Rapid evolution of a native species following invasion by a congener

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Abstract: In recent years, biologists have increasingly recognized that evolutionary change can occur rapidly when natural selection is strong; thus, real time studies of evolution can be used to test classic evolutionary hypotheses directly. One such hypothesis, that negative interactions between closely related species can drive phenotypic divergence, is thought to be ubiquitous though well-documented cases are surprisingly rare. On small islands in Florida, we found that the lizard *Anolis carolinensis* moved to higher perches following invasion by *Anolis sagrei* and, in response, adaptively evolved larger toepads after only 20 generations. These results illustrate that interspecific interactions can drive evolutionary change on observable time scales.

One Sentence Summary: Island populations of the lizard *Anolis carolinensis* have rapidly undergone morphological change in response to shifts in habitat use driven by competitive interactions with an invading, closely related lizard.

Main Text:

In their classic paper, Brown and Wilson (*1*) proposed that mutually negative interactions between closely-related species could lead to evolutionary divergence when those species co-occurred. In the six decades since, this idea has been debated vigorously, with support that has vascillates based on the latest set of theoretical treatments and comparative studies (reviewed in [(*2-5*)]). However, tests of interaction-driven evolutionary divergence have been slow to capitalize on the growing recognition that evolutionary change can occur rapidly in response to strong divergent natural selection (but see [(*6-9*)]); thus, evolutionary hypotheses about phenomena once thought to transpire on time scales too long for direct observation can be tested in real time while using replicated statistical designs.

An opportunity to study real-time divergence between negatively interacting species has been provided by the recent invasion of the Cuban brown anole lizard, *Anolis sagrei,* into the southeastern United States, where *Anolis carolinensis* was the sole native anole. These species have potential to interact strongly (*e.g.,* [(*10*)]), being very similar in habitat use and ecology (*11*). We investigated the eco-evolutionary consequences of this interaction on islands in Florida (*12*) using an *A. sagrei* introduction experiment, well-documented natural invasions by *A. sagrei,* genomic analyses of population structure, and a common garden experiment. This multifaceted approach can rule against several of the most difficult alternative hypotheses (*e.g.,* plasticity, ecological sorting, environmental gradients [(*2*, *5*)]) while directly testing two predictions for how *A. carolinensis* responds to its congeneric competitor.

Typical of solitary anoles (*13*), *A. carolinensis* habitat-use spans ground to tree crown (*14*). However, where *A. carolinensis* and *A. sagrei* (or their close relatives) co-occur elsewhere, *A. carolinensis* perches higher than *A. sagrei* (*13-16*). Thus, we used an introduction experiment to test Collette's prediction (*14*) that competitive interactions with *A. sagrei* should drive an increase in *A. carolinensis* perch height. In early May 1995, we chose six islands that contained resident populations of *A. carolinensis* and collected pre-introduction perch height data from undisturbed lizards (*12*). Later that month, we introduced small populations of *A. sagrei* to three treatment islands, leaving three control islands containing only *A. carolinensis* (*12*). From May-August 1995-1998, we measured perch heights for both species. The *A. sagrei* populations grew rapidly (**Table S1**; [(*17*)]), and by August 1995, *A. carolinensis* on treatment islands already

showed a significant perch height increase relative to controls, which was maintained through the study (**Fig. 1**; **Fig. S1**; **Table S2**; [(*12*)]).

We next predicted, following (*14*), that this arboreal shift by *A. carolinensis* would drive the evolution of larger toepads with more lamellae (adhesive, setae-laden, subdigital scales). Toepad area and lamella number (body-size corrected) correlate positively with perch height among anole species (*14*, *18*-*20*). Larger and better developed toepads improve clinging ability (*20*), permitting anoles to better grasp unstable, narrow, and smooth arboreal perches. We tested the prediction in 2010 on a set of islands partially overlapping those used in 1995-1998 (*12*). We surveyed 30 islands and found that *A. sagrei* had colonized all but five (*12*). We compared *A. carolinensis* populations on these five islands without the invader (hereafter "un-invaded") to *A. carolinensis* populations on six islands that, based on 1994 surveys, were colonized by *A. sagrei* sometime between 1995 and 2010 (hereafter "invaded") (**Fig. 2**; [(*12*)]).

From May-August 2010, we measured perch height for undisturbed lizards and found that, as in the 1995 introduction experiment, *A. carolinensis* perch height was significantly higher on invaded islands (**Fig. S2; Table S3**; [(*12*)]). We then tested whether the perch height shift had driven toepad evolution by measuring toepad area and lamella number of the 4th toe of each hindleg for every *A. carolinensis* captured (*12*). We found that *A. carolinensis* on invaded islands indeed had larger toepads and more lamellae (traits corrected for body size; **Fig. 3**; **Table S3**; [(*12*)]).

This morphological change occurred quickly. Assuming conservatively that *A. sagrei* reached all six invaded islands in 1995, *A. carolinensis* populations on invaded and un-invaded islands have diverged at mean rates of 0.091 (toepad area) and 0.077 (lamellae) standard deviations per generation (*haldanes* [(*21*)]; rates > zero, each one-tailed $p<0.02$; [(*12*)]), comparable to other examples of rapid evolution (*21*) such as soapberry bug beak length (*22*) or guppy life history (*23*).

We tested several alternative processes that could have generated the observed divergence. First, we used a common garden experiment to investigate possible post-hatching, developmental responses to physical challenges imposed by arboreality during growth (*i.e.,* phenotypic plasticity). We took gravid *A. carolinensis* females from four invaded and four un-invaded islands in July 2011, collected their eggs in the lab, and raised the offspring in identical conditions (*12*). The effect of *A. sagrei* invasion on *A. carolinensis* toepad characteristics

persisted in the common garden (**Fig. 3**; **Table S4**; [(*12*)]), suggesting genetically based divergence in nature (though we cannot rule out trans-generational plasticity).

Second, observed divergence in *A. carolinensis* could have arisen through non-random migration of individuals with large toepads among invaded islands, instead of independently on each island. Thus, we tested whether relatedness among *A. carolinensis* populations is independent of *A. sagrei* invasion. In 379 *A. carolinensis* individuals from 4 un-invaded and 5 invaded islands, we genotyped 121,973 single nucleotide polymorphisms across the genome (**Table S5**, [(*12*)]). Individuals from the same island were closely related, and islands were largely genetically independent (pairwise-F_{ST} 0.09-0.16; **Table S6**). We found no evidence that population relatedness in *A. carolinensis* was correlated with whether an island had been colonized by *A. sagrei* (**Fig. 4; [**(*12*)**]**) or with distance between islands (Mantel test; $p>0.25$), suggesting that gene flow is relatively limited among islands and that island populations were independently founded from the mainland.

Third, toepad changes could have been generated by adaptation to environmental differences among islands that are confounded with the presence of *A. sagrei* [*e.g.,* (*24*)]. Invaded and un-invaded islands, however, do not differ in characteristics important to perching or arboreal locomotion (*e.g.,* vegetated area, plant species richness, or available tree heights; **Table S7**; [(*12*)]). Fourth, toepad changes could have arisen through ecological sorting, wherein *A. sagrei* was only able to colonize those islands on which the existing *A. carolinensis* population was already sufficiently different. However, *A. sagrei* seems capable of successfully colonizing every island it reaches, regardless of resident *A. carolinensis* ecology/morphology: all ten *A. sagrei* populations introduced in 1994-1995 are still extant (*12*), and *A. sagrei* inhabits nearly every other island surveyed in the lagoon (**Fig. 2**). Finally, toepad changes observed in 2010 could be unrelated to interactions with *A. sagrei* if the latter's invasion merely missed the five islands with the lowest *A. carolinensis* perch heights (**Fig. S2**) by chance; however, this would occur only one time in 462. In sum, alternative hypotheses of phenotypic plasticity, environmental heterogeneity, ecological sorting, non-random migration, and chance are not supported; our data suggest strongly that interactions with *A. sagrei* have led to evolution of adaptive toepad divergence in *A. carolinensis.*

Brown and Wilson called evolutionary divergence between closely related, sympatric species 'character displacement' (*1*), and our data constitute a clear example. Resource

competition has been the interaction suggested most often as the source of divergent selection during character displacement (sometimes specifically called 'ecological character displacement' [(*1-3*)]). For *A. carolinensis* and *A. sagrei*, resource competition for space likely is important: allopatric *A. carolinensis* and *A. sagrei* overlap in their use of the habitat (*12-14*, *16*); moreover, when they co-occur, the two species interact agonistically (*10*), and our experimental data show a rapid spatial shift by *A. carolinensis* following *A. sagrei* introduction. The two species also overlap in diet and thus may compete for food (*17*). Competition for food is strong among co-occurring *Anolis* and has been shown to be mitigated by differences in perch height (*11*). Evolutionary divergence may also arise, however, from selection to reduce interspecific hybridization, yet such 'reproductive character displacement' (*4*) seems an unlikely explanation for our results as *A. carolinensis* and *A. sagrei* already differ markedly in species-recognition characteristics, males of both species nearly exclusively ignore heterospecifics in staged encounters (*25*), and the species have never been reported to successfully produce hybrids. We note, finally, that other mutually negative interactions like apparent competition (*26*) and intraguild predation (*27*) could also produce divergence among overlapping species. These remain to be explored in this system, though some evidence exists for at least the latter (*17*).

