

1 *This is the peer reviewed version of the following article: Fattorini, S., Borges, P.A., Dapporto, L. and Strona, G.*  
2 *(2017), What can the parameters of the species–area relationship (SAR) tell us? Insights from Mediterranean islands. J.*  
3 *Biogeogr., 44: 1018-1028, which has been published in final form at <https://doi.org/10.1111/jbi.12874>. This article may*  
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## 8 **Original Article**

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### 11 **What can the parameters of the species-area relationship (SAR) tell us? Insights from Mediterranean islands**

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15 Simone Fattorini<sup>1,2\*</sup>, Paulo A.V. Borges<sup>2</sup>, L. Dapporto<sup>3</sup>, G. Strona<sup>4</sup>

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17 <sup>1</sup> Department of Life, Health & Environmental Sciences, University of L’Aquila, 67100 L’Aquila, Italy

18 <sup>2</sup>CE3C – Centre for Ecology, Evolution and Environmental Changes / Azorean Biodiversity Group and Universidade  
19 dos Açores - Departamento de Ciências e Engenharia do Ambiente, Angra do Heroísmo, Açores, Portugal

20 <sup>3</sup>Institut de Biologia Evolutiva (CSIC-Universitat Pompeu Fabra), Passeig Marítim de la Barceloneta, 37, E-08003  
21 Barcelona, Spain

22 <sup>4</sup>European Commission, Joint Research Centre, Institute for Environment and Sustainability, Ispra (VA), Italy

23

24 Corresponding author: Simone Fattorini, Department of Life, Health & Environmental Sciences, University of

25 L’Aquila, Via Vetoio, Coppito, 67100 L’Aquila. E-mail: [simone.fattorini@univaq.it](mailto:simone.fattorini@univaq.it)

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27 **Running head:** Parameters of the species-area relationship

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29 Word count (excluding Appendix 1): 5873

30 Word count (including Appendix 1): 7729

31 Pages required by figures and tables: 1.5

32

33 **ABSTRACT**

34

35 **Aim.** The species-area relationship (SAR) is often modelled by the linearized power function  $\log S = \log c + z \log A$ ,  
36 where  $S$  is species richness,  $A$  is area,  $\log c$  is the intercept and  $z$  is the slope. Although investigating how  $c$  and  $z$  values  
37 vary across taxa and archipelagos can provide insights into the biology of the SAR, this approach has many caveats. In  
38 this study, we aim to clarify how and why SARs should be properly compared for the same taxon among different  
39 areas, or among different taxa in the same area.

40

41 **Location.** Mediterranean. We considered 18 to 46 Tyrrhenian islands (0.000024 to 223 km<sup>2</sup>) and 32 to 65 Aegean  
42 islands (0.0058 to 8261 km<sup>2</sup>).

43

44 **Methods.** We used OLS regressions to estimate  $c$  and  $z$  values for various taxonomic groups: land snails, isopods,  
45 centipedes, tenebrionids and reptiles. We used ANCOVAs to test (1) if different taxa have different  $z$  and  $c$  values  
46 within the same island group (possibly due to their dispersal ability and ecological characteristics), and (2) if the same  
47 taxon has different  $z$  and  $c$  values in different island groups (possibly due to differences in historical processes and  
48 isolation).

49

50 **Results.**  $z$  varied between 0.141 and 0.309, while  $c$  varied between 2.717 and 12.286 species per unit area (1 km<sup>2</sup>). For  
51 tenebrionids, centipedes and land snails, we found higher  $c$  values in the Tyrrhenian islands than in the Aegean islands.  
52 Overall,  $c$  values were highest for land snails.

53

54 **Main conclusions.** Our results demonstrate the importance of comparing SARs either of different groups within the  
55 same area, or of the same group in different areas. Furthermore, we identify the intercept, rather than the slope, as being  
56 dependent on the biogeographical dynamics (relict versus equilibrium faunas) and species ecology (dispersal  
57 capabilities and population abundance).

58

59 **Key words:** allometric function, intercept, island biogeography, power function, regression lines, species-area  
60 relationship (SAR), slope

61 **INTRODUCTION**

62 The species-area relationship (SAR), i.e. the increase in species number with area, is one of the best documented  
63 patterns in ecology (Lomolino, 2000, 2001; Whittaker & Fernández-Palacios, 2007; Triantis *et al.*, 2012). Although  
64 several mathematical functions have been proposed to model SARs (Tjørve, 2003, 2009; Dengler, 2009; Williams *et al.*,  
65 2009), comparative studies identify the power function as the model that, in general, best fits empirical data (at least for  
66 island systems, see Triantis *et al.*, 2012; Matthews *et al.*, 2015), and which is best supported by ecological theories (e.g.,  
67 Rosenzweig, 1995; Martin & Goldenfeld, 2006). The power function  $S = c A^z$  (where  $S$  represents species richness and  
68  $A$  the area) can be linearized by a double logarithmic transformation as  $\log S = \log c + z \log A$ . In this form,  $\log c$  and  $z$   
69 represent, respectively, the intercept and the slope of the line fitting the relationship. Since the space of the linearized  
70 power function is not arithmetic but logarithmic,  $z$  can be interpreted as a scaling factor describing how fast the  
71 response of species richness to area changes along the SAR curve (see Lomolino, 2001).

