |
| Dasypeltis scabra | 15.7 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 22.1 | NA | S | 2 | Colubridae | Dasypeltis | Colubroidea | 1,19 |
| Dendroaspis angusticeps | 282.4 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 18.8 | NA | S | 2 | Elapidae | Dendroaspis | Colubroidea | 1,19 |
| Dendroaspis polylepis | 651.7 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 26.2 | NA | S | 2 | Elapidae | Dendroaspis | Colubroidea | 1,19 |
| Dermochelys coriacea | 428714 .29 | 5.88 | 43.5 | 96.2 5 | 4.13 | 86.8 | 4106. 5 | 64.33 | NA | 24.13 | 139 | т | 0 | Dermochelyidae | Dermochelys | Chelonioidea | 1,5,14 |
| Dinodon rufozonatum | 160.9 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 13.7 | NA | S | 2 | Colubridae | Dinodon | Colubroidea | 1,19 |
| Dipsochelys dussumieri | 167000 | 7.25 | 54 | 9 | 1.5 | NA | NA | 98 | NA | 152 | 30 | т | 0 | Testudinidae | Dipsochelys | Testudinoidea | 1,30,43 |
| Dipsosaurus dorsalis | 64.25 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 14.6 | NA | S | 1 | Iguanidae | Dipsosaurus | Iguania | 1,18 |
| Dolichophis caspius | 230 | 29.6 | NA | 9.83 | 1 | NA | NA | NA | 1600 | 9 | 67.5 | S | 2 | Colubridae | Dolichophis | Colubroidea | 9 |
| Dracaena guianensis | 1450 | NA | NA | 2 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 9.3 | NA | S | 1 | Teiidae | Dracaena | Scincomorpha | 1,4,5,1 8 |
| Draco volans | 5.4 | NA | NA | 4.5 | NA | NA | NA | 32 | NA | NA | NA | S | 1 | Agamidae | Draco | Iguania | 4,18 |

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 180 |
|--------------------------|--------|-----------|----|-----|----|----|------|----|------|------|-----|---|---|------------|------------|--------------|------|
| Drymarchon corais | 829 | NA | NA | 6 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 25.9 | NA | S | 2 | Colubridae | Drymarchon | Colubroidea | 1,19 |
| Echis carinatus | 146.05 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 23.8 | NA | S | 2 | Viperidae | Echis | Colubroidea | 1,19 |
| Echis coloratus | 120.25 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 28.3 | NA | S | 2 | Viperidae | Echis | Colubroidea | 1,19 |
| Egernia cunninghami | 240 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 26.5 | NA | S | 1 | Scincidae | Egernia | Scincomorpha | 1,18 |
| Egernia kingii | 291 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | S | 1 | Scincidae | Egernia | Scincomorpha | 5,18 |
| Egernia stokesii | 248 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 18.2 | NA | S | 1 | Scincidae | Egernia | Scincomorpha | 1,18 |
| Eirenis modestus | 15.5 | 11 | NA | 5.5 | 1 | NA | NA | NA | 2000 | NA | NA | S | 2 | Colubridae | Eirenis | Colubroidea | 9,19 |
| Elaphe quadrivirgata | 188.7 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 16.8 | NA | S | 2 | Colubridae | Elaphe | Colubroidea | 1,19 |
| Elaphe quatuorlineata | 400 | 27.1 4 | NA | 9.7 | 1 | 17 | 1004 | 59 | 2500 | NA | 128 | S | 2 | Colubridae | Elaphe | Colubroidea | 9,19 |
| Elgaria kingii | 10 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 12.3 | NA | S | 1 | Anguidae | Elgaria | Diploglossa | 1,18 |
| Elgaria multicarinata | 31.7 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 9.8 | NA | S | 1 | Anguidae | Elgaria | Diploglossa | 1,18 |

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 181 |
|---------------------------|-------------|-----------|-------|-----------|------|------|-------------|-------|------|-------|-------|---|---|---------------|--------------|---------------|--------------------|
| Emys orbicularis | 1177.7 9 | 2.25 | 5.12 | 9.44 | 1.99 | 7.25 | 3262. 38 | 91.45 | 1400 | 41.25 | 13.64 | т | 0 | Emydidae | Emys | Testudinoidea | 1,5,13 |
| Epicrates cenchria | 830 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 31 | NA | S | 2 | Boidae | Epicrates | Booidea | 1,19 |
| Epicrates inornatus | 1058.9 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 23.9 | NA | S | 2 | Boidae | Epicrates | Booidea | 1,19 |
| Eremias arguta | 14.65 | 4.8 | NA | 6.5 | 1.25 | 0.36 | 525 | 75 | 2000 | NA | 5.5 | S | 1 | Lacertidae | Eremias | Scincomorpha | 5,6,18 |
| Eretmochelys imbricata | 48500 | 4.45 | 13.43 | 137. 6 | 2.28 | NA | 1338. 33 | 60.75 | NA | NA | 66.5 | т | 0 | Cheloniidae | Eretmochelys | Chelonioidea | 1,5,14 |
| Eristicophis macmahoni | 125 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 14.6 | NA | S | 2 | Viperidae | Eristicophis | Colubroidea | 1,19 |
| Erpeton tentaculatum | 92.9 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 13.6 | NA | S | 2 | Colubridae | Erpeton | Colubroidea | 1,19 |
| Eryx jaculus | 134.5 | 16.7 5 | 8 | 11.3 3 | 1 | NA | 730 | 107 | 1700 | 24.7 | NA | S | 2 | Boidae | Eryx | Booidea | 1,9,19 |
| Eryx johnii | 531 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 24.4 | NA | S | 2 | Boidae | Eryx | Booidea | 1,19 |
| Eublepharis macularius | 59.7 | 8.18 | 3.6 | 1.75 | 4 | NA | 400 | 54.25 | NA | 24.25 | NA | S | 1 | Eublepharidae | Eublepharis | Gekkota | 1,4,5,1 5,16,18 |
| Eumeces algeriensis | 243.8 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 22.8 | NA | S | 1 | Scincidae | Eumeces | Scincomorpha | 1,18 |

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 10 |
|------------------------|--------|-----------|------|-----------|------|-------|------------|-------|------|-------|-----|---|---|------------|----------|--------------|---------------|
| Eumeces schneideri | 85.4 | 6.5 | NA | 10.2 5 | 1 | NA | NA | NA | 1800 | NA | NA | S | 1 | Scincidae | Eumeces | Scincomorpha | 6,18 |
| Eunectes murinus | 102950 | 70 | NA | 25 | NA | NA | NA | 231 | NA | 31.8 | NA | S | 2 | Boidae | Eunectes | Booidea | 1,4,5,1 9 |
| Gallotia atlantica | 12.8 | 7.56 | 0.66 | 2.68 | 1.95 | 0.55 | 730 | 68.25 | 580 | 15 | NA | S | 1 | Lacertidae | Gallotia | Scincomorpha | 10,18 |
| Gallotia galloti | 72.75 | 12.3 3 | 1.6 | 5.24 | 1.5 | 1.82 | 730 | 65.86 | 2000 | 7.03 | NA | S | 1 | Lacertidae | Gallotia | Scincomorpha | 1,5,10, 18 |
| Gallotia simonyi | 252.31 | 3.63 | NA | 10.8 | 1.5 | 5.4 | 913 | 64.5 | 500 | 5.4 | NA | S | 1 | Lacertidae | Gallotia | Scincomorpha | 1,5,10, 18 |
| Gallotia stehlini | 326.5 | 13.2 3 | 2.1 | 10.3 3 | 1.5 | NA | 1346. 5 | 80 | 1950 | 13 | NA | S | 1 | Lacertidae | Gallotia | Scincomorpha | 10,18 |
| Gavialis gangeticus | 147000 | 35.5 6 | NA | 37.2 | 1 | 139.5 | 4380 | 75 | 500 | 28.8 | 300 | С | 0 | Gavialidae | Gavialis | NA | 1,2,3,4 |
| Gehyra mutilata | 1.7 | NA | NA | 1 | 5 | NA | NA | 60 | NA | NA | NA | S | 1 | Gekkonidae | Gehyra | Gekkota | 15,18 |
| Gehyra oceanica | 7.9 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 10.25 | NA | S | 1 | Gekkonidae | Gehyra | Gekkota | 1,15,18 |
| Gehyra variegata | 3 | 4.8 | 0.39 | 1 | NA | NA | NA | 60 | NA | 4 | NA | S | 1 | Gekkonidae | Gehyra | Gekkota | 15,18 |
| Gekko gecko | 63.2 | 9.5 | NA | 2.5 | NA | NA | NA | 125.5 | NA | 23.5 | NA | S | 1 | Gekkonidae | Gekko | Gekkota | 1,4,5,1 8 |

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 183 |
|--------------------------|--------|------|------|-----|-----|------|------------|------|------|------|-------|---|---|-----------------------|--------------|---------------|----------------|
| Geochelone elegans | 2700 | 3.75 | NA | 6 | 3 | NA | 2372. 5 | 198 | NA | 24.3 | NA | Т | 0 | Testudinidae | Geochelone | Testudinoidea | 1 |
| Geochelone sulcata | 29700 | 4.9 | 50 | 17 | NA | NA | NA | 166 | NA | 54.3 | NA | т | 0 | Testudinidae | Geochelone | Testudinoidea | 1,41,43 |
| Gerrhosaurus major | 284 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 24 | NA | S | 1 | Gerrhosauridae | Gerrhosaurus | Scincomorpha | 1,5,18 |
| Gloydius blomhoffii | 63.7 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 13.8 | NA | S | 2 | Viperidae | Gloydius | Colubroidea | 1,19 |
| Gonatodes albogularis | 2.2 | 3.65 | NA | 1 | 7 | 0.26 | NA | 77.5 | NA | 5.6 | NA | S | 1 | Sphaerodactylid ae | Gonatodes | Gekkota | 1,15,16 ,18 |
| Gonatodes humeralis | 1.2 | 4 | 0.14 | 1 | 7 | 0.23 | NA | 69 | NA | NA | NA | S | 1 | Sphaerodactylid ae | Gonatodes | Gekkota | 15,18 |
| Gopherus agassizii | 1147 | 4.2 | 25 | 8 | 1.5 | NA | 5500 | 104 | 1400 | 62.8 | 22.91 | Т | 0 | Testudinidae | Gopherus | Testudinoidea | 1,30,46 |
| Gopherus berlandieri | 741 | 4.5 | 21 | 2.5 | 1.5 | NA | 1460 | 88 | 884 | 30.7 | 12.5 | т | 0 | Testudinidae | Gopherus | Testudinoidea | 1,30,47 |
| Gopherus polyphemus | 4400 | 4.19 | NA | 8 | 1 | NA | 3650 | 100 | NA | NA | 22.82 | Т | 0 | Testudinidae | Gopherus | Testudinoidea | 148 |
| Heloderma horridum | 1088.3 | NA | NA | 9 | NA | NA | NA | 30 | NA | 34.4 | NA | S | 1 | Helodermatidae | Heloderma | Platynota | 1,5,18 |
| Heloderma suspectum | 551.3 | NA | NA | 9 | NA | NA | NA | 30 | NA | 28.9 | NA | S | 1 | Helodermatidae | Heloderma | Platynota | 1,5,18 |

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 184 |
|------------------------------|--------|-----------|-----|------|------|-------|------|-------|------|------|------|---|---|---------------|--------------|---------------|-------------------|
| Hemidactylus turcicus | 2.8 | 2.8 | NA | 2.5 | 2.88 | NA | 650 | 58.75 | NA | 7.9 | NA | S | 1 | Gekkonidae | Hemidactylus | Gekkota | 1,6,18 |
| Hemitheconyx caudicinctus | 44 | 7 | NA | 2 | 3 | NA | NA | 68.5 | NA | 13.1 | NA | S | 1 | Eublepharidae | Hemitheconyx | Gekkota | 1,15,16 ,17,18 |
| Hemorrhois hippocrepis | 700 | 25.9 | NA | 11.5 | 1 | 10.95 | 2920 | 56 | 2100 | NA | NA | S | 2 | Colubridae | Hemorrhois | Colubroidea | 9 |
| Hemorrhois ravergieri | 157.75 | 2.05 | NA | 11.5 | 1 | NA | 913 | 65 | 3300 | 13.8 | 50.5 | S | 2 | Colubridae | Hemorrhois | Colubroidea | 1,9 |
| Heterodon platirhinos | 280 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 730 | NA | NA | 9.1 | NA | S | 2 | Colubridae | Heterodon | Colubroidea | 1,19 |
| Heteronotia binoei | 1.8 | 3.75 | 0.2 | 1.5 | 2 | NA | NA | 68 | NA | 15.3 | NA | S | 1 | Gekkonidae | Heteronotia | Gekkota | 1,15,18 |
| Hierophis gemonensis | 95 | NA | NA | 6.5 | 1 | NA | NA | NA | 1400 | NA | NA | S | 2 | Colubridae | Hierophis | Colubroidea | 9 |
| Hierophis viridiflavus | 270 | 22.7 5 | NA | 15 | 1 | 4.8 | 1460 | 51 | 2000 | NA | NA | S | 2 | Colubridae | Hierophis | Colubroidea | 9 |
| Homopus areolatus | 230 | 3.1 | 6 | 3 | 2 | NA | NA | 150 | 1300 | 28.6 | NA | т | 0 | Testudinidae | Homopus | Testudinoidea | 1,5,30, 35 |
| Homopus boulengeri | 177 | NA | NA | 1 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | т | 0 | Testudinidae | Homopus | Testudinoidea | 35 |
| Homopus femoralis | 393 | 2.75 | NA | 3 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | т | 0 | Testudinidae | Homopus | Testudinoidea | 5,33 |

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 185 |
|-----------------------------|-------|------|------|------|------|----|------|-----|------|------|----|---|---|--------------|---------------|---------------|---------|
| Homopus signatus | 151 | 3.14 | 8.5 | 1.5 | 3 | NA | NA | 109 | 1000 | NA | NA | т | 0 | Testudinidae | Homopus | Testudinoidea | 5,28,34 |
| Hoplodactylus duvaucelii | 118 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 22.5 | NA | S | 1 | Gekkonidae | Hoplodactylus | Gekkota | 1,18 |
| Hoplodactylus maculatus | 8.1 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 37 | NA | S | 1 | Gekkonidae | Hoplodactylus | Gekkota | 1,15,18 |
| Hoplodactylus pacificus | 19.6 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 13 | NA | S | 1 | Gekkonidae | Hoplodactylus | Gekkota | 1,18 |
| lguana iguana | 5765 | NA | NA | 40 | NA | NA | 1640 | 90 | NA | 27.4 | NA | S | 1 | Iguanidae | Iguana | Iguania | 1,4,5 |
| Indotestudo elongata | 2700 | 4 | 22 | 4 | NA | NA | NA | 100 | NA | NA | NA | т | 0 | Testudinidae | Indotestudo | Testudinoidea | 1,28,30 |
| Indotestudo forstenii | 1004 | 5.5 | NA | 4 | NA | NA | NA | 140 | 1000 | 32.9 | NA | т | 0 | Testudinidae | Indotestudo | Testudinoidea | 1,38 |
| Kinixys belliana | 752 | 4.6 | 20 | 3 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 26.5 | NA | т | 0 | Testudinidae | Kinixys | Testudinoidea | 1,29,43 |
| Kinixys erosa | 1200 | 4 | 30 | 2.5 | NA | NA | NA | 300 | NA | 24.8 | NA | Т | 0 | Testudinidae | Kinixys | Testudinoidea | 1,21,43 |
| Kinixys homeana | 768.9 | 4.45 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 122 | NA | NA | NA | т | 0 | Testudinidae | Kinixys | Testudinoidea | 22 |
| Lacerta agilis | 8.3 | 5.89 | 0.47 | 11.5 | 1.25 | NA | 365 | 50 | NA | 11 | NA | S | 1 | Lacertidae | Lacerta | Scincomorpha | 7,18 |

