Ornament size and colour as alternative strategies for effective communication in gliding lizards

Danielle A. Klomp¹, Terry J. Ord¹, Indraneil Das², Arvin Diesmos³, Norhayati Ahmad⁴ & Devi Stuart-Fox⁵

- 1. Evolution & Ecology Research Centre, and the School of Biological, Earth and Environmental Sciences, University of New South Wales, Sydney, Australia
- 2. Institute of Biodiversity and Environmental Conservation, Universiti Malaysia Sarawak, Kota Samarahan, Sarawak, Malaysia
- Herpetology Section, Zoology Division, National Museum of the Philippines, Manila, Philippines
- 4. Faculty of Science and Technology, School of Environment and Natural Resource Sciences, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, Selangor, Malaysia
- 5. School of BioSciences, University of Melbourne, Melbourne, Australia
- E-mail: d.klomp@unsw.edu.au
- Phone: +61 419 418 711
- Mail: Room 406, Biological Sciences Building (D26), School of Biological, Earth and Environmental Sciences
 - The University of New South Wales, Kensington, Sydney
 - NSW, Australia 2052

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- 8 Abstract

Sexual ornamentation needs to be conspicuous to be effective in attracting potential 9 mates and defending territories and indeed, a multitude of ways exist to achieve this. 10 Two principal mechanisms for increasing conspicuousness are to increase the 11 ornament's colour or brightness contrast against the background and to increase the 12 size of the ornament. We assessed the relationship between the colour and size of 13 the dewlap, a large extendible throat-fan, across a range of species of gliding lizards 14 (Agamidae; genus Draco) from Malaysia and the Philippines. We found a negative 15 relationship across species between colour contrast against the background and 16 dewlap size in males, but not in females, suggesting that males of different species 17 use increasing colour contrast and dewlap size as alternative strategies for effective 18 communication. Male dewlap size also increases with increasing sexual size 19 20 dimorphism, and dewlap colour and brightness contrast increase with increasing sexual dichromatism in colour and brightness, respectively, suggesting that sexual 21 22 selection may act on both dewlap size and colour. We further found evidence that relative predation intensity, as measured from predator attacks on models placed in 23 24 the field, may play a role in the choice of strategy (high chromatic contrast or large dewlap area) a species employs. More broadly, these results highlight that each 25 26 component in a signal (such as colour or size) may be influenced by different selection pressures and that by assessing components individually we can gain a 27 greater understanding of the evolution of signal diversity. 28

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3 Introduction

The ability to communicate effectively influences a range of conspecific and 4 interspecific interactions, and failure to communicate may result in the loss of 5 resources or reproductive opportunity (Hauser, 1996; Bradbury & Vehrencamp, 1998; 6 Epsmark & Amundsen, 2000; Maynard Smith & Harper, 2003); thus, effective 7 communication ultimately affects individual fitness. Species that rely on visual display 8 for social communication must maintain signals that are conspicuous enough to be 9 readily detected by conspecifics (Bradbury & Vehrencamp, 1998; Maynard Smith & 10 Harper, 2003). As detection depends on many situational or environmental variables, 11 species occupying different habitats potentially experience very different selection 12 pressures on signal design, which may ultimately generate much of the signal 13 14 diversity that characterises some groups of closely related species (Endler, 1992; Leal & Fleishman, 2004; Nicholson et al., 2007). 15

16 Even phylogenetically closely related species may optimise signal conspicuousness through alternative means. For instance, species that use a similar 17 ornament in display may evolve different but equally effective solutions for increasing 18 conspicuousness – for example, by increasing ornament size, its contrast against the 19 background in colour or brightness, or by increasing the speed or amplitude of 20 movement in display (Endler, 1993a; Dawkins & Guilford, 1997; Ord et al., 2007). 21 Costs associated with particular strategies for conspicuousness (energetic, or 22 increased risk of predation) may reduce the efficacy of one or more of the strategies 23 under a given set of conditions (Godin & Mcdonough, 2003; Hill & McGraw, 2006; 24 Simon, 2007; Woods et al., 2007). The resultant strategy, or combination of 25 strategies, depends on the social requirements of the signal, its evolutionary history 26 and the environment occupied by the species (Boughman, 2001; Ord & Martins, 27 2006; Chen et al., 2012). Additionally, just as multiple signals within a species can be 28 evolutionarily coupled (e.g. under correlational selection), so too can multiple aspects 29 of the same ornament (e.g. size and colour) such that changes to one aspect of the 30

ornament may influence change in some other aspect of that ornament (Hebets &Papaj, 2005).