72 Several hypotheses have been proposed to interpret the biological meaning of  $z$  and to explain its variation among  
73 organisms and island systems. In particular, it has been suggested that  $z$  should increase with area, isolation  
74 (Rosenzweig, 1995), species trophic ranks (Holt *et al.*, 1999; Holt, 2010; Roslin *et al.*, 2014), nestedness (Matthews *et*  
75 *al.*, 2016) and spatial aggregation of the individuals (Tjørve & Turner, 2009), and should decrease with species  
76 dispersal ability (Wright, 1981; Williamson, 1988), abundance of common species (Tjørve *et al.*, 2008), human impact  
77 on the islands (Ficetola & Padoa-Schioppa, 2009) and latitude (Willig & Lyons, 2000; possibly as a response to  
78 increasing energy availability; Storch *et al.*, 2005). It has been also noted that  $z$  tends to be higher in oceanic islands  
79 than in continental ones (Patiño *et al.*, 2014).

80 Conversely, the parameter  $c$ , which represents the expected mean number of species per unit area, has received much  
81 less attention, being often (and simplistically) interpreted as a direct result of species richness (with higher values of  $c$   
82 expected for more diverse taxa). Yet, it is not difficult to imagine situations where the same mean number of species per  
83 unit area is found in groups with different regional species richness. For example, a very diverse group at a regional  
84 scale with a high degree of nestedness across islands could have the same  $c$  value of a less rich taxon with a more  
85 uniform local richness. This calls for a deeper evaluation of the potential causes behind variations in  $c$  values. Although  
86 this need has already been emphasized by Connor & McCoy (1979) and, even more, by Gould (1979), after more than  
87 thirty years, comparative analyses of  $c$  values are still scanty, with the most relevant studies being very recent.

88 Triantis *et al.* (2012) suggested that differences in  $c$  values may be related to the diverse ecological space required by  
89 species of different taxa (see also Öckinger *et al.*, 2010). Patiño *et al.* (2014) showed that the intercept increases from  
90 poor to more diverse taxa (ferns to bryophytes and seed plants) in all the archipelagos evaluated, while Matthews *et al.*

91 (2015) observed that the intercepts were significantly lower for oceanic than continental islands. These analyses have  
92 the important merit of exploring general patterns of variation in both  $z$  and  $c$ . However, because of their general  
93 approach, they were a bit elusive in providing specific interpretations about the possible mechanisms involved in the  
94 observed patterns.

95 When fitting the line  $\log S = \log c + z \log A$ ,  $c$  and  $z$  are unrelated, in the sense that they are estimated independently  
96 and jointly describe the data. Nevertheless, in the log-log space, when  $z$  increases, the fitting line tends to be more  
97 vertical, and hence it has more chances to intercept the  $y$ -axis at lower values. Consequently, island systems with higher  
98  $z$  tend, on average, to have lower  $c$ . Due to this expected negative relationship, Gould (1979: 336) emphasized that  $c$   
99 values should be compared only in families of regression lines having the same slopes (i.e. between parallel lines).

100 Finding homogeneous  $z$  values and heterogeneous  $c$  values among SAR regressions would suggest that the observed  
101 differences are due to the “initial trajectory” of the curve, i.e. to area-independent factors. Conversely, differences in  $z$   
102 values would indicate that the functional relationships described by the various regression lines are not the same,  
103 suggesting that SARs have emerged in different systems for different reasons, either ecological or historical.

104 However, as observed by Gould (1979), it only makes sense to compare SAR regression lines built for the *same taxon*  
105 in *different areas* (to investigate how island characteristics affect species richness), or for *different taxa* in the *same area*  
106 (to investigate how different groups respond to the same eco-geographical settings). This recommendation, however,  
107 has been often ignored, and several global scale studies analyzed patterns of variation in  $c$  values aggregating different  
108 taxa and island systems (Connor & McCoy, 1979), or used only coarse categorizations, such as a subdivision of islands  
109 into general types (e.g., inland, continental shelf, oceanic), and of organisms into broad groups (plants, invertebrates,  
110 vertebrates) (Triantis *et al.*, 2012; Patiño *et al.*, 2014; Matthews *et al.*, 2015; but see Aranda *et al.*, 2013).

111 The Mediterranean islands are ideal candidates to investigate variations in  $c$  and  $z$  values by strictly adhering to Gould's  
112 recommendation, since they are numerous, biodiverse, and well surveyed for many taxonomic groups. Taking  
113 advantage of these properties, we built SARs for various taxonomic groups (land snails, isopods, centipedes,  
114 tenebrionid beetles and reptiles) in two island systems (the Tyrrhenian and the Aegean islands). Then we compared  $z$   
115 and  $c$  values of SARs built for different organisms in the same island group, or for the same organisms in different  
116 island groups.

