

# 1 Color polymorphism and conspicuousness do 2 not increase speciation rates in Lacertids

4 Thomas de Solan <sup>1</sup>, Barry Sinervo <sup>2,†</sup>, Philippe Geniez <sup>3</sup>, Patrice David <sup>1,4</sup>, Pierre-André  
5 Crochet<sup>1,4,\*</sup>

## 6 **Affiliations**

8 <sup>1</sup> CEFE, Univ Montpellier, CNRS, EPHE, IRD, Montpellier, France

9 <sup>2</sup> Department of Ecology and Evolutionary Biology, University of California, Santa Cruz, CA,  
10 United States of America

11 <sup>3</sup> CEFE, Univ Montpellier, CNRS, EPHE-PSL, IRD, Montpellier, France

12 <sup>†</sup> deceased author

13 <sup>4</sup> equal contributions

14

15 \*Corresponding author

16 Correspondence: pierre-andre.crochet@cefe.cnrs.fr

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## 18 **Abstract**

19 Conspicuous body colors and color polymorphism have been hypothesized to increase rates of  
20 speciation. Conspicuous colors are evolutionary labile, and often involved in intraspecific sexual  
21 signaling and thus may provide a raw material from which reproductive isolation can easily evolve,  
22 while polymorphism could favor rapid evolution of new lineages through morphic speciation. Here,  
23 we investigated the influence of the presence/absence of conspicuous colorations, and of color  
24 polymorphism on the speciation of Lacertids. We used several state-dependent diversification  
25 models, and showed that, regardless of the methods, conspicuous colorations and color  
26 polymorphism were not related to species speciation. While the lack of correlation between  
27 conspicuous colorations and speciation rates is in line with most of the literature testing this  
28 hypothesis, the results for color polymorphism contradict previous studies, and question the  
29 generality of the morphic speciation hypothesis.

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31 **Key words:** coloration, sexual selection, polymorphism, speciation, reptile

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34 **INTRODUCTION**

35 Species diversification is not a constant process across time and taxonomic groups (Rabosky et al.  
36 2007; Diaz et al. 2019). Within cephalopods for example, the Octopus order contains hundreds of  
37 species, while the much older order Nautilida only contains three species (Lindgren et al. 2004).  
38 Numerous studies have tried to explain these variations in diversification rates by investigating the  
39 links between ecology, life history traits or phenotype and extinction or speciation rates (Cardillo et  
40 al. 2003; Arbuckle and Speed 2015; Cooney and Thomas 2020). Among the traits investigated, those  
41 under sexual selection (sexual traits) have attracted a lot of attention because divergence in sexual  
42 traits can generate reproductive isolation between parapatric (Boul et al. 2007) or allopatric lineages  
43 (Price 1998; Panhuis et al. 2001) and strengthen reproductive barriers during secondary contact  
44 (Svedin et al. 2008), hence increasing speciation rates. However, sexual selection may also impose a  
45 burden on population viability and hence to increase extinction rates (Houle and Kondrashov 2002;  
46 Doherty et al. 2003; Kokko and Brooks 2003). The outcome of these opposing processes is difficult to  
47 predict and, until now, studies linking sexual selection and diversification rates have produced mixed  
48 results (Barracough et al. 1995; Seehausen 2000; Kraaijeveld et al. 2011; Huang and Rabosky 2014;  
49 Cooney et al. 2017).

50 Another trait long suspected to increase the rates of speciation is polymorphism, here  
51 defined as the co-occurrence of as several discrete, heritable morphs co-occurring within  
52 populations. Polymorphic species have been suggested to have higher speciation rates, based on two  
53 lines of reasoning resting mainly on indirect or theoretical arguments.

54 The first line of reasoning is that polymorphism may increase the rate of speciation if morphs  
55 are associated to different ecological niches (i.e. ecomorphs). The presence of alternative ecomorphs  
56 within the same population widens the ecological niche of the species. This may in turn facilitate  
57 range expansion through an increase of colonization abilities and the persistence of populations in  
58 variable environments (Forsman et al. 2008; Takahashi and Noriyuki 2019), two factors that are  
59 known to increase speciation rates (Kennedy et al. 2017). Specialized ecomorphs have been observed  
60 in several species, but it is not yet clear whether they occur in lacertids. (Kusche et al. 2015; Lattanzio  
61 and Miles 2016; Whitney et al. 2018, Scali et al. 2016).

62 The second line of reasoning rests on the “morphic speciation” scenario (West-Eberhard  
63 1986). According to this scenario, a polymorphic population can loses a morph during the  
64 colonization of a new environment or area, resulting in a rapid phenotypic divergence of the  
65 remaining morph(s) and ultimately in a reproductive isolation from the ancestral population (Corl et  
66 al. 2010a). The rapid phenotypic divergence after the loss of one morph may occur through (i) the  
67 cessation of gene flow from the missing morph, which used to continuously reintroduce maladapted  
68 alleles into the other morphs’ genetic backgrounds, preventing them from reaching their phenotypic

69 optima (character release, West-Eberhard 1986); (ii) a change in the fitness landscape, as optimal  
70 trait combinations for one morph may change when another morph disappears from the population.  
71 For example, loss of a morph can drastically change the predation pressure acting on the remaining  
72 morphs (Bond 2007) if predation generates frequency dependent selection (Olendorf et al. 2006).  
73 Similarly, competition among morphs can generate frequency-dependent selection in polymorphic  
74 species (Sinervo and Lively 1996).