Environmental factors determine the effectiveness of different signalling 3 strategies in many ways. For example, ambient light influences the conspicuousness 4 of different colours by limiting the availability of light at different wavelengths (Endler, 5 6 1993b), and in very low light conditions the signal-to-noise ratio may decrease to a point where colour vision becomes unreliable and individuals instead rely on 7 achromatic information (Vorobyev, 1997; Cronin et al., 2014). Thus, signals that 8 generate high colour contrast against the background might be effective in a well-lit 9 habitat but harder to detect in full shade forests (Endler & Thery, 1996). Similarly, 10 visual acuity also decreases with decreasing habitat light such that colour patches 11 may need to be larger to be detected (Endler, 1992). For example, some species of 12 birds of the genus *Phylloscopus* that live in darkly-shaded habitats signal with colour 13 patches that are larger than those of species in better lit habitats and also have 14 greater brightness contrast (targeting the achromatic channel – Marchetti, 1993). 15

16 Habitats also vary in predator community and abundance, both of which play a role in determining the most effective strategies for communication. Animals living in 17 habitats with relatively high predation intensity may have signals with reduced 18 conspicuousness, or may limit conspicuousness to the behaviourally controlled 19 20 aspects of the signal (Zuk & Kolluru, 1998; Stuart-Fox et al., 2003; Husak et al., 2006). For example, Martins et al. (2015) found independent evolutionary losses of 21 the ancestral blue ventral colour patch in some species of spiny lizards (genus 22 Sceloporus) which are less active overall, consistent with the hypothesis that the 23 colour was lost due to increased predation pressure. Instead, these species 24 25 compensate with more frequent head-bobbing displays of longer duration, thereby limiting conspicuous display to occasions when predators are apparently absent. 26 Although similar examples of alternative strategies for effective communication 27 appear to exist in several taxa (Podos, 1997; Cardoso & Hu, 2011; Ord et al., 2011; 28 Ossip-Klein et al., 2013), few studies have systematically assessed the relationships 29 between aspects of a single ornament and how social and environmental factors may 30 influence those relationships. 31

Gliding lizards belonging to the genus *Draco* are appropriate for addressing 1 questions regarding selection on different signal components and the relationship 2 between them as Draco possess dewlaps, a large extendable throat-fan, used in 3 display for social communication, and dewlaps vary among species in multiple 4 aspects such as size, colour and brightness. There are over 40 described species 5 found throughout Asia (McGuire & Kiew, 2001), and whilst they are all arboreal, they 6 live in diverse habitats (open full sun environments through to deep shade forests). 7 The dewlap of *Draco* lizards is solely used for communicating in territory defence and 8 mate attraction (Mori & Hikida, 1993). During display the dewlap is extended and 9 retracted at varying speeds and motion patterns and in some species the dewlap 10 display is accompanied by 'push ups'. Given these uses and that, more broadly, 11 ornaments are often important in both aggressive competition and mate choice 12 13 (Andersson, 1994; Wong & Candolin, 2005; Hunt et al., 2009), we expect that the elaboration of the dewlap to be influenced by sexual selection. Species vary 14 15 markedly in the colour of their dewlaps (Fig. 1) which are mostly conspicuous in males (though only visible during display). In most Draco species, males appear to 16 17 signal more frequently than females and possess larger, more conspicuously coloured dewlaps, though this does vary and in some species males and females 18 have very different but equally conspicuous dewlap colours (Mori & Hikida, 1994). 19 The colours of the bodies and gliding membranes are cryptic for both males and 20 females of_most species and vary between species and sexes (Klomp et al., 2014). 21

We tested whether *Draco* species have evolved alternative ways to increase 22 dewlap conspicuousness by examining the relationship between colour and 23 brightness contrast of the dewlap against the background and its area relative to 24 body size, for both males and females. Both dewlap size and colour traits are likely to 25 be important for territorial defence (or mate choice) and so may increase together in 26 response to stronger selection for signal conspicuousness. Conversely, if Draco are 27 using dewlap size and colour as alternative strategies to increase dewlap 28 conspicuousness, we would predict a negative relationship between these traits. As 29 we expect these traits to be under sexual selection for elaboration, we tested whether 30 they were associated with potential indicators of sexual selection: sexual size 31 dimorphism, sexual dichromatism in dewlap colour and brightness and dimorphism in 32 33 relative dewlap area. Finally, to understand how the relationships between dewlap traits may be influenced by environmental factors, we tested whether dewlap
conspicuousness is predicted by habitat light or potential predation intensity,
estimated from experimental data of relative predation on plasticine models across
different habitats.



