Eco-geographical determinants of the evolution of ornamentation in vipers

CRISTIAN PIZZIGALLI ¹, FEDERICO BANFI ², GENTILE FRANCESCO FICETOLA ^{3,4}, 3

- MATTIA FALASCHI ³, MARCO MANGIACOTTI ⁵, ROBERTO SACCHI ⁵, MARCO A.L. 4
- ZUFFI 6, STEFANO SCALI 7* 5

6

1 2

- Citation: Pizzigalli, C., Banfi, F., Ficetola, G.F., Falaschi, M., Mangiacotti, M., Sacchi, R., Zuffi, 7
- M.A.L., Scali, S., 2020. Eco-geographical determinants of the evolution of ornamentation in vipers. 8
- Biological Journal of the Linnean Society 130, 345–358. 9

10

- ¹ CIBIO/InBIO, Centro de Investigação em Biodiversidade e Recursos Genéticos da Universidade 11 do Porto, Portugal 12
- ² Laboratory of Functional Morphology, Department of Biology, University of Antwerp, 13
- Universiteitsplein 1, 2610 Wilrijk, Belgium 14
- ³ Dipartimento di Scienze e Politiche Ambientali, Università degli Studi di Milano, via Celoria, 26, 15
- 20133 Milano, Italy 16
- ⁴ Univ. Grenoble Alpes, CNRS, Univ. Savoie Mont Blanc, LECA, Laboratoire d'Ecologie Alpine, F-17
- 38000 Grenoble. 18
- 19 ⁵ Dipartimento di Scienze della Terra e dell'Ambiente, Università degli Studi di Pavia, via Ferrata
- 1, 27100 Pavia, Italy 20
- ⁶ Museo di Storia Naturale, Università di Pisa, via Roma 79, 56011 Calci (Pisa), Italy 21
- ⁷ Museo di Storia Naturale, corso Venezia 55, 20121 Milano, Italy. 22
- * Corresponding author. E-mail: stefano.scali@comune.milano.it 23

24 25

- Abstract. Multiple hypotheses have been proposed to explain the variation of dorsal patterns 26
- observed in snakes, but no studies yet have tested them over broad taxonomic and geographical 27
- scales. Viperidae offer a powerful model group to test eco-evolutionary processes that lead to 28
- disruptive and cryptic ornaments. We developed a database reporting dorsal ornamentation, 29 ecological habitus, habitat features and climatic parameters for 257 out of 341 recognized species. 30
- Three patterns of dorsal ornamentation were considered: "zig-zag", "blotchy", and "uniform" 31
- patterns. Phylogenetic comparative analyses were based on 11 mitochondrial and nuclear genes. 32
- Forty-eight species presented a zig-zag pattern type, 224 a blotchy type and 32 a uniform pattern 33
- type. Phylogenetic signal was significant for all the patterns. Character phylogenetic reconstruction 34
- analyses suggested an ancestral state for blotchy ornamentation, with multiple independent 35
- evolutions of the other patterns. The blotchy pattern was more frequent in terrestrial species living 36
- 37 in warm climates and sandy habitats, supporting the hypothesis of a disruptive function. The zig-zag
- pattern evolved independently in several isolated taxa, particularly in species living in cold climates 38
- and in dense vegetation or water-related habitats, supporting the hypothesis of disruptive and 39
- 40 aposematic functions. Uniform colouration was particularly frequent in arboreal species, supporting
- the hypothesis of a cryptic function. 41

42 43

Key-words. Viperidae; dorsal ornamentation; phylogenetic-supported characterization; blotchy pattern; zig-zag pattern; uniform pattern; ecological correlates