117 In particular, this approach permitted us to test if: (1) different taxa have different  $z$  values within the same island group  
118 as a reflection of their dispersal ability ( $z$  is expected to be higher in more sedentary animals); (2) different taxa have  
119 different  $c$  values within the same island group as a reflection of their ecology ( $c$  values are expected to be larger for  
120 animals requiring smaller spaces); (3) the same taxon has different  $z$  values in different island groups as a reflection of a

121 different degree of isolation (a more isolated system is expected to have a higher  $z$ ); (4) the same taxon has different  $c$   
122 values in different island groups as a reflection of their degree of isolation (a more isolated system is expected to have a  
123 smaller  $c$ ).

124

## 125 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

126 We selected two island groups, namely the Tyrrhenian and the Aegean islands (Figure 1), sharing the same  
127 environmental, ecological and basic socio-economic conditions (e.g., climate, vegetation setting, and history of  
128 anthropogenic disturbance), but differing in their average distance to the mainland and in their palaeogeographical  
129 history. Most of the Aegean islands (which are, on average, 80-90 km far from the mainland) are land-bridge islands,  
130 whereas most of the Tyrrhenian islands (which are, on average, 30 km far from the mainland) have never been  
131 connected to each other and/or to the mainland in the past. We collected presence data for five taxa (see Appendix 1)  
132 for which both island groups have been thoroughly investigated. Because not all islands were equally studied for all  
133 taxa, the number of islands we considered in the analyses varied for the different taxonomic groups. Values of native  
134 species richness reported in Appendix S1 in Supporting Information should be considered virtually complete (see, for  
135 example, Foufopoulos & Ives, 1999; Hausdorf & Hennig, 2005; Fattorini, 2007, 2009, 2011a, Sfenthourakis, 1996;  
136 Simaiakis *et al.*, 2012). The relatively high number of islands considered for each taxon (from 18 to 65) allows us to  
137 exclude the possibility that estimates of  $c$  and  $z$  values are affected by the uncertainty in regression parameters  
138 estimated for small island groups (Sólymos & Lele, 2012). Island area data were extracted from Arnold (2008). For  
139 uninhabited islands not included in Arnold (2008), we referred to values reported in the papers used as source of species  
140 richness data.

141 Presence of islands with “no species” for a certain group in a certain archipelago in our datasets, does not imply that no  
142 species of that group occurs there, but only that the island has not been sampled for that group. In other words, zero  
143 values indicate lack of data, not zero species. We are not aware of islands for which “zero species” really indicates lack  
144 of species. For this reason, we did not include islands with no species in the analyses.

145 SARs were modelled using OLS regressions on the double logarithmic transformation (with decimal logarithms,  $\log$ ) of  
146 the power function. We checked regression results for violations of homoscedasticity by plotting residuals versus  
147 predicted values, and for normality by using normal quantile plots. We used analyses of covariance (ANCOVAs) to test  
148 for differences in  $c$  and  $z$  values. In the ANCOVAs, each pair of species-area data was a set of correlated  $x$  (area) -  $y$   
149 (richness) values relative to the compared taxa; means were compared for species richness, while area was the  
150 covariate. Calculations were done using the software PAST 3.0 (Hammer *et al.*, 2001).

151

152 Because  $c$  values change according to the unit used to measure island surface, we always express areas in  $\text{km}^2$ , which  
153 makes values comparable across islands and taxa. This means that  $c$  values express the number of species per  $1 \text{ km}^2$ .  
154 Although any unit of measurement might be used in SARs, using  $\text{km}^2$  is a rather standard practice, and is a reasonable  
155 choice in consideration of the area of the islands used in this study ( $0.00002$  to  $8261 \text{ km}^2$ , mean  $\pm$  SE:  $131.2083 \pm$   
156  $53.330$ ,  $n = 174$ ), and the dimension of habitat requirements of the studied taxa (much bigger than  $1 \text{ m}^2$ , as an example).  
157 Changing units of measurement does not change regression slopes, but only rescales the  $x$ -axis. Therefore,  $c$  values can  
158 be easily recalculated for any unit area by using parameters of the fitted SAR. For example, if the fitted parameters of  
159 the SAR were obtained using  $\text{km}^2$ ,  $c$  is the number of species expected for  $1 \text{ km}^2$ ; to obtain the number of species per  
160 hectare, it is sufficient to solve the equation for  $A = 0.01$ . To explore how different unit areas affect ranking of  $c$  values,  
161 we performed a sensitivity analysis by calculating  $c$  at  $0.001$ ,  $0.01$ ,  $0.1$ ,  $1$ ,  $10$ ,  $100$ , and  $1000 \text{ km}^2$ . We obtained  
162 substantially stable results, with few cases of different ranking (Table 1). Thus, we concentrate our discussion only on  $c$   
163 values calculated for  $1 \text{ km}^2$ . Also, as explained by White & Gould (1965) and Gould (1979),  $c$  values originally  
164 expressed using different systems of measurements (e.g.  $\text{km}^2$  versus square miles) can be converted by using an  
165 appropriate conversion factor depending on the units chosen. All other studies that analysed  $c$  values cited in this paper  
166 used  $\text{km}^2$  as unit of measurement.