75 While several authors have promoted the morphic speciation hypothesis, an intuitive  
76 argument suggests that polymorphism could have opposite effects on speciation depending on mate  
77 choice within polymorphic populations: assortative mating by morph can enhance speciation (and  
78 promote shifts from ancestral polymorphism to derived monomorphism through speciation, Jamie  
79 and Meier 2020). However, disassortative mating by morph is likely to slow speciation (and maintain  
80 polymorphism through the speciation process, Jamie and Meier 2020; Chouteau et al. 2017), while  
81 random mating relative to morph should promote less stringent mate choice in polymorphic species  
82 than in monomorphic species, as preferences span a larger spectrum of phenotypic space than in  
83 monomorphic species. In such cases (random or disassortative mating), the changes in color traits  
84 should be less likely to result in reproductive isolation compared to non-polymorphic species.

85 In spite of the theoretical interest generated by the “morphic speciation” hypothesis, this  
86 hypothesis has been examined empirically by only four studies until now. First, two studies  
87 investigated the effect of polymorphism on population divergence at small evolutionary scales  
88 (within a species complex in lizards, Corl et al. 2010b, 2012). They found that polymorphic  
89 populations were often ancestral, and that populations that lost a morph after colonizing a new  
90 environment showed reproductive incompatibilities with the ancestral population and rapid  
91 phenotypic changes. At macroevolutionary scale, two studies found that polymorphism increased  
92 speciation rates in birds and in lacertid lizards (Hugall and Stuart-Fox 2012; Brock et al. 2021). Taken  
93 together, these findings support the hypothesis of increased speciation rates in polymorphic species.

94 The lacertid lizards (family Lacertidae) is a group of Squamata containing more than 300  
95 species distributed across Europe, Africa and Asia. This family is split in two main clades, the  
96 Gallotiinae, which contains only a few and often insular species, and the Lacertinae, which contains  
97 most of the lacertids species. The Lacertinae are divided between (i) the tribe Eremiadini, that lives  
98 mainly in xeric habitats in North African and the Middle East and often display dull colorations, and  
99 (ii) the Lacertini, that live mostly in temperate habitats in Europe and are more often colorful. Among  
100 those three clades, many species present conspicuous colorations. Bright colorations are found in  
101 both sexes on the throat and the belly, and are known to influence female mate choice and male-  
102 males contests (Abalos et al. 2016; Badiane et al. 2020). In some species, males also display blue or  
103 green ocelli on their flanks, or conspicuous outer ventral scales, that serve as indicators of the male

104 quality during males intrasexual competition (Pérez i De Lanuza et al. 2014; Names et al. 2019).  
105 Furthermore, several lacertids present a polymorphism of color. Such polymorphism can be found in  
106 both sexes when it occurs on ventral coloration, but is restricted to males when it occurs on the  
107 flank. In the genus *Podarcis*, the Common Wall Lizard *P. muralis* has become a model species for the  
108 study of color polymorphism as several morphs differing in ventral coloration coexist in both sexes in  
109 most populations (Galeotti et al. 2013). These morphs may be related to different breeding strategies  
110 and life history traits (Calsbeek et al. 2010; Galeotti et al. 2013; but see Abalos et al. 2020) and they  
111 have a simple genetic determinism in *P. muralis* and in six other congeneric species, being controlled  
112 by two small regulatory genomic regions (SPR and BCO2, Andrade et al. 2019). Overall, the presence  
113 of specialized morphs and the variability of sexual colorations make the family Lacertidae an ideal  
114 model to investigate the impact of sexual selection on speciation rates and the hypothesis of morphic  
115 speciation.

116 Here, we use the coloration data of all the species of this family, to address two questions: (i)  
117 what are the evolutionary histories of conspicuous colorations and color polymorphism in this  
118 family? (ii) Is there an effect of conspicuousness and color polymorphism on species speciation? We  
119 hypothesized that brightly colored species undergo higher intensity of sexual selection than dull  
120 ones. However, because several previous studies failed to find a link between sexual selection  
121 proxies and speciation rates (Huang and Rabosky 2014; Cooney et al. 2017), we did not expect an  
122 effect of conspicuous colorations on speciation. For color polymorphism, based on the morphic  
123 speciation hypothesis, we predicted that color polymorphism increases speciation rates in lacertids.  
124 During the course of our study, we became aware of the publication of Brock et al. (2021) who had  
125 independently addressed the same question using the same group of species but using different data  
126 and methods (see discussion). Because our study leads to opposite conclusions, we think it is  
127 important to publish our results, and we have devoted a section of our study to address the reasons  
128 that might explain this discrepancy.

129

130

## 131 MATERIAL AND METHODS

### 132 Data acquisition

133 We follow the taxonomy and species list of lacertids from the Reptile Database (Uetz et al. 2020). We  
134 removed from this list several categories of species that are expected to have speciation modes  
135 differing from the rest of the species and driven by mechanisms presumably not be affected by the  
136 presence of polymorphism. We first removed the parthenogenetic species, as they arise by  
137 interspecific hybridization and result in unisexual clones providing “instant” reproductive isolation  
138 from their parent species (several species of the genus *Darevskia*, noted as “parthenogenetic” in

139 Table S1). We also removed strictly insular species (species noted as “insular” in Table S1). Although  
140 morphic speciation might have helped the divergence of some insular species, we believe that  
141 geographic isolation remains the primary factors in of the speciation process. Supporting this idea, no  
142 case of in situ (intra-island) speciation is known in insular lacertids. We also removed four species for  
143 which we could not find any accurate information on the coloration and five species with an  
144 uncertain taxonomic status (as judged by two of us, PAC and PG). Insularity was assessed using the  
145 distribution information available in the reptile-database website. After these steps, we retained 295  
146 species for the speciation analysis. The final list of all species, including all species removed from the  
147 dataset, can be found in Supplementary Table S1.