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 0, |
|-------------------------------|-------------|-----------|------|-----------|------|------|-------------|-------|-------------|------|-------|---|---|----------------|--------------|--------------|--------|
| Lacerta schreiberi | 21.2 | 8 | NA | 17 | 1 | NA | NA | NA | 1333.3 3 | NA | NA | S | 1 | Lacertidae | Lacerta | Scincomorpha | 7,18 |
| Lacerta strigata | 20.6 | 8.25 | 860 | 10.1 7 | 1.25 | 0.97 | 645 | 50 | 2000 | 7 | 7.7 | S | 1 | Lacertidae | Lacerta | Scincomorpha | 7,18 |
| Lacerta trilineata | 79.4 | 10.5 3 | 1.59 | 12.8 6 | 1.5 | 1.3 | NA | 95.71 | 1250 | NA | 10.65 | S | 1 | Lacertidae | Lacerta | Scincomorpha | 7,18 |
| Lacerta viridis | 36.98 | NA | NA | 14.8 3 | 1.5 | 0.84 | NA | 65.29 | 2020 | 10 | NA | S | 1 | Lacertidae | Lacerta | Scincomorpha | 1,7,18 |
| Lampropeltis getula | 258 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 1095 | NA | NA | 33.3 | NA | S | 2 | Colubridae | Lampropeltis | Colubroidea | 1,19 |
| Laudakia stellio | 53.4 | NA | NA | 10 | 2.5 | NA | 540 | 87 | 1600 | 6 | NA | S | 1 | Agamidae | Laudakia | Iguania | 1,6,18 |
| Leiocephalus carinatus | 30 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 10.8 | NA | S | 1 | Leiocephalidae | Leiocephalus | Iguania | 1,18 |
| Leiolepis belliana | 40 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 5.6 | NA | S | 1 | Agamidae | Leiolepis | Iguania | 1,18 |
| Lepidochelys kempii | 5895.7 9 | NA | 16.4 | 107. 5 | 1.47 | 30 | 3224. 33 | 56 | NA | NA | 56.8 | т | 0 | Cheloniidae | Lepidochelys | Chelonioidea | 1,5,14 |
| Lepidophyma flavimaculatum | 11.3 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 11 | NA | S | 1 | Xantusiidae | Lepidophyma | Scincomorpha | 1,18 |
| Leptophis mexicanus | 43.1 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 7.7 | NA | S | 2 | Colubridae | Leptophis | Colubroidea | 1,19 |

| Liasis fuscus | 953 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 26.8 | NA | S | 2 | Pythonidae | Liasis | Pythonoidea | 1,19 |
|--------------------------------|-------------|-----------|-------|-----------|------|-------|------------|------|------|-------|-------|---|---|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------|
| Lichanura trivirgata | 450 | NA | NA | 7 | NA | NA | NA | 130 | NA | 31 | NA | S | 2 | Boidae | Lichanura | Booidea | 1 |
| Macrochelys temminckii | 84500 | 4.03 | NA | 30 | NA | NA | 4015 | 105 | NA | 75.15 | NA | Т | 0 | Chelydridae | Macrochelys | NA | 1,4 |
| Macroprotodo n cucullatus | 16.6 | NA | NA | 6.33 | 1 | NA | NA | NA | 3000 | 5.9 | NA | S | 2 | Colubridae | Macroprotodon | Colubroidea | 1,11,19 |
| Macrovipera lebetina | 1037.8 3 | 20.0 4 | 16.46 | 21.6 7 | 1 | 17 | 1350 | 40 | 2500 | 15.15 | 72.75 | S | 2 | Viperidae | Macrovipera | Colubroidea | 1,12,19 |
| Malaclemys terrapin | 720 | 2.95 | NA | 9 | 3.5 | NA | 2190 | 84 | NA | NA | 12 | т | 0 | Emydidae | Malaclemys | Testudinoidea | 1 |
| Malacochersu s tornieri | 470 | 3.85 | NA | 1.5 | NA | NA | NA | 140 | 1800 | 25.9 | NA | т | 0 | Testudinidae | Malacochersus | Testudinoidea | 1,44 |
| Malpolon monspessulan us | 649.92 | 27.2 6 | 9.39 | 11.9 5 | 1.25 | 15.62 | 1642. 5 | 48.5 | 2000 | 13.5 | 90.41 | S | 2 | Lamprophiidae | Malpolon | Colubroidea | 11,19 |
| Manouria emys | 13400 | 5.8 | NA | 24.6 7 | 3 | NA | NA | 71 | NA | 19.9 | NA | т | 0 | Testudinidae | Manouria | Testudinoidea | 1,36,37 |
| Mecistops cataphractus | 50500 | NA | NA | 19.5 | NA | 146 | 4562. 5 | 75 | NA | 56.1 | 225 | С | 0 | Crocodylidae | Crocodylus | NA | 1,2,3 |
| Melanosuchus niger | 82000 | NA | NA | 39.3 | NA | 143.6 | NA | 75 | NA | 15.3 | NA | С | 0 | Alligatoridae | Melanosuchus | NA | 1,2,3,4 |

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 00 |
|-------------------------|-------------|-----------|------|-----------|------|------|------|------|------|-------|-------|---|---|-------------|---------|--------------|--------------|
| Moloch horridus | 31.4 | NA | NA | 6.5 | NA | NA | NA | 111 | NA | NA | NA | S | 1 | Agamidae | Moloch | Iguania | 4,18 |
| Montivipera xanthina | 383.65 | 19.5 8 | 7.62 | 7.85 | 1 | NA | 730 | 84 | 2500 | NA | NA | S | 2 | Viperidae | Daboia | Colubroidea | 12,19 |
| Morelia spilota | 2120.1 5 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 19.6 | NA | S | 2 | Pythonidae | Morelia | Pythonoidea | 1,19 |
| Morelia viridis | 563.2 | NA | NA | 18 | NA | NA | NA | 50 | NA | 20.3 | NA | S | 2 | Pythonidae | Morelia | Pythonoidea | 1,4,19 |
| Naja atra | 311.1 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 11.7 | NA | S | 2 | Elapidae | Naja | Colubroidea | 1,19 |
| Naja mossambica | 171.3 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 16.7 | NA | S | 2 | Elapidae | Naja | Colubroidea | 1,19 |
| Naja naja | 1497.5 | 22.8 6 | NA | 16 | NA | NA | NA | 70 | NA | 32.33 | NA | S | 2 | Elapidae | Naja | Colubroidea | 1,4,5,1 9 |
| Naja nigricollis | 256.7 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 23.2 | NA | S | 2 | Elapidae | Naja | Colubroidea | 1,5,19 |
| Natator depressus | 140000 | 6 | NA | 95.1 5 | 3.5 | NA | NA | 42 | NA | NA | NA | т | 0 | Cheloniidae | Natator | Chelonioidea | 5,26 |
| Natrix maura | 52.95 | 18.3 | NA | 8.4 | 1.75 | 9.35 | 1095 | 56.5 | 2300 | NA | 40.25 | S | 2 | Natricidae | Natrix | Colubroidea | 11,19 |
| Natrix natrix | 190.16 | 17.3 5 | 2.97 | 17.5 1 | 1.25 | 5.12 | 1369 | 50 | 2300 | 21.42 | 56.2 | S | 2 | Natricidae | Natrix | Colubroidea | 1,4,5,1 1 |

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 189 |
|-------------------------|--------|-----------|------|-----------|----|------|-----|-------|------|------|----|---|---|-----------------|------------|--------------|-------------------|
| Natrix tessellata | 234.25 | 19.2 5 | 6.05 | 23.0 7 | 2 | 8 | NA | 53.67 | 2800 | NA | 40 | S | 2 | Natricidae | Natrix | Colubroidea | 11 |
| Nerodia sipedon | 118.2 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 730 | NA | NA | 9.6 | NA | S | 2 | Natricidae | Nerodia | Colubroidea | 1,19 |
| Notechis scutatus | 835.5 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 14.1 | NA | S | 2 | Elapidae | Notechis | Colubroidea | 1,19 |
| Oedura castelnaui | 14.1 | 5.85 | NA | 1.5 | 4 | 1.78 | 365 | 65.75 | NA | NA | NA | S | 1 | Diplodactylidae | Oedura | Gekkota | 15,17,1 8 |
| Oedura Iesueurii | 3.7 | 5 | NA | 2 | 2 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | S | 1 | Diplodactylidae | Oedura | Gekkota | 15,17,1 8 |
| Oedura marmorata | 15.4 | 7 | NA | NA | NA | NA | 365 | 95 | NA | 21.2 | NA | S | 1 | Diplodactylidae | Oedura | Gekkota | 1,15,16 ,17,18 |
| Oedura monilis | 6.1 | 6.15 | 0.99 | 16 | 16 | 1.54 | NA | 56 | NA | NA | NA | S | 1 | Diplodactylidae | Oedura | Gekkota | 15,16,1 8 |
| Oligosoma grande | 19.4 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | S | 1 | Scincidae | Oligosoma | Scincomorpha | 1,18 |
| Oligosoma otagense | 46 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 44 | NA | S | 1 | Scincidae | Oligosoma | Scincomorpha | 1,18 |
| Opheodrys aestivus | 17 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 730 | NA | NA | 7.2 | NA | S | 2 | Colubridae | Opheodrys | Colubroidea | 1,19 |
| Ophisaurus ventralis | 32.2 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 14.8 | NA | S | 1 | Anguidae | Ophisaurus | Diploglossa | 1,18 |

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 190 |
|----------------------------|-------|-----|------|-----------|-----|------|------------|------|------|------|-----|---|---|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------|
| Ophisops elegans | 3 | 5 | NA | 4.5 | 2 | NA | 730 | NA | 2200 | NA | NA | S | 1 | Lacertidae | Ophisops | Scincomorpha | 6,18 |
| Osteolaemus tetraspis | 18800 | 28 | NA | 11.1 5 | NA | 55 | 1825 | 95 | NA | 69 | NA | С | 0 | Crocodylidae | Osteolaemus | NA | 1,2,3 |
| Oxybelis aeneus | 57.5 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 15.2 | NA | S | 2 | Colubridae | Oxybelis | Colubroidea | 1,19 |
| Oxyuranus scutellatus | 753 | NA | NA | 35 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 15.6 | NA | S | 2 | Elapidae | Oxyuranus | Colubroidea | 1,5,19 |
| Pachydactylus capensis | 4 | 41 | 0.32 | 1.5 | 9 | 0.62 | NA | 49 | NA | NA | NA | S | 1 | Gekkonidae | Pachydactylus | Gekkota | 15,18 |
| Paleosuchus palpebrosus | 5900 | NA | NA | 13.3 | NA | 68.6 | 4197. 5 | 135 | NA | 24.1 | NA | С | 0 | Alligatoridae | Paleosuchus | NA | 1,3 |
| Paleosuchus trigonatus | 7500 | NA | NA | 15.1 | NA | 67.2 | 5475 | 115 | 1300 | 30.9 | 135 | С | 0 | Alligatoridae | Paleosuchus | NA | 1,3,25 |
| Pantherophis guttatus | 900 | NA | NA | 12 | NA | NA | 600 | NA | NA | 32.3 | NA | S | 2 | Colubridae | Pantherophis | Colubroidea | 1 |
| Pelodiscus sinensis | 10000 | 2.7 | NA | 17.5 | 3.5 | NA | 1825 | 60 | NA | NA | NA | т | 0 | Trionychidae | Pelodiscus | Trionychoidea | 5,28 |
| Phelsuma astriata | 3.4 | 3.5 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 37.5 | NA | 7.4 | NA | S | 1 | Gekkonidae | Phelsuma | Gekkota | 1,16,18 |
| Phelsuma cepediana | 5 | 4 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 42.5 | NA | 9.3 | NA | S | 1 | Gekkonidae | Phelsuma | Gekkota | 1,18 |

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 191 |
|----------------------------------|-------|------|------|------|------|----|-------|-------|------|------|----|---|---|------------|----------------|--------------|----------------|
| Phelsuma laticauda | 2.9 | 4 | NA | 2 | 3.5 | NA | 330 | 46.88 | NA | 8.7 | NA | S | 1 | Gekkonidae | Phelsuma | Gekkota | 1,16,18 |
| Phelsuma lineata | 3.8 | 4 | NA | 1.75 | 4.5 | NA | 240 | 48.25 | NA | 10 | NA | S | 1 | Gekkonidae | Phelsuma | Gekkota | 1,15,16 ,18 |
| Phelsuma madagascarie nsis | 20.7 | 6.07 | 0.91 | 1.75 | 6 | NA | 367.5 | 56.94 | NA | 13.6 | NA | S | 1 | Gekkonidae | Phelsuma | Gekkota | 1,15,16 ,18 |
| Phrynocephalu s guttatus | 4.1 | NA | 0.78 | 2 | 1 | NA | 365 | NA | NA | NA | NA | S | 1 | Agamidae | Phrynocephalus | Iguania | 6,18 |
| Phrynocephalu s helioscopus | 6.9 | 4.55 | NA | 4.5 | 1.75 | NA | 345 | 40 | NA | 2.5 | NA | S | 1 | Agamidae | Phrynocephalus | Iguania | 6,18 |
| Phrynocephalu s mystaceus | 34.3 | 4.06 | NA | 2 | 1.5 | NA | 630 | NA | NA | 6 | NA | S | 1 | Agamidae | Phrynocephalus | Iguania | 6,18 |
| Physignathus cocincinus | 288 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 15.3 | NA | S | 1 | Agamidae | Physignathus | Iguania | 1,18 |
| Physignathus lesueurii | 559.2 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 18.9 | NA | S | 1 | Agamidae | Physignathus | Iguania | 1,18 |
| Platysaurus guttatus | 12.2 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 15.6 | NA | S | 2 | Cordylidae | Platysaurus | Scincomorpha | 1,19 |
| Plestiodon obsoletus | 30 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 7.3 | NA | S | 1 | Scincidae | Plestiodon | Scincomorpha | 1,18 |
| Podarcis bocagei | 4.6 | NA | NA | 3 | 1 | NA | 730 | NA | 1500 | NA | NA | S | 1 | Lacertidae | Podarcis | Scincomorpha | 8,18 |