167

168

## 169 **RESULTS**

170 Overall, regressions for the power function model of SARs explained 54 to 90% of variance (Figure 2). The best fitting  
171 curve was that of the Aegean isopods, while the worst fitting one was that of the Aegean tenebrionids. The residuals do  
172 not suggest any pattern, except in the case of Aegean land snails, where they seem to indicate that  $z$  increases with  
173 scale.

174

### 175 *Same taxa, different island systems*

176 The same taxonomic groups had homogeneous  $z$  values in the two island systems, with the exception of reptiles, that  
177 showed a  $z$  value significantly higher in the Aegean islands (Table 2). By contrast, we found significant differences in  $c$   
178 values between the two island groups for land snails, centipedes and tenebrionids, but not for isopods and reptiles  
179 (Table 2).

180

181 *Different taxa, same island system*

182 In the Tyrrhenian islands, all taxonomic groups showed similar  $z$  values, with the exception of reptiles versus centipedes  
183 and reptiles versus tenebrionids (Table 3). Conversely, we found significant differences in  $c$  values between: (1)  
184 tenebrionids and reptiles, (2) centipedes and reptiles, (3) land snails and reptiles, (4) isopods and reptiles, and (5) land  
185 snails and centipedes. Marginally significant differences were also found between land snails and tenebrionids,  
186 centipedes and tenebrionids, and centipedes and isopods (Table 3). In the Aegean islands, we found significant  
187 differences in the  $z$  values between reptiles and land snails, and between reptiles and isopods. All other taxonomic  
188 groups had similar  $z$  values (Table 3).  $c$  values resulted significantly different in all comparisons except those between  
189 centipedes and tenebrionids and between isopods and land snails (Table 3).

190

## 191 **DISCUSSION**

192 Interactions among factors (taxa, area, and ecological conditions in different areas) that may vary from one area to  
193 another may complicate the interpretation of SARs. Bunnefeld & Phillimore (2012) proposed to use mixed effect  
194 models to investigate the effects of archipelago, taxon and island type on the variation in species richness. This is a  
195 promising approach for controlling sources of variation and hence to identify general trends across different  
196 archipelagos and taxa in island biogeographical studies. Our aim, however, was not to disentangle interactions of  
197 multiple factors that influence SARs, but to provide interpretation of the biological meaning of the two parameters that  
198 define the power function model of the SAR which, after decades of research, still remains elusive.

199 In all the SARs we analyzed,  $z$  values fell within the typical range (0.20 - 0.40) as observed in true isolated  
200 archipelagos/islands (Connor & McCoy, 1979; Rosenzweig, 1995; Whittaker & Fernández-Palacios, 2007; Triantis *et*  
201 *al.*, 2012; Matthews *et al.*, 2015). Consistent with previous studies (Connor & McCoy, 1979; Triantis *et al.*, 2012;  
202 Matthews *et al.*, 2015), most of our SARs did not show significant variations in  $z$  values. We detected significant  
203 differences in  $z$  values only in a few cases for SARs regarding different groups within the same area and no significant  
204 differences when comparing SARs of the same taxon between different areas, except for the vertebrate group (reptiles).  
205 In general, isolation is known as a major factor affecting  $z$  values (cf. Rosenzweig, 1995). Although the two study  
206 systems considered in this paper have a different degree of isolation, this discrepancy is not so large to produce  
207 differences in the  $z$  values as strong as those observed among oceanic archipelagos. The difference between the slopes  
208 of reptiles (the only vertebrate taxon included in this analysis) and those of land snails, isopods and centipedes, may  
209 suggest that factors regulating SARs in these groups are different and/or operate in different ways. The reptiles  
210 represent the largest predators among the groups we took into account, and their lowest slope in the Tyrrhenian islands



211 contrasts with the hypothesis that slope should increase with trophic rank (Holt *et al.*, 1999; Holt, 2010). Conversely,  
212 the slope of reptiles' SAR in the Aegean islands was similar to, or even significantly higher than, that recorded for other  
213 taxa. This may suggest that reptiles have colonized the two island systems with different mechanisms. The Aegean  
214 islands are inhabited by a relict fauna that has mostly arrived through no longer existing land-bridges, and which is now  
215 under relaxation (Foufopoulos & Ives, 1999; Lymberakis & Poulakakis, 2010). By contrast, in the Tyrrhenian islands  
216 the current reptile fauna seems to follow equilibrium models although land-bridge colonization has had some  
217 importance (Fattorini, 2009, 2010a), and is profoundly altered by recent introductions (Ficetola & Padoa-Schioppa,  
218 2009).

219 In all the cases where slopes were significantly different among taxa, the  $c$  values were also significantly different,  
220 which makes it difficult to identify the biogeographical processes responsible for variation in  $z$  values.