Here, we have provided evidence from a replicated, natural system to support the long-held idea (*4*) that interspecific interactions between closely related species are an important force for evolutionary diversification (*2*). Moreover, we show that evolutionary hypotheses like character displacement can be rigorously tested in real time following human-caused environmental change. Our results also demonstrate that native species may be able to respond evolutionarily to strong selective forces wrought by invaders. The extent to which the costs of invasions can be mitigated by evolutionary response remains to be determined (*28*), but studies such as this demonstrate the ongoing relevance of evolutionary biology to contemporary environmental issues.

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We thank A. Kamath, C. Gilman, A. Algar, J. Allen, E. Boates, A. Echternacht, A. Harrison, H. Lyons-Galante, T. Max, J. McCrae, J. Newman, J. Rifkin, M. Stimola, P. VanMiddlesworth, K.

Winchell, C. Wiench, K. Wollenberg, and three reviewers; M. Legare and J. Lyon (Merritt Island National Wildlife Refuge), J. Stiner and C. Carter (Canaveral National Seashore); Harvard University, Museum of Comparative Zoology, University of Massachusetts, University of Tennessee, University of Tampa, NSF (DEB-1110521) and NIH (P30GM103324) for funding. Y.E.S., T.S.C., and J.B.L. designed the study; Y.E.S., T.S.C., P.A.H., L.J.R, and R.G.R. collected the data; Y.E.S., T.S.C., and P.A.H. analyzed the data; all authors contributed to the manuscript. Data are accessioned on datadryad.org:xxxxxxxx.

Supplementary Materials:

www.sciencemag.org/content/###/###/####/suppl/XX#

Materials and Methods

Figs. S1 to S2

Tables S1 to S7

References (*29-45*)

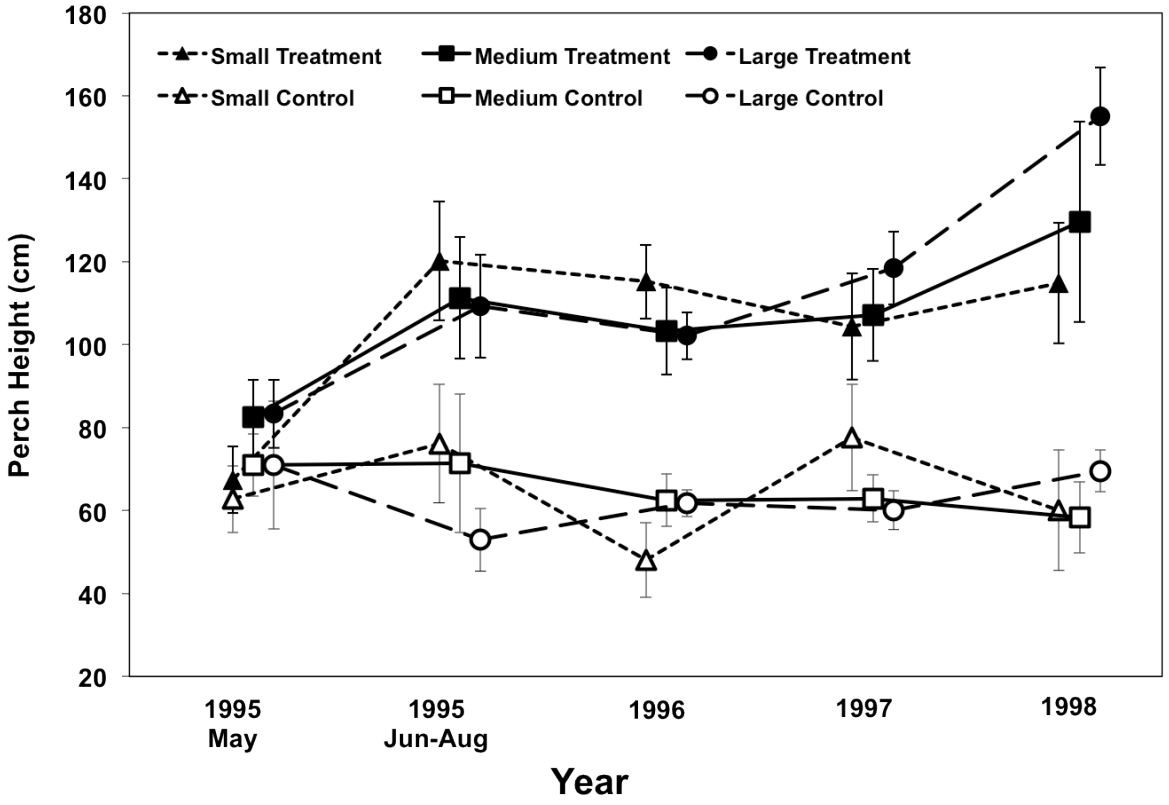
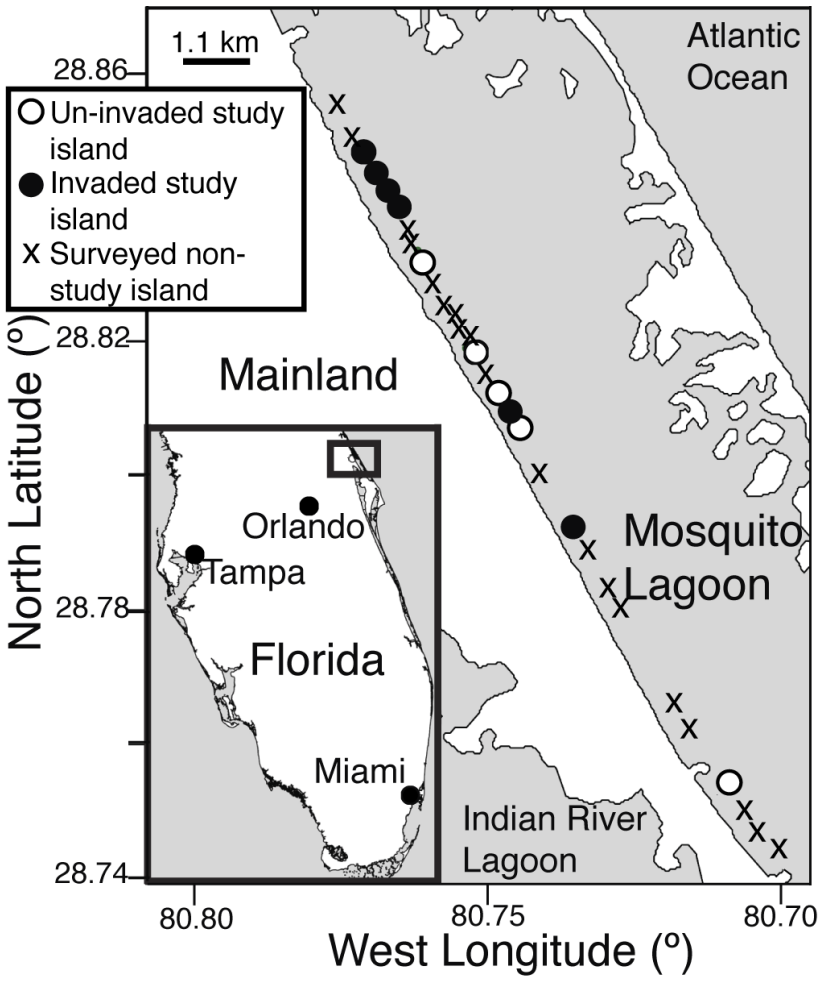


Fig. 1. Perch height shift by *A. carolinensis* after the experimental introduction of *A. sagrei*. We introduced *A. sagrei* to one small, one medium, and one large island (treatment; closed shapes) in 1995, keeping three similarly-sized control islands (open shapes). Island means (±1s.e.) are shown for perch height. *Anolis sagrei* introduction corresponds with a significant perch height increase by *A. carolinensis* (Linear Mixed Models: treatment x time interactions, all $p<0.001$; [(*12*)]; **Table S1; Table S2**).