148 We scored the presence of sexual colorations and polymorphism from multiple sources, such  
149 as scientific and naturalist papers and field guides, but also multiple photographs taken by the  
150 authors in the field (sources listed in Table S1). A species was considered as having conspicuous  
151 colorations if, at least in males, (1) the ventral side, or a part of its ventral side (throat, belly), was not  
152 white, or (2) the flanks displayed several ocelli or spots that contrast from the rest of dorsal/flank  
153 areas and are of a different color, or (3) the species displayed a specific color during the mating  
154 season. Furthermore, we considered a species as polymorphic if, within a population, individuals of a  
155 same sex and age-class exhibit several distinct sexual colors. We did not score coloration as  
156 polymorphic if the morphs were not clearly distinguished, nor if the distinct morphs were associated  
157 with age or sex. Species where coloration varies geographically but not within populations were not  
158 treated as polymorphic, even though it was sometimes difficult to determine if some variation in  
159 coloration reported in the literature was geographically structured or not. Finally, a few species  
160 displayed dorsal polymorphism with non-conspicuous colors (Ortega et al. 2014; Ortega et al. 2015;  
161 Gallozzi et al 2022). However, such polymorphism always occurs in species which also show  
162 conspicuous ventral polymorphism, so this factor should not influence our analysis. Data on sexual  
163 colorations and polymorphism are provided in Supplementary Table S1. It should be noted that there  
164 is no polymorphic species without conspicuous coloration in Lacertids.

165 We used the phylogeny provided by Garcia-Porta et al. (2019) as backbone phylogeny. We  
166 subsequently added the 85 non-insular and non-parthenogenetic species that were not sampled by  
167 Garcia-Porta. These species were added to the backbone tree using the function  
168 `add.species.to.genus` from the `phytools` package (Revell 2012). This function randomly inserts new  
169 species within a predefined genus. If the phylogenetic position was known from previous work, the  
170 species was added with its sister taxa at a random divergence date. If no phylogenetic information  
171 was available, it was randomly located in its genus. We repeated this operation one hundred times in  
172 order to account for phylogenetic uncertainty in all analyses.

173

174 **Trait evolution and ancestral state reconstruction**

175 We investigated the evolutionary inertia for conspicuous colorations and polymorphism using the  $\delta$   
176 values (Borges et al. 2019). This index is designed to measure phylogenetic signal in categorical traits,  
177 with high  $\delta$  value indicating high phylogenetic signal (i.e. strong phylogenetic constraint to trait  
178 evolution). To test the significance of the observed  $\delta$ , we compared with a Wilcoxon test the  
179 distribution of the 100 observed  $\delta$ , measured on the 100 phylogenetic trees, against a null  
180 distribution obtained by measuring  $\delta$  after randomization of the trait data among species  
181 (phylogenetic signal = zero). In addition, we reconstructed the ancestral state of the coloration with  
182 the `make.simmap` function from the `phytools` package (Revell 2012). This function simulates  
183 stochastic character histories using the state of the character on the tips and a continuous-time  
184 reversible Markov model. For this analysis, coloration was coded with three states: (1) no  
185 conspicuous coloration, (2) presence of conspicuous colorations without polymorphism, (3) presence  
186 of conspicuous colorations and polymorphism. Transition rates between states were allowed to  
187 differ and we did not exclude transitions from (1) to (3) although no such transitions were recovered  
188 by the model (see below). We repeated the ancestral state reconstruction (ASR) on the 100  
189 phylogenetic trees, with 100 simulations for each analysis.

190

191 **Character associated diversification analysis**

192 We used several methods to compare the rates of speciation between species with and without  
193 conspicuous colors, and between species with and without polymorphism. We excluded the species  
194 lacking conspicuous colorations of the polymorphism analysis because there are no direct  
195 evolutionary transitions from non-conspicuous to polymorphic, see results of the ASR). We however  
196 tested the influence of this exclusion by repeating the polymorphism analysis with all the species.

197 First, we used the speciation/extinction analysis of BAMM (Rabosky 2014) to detect shifts in  
198 speciation rates along the trees. This analysis allows the speciation rates to vary in time and among  
199 branches and does not consider character states. We then applied the STructured RAte Permutations  
200 on Phylogenies analysis (STRAPP, Rabosky and Huang 2016) to test if the speciation rates measured  
201 with BAMM were different between species with and without conspicuous colorations and color  
202 polymorphism. STRAPP compares the Mann–Whitney U-test statistic measuring the relationship  
203 between the binary character state and speciation rates against a null distribution.

204 Secondly, we inferred the speciation rates with the Diversification Rates statistic (DR statistic,  
205 Jetz et al. 2012). Despite its name, the DR statistic provides a better estimate of the rate of speciation  
206 than of net diversification (Title and Rabosky 2019). For a given species, the DR statistic is computed  
207 as a weighted average of the inverse branch lengths connecting the focal species to the root of the  
208 phylogeny. We then used a non-parametric test, FiSSE (Fast, intuitive State-dependent Speciation

209 Extinction analysis, Rabosky and Goldberg 2017), to investigate the effect of conspicuous colorations  
210 and polymorphism on speciation rates. For a given tree, this test first measures the difference of  
211 mean DR statistic between species with different character states, and then compares this difference  
212 to a null distribution. When testing for polymorphism effect, we first measured the DR statistic on  
213 the whole tree, then removed the species lacking conspicuous colorations and performed the test.