 Colouration and patterns are among the most intriguing phenomena in biology, involving both plants and animals. Flowering plants, for instance, show a great variability of colouration, often associated to odours, flavours and attractive chemicals for pollinator insects (Lev-Yadun & Ne'eman, 2012; Erbar et al., 2017). In animals, colouration can provide information about health status (Halliday et al., 2014; Trigo & Mota, 2015; Sepp et al., 2018) and reproductive condition (Pérez i de Lanuza & Font, 2007; Svensson et al., 2008). Furthermore, mimetic colouration, camouflage and disruptive patterns reduce the detectability of both predators and preys (Morris & Reader, 2016; De Bona et al., 2015), while conspicuous colouration alerts on toxicity or unpalatability (aposematism) (Kraemer et al., 2015; Cuthill et al., 2017). Many studies have evaluated correlations between ornamentations, colourations, ecological variables, and phylogeny across taxa of terrestrial vertebrates (Poulton, 1890; Cott, 1966; Waage, 1981; Endler, 1990; Krebs, 1994). These studies highlighted that the evolution of colouration and patterns has been driven by the interplay between aposematism, crypsis, sexual selection, physiological constraints, and social selection (Cuthill et al., 2017), confirming that colour patterns and colour polymorphism are associated with speciation dynamics (Arbuckle & Speed, 2015).

Vipers (family Viperidae) are an excellent model group to test evolutionary processes related to disruptive and cryptic patterns. Vipers are widespread and well known from a morphological, ecological, molecular, and phylogenetic point of view and multiple mechanisms have been suggested for the evolution of their colouration patterns. First, vipers are a clade of highly venomous snakes, thus recurrent highly detectable colours or patterns can be examples of aposematic colouration or of Müllerian mimicry (Wüster et al., 2004; Valkonen et al., 2011a-b; Santos et al., 2014). Harmful species, however, do not necessarily show bright colours, in order to reduce the risk of being detected (Sherrat & Betty, 2003; Endler & Mappes, 2004). In fact, some patterns (e.g. the zig-zag dorsal pattern of many vipers) can be examples of Müllerian mimicry that allow vipers to be identified as dangerous, without increasing their detectability (Wüster et al., 2004; Valkonen et al., 2011a-b). Second, ambush hunting and predation avoidance have been proposed as drivers of the evolution of cryptic colourations and disruptive patterns (Cott, 1966; Ruxton et al., 2004; del Marmol et al., 2016). Disruptive patterns can be achieved through colourations with complex (either regular or irregular) patterns. Such combinations decrease the detectability of an individual even if the colouration of the body does not perfectly match the environment (e.g. Bitis nasicornis, B. gabonica) (Stevens & Merilaita, 2009 a-b).

Several studies observed a correlation between viper colour, pattern, and behaviour (Allen *et al.*, 2013; Jackson *et al.*, 1976). Many species displaying uniform and/or stripe colouration have limited defensive abilities and high escape capacity (Jackson *et al.*, 1976), because a moving striped object can create either a "barber pole effect" or a "flicker-fusion effect", giving the perception of a uniform pattern during motion that may confuse a potential predator and increase the escaping probability (Jackson *et al.*, 1976; Lindell & Forsman, 1996; Allen *et al.*, 2013). Conversely, snakes with bright colours and/or blotched designs are usually more inclined to fight (Jackson *et al.*, 1976; Clark, 2006; Allen *et al.*, 2013), even if it is unclear whether the efficiency of a bar-like pattern may serve as an anti-predatory diversion or not (Lindell & Forsman, 1996).

Vipers present a striking variability of dorsal ornamentations. Some species show a motif that is regularly repeated several times on the body surface (e.g. zig-zag or blotchy pattern) while others show a uniform colouration. In addition intraspecific variation exhists, with some species exhibiting both zig-zag, blotchy, and uniform patterns (Fig. 1). The efficiency of the different

patterns is expected to vary according to the environmental circumstances. A uniform colouration, for instance, can be more cryptic in canopies with a homogeneous background colouration, while a disruptive pattern can favour camouflage in ecotones with a mottled background. Eco-geographical variables provide a broad-scale picture of the habitat variation and species activity conditions, which in turn, can affect the relative efficiency of different pattern types. However, no analyses have yet tested the relationships between colour patterns of snakes and eco-geographical variables over broad taxonomic and geographical scales. In this study, we performed an extensive bibliographical research to collect distributional, ecological, behavioural, and bioclimatic information for most of the recognised viper species. We then used exhaustive phylogenetic data (Alencar *et al.*, 2016) to reconstruct the evolution of different dorsal patterns and to identify the eco-geographical factors related to the occurrence of dorsal patterns in vipers.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Data collection. Data were acquired from both literature and online sources (see Appendix) and then used to create a database with morphometric, ecological and zoogeographical information representing all the 341 recognised species of vipers (Uetz & Hošek, 2017). For each taxon, we collected the following variables.