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 192 |
|---------------------------------|-------|------|------|------------|------|----|-----|-------|------|-------|-----|---|---|----------------|------------|-------------------|--------|
| Podarcis gaigeae | 10.8 | NA | NA | NA | 1 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | S | 1 | Lacertidae | Podarcis | Scincomorpha | 8,18 |
| Podarcis hispanicus | 3.7 | 5.95 | NA | 2.5 | 1 | NA | NA | 63 | 1800 | NA | 3.9 | S | 1 | Lacertidae | Podarcis | Scincomorpha | 8,18 |
| Podarcis lilfordi | 7.3 | 9.2 | NA | 3 | 1.5 | NA | NA | 44.5 | NA | NA | NA | S | 1 | Lacertidae | Podarcis | Scincomorpha | 8,18 |
| Podarcis melisellensis | 6 | 6.42 | 0.35 | 4.5 | 3 | NA | 300 | 39 | 1370 | NA | NA | S | 1 | Lacertidae | Podarcis | Scincomorpha | 8,18 |
| Podarcis muralis | 5.39 | 6.05 | 0.35 | 6 | 2.75 | NA | 365 | 76.25 | 2700 | 8.5 | NA | S | 1 | Lacertidae | Podarcis | Scincomorpha | 1,8,18 |
| Podarcis peloponnesiac us | 11.6 | 9.83 | NA | 3.5 | 1.83 | NA | NA | 40 | 1550 | NA | NA | S | 1 | Lacertidae | Podarcis | Scincomorpha | 8,18 |
| Podarcis pityusensis | 6.8 | 9.18 | NA | 1.5 | 1 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | S | 1 | Lacertidae | Podarcis | Scincomorpha | 8,18 |
| Podarcis siculus | 10.75 | 9.13 | 0.65 | 7.17 | 3.1 | NA | 365 | 49.11 | 2000 | 13 | 4.9 | S | 1 | Lacertidae | Podarcis | Scincomorpha | 8,18 |
| Podarcis tauricus | 7.4 | 7.85 | NA | 5 | 1.5 | NA | 555 | 58 | 800 | NA | 5.4 | S | 1 | Lacertidae | Podarcis | Scincomorpha | 8,18 |
| Podarcis tiliguerta | 5 | 5.5 | NA | 9 | 1 | NA | NA | 75 | 1800 | NA | NA | S | 1 | Lacertidae | Podarcis | Scincomorpha | 8,18 |
| Podocnemis expansa | 36250 | 5.08 | NA | 103. 83 | NA | NA | NA | 52 | NA | 22.65 | NA | т | 0 | Podocnemididae | Podocnemis | Pelomedusida e | 1,4,5 |

| Podocnemis unifilis | 6750 | 4 | 15.5 | 25.7 5 | 2 | NA | NA | 62 | NA | NA | NA | т | 0 | Podocnemididae | Podocnemis | Pelomedusida e | 1,4 |
|-----------------------------|-------|------|------|-----------|-----|----|----|-----|------|------|----|---|---|----------------|----------------|-------------------|---------|
| Pogona vitticeps | 500 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 12 | NA | S | 1 | Agamidae | Pogona | Iguania | 1 |
| Psammobates geometricus | 474 | 3.5 | NA | 5 | 1 | NA | NA | 150 | NA | NA | NA | т | 0 | Testudinidae | Psammobates | Testudinoidea | 23,35 |
| Psammobates oculifer | 318 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | т | 0 | Testudinidae | Psammobates | Testudinoidea | 35 |
| Psammobates pardalis | 19300 | 5.08 | 30 | 17.5 | 6 | NA | NA | 385 | 2900 | 30 | NA | т | 0 | Testudinidae | Psammobates | Testudinoidea | 1,43,45 |
| Psammobates tentorius | 508 | 2.75 | 7 | 2 | 1 | NA | NA | 220 | 900 | NA | NA | т | 0 | Testudinidae | Psammobates | Testudinoidea | 28,35 |
| Psammodrom us algirus | 9.1 | NA | NA | 9.5 | 1.5 | NA | NA | 18 | 2400 | NA | NA | S | 1 | Lacertidae | Psammodromus | Scincomorpha | 6,18 |
| Psammodrom us hispanicus | 3 | NA | NA | 4.17 | 1.5 | NA | NA | 48 | NA | NA | NA | S | 1 | Lacertidae | Psammodromus | Scincomorpha | 6,18 |
| Psammophis subtaeniatus | 68.15 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 5.8 | NA | S | 2 | Lamprophiidae | Psammophis | Colubroidea | 1,19 |
| Pseudaspis cana | 492.9 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 8.3 | NA | S | 2 | Lamprophiidae | Pseudaspis | Colubroidea | 1,19 |
| Pseudoceraste s persicus | 215.3 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 17.1 | NA | S | 2 | Viperidae | Pseudocerastes | Colubroidea | 1,19 |

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 194 |
|-------------------------------|--------|-----------|----|------|----|----|------------|-------|------|-------|------|---|---|------------------|--------------|---------------|---------|
| Pseudopus apodus | 486.63 | NA | NA | 8 | 1 | NA | 730 | 43.5 | 1260 | 54 | NA | S | 1 | Anguidae | Pseudopus | Diploglossa | 1,6,18 |
| Ptychozoon kuhli | 7.7 | NA | NA | 1.75 | NA | NA | 547.5 | 94.25 | NA | NA | NA | S | 1 | Gekkonidae | Ptychozoon | Gekkota | 4,16,18 |
| Ptyodactylus hasselquistii | 9.3 | 5.3 | NA | 2 | 5 | NA | 638.7 5 | 99.25 | 1800 | 10.45 | 10 | S | 1 | Phyllodactylidae | Ptyodactylus | Gekkota | 1,15,16 |
| Python molurus | 51185 | NA | NA | 40 | NA | NA | 1095 | 100 | NA | 34.2 | NA | S | 2 | Pythonidae | Python | Pythonoidea | 1,5 |
| Python regius | 1324 | NA | NA | 7 | NA | NA | 1825 | 77 | NA | 47.5 | NA | S | 2 | Pythonidae | Python | Pythonoidea | 1,19 |
| Python sebae | 13250 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 27.3 | NA | S | 2 | Pythonidae | Python | Pythonoidea | 1,5,19 |
| Pyxis arachnoides | 398 | NA | NA | 1 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | т | 0 | Testudinidae | Pyxis | Testudinoidea | 31 |
| Pyxis planicauda | 475 | NA | NA | 1 | NA | NA | NA | 100 | NA | NA | NA | т | 0 | Testudinidae | Pyxis | Testudinoidea | 32 |
| Rhinechis scalaris | 1212 | 27.1 7 | 14 | 8.93 | 1 | 26 | NA | 58.4 | 2800 | NA | 57.5 | S | 2 | Colubridae | Rhinechis | Colubroidea | 9 |
| Sauromalus ater | 550 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 9.3 | NA | S | 1 | Iguanidae | Sauromalus | Iguania | 1,18 |
| Sauromalus hispidus | 737 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 17.2 | NA | S | 1 | Iguanidae | Sauromalus | Iguania | 1,18 |

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 01 |
|------------------------------|-------|-----|-----|----|------|------|------|------|----|------|------|---|---|-----------------------|-----------------|--------------|-----------------|
| Sauromalus varius | 1800 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 11.3 | NA | S | 1 | Iguanidae | Sauromalus | Iguania | 1,18 |
| Sceloporus magister | 43.6 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 5.9 | NA | S | 1 | Phrynosomatida e | Sceloporus | Iguania | 1,18 |
| Sceloporus undulatus | 11.3 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 1095 | NA | NA | NA | NA | S | 1 | Phrynosomatida e | Sceloporus | Iguania | 1,18 |
| Scincus scincus | 23.3 | NA | NA | 6 | NA | NA | NA | 60 | NA | NA | NA | S | 1 | Scincidae | Scincus | Scincomorpha | 4,18 |
| Sistrurus catenatus | 167.2 | NA | NA | 8 | NA | NA | 1100 | NA | NA | 20 | NA | S | 2 | Viperidae | Sistrurus | Colubroidea | 1,19 |
| Sistrurus miliarius | 40.6 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 16.1 | NA | S | 2 | Viperidae | Sistrurus | Colubroidea | 1,19 |
| Spalerosophis diadema | 211.2 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 547 | NA | NA | 17 | NA | S | 2 | Colubridae | Spalerosophis | Colubroidea | 1,19 |
| Sphaerodactyl us cinereus | 1 | 3.1 | 0.1 | 1 | 10 | 0.16 | NA | 77.5 | NA | NA | NA | S | 1 | Sphaerodactylid ae | Sphaerodactylus | Gekkota | 15,16,1 8 |
| Sphenodon punctatus | 590 | NA | 4 | 12 | 0.35 | 5 | 5840 | 399 | 87 | 90 | 17.5 | R | 0 | Sphenodontidae | Sphenodon | NA | 1,4,5,2 5,27 |
| Spilotes pullatus | 552.5 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 17.5 | NA | S | 2 | Colubridae | Spilotes | Colubroidea | 1,19 |
| Storeria dekayi | 4.7 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 730 | NA | NA | 7 | NA | S | 2 | Natricidae | Storeria | Colubroidea | 1,19 |

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 196 |
|----------------------------------|-------|-----------|------|------|------|------|------|-------|-------------|------|------|---|---|------------------|------------|---------------|---------|
| Storeria occipitomacula ta | 7.3 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 730 | NA | NA | 4.6 | NA | S | 2 | Natricidae | Storeria | Colubroidea | 1,19 |
| Tarentola angustimentali s | 11 | 4.62 | 0.38 | 5.58 | 9.56 | 0.62 | NA | 64.67 | NA | 14.5 | 6 | S | 1 | Phyllodactylidae | Tarentola | Gekkota | 10 |
| Tarentola annularis | 12.6 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 11.8 | NA | S | 1 | Phyllodactylidae | Tarentola | Gekkota | 1,18 |
| Tarentola boettgeri | 11.3 | 5.27 | 0.6 | 5 | 3.23 | 0.85 | NA | 90 | 1650 | 18 | 5.15 | S | 1 | Phyllodactylidae | Tarentola | Gekkota | 10 |
| Tarentola delalandii | 15.72 | 4.17 | 0.51 | 1.75 | 4 | 0.8 | NA | 82.5 | 2300 | 8.5 | NA | S | 1 | Phyllodactylidae | Tarentola | Gekkota | 10,15 |
| Tarentola gomerensis | 7.3 | NA | NA | 1 | 3.5 | 0.83 | NA | 80 | 1150 | NA | NA | S | 1 | Phyllodactylidae | Tarentola | Gekkota | 10 |
| Tarentola mauritanica | 7.3 | 5 | NA | 2 | 1 | NA | 1095 | 81.5 | 1283.3 3 | 10.7 | NA | S | 1 | Phyllodactylidae | Tarentola | Gekkota | 1,6,18 |
| Teira dugesii | 9 | 8.9 | NA | NA | 1.5 | NA | 450 | 86 | 1826 | 4.8 | NA | S | 1 | Lacertidae | Teira | Scincomorpha | 1,10,18 |
| Telescopus fallax | 33.2 | 17.8 3 | 3.5 | 7.92 | 1 | 5 | NA | 55 | 1800 | NA | NA | S | 2 | Colubridae | Telescopus | Colubroidea | 11,19 |
| Telescopus semiannulatus | 9.5 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 7.6 | NA | S | 2 | Colubridae | Telescopus | Colubroidea | 1,19 |
| Terrapene carolina | 1000 | 3.15 | NA | 5.5 | 2.5 | NA | 2190 | 85 | NA | 138 | NA | т | 0 | Emydidae | Terrapene | Testudinoidea | 1,4 |

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 197 |
|-------------------------|-------------|------|-------|------|------|-------|------------|-------|------|-------|-------|---|---|--------------|------------|---------------|----------------|
| Testudo graeca | 1738.6 7 | 3.25 | 10.8 | 5.05 | 2.17 | 20.7 | 4242. 5 | 78 | 1750 | 50.83 | 14.6 | т | 0 | Testudinidae | Testudo | Testudinoidea | 1,13,43 ,49 |
| Testudo hermanni | 1045 | 3.2 | 9.97 | 4.49 | 2.13 | 16.05 | 3989. 4 | 90 | 1500 | 50 | 13.14 | т | 0 | Testudinidae | Testudo | Testudinoidea | 1,13,30 ,49 |
| Testudo horsfieldii | 807 | 3.95 | NA | 8.5 | 2.5 | NA | 3650 | 71.5 | NA | NA | NA | т | 0 | Testudinidae | Testudo | Testudinoidea | 550 |
| Testudo kleinmanni | 350 | 2.85 | 14 | 2 | NA | NA | NA | 85 | NA | 21 | NA | т | 0 | Testudinidae | Testudo | Testudinoidea | 1,24,43 |
| Testudo marginata | 1170 | 3.5 | 10.43 | 8.05 | 2.2 | 14.98 | 4380 | 76.25 | 1300 | 58.2 | 21.6 | т | 0 | Testudinidae | Testudo | Testudinoidea | 1,13,30 ,43 |
| Thamnophis butleri | 24.8 | NA | NA | 12 | NA | NA | 730 | NA | NA | 14 | NA | S | 2 | Natricidae | Thamnophis | Colubroidea | 1,19 |
| Thamnophis couchii | 61 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 7.7 | NA | S | 2 | Natricidae | Thamnophis | Colubroidea | 1,19 |
| Thamnophis marcianus | 90 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 547 | NA | NA | 7 | NA | S | 2 | Natricidae | Thamnophis | Colubroidea | 1,19 |
| Thamnophis radix | 50.9 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 8.4 | NA | S | 2 | Natricidae | Thamnophis | Colubroidea | 1,19 |
| Thamnophis sirtalis | 127.1 | NA | NA | 20 | 0.75 | NA | 730 | 88 | NA | 14.1 | NA | S | 2 | Natricidae | Thamnophis | Colubroidea | 1,4,19 |
| Tiliqua nigrolutea | 800 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 11.5 | NA | S | 1 | Scincidae | Tiliqua | Scincomorpha | 1,18 |

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 198 |
|----------------------------|-------------|-----------|------|-----------|------|-------|------|-------|------|-------|-------|---|---|----------------------|----------------------|---------------|--------------|
| Tiliqua rugosa | 617 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 20.9 | NA | S | 1 | Scincidae | Tiliqua | Scincomorpha | 1,5,18 |
| Tiliqua scincoides | 499.8 | NA | 14 | 17.5 | NA | NA | NA | 110 | NA | 23.3 | NA | S | 1 | Scincidae | Tiliqua | Scincomorpha | 1,4,5,1 8 |
| Timon lepidus | 213.28 | 11.7 6 | 2.19 | 13.3 8 | 1.5 | NA | 1026 | 91.75 | 2100 | 18.5 | NA | S | 1 | Lacertidae | Timon | Scincomorpha | 1,7,18 |
| Tomistoma schlegelii | 119000 | NA | NA | 31.8 | NA | 139.9 | 7300 | 102.5 | 20 | 24.7 | 275 | С | 0 | Crocodylidae | Tomistoma | NA | 1,2,3,2 5 |
| Trachemys scripta | 2513.3 3 | 3.48 | 8.1 | 16 | 2.06 | 10.75 | 2920 | 82.25 | NA | 39.33 | 17.15 | т | 0 | Emydidae | Trachemys | Testudinoidea | 1,13 |
| Trimorphodon biscutatus | 84.3 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 11.8 | NA | S | 2 | Colubridae | Trimorphodon | Colubroidea | 1,19 |
| Tupinambis rufescens | 4700 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 10.8 | NA | S | 1 | Teiidae | Tupinambis | Scincomorpha | 1,18 |
| Tupinambis teguixin | 2212 | NA | NA | 13.7 5 | NA | 32.5 | NA | 77 | NA | 16.1 | NA | S | 1 | Teiidae | Tupinambis | Scincomorpha | 1,4,5,1 8 |
| Typhlops vermicularis | 2.2 | NA | NA | 5 | 1 | NA | NA | NA | 1900 | NA | NA | S | 2 | Typhlopidae | Typhlops | Typhlopoidea | 5,9,19 |
| Uma notata | 26.9 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 8.1 | NA | S | 1 | Phrynosomatida e | Uma | Iguania | 1,18 |
| Underwoodisa urus milii | 9.6 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 12 | NA | S | 1 | Carphodactylida e | Underwoodisaur us | Gekkota | 1,18 |

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 199 |
|-------------------------------|-------------|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|------|----|---|---|-----------|-----------|-----------|--------|
| Uromastyx acanthinura | 600 | NA | 11.4 | NA | S | 1 | Agamidae | Uromastyx | Iguania | 1,18 |
| Uromastyx aegyptia | 851.5 | NA | 15.3 | NA | S | 1 | Agamidae | Uromastyx | Iguania | 1,18 |
| Varanus bengalensis | 4940 | NA | 11.2 | NA | S | 1 | Varanidae | Varanus | Platynota | 1,18 |
| Varanus brevicauda | 14.9 | NA | NA | S | 1 | Varanidae | Varanus | Platynota | 5,18 |
| Varanus caudolineatus | 14.3 | NA | NA | S | 1 | Varanidae | Varanus | Platynota | 18 |
| Varanus dumerilii | 988 | NA | 10.7 | NA | S | 1 | Varanidae | Varanus | Platynota | 1,18 |
| Varanus exanthematicu s | 18104. 5 | NA | 12.7 | NA | S | 1 | Varanidae | Varanus | Platynota | 1,5,18 |
| Varanus giganteus | 5333.4 | NA | 19.7 | NA | S | 1 | Varanidae | Varanus | Platynota | 1,5,18 |
| Varanus gouldii | 821.1 | NA | 18.3 | NA | S | 1 | Varanidae | Varanus | Platynota | 1,5,18 |
| Varanus griseus | 1221.5 | NA | 17 | NA | S | 1 | Varanidae | Varanus | Platynota | 1,5,18 |
| Varanus indicus | 1287 | NA | 17.4 | NA | S | 1 | Varanidae | Varanus | Platynota | 1,5,18 |