214 Finally, we fitted State Dependent Diversification models (SDD) to test the influence of  
215 conspicuous colorations and color polymorphism on the diversification rates of Lacertid. For each  
216 trait, we implemented four models: two models measuring character dependent diversification, plus  
217 the corresponding two null models estimating Character Independent Diversification (CID). The first  
218 character dependent model we fitted was a Binary-State Speciation and Extinction model (BiSSE,  
219 Maddison et al. 2007). This model estimates one rate of speciation and extinction for each character  
220 state. The second character dependent model was the Hidden State Speciation and Extinction model  
221 (HiSSE; Beaulieu and O'Meara 2016). This model includes hidden states, which allows the  
222 diversification rates to vary within each state (e.g. polymorphic species can have two different  
223 diversification rates). We also fitted two Character Independent Diversification models: CID-2 and  
224 CID-4, which were the null models corresponding respectively to BiSSE and Hisse: (Beaulieu and  
225 O'Meara 2016). They respectively have the same number of parameters than BiSSE and HiSSE  
226 models, but differ in having their diversification parameters independent of the observed character  
227 state (i.e. diversification parameter set equal for the observed state and different for the hidden  
228 states). It should be noted that the diversification rates estimated by SDD and CID models are not  
229 time dependent, and only vary depending on characters states (unlike speciation/extinction analysis  
230 of BAMM; Rabosky 2014). We selected the best-fit model among these four models based on the  
231 Akaike Information Criterion corrected for sample size (AICc, models were preferred when delta AICc  
232 > 2). All the models were made using the R package hisse (Beaulieu 2017).

233 To account for phylogenetic uncertainty, we fitted the four SDD models, as well as STRAPPS  
234 and FiSSE analysis for each trait and phylogenetic tree. For SDD models, we assessed the best-fitting  
235 model each time.

236 Although our study and the study of Brock et al. (2021) were made on the same taxonomic  
237 groups, the results of our analysis contradict the results presented in Brock et al. (see below). We  
238 thus made additional analysis to investigate the origin of these differences (Supplementary  
239 Methods). We also repeated the STRAPPS and FiSSE analysis with (i) our coloration data and the  
240 species included in Brock et al. (2021), and (ii) the coloration data and species of Brock et al. (2021).

241

242 **RESULTS**

243 Conspicuous colorations were frequent in lacertids, as they were present in 63% of the species  
244 analyzed (Figure 1). Color polymorphism, on the other hand, was rarer and only concerns 13% of the  
245 species analyzed. Polymorphism was unequally distributed in lacertids: the subfamily Lacertini  
246 includes more than half of the polymorphic species while it only contained 100 species out of the 295  
247 species of Lacertidae and within the Lacertini, all mainland species of the genus *Podarcis* were  
248 polymorphic species (see Table S1). Both traits showed high phylogenetic conservatism (median  $\delta$   
249 across phylogenies = 6.39,  $W=10e5$ ,  $p<0.001$  and median  $\delta$  = 75.7,  $W=10e5$ ,  $p<0.001$  respectively).  
250 The ancestral state reconstruction suggested more acquisitions than losses in the evolution of both  
251 conspicuous colorations and color polymorphism (Figure S1, 43 acquisitions vs 23 losses for  
252 colorations and 15 acquisitions vs 3 losses for polymorphism). Transitions from dull-colored to  
253 polymorphis, and the reverse, were very rare (0.04 and 1.1 on average across all trees respectively),  
254 indicating that, the polymorphic state evolves from a monomorphic conspicuous-color state in  
255 lacertids. Finally, the ancestor of lacertids probably displayed conspicuous colorations without being  
256 polymorphic (Figure S1).