9 Data collection

Between April 2011 and June 2012, we captured 122 individuals of 13 Draco taxa 10 (Fig.1), from locations on Borneo, Peninsula Malaysia, and the islands of Luzon and 11 Bohol in the Philippines. Though males are the more elaborately ornamented sex for 12 most species, female *Draco* lizards also use the dewlap in display, and so in this 13 study we included both males and females. Lizards were caught using a small 14 fishing-line noose at the end of a 6 m extendable pole. The colours of the lizard's 15 dewlap were measured with a JAZ EL-200 spectrometer with inbuilt JAZ-PX pulsed 16 xenon light source, calibrated using a diffuse white reflectance standard (Ocean 17 Optics). Measurements were taken at a 45° angle relative to the surface and spectra 18 were smoothed over 5 nm intervals between 300-700 nm, the approximate visual 19 spectrum of diurnal lizards (Loew et al., 2002). Photographs were also taken of each 20 lizard with the dewlap extended (using a Canon PowerShot SX1-IS digital camera, 21 saving in RAW format) and the proportions of each colour in the dewlap were 22 measured using the same 1cm² grid. The photos included a scale and were also 23 used to measure the area of individual dewlaps using the 'freehand selection' tool in 24 ImageJ (Abramoff et al., 2004). The snout-vent length (SVL) of each lizards caught in 25 the field was measured to the nearest mm, with a ruler. 26

The predominant background colours of leaves, bark and lichen (green, brown, dark brown/black and white/ pale green) were also measured with a spectrometer and used in visual modelling. In order to quantify the proportions in which these colours are present in the background to the lizard's dewlap display, we took digital photographs using the same camera, framing the lizard's perch to the
side and capturing representative background vegetation colour and density. The
proportions of each colour in these photographs were estimated using a 1 cm² grid
overlaid on the background photographs.

Side welling absolute irradiance (90° from the ground) was measured at the 5 6 time of capture, with a JAZ-ULM-200 spectrometer and cosine corrected irradiance probe (Ocean Optics) from the position of capture facing away from the sun, as 7 described in Stuart-Fox et al. (2007) and Klomp et al. (2014). Only those irradiance 8 measurements that were taken between 0830 and 1030 h (a period of heightened 9 activity for the diurnal lizards) were used in analysis in order to standardise light 10 conditions across habitats. These were smoothed over 5 nm intervals and were 11 used as a measure of habitat light level (area under the spectral curve for absolute 12 irradiance, between 300-700 nm, denoted by 'AUC') as well as being normalised to a 13 maximum of one for use in visual modelling (irradiance spectrum shape). 14

15 Visual modelling

To measure the chromatic and achromatic contrast of the dewlap against the 16 background, from the perspective of Draco conspecifics, we applied the model of 17 Vorobyev and Osorio (1998), which estimates how well the receiver can discriminate 18 between two colours in units of 'just noticeable differences' (JND). One JND is the 19 threshold of discrimination—i.e. the minimum difference, given photoreceptor noise— 20 for a visual system to be able to distinguish two colours. We estimated chromatic 21 contrast based on the four single cones (UVS, SWS, MWS, and LWS), and 22 achromatic (luminance) contrast based on the double cone, which is probably used 23 to detect luminance variation in most diurnal lizards (Loew et al., 2002, Osorio & 24 Vorobvev, 2005, Fleishman et al., 2011). As the visual sensitivities of Draco species 25 are not known, we used information on the only related agamid lizard for which the 26 spectral sensitivities have been quantified, Ctenophorus ornatus (Barbour et al., 27 2002), as detailed in Klomp et al. (2014), Teasdale et al. (2013) McLean et al. (2010) 28 and detailed in Supplementary Material S1. 29

We calculated the chromatic and achromatic contrasts of each dewlap colour, for each species, when viewed against each of the predominant colours in their local habitats. An overall contrast was then calculated, based on the sum of contrasts for each colour in the dewlap against each colour in the background weighted by the
relative area each colour occupied. In the absence of behavioural data for agamid
lizards, we assume that JNDs (i.e. discrimination thresholds) are linearly related to
the perceptual distance between any two colours, although this assumption requires
testing (Kemp *et al.*, 2015).