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 200 |
|------------------------|--------|-----------|------|-----------|------|----|------------|-------|------|-------|------|---|---|-----------|---------|-------------|--------------|
| Varanus komodoensis | 77820 | 30 | 100 | 26 | NA | NA | 1825 | 144.5 | NA | 25.5 | NA | S | 1 | Varanidae | Varanus | Platynota | 1,4,5,1 8 |
| Varanus mertensi | 1121.2 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 20.3 | NA | S | 1 | Varanidae | Varanus | Platynota | 1,18 |
| Varanus niloticus | 2890 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 14.6 | NA | S | 1 | Varanidae | Varanus | Platynota | 1,5,18 |
| Varanus olivaceus | 5420 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 15.2 | NA | S | 1 | Varanidae | Varanus | Platynota | 1,18 |
| Varanus prasinus | 237.5 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 14.2 | NA | S | 1 | Varanidae | Varanus | Platynota | 1,18 |
| Varanus salvator | 4345 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 15.7 | NA | S | 1 | Varanidae | Varanus | Platynota | 1,5,18 |
| Varanus timorensis | 290 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 14.9 | NA | S | 1 | Varanidae | Varanus | Platynota | 1,18 |
| Varanus varius | 6343 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 14.7 | NA | S | 1 | Varanidae | Varanus | Platynota | 1,5,18 |
| Vipera ammodytes | 210.9 | 18.6 5 | 5.67 | 9.56 | 0.75 | NA | NA | 102.5 | 2450 | 17.67 | 43.3 | S | 2 | Viperidae | Vipera | Colubroidea | 1,12,19 |
| Vipera aspis | 74.1 | 19.7 | 6.63 | 14.1 6 | 0.69 | NA | 1369 | 78 | 3000 | 19.5 | 45 | S | 2 | Viperidae | Vipera | Colubroidea | 1,12,19 |
| Vipera berus | 153.15 | 18.3 | NA | 10.3 3 | 2 | NA | 1551. 5 | 94.33 | NA | 19 | 45.5 | S | 2 | Viperidae | Vipera | Colubroidea | 1,4,5,1 2 |

| Vipera kaznakovi | 52.1 | 15.6 | 4.12 | NA | 1 | NA | 913 | NA | 1000 | NA | 37.5 | S | 2 | Viperidae | Vipera | Colubroidea | 12,19 |
|------------------------|--------|-----------|------|------|------|----|------|----|------|-------|-------|---|---|-------------|----------|--------------|---------|
| Vipera latastei | 87 | 17.6 7 | 5.34 | 7.91 | 0.88 | NA | 1156 | 90 | 3030 | 9.7 | 42 | S | 2 | Viperidae | Vipera | Colubroidea | 1,12,19 |
| Vipera seoanei | 90 | 19.0 3 | 5.22 | 5.92 | 0.88 | NA | NA | NA | 1900 | NA | NA | S | 2 | Viperidae | Vipera | Colubroidea | 12 |
| Vipera ursinii | 65 | 13.7 5 | 3.03 | 8.78 | 1 | NA | NA | NA | 2000 | NA | NA | S | 2 | Viperidae | Vipera | Colubroidea | 12,19 |
| Virginia striatula | 3.3 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 730 | NA | NA | 7.2 | NA | S | 2 | Natricidae | Virginia | Colubroidea | 1,19 |
| Virginia valeriae | 7.2 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 9.5 | NA | S | 2 | Natricidae | Virginia | Colubroidea | 1,19 |
| Xantusia henshawi | 3.2 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 14.3 | NA | S | 1 | Xantusiidae | Xantusia | Scincomorpha | 1,18 |
| Xantusia riversiana | 17.3 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 13.9 | NA | S | 1 | Xantusiidae | Xantusia | Scincomorpha | 1,18 |
| Xantusia vigilis | 1.5 | NA | NA | 5 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 10.9 | NA | S | 1 | Xantusiidae | Xantusia | Scincomorpha | 1,18 |
| Zamenis Iongissimus | 783.33 | 23.8 5 | NA | 10.6 | 1 | NA | 1460 | 60 | 1700 | 20.33 | 96.58 | S | 2 | Colubridae | Zamenis | Colubroidea | 9 |

(1) Tacutu R, Craig T, Budovsky A, Wuttke D, Lehmann G, Taranukha D, et al. Human Ageing Genomic Resources: integrated databases and tools for the biology and genetics of ageing. Nucleic Acids Res.

Oxford Univ Press; 2013;41: D1027–D1033.

- (2) Britton A. 2012. Crocodilians: Natural History & Conservation Crocodiles, Caimans, Alligators, Gharials. Retrieved May 19, 2015, from http://crocodilian.com.
- (3) Thorbjarnarson J. 1996. Reproductive characteristics of the order Crocodylia. Herpetologica 52(1):8-24.
- (4) Green J., Spilsbury R., Taylor B. 2009. Exploring the world of reptiles and amphibians. 1 ed. Chelsea House, New York.
- (5) Deckert K. 1991. Die große farbige Enzyklopädie Urania-Tierreich Fische, Lurche, Kriechtiere. 1 ed. Urania-Verlagsgesellschaft mbH, Leipzig.
- (6) Böhme W. 1981. Handbuch der Reptilien und Amphibien Europas, Band 1: Echsen (Sauria) I (Gekkonidae, Agamidae, Chamaeleonidae, Anguidae, Amphisbaenidae, Scincidae, Lacertidae I).
- 1. ed. Akademische Verlagsgesellschaft, Wiesbaden.
- (7) Böhme W. 1984. Handbuch der Reptilien und Amphibien Europas, Band 2/I: Echsen (Sauria) II (Lacertidae II: Lacerta). 1. ed. AULA-Verlag, Wiesbaden.
- (8) Böhme W. 1986. Handbuch der Reptilien und Amphibien Europas, Band 2/II: Echsen (Sauria) III (Lacertidae III: Podarcis). 1. ed. AULA-Verlag, Wiesbaden.
- (9) Böhme W. 1993. Handbuch der Reptilien und Amphibien Europas, Band 3/I: Schlangen (Serpentes) I (Typhlopidae, Boidae, Colubridae 1: Colubrinae). 1. ed. AULA-Verlag, Wiesbaden.
- (10) Bischoff W. 1998. Handbuch der Reptilien und Amphibien Europas, Band 6: Die Reptilien der Kanarischen Inseln, der Selvagens-Inseln und des Madeira Archipels. 1. ed. AULA-Verlag, Wiesbaden.
- (11) Böhme W. 1999. Handbuch der Reptilien und Amphibien Europas, Band 3/IIA: Schlangen (Serpentes) II (Colubridae 2: Boiginae, Natricinae). 1. ed. AULA-Verlag, Wiebelsheim.
- (12) Joger U, Stümpel N. 2005. Handbuch der Reptilien und Amphibien Europas, Band 3/IIB: Schlangen (Serpentes) III (Viperidae). 1. ed. AULA-Verlag, Wiebelsheim.
- (13) Fritz U. 2001. Handbuch der Reptilien und Amphibien Europas, Band 3/III A: Bataguridae, Testudinidae, Emydidae (Land- und Sumpfschildkröten). 1 ed. AULA-Verlag, Wiebelsheim.
- (14) Fritz U. 2005. Handbuch der Reptilien und Amphibien Europas, Band 3/III B: Cheloniidae, Dermochelyidae, Fossile Schildkröten Europas (See- und Lederschildkröten). 1 ed. AULA-Verlag, Wiebelsheim.
- (15) Rösler H. Geckos der Welt: alle Gattungen. 1. ed. Leipzig, Jena, Berlin: Urania-Verlagsgesellschaft mbH; 1995.
- (16) Rogner M. Echsen 1: Haltung, Pflege und Zucht im Terrarium Geckos, Flossenfüsse, Agamen, Chamäleons und Leguane. 1. ed. Stuttgart: Eugen Ulmer GmbH & Co; 1992.
- (17) Henkel F-W, Schmidt W. Geckos Biologie, Haltung und Zucht. 1. ed. Stuttgart: Eugen Ulmer GmbH & Co; 1991.
- (18) Meiri S. 2010. Length-weight allometries in lizards. Journal of Zoology 281:218-226.
- (19) Feldman A., Meiri S. 2013. Length-mass allomtery in snakes. Biological Journal of the Linnean Society 108(1):161-172.

(20) Barros MS., Resende LC., Silva AG., Ferreira Junior PD. 2012. Morphological varations and sexual dimorphism in *Chelonoides carbonaria* (Spix, 1824) and *Chelonoides denticulata* (Linnaeus, 1766) (Testudinidae). Braz. J. Biol. 72(1):153-161.

(21) Oyewale J.O., Ebute C.P., Ogunsanmi O., Olayemi F.O., Durotoye L.A. 1998. Weights and Blood Profiles of the West African Hinge-Backed Tortoise, *Kinixys erosa* and the Desert Tortoise, *Gopherus agassizii*. J. Vet. Med. A 45:599-605.

(22) Luisell L., Diagne T. 2013. Kinixys homeana Bell 1827 – Home's Hinge-Back Tortoise. In: Rhodin, A.G.J., Pritchard, P.C.H., van Dijk, P.P., Saumure, R.A., Buhlmann, K.A., Iverson, J.B., and Mittermeier, R.A. (Eds.).

Chelonian Research Monographs No. 5, pp. 070.1–070.10, doi:10.3854/crm.5.070.homeana.v1.2013, http://www.iucn-tftsg.org/cbftt/.

(23) Groombridge B., Wright L. 1982. The IUCN Amphibia - Reptilia Red Data Book. Part 1: Testudines, Crocodylia, Rhynchocephalia. 1 ed. IUCN Conservation Monitoring Center, Cambridge.

(24) Geffen E., Mendelssohn H. 1989. Activity Patterns and Thermoregulatory Behavior of the Egyptian Tortoise Testudo kleinmanni in Israel. Journal of Herpetology 23(4):404-409.

(25) Myers, P., R. Espinosa, C. S. Parr, T. Jones, G. S. Hammond, and T. A. Dewey. 2015. The Animal Diversity Web (online). Accessed at http://animaldiversity.org.

(26) Burbidge, A. A. (2004). Threatened animals of Western Australia. Department of Conservation and Land Management. pp. 110, 114.

(27) Rheubert J. L., Siegel D. S., Trauth S. E. (eds.) 2014. Reproductive Biology and Phylogeny of Lizards and Tuatara. 1 ed. CRC Press, London.

(28) Ernst, C. H., and R. W. Barbour. 1989. Turtles of the World. Smithsonian Inst. Press, Washington, D. C.

(29) Coulson, I. M., and A. Hailey. 2001. Low survival rate and high predation in the African hingeback tortoise Kinixys spekii. Pp. 383-392.

(30) Rogner, M. 1996. Schildkröten 2. Heidi Rogner-Verlag, Hürtgenwald.

(31) Walker, R. C. J., A. J. Woods-Ballard, and C. E. Rix. 2007. Population density and seasonal activity of the threatened Madagascar spider tortoise (Pyxis arachnoides arachnoides) of the southern dry forests; South West Madagascar. Afr. J. Ecol. 46:67–73.

(32) http://www.arkive.org/flat-shelled-spider-tortoise/pyxis-planicauda/,Authenticated (27/10/08) by Dr Richard Young, Conservation Biologist, Durrell Wildlife Conservation Trust. http://www.durrell.org

(33) Hofmeyr, M. D. 2004. Egg production in Chersina angulata: an unusual pattern in a Mediterranean climate. J. Herpetol. 38:172-179.

(34) Loehr, V. J. T., B. T. Henen, and M. D. Hofmeyr. 2004. Reproduction of the smallest tortoise, the namaqualand speckled padloper, Homopus signatus signatus. Herpetologica 60:444-454.

(35) Hofmeyr, M. D. B. T. Henen, and V. J. T. Loehr. 2005. Overcoming environmental and morphological constraints: egg size and pelvic kinesis in the smallest tortoise, Homopus signatus.

Can. J. Zool./Rev. Can. Zool. 83:1343-1352.

(36) Abou-Madi, N., and E. R. Jacobson. 2003. Effects of blood processing techniques on Sodium and Potassium values: a comparison between Aldabra tortoises (Geochelone gigantea) and Burmese Mountain tortoises (Manouria emys). Vet. Clin. Path. 32:61-66.

(37) McKeown, S., D. Meier, J. Juvik. 1991. The Management and Breeding of the Asian Forest Tortoise (Manouria emys) in Captivity. Proceedings of the First International Symposium on Turtles & Tortoises: Conservation and Captive Husbandry: 138-159.

Accessed May 22, 2015 at http://www.tortoise.org/archives/manouria.html.

(38) Ives, I., P. Spinks, and H. Shaffer. 2007. Morphological and genetic variation in the endangered Sulawesi tortoise Indotestudo forstenii : evidence of distinct lineages? Conserv. Genet.

(39) Stevenson, P., C. Borda, A. Rojas, and M. Álvarez. 2007. Population size, habitat choice and sexual dimorphism of the Amazonian tortoise (Geochelone denticulata) in Tinigua National Park, Colombia. Amphibia-Reptilia 28:217-226

(40) Zani, P. A., J. S. Gottschall, and R. Kram. 2005. Giant Galapagos tortoises walk without inverted pendulum mechanical-energy exchange. J. Exp. Biol. 208:1489-1494.

(41) Stearns, B. C. 1988. The captive status of the African spurred tortoise Geochelone sulcata: recent developments. International Zoo Yearbook 28:87-98.

(42) Burchfield, P. M., C. S. Doucette, and T. F. Beimler. 1980. Captive management of the radiated tortoise Geochelone radiata at Gladys Porter Zoo, Brownsville. International Zoo Yearbook 20:1-6.

(43) Bonin, F., B. Devaux, and A. Dupré. 2006. Turtles of the world. Johns Hopkins Univ. Press, Baltimore.

(44) Ewert, M. A., R. E. Hatcher, and J. M. Goode. 2004. Sex determination and ontogeny in Malacochersus tornieri, the Pancake Tortoise. J. Herpetol. 38:291-295.

(45) Hailey, A., and I. M. Coulson. 1999. The growth pattern of the African tortoise Geochelone pardalis and other chelonians. Canadian Journal of Zoology-Revue Canadienne De Zoologie 77:181-193.

(46) Henen, B. T. 1997. Seasonal and annual energy budgets of female desert tortoises (Gopherus Agassizii). Ecology 78:283-296.

(47) Hellgren, E. C., R. T. Kazmaier, D. C. R. Iii, and D. R. Synatzske. 2000. Variation in Tortoise Life History: Demography of Gopherus berlandieri. Ecology 81:1297-1310.

(48) Bjorndal, K. A. 1987. Digestive Efficiency in a Temperate Herbivorous Reptile, Gopherus-Polyphemus. Copeia:714-720.

(49) Mason, M. C., Kerley, G. I. H., Weathreby, C. A. and Branch, W. R. (2000), Angulate and leopard tortoises in the Thicket Biome, Eastern Cape, South Africa: populations and biomass estimates. African Journal of Ecology, 38: 147–153.



Figure 9.3 Modified phylogenetic tree of crocodilians from Oaks (2011) used for establishing phylogenetic regression models. Oaks (2011) separated both species *Crocodylus niloticus* and *Osteolamus tetraspis* into two distinct species in his original tree (indicated by asterisks). Because of unavailable life history data we did not follow that separation and therefore modified the extracted tree via branch deletion.