257

#### 258 **Character associated diversification analysis**

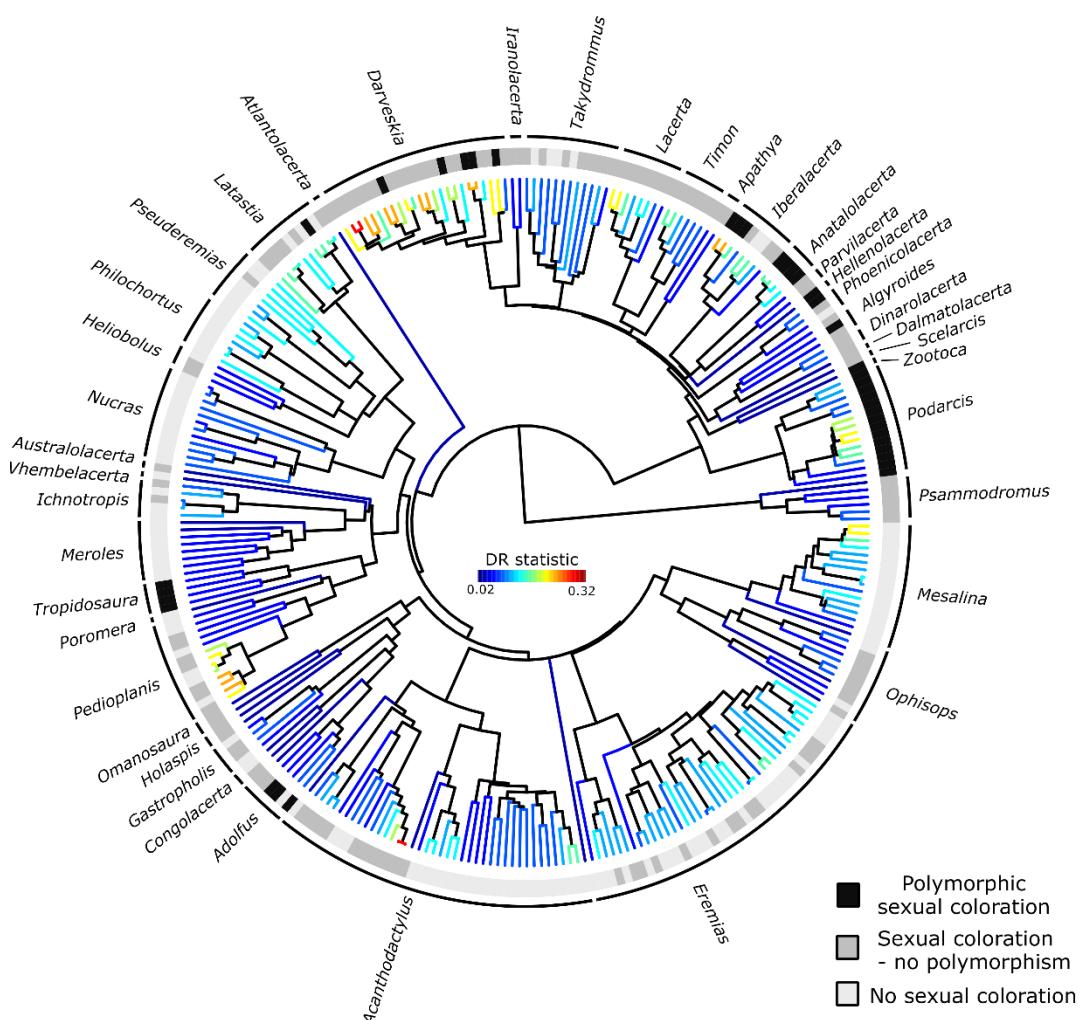
259 We wanted to test whether conspicuous coloration on the one hand, and polymorphism on  
260 the other hand, influence speciation rates. As explained above, to test for the effect of  
261 polymorphism, we excluded inconspicuous species, as the ancestral state of polymorphic lineages is  
262 always conspicuously colored. Including inconspicuous species would confound the effects of  
263 polymorphism per se and conspicuousness. When included, however, species lacking conspicuous  
264 colorations had a minor impact on the results, and did not change the overall conclusion (see  
265 Supplementary Methods).

266 The BAMM analysis detected a shift of speciation rates only in 21 trees out of the hundred  
267 trees. In addition, the STRAPP tests indicated that neither the presence of conspicuous colorations  
268 nor the presence of color polymorphism affected speciation rates ( $p>0.5$  for all tests across the 100  
269 trees).

270 The DR statistic showed that inconspicuously and conspicuously colored species had similar  
271 speciation rates (average  $\lambda_0$  across trees =  $0.11\pm0.04$  and average  $\lambda_1$  across trees =  $0.13\pm0.07$   
272 respectively, non-significant:  $p>0.5$  for all FiSSE tests, Figure 1 and 2). Similarly, there was no  
273 difference in DR statistic between species conspicuously colored monomorphic and polymorphic  
274 species (average  $\lambda_0$  across trees =  $0.12\pm0.07$  and average  $\lambda_1$  across trees =  $0.14\pm0.07$  respectively,  
275 non-significant:  $p>0.5$  for all FiSSE tests, Figure 1 and 2).

276

277



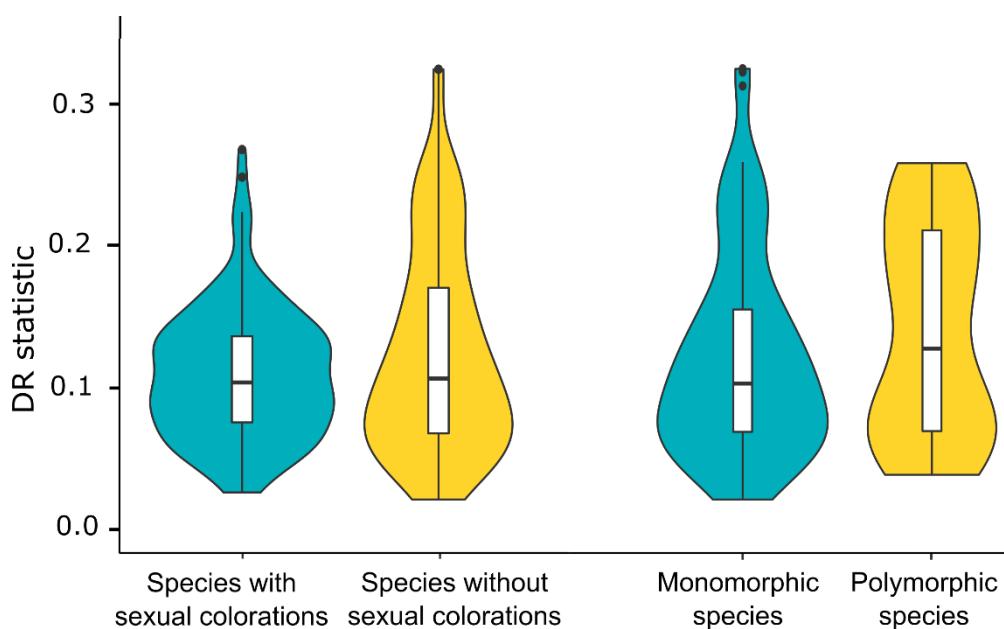
278

279 **Figure 1.** Phylogenetic relationships of the 295 Lacertidae species included in the analysis. This tree was  
280 randomly chosen among the hundred trees produced for the analysis to account for phylogenetic  
281 uncertainty (see methods). States of sexual coloration and polymorphism characters are indicated at  
282 the tips. Tip branches are colored according to the mean DR statistic measured across all trees (an  
283 estimate of the branch-specific speciation rate).