Dorsal patterns. Dorsal patterns were classified in three main categories: zig-zag, blotchy, and uniform (Fig. 1). "Zig-zag" is a mostly continuous linear motif characterised by a sequence of small corners, roughly rounded, with variable inclinations. The "blotchy" category included species with regularly repeated motives such as bars, blotches, circles, ovals, and transversal stripes. Lastly, "uniform" indicates patterns that do not show regular motifs. In several cases, one single species can show multiple dorsal patterns (see results). For instance, Vipera aspis displays a high variability of patterns among subspecies, and the three patterns are present in this species (Fig. 1; Zuffi & Bonnet, 1999). Therefore, for each species, we recorded the presence / absence of the three distinct patterns, where every species can have more than one character state. Melanistic individuals were not considered; due to possible motif changes during species' ontogenesis (da Silva et al., 2017), we only considered the features of adults.

Ecology and habitat. The ecological habitus of each species was coded as a semi-quantitative variable (strictly ground living: 0; semi-arboreal: 0.5; arboreal: 1). Furthermore, we identified the habitat typologies where each species can be present [dummy variables: sandy areas, rocky areas, open vegetated areas (e.g. grasslands, croplands, meadows...), forest, water-associated (i.e. living in riparian or moisty areas)].

Climatic variables. For each species, we calculated average values of mean annual temperature and total precipitation. Climatic parameters were calculated as the average value through the whole species range. Ranges were obtained from Roll et al. (2017); climatic values were obtained from the CRU TS v4.01 (updated from Harris et al., 2014). Because no distribution map was available for Crotalus ornatus, we used the centroid of the range as described in the Reptile Database to extract climatic values (Uetz & Hošek, 2017). The correlation between variables was generally weak (for all pairwise correlations, $|r| \le 0.6$), suggesting that collinearity between independent variables did not bias the results of regression analyses (Dormann et al., 2013). Although the average conditions across the range may not represent the full conditions experienced by the species, they provide excellent information on the ecogeographical factors driving the evolution of species, when the climate of exact localities is not available (e.g. Stark & Meiri, 2018).

138

139

140 141

142

143

144

145

146

147

148

149 150

151

152

153

154

155

156

157

158

159

160

161

162

163

164

165

166

167

168

169

170

171

172

173

174

175

176

177

178

179 180

Data analysis. For phylogenetic comparative analyses, we used the calibrated tree based on 11 mitochondrial and nuclear genes by Alencar et al. (2016). The time-tree included all the taxa for which we obtained pattern and ecological variables, and was pruned to match the list of species with available data. We used stochastic reconstruction of character states in order to assess the evolution of dorsal patterns along the phylogeny. Stochastic character mapping is a technique where possible histories of characters are sampled in proportion to their probability. Starting from the topology of the Alencar et al. (2016) time-tree, we generated 1,000 random simulations of a stochastic process of the character state, across the branches of the tree. The posterior probability of stochastically mapped characters was plotted on the phylogeny, to provide a character state reconstruction via stochasticity mapping (Revell, 2013). For all the resulting trees, we showed character state probabilities on both nodes and along branches. In large phylogenetic trees, the rate of trait evolution can differ significantly among lineages (Beaulieu et al., 2013). We therefore used the Beaulieu et al. (2013) approach to compare a time-homogeneous model of trait evolution, with models assuming two or more hidden rates. For the three considered traits, the time-homogeneous model always showed lower Akaike's Information Criterion corrected for limited sample size (AICc) than the models with hidden rates, therefore we assumed homogeneous evolution across the tree. Stochastic reconstruction of character states was first performed for the three patterns separately (presence-absence of blotchy, zigzag and uniform patterns). Furthermore, we used a Markov model (i.e., a model of trait evolution and ancestral states reconstruction for discrete states) to analyse the three patterns in the same model. We used the make.simmap function in phytools to perform stochastic mapping analysis (1,000 replicates; Revell, 2013). For polymorphic species, we assumed that the multiple states of the pattern have the same prior probability. We then reconstructed state evolution through the describe.simmap in phytools (Revell, 2013).