Figure 9.4 Phylogenetic tree from Pincheira-Donoso et al. (2013) as basis for our composite tree of reptiles used in our regression analyses. Indicated are the different reptile orders and the sources for the used phylogenetic trees. Species from these phylogenetic trees were attributed to the specific families in the tree of the Pincheiro-Denoso et al. (2013). The family Sphenodontidae, and thus *Sphenodon puncatatus*, was excluded from the tree to avoid problems with a predetermined phylogenetic position. Birds and other groups have already been exluded from the tree by Pincheira-Donoso et al. (2013). The tree is available as Newick tree file from the authors.

Table 9.11 Multiple phylogenetic regression models (PGLS) of life-history traits (dependent variable) of reptiles of log10-transformed data with body mass and max. altitude as independent variables. Phylogeny based on recently published phylogenetic tree of Pyron and Burbrink (2014, see main text). df = degrees of freedom, λ = Pagels' lambda as measure of phylogenetic impact (Pagel 1991).

| Trait | Coefficients | Values | P-value | SE | df | λ |
|------------------|---------------|--------|---------|-------|----|-------|
| | | | | | | |
| Age at maturity | Intercept | 3.103 | 0.000 | 0.288 | 53 | 0.66 |
| | Body mass | 0.156 | 0.000 | 0.081 | | |
| | Max. altitude | -0.093 | 0.255 | 0.036 | | |
| Birth size TL | Intercept | 0.549 | 0.313 | 0.540 | 72 | 0.61 |
| | Body mass | 0.133 | 0.003 | 0.043 | | |
| | Max. altitude | 0.023 | 0.892 | 167 | | |
| Birth weight | Intercept | -1.154 | 0.224 | 0.933 | 41 | -0.10 |
| | Body mass | 0.507 | 0.000 | 0.067 | | |
| | Max. altitude | 0.222 | 0.416 | 0.269 | | |
| Clutch size | Intercept | -0.253 | 0.376 | 0.284 | 86 | 0.76 |
| | Body mass | 0.296 | 0.000 | 0.033 | | |
| | Max. altitude | 0.133 | 0.117 | 0.084 | | |
| Clutches p.a. | Intercept | -0.891 | 0.003 | 0.294 | 82 | 0.73 |
| | Body mass | 0.021 | 0.447 | 0.091 | | |
| | Max. altitude | 0.313 | 0.001 | 0.027 | | |
| Egg weight | Intercept | -0.870 | 0.021 | 0.358 | 34 | 0.66 |
| | Body mass | 0.569 | 0.000 | 0.051 | | |
| | Max. altitude | 0.072 | 0.444 | 0.093 | | |
| Incubation time | Intercept | 2.054 | 0.000 | 0.258 | 72 | 0.79 |
| | Body mass | 0.055 | 0.092 | 0.075 | | |
| | Max. altitude | -0.078 | 0.304 | 0.032 | | |
| Max. longevity | Intercept | 1.136 | 0.001 | 0.331 | 52 | 0.71 |
| | Body mass | 0.150 | 0.001 | 0.095 | | |
| | Max. altitude | -0.074 | 0.441 | 0.041 | | |
| Size at maturity | Intercept | 0.575 | 0.122 | 0.361 | 35 | 0.90 |
| - | Body mass | 0.336 | 0.000 | 0.055 | | |
| | Max. altitude | -0.005 | 0.955 | 0.094 | | |

Table 9.12 Multiple regression models (GLS) of life-history traits (dependent variable) of reptiles of log10-transformed data with body mass and max. altitude as independent variables. Phylogeny based on recently published phylogenetic tree of Pyron and Burbrink (2014, see main text). df = degrees of freedom, SE = standard error.

| Trait | Coefficients | Values | P-value | SE | df |
|------------------|---------------|--------|---------|-------|----|
| | | | | | |
| Age at maturity | Intercept | 2.885 | 0.000 | 0.300 | 54 |
| | Body mass | 0.204 | 0.000 | 0.028 | |
| | Max. altitude | -0.076 | 0.371 | 0.085 | |
| Birth size TL | Intercept | -0.707 | 0.292 | 0.666 | 73 |
| | Body mass | 0.083 | 0.029 | 0.037 | |
| | Max. altitude | 0.467 | 0.023 | 0.201 | |
| Birth weight | Intercept | -1.010 | 0.299 | 0.960 | 42 |
| | Body mass | 0.490 | 0.000 | 0.087 | |
| | Max. altitude | 0.182 | 0.530 | 0.287 | |
| Clutch size | Intercept | 0.056 | 0.873 | 0.346 | 87 |
| | Body mass | 0.212 | 0.000 | 0.029 | |
| | Max. altitude | 0.112 | 0.268 | 0.100 | |
| Clutches p.a. | Intercept | -0.303 | 0.361 | 0.329 | 83 |
| | Body mass | 0.004 | 0.870 | 0.023 | |
| | Max. altitude | 0.132 | 0.190 | 0.100 | |
| Egg weight | Intercept | -1.533 | 0.000 | 0.360 | 34 |
| | Body mass | 0.637 | 0.000 | 0.038 | |
| | Max. altitude | 0.242 | 0.017 | 0.096 | |
| Incubation time | Intercept | 2.146 | 0.000 | 0.259 | 73 |
| | Body mass | 0.044 | 0.053 | 0.022 | |
| | Max. altitude | -0.109 | 0.146 | 0.074 | |
| Max. longevity | Intercept | 0.928 | 0.008 | 0.338 | 52 |
| | Body mass | 0.172 | 0.000 | 0.031 | |
| | Max. altitude | -0.031 | 0.748 | 0.096 | |
| Size at maturity | Intercept | -0.330 | 0.556 | 0.556 | 35 |
| - | Body mass | 0.409 | 0.000 | 0.056 | |
| | Max. altitude | 0.257 | 0.010 | 0.149 | |

9.3 Appendix C (Kapitel 5)

Table 9.13 Life history and adult weight data of 86 amphibian species. Order: A = Anura, C = Caudata; habitat types (forest - other): 0 = species lives not in this habitat, 1 = species lives in this habitat; NA = not available. Units of traits: adult weight = g, birth weight = g, incubation time = days, Larval period = days, max. longevity = years, size at maturity = cm, age at maturity = days, metamorphosis size = mm, egg mass = g, max. altitude = m.

| Species | Order | Adult weight | Birth weight | Incubation time | Larval period | Max. Iongevity | Size at maturity | Age at maturity | Metamorpho sis size | Clutch size | Egg mass | max Altitude | forest | savanna | shrubland | Grassland | wetlands | rocky areas | caves | deserts | artificial/terr estrial | other | Parental care | References |
|------------------------|-------|--------------|--------------|--------------------|------------------|-------------------|---------------------|--------------------|------------------------|-------------|----------|--------------|--------|---------|-----------|-----------|----------|-------------|-------|---------|----------------------------|-------|------------------|------------|
| Alytes cisternasii | А | 5.02 | NA | 26.00 | 145.00 | NA | 2.50 | 730 | 25.00 | 60 | 0.02 | 1800 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1,6 |
| Alytes dickhilleni | А | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 730 | 25.00 | 40 | NA | 2100 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | NA | 1 |
| Alytes muletensis | А | 2.31 | NA | 31.00 | NA | NA | 3.00 | 1095 | NA | 20 | NA | 400 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1,6 |
| Alytes obstetricans | А | 11.70 | 1.33 | 30.78 | 90.00 | 7.00 | 3.00 | 912.5 | 26.50 | 70 | 0.04 | 2400 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1,6,7 |
| Anaxyrus americanus | А | 60.00 | NA | 8.00 | NA | 36.00 | NA | 1095 | NA | 300 | 0.32 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 0 | 1,7,9 |
| Atylodes genei | С | 3.92 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 365 | 14.80 | 1000 | NA | 965 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| Bombina bombina | А | 3.07 | 0.66 | 6.50 | 76.25 | 18.00 | 3.92 | 1095 | 9.50 | 20000 | NA | 1524 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | NA | 1,6 |
| Bombina pachypus | А | 13.00 | NA | 17.50 | 60.00 | 16.00 | NA | NA | 20.00 | 10 | NA | 650 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1,6 |
| Bombina variegata | А | 6.32 | NA | 7.25 | 52.50 | 15.17 | 3.23 | 365 | 15.00 | 300 | 0.32 | 730 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1,6,7,9 |
| Bufo bufo | А | 76.54 | 2.00 | 10.00 | 85.30 | 14.67 | 7.64 | 547.5 | 13.90 | 170 | 0.01 | 2100 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1,7,8,9 |
| Bufo mauritanicus | А | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 12.00 | 10000 | NA | 2600 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| Calotriton arnoldi | С | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 1095 | 53.38 | 30 | NA | 2500 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| Calotriton asper | С | 6.62 | 0.02 | NA | 403.75 | 23.00 | NA | 1460 | 70.00 | 20 | NA | 1200 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1,9 |

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 210 |
|-----------------------------|---|--------|--------|-------|--------|-------|------|----------|-------|-------|------|------|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|---------|
| Chioglossa Iusitanica | С | 2.00 | 0.26 | 53.00 | NA | NA | NA | 1460 | 10.00 | 1500 | NA | 1600 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1,2,7 |
| Discoglossus galganoi | А | 18.50 | NA | NA | 50.00 | 8.00 | NA | NA | NA | 1500 | NA | NA | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1,6 |
| Discoglossus jeanneae | А | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 1000 | NA | 1900 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| Discoglossus montalentii | А | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 1460 | 10.00 | 1500 | NA | 1500 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| Discoglossus pictus | А | 15.85 | NA | 2.00 | 30.00 | 11.00 | 2.50 | 1095 | 15.25 | 1000 | NA | 1770 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1,6 |
| Discoglossus sardus | А | 30.95 | NA | NA | NA | 9.00 | NA | 1095 | 9.66 | 4000 | NA | 2400 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1,6 |
| Epidalea calamita | А | 50.22 | 135.00 | 11.38 | 61.60 | 17.33 | 5.27 | 1095 | 11.75 | 10000 | NA | 2500 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1,5,7,8 |
| Euproctus montanus | С | 2.50 | NA | NA | 159.67 | 6.00 | NA | 1095 | 50.85 | 60 | NA | 2260 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1,2 |
| Euproctus platycephalus | С | 4.00 | NA | NA | 318.25 | 8.00 | 8.70 | 912.5 | 60.00 | 220 | NA | 1800 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1,2 |
| Hyla arborea | А | 6.04 | 345.00 | 7.50 | 69.75 | 18.00 | NA | 1049.375 | 39.67 | 300 | 0.00 | 2150 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1,5,9 |
| Hyla intermedia | А | 6.28 | NA | 10.50 | 75.00 | NA | NA | 547.5 | 95.00 | 25000 | NA | NA | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1,5 |
| Hyla meridionalis | А | 3.11 | NA | 11.50 | 105.00 | NA | NA | 365 | 12.70 | 3000 | NA | 1100 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | NA | 1,5 |
| Hyla sarda | А | 3.18 | NA | 14.00 | 75.00 | NA | NA | 1095 | NA | 2 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 1,5 |
| Lissotriton boscai | С | 1.77 | NA | 18.00 | NA | 8.00 | NA | 1095 | 47.86 | 260 | 0.00 | 2500 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1,9 |
| Lissotriton helveticus | С | 1.30 | NA | 21.63 | 90.00 | 9.40 | NA | 1095 | 30.45 | 2500 | NA | 1800 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| Lissotriton italicus | С | 0.98 | NA | NA | 35.00 | 9.50 | NA | 547.5 | 40.00 | 2500 | NA | 675 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| Lissotriton montandoni | С | 2.15 | NA | 22.50 | 73.75 | NA | 6.73 | 730 | 25.00 | 4000 | NA | 500 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| Lissotriton vulgaris | С | 2.68 | 0.21 | 21.25 | 90.00 | 11.88 | 6.31 | 365 | 20.00 | 350 | 0.98 | 900 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | NA | 1,9 |
| Lithobates catesbeianus | А | 307.23 | NA | 4.00 | NA | 16.00 | NA | 730 | 23.13 | 16000 | 0.01 | 2000 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1,7,8,9 |

| Lithobates sylvaticus | А | 14.40 | NA | NA | NA | 5.00 | NA | 1460 | 27.50 | 60 | NA | 1500 | NA | 1,9 |
|-------------------------------|---|-------|------|--------|--------|-------|------|-------|-------|-------|------|------|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|---------|
| Lyciasalamandra helverseni | С | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 365 | 20.00 | 1500 | NA | 1500 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| Lyciasalamandra Iuschani | С | 2.00 | 1.58 | 195.00 | NA | NA | NA | 730 | NA | 10000 | NA | NA | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | NA | 1 |
| Mesotriton alpestris | С | 2.96 | NA | 15.00 | 90.00 | 13.00 | 6.35 | 1095 | NA | 2 | 2.00 | 1000 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | NA | 1,3 |
| Pelobates cultripes | А | 21.60 | NA | 10.50 | 135.00 | NA | NA | NA | 25.00 | 3000 | NA | NA | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1,6 |
| Pelobates fuscus | А | 21.30 | 7.00 | 8.00 | 96.91 | 8.89 | 3.28 | NA | NA | 15000 | NA | NA | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | NA | 1,6,7,9 |
| Pelobates syriacus | А | NA | 2.10 | 6.50 | 85.00 | NA | NA | NA | NA | 15000 | NA | NA | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | NA | 1,6 |
| Pelodytes ibericus | А | 3.98 | NA | 7.50 | 69.00 | NA | 3.00 | 365 | NA | 2575 | NA | 480 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | NA | 1,6 |
| Pelodytes punctatus | А | 3.03 | NA | 10.00 | 62.50 | NA | 2.80 | 1095 | 27.33 | 10000 | NA | 1550 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1,6 |
| Pelophylax bedriagae | А | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 1095 | 25.00 | 4000 | NA | 1550 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| Pelophylax bergeri | А | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 730 | 27.30 | 10000 | NA | 2380 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| Pelophylax cerigensis | А | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 3000 | NA | 500 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | NA | 1 |
| Pelophylax cretensis | А | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 547.5 | 49.38 | 1400 | NA | 1500 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| Pelophylax epeiroticus | А | 48.80 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 1095 | 18.50 | 15000 | 0.57 | 4500 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| Pelophylax esculentus | А | 36.90 | NA | NA | NA | 12.00 | NA | 1095 | 16.25 | 3000 | NA | 800 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1,7,8,9 |
| Pelophylax grafi | А | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 1095 | NA | 800 | NA | 1960 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| Pelophylax hispanicus | А | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 13.00 | 450 | NA | 2200 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| Pelophylax kurtmuelleri | A | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 12.00 | 150 | 0.01 | 2100 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| Pelophylax lessonae | А | 30.80 | NA | NA | NA | 6.00 | NA | NA | NA | 17.5 | NA | 2450 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | NA | 1,9 |