6 Sexual dimorphism

We calculated both sexual size dimorphism (SSD) and trait-specific dimorphism (i.e. 7 sexual dichromatism in colour and brightness, and sexual dimorphism in dewlap 8 area), as these are both potential indicators of sexual selection. Sexual dimorphism 9 and dichromatism are well supported indices of the intensity of intra-sexual 10 competition in a variety of taxa (Shine, 1978; Bisazza, 1993; Mitani et al., 1996; 11 McElligott et al., 2001; Serrano-Meneses et al., 2007), especially in lizards (Stamps 12 et al., 1997; Butler et al., 2000; McBrayer & Anderson, 2007; Pérez i de Lanuza et 13 al., 2013). SSD was calculated as the average male SVL divided by the average 14 female SVL for a species, so species with female-biased SSD had values less than 15 16 one, and those with male-biased SSD had values greater than one (Smith, 1999; Fairbairn et al., eds, 2007). Sexual dichromatism was calculated as the chromatic 17 and achromatic contrast of the primary male dewlap colour (i.e. the colour patch 18 occupying the majority of the dewlap area) against the primary female dewlap colour, 19 20 using the model of colour discrimination described above. Sexual dimorphism in dewlap area was calculated as the average male relative dewlap area divided by the 21 average female relative dewlap area for each species. 22

23 **Predation experiment**

To test the relative difference in predation between habitats we deployed plasticine *Draco* models in six different habitats (encompassing capture sites for eight different species) for 48 hours and recorded signs of probable predation upon collection. This technique has been used successfully in a number of other studies (e.g. Stuart-Fox *et al.*, 2003; Husak *et al.*, 2006; McLean *et al.*, 2010; Morgans & Ord, 2013). We made realistic casts of a *Draco* lizard (species: *D. haematopogon*) with liquid silicone rubber, and used the casts to construct each model from 10 g of plasticine (Fig. S1).

Draco lizards of different species vary in their dorsal colours (light to dark grey, 1 brown and green). In order to create standard predation models we chose to make 2 the models plain grey, which blends-in with most bark colours. Half the models were 3 light grey and half were dark grey, which functioned to reduce the likelihood of the 4 model being more conspicuous in any given habitat due to that habitat possessing 5 predominately dark or light coloured bark (see Fig. S2 for model and bark reflectance 6 spectra). Each model was affixed to the tree at a height of 2-3 m, using clear fishing 7 line. In each habitat a total of 52 models were placed at a minimum distance of 5 m 8 9 from each other, with equal numbers of each model facing in different directions (12 o'clock, 3 o'clock, 6 o'clock, 9 o'clock) relative to the direction of the limb of the tree. 10 We collected models after 48 hours and took detailed notes of all markings present. 11

Upon collection, the state of each model was characterised as: (1) no marks; 12 (2) single or multiple small nicks; (3) large punctures or nicks; or (4) entire portions 13 missing, following Morgans & Ord (2013). As categories 3 and 4 are the mostly likely 14 instances of true predation attempts, we used only those in our analyses. Relative 15 16 predation intensity was calculated as the percentage of all models recovered in a given habitat that had category 3 or 4 markings. The relative predation intensity 17 across habitats was bimodally distributed (Fig. S3) so we divided the habitats into 18 either 'high predation' or 'low predation' and analysed predation as a binary variable. 19

20 Statistical methods

All statistical analyses were conducted in R version 3.0.3 (R Development Core 21 Team, R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna). We first used the 'phyl.resid' 22 method implemented with the lambda option in 'phytools' version 0.4-31 (Revell, 23 2012) on species mean dewlap area against species mean SVL to calculate 'size-24 free' residuals of dewlap area for males and females. We then assessed how relative 25 dewlap area, chromatic contrast and achromatic contrast against the background 26 were related to each other by computing Pearson product moment correlation 27 coefficients. This was done by taking the average of two phylogenetic generalized 28 least squares (PGLS) regressions in which the y and x variables were swapped, 29 which provides an equivalent estimate of Pearson's r (e.g., Ord & Martins, 2006; see 30 also Smith, 2009). 31

To confirm that dewlap characteristics vary among taxa with the probable 1 strength of sexual selection experienced within those taxa, we ran a PGLS 2 regression of each characteristic against SSD and trait-specific measures of sexual 3 dimorphism – dewlap size dimorphism, chromatic and achromatic dichromatism. To 4 assess the possibility that female ornament evolution is a correlated response to that 5 of males we ran phylogenetic regressions of female dewlap traits against male 6 dewlap traits. In order to determine whether habitat factors play a role in which 7 dewlap traits increase in elaboration between species, we conducted phylogenetic 8 regressions of dewlap chromatic contrast and dewlap relative area, against habitat 9 light level (AUC) and relative predation intensity (high vs low). For this we focussed 10 just on males, because only males showed a relationship between dewlap chromatic 11 contrast and dewlap relative area. All PGLS regressions were applied using Pagel's 12 13 lambda, a model of phenotypic evolution where lambda values below one indicate that species are more dissimilar than expected based on the phylogeny (Pagel, 14 15 1999), in the 'ape' package version 3.2 (Paradis et al., 2004).