284

285 Last, the best fitting State Dependent Diversification (SDD) models for the evolution of  
286 conspicuous coloration were models where diversification parameters are independent of the  
287 observed character state (CID 2 or CID 4) for all the trees (Figure 3). Similarly, we found a low support  
288 for an influence of color polymorphism on the diversification of species with conspicuous colorations.  
289 CID 2 and CID 4 were the best fitting models for 75 and 22 trees respectively, while HiSSE was the  
290 best fitting model for 3 trees only (Figure 3).

291

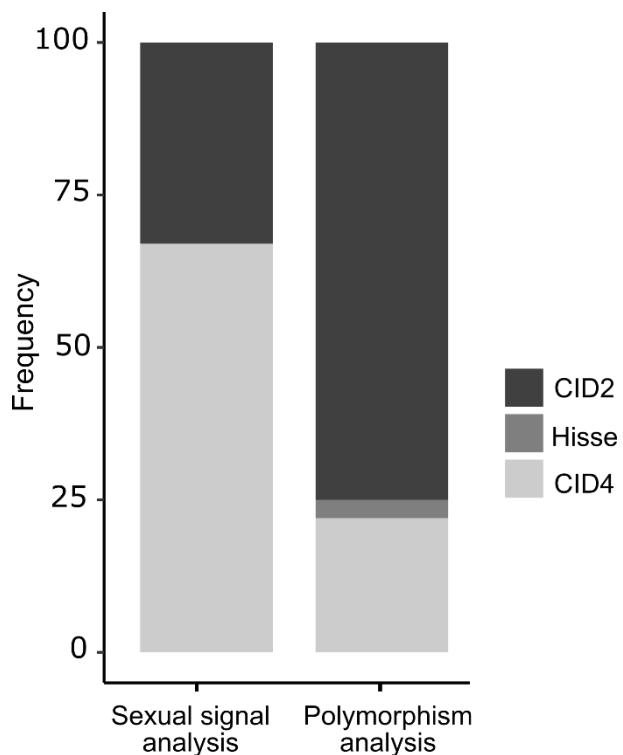


292

293 **Figure 2.** Violin plots of the DR statistic values for the species with and without sexual coloration, and  
294 with and without color polymorphism.

295

296



297

298 **Figure 3.** Frequency of the best fitting diversification models for the sexual coloration and color  
299 polymorphism analysis repeated across one hundred trees. Models with character dependent  
300 diversification (HISSE) were considered as best fitting when  $\Delta AICc > 2$ . BiSSE models were included  
301 in both analyses, but never had the lowest AICc.

302

303 The comparison with Brock et al.'s (2021) analysis indicated that the differences of results  
304 between our SDD models and theirs stem from differences in character states, i.e. in the species  
305 considered to be polymorphic *versus* not (for more details see Supplementary Results and Table S2),  
306 as well as from the use of an old version of the package encoding SDD models in Brock et al (2021).  
307 However, this difference of results only applied to SDD models. Unlike SDD models, the non-  
308 parametric FiSSE and STAPPS analysis never detected an effect of polymorphism on speciation in the  
309 set of species studied by Brock et al., whether we used our estimates of character states (STRAPPS  
310 test:  $p=0.98$ ; FiSSE test:  $\lambda_0 = 0.10$ ,  $\lambda_1=0.13$ ,  $p=0.88$ ), or theirs (STRAPPS test:  $p=0.98$ ; FiSSE test:  $\lambda_0 =$   
311  $0.10$ ,  $\lambda_1 = 0.14$ ,  $p=0.98$ ).

312

313

#### 314 **DISCUSSION**

315 Our analyses suggested that neither the presence of conspicuous colorations nor color polymorphism  
316 increases the rates of speciation in Lacertids. We also showed that conspicuous colorations and color  
317 polymorphism are labile across taxonomy, and were gained and lost several times during the  
318 diversification of Lacertids. The lack of effect of conspicuous colorations on speciation is in  
319 agreement with several previous studies (Huang and Rabosky 2014; Gomes et al. 2016; Cooney et al.  
320 2017). However, our results for color polymorphism is in contradiction with the two studies that  
321 tested the morphic speciation hypothesis at multispecies level (Hugall and Stuart-Fox 2012; Brock et  
322 al. 2021).