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276 **Fig. 2. 2010 study islands along the Intracoastal Waterway.** *Anolis carolinensis* inhabits all
277 study islands. Six study islands were invaded by *A. sagrei* sometime between 1995 and 2010
278 (closed circles) and five study islands remain un-invaded today (open circles). 19 additional non-
279 study islands were surveyed ('x'; [(*12*)]); 17 were invaded by *A. sagrei* and two were empty of
280 both species.

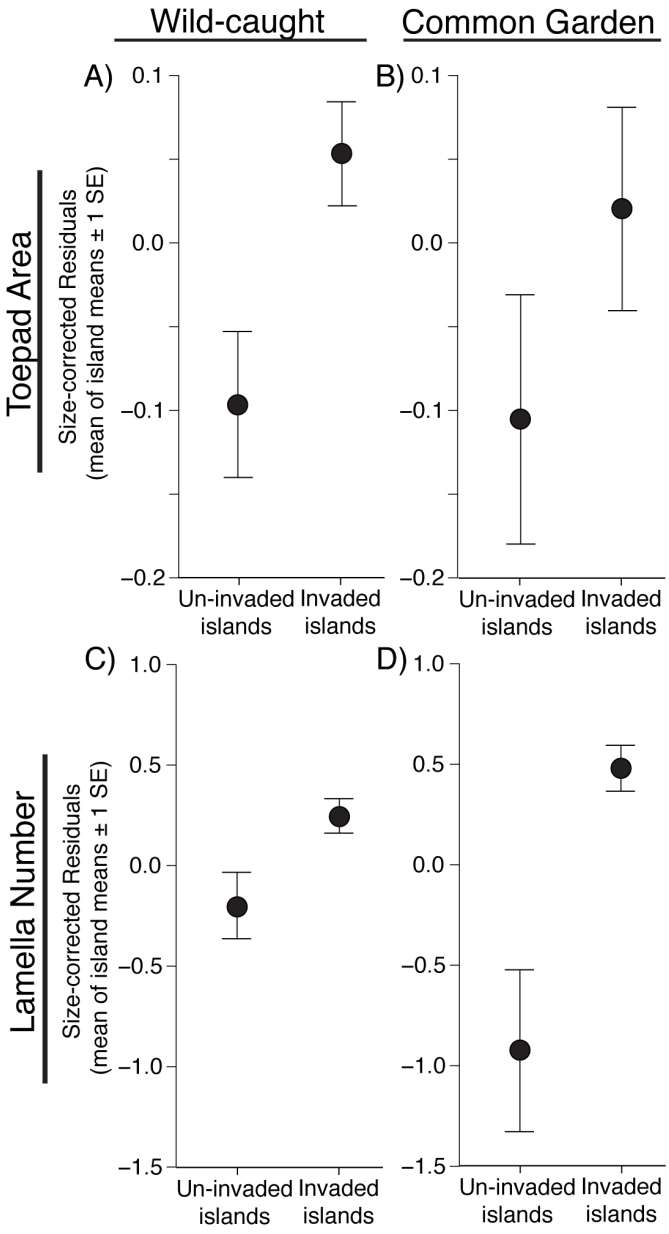

Fig. 3. Divergence in wild-caught (A, C) and common garden *A. carolinensis* (B, D). Mean-of-island-means, size-corrected residuals (±1s.e.) are shown. The invasion of *A. sagrei* corresponds to a significant increase in both traits for wild-caught lizards (A, C) in 2010 (5 islands un-invaded, 6 invaded; Linear Mixed Models [LMM]; **Panel A**: Toepad Area, $\beta_{invaded}$ =0.15, t_9=2.7, p=0.012; **Panel C**: Lamella Number, $\beta_{invaded}$ =0.54, t_9=3.1, p=0.009). Common garden offspring from invaded islands had significantly larger toepad characteristics (4 un-invaded islands; 4 invaded; LMM; **Panel B**: Toepad Area, $\beta_{invaded}$=0.14, t_6=2.1, p=0.043; **Panel D**: Lamella Number, $\beta_{invaded}$=1.45, t_6=3.6, p=0.006). All p-values one-tailed.

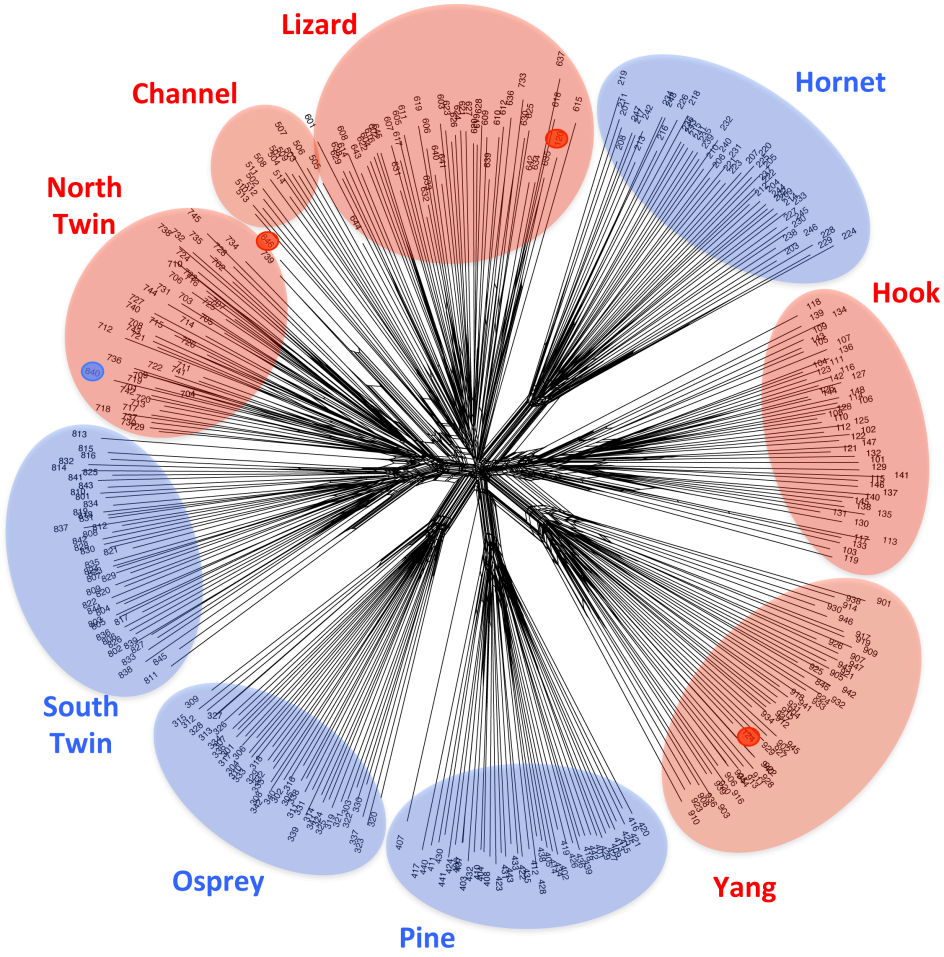

Figure 4. Neighbor-net analysis of genetic distance for *A. carolinensis* individuals from invaded (red) and un-invaded (blue) islands (*12*). Small shaded areas enclose individuals that do not cluster with their own island; the color of these areas represents invasion status of their home islands.

Supplementary Materials:

Materials and Methods

Tables S1-S7

Figures S1-S2

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Full Acknowledgments

Materials and Methods:

Terminology

The terms native, invasive, invaded, natural, and introduced have accrued multiple connotations across the invasive species literature. Therefore, we define our use of these terms here. We treat *A. carolinensis* as a native species because it has existed on the mainland United States for ca. 2 million years (*29*). *Anolis carolinensis* is ubiquitous in the Mosquito Lagoon region and its colonization of the spoil islands does not constitute a range expansion; therefore, we consider it a native species on the spoil islands even though colonization of those man-made islands is recent. By contrast, *A. sagrei* is native to Cuba and the Bahamas. It colonized southern Florida in the 1940s (*14*) and spread into the rest of Florida as well as Georgia and Louisiana. Hence, we refer to *A. sagrei* as an invasive species, and we term the spoil islands on which it has established populations as invaded. Furthermore, we wish to make a distinction between colonization by *A. sagrei* that is the result of natural processes versus those that are purposefully manipulated by researchers. We term those instances where we purposefully colonized islands with *A. sagrei* as introductions; thus, the 1995-1998 study is an introduction experiment.