We used the D statistics (Fritz et al., 2010) to measure the phylogenetic signal of dorsal patterns. The D statistics is appropriate to measure phylogenetic signal for discrete traits. D=1 indicates no phylogenetic signal, while D values close to zero or lower suggest very strong signal (Fritz et al., 2010). We used 5,000 random permutations to assess whether D is significantly different from the values expected under no phylogenetic structure.

Subsequently, we used phylogenetic logistic regression to identify the eco-geographical parameters related to the evolution of dorsal patterns (Ives & Garland Jr., 2009) using the Alencar et al. (2016) tree to consider the evolutionary history. We used a model-selection approach, based on Akaike's Information Criterion corrected for limited sample size (AICc) to identify the combination of variables best explaining the occurrence of the three dorsal patterns. First, we built regression models including all the possible combinations of the considered variables and calculated the AICc of each model. AICc trades-off explanatory power vs. number of predictors; models explaining more variation with a limited number of variables have the lowest AICc values and are assumed to be the "best models" (Symonds & Moussalli, 2011). We then calculated Akaike's weight (w) of each model, which infers the likelihood that a model is the best one given a set of candidate models (Burnham & Anderson, 2002; Symonds & Moussalli, 2011). We also tested the possibility of nonlinear relationships, assessing quadratic terms of continuous variables included in highly supported models. Finally, we calculated the sum of weight of each variable, as the sum of the Akaike's weight where each variable appears. The sum of weights is a measure of the relative importance of variables and can be used when model selection reveals uncertainty in the identification of best model(s). The significance of variables within the best-AICc models was assessed using likelihood

ratio tests. Analyses were performed using the packages ape (Paradis *et al.*, 2004), corHMM (Beaulieu *et al.*, 2013), phytools (Revell, 2012), maps (Becker & Wilks, 1993), raster (Hijmas & van Etten, 2012), ggplot2 (Wickham, 2009), caper (Orme, 2013), MuMln (Bartoń, 2015), and phylolm (Ho & Ane, 2014) in R 3.3 (R Core Team, 2017).

RESULTS

Overall, we obtained complete information for 257 species. Forty-five species presented more than one dorsal pattern (e.g. in several instances the blotchy and zigzag pattern occurred in individuals of the same species). All the patterns showed strong phylogenetic signal, with a particularly strong signal for the zig-zag and blotchy ornamentations (zig-zag: D = -0.20, blotchy: D = 0.02; uniform: D = 0.28); in all cases, the D values indicated a phylogenetic signal stronger than expected from random phylogenetic structure (all P < 0.0001). The blotchy pattern was the most widespread among vipers, being recorded in 224 species. The *Trimeresurus* and *Vipera* genera showed mainly the uniform colouration and the zig-zag ornamentation type, respectively. Character phylogenetic reconstruction analyses suggested an ancestral state for blotchy ornamentation with multiple independent evolution of both the other two types of dorsal patterns (Fig. 2-4).

The zig-zag pattern was present in 48 species. The character mainly occurred in the Montivipera-Macrovipera-Daboia-Vipera clade, in the Mixcoatlus-Ophriacus clade and in both the Atheris and Cerrophidion genera with a few exceptions (Vipera transcaucasiana, Daboia deserti, D. siamensis, Macrovipera schweizeri, Montivipera latifi, Mo. bornmuelleri, Mo. albizona, Atheris squamigera and Ath. chlorechis). According to the character state reconstruction analysis, the trait evolved independently also in several isolated taxa throughout both Viperinae and Crotalinae subfamilies: Pseudocerastes fieldi, Cerastes vipera, Echis piramidum, Bothrops pictus, Atropoides occitanus, Atr. nummifer, Trimeresurus gracilis, Protobothrops elegans, P. sieversorum, and P. kaulbaki (Fig. 3).