Phylogenetic relationships for the species in our study were derived by 16 pruning the agamid phylogeny by Collar et al. (2010), which is based on a BEAST 17 (Drummond et al., 2006; Drummond & Rambaut, 2007) analysis of 1.2 kb 18 mitochondrial protein coding genes. The relationships between the species examined 19 in this paper are well supported (>0.95 Bayesian posterior probability) for all but the 20 sister relationship between *D. haematopogon* and the two populations of *D.* 21 melanopogon (0.71 posterior probability). Weak support for this relationship is 22 reflected in the short branch length (Fig. 1) and our analyses included branch length 23 information. As our analyses included both Malay and Bornean populations of D. 24 *melanopogon* and *D. cornutus*, which were not included in the phylogeny as separate 25 taxa, we added these with branch-lengths based on the minimum divergence 26 27 estimated for intra-island populations of Philippine Draco (from McGuire & Kiew, 2001), following Ord & Klomp (2014). 28

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30 **Results**

31 Are there alternative strategies for conspicuousness?

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Males of different species showed a strong negative relationship between the 1 chromatic contrast and relative area of the dewlap (Table 1; Fig. 2a), indicating that 2 male dewlaps tend to be conspicuous either in terms of colour contrast or relative 3 area, but not both. This suggests that increasing chromatic contrast against the 4 background and increasing dewlap area relative to body size are alternative 5 signalling strategies. There was no relationship between achromatic contrast and 6 either relative dewlap area or chromatic contrast for males. For females chromatic 7 contrast increased with achromatic contrast (Table 1; Fig. 2b), indicating that females 8 9 of some species have dewlaps that are conspicuous in terms of both chromatic and achromatic contrast against the background. 10

Female chromatic and achromatic contrast was uncorrelated with that of males (Fig. S4a, b), but female relative dewlap area increased with male relative dewlap area (t_{13} = 2.89, P = 0.01; Fig. S4c), raising the possibility that dewlap size is evolutionarily coupled between the sexes.

15 Dewlap trait relationships with sexual dimorphism

All male dewlap traits (relative area, chromatic and achromatic contrast) and some 16 female dewlap traits were correlated with a measure of sexual dimorphism or 17 dichromatism (Table 2). Male relative dewlap area increased with increasing sexual 18 size dimorphism: as males become increasingly larger than females in body size they 19 invest in larger dewlap areas relative to their size (Fig. 3a). Draco guinguefasciatus 20 was excluded from this regression as an obvious model outlier, though removal did 21 not change the conclusions. Neither male dewlap chromatic nor achromatic contrast, 22 nor any female dewlap traits were correlated with SSD. However, male chromatic 23 contrast increased with increasing sexual dichromatism (in chromatic contrast 24 between the sexes), while female chromatic contrast decreased with increasing 25 sexual dichromatism (males: Fig. 3c; females: Fig. 3d). This trend for females 26 appeared to be primarily due to a few taxa (circled in the figure) where females have 27 greater chromatic contrast than males, rather than a general pattern across all taxa 28 studied. Thus sexual dichromatism in chromatic contrast is more likely driven by 29 increasing male chromatic contrast, while female chromatic contrast varies 30 inconsistently between species. For males, achromatic contrast against the 31 background also increased with increasing sexual dichromatism (in achromatic 32

contrast between the sexes), but there was no relationship for females, suggesting
again that increasing male dewlap brightness contrast against the background is
driving the achromatic dichromatism between the sexes (males: Fig. 3e; females:
Fig. 3f).

5 Do habitat factors influence signalling strategy?

6 As our results suggest that males of different species employ one of two strategies for signalling - larger dewlaps or greater chromatic contrast - we looked at how 7 habitat factors may affect male conspicuousness in these two dewlap traits. Male 8 relative dewlap area showed no relationship with habitat light, but there was a trend 9 for relatively larger dewlaps in high predation habitats and relatively smaller dewlaps 10 in low predation habitats (Fig. 4a, Table 3b). Male chromatic contrast was negatively 11 correlated with habitat light (Fig. 4d, Table 3a), and whilst the relationship between 12 chromatic contrast and predation pressure was not statistically significant (Table 3b), 13 there was a trend for chromatic contrast to decrease with predation (Fig. 4b). 14

15 **Discussion**

Males of Draco species appear to employ alternative strategies for being 16 17 conspicuous to conspecifics: either having larger dewlaps relative to their body size or having dewlaps with a greater colour contrast against the background, but not 18 both. We found some evidence to suggest that predation pressure may play a role in 19 determining which strategy males of a species employ (i.e. larger, but less colourful 20 dewlaps in 'high' predation areas and smaller, but more colourful dewlaps in 'low' 21 predation areas). For females, we found no relationship between dewlap size and 22 colour, but chromatic contrast increased with achromatic contrast. Additionally, 23 conspicuousness in all male dewlap traits was positively correlated with measures of 24 sexual dimorphism and dichromatism, suggesting that elaboration of male traits is 25 sexually selected, but this was not the case for females. 26