We first discuss the natural history of the dredge spoil islands and then describe the two studies reported in the main text: (1) the 1995-1998 introduction experiment, and (2) the 2010 study of character displacement in toepad characteristics.

Dredge Spoil Island Natural History

The Mosquito Lagoon dredge spoil islands used in these studies were created by the US Army Corps of Engineers (*17*) as a byproduct of the digging of the Intracoastal Waterway (ICW). An old, obsolete section of ICW channel built prior to the 1950s exists along the eastern

edge of the lagoon. The new, active channel of the ICW was dredged along the western edge of the lagoon in the 1950s. Spoil islands exist along both the old and the active channel.

Along with other flora and fauna from the nearby mainland, *A. carolinensis* colonized the islands in the decades following island creation (*17*). We observed *A. carolinensis* in (presumably) marginal mangrove and salt marsh environments on every island visited in 2010. This suggests that *A. carolinensis* populations could have reached the islands through natural colonization shortly after the creation of the islands without requiring the late-successional, present-day plant community dominated by broad-stemmed woody species (*e.g., Juniperus virginiana* and *Sabal palmetto*). *Anolis sagrei* arrived to the mainland surrounding the lagoon in the late 1980s (*30*).

But for the occasional nocturnal gecko (*Hemidactylus sp*.), we observed no other lizards on the islands during research from 2009-2011. The bird faunas on these islands are depauperate and mostly feature waterfowl; we observed red-winged blackbirds (*Agelaius phoeniceus)* and common nighthawks (*Chordeiles minor*) infrequently, and other insectivorous birds were observed even more rarely, suggesting little competition for insects with the *Anolis* species from birds. Several spider species inhabited the islands at noticeable frequency (*Nephila clavipes, Gasteracantha cancriformis, Argiope aurantia, Eriophora ravilla, Phidippus spp.*), but their competitive relationship with the lizards on these islands remains to be studied (see [(*11*)] for discussion of anole-spider interactions). The most commonly observed lizard predators on these islands were black racers (*Coluber constrictor*) and raccoons (*Procyon lotor*). Racers were seen only occasionally and not often enough to compare invaded and un-invaded islands. We did not collect quantitative data on raccoons but they were observed on nearly every island and likely only prey on lizards opportunistically. Very little is known about parasites in *A. carolinensis* and *A. sagrei* (see [(*11*)]). Occasionally, we observed unidentified insect larvae that were living subcutaneously emerge through the skin of adult *A. carolinensis*.

(1) Introduction Experiment (1995-1998)

A pilot introduction of *A. sagrei* to Six-Palm and Coon Islands indicated that *A. sagrei* populations would expand rapidly following introduction (*30*). To assess the speed and magnitude of the effects of *A. sagrei* invasion on *A. carolinensis* demography and habitat use, we conducted an introduction experiment on six spoil islands in Mosquito Lagoon from 1995 to

1998. We chose matched pairs of small (ca. 0.1 ha), medium (ca. 0.2 ha), and large (ca. 1.0 ha) islands and flipped a coin to determine which island in each pair would be subjected to a purposeful introduction of *A. sagrei* (**Table S1**) in a random-blocked design. Throughout May 1995, before initiating the *A. sagrei* introductions, we sampled *A. carolinensis* on all six islands using Rand surveys (*31*), whereby we walked through the habitat slowly until we observed an undisturbed adult lizard. We then measured its perch height to the nearest 1 cm using a tape measure. We marked all lizards with unique numbers (with permanent markers and by toe-clipping) to prevent double-counting; thus, all lizards in the perch height analyses were unique individuals. On May 27 and 28, 1995, we captured 120 *A. sagrei* from urban sites on the surrounding mainland near New Smyrna Beach and marked and released 40 of these *A. sagrei* (20M:20F) on each of the three treatment islands. We only observed four *A. sagrei* on the large treatment island in the few weeks subsequent to their release, so we increased propagule pressure by adding 40 more *A. sagrei* to this island in early June 1995 to encourage the establishment on this much larger island. From June through August 1995, and throughout the summers (May to August) of 1996, 1997, and 1998, we used the same methods to collect perch height data for *A. carolinensis* and the introduced *A. sagrei* populations.

The small treatment (ST) and small control (SC) islands are located on the eastern edge of Mosquito Lagoon in the old channel of the ICW near Eldora, FL (28.91, -80.82; [(*17*)]). Island ST, 0.5 km north of Eldora, is 0.16 ha in total area, with a central forested area of 0.04 ha (dominant species: *Juniperus virginiana, Schinus terebinthifoliusis, Sabal palmetto*) flanked on the north, east, and south by extensive regularly inundated salt marsh (*Spartina alterniflora* and *Batis* sp.). Island SC, 0.2 km south of Eldora, is 0.12 ha in total area, with a central forested area of 0.02 ha (same dominant species) flanked on the east and south by a narrow strip of regularly inundated salt marsh (*Spartina alterniflora* and *Batis* sp.). The medium treatment (MT) is located in the island chain along the western edge of Mosquito Lagoon (where the 2010 toepad study was conducted) and is 0.17 ha, with vegetation the same as ST and SC, but the forested area (0.10 ha) comprises a larger percentage of this island, and the salt marsh only occurs on the north and west edges. The medium control (MC; 0.15 ha) is also located along the western edge of Mosquito Lagoon near the south end of the island chain. It is very similar to Island MT in forested area (0.08 ha) and marsh area, which only flanks the south and east edges of the island.

Finally, the small and medium islands are similar to the large islands in that they represent smaller versions of the forested area on the large islands and support similar vegetation (*17*).

The two large treatment and control islands (LT and LC, respectively) are also located on the western edge of Mosquito Lagoon along the new, active channel of the ICW. Both are large sand piles with open, desert-like central areas rimmed by forested 'hedges' and relatively small, triangular, marsh 'tails' extending westward towards the mainland. LT (0.89 ha) has 0.21 ha forested area composed of *Juniperus virginiana, Schinus terebinthifoliusis,* and *Sabal palmetto*. LC (0.94 ha) is physically very similar to Island LT, with 0.16 ha forested area. LC, a National Park Service backcountry campsite is frequently used by boaters, and thus was naturally invaded by *A. sagrei* at the end of the introduction experiment in 1998. We removed a few *A. sagrei* in early May of 1998 to maintain its integrity as a control island for the introduction experiment throughout that summer. By 2010, this LC population of *A. sagrei* was fully established; both LT and LC were used as invaded islands for the 2010 toepad study, described next (**Table S1**). (MC and SC were also invaded naturally by *A. sagrei* between 1998 and 2010).

For the 1995-1998 introduction experiment, we used linear mixed models to analyze *A. carolinensis* perch height data because such models incorporate within-island variation by nesting islands as a random effect within the fixed treatment effect (*i.e.,* the introduction of *A. sagrei*) (*32*). We square-root transformed the perch data to improve normality in the model residuals. We termed the variable representing the five time points during which perch heights were measured "event"; "event" included 1995 pre-introduction (May), 1995-post introduction (June – August), 1996, 1997, and 1998. We conducted our analyses using the *lme()* function in the R package *nlme* (*33*) and built the following full model that includes treatment, event, and sex as explanatory variables: lme(sqrt(perch height) ~ treatment + event + sex + treatment*event + treatment*sex, random = ~sex | island). The treatment*sex interaction was not significant so we built the following reduced model: lme(sqrt(perch height) ~ treatment + event + sex + treatment*event, random = ~sex | island). Residuals from this model were normally distributed and model output is reported in **Table S2**. The treatment*event interaction was significant, as would be expected if *A. sagrei* drives a perch height increase in *A. carolinensis*. At each time point post introduction of *A. sagrei*, *A. carolinensis* perches significantly higher on treatment islands compared to controls (**Table S2**; ($\beta_{treatment}$ ranges from 2.09 to 3.47, t_{1627} ranges from 3.3 to 5.0; all one-tailed $p < 0.001$). Male lizards perch significantly higher than females (β_{male} =

1.85, $t_{1627} = 10.1$, one-tailed $p < 0.001$). Treatment itself was not significant in this model ($p > 0.36$; **Table S2**) because *A. carolinensis* perch heights were measured on treatment islands before *A. sagrei* introduction in early 1995 (**Fig. 1**). To investigate the effects of treatment further, we built the same model but for a dataset pruned to include only perch height data collected post-introduction. This model found that sex remained a significant predictor of *A. carolinensis* perch height ($\beta_{male} = 1.95$, $t_{1384} = 10.0$, one-tailed $p < 0.001$). The treatment effect was significant in this model ($\beta_{treatment} = 2.98$, $t_4 = 5.4$, one-tailed $p < 0.003$; **Table S2**), but the treatment*event interaction was no longer significant (all $p > 0.39$; **Table S2**). This is consistent with **Fig. 1**: most perch height shift occurred in 1995 just after introduction, and perch height remained mostly level 1996-1998.