323 The absence of effect of conspicuous colorations on speciation rates at the scale of a family  
324 contrasts with the accumulation of evidence showing an influence of sexual selection on pre-zygotic  
325 (Boughman 2001; Masta and Maddison 2002; Boul et al. 2007) and post-zygotic isolation (Vamosi  
326 and Schluter 1999; Naisbit et al. 2001) at short time scales. Yet, there is not necessarily a link  
327 between processes acting at short time scales and diversification rates observed at large  
328 phylogenetic scales. This decoupling could arise because different processes influence the creation of  
329 new species and their persistence over time. For instance, some authors found that sexual selection  
330 increases the risk of extinction in birds (McLain et al. 1995; Doherty et al. 2003; but see Cooney et al.  
331 2017 for opposite results). However, SDD models were found to be unable to accurately measure  
332 both speciation and extinction rates (Beaulieu and O'Meara 2016; Louca and Pennell 2020), and this  
333 hypothesis is thus difficult to test using current comparative methods. The lack of correlation  
334 between speciation rates and the presence of sexual colorations could also come from the fact that  
335 speciation does not increase with the intensity of sexual selection but rather with the evolutionary  
336 rates of sexual traits (Cardoso and Mota 2008). These two features are not necessarily correlated, as  
337 a trait may be at the same time very conserved across species and under strong sexual selection

338 (Song and Bucheli 2010; Mejías et al. 2020). The few studies investigating this question found  
339 support for a positive correlation between speciation rates and evolutionary rates of sexual traits  
340 (Cardoso and Mota 2008; Gomes et al. 2016) but they were made on birds, and researches on other  
341 taxonomic groups are needed. Finally, the occurrence of conspicuous coloration might be a poor  
342 proxy of the intensity of sexual selection. In lacertids, mating choice and interspecific recognition are  
343 known to rely on pheromones as much as on coloration (Cooper and Pérez-Mellado 2002; Khanno  
344 et al 2011; Gabirot et al. 2013). It is thus possible that considering the presence of conspicuous  
345 colorations, even when they are sexually dimorphic, is not sufficient to detect an effect of sexual  
346 selection on speciation.

347 The lack of effect of color polymorphism on speciation rates contradicts the conclusions of  
348 Brock et al. (2021) obtained on the same taxonomic group. The first reason is that our attributions of  
349 character states (polymorphic versus nonpolymorphic) differed in some cases from theirs. We  
350 therefore re-checked our attributions in case of mismatches. Ten species considered monomorphic  
351 by Brock et al were considered polymorphic by us. Some of these reflect the fact that we coded  
352 polymorphism as the presence of discrete states on any conspicuous coloration, while Brock et al.  
353 (2021) considered only throat coloration -thus excluding four *Tropidosaura* species. For six other  
354 species we re-checked bibliographic references (see table S2) and confirmed mentions of  
355 polymorphism that had been apparently overlooked by Brock et al. 2021. Seven species were  
356 considered monomorphic by us and polymorphic by Brock et al. 2021. In four of these, color morphs  
357 do not co-occur within a population, but occur in allopatric populations or subspecies – which does  
358 not qualify as polymorphism *sensu stricto*. For the last three, we did not find any mention of  
359 polymorphism in the literature (and Brock et al. 2021 did not provide a reference). All in all, we  
360 believe that, although the status of each particular species can always been updated and discussed,  
361 our character states are more accurate and closer to the original definition of a polymorphic species  
362 and to the concept of morphic speciation (i.e. not focused only on throat coloration (West-Eberhard  
363 1986) and excluding geographic races).

364 In addition, methodological issues can contribute to discrepancies in the results. The SDD  
365 methods have been criticized on the basis of high type-1 errors, i.e. they may detect differences in  
366 diversification rates even for neutral traits and are probably overparameterized as speciation and  
367 extinction can hardly be estimated independently (Rabosky and Goldberg 2015, 2017; Louca and  
368 Pennell 2020). This is illustrated by the fact that 6 of the 8 estimated parameters are at the boundary  
369 of the allowed interval in the HISSE model (all four extinction rates and two transition rates are zero,  
370 using Brock et al.'s data and character states) ; the same characteristic is present in Brock et al.'s  
371 original results (their Table 2) as well as in our run of their script with their data, character states and  
372 package version (our Table S3). FiSSE and STRAPP have been developed to avoid this kind of

373 drawbacks and provide a more robust, and nonparametric, way of testing character-dependent  
374 speciation rates (Rabosky and Huang 2016; Rabosky and Goldberg 2017). The fact that these  
375 methods do not recover an effect of polymorphism, whatever the data and character states used  
376 (ours or Brock et al's) suggests that the result of Brock et al (2021) is likely a type-1 error.

377 An additional explanation for the lack of correlation between conspicuous colorations /  
378 polymorphism and speciation rates could be the limited role that pre-zygotic isolation has in lacertids  
379 diversification. The influence of sexual selection and polymorphism on species speciation occurs  
380 mainly at the pre-zygotic stage (West-Eberhard 1986; Coyne and Orr 1989; Gray and Cade 2000;  
381 Ritchie 2007). However, the influence of this stage in lacertids speciation is unclear: some species are  
382 partially able to recognize each other using pheromones (Barbosa et al. 2006; Gabirot et al. 2012),  
383 but interspecific courting seems to be frequent (Martín and López 2006; Galoyan et al. 2019),  
384 suggesting that post-zygotic isolation also play a strong role in the speciation process (Carretero  
385 2008; Pinho et al. 2009). On the other hand, the groups in which an effect of sexual selection and  
386 polymorphism was reported are taxa where the pre-zygotic isolation is determinant for speciation  
387 (e.g birds, Barraclough et al. 1995; Brambilla et al. 2008). This may explain why, depending on the  
388 groups, sexual trait and polymorphism sometimes correlate with speciation rates and sometimes do  
389 not. We also lack data on the effect of morphs on mate choice in Lacertidae, as we only found some  
390 information on mate choice relative to morphs in *Podarcis muralis* (Pérez i de Lanuza et al. 2013;  
391 Sacchi et al. 2015, 2018, who found mixed support for color assortative mating) while indirect  
392 genetic results also suggest some possible assortative mating in *Podarcis melisellensis* (Huyghe et al.  
393 2010).