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 212 |
|---------------------------|---|-------|--------|---------|---------|-------|------|--------|-------|-------|------|------|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|-----------|
| Pelophylax perezi | А | 21.56 | NA | 6.00 | NA | 6.80 | NA | 1095 | 47.50 | 11 | NA | 2800 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | NA | 1,9 |
| Pelophylax ridibundus | А | 35.53 | NA | NA | NA | 11.00 | NA | 1825 | 55.00 | 6 | NA | 2300 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | NA | 1,9 |
| Pelophylax shqipericus | А | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 1095 | 63.25 | 54 | NA | 2150 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| Pleurodeles waltl | С | 25.20 | NA | 12.50 | 105.83 | 21.50 | NA | NA | NA | 10000 | NA | NA | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1,2,7,8,9 |
| Proteus anguinus | С | 13.20 | NA | 154.25 | 2608.25 | 58.60 | NA | NA | NA | 10000 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 1,2,7,8,9 |
| Pseudepidalea viridis | А | 33.18 | 0.30 | 2.75 | 49.11 | 12.30 | NA | NA | NA | 20 | NA | 1200 | NA | 1,5,7,8,9 |
| Rana arvalis | А | 10.80 | 0.55 | 14.17 | 57.80 | 11.50 | 4.00 | 730 | NA | 10000 | NA | 1000 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | NA | 1,9 |
| Rana dalmatina | А | 20.99 | 0.38 | 25.70 | 70.85 | 7.25 | NA | 2555 | 38.00 | 70 | 0.00 | NA | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1,7 |
| Rana graeca | A | NA | NA | 50.00 | 100.00 | NA | NA | 1095 | 19.00 | 1800 | 0.01 | 1720 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| Rana iberica | А | 6.03 | NA | NA | 90.00 | 8.00 | NA | NA | NA | 2000 | NA | 1700 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1,9 |
| Rana italica | A | NA | NA | 17.50 | 87.50 | 8.00 | NA | 365 | 15.00 | 400 | NA | 400 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| Rana latastei | А | 19.60 | NA | 21.00 | 69.00 | NA | 3.50 | 1095 | 13.75 | 4000 | 0.01 | 3000 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| Rana pyrenaica | А | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 2190 | 55.50 | 22.5 | NA | 1800 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | NA | 1 |
| Rana temporaria | А | 42.24 | 0.35 | 19.75 | 74.50 | 14.97 | 5.73 | NA | 30.00 | 60 | NA | NA | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | NA | 1,7,8,9 |
| Salamandra algira | С | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 1460 | 20.00 | 10 | NA | 1800 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| Salamandra atra | С | 8.20 | 1.40 | 1095.00 | NA | 13.13 | NA | NA | 20.00 | 10 | NA | 1040 | NA | 1 | 1,4,7,9 |
| Salamandra corsica | С | 32.02 | NA | NA | 85.00 | NA | NA | NA | 20.00 | 10 | NA | 1170 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1,4 |
| Salamandra lanzai | С | 12.20 | NA | 1460.00 | 1186.25 | 21.50 | NA | 1277.5 | 20.00 | 10 | NA | 1600 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1,4 |
| Salamandra salamandra | С | 35.23 | 324.00 | 0.00 | 93.30 | 23.50 | NA | NA | 20.00 | 10 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 1,4,9 |

| Salamandrina perspicillata | С | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 1095 | 25.00 | 11.333 | NA | 2500 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
|-------------------------------|---|-------|------|--------|--------|-------|----|---------|-------|--------|------|------|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|-------|
| Salamandrina terdigitata | С | 1.15 | NA | 21.00 | 105.00 | NA | NA | 912.5 | 20.00 | 10 | NA | 1360 | NA | 1 | 1,2,7 |
| Speleomantes ambrosii | С | 2.26 | NA | 277.50 | 45.00 | NA | NA | 365 | 18.00 | 1400 | NA | 2300 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1,2 |
| Speleomantes flavus | С | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 365 | 20.00 | 1400 | NA | 2300 | NA | 0 | 1 |
| Speleomantes imperialis | С | 3.92 | 0.17 | 173.00 | NA | NA | NA | 365 | 20.00 | 1000 | NA | 1750 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1,2 |
| Speleomantes italicus | С | 2.88 | NA | 304.00 | NA | 10.60 | NA | 1095 | 32.95 | 250 | 0.00 | 1940 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | NA | 1,2,9 |
| Speleomantes sarrabusensis | С | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 730 | 35.00 | 460 | 0.00 | 2400 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| Speleomantes strinatii | С | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 25.00 | 400 | NA | 1525 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| Speleomantes supramontis | С | 5.08 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 1095 | 30.00 | 250 | NA | 2000 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | NA | 1,2 |
| Triturus carnifex | С | 8.84 | NA | NA | NA | 11.00 | NA | 1058.5 | NA | 400 | NA | 1000 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1,9 |
| Triturus cristatus | С | 7.34 | NA | 23.50 | 90.00 | 16.00 | NA | 974.55 | 61.25 | 400 | 0.00 | 1750 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1,7,9 |
| Triturus dobrogicus | С | 4.70 | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 1168 | 35.00 | 250 | NA | 600 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | NA | 1 |
| Triturus karelinii | С | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | 1460 | 40.00 | 250 | NA | 2134 | NA | 1 |
| Triturus marmoratus | С | 8.91 | NA | NA | 90.00 | 19.50 | NA | 1522.05 | 43.13 | 400 | 0.00 | 1940 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1,3,9 |
| Triturus pygmaeus | С | 2.94 | NA | 13.00 | 105.00 | 10.17 | NA | 730 | 46.50 | 150 | NA | 1500 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | NA | 1,3 |
| Xenopus laevis | А | 76.21 | NA | 2.00 | NA | 30.30 | NA | 730 | 15.00 | 2500 | NA | NA | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1,7,9 |

(1) Trochet et al. 2014. A database of life-history traits of European amphibians. Biodiversity Data Journal 2:e4123; doi: 10.3897/BDJ.2.e4123

(2) Grossenbacher K. & Thiesmeier B. 1999. Handbuch der Reptilien und Amphibien Europas, Band 4/I: Schwanzlurche (Urodela) I (Hynobiidae, Proteidae, Plethodontidae, Salamandridae I: *Pleurodeles, Salamandrina, Euproctus, Chioglossa, Mertensiella*). 1. ed. AULA-Verlag GmbH, Verlag für Wissenschaft und Forschung, Wiesbaden.
(3) Grossenbacher K. & Thiesmeier B. 2003. Handbuch der Reptilien und Amphibien Europas, Band 4/IIA: Schwanzlurche (Urodela) IIA, Salamandridae II: *Triturus* 1. 1. ed. AULA-Verlag GmbH, Verlag für Wissenschaft und Forschung, Wiebelsheim.

(4) Thiesmeier B. & Grossenbacher K. 2004. Handbuch der Reptilien und Amphibien Europas, Band 4/IIB: Schwanzlurche (Urodela) IIB, Salamandridae III: Triturus 2, Salamandra. 1.

ed. AULA-Verlag GmbH, Verlag für Wissenschaft und Forschung, Wiebelsheim.

(5) Grossenbacher K. 2009. Handbuch der Reptilien und Amphibien Europas, Band 5/II: Froschlurche (Anura) II (Hylidae, Bufonidae). 1. ed. AULA-Verlag GmbH, Verlag für Wissenschaft und Forschung, Wiebelsheim.

(6) Grossenbacher K. 2012. Handbuch der Reptilien und Amphibien Europas, Band 5/I: Froschlurche (Anura) I (Alytidae, Bombinatoridae, Pelodytidae, Pelobatidae). 1. ed. AULA-Verlag GmbH, Verlag für Wissenschaft und Forschung, Wiebelsheim.

(7) Green J., Spilsbury R., Taylor B. 2009. Exploring the world of reptiles and amphibians. 1 ed. Chelsea House, New York.

(8) Deckert K. 1991. Die große farbige Enzyklopädie Urania-Tierreich - Fische, Lurche, Kriechtiere. 1 ed. Urania-Verlagsgesellschaft mbH, Leipzig.

(9) Tacutu R, Craig T, Budovsky A, Wuttke D, Lehmann G, Taranukha D, et al. Human Ageing Genomic Resources: integrated databases and tools for the biology and genetics of ageing. Nucleic Acids Res. Oxford Univ Press; 2013;41: D1027–D1033.
Table 9.14 Multiple regression models of life-history traits (dependent variable) of amphibians based on phylogenetic GLS regression (PGLS) of log10-transformed data with body mass and max. altitude as independent variables. Phylogeny based on recently published phylogenetic tree of Oaks (2011, see main text). df = degrees of freedom, CI = confidence interval, λ = Pagels' lambda as measure of phylogenetic impact (Pagel 1991).

| Trait | Coefficients | Values | P-value | 95%CI | df | λ |
|-----------------------|---------------|---------|---------|----------------|----|-------|
| | | | | | | |
| Age at maturity | Intercept | 1.898 | <0.001 | 1.034, 2.762 | 30 | 0.13 |
| | Body mass | 0.011 | 0.893 | -0.159, 0.181 | | |
| | Max. altitude | 0.331 | 0.025 | 0.045, 0.617 | | |
| Birth weight | Intercept | -10.534 | 0.216 | -29.149, 8.082 | 9 | -0.05 |
| | Body mass | 0.203 | 0.830 | -2.017, 2.422 | | |
| | Max. altitude | 3.238 | 0.241 | -2.858, 9.333 | | |
| Clutch size | Intercept | 0.834 | 0.669 | -3.101, 4.769 | 34 | 0.85 |
| | Body mass | -0.757 | 0.071 | -1.582, 0.068 | | |
| | Max. altitude | 0.641 | 0.277 | -0.540, 1.822 | | |
| Egg weight | Intercept | 11.304 | 0.029 | 1.556, 21.051 | 10 | 0.09 |
| | Body mass | 0.140 | 0.832 | -1.360, 1.639 | | |
| | Max. altitude | -4.088 | 0.017 | -7.178, -0.997 | | |
| Incubation time | Intercept | 1.474 | 0.077 | -0.177, 3.124 | 24 | 0.99 |
| | Body mass | 0.451 | 0.042 | 0.019, 0.883 | | |
| | Max. altitude | -0.135 | 0.500 | -0.545, 0.275 | | |
| Larval period | Intercept | 0.616 | 0.537 | -1.411, 2.642 | 27 | 0.20 |
| | Body mass | 0.083 | 0.601 | -0.242, 0.409 | | |
| | Max. altitude | 0.419 | 0.202 | -0.240, 1.079 | | |
| Max. longevity | Intercept | 2.013 | 0.002 | 0.854, 3.173 | 23 | -0.02 |
| | Body mass | 0.135 | 0.091 | -0.024, 0.293 | | |
| | Max. altitude | -0.328 | 0.080 | -0.699, 0.043 | | |
| Size at maturity | Intercept | 0.796 | <0.001 | 0.456, 1.136 | 14 | 1.01 |
| | Body mass | 0.027 | 0.540 | -0.066, 0.120 | | |
| | Max. altitude | -0.050 | 0.012 | -0.087, -0.013 | | |
| Size at metamosphosis | Intercept | 0.930 | 0.102 | -0.199, 2.060 | 29 | 0.92 |
| | Body mass | 0.036 | 0.711 | -0.161, 0.233 | | |
| | Max. altitude | 0.109 | 0.502 | -0.221, 0.440 | | |

Table 9.15 Standardized major axis (SMA) regression models of the trait "age at maturity" for reptiles based on log10-transformed data with other life history traits as independent variables. CI_1 = confidence interval of intercept, CI_S = confidence interval of slope, n = sample size, P-value = P-value of the test of correlation coefficient against zero.

| Trait | Intercept | 95%Cl _l | n | Slope | 95%Cl _s | P-value | R ² |
|------------------|-----------|--------------------|-----|--------|--------------------|---------|----------------|
| Birth weight | 2.709 | 2.548, 2.870 | 42 | 0.550 | 0.428, 0.707 | <0.001 | 0.37 |
| Clutch size | 2.358 | 2.221, 2.495 | 108 | 0.781 | 0.669, 0.911 | <0.001 | 0.35 |
| Clutches p.a. | 3.371 | 3.241, 3.500 | 78 | -1.482 | -1.856, -1.183 | 0.35 | 0.01 |
| Egg weight | 2.768 | 2.618, 2.919 | 42 | 0.461 | 0.372, 0.572 | <0.001 | 0.54 |
| Incubation time | -1.057 | -1.850, -0.265 | 97 | 2.233 | 1.855, 2.688 | <0.001 | 0.16 |
| Max. longevity | 1.742 | 1.523, 1.960 | 93 | 1.061 | 0.913, 1.233 | <0.001 | 0.48 |
| Size at maturity | 2.277 | 1.972, 2.581 | 44 | 0.639 | 0.490, 0.834 | <0.001 | 0.25 |

Table 9.16 Standardized major axis (SMA) regression models of the trait "birth weight" for reptiles based on log10-transformed data with other life history traits as independent variables. CI_1 = confidence interval of intercept, CI_s = confidence interval of slope, n = sample size, P-value = P-value of the test of correlation coefficient against zero.

| Trait | Intercept | 95%Cl _l | n | Slope | 95%CI _S | P-value | R ² |
|------------------|-----------|--------------------|----|--------|--------------------|---------|----------------|
| Age at maturity | -4.925 | -6.402, -3.447 | 42 | 1.818 | 1.414, 2.338 | <0.001 | 0.37 |
| Clutch size | -0.653 | -0.981, -0.325 | 76 | 1.551 | 1.275, 1.887 | <0.001 | 0.27 |
| Clutches p.a. | 1.210 | 0.928, 1.491 | 62 | -2.227 | -2.853, -1.739 | 0.05 | 0.06 |
| Egg weight | -0.133 | -0.426, 0.840 | 32 | 1.061 | 0.840, 1.338 | <0.001 | 0.60 |
| Incubation time | -6.410 | -8.054, -4.766 | 72 | 3.697 | 2.952, 4.629 | 0.009 | 0.09 |
| Max. longevity | -2.380 | -3.199, 1.561 | 51 | 2.336 | 1.834, 2.975 | <0.001 | 0.28 |
| Size at maturity | -1.172 | -1.921, -0.423 | 33 | 1.402 | 1.016, 1.933 | <0.01 | 0.20 |

Table 9.17 Standardized major axis (SMA) regression models of the trait "clutch size" for reptiles based on log10-transformed data with other life history traits as independent variables. CI_1 = confidence interval of intercept, CI_s = confidence interval of slope, n = sample size, P-value = P-value of the test of correlation coefficient against zero.

| Trait | Intercept | 95%Cl _l | n | Slope | 95%CI _S | P-value | R ² |
|------------------|-----------|--------------------|-----|--------|--------------------|---------|----------------|
| Age at maturity | -3.020 | -3.650, -2.391 | 108 | 1.281 | 1.097, 1.495 | <0.001 | 0.35 |
| Birth weight | 0.421 | 0.273, 0.569 | 76 | 0.644 | 0.530, 0.785 | <0.001 | 0.27 |
| Clutches p.a. | 1.181 | 1.057, 1.306 | 132 | -1.604 | -1.902, -1.352 | 0.086 | 0.02 |
| Egg weight | 0.485 | 0.354, 0.616 | 62 | 0.581 | 0.496, 0.681 | <0.001 | 0.62 |
| Incubation time | -6.410 | -8.054, -4.766 | 170 | 3.697 | 2.952, 4.629 | 0.009 | 0.09 |
| Max. longevity | -0.871 | -1.183, -0.559 | 137 | 1.414 | 1.205, 1.659 | <0.001 | 0.11 |
| Size at maturity | -0.104 | -0.370, 0.162 | 53 | 0.782 | 0.643, 0.952 | <0.001 | 0.50 |

Table 9.18 Standardized major axis (SMA) regression models of the trait "clutches p.a." for reptiles based on log10-transformed data with other life history traits as independent variables. CI_1 = confidence interval of intercept, CI_s = confidence interval of slope, n = sample size, P-value = P-value of the test of correlation coefficient against zero.

| Trait | Intercept | 95%Cl _l | n | Slope | 95%Cl _s | P-value | R ² |
|------------------|-----------|--------------------|-----|--------|--------------------|---------|----------------|
| Age at maturity | 2.275 | 1.798, 2.752 | 78 | -0.675 | -0.845, -0.539 | 0.347 | 0.01 |
| Birth weight | 0.543 | 0.420, 0.667 | 62 | -0.449 | -0.575, -0.351 | 0.05 | 0.06 |
| Clutch size | 0.737 | 0.628, 0.845 | 132 | -0.624 | -0.740, -0.526 | 0.086 | 0.02 |
| Egg weight | 0.610 | 0.469, 0.752 | 41 | -0.457 | -0.605, -0.346 | 0.001 | 0.24 |
| Incubation time | 2.979 | 2.461, 3.496 | 111 | -1.434 | -1.732, -1.188 | 0.622 | <0.01 |
| Max. longevity | 1.159 | 0.919, 1.399 | 72 | -0.759 | -0.961, -0.599 | 0.892 | <0.001 |
| Size at maturity | 0.999 | 0.748, 1.250 | 45 | -0.547 | -0.727, -0.411 | 0.02 | 0.12 |