221 Our study supports Gould's prediction (1979), that the general homogeneity of slopes not only eases the investigation of  
222 variations in the  $c$  parameter, but also emphasizes how the intercept could be a very distinctive property of different  
223 SARs. In fact, comparisons between different archipelagos indicate that the Tyrrhenian islands host more species of  
224 land snails, tenebrionids and centipedes per unit area than the Aegean islands, but approximately the same number of  
225 isopod and reptile species. Three, not mutually exclusive hypotheses can be formulated to explain this pattern: (1) a  
226 higher extinction rate on the Aegean Islands; (2) a higher colonization rate on the Tyrrhenian islands; and (3) similar  
227 colonization rates, but a higher success of establishment on the Tyrrhenian islands.

228 As regards the tenebrionids, all these hypotheses can be supported by the high number of endemic species existing in  
229 the Aegean islands. Tenebrionid colonization of the Aegean islands mainly occurred via Pleistocene land-bridges  
230 (Hausdorf & Hennig, 2005; Fattorini, 2007; Papadopoulou *et al.*, 2009). After the Last Glacial Maximum, tenebrionid  
231 populations on different islands remained substantially isolated from one another, and from the mainland. This led to  
232 faunal relaxation and to the evolution of neo-endemic taxa (Hausdorf & Hennig, 2005; Fattorini, 2007; Papadopoulou *et*  
233 *al.*, 2009). More than 32% of the tenebrionid currently inhabiting the Aegean islands are endemic, whereas the  
234 percentage of endemic tenebrionids on the Tyrrhenian islands is less than 20% (Fattorini, 2006b and unpublished data),  
235 which indicates that the latter were subject to a more recent colonization. Compared to the Aegean Islands, Tyrrhenian  
236 islands are, in general, closer to the mainland coast, which suggests a major role for over-sea dispersal as a route for  
237 their colonization. Most of them can be considered at equilibrium, and their populations are probably enriched by  
238 regular species arrivals (rescue effect) (Fattorini, 2009, 2011a, b). The same reasoning applies also to centipedes and  
239 land snails.

240 In general, it has been observed that  $c$  values tend to decrease progressively from inland to continental shelf to ocean

241 islands (Triantis *et al.*, 2012), i.e. in relation to system isolation. Our results for tenebrionids, centipedes and reptiles  
242 support this conclusion, with higher  $c$  values in the less isolated (Tyrrhenian) islands.

243 Our analyses indicate that SAR intercepts are also influenced by organisms' ecology. In the Tyrrhenian area,  $c$  values,  
244 i.e. the number of species per  $\text{km}^2$ , increased in the order reptiles < centipedes < tenebrionids  $\approx$  isopods  $\approx$  land snails. In  
245 the Aegean area, we found the same pattern with number of species per  $\text{km}^2$  increasing in the order reptiles < centipedes  
246  $\approx$  tenebrionids < isopods  $\approx$  land snails. These consistent results suggest that  $c$  values, which are a measure of species  
247 density, reflect the population abundances of the respective taxa.

248 Reptiles are the largest animals considered in our study, and it is reasonable to assume that the same area can sustain a  
249 lower number of species than that of the other groups (Brown, 1995). A survey conducted in an Italian coastal site using  
250 pitfall traps revealed that, among the investigated arthropods, isopods were the most abundant group, followed by  
251 tenebrionids and centipedes (Pitzalis *et al.*, 2005; Trucchi *et al.*, 2009; Fattorini, 2010b). A study conducted in Greece  
252 confirmed these results, finding that abundance of soil arthropods decreased in the order isopods > tenebrionids >  
253 centipedes (Gkissakis *et al.*, 2014). Although, to the best of our knowledge, there is no research comparing the  
254 abundance of arthropods with that of land snails, the latter are known to be extremely abundant (Cameron *et al.*, 2003).  
255 Thus, it appears that  $c$  values may reflect the abundances of taxa, being therefore indicative of the realized carrying  
256 capacity of the populations of all species of a given group in a given area per unit area, as hypothesized by Triantis *et al.*  
257 (2012). Thus, the groups that are more abundant are those for which the carrying capacity per unit area is higher. Under  
258 the assumption of random distribution of individuals and species, we expect that a unit area that hosts larger populations  
259 (i.e. that samples more individuals from the whole community) tends to host also more species, leading to the relation  
260 between  $c$  values and species abundance.

261 Because of the non-linearity of the power function, the number of species per unit area does not vary linearly, i.e. the  
262 ratio species number/area is not constant. For this reason, to compare species richness of areas of different size, Ovadia  
263 (2003) and Brummitt & Nic Lughadha (2003) proposed the use of the  $c$  parameter of the power function as a measure of  
264 species richness standardized by area. A relevant problem with this method is, however, that neither the  $c$  value nor the  
265  $z$  value represent the magnitude of species diversity, because both parameters are responsible for the regression. Thus,  
266 some authors (e.g., Veech, 2000; Ulrich & Buszko, 2005; Fattorini, 2006b) propose to use regression residuals to  
267 compare the species densities of different area sizes. Likewise, Hobohm's (2003)  $\alpha$  index, defined as  $\alpha = \log S - (z \log$   
268  $A + \log c)$ , is, for a given area, exactly its residual from the linearized power function regression line. Because the  
269 number of species per unit area expressed by  $c$  varies according area size,  $c$  values cannot be used to compare different  
270 areas, but they can be legitimately used to compare different systems, provided comparisons are done by using always

271 the same unit of measurement.