The uniform pattern was present in 32 species. This pattern type mostly occurred in Asiatic taxa of the genus *Trimeresurus* (Fig. 4). It also occurred in *Macrovipera schweizeri*, *Atheris ceratophora*, *Ath. chlorechis*, *Causus resimus*, *Tropidolaemus subannulatus*, *Bothriechis guifarroi*, *Bothriechis lateralis*, *Bothriechis schlegelii*, and *Bothrops bilineatus*. In each of these species, the character evolved independently (Fig. 4).

The stochastic reconstruction of the three pattern states in the same model confirmed the blotchy pattern as the ancestral state, followed by multiple transitions (Fig. 5). The model suggested that the uniform pattern evolved from the blotchy pattern 6 times, while the zigzag pattern evolved from the blotchy pattern 5 times. Furthermore, several revelsals occurred, particularly from the uniform to the blotchy pattern (14 transitions), while reversals from zigzag to blotchy were rare (2 transitions; Fig. 5).

ECO-GEOGRAPHICAL DETERMINANTS OF DORSAL PATTERNS

BLOTCHY PATTERN

The best-AIC phylogenetic regression model suggested that the blotchy pattern was related to climate, species habitus and habitat (Table 1a). Blotches were particularly frequent in ground-living species ($\chi^2_1 = 26.0$, P < 0.0001) (Fig. 6d), in species living in sandy areas ($\chi^2_1 = 11.5$, P = 0.0007) (Fig. 6e) and in warm climates ($\chi^2_1 = 7.5$, P = 0.006) (Fig. 6f). An alternative model, with very similar AICc value, included annual precipitation instead of sandy habitat and confirmed the high

frequency of this pattern in species living in arid areas ($\chi^2_1 = 12.1$, P = 0.0005). The ground-living habitus and the association with warm climate were the variables with the highest relative importance (Table 2).

229230

231

232

233

234

235

226

227

228

ZIG-ZAG PATTERN

The best-AICc model suggested that the zig-zag pattern was particularly frequent in species living in cold climates ($\chi^2_1 = 15.2$, P < 0.0001) (Fig. 6c). The zig-zag pattern tended to be more frequent in species living in water-related habitats ($\chi^2_1 = 2.5$, P = 0.12) (Fig. 6b) and was slightly less frequent in species living in open habitats ($\chi^2_1 = 3.75$, P = 0.053) (Fig. 6a), but these variables were not significant at the 5% level. The mean temperature was the variable with the highest relative importance to explain the occurrence of this pattern (Table 2).

236237238

239

240

241

UNIFORM PATTERN

According to the best AICc model, the uniform colouration was particularly frequent in arboreal species ($\chi^2_1 = 28.3$, P < 0.0001) (Fig. 6g and Table 1c). None of the remaining variables was included in models with AICc weight > 0.01, indicating the arboreal habitus as the most important variable to explain the occurrence of this pattern (Table 2).