There are many examples where different aspects of visual signals (e.g. size and colour) increase in conspicuousness simultaneously in response to social and environmental selective pressures, both at the individual and population level (Hill, 1999; Torok, 2003; Loyau *et al.*, 2005; Hebets *et al.*, 2013), though examples of alternative pathways of elaboration for a single ornament type are rarer. Studies of

species that signal in multiple modalities, however, do report the use of alternative 1 signalling strategies, for many reasons, including physiological constraints (Podos, 2 1997) and the need to signal in diverse or changing environments (Bro-Jørgensen, 3 2010). These same constraints may also differentially affect the expression of 4 aspects of a single ornament – as results of this study suggest. For male Draco, 5 having a dewlap that is both highly chromatically contrasting and large in area may 6 be too costly or is constrained in some way. Signals can be energetically costly to 7 produce and maintain, and conspicuousness can be costly due to increased 8 predation risk (Bradbury & Vehrencamp, 1998). 9

We did not find the same negative correlation between colour contrast and 10 relative dewlap size for females as for males, potentially because males and females 11 signal in different ecological and/or social circumstances. Though data on the social 12 ecology of *Draco* are sparse, in most *Draco* species males have the more elaborate 13 dewlap in size and colour and use the dewlap more frequently in broadcast display, 14 suggesting males may experience greater selective pressures for effective signalling 15 16 than females (Inger, 1983; Mori & Hikida, 1993). It is also possible that the evolution of female relative dewlap area is a correlated response to that of males, given the 17 significant correlation of male and female relative dewlap size across taxa. Although 18 19 there was no correlation between the relative size and colour of female dewlaps, we found a positive correlation between colour and brightness contrast, suggesting that 20 21 for taxa where there is increased pressure for females to signal more effectively, they rely on elaboration in both colour and brightness contrast. Selection for increased 22 signal complexity as well as redundancy in signals has been found in diverse taxa, 23 such as spiders and frogs, and is hypothesised to increase signal reliability and allow 24 species to maintain effective signals in fluctuating social and ecological environments 25 (Bro-Jørgensen, 2010; Akre et al., 2011; Hebets et al., 2013). 26

Our results also suggest that sexual selection plays a role in driving all aspects of male dewlap conspicuousness, as all dewlap traits were positively correlated with measures of sexual dimorphism or dichromatism. Selection for efficient gliding in *Draco* species has led to constraints on body and head size for males, and the need to balance body and head weight in gravid females (Shine *et al.*, 1998; Husak & McGuire, 2014). Husak and McGuire (2014) found that *Draco* species may exhibit either female or male-biased SSD, but that male-biased SSD was more

prevalent in larger species. They suggest a shift away from selection for better gliding 1 ability in males for species with male-biased SSD, as increases in body size 2 increases wing loadings, and a shift towards more intense selection for fighting 3 performance. This hypothesis predicts two strategies for male territory defence (good 4 gliders or good fighters), where the good fighter strategy is associated with male-5 biased SSD. Our data suggest that male-biased SSD is also associated with larger 6 relative dewlaps, suggesting that assessing the relationship between relative dewlap 7 size and fighting ability may be an interesting avenue for further research. 8

Though we found evidence to suggest that all three dewlap traits in males -9 dewlap colour contrast, brightness contrast and relative dewlap area – are sexually 10 selected, this was not the case for females. In fact it appears that the chromatic 11 contrast of female dewlaps decreases with increased sexual dichromatism, but this 12 result is driven by a group of four taxa in which females have greater chromatic 13 contrast than males. Females of these four taxa (D. sumatranus on Borneo, D. 14 sumatranus on the Malay Peninsula, D. spilopterus and D. bimaculatus) possibly 15 have different social ecology and thus may be experiencing more similar selection 16 pressures to males than in other species. For example, our observations in the field 17 suggest that females of these four taxa signal more frequently and vigorously than 18 females of other species and may be defending territories. 19