272

## 273 **CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE CHALLENGES**

274 In this study we aimed at exploring if  $c$  values can provide ecological information complementary to that provided by  $z$   
275 values. Indeed, we got more insights from SAR intercepts than from slopes, not only because intercepts had higher  
276 variability, but also because they showed interesting relationships with important ecological characteristics of the target  
277 taxa. To the best of our knowledge, no effort has been previously spent to compare the SARs of different taxa within the  
278 same area, under the ‘old’ claim that only few areas have been sampled for multiple taxa (Gould, 1979). A few studies  
279 have compared the slope of the SARs for the same taxonomic group in different archipelagos, but all of them were  
280 based on very small sample sizes. Moreover, they mixed islands with very different geological histories and  
281 contemporary ecology, and/or compared completely unrelated archipelagos (see, for example, Sfenthourakis, 1996;  
282 Simaiakis *et al.*, 2012). Thus, our study represents the first detailed analysis comparing SARs for different taxa in the  
283 same island groups, and that simultaneously tested if a given taxon has different SARs in different island groups.

284 Our approach can be replicated in other archipelagos benefiting, for example, from the availability of a large number of  
285 datasets for Macaronesia. A larger comparative framework could represent a unique opportunity to understand the eco-  
286 evolutionary forces regulating the variation of  $z$  and  $c$  values across different taxa and archipelagos (see e.g Aranda *et*  
287 *al.*, 2013; Patiño *et al.*, 2014). Moreover, the unique data on the abundance of several arthropod groups now available  
288 for the Azores (Borges *et al.*, 2005, 2008; Ribeiro *et al.*, 2005) could be an extremely valuable resource for testing how  
289 population abundances affect  $z$  and  $c$  values of SARs modelled for different taxa within the same archipelago.

290 Our findings demonstrate that, despite the wide breadth of literature focusing on the SAR in island systems, rigorous  
291 analyses based on robust datasets can still provide new interesting insights. We do not mean our results to be conclusive  
292 or groundbreaking, but we do hope that they could keep the debate on these points open.

293

## 294 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

295 We are grateful to Alain Vanderpoorten, Tom Matthews and two anonymous reviewers for their comments on a  
296 previous version of this paper. Leonardo Dapporto was funded by a Marie Curie Individual Fellowship within the 7th  
297 European Community Framework Programme (project no. 658844).

298

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430

### 431 **SUPPORTING INFORMATION**

432 Additional Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article:

433 Appendix S1 Values of species richness and island area for the various taxa in both island groups.

434

### 435 **BIOSKETCH**

436 Members of the research team are actively engaged in island biogeography, conservation and macroecology, with  
437 emphasis on the factors regulating species-area relationships, species-abundance distribution patterns and colonization



438 processes in Mediterranean and Macaronesian archipelagos.

439 Author contributions: S.F. conceived the ideas and collected the data; S.F., L.D. and G.S. analysed the data. S.F. and  
440 P.B. led the writing; all authors contributed in the form of discussions and suggestions, and approved the final  
441 manuscript.

442

443 Editor: Alain Vanderpoorten

444

445 **Appendix 1** Data sources. Literature used to assess species richness of land snails, isopods, centipedes, tenebrionids  
446 and reptiles on the Tyrrhenian and the Aegean islands.  
447  
448 Values of species richness for the land snails of the Tyrrhenian islands were taken from Giusti (1973, 1976) and  
449 Piantelli et al. (1990). For the Aegean Islands, we used values of land snail richness reported by Welter-Schultes &  
450 Williams (1999). For the Tyrrhenian isopods, we referred to Gentile & Argano (2005), whereas species richness values  
451 for the Aegean islands were taken from Sfenthourakis et al. (1996). Data on centipede species richness were extracted  
452 from Simaiakis et al. (2012) for both the Tyrrhenian and the Aegean islands. For the tenebrionid beetles of the  
453 Tyrrhenian islands we used data reported in Luigioni (1923, 1929), Gridelli (1950), Cerruti (1954), Canzoneri (1972,  
454 1976), Gardini (1976, 1979), D'Antonio & Fimiani (1988), Marcuzzi (1988), Leo (1998), Fattorini & Leo (2000), Lo  
455 Cascio et al. (2000), Aliquò et al. (2006), Fattorini (2009a, 2009b, 2010a, 2010b, 2011a, 2011b), plus a few new records  
456 from the Pontine Islands. For the tenebrionid beetles of the Aegean islands, we used data reported in Fattorini (2002),  
457 Soldati & Soldati (2003), Fattorini & Fowles (2005), Hausdorf & Hennig (2005), Trichas (2008), Trichas et al. (2008),  
458 Soldati & Kakiopoulos (2010), Kaltsas et al. (2012), Papadopoulou et al. (2009, 2011) and Soldati (2012). For the  
459 reptiles of the Tyrrhenian islands we used data reported by Parlanti et al. (1988) updated and supplemented with data  
460 reported in Balletto (2005), Sindaco et al. (2006), Cipolla & Nappi (2008) and Fattorini (2010). For the reptiles of the  
461 Aegean islands we used distributional data reported in Fofopoulos et al. (1999) supplemented and revised using  
462 Angelici et al. (1990), Dimitropoulos (1990), Ionnides et al. (1994), Cattaneo (2001, 2003, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008,  
463 2009, 2010a, 2010b) and Hausdorf & Hennig (2005).