Table 9.19 Standardized major axis (SMA) regression models of the trait "egg mass" for reptiles based on log10-transformed data with other life history traits as independent variables. CI_1 = confidence interval of intercept, CI_s = confidence interval of slope, n = sample size, P-value = P-value of the test of correlation coefficient against zero.

| Trait | Intercept | 95%Cl _l | n | Slope | 95%Cl _s | P-value | R ² |
|------------------|-----------|--------------------|----|--------|--------------------|---------|----------------|
| Age at maturity | -5.999 | -7.590, -4.408 | 42 | 2.167 | 1.748, 2.687 | <0.001 | 0.54 |
| Birth weight | 0.126 | -0.131, 0.383 | 32 | 0.943 | 0.747, 1.190 | <0.001 | 0.60 |
| Clutch size | -0.834 | -1.172, -0.496 | 62 | 1.720 | 1.468, 2.015 | <0.001 | 0.24 |
| Clutches p.a. | 1.334 | 1.020, 1.649 | 41 | -2.186 | -2.889, -1.654 | 0.001 | 0.24 |
| Incubation time | 2.979 | 2.461, 3.496 | 62 | -1.434 | -1.732, -1.188 | 0.622 | <0.01 |
| Max. longevity | -2.442 | -3.426, -1.458 | 45 | 2.679 | 2.081, 3.449 | <0.001 | 0.31 |
| Size at maturity | -1.020 | -1.399, -0.642 | 34 | 1.305 | 1.115, 1.526 | <0.001 | 0.81 |

Table 9.20 Standardized major axis (SMA) regression models of the trait "Incubation time" for reptiles based on log10-transformed data with other life history traits as independent variables. CI_1 = confidence interval of intercept, CI_S = confidence interval of slope, n = sample size, P-value = P-value of the test of correlation coefficient against zero.

| Trait | Intercept | 95%Clı | n | Slope | 95%Cl _s | P-value | R ² |
|------------------|-----------|--------------|-----|--------|--------------------|---------|----------------|
| Age at maturity | 2.275 | 1.798, 2.752 | 97 | -0.675 | -0.845, -0.539 | 0.347 | 0.01 |
| Birth weight | 1.734 | 1.658, 1.810 | 72 | 0.271 | 0.216, 0.339 | <0.01 | 0.09 |
| Clutch size | 2.291 | 2.218, 2.364 | 170 | -0.407 | -0.474, -0.350 | 0.811 | <0.001 |
| Clutches p.a. | 2.076 | 2.011, 2.142 | 111 | -0.697 | -0.842, -0.577 | 0.622 | <0.01 |
| Egg weight | 1.689 | 1.624, 1.753 | 62 | 0.159 | 0.123, 0.204 | 0.349 | 0.01 |
| Max. longevity | 1.196 | 1.066, 1.327 | 122 | 0.547 | 0.460, 0.649 | <0.001 | 0.09 |
| Size at maturity | 2.329 | 2.190, 2.467 | 52 | -0.275 | -0.364, -0.208 | 0.70 | <0.01 |

Table 9.21 Standardized major axis (SMA) regression models of the trait "max. longevity" for reptiles based on log10-transformed data with other life history traits as independent variables. $CI_I = confidence$ interval of intercept, $CI_S = confidence$ interval of slope, n = sample size, P-value = P-value of the test of correlation coefficient against zero.

| Trait | Intercept | 95%Clı | n | Slope | 95%Cl _s | P-value | R ² |
|------------------|-----------|----------------|-----|--------|--------------------|---------|----------------|
| Age at maturity | -1.641 | -2.090, -1.192 | 93 | 0.942 | 0.811, 1.095 | <0.001 | 0.48 |
| Birth weight | 1.019 | 0.890, 1.148 | 51 | 0.428 | 0.336, 0.545 | <0.001 | 0.28 |
| Clutch size | 0.616 | 0.486, 0.746 | 137 | 0.707 | 0.603, 0.830 | <0.001 | 0.11 |
| Clutches p.a. | 1.528 | 1.385, 1.671 | 72 | -1.318 | -1.670, -1.041 | 0.892 | <0.001 |
| Egg weight | 0.912 | 0.760, 1.063 | 45 | 0.373 | 0.290, 0.481 | <0.001 | 0.31 |
| Incubation time | -2.189 | -2.798, -1.580 | 122 | 1.830 | 1.541, 2.172 | <0.001 | 0.09 |
| Size at maturity | 0.540 | 0.222, 0.859 | 40 | 0.536 | 0.390, 0.737 | 0.30 | 0.03 |

Table 9.22 Standardized major axis (SMA) regression models of the trait "size at maturity" for reptiles based on log10-transformed data with other life history traits as independent variables. $CI_I = confidence$ interval of intercept, $CI_S = confidence$ interval of slope, n = sample size, P-value = P-value of the test of correlation coefficient against zero.

| Trait | Intercept | 95%Cl _l | n | Slope | 95%Cl _s | P-value | R ² |
|-----------------|-----------|--------------------|----|--------|--------------------|---------|----------------|
| Age at maturity | -3.562 | -4.978, -2.147 | 44 | 1.565 | 1.199, 2.041 | <0.001 | 0.25 |
| Birth weight | 0.836 | 0.546, 1.127 | 33 | 0.713 | 0.517, 0.984 | <0.01 | 0.20 |
| Clutch size | 0.133 | -0.182, 0.449 | 53 | 1.278 | 1.050, 1.556 | <0.001 | 0.50 |
| Clutches p.a. | 1.827 | 1.630, 2.023 | 45 | -1.829 | -2.432, -1.375 | 0.021 | 0.12 |
| Egg weight | 0.782 | 0.605, 0.959 | 34 | 0.766 | 0.655, 0.897 | <0.001 | 0.81 |
| Incubation time | 8.459 | 6.505, 10.413 | 52 | -3.633 | -4.806, -2.746 | 0.704 | <0.01 |
| Max. longevity | -1.008 | -1.912, 1.357 | 40 | 1.865 | 1.357, 2.565 | 0.304 | 0.03 |

Table 9.23 Standardized major axis (SMA) regression models of the trait "birth weight" for amphibians based on log10-transformed data with other life history traits as independent variables. CI_1 = confidence interval of intercept, CI_s = confidence interval of slope, n = sample size, P-value = P-value of the test of correlation coefficient against zero.

| Trait | Intercept | 95%Cl _l | n | Slope | 95%Cl _s | P-value | R ² |
|-----------------------|-----------|--------------------|----|--------|--------------------|---------|----------------|
| Age at maturity | -14.052 | -24.043, -4.062 | 12 | 4.785 | 2.484, 9.218 | 0.871 | <0.01 |
| Clutch size | -2.368 | -3.937, -0.799 | 18 | 0.959 | 0.578, 1.589 | 0.69 | 0.01 |
| Egg mass | -1.610 | -4.680, 1.460 | 5 | -1.089 | -3.230, -0.367 | 0.19 | 0.49 |
| Incubation time | 2.111 | 0.851, 3.371 | 16 | -1.420 | -2.414, -0.835 | 0.36 | 0.06 |
| Larval period | 11.822 | 5.049, 18.594 | 14 | -5.957 | -10.379, -3.419 | 0.19 | 0.14 |
| Max. longevity | -8.357 | -13.692, -3.023 | 14 | 7.671 | 4.321, 13.618 | 0.35 | 0.07 |
| Size at metamorphosis | 7.260 | 2.547, 11.974 | 13 | -5.280 | -9.745, -2.860 | 0.54 | 0.03 |
| Size at maturity | 4.440 | 0.093, 8.788 | 8 | -6.299 | -15.160, -2.618 | 0.85 | <0.01 |

Table 9.24 Standardized major axis (SMA) regression models of the trait "incubation time" for amphibians based on log10-transformed data with other life history traits as independent variables. CI_1 = confidence interval of intercept, CI_s = confidence interval of slope, n = sample size, P-value = P-value of the test of correlation coefficient against zero.

| Trait | Intercept | 95%Cl _l | n | Slope | 95%Cl _s | P-value | R ² |
|-----------------------|-----------|--------------------|----|--------|--------------------|---------|----------------|
| Age at maturity | -7.063 | -9.948, -4.178 | 37 | 2.878 | 2.056, 4.030 | 0.870 | <0.001 |
| Birth weight | 1.487 | 1.023, 1.950 | 16 | -0.704 | -1.197, -0.414 | 0.36 | 0.06 |
| Clutch size | 2.778 | 2.281, 3.275 | 46 | -0.538 | -0.722, -0.401 | 0.19 | 0.04 |
| Egg mass | 0.572 | 0.050, 1.094 | 15 | -0.414 | -0.721, -0.238 | 0.43 | 0.05 |
| Larval period | -1.697 | -2.485, -0.908 | 35 | 1.492 | 1.150, 1.937 | <0.001 | 0.44 |
| Max. longevity | -2.414 | -3.900, -0.928 | 29 | 3.204 | 2.183, 4.704 | 0.66 | 0.01 |
| Size at metamorphosis | 5.270 | 3.822, 6.719 | 34 | -2.874 | -4.090, -2.020 | 0.97 | <0.001 |
| Size at maturity | -0.029 | -0.669, 0.612 | 17 | 1.888 | 1.131, 3.150 | 0.36 | 0.06 |
| | | | | | | | |

Table 9.25 Standardized major axis (SMA) regression models of the trait "larval period" for amphibians based on log10-transformed data with other life history traits as independent variables. $CI_I = confidence$ interval of intercept, $CI_S = confidence$ interval of slope, n = sample size, P-value = P-value of the test of correlation coefficient against zero.

| Trait | Intercept | 95%Cl _l | n | Slope | 95%Cl _s | P-value | R ² |
|-----------------------|-----------|--------------------|----|--------|--------------------|---------|----------------|
| Age at maturity | -2.099 | -3.563, -0.636 | 32 | 1.395 | 0.982, 1.983 | 0.131 | 0.07 |
| Birth weight | 1.985 | 1.837, 2.133 | 14 | -0.168 | -0.293, -0.096 | 0.19 | 0.14 |
| Clutch size | 2.767 | 2.486, 3.048 | 44 | -0.296 | -0.402, -0.219 | 0.44 | 0.01 |
| Egg mass | 1.761 | 1.605, 1.916 | 12 | -0.099 | -0.192, -0.052 | 0.99 | <0.01 |
| Incubation time | 1.137 | 0.897, 1.377 | 35 | 0.670 | 0.516, 0.870 | <0.001 | 0.44 |
| Max. longevity | -0.160 | -0.897, 0.578 | 30 | 1.941 | 1.400, 2.691 | <0.01 | 0.26 |
| Size at metamorphosis | 0.268 | -0.349, 0.885 | 33 | 1.209 | 0.855, 1.711 | 0.14 | 0.07 |
| Size at maturity | 1.155 | 0.771, 1.539 | 9 | 1.184 | 0.738, 1.900 | 0.07 | 0.21 |
| | | | | | | | |

Table 9.26 Standardized major axis (SMA) regression models of the trait "max. longevity" for amphibians based on log10-transformed data with other life history traits as independent variables. CI_{I} = confidence interval of intercept, CI_{S} = confidence interval of slope, n = sample size, P-value = P-value of the test of correlation coefficient against zero.

| Trait | Intercept | 95%Clı | n | Slope | 95%Cl _s | P-value | R ² |
|-----------------------|-----------|---------------|----|--------|--------------------|---------|----------------|
| Age at maturity | 4.227 | 3.052, 5.403 | 32 | -1.056 | -1.519, -0.733 | 0.79 | <0.01 |
| Birth weight | 1.089 | 0.966, 1.213 | 14 | 0.130 | 0.073, 0.231 | 0.35 | 0.07 |
| Clutch size | 0.596 | 0.416, 0.775 | 43 | 0.203 | 0.150, 0.276 | 0.26 | 0.03 |
| Egg mass | 1.419 | 1.170, 1.668 | 13 | 0.165 | 0.089, 0.305 | 0.59 | 0.03 |
| Incubation time | 0.753 | 0.563, 0.944 | 29 | 0.312 | 0.213, 0.458 | 0.66 | <0.01 |
| Larval period | 0.082 | -0.271, 0.435 | 30 | 0.515 | 0.372, 0.714 | <0.01 | 0.26 |
| Size at metamorphosis | 2.184 | 1.779, 2.589 | 32 | -0.771 | -1.097, -0.542 | 0.15 | 0.07 |
| Size at maturity | 0.582 | 0.215, 0.950 | 12 | 0.752 | 0.393, 1.440 | 0.63 | 0.02 |
| | | | | | | | |

Table 9.27 Standardized major axis (SMA) regression models of the trait "size at maturity" for amphibians based on log10-transformed data with other life history traits as independent variables. CI_{I} = confidence interval of intercept, CI_{S} = confidence interval of slope, n = sample size, P-value = P-value of the test of correlation coefficient against zero.

| Trait | Intercept | 95%Cl _l | n | Slope | 95%Cl _s | P-value | R ² |
|-----------------------|-----------|--------------------|----|--------|--------------------|---------|----------------|
| Age at maturity | 3.468 | 1.839, 5.096 | 16 | -0.986 | -1.697, -0.574 | 0.69 | 0.01 |
| Birth weight | 0.705 | 0.520, 0.890 | 8 | -0.159 | -0.382, -0.066 | 0.85 | <0.01 |
| Clutch size | 1.054 | 0.800, 1.308 | 18 | -0.154 | -0.254, -0.093 | 0.46 | 0.03 |
| Egg mass | 0.836 | 0.498, 1.174 | 7 | 0.195 | 0.075, 0.509 | 0.57 | 0.07 |
| Incubation time | 0.015 | -0.316, 0.347 | 17 | 0.530 | 0.317, 0.884 | 0.36 | 0.06 |
| Larval period | -0.975 | -1.769, -0.182 | 17 | 0.845 | 0.526, 1.355 | 0.07 | 0.21 |
| Max. longevity | -0.774 | -1.788, 0.241 | 12 | 1.329 | 0.694, 2.545 | 0.63 | 0.02 |
| Size at metamorphosis | -0.525 | -1.283, 0.234 | 13 | 0.895 | 0.490, 1.634 | 0.38 | 0.07 |
| | | | | | | | |

Table 9.28 Standardized major axis (SMA) regression models of the trait "age at maturity" for amphibians based on log10-transformed data with other life history traits as independent variables. CI_{I} = confidence interval of intercept, CI_{S} = confidence interval of slope, n = sample size, P-value = P-value of the test of correlation coefficient against zero.

| Trait | Intercept | 95%Cl _l | n | Slope | 95%Cl _s | P-value | R ² |
|-----------------------|-----------|--------------------|----|--------|--------------------|---------|----------------|
| Birth weight | 2.937 | 2.705, 3.168 | 12 | 0.209 | 0.108, 0.403 | 0.87 | <0.01 |
| Clutch size | 3.466 | 3.331, 3.601 | 66 | -0.199 | -0.251, -0.158 | <0.01 | 0.12 |
| Egg mass | 2.641 | 2.443, 2.839 | 18 | -0.182 | -0.294, -0.113 | 0.16 | 0.12 |
| Incubation time | 1.137 | 0.897, 1.377 | 37 | 0.670 | 0.516, 0.870 | <0.001 | 0.44 |
| Larval period | 1.505 | 0.991, 2.019 | 32 | 0.717 | 0.504, 1.019 | 0.13 | 0.07 |
| Max. longevity | 4.005 | 3.611, 4.399 | 32 | -0.947 | -1.364, -0.658 | 0.79 | <0.01 |
| Size at metamorphosis | 1.711 | 1.381, 2.041 | 57 | 0.870 | 0.672, 1.127 | 0.06 | 0.06 |
| Size at maturity | 3.515 | 3.133, 3.898 | 16 | -1.014 | -1.744, -0.589 | 0.69 | 0.01 |
| | | | | | | | |

| Trait | Intercept | 95%Cl _l | n | Slope | 95%Cl _s | P-value | R ² |
|------------------|-----------|--------------------|----|--------|--------------------|---------|----------------|
| Age at maturity | -1.967 | -2.855, -1.078 | 57 | 1.149 | 0.888, 1.489 | 0.06 | 0.06 |
| Birth weight | 1.375 | 1.167, 1.583 | 13 | -0.189 | -0.350, -0.103 | 0.54 | 0.03 |
| Clutch size | 2.005 | 1.846, 2.164 | 67 | -0.237 | -0.299, -0.188 | 0.01 | 0.10 |
| Egg mass | 0.965 | 0.738, 1.192 | 17 | -0.224 | -0.348, -0.144 | 0.02 | 0.32 |
| Incubation time | 1.834 | 1.629, 2.038 | 34 | -0.348 | -0.495, -0.245 | 0.97 | <0.001 |
| Larval period | -0.222 | -0.808, 0.365 | 33 | 0.827 | 0.585, 1.170 | 0.14 | 0.07 |
| Max. longevity | 2.833 | 2.314, 3.352 | 32 | -1.297 | -1.846, -0.911 | 0.15 | 0.07 |
| Size at maturity | 0.587 | 0.101, 1.072 | 13 | 1.118 | 0.612, 2.042 | 0.38 | 0.07 |

Table 9.29 Standardized major axis (SMA) regression models of the trait "size at metamorphosis" for amphibians based on log10transformed data with other life history traits as independent variables. CI_1 = confidence interval of intercept, CI_S = confidence interval of slope, n = sample size, P-value = P-value of the test of correlation coefficient against zero.