20 Our results indicate that predation pressure may play a role in determining the strategy employed by a species to increase dewlap conspicuousness - larger 21 dewlaps or more chromatically contrasting dewlaps - as taxa in habitats with 22 relatively higher predation intensity tended to have relatively larger dewlaps. 23 Although we found a correlation between relative dewlap size and predation intensity, 24 we did not find the corresponding correlation between predation intensity and 25 chromatic contrast, which we might expect if predation intensity was the primary 26 determinant of signalling strategy (though the relationship was certainly in the right 27 direction, figure 4b). It is notoriously difficult to get a realistic measure of predation 28 intensity, but model-prey experiments such as we have used here can give us a 29 general indication of the potential variation in predation intensity across habitats 30 (Stuart-Fox et al., 2003; Husak et al., 2006; McLean et al., 2010; Morgans & Ord, 31 2013). Diurnal birds are perhaps the most common predators of Draco lizards 32 (Ouithavon, 1999; Chalsurlyanun, 2011). Predatory birds have high visual acuity 33

allowing them to resolve small colour patches at large distances, and are good at 1 detecting movements (Donner, 1951; Lea & Dittrich, 2001; Osorio & Vorobyev, 2 2008). However, some birds may rely primarily on chromatic information in prey 3 detection (Goldsmith et al., 1981; Kelber et al., 2003; Stuart et al., 2012). Therefore, 4 it is possible that both signalling strategies - increased relative dewlap size and 5 increased chromatic contrast - increase signal conspicuousness to predators. 6 Furthermore, an increased abundance of predators in some habitats is likely to 7 favour reduced overall conspicuousness, or increased anti-predator behaviour 8 (Endler, 1987; Slagsvold et al., 1995; Koga et al., 1998; Taylor et al., 2005), rather 9 than select for one form of dewlap conspicuousness over the other. 10

An alternative explanation for the trend for species with relatively larger 11 dewlaps to occur in higher predation habitats is that larger dewlaps may be more 12 beneficial in close-range predator encounters. Vanhooydonck et al. (2009) found a 13 species of anole (which also use dewlaps in display and are ecologically analogous 14 to Draco) also showed increased relative dewlap size with increasing sexual size 15 dimorphism, and that in populations where a ground-based lizard predator 16 (Leiocephalus species) is present, males have larger relative dewlaps than those in 17 populations where that predator is absent. They proposed that the investment in 18 larger dewlaps may be beneficial in pursuit deterrence, in that it more effectively 19 signals to a predator that it has been seen and that the individual is unprofitable prey 20 21 - perhaps due to hyper-aggression or ability to flee (Caro, 1995). However, this hypothesis is problematic where the main predators are birds, as signalling 22 aggression or ability to flee does not seem likely to deter a bird from attacking 23 potential prey, and overall the hypothesis has been somewhat controversial (Caro, 24 1995). 25

We also found a negative relationship between chromatic contrast and habitat 26 light that is partially driven by a cluster of four taxa found in most well-lit habitats (Fig. 27 4d). Species found in open, well-lit habitats are thought to experience greater levels 28 of predation than those in closed habitats (Stuart-Fox & Ord, 2004). For three of 29 these four species, we did not have data on relative predation intensity, and the 30 fourth was found in a relatively high predation habitat. Therefore, it remains possible 31 that the low chromatic contrast for these four species in the brightest habitat reflects 32 high predation risk in these more open habitats. 33

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To conclude, our study finds evidence for alternate signalling strategies of 1 increased colour contrast or increased dewlap area relative to body size, for males of 2 several Draco taxa, and that relative predation intensity between habitats may 3 influence the particular strategy a species employs. Furthermore, these results 4 highlight how ornaments used in communication are composed of multiple 5 components (e.g. size and colour), and that each of these components may be 6 influenced by different selection pressures. Ideally, the nature of selection acting on 7 dewlap size and coloration should be corroborated by independent measures of 8 sexual selection (e.g. mating system or testis size) and manipulative experiments 9 (e.g. male contest or mate choice experiments). Determining how selection acts on 10 different signal components will enable a fuller understanding of the evolution of 11 signal diversity, which characterises many of the world's adaptive radiations. 12

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11 Supplementary material

- 12 Additional Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article:
- 13 Appendix S1 Visual modelling methodology.
- 14 **Figure S1** Photograph of plasticine lizard models used in predation experiment.
- 15 **Figure S2** Mean spectra of predation models (dark grey and light grey plasticine)
- 16 with standard error, and example bark spectra from all six habitats where relative
- 17 predation was measured.
- 18 **Figure S3** Frequency histogram of relative predation levels of all habitats studied,
- 19 showing bimodal distribution.
- Figure S4 A) Female chromatic contrast as a function of male chromatic contrast
- 21 (JND, log-transformed); B) female achromatic contrast as a function of male
- 22 achromatic contrast (JND); and C) female relative dewlap area as a function of male
- relative dewlap area (size-free residuals, cm²).
- 24
- 25
- Data deposited at Dryad: 10.5061/dryad.xxxx

Table 1Phylogenetic analysis of pairwise comparisons among dewlap traitscontributing to conspicuousness (relative dewlap area, chromatic contrast andachromatic contrast). Phylogenetic signal (Pagel's lambda, λ), effect size (r) and pvalues are given from a phylogenetic equivalent of a Pearson correlation.