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- 592

593 **TABLES**

594

595 Table 1. Values of the parameter  $c$  of the species-area relationships for the same animal groups in the Tyrrhenian and  
 596 the Aegean islands calculated at different area units. Numbers in parentheses indicate the rank sequence of  $c$  values  
 597 from the lowest (1) to the highest (5).

598

	Area unit (km <sup>2</sup> )						
	0.001	0.01	0.1	1	10	100	1000
Tyrrhenian Islands							
Land snails	2.594 (5)	4.355 (5)	7.311 (5)	12.274 (5)	20.606 (5)	34.594 (5)	58.076 (5)
Centipedes	0.748 (1)	1.521 (1)	3.090 (2)	6.281 (2)	12.764 (2)	25.942 (2)	52.723 (2)
Isopods	1.510 (4)	2.761 (4)	5.047 (4)	9.226 (4)	16.866 (4)	30.832 (4)	56.364 (4)
Tenebrionids	1.334 (3)	2.483 (3)	4.624 (3)	8.61 (3)	16.032 (3)	29.854 (3)	55.59 (3)
Reptiles	1.268 (2)	1.754 (2)	2.427 (1)	3.357 (1)	4.645 (1)	6.427 (1)	8.892 (1)
Aegean Islands							
Land snails	2.685 (5)	4.102 (5)	6.266 (5)	9.572 (5)	14.622 (4)	22.336 (4)	34.119 (4)
Centipedes	0.721 (3)	1.262 (3)	2.208 (3)	3.864 (2)	6.761 (2)	11.83 (2)	20.701 (2)
Isopods	2.301 (4)	3.673 (4)	5.861 (4)	9.354 (4)	14.928 (5)	23.823 (5)	38.019 (5)
Tenebrionids	0.637 (2)	1.18 (2)	2.188 (2)	4.055 (3)	7.516 (3)	13.932 (3)	25.823 (3)
Reptiles	0.398 (1)	0.755 (1)	1.432 (1)	2.716 (1)	5.152 (1)	9.772 (1)	18.535 (1)

599

600

601

602 Table 2. Results ( $F$ -values) of ANCOVAs for differences in  $z$  and  $c$  values of species-area relationships for the same  
 603 animal groups between the Tyrrhenian and the Aegean islands.  $P$ -values: \* $<0.05$ ; \*\*\* $<0.001$ .

604

	$F$ -tests for $z$	$F$ -tests for $c$
Land snails	1.626	13.740***
Centipedes	1.619	28.390***
Isopods	2.503	0.374
Tenebrionid beetles	0.0004	18.470***
Reptiles	8.036*	0.226



605

606

607 Table 3. Results (*F*-values) of ANCOVAs for differences in *z* and *c* values of species-area relationships for different  
 608 animal groups in the Tyrrhenian and Aegean islands. *F*-values above the diagonal refer to differences in *z*, those below  
 609 the diagonal refer to differences in *c*. *P*-values : \*<0.05; \*\*<0.01; \*\*\*<0.001.

610

	Land snails	Centipedes	Isopods	Tenebrionid beetles	Reptiles
Tyrrhenian Islands					
Land snails	-	2.288	0.338	0.702	4.042
Centipedes	16.630***	-	0.679	0.757	9.198**
Isopods	2.329	5.312*	-	0.029	3.696
Tenebrionid beetles	4.282*	4.920*	0.204	-	5.226*
Reptiles	258.000***	56.190***	78.740***	77.480***	-
Aegean Islands					
Land snails	-	3.149	1.146	3.280	16.840***
Centipedes	95.520***	-	1.573	0.154	0.629
Isopods	0.140	116.800***	-	1.982	8.052**
Tenebrionid beetles	28.590***	2.405	28.640***	-	0.025
Reptiles	184.600***	6.512**	182.600***	9.743*	-