242243244

245

246

247

248249

250

251

252

253

254

255

256257

258

259

260

DISCUSSION

This study represents the first global scale characterisation of dorsal ornamentations for the family Viperidae. Our analyses clearly show that multiple factors can jointly determine the evolution of a certain pattern, with a major role of both climatic conditions and lifestyle. We observed a strong phylogenetic signal, with highly conserved basal character (blotchy) from which different patterns arose independently multiple times in different areas of the world. In most of the cases, the evolution of the new patterns corresponded to a loss of the ancestral state (e.g. the green concolour pattern in most of the *Trimeresurus* species and the zig-zag pattern in *Vipera*). However, there are also multiple cases of intraspecific variability (species in which a new pattern arose, but the blotchy remains, e.g. V. aspis see Zuffi & Bonnet, 1999). Such complex evolution of colour patterns along the phylogeny has been observed in multiple snake lineages. For instance, coral snakes (*Micrurus*), include distinct phylogenetic lineages that can be also distinguished by their dorsal patterns (Slowinski, 1995; Gutberlet & Harvey, 2004; Marques et al., 2013; Jowers et al., 2019): the monadal pattern (one black ring between two white or yellow annuli separated by red annuli), the triadal pattern (three black rings), and a bicolour colouration. Jowers et al. (2019) confirmed that there is a phylogeographic explanation behind the evolution of the two predominant colour patterns in these coral snakes, where from a basal triadal pattern the monadal form evolved in the Middle Miocene and more recently also with a bicolour colouration.

261262263

264

265

266

267

268

269270

DRIVERS OF THE EVOLUTION OF BLOTCHY PATTERNS

The evolution of different patterns in vipers was strongly related to habitat and habitus (Fig. 6d). That is, each colouration is characteristic of species living in specific climatic conditions, habitats or lifestyle. The blotchy ornamentation appears to be frequent in ground-dwelling species living at low-latitudes in environments with warm and arid climates (Fig. 6e-f). Avoiding the detection by visual hunting predators is essential for ground-dwelling species. Previous studies already assumed the disruptive function of the blotchy pattern, which mimics the dark shadows of the litter-free sand beneath the vegetation (Sherbrooke, 2002). These properties of the blotchy pattern result to be a

particularly effective antipredator strategy of defence in ground-dwelling species (Brodie, 1992-1993) because allow them to confuse the outlines of their bodies with the substratum (e.g. Bitis gabonica), with shrubs and grass stems (e.g. Vipera aspis) or disguise by blending their dorsal pattern with the shadow created by bushes (Cott, 1966). Moreover, blotchy patterns create a "barber pole effect" when fleeing throughout the bushy and herbaceous vegetation (Jackson et al., 1976; Lindell & Forsman, 1996). Shadows-like colouration has useful camouflage property in sandy habitats (Serventy, 1971). Our results clearly show that blotchy colouration patterns are more frequent in species inhabiting sandy and arid environments, where most of the species move between the patches of vegetation (seeking for shade in the warmest hour of the day) and the open areas to thermoregulate or hunt.

280 281 282

283

284 285

286

287

288

289 290

291

292

293 294

295

296

271

272

273 274

275

276 277

278

279

DRIVERS OF THE EVOLUTION OF ZIG-ZAG PATTERNS

Our phylogenetic reconstruction suggests that zig-zag colouration pattern evolved multiple times (approx. 23 times) in vipers, mostly from ancestor with a blotchy pattern (Fig. 2 and Fig. 3). The zig-zag pattern presents a very strong phylogenetic signal and is more common in species living in cold climates (Fig. 6c). In these areas, more time is needed for thermoregulation and consequently snakes are more exposed to predation. The zig-zag pattern has been proposed to have a disruptive effect (from afar) but can also represent a case of Müllerian mimicry (Valkonen et al., 2011b). The hypothesis of Müllerian mimicry is supported by the strong phylogenetic signal. The zig-zag pattern is particularly clustered within the phylogeny (Fig. 3), and closely related species which often live in nearby geographical regions (Warren et al., 2014). For instance, all the species of the genus Vipera display this colour pattern and are mostly distributed in the same geographic region, Europe. This has probably allowed potential predators to learn from more than one species-model that animals showing zig-zag colouration patterns are most likely a danger. Further support to this hypothesis is the presence of several cases of Batesian mimicry from innocuous species emulating this colouration pattern, e.g. the Viperine Water Snake, Natrix maura, which is harmless and belongs to the Colubridae family (Santos et al., 2017).