(2) Character Displacement in Toepads (2010)

We wanted to determine whether a perch height shift by *A. carolinensis* in response to the invasion of *A. sagrei* drove toepad evolution in the former species. From presence absence surveys in 2009 and 2010, we found five islands un-invaded by *A. sagrei* with only *A. carolinensis* present. We compared perch heights and toepads of *A. carolinensis* populations on these islands to *A. carolinensis* on six islands where *A. sagrei* had invaded. The six invaded islands were chosen because they were similar in size, shape, and vegetation to the un-invaded islands (see below).

Study Island History and Choice, and Accounting for Environmental Heterogeneity

In 1994, along the western edge of Mosquito Lagoon following the main channel of the ICW, Campbell surveyed for *A. carolinensis* and *A. sagrei* on 23 spoil islands. Of these 23 islands, all but two had populations of *A. carolinensis.* Of the 21 islands with *A. carolinensis* on them, by 1994, two islands were already invaded by *A. sagrei*. Four more of these 21 islands had *A. sagrei* purposefully introduced to them in 1994 and 1995: LT and MT from the introduction experiment described above, and islands Six-Palm and Coon as part of a separate pilot study described in (*30*). By the end of the introduction experiment, island LC had been colonized naturally by *A. sagrei,* bringing the total invaded to seven of the 21. We surveyed these 23 islands again in 2009 and 2010 and found that *A. sagrei* had also invaded 12 more islands through natural colonization (including MC from the introduction experiment), leaving just two

islands of the original 23 with just *A. carolinensis* (recall that two islands were empty in 1994 and remained so in 2010). We surveyed 7 more islands along the western edge of the lagoon, revealing three additional islands with only *A. carolinensis*, making for a total of 5 un-invaded islands with just *A. carolinensis* out of 30 islands surveyed. Thus, we chose these 5 islands as our "controls" and complemented them with six "treatment" islands from the original 23 that were similar to the controls in size, shape, and vegetation structure but were invaded by *A. sagrei* sometime between 1995 and 2010 (**Table S3**). The five un-invaded islands are interspersed between invaded islands (**Fig. 2**). Two of the six invaded islands (LC and LT) were part of the introduction experiment described above.

We did not use MT, MC, ST, or SC because they were much smaller than required, compared to the five un-invaded "control" islands. Beyond LT, MT, and ST, seven more purposeful introductions of *A. sagrei* were made by Campbell: two on the western edge of the lagoon along the new, active ICW channel in 1994 (Six-Palm and Coon described above; [(*30*)]), and five in 1995 on the eastern edge of the lagoon along the old ICW channel. Similarly, these five introduced old-channel islands were not used because they were not comparable to the five controls in size or age. However, that 10 of 10 purposeful introductions of *A. sagrei* were successful on islands that varied in size and age suggests that *A. sagrei* can colonize any spoil island and that ecological sorting is not responsible for the patterns observed in 2010 (see main text).

We tested for environmental heterogeneity between invaded and un-invaded islands in the 2010 study. To estimate distance to the mainland, island area, and vegetated area for each island in the study, we used Google Earth. We used logistic regression to test whether these variables are associated with the presence or absence of *A. sagrei* (**Table S7**).

To test for differences in available tree heights and vegetation species richness, we conducted point-quarter habitat surveys of island vegetation. Islands have two distinct habitat types: a forested edge and an open center. Within the forested edge, we used Google Earth to haphazardly choose survey points along an outer circle close to the forest/water edge and an inner circle near the forest/center edge. For the open center, we surveyed three to four points along three to four regularly placed north-south transects, the number of points and transects per island depending on island size. At each point, we recorded the species identity for the four closest trees (one in each quarter) and then measured their heights. We also recorded the species

identities of the four closest shrubs (one in each quarter). As above, we used logistic regression with invaded/un-invaded status as the response variable and available tree heights and two species richness metrics were used as the predictor variables. Species richness was calculated using both the Shannon and Simpson diversity indices using the *diversity()* function in the R (version 2.14.1, R Development Core Team) package *vegan* (*34*). Results are shown in **Table S7**.

Perch Height

First, to establish that individual *A. carolinensis* were still perching higher in the presence of *A. sagrei,* as found in the introduction experiment, we visited each island on average 8.3 times from May-August 2010, usually visiting sometime between 7am and 2pm. We collected lizard perch height data using the Rand survey method (*31*), whereby we walked through the habitat slowly until we observed an undisturbed adult lizard. We noted the perch at which the lizard was first observed and measured the height of the perch to the nearest cm with a tape measure. Sample sizes are in **Table S3**.

We again used linear mixed models to analyze perch height data (*32*). We square-root transformed the perch data to improve normality in the model residuals. We conducted our analyses using the *lme()* function in the R package *nlme* (*33*) and built a full model that includes sex as an explanatory variable as follows: lme(sqrt(lizard perch height) ~ sagrei presence + sex + sagrei presence * sex, random = ~sex | island). The interaction term in the full model was not significant so we built the following reduced model: lme(sqrt(lizard perch height) ~ sagrei presence + sex, random = ~sex | island). Residuals from this model were normally distributed. The presence of *A. sagrei* significantly predicts perch height in *A. carolinensis* populations (see main text for statistics), even after significant perch differences by sex are taken into account ($\beta_{male} = 1.94$, $t_{807} = 3.7$, one-tailed $p < 0.001$).

Previous studies of *Anolis* have found that limb length correlates positively with lizard perch diameter (reviewed in [(*11*)]), so we also measured diameter of lizard perches to the nearest 0.1cm. We found no difference in perch diameter use by *A. carolinensis* on invaded and un-invaded islands (Linear Mixed Model, log-transformed data, no interaction: $\beta_{invaded\ island} = 0.17$, $t_9 = 1.49$, $p = 0.17$; $\beta_{male} = -0.02$, $t_{768} = -0.27$, $p = 0.29$; island sample sizes 52-108), so there was no functional basis to predict limb length evolution. Thus, we focused solely on the

prediction that *A. sagrei* should drive the evolution of enhanced toepads in sympatric *A. carolinensis*.

The focus of both the 1995-1998 introduction experiment and the 2010 study has been the influence of the invader *A. sagrei* on habitat use and morphology in *A. carolinensis*. We weren't able to ask the converse, whether *A. carolinensis* influences *A. sagrei* perch use (and subsequently toepad morphology), because of a dearth of comparable islands with just *A. sagrei* present. However, comparisons among populations throughout the Caribbean suggest that *A. carolinensis* does indeed influence *A. sagrei* ecomorphology. Compared to populations where *A. sagrei* is the lone anole, *A. sagrei* sympatric with *A. carolinensis* perch lower (*13*, *35*) and have fewer lamellae (*36*). This suggests that the negative interactions between the two species are indeed mutual although perhaps not always symmetric. On the spoil islands, we should expect the response to be asymmetrical. *Anolis sagrei* have invaded Florida from Cuba, where close relatives of *A. carolinensis* exhibit a similar ecomorphology to *A. carolinensis* (*15*). Spoil island *A. carolinensis*, on the other hand, are being exposed to *A. sagrei* for the first time, and therefore have the potential to be affected more strongly, as they have not already evolved to interact with *A. sagrei*.