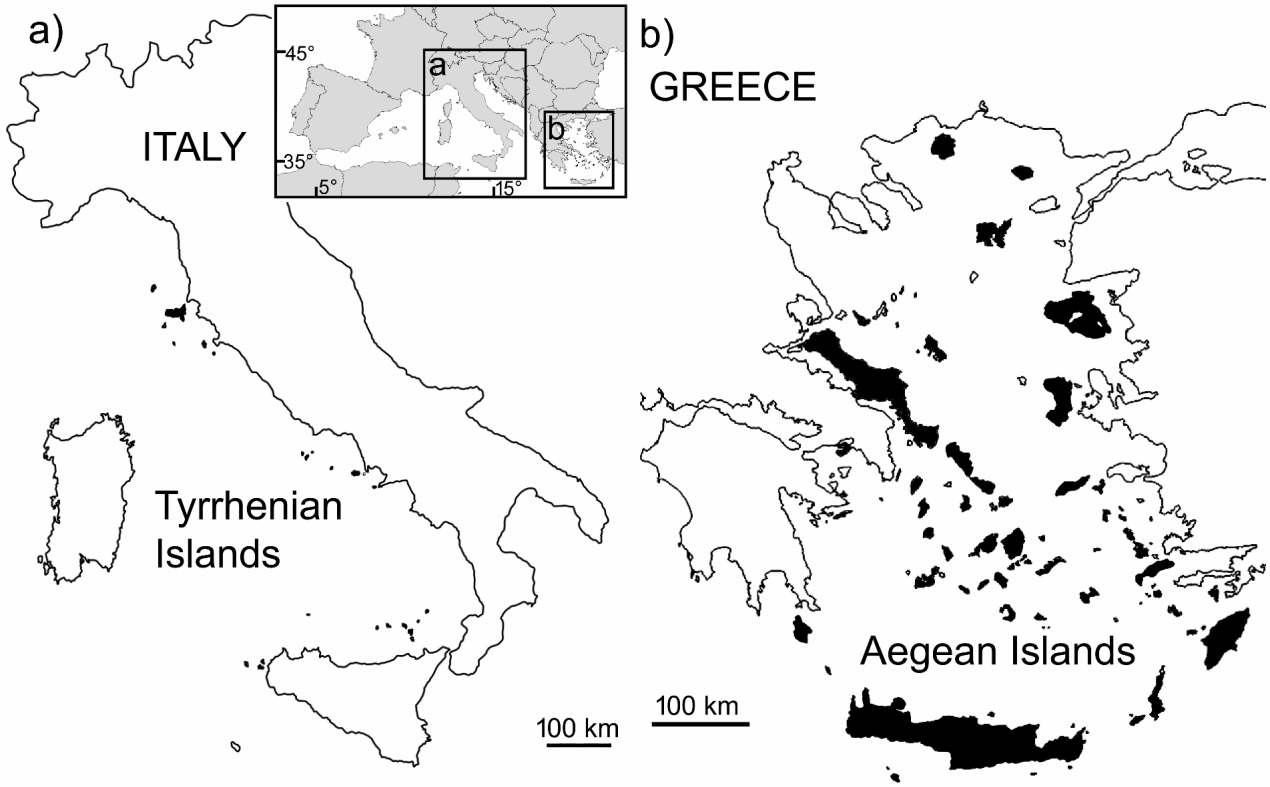
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612 **FIGURES**

613 **Figure 1.** Tyrrhenian (a) and Aegean (b) islands. Investigated islands are in black. The inset shows the location of the  
614 two study areas in southern Europe.

615

616 **Figure 2.** Regression lines of log-transformed species richness ( $\log St$  for the Tyrrhenian islands – black diamonds,  $\log$   
617  $Sa$  for the Aegean islands – gray squares) against log-transformed island area ( $\log A$ ). The following animal groups are  
618 modelled: land snails (a), centipedes (b), isopods (c), tenebrionid beetles (d) and reptiles (e). Regression statistics: (a)  
619 Tyrrhenian land snails:  $R^2 = 0.761$ ,  $F_{1,16} = 50.817$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ ; Aegean land snails:  $R^2 = 0.819$ ,  $F_{1,63} = 285.660$ ,  $p <$   
620  $0.0001$ ,  $n = 18$ ; (b) Tyrrhenian centipedes:  $R^2 = 0.700$ ,  $F_{1,30} = 70.034$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ ; Aegean centipedes:  $R^2 = 0.546$ ,  $F_{1,41} =$   
621  $49.397$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ ,  $n = 43$ ; (c) Tyrrhenian isopods:  $R^2 = 0.577$ ,  $F_{1,26} = 35.439$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ ,  $n = 28$ ; Aegean isopods:  $R^2 =$   
622  $0.898$ ,  $F_{1,41} = 360.049$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ ,  $n = 43$ ; (d) Tyrrhenian tenebrionids:  $R^2 = 0.764$ ,  $F_{1,44} = 142.160$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ ,  $n = 46$ ;  
623 Aegean tenebrionids:  $R^2 = 0.407$ ,  $F_{1,30} = 20.575$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ ,  $n = 32$ ; (e) Tyrrhenian reptiles:  $R^2 = 0.493$ ,  $F_{1,26} = 25.251$ ,  $p$   
624  $< 0.0001$ ; Aegean reptiles:  $R^2 = 0.751$ ,  $F_{1,54} = 161.537$ ,  $n = 56$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ . Errors refer to standard errors.



626

627