394 We also wish to stress a previously neglected inherent difficulty with the detection of the  
395 morphic speciation model through comparative methods in empirical datasets. The diversification  
396 analyses used by us or by Brock et al. (2021) test for differences in diversification rates associated  
397 with the presence of polymorphism. Yet, the morphic species model predict that “polymorphic  
398 lineages should be ancestral and monomorphic lineages should be derived” (Corl et al. 2010b), as  
399 morphic speciation generates monomorphic species from polymorphic species. The signature of the  
400 morphic speciation model in phylogenies should thus be an excess of monomorphic species sister to  
401 a polymorphic species, not an increased diversification rate in clades where all species are  
402 polymorphic. This creates an overlooked paradox: detecting an increased net diversification rate in  
403 clades where most species are polymorphic would actually run against the predictions of the morphic  
404 species model, unless one assumes that some lineages have an inherent tendency to regain the  
405 polymorphic state quickly after it is lost – an assumption without clear support in the data.

406 A large variety of factors, besides those examined in this study, may explain the variations of  
407 speciation rates observed within groups (for instance diet, Tran 2016; habitat specialization Liedtke

408 et al. 2016 or reproduction mode, Lynch 2009). In lacertids, the two most diverse genera  
409 (*Acanthodactylus* and *Eremias*, representing 22% of all the Lacertid species) live in arid areas of the  
410 Middle East or North Africa. Similarly, an increase of lizard diversity in arid areas have been reported  
411 in biogeographic studies (Powney et al. 2010; Lewin et al. 2016). As such, this pattern suggests that  
412 hot and arid conditions play a strong role in the radiation of lacertids. Yet, the factors at the origin of  
413 these radiations are still unclear. Adaptive radiation seems unlikely, as most lacertids species living in  
414 arid areas seem to show similar ecological niches as inferred from distribution patterns: most arid  
415 regions of the Middle East or North Africa are inhabited by a maximum of 3-4 species of  
416 *Acanthodactylus* (large bodied) and 3-4 species of *Mesalina* (small bodied) segregated by habitat  
417 preferences within genus (e.g. Haas 1951; Blanc 1980; Werner 1982; Schleich et al. 1996; Nouira and  
418 Blanc 2003; Rifai et al. 2003; Baha El Din 2007), and most species diversity in the genera correspond  
419 with changes in these species between regions. However, such pattern could be the result of the  
420 strong relation between the environment and ecological and life history traits of lizards (e.g. increase  
421 in activity time and fecundity with temperature; Adolph and Porter 1993) that may have facilitated  
422 speciation in arid areas (discussed in Powney et al. 2010). Nevertheless, currently no studies properly  
423 tested this possible link, and this hypothesis is yet to be confirmed.

424 One main limitation of our work lies in the data we used to score the coloration. Neither  
425 photographs nor literature sources account for variation of ultraviolet (UV) coloration. Lacertids  
426 frequently use UV coloration for mate choice or to signal their fighting capacity (Olsson et al. 2011;  
427 Pérez i de Lanuza et al. 2014). Thus, in principle, we could have underestimated the frequency of  
428 conspicuous coloration and polymorphism in our dataset. However, known UV signals in lizards are  
429 always displayed on a patch with a visibly different color than the rest of the body (blue throat or  
430 green ocelli for instance), so it is unlikely that this issue affects our detection of conspicuousness,  
431 although it may have done so for polymorphism. As far as we know, there is currently no example of  
432 polymorphism limited only to UV coloration in animals. A second methodological limitation may stem  
433 from the strong geographical bias prevailing in the taxonomic researches. In the last twenty years, an  
434 intensive work unraveled the phylogeny of the lacertids of the northern hemisphere, allowing the  
435 description of numerous species. On the other hand, almost no taxonomic studies based on genetic  
436 data have been made on lacertids of the equatorial region. The diversity of species living in this  
437 region is thus probably strongly underestimated. It is difficult to predict in which ways this issue may  
438 influence our results, because species with and without conspicuous colorations and color  
439 polymorphism are present in the equatorial region.

440 Our analysis revealed that the speciation of lacertids was not influenced by the presence of  
441 conspicuous colorations nor by color polymorphism. These results support the idea of a decoupling  
442 of the effect of sexual selection on species diversification between short time scale (i.e. effects on

443 pre- and post-zygotic isolation) and large time scale (i.e. effects on rates of extinction/speciation).  
444 They also call into question the generality of the morphic speciation hypothesis, which is currently  
445 supported by only two large scale study (Hugall and Stuart-Fox 2012; Brock et al. 2021). The fact that  
446 prezygotic isolation does not appear to be determinant for the speciation in lacertids may explain  
447 this lack of effect of polymorphism and conspicuous coloration that we found. In the future, it would  
448 be interesting to test this hypothesis by investigating other taxa in which speciation is mainly driven  
449 by post-zygotic isolation.

450 **Acknowledgements**

451 We thanks all photographers who contributed to the amphibians and reptiles photos collection  
452 managed by PG.

453 **Data, scripts, code, and supplementary information availability**

454 Data and scripts are available online: DOI: 10.5281/zenodo.7619485  
455 (<https://zenodo.org/record/7619485>)

456 **Conflict of interest disclosure**

457 The authors declare that they comply with the PCI rule of having no financial conflicts of interest in  
458 relation to the content of the article.

459 **Funding**

460 TdS benefited from a PhD grant from the CNRS. PAC and PD aknowledge recurrent funding from the  
461 CNRS for this study.

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714