Toepad Evolution

We captured lizards with noose poles and returned captured lizards to our field laboratory. For every adult lizard caught, we measured toepad area and lamella number from flatbed digital scans (2400 dpi) of the fourth toe of each hind foot. This toe is commonly used in studies of *Anolis* toepad functional morphology, so we measured it in our study to maximize the comparability of our data to that obtained in other research; however, we also note that lamellae measures from different toes are significantly correlated in *A. carolinensis* (*18*). Specifically, Glossip and Losos (*18*) counted lamellae on toes 2-5 on the fore- and hindfeet of 42 male and 24 female *A. carolinensis.* They found that males have more lamellae on each toe than females (mean difference = 1.2; t-test > 2.74, $p < 0.01$ in all cases), which is consistent with the sex effect in our data (see below). Glossip and Losos also found that for males, 25 of 28 pairwise comparisons showed significant correlations between lamella number on different toes (hindfoot toe 2 vs. hindfoot toe 4 and hindfoot toe 5 versus hindfeet toes 3 and 4 being the exceptions). Fifteen of 28 pairwise comparisons for females showed significant correlations for lamella

number among toes; specific non-significant comparisons for females were not reported but the authors noted "no pattern of which comparisons are significant and which are not" (*18*).

We measured lamella number by counting all lamellae on the third and fourth phalanges of the toe and traced the area encompassed by those lamellae to measure toepad area. We measured both traits for right and left toes and averaged sides for each trait for analysis. We also measured snout-to-vent length (svl) using calipers, as a proxy for body-size used for correction during analysis. Captured lizards were released at site of capture following measurement. To prevent repeated measures of the same individual, lizards were marked with temporary ink and permanent subcutaneous VI Alpha Tags (Northwest Marine Technologies) prior to release. Sample sizes are in **Table S3**.

As above, we used linear mixed models to nest island random effects within our *A. sagrei*-presence fixed effect. For toepad area and lamella number, separately, we built full models that included lizard sex and svl as random effects: lme(trait ~ sagrei presence*sex*svl, random = ~sex + svl | island), where trait is either toepad area or lamella number. Neither the three-way interaction term nor any of the two way interaction terms were significant so we chose a reduced model that did not include interaction terms: lme(trait ~ sagrei presence + sex + svl, random = ~sex + svl | island). Residuals from this model were normally distributed for both traits.

The presence of *A. sagrei* was a significant predictor for both toepad area and lamella number (see main text for statistics). Toepad area was also significantly predicted by sex (β_{male} = 0.46, t_{551} = 4.4, one-tailed $p < 0.001$) and svl (β_{svl} = 0.12, t_{551} = 12.8, one-tailed $p < 0.001$), as was lamella number (β_{male} = 0.88, t_{551} = 4.5, one-tailed $p < 0.001$) and svl (β_{svl} = 0.04, t_{551} = 2.4, one-tailed $p = 0.008$). Some evidence suggests that scale number in lizards might be fixed at hatching (*37*), suggesting that size correction for lamella number is unnecessary. We built a model, as above, but without including svl as a main effect. Results were qualitatively unchanged. The presence of *A. sagrei* remained a significant predictor for lamella number ($\beta_{invaded\ island}$ = 0.53, t_9 = 3.0, one-tailed $p = 0.002$) as did sex (β_{male} = 1.27, t_{547} = 13.4, one-tailed $p < 0.001$).

Rates of Divergence

We calculated the mean rate of divergence for toepad area and lamella number using the *haldane (h),* a measure of the proportional change per generation in standard deviation units (*21*). This method assumes that the two populations (or sets of populations) are diverging from a similar ancestral state. We used the equation

$$h = \left((x_s / s_p) - (x_a / s_p) \right) / g .$$

x is the mean of island trait-means for either size-corrected toepad area or size-corrected lamella number. Subscript s represents islands where *A. carolinensis* is sympatric with *A. sagrei* (*i.e.,* invaded islands) while subscript a represents islands where *A. carolinensis* is allopatric to *A. sagrei* (*i.e.,* un-invaded islands). g is the number of generations since divergence began, which we conservatively take to be 20 generations as *A. carolinensis* likely has slightly more than one generation per year and *A. sagrei* began colonizing the islands during or after 1995. s_p is the pooled standard deviation of the island means across a and s islands; this value was calculated as the square root of the within mean-squared error taken from a linear regression of size-corrected trait mean against *A. sagrei* presence or absence. p-values were calculated using a randomization test, whereby a and s were assigned to island means in every possible permutation and h was recalculated in each case to provide a distribution of h values. We compared our observed h values to this distribution. R scripts are available from the authors.

Common Garden Experiment

In late July 2011, we collected gravid *A. carolinensis* females from four invaded and four un-invaded islands. We returned these gravid females to common cage conditions in an environmentally controlled room within the University of Massachusetts Boston animal care facility. Females were housed individually in Critter Keepers with bamboo dowels, cage carpet, and a potted plant for laying eggs. Cages were illuminated with full-spectrum lighting. Lizards were misted twice daily and fed 2-3 times per week with crickets that had been fed Flukers Orange Cubes and Flukers High Calcium Cricket Diet. Directly before feeding to lizards, crickets were also dusted with vitamin and calcium powders.

We checked plant pots for eggs three times per week from August-November 2011. We collected, incubated, and hatched all laid eggs. We raised the offspring in individual cages and shuffled cages regularly to randomize any within room environmental variation. Offspring were

fed and misted by the same regimen as adults, except that smaller cricket sizes were used as appropriate to the size of the lizard.

We raised the offspring for six months and then measured toepad area and lamella number, as described above. Because of low sample sizes (**Table S4**), we did not differentiate by sex in our models as our field data demonstrate significant effects of the presence of *A. sagrei* regardless of whether sex is included in the model. We did not include an indicator for each hatchling's dam, as there were no differences among dams from invaded and un-invaded islands in svl, mass, or body condition (mass/svl) (Linear Mixed Models. svl: $\beta_{\text{sagrei present}} = -0.13$, $t_6 = -0.19$, $p = 0.86$; mass: $\beta_{\text{sagrei present}} = 0.11$, $t_6 = 1.07$, $p = 0.33$; body condition: $\beta_{\text{sagrei present}} = 0.002$, $t_6 = 1.34$, $p = 0.23$).

For toepad area and lamella number, individually, we built a full model that included lizard svl as a random effect: lme(trait ~ sagrei presence*svl, random = ~svl | island). The interaction term was not significant so we chose the following reduced model: lme(trait ~ sagrei presence + svl, random = ~svl | island). Juvenile svl was not a significant predictor of lamella number in this model ($\beta_{\text{svl}} = 0.07$, $t_{41} = 1.4$, one-tailed $p = 0.09$).

Population genetics

To test the hypothesis that the observed evolutionary changes in multiple invaded islands are independent, we assessed genetic relationships among the study populations of *A. carolinensis* with genomic data. We used restriction-site associated DNA sequencing (RADseq) to discover and genotype a large number of single-nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) loci across individuals from nine study islands (**Table S5**). Following established protocols (*38*), we created libraries for sequencing from 384 individuals. We used unique 6bp barcodes to multiplex 192 samples in each of two lanes of 100bp single-end sequencing on an Illumina HiSeq machine (U. Oregon).

We obtained just over 404 million sequence reads. We de-multiplexed raw reads and filtered for the presence of a correct barcode and restriction site using Stacks (*39*), leaving 314.8 million reads. We then aligned raw reads against the *A. carolinensis* reference genome (version 2.0.75) using Bowtie2 (*40*), discarding reads that aligned to more than one location in the reference. We called diploid genotypes using a maximum likelihood model (as described by [(*39*, *41*)], implemented using code available at

http://webpages.uidaho.edu/hohenlohe/software.html, with a Phred quality score minimum of 10 and prior bounds on the nucleotide error rate of 0.001 and 0.1. Genotypes were called at 161,038 RAD tag loci. From these genotypes we identified single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) across the complete set of individuals. We removed 5 individuals for low numbers of called genotypes (*i.e.,* low coverage), and we removed any putative SNPs genotyped in fewer than 150 individuals, with minor allele frequency less than 0.05 across the combined sample set, or with more than two alleles. This analysis and filtering produced a final dataset of 121,973 biallelic SNPs genotyped across 379 individuals.