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Dewlap traits	N _{taxa}	λ	r	р	
A					
Male dewlaps					
area vs. chromatic contrast	13	0.93	0.87	< 0.0001	
area vs. achromatic contrast	13	1.10	0.14	0.62	
Chromatic vs. achromatic contrast Female dewlaps	13	0.97	0.13	0.63	
area vs. chromatic contrast	13	0.33	0.02	0.94	
area vs. achromatic contrast	13	0.23	0.06	0.85	
chromatic vs. achromatic contrast	13	0.06	0.70	0.005	

Table 2 Phylogenetic regressions of male and female dewlap traits (dewlap area size-free residuals, chromatic contrast and achromatic contrast against the background) against SSD and trait-specific sexual dimorphisms (dimorphism in dewlap area and sexual dichromatism in chromatic and achromatic contrast). Phylogenetic signal (Pagel's lambda, λ), effect size (*t*) and *p* values are given. Outlier species removed – *D. quinquefasciatus* (see Figure 3A).

Dewlap traits		λ	t	р
A				
Male dewlaps on SSD				
chromatic contrast	13	0.98	-0.81	0.44
achromatic contrast	13	-0.38	-1.12	0.29
area (outlier removed)	13 (12)	0.77 (-0.13)	2.22 (4.37)	0.05 (0.001)
B Female dewlaps on SSD				
chromatic contrast	13	0.59	0.51	0.62
achromatic contrast	13	0.28	0.77	0.46
Area	13	-0.12	1.59	0.14
Male dewlaps on trait-specific dimorphism				
chromatic contrast, chromatic sexual dichromatism	13	-0.39	12.92	<0.0001
achromatic contrast, achromatic sexual dichromatism	13	0.42	3.46	0.005
area, sexual dewlap size dimorphism D	13	-0.40	1.72	0.11
Female dewlaps on trait-specific dimorphism				
chromatic contrast, chromatic sexual dichromatism	13	-0.02	-2.45	0.03
achromatic contrast, achromatic sexual dichromatism	13	0.37	0.34	0.74
area, sexual dewlap size dimorphism	13	0.04	-0.37	0.71

D

Table 3Phylogenetic analyses of male chromatic contrast and relative dewlapsize against ambient habitat light and relative predation intensity. Phylogenetic signal(Pagel's lambda, λ), effect size (t) and p values are given.

Dewlap traits	N _{taxa}	λ	t	р
A Habitat light				
Area	13	1.24	0.25	0.81
chromatic contrast	13	1.02	-5.98	0.0001
B Relative predation pressure				
Area	8	-0.19	2.27	0.06
chromatic contrast	8	-2.42	-2.12	0.08
Nabu				
D				
uth				



(F1_comp.pdf)

Figure 1Phylogeny of *Draco* species sampled, images of the maledewlaps and spectral reflectance of the primary dewlap colour (with standard errors),male dewlap area size-free residuals (with 95% confidence intervals), male dewlapconspicuousness in terms of chromatic and achromatic contrast (species means and95% confidence intervals), and relative predation pressure and ambient light level(relative to the brightest habitat sampled), for each species.

Author Nanus Sufficience



Figure 2 A) Male chromatic contrast (log-transformed) against relative dewlap area, and B) female chromatic contrast against achromatic contrast.

Author



Figure 3 A) Male and B) female relative dewlap area as a function of sexual size dimorphism, C) male and D) female chromatic contrast (log-transformed) as a function of sexual dichromatism (JND, chromatic contrast between the primary dewlap colour of the sexes), and E) male and F) female achromatic contrast as a function of sexual dichromatism (JND, achromatic contrast between the primary dewlap colour of the sexes. Outlier species (*D. quinquefasciatus*) in grey, panel A.



Figure 4 A) Male relative dewlap area for species sampled in high and low predation habitats (N = 8 taxa), B) male chromatic contrast (log-transformed) for species sampled in high and low predation habitats (N = 8 taxa), C) male relative dewlap area as a function of ambient light level (N = 13 taxa; white points are species for which we also have predation data) and D) male chromatic contrast (log-transformed) as a function of ambient light level (N = 13 taxa; white points are species for species for which we also have predation data) and D) male chromatic contrast (log-transformed) as a function of ambient light level (N = 13 taxa; white points are species for which we also have predation).

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