Table 9.30 Standardized major axis (SMA) regression models of the trait "clutch size" for amphibians based on log10-transformed data with other life history traits as independent variables. $CI_I = confidence$ interval of intercept, $CI_S = confidence$ interval of slope, n = sample size, P-value = P-value of the test of correlation coefficient against zero.

| Trait | Intercept | 95%Cl _l | n | Slope | 95%Cl _s | P-value | R ² |
|-----------------------|-----------|--------------------|----|--------|--------------------|---------|----------------|
| Age at maturity | 17.385 | 13.921, 20.850 | 66 | -5.016 | -6.323, -3.979 | <0.01 | 0.12 |
| Birth weight | 2.470 | 1.632, 3.308 | 18 | 1.043 | 0.629, 1.729 | 0.69 | 0.01 |
| Egg mass | 1.083 | 0.159, 2.007 | 19 | -0.815 | -1.323, -0.501 | 0.49 | 0.03 |
| Incubation time | 5.160 | 4.308, 6.012 | 46 | -1.857 | -2.491, -1.385 | 0.19 | 0.04 |
| Larval period | 9.337 | 7.215, 11.458 | 44 | -3.374 | -4.575, -2.488 | 0.44 | 0.01 |
| Max. longevity | -2.933 | -4.667, -1.199 | 43 | 4.922 | 3.626, 6.682 | 0.26 | 0.03 |
| Size at metamorphosis | 8.460 | 7.041, 9.880 | 67 | -4.219 | -5.329, -3.341 | 0.01 | 0.10 |
| Size at maturity | 6.849 | 4.618, 9.079 | 18 | -6.498 | -10.709, -3.943 | 0.46 | 0.03 |
| | | | | | | | |

Table 9.31 Standardized major axis (SMA) regression models of the trait "egg weight" for amphibians based on log10-transformed data with other life history traits as independent variables. CI_1 = confidence interval of intercept, CI_s = confidence interval of slope, n = sample size, P-value = P-value of the test of correlation coefficient against zero.

| Trait | Intercept | 95%Cl _l | n | Slope | 95%Cl _s | P-value | R ² |
|-----------------------|-----------|--------------------|----|---------|--------------------|---------|----------------|
| Age at maturity | 14.498 | 6.400, 22.596 | 18 | -5.490 | -8.856, -3.403 | 0.156 | 0.12 |
| Birth weight | -1.478 | -3.037, 0.080 | 5 | -0.918 | -2.723, -0.310 | 0.19 | 0.49 |
| Clutch size | 1.329 | -0.385, 3.043 | 19 | -1.228 | -1.994, -0.756 | 0.49 | 0.03 |
| Incubation time | 1.382 | -0.581, 3.345 | 15 | -2.416 | -4.209, -1.386 | 0.43 | 0.05 |
| Larval period | 17.702 | 4.016, 31.388 | 12 | -10.055 | -19.384, -5.215 | 0.99 | <0.01 |
| Max. longevity | -8.611 | -13.200, -4.022 | 13 | 6.067 | 3.280, 11.222 | 0.59 | 0.03 |
| Size at metamorphosis | 4.311 | 1.414, 7.208 | 17 | -4.468 | -6.940, -2.877 | 0.02 | 0.32 |
| Size at maturity | -4.278 | -8.078, -0.478 | 7 | 5.117 | 1.965, 13.323 | 0.57 | 0.07 |
| | | | | | | | |

10 Abbildungsverzeichnis

| Abbildung 2.1 Aufbau einer Lebenszyklusstrategie (<i>Life history</i>) eines unitären Organismus. |
|---|
| Abbildung 2.2 Verschiedene Vorstellungen von Phylogenie bzw. phylogenetischen Bäumen. |
| Abbildung 2.3 Zusammenhang zwischen Merkmal und Körpermasse bei verschiedenen Skalierungen |
| Abbildung 2.4 Gruppen der Reptilien: (von links nach rechts, von oben nach unten) Schildkröten, Brückenechsen, Squamaten und Krokodile |
| Figure 3.1 Phylogenetic correlogram showing the strength of the phylogenetic signal in the trait "eggshell type" at different taxonomic levels of the order Squamata |
| Figure 3.3 Phylogenetic principal component analysis (pPCA) based on the life history of the studied 32 squamate species with one global principal component (PC1) and one local principal component (PC2) |
| Figure 3.4 Weight-adjusted principal component analysis (pPCA) based on the life history of the studied 32 squamate species with one global principal component (PC1) and one local principal component (PC2) |
| Figure 3.5 Relative frequencies of adult weights (in grams) of the analysed 32 squamate |
| species presented for each of the three eggshell types |
| Figure 4.1 Estimated slopes with 95% confidence intervals obtained from phylogenetic regression analyses (PGLS) for different reptilian groups |
| Figure 5.1 Histograms on log10-transformed data for each of the amphibian life history traits studied |
| Figure 5.2 Histograms of log10-transformed data for each of the reptilian life history traits studied |
| Figure 9.1 Phylogenetic principal component analysis (pPCA) with two global principal components (PC1/PC2) for 5 life-history traits of 300 squamate species |
| Figure 9.3 Modified phylogenetic tree of crocodilians from Oaks (2011) used for establishing phylogenetic regression models205 |
| Figure 9.4 Phylogenetic tree from Pincheira-Donoso et al. (2013) as basis for our composite tree of reptiles used in our regression analyses |

11 Tabellenverzeichnis

| Table 3.1 Results of continuous-time Markov models of discrete trait evolution for the trait |
|---|
| eggshell type for 32 squamate species47 |
| Table 4.1 Allometric equations and datasets of life history traits on mammals and birds usedfor comparison and their references |
| Table 5.1 Brief overview of evidences that life history traits approach invariance in amphibians and reptiles |
| Table 5.2 Results on criteria 1 and 2 given in Price et al. (2014) for invariance in life history traits |
| Table 5.3 Results on ordinary least squares regressions exploring relationships between life history traits and body mass for all amphibians, the amphibian orders Anura and Caudata |
| and all reptiles |
| Table 5.4 Results from ordinary least squares regression analysis exploring the relationships between life history traits and body mass of amphibians when separating species according to habitat type or the presence or absence of parental care |
| Table 9.1 Trait values and literature sources of examined 32 squamata species |
| from length-weight allometries for the examined 32 squamate species |
| altitude (m) and adult weight (g) as predictors of life-history traits |
| square (GLS) fit regression and phylogenetic GLS regression (PGLS) of log ₁₀ -transformed data with adult weight as independent variable |
| Table 9.5 Allometric relations of life-history traits in lizards based on generalized leastsquare (GLS) fit regression and phylogenetic GLS regression (PGLS) of log10-transformed |
| data with adult weight as independent variable |
| regression models (PGLS) and non-phylogenetic GLS regression models of log10- |
| Table 9.7 Allometry of life history traits of the crocodiles based on phylogenetically controlled |
| GLS regressions of log10-transformed data with adult weight as independent variable165 Table 9.8 Allometry of life history traits of the turtles based on phylogenetically controlled |
| GLS regressions of log10-transformed data with adult weight as independent variable166 Table 9.9 Allometric relations of life-history traits for the order squamata (lizards, snakes and amphisbaenians) based on phylogenetic regression models of log10-transformed data with |
| adult weight as independent variable |
| Table 9.10 Life history and adult weight data of 369 reptile species.168Table 9.11 Multiple phylogenetic regression models (PGLS) of life-history traits (dependent |
| variable) of reptiles of log10-transformed data with body mass and max. altitude as independent variables |
| Table 9.12 Multiple regression models (GLS) of life-history traits (dependent variable) of reptiles of log10-transformed data with body mass and max. altitude as independent |
| variables |
| |

| Table 9.14 Multiple regression models of life-history traits (dependent variable) of |
|--|
| amphibians based on phylogenetic GLS regression (PGLS) of log10-transformed data with |
| body mass and max. altitude as independent variables |
| Table 9.15 Standardized major axis (SMA) regression models of the trait "age at maturity" for |
| reptiles based on log10-transformed data with other life history traits as independent |
| variables |
| Table 9.16 Standardized major axis (SMA) regression models of the trait "birth weight" for |
| reptiles based on log10-transformed data with other life history traits as independent |
| variables |
| Table 9.17 Standardized major axis (SMA) regression models of the trait "clutch size" for |
| reptiles based on log10-transformed data with other life history traits as independent |
| variables |
| Table 9 18 Standardized major axis (SMA) regression models of the trait "clutches p.a." for |
| reptiles based on log10-transformed data with other life history traits as independent |
| variables |
| Table 0.10 Standardized major axis (SMA) regression models of the trait "egg mass" for |
| reptiles based on log10-transformed data with other life history traits as independent |
| variables |
| Table 0.20 Standardized major axis (SMA) regression models of the trait "Incubation time" for |
| rable 9.20 Standardized major axis (SMA) regression models of the trait incubation time for |
| verieblee |
| Valiables |
| rable 9.21 Standardized major axis (SMA) regression models of the trait max. longevity for |
| reptiles based on log10-transformed data with other life history traits as independent |
| |
| Table 9.22 Standardized major axis (SMA) regression models of the trait "size at maturity" for |
| reptiles based on log10-transformed data with other life history traits as independent |
| |
| Table 9.23 Standardized major axis (SMA) regression models of the trait "birth weight" for |
| amphibians based on log10-transformed data with other life history traits as independent |
| variables |
| Table 9.24 Standardized major axis (SMA) regression models of the trait "incubation time" for |
| amphibians based on log10-transformed data with other life history traits as independent |
| variables |
| Table 9.25 Standardized major axis (SMA) regression models of the trait "larval period" for |
| amphibians based on log10-transformed data with other life history traits as independent |
| variables |
| Table 9.26 Standardized major axis (SMA) regression models of the trait "max. longevity" for |
| amphibians based on log10-transformed data with other life history traits as independent |
| variables |
| Table 9.27 Standardized major axis (SMA) regression models of the trait "size at maturity" for |
| amphibians based on log10-transformed data with other life history traits as independent |
| variables228 |
| Table 9.28 Standardized major axis (SMA) regression models of the trait "age at maturity" for |
| amphibians based on log10-transformed data with other life history traits as independent |
| variables |
| Table 9.29 Standardized major axis (SMA) regression models of the trait "size at |
| metamorphosis" for amphibians based on log10-transformed data with other life history traits |
| as independent variables230 |
| |

| Table 9.30 Standardized major axis (SMA) regression models of the trait "clutch size" for | |
|---|-----|
| amphibians based on log10-transformed data with other life history traits as independent | |
| variables2 | 231 |
| Table 9.31 Standardized major axis (SMA) regression models of the trait "egg weight" for | |
| amphibians based on log10-transformed data with other life history traits as independent | |
| variables2 | 232 |

Danksagung

In erster Linie will ich ... für die Überlassung des Themas, die Betreuung und vor allem für den gewährten Freiraum während meiner Doktorarbeit danken, der es mir ermöglicht hat, den für mich interessanten Fragen nachzugehen. Weiterer Dank gilt ..., mit dem ich das Büro geteilt habe, für eine Vielzahl an interessanten Gesprächen zu meinem Thema, aber auch zum Wissenschaftsbetrieb im Allgemeinen. In diesem Zusammenhang will ich ... danken, der mir die Möglichkeit gegeben hat als Gutachter für das Biological Journal of the Linnean Society tätig zu werden, was mir eine andere Perspektive auf den Wissenschaftsbetrieb ermöglichte. Für die Hilfe beim Finden geeigneter Phylogenien diverser Reptilientaxa will ich ... danken. Er hat mich auf die Arbeiten von ... aufmerksam gemacht und mir dadurch sehr bei der Suche nach Phylogenien von Reptilientaxa geholfen. ... soll an dieser Stelle für das Zusenden der Amphibienphylogenie und der zu diesem Zeitpunkt noch unveröffentlichten Phylogenie der Squamaten gedankt werden.

Neben diesen direkten Beiträgen zu meiner Arbeit, danke ich auch meinen Kolleginnen und Kollegen, welche mich während meiner Zeit am Institut für Zoologie, Abteilung Ökologie begleitet haben, für nette Gespräche bei Kaffee und Kuchen, was maßgeblich zu einer guten Arbeitsatmosphäre beigetragen hat. Abschließend will ich noch … für die Vertragsverlängerung am Ende meiner Arbeit danken, welche mir noch etwas mehr Zeit für Verbesserungen und Verschönerungen eingeräumt hat. Zu guter Letzt möchte ich mich noch bei meiner Familie, meinen Eltern und meinem Bruder, für die vor allem mentale Unterstützung über all die Jahre herzlich bedanken.

Curriculum vitae

Persönliche Daten

Name: Konstantin Hallmann

Geburtsdatum: 19.01.1981

Geburtsort: Hadamar

Nationalität: deutsch

Berufliche Tätigkeiten

| 10/2010-02/2016 | Wissenschaftlicher Mitarbeiter am Institut für Zoologie, Abt. Ökologie, Johannes Gutenberg-Universität Mainz |
|-----------------|---|
| 09/2009-06/2010 | Hilfswissenschaftler-Tätigkeiten Klima- und Landschaftswandel in Rheinland-Pfalz (KlimLandRP), Rheinland-Pfalz Planungs- bzw. Gutachterbüro Jörg Hilgers (Dipl. Biologe, Botaniker), Bonn |
| 10/2000-09/2001 | Zivildienst, Asklepios Paulinenklinik, Wiesbaden Hauswirtschaft |

Schule und Studium

| 10/2011-12/2016 | Promotion am Institut für Zoologie, Abt. Ökologie bei PD Dr. habil. E. M. Griebeler, Johannes-Gutenberg-Universität Mainz | | | | | |
|-----------------|---|--|--|--|--|--|
| 10/2001-07/2010 | Studium der Biologie , Johannes Gutenberg-Universität Mainz; Abschluss: Dipl. Biologe, Diplomarbeit (Titel: "Biogeography of plant traits at a regional scale") am Institut für Zoologie, Abt. Ökologie bei Dr. J. Buse | | | | | |
| 08/1991-07/2000 | Tilemannschule (Gymnasium) Limburg, Abschluss: Allgemeine Hochschulreife | | | | | |
| 08/1987-07/1991 | Lindenschule. Lindenholzhausen | | | | | |