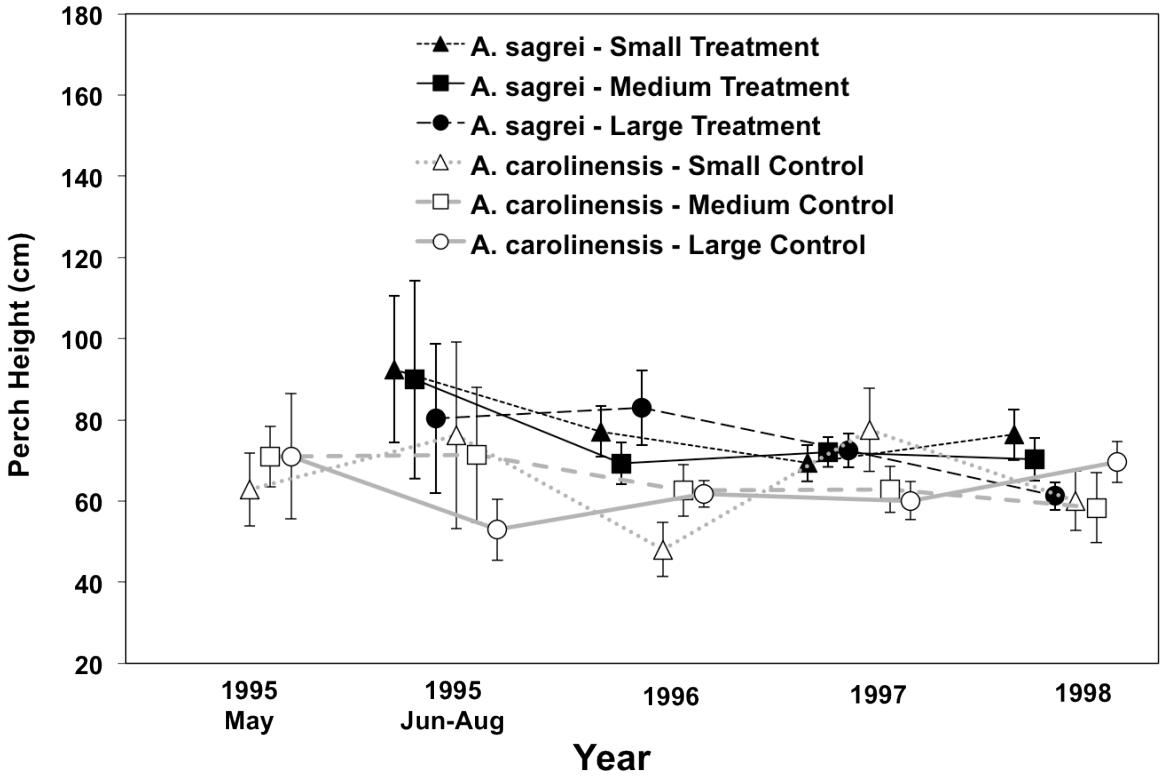
We assessed genetic clustering of individuals based on this set of SNPs with a neighbor-joining phylogenetic network using SplitsTree4 version 4.13.1 (*42*), by using custom scripts to convert genotypes at the 121,973 SNPs to nexus format. We used default settings for SplitsTree4, which estimates uncorrected Hamming distance between individuals based on diploid genotypes and generates a phylogenetic network with the NeighborNet algorithm (*43*). We found island populations to be well-defined. There is no indication of clustering of islands by invasion status, and the few individuals that do not cluster with their home island population show no sign of preferential migration among islands of similar invasion status (**Figure 4**).

We also calculated the genome-wide average pairwise F_{ST} using the variance decomposition method of (*44*) among all islands from the set of 121,973 SNPs (code available at http://webpages.uidaho.edu/hohenlohe/software.html). We assessed grouping of islands based on the pairwise F_{ST} matrix (**Table S6**) with several approaches: principal coordinates analysis using the R function *cmdscale()* with varying levels of the number of dimensions *k*; neighbor-joining trees using the R package *APE* (*45*); and the NeighborNet algorithm in SplitsTree4. None of these suggested any relationship between invasion status and genetic grouping of populations. We also tested for a difference in mean F_{ST} depending on similarity or difference in invasion status with a 2-sample t-test using the R function *t.test(),* which was not significant ($p > 0.5$). We tested for isolation by distance using a Mantel test [R function *mantel.test()*] to compare matrices of pairwise F_{ST} and geographic distance (**Table S6**) and found no relationship ($p > 0.25$).

Full Acknowledgments:

We thank A. Kamath, C. Gilman, A. Algar, J. Allen, J. Archer, E. Boates, A. Echternacht, F. Gregg, A. Harrison, J. Kolbe, H. Lyons-Galante, J. McCrae, J. Newman, R. Pringle, J. Rifkin, M.

Stimola, P. VanMiddlesworth, K. Winchell, and K. Wollenberg for assistance; A. Algar and A. Kamath for photographs; T. Max and C. Wiench for preparing RADseq libraries; three anonymous reviewers for helpful comments and improvements; M. Legare and J. Lyon from Merritt Island National Wildlife Refuge and J. Stiner and C. Carter from Canaveral National Seashore for permission to conduct this research; Harvard University, Museum of Comparative Zoology, University of Massachusetts Boston, University of Tennessee Knoxville, University of Tampa, NSF (DEB-1110521) and NIH (P30GM103324) for funding.



674

675 **Fig. S1** Perch height through time during the 1995-1998 introduction experiment for *A. sagrei*
676 (filled shapes) on treatment islands and allopatric *A. carolinensis* (open shapes) on control
677 islands. Island means (± 1 s.e.) are shown for each island.

678

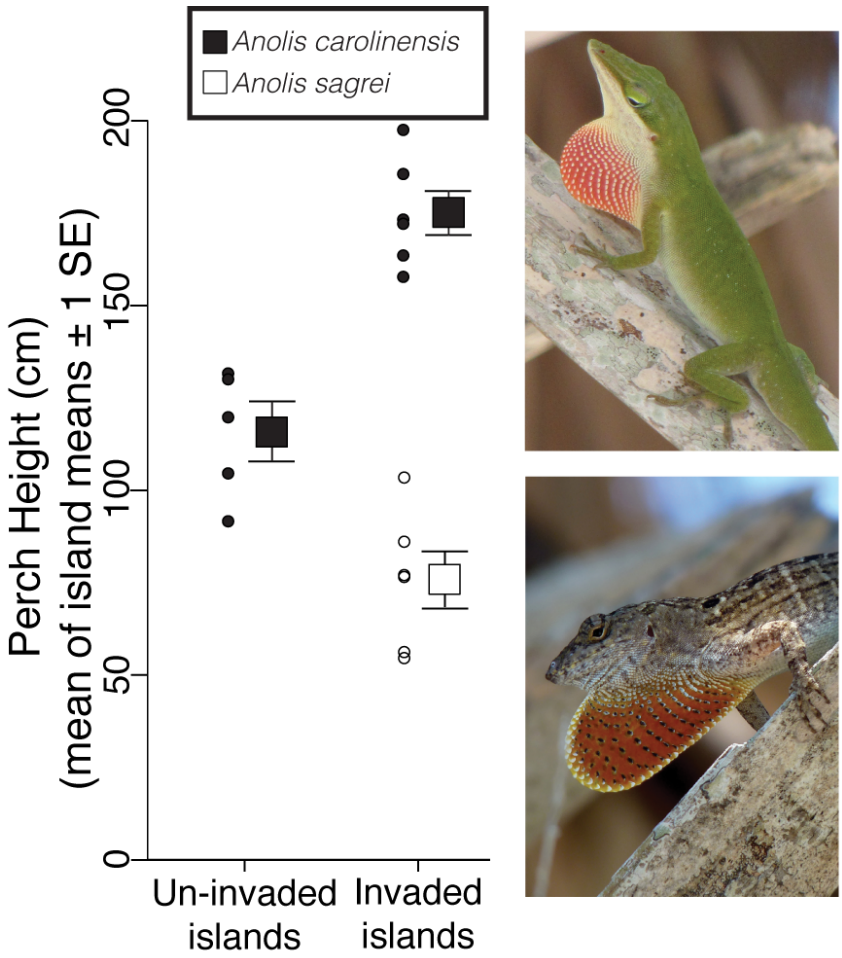


Fig. S2. Habitat use shift by *A. carolinensis* in the 2010 toepad study. Mean of island means (± 1 s.e.) for perch height by *A. carolinensis* (closed squares) on un-invaded (n = 5) and invaded islands (n = 6). The invasion of *A. sagrei* corresponds with a significant increase in perch height by *A. carolinensis* (Linear Mixed Model: $\beta_{invaded\ island} = 2.77$, $t_9 = 6.6$, one-tailed $p < 0.001$; island sample sizes 57-110). Perch height of *A. sagrei* shown for comparison (open square; n = 6). Mean perch heights for each island for *A. carolinensis* (small, closed circles) and *A. sagrei* (small, open circles) are shown also. Top right: *Anolis carolinensis*. Bottom right: *Anolis sagrei.*

688 **Table S1.** Sample sizes for *A. carolinensis* and *A. sagrei* perch heights by island in the 1995-
689 1998 introduction experiment.