297 298 299

300

301

302

303

304

305

306

307

308

309

310

311

312

313

314 315

DRIVERS OF THE EVOLUTION OF UNIFORM PATTERNS

Repeated evolutions have also been observed for the uniform dorsal pattern, which evolved from both blotchy and zig-zag patterns (Fig. 2 and Fig. 3). The uniform colouration has proved to be particularly frequent in Asian clades and specifically in species with arboreal habits (Fig. 6g) for hunting, thermoregulation, roosting or all of them. Accordingly, many species with uniform pattern exhibit a green colouration, which likely improves crypsis in canopy. Cases of uniform colouration (or concolour form) have also been reported in individuals within the genus Vipera (e.g. former V. aspis atra, V. aspis aspis and V. berus bosniensis), especially at high altitudes in rocky and open areas (Colombo & Di Nicola, 2012; Tessa, 2016; Nikolić & Simović, 2017). In this genus individuals with uniform pattern display a greyish colouration, which can have the same cryptic function of the green colouration in arboreal or semi-arboreal Asian Pit-vipers. However, our model does not completely explain the evolution of all the uniform colouration patterns. In some species, individuals often are uniformly dark (melanism), and multiple hypotheses have been proposed to explain these colourations, such as thermoregulation (Kettlewell, 1973; Kingsolver & Wiernasz, 1991; Trullas et al., 2007), crypticism (Kettlewell, 1973; Endler, 1984), aposematism (Turner, 1977), protection from ultraviolet radiation (Gunn, 1998) and sexual selection (Wiernasz, 1989), but

further investigation is needed to corroborate or confute these assumptions.

LIMITATIONS

Our study provides one of the most complete evaluations of colour evolution in snakes, still it cannot be regarded as exhaustive since we have not explored all possible drivers for colour patterns. First, we adopted a macroevolutionary perspective and focused on eco-geographical drivers, but additional processes are certainly at work. For instance, sexual selection is one of the most frequent drivers of colour patterns (Cuthill *et al.*, 2017). In our study, we did not consider sexual selection as a factor because of the limited information on sexual dimorphism in patterns in vipers, still, this hypothesis requires future attention. Another process that we did not consider is the changes in colouration during the ontogenesis. Unfortunately, detailed information on the colouration of juveniles and sub-adults is only available for a subset of species. Nevertheless, the mortality of juveniles is not consistently higher than the one of adults (Pike *et al.*, 2008), suggesting that our conclusions are not biased by difference in mortality among age classes. Additional hypotheses that can be tested in the future include the role of fine-scale interactions between individuals and their micro-habitat (relating colour patterns to vegetation cover), diet and hunting strategies.

Our results could be partially affected by the uneven distribution of information. First, some taxa are less known, for instance because they live in inaccessible / poorly studied areas. For these taxa, it is possible that intraspecific variation exists (*i.e.* more than one single pattern). The possible bias determined by incomplete information hampered the analysis of intraspecific variability, but improving the completeness of information could allow analysing intraspecific variability. Finally, our analysis at broad phylogenetic scale used a coarse definition of patterns. For instance, the "blotchy" patterns group includes a broad range of patterns (blotches, transversal lines, ellipses, bars etc.). Furthermore, both green, grey and black vipers are "uniform", but the role of these colourations is probably different. Future analyses could consider the fine-scale variation within the different patterns.

342 CONCLUSIONS

Our study revealed the complexity of factors determining the evolution of colour patterns in vipers, suggesting that multiple processes, ranging from cryptic to Müllerian mimicry and thermoregulation, can have a different strength in different areas of the globe, depending on geography and climate. Broad-scale analyses are a powerful approach to identify overall patterns, still they need to be complemented by focused studies testing the functional effects of colourations, and the evolutionary forces at play on species. For instance, experimental tests can be used to verify the effectiveness of the different patterns for mimicry (Martínez-Freiría *et al.*, 2017), and image analyses can allow testing relationships between colour quality, shape of dark ornamentation of the dorsal surface and environmental factors such as UV radiation. The integration of analyses at multiple scales can allow more accurate inference on colour evolution, helping to obtain robust generalizations that can lead us to better understand the complex determinants of evolution of morphological, behavioural and ecological traits (Ficetola *et al.*, 2018; Kaliontzopoulou *