Island	Size	Type	1995 Pre-Introduction	1995 Post-Introduction	1996	1997	1998
			Anolis carolinensis				
Zero	Small	Treatment	40	45	54	47	17
Ant	Medium	Treatment	64	26	88	15	11
Yin[b]	Large	Treatment	56	30	89	68	54
Fellers	Small	Control	22	9	34	27	32
Tarp	Medium	Control	45	23	84	78	41
Lizard[b]	Large	Control	18	45	213	146	121
			Anolis sagrei				
Zero	Small	Treatment	n/a	23[a]	89	157	140
Ant	Medium	Treatment	n/a	10[a]	97	289	144
Yin	Large	Treatment	n/a	4[a]	41	218	291

690 [a] The number of first-captures of introduced individuals
691 [b] Yin (LT) and Lizard (LC) were included as "invaded" islands in the 2010 toepad study.
692

693 **Table S2.** Perch height analysis for the1995-1998 *A. sagrei* introduction experiment. Mixed
694 model output is shown for a datasets (A) including and (B) excluding pre-introduction perch
695 height data (*12*).

A) Includes pre-introduction (May 1995) perch height data from treatment and control islands.

	β Coefficient	Standard Error	Degrees of Freedom	*t*-value	2-sided *p*-value
Intercept[a]	6.28	0.41	1627	17.18	0.000
Treatment[b]	0.50	0.49	4	1.02	0.365
1995[c]	-0.47	0.58	1627	-0.81	0.418
1996	-0.37	0.45	1627	-0.83	0.405
1997	-0.23	0.46	1627	-0.51	0.607
1998	-0.04	0.47	1627	-0.09	0.925
Sex[d]	1.85	0.18	1627	10.12	0.000
Treatment*1995[e]	2.48	0.74	1627	3.34	0.001
Treatment*1996	2.09	0.59	1627	3.57	0.000
Treatment*1997	2.34	0.63	1627	3.70	0.000
Treatment*1998	3.48	0.69	1627	5.03	0.000

B) Excludes pre-introduction (May 1995) perch height data from treatment and control islands.

	β Coefficient	Standard Error	Degrees of Freedom	*t*-value	2-sided *p*-value
Intercept[a]	5.76	0.43	1384	13.54	0.000
Treatment[b]	2.98	0.55	4	5.45	0.006
1996	0.09	0.46	1384	0.21	0.837
1997	0.23	0.47	1384	0.48	0.628
1998	0.42	0.49	1384	0.86	0.392
Sex[d]	1.95	0.20	1384	9.99	0.000
Treatment*1996	-0.39	0.63	1384	-0.62	0.533
Treatment*1997	-0.13	0.67	1384	-0.19	0.846
Treatment*1999	0.99	0.73	1384	1.36	0.175

696 [a] The intercept represents control islands at first collection (A: May 1995; B: June-August 1995).
697 [b] Treatment represents the effect of introduction on perch height, compared to controls.
698 [c] 1995 June-August, post-introduction.
699 [d] The sex coefficient represent the effect of being male on perch heights, compared to females.
700 [e] This is the interaction between treatment and June-August 1995, post-introduction.

Table S3. *Anolis sagrei* invasion status, *A. carolinensis* perch height sample size, and *A. carolinensis* morphology sample size by island for the 2010 toepad study. For sample sizes, males are listed before the "/" and females after. Yin and Lizard were the LT and LC islands, respectively, in the 1995-1998 introduction experiment. For reference, in Fig. 2, from north to south, the study islands (circles) are Lizard, Hook, Yin, Yang, Hornet, Crescent, Pine, North Twin, South Twin, Channel, and Osprey.

Island	*A. sagrei* invasion	Perch height sample size (M/F)	Morphology sample size (M/F)
Channel	Yes	51 / 15	38 / 15
Crescent	No	50 / 12	38 / 10
Hook	Yes	53 / 22	42 / 16
Hornet	No	60 / 27	44 / 15
Lizard[a]	Yes	70 / 40	41 / 19
North Twin	Yes	49 / 21	33 / 11
Osprey	No	52 / 15	33 / 10
Pine	No	38 / 19	27 / 14
South Twin	No	60 / 38	34 / 24
Yang	Yes	57 / 14	41 / 16
Yin[b]	Yes	48 / 12	27 / 16

[a] The large control (LC) island in the 1995-1998 study.

[b] The large treatment (LT) island in the 1995-1998 study.

712 **Table S4.** *Anolis sagrei* invasion status, dam and hatchling sample size by island for the
713 common garden experiment in the 2010 toepad study. For the column describing hatchlings per
714 female, the numbers separated by colons denote how many hatchlings were reared to
715 measurement per female.
716

Island	*A. sagrei* invasion	Dam sample size	Hatchling sample size	Hatchlings per female
Hornet	No	3	6	1:2:3
Lizard	Yes	6	12	1:1:1:2:3:4
North Twin	Yes	8	10	1:1:1:1:1:1:2:2
Osprey	No	5	8	1:1:1:2:3
Pine	No	1	2	2
South Twin	No	5	7	1:1:1:2:2
Yang	Yes	6	10	1:1:1:2:2:3
Yin	Yes	5	6	1:1:1:1:2

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Table S5. RADseq summary statistics for the 2010 toepad study. *n* is number of individuals, with the number after filtering for low coverage in parentheses. Number of SNPs is the mean number genotyped per individual within each population, after filtering to a total of 121,973 SNPs.

Island	*A. sagrei* invasion	*n*	# SNPs genotyped
Channel	Yes	14	80,909.5
Hook	Yes	48	71,930.2
Hornet	No	48	96,405.3
Lizard	Yes	48 (46)	40,262.1
North Twin	Yes	46 (45)	15,628.0
Osprey	No	42	81,783.3
Pine	No	43	89,439.1
South Twin	No	47 (46)	94,641.3
Yang	Yes	48 (47)	94,794.1
Total		384 (379)	74,524.4

Table S6. Pairwise F_{ST} between islands estimated from 121,973 SNP loci above the diagonal, and geographic distance between island centers in meters below the diagonal. Invaded islands: Hook, Channel, Lizard, North Twin, Yang. Un-invaded islands: Hornet, Osprey, Pine, South Twin.

	Hook	Hornet	Osprey	Pine	Channel	Lizard	North Twin	South Twin	Yang
Hook	-	0.15	0.14	0.14	0.12	0.12	0.13	0.14	0.14
Hornet	1360	-	0.16	0.16	0.15	0.14	0.15	0.15	0.16
Osprey	12085	10726	-	0.16	0.14	0.13	0.15	0.15	0.16
Pine	4102	2742	7984	-	0.14	0.14	0.15	0.15	0.15
Channel	6659	5299	5428	2557	-	0.11	0.13	0.134	0.14
Lizard	499	1858	12584	4600	7157	-	0.11	0.13	0.14
North Twin	4471	3111	7615	370	2188	4969	-	0.09	0.15
South Twin	4758	3399	7328	656	1901	5256	288	-	0.15
Yang	482	879	11604	3620	6177	980	3989	4276	-

Table S7. Tests for environmental heterogeneity between un-invaded (n=5) and invaded (n=6) islands in the 2010 toepad study. Invasion status was treated as a binary variable and we used logistic regression to test whether the environmental variable could predict invasion status.

Variable	β	Standard Error	Z-value	p-value (two-sided)
Distance to Shore (m)	0.006	0.007	0.770	0.44
Island Area (m^2)	0.0002	0.0002	0.995	0.34
Vegetated Area (m^2)	0.00001	0.00001	0.115	0.908
Available Tree Heights (cm)	0.282	1.03	-0.275	0.784
Shannon Diversity Index	4.99	6.61	0.775	0.450
Simpson Diversity Index	18.33	22.29	0.822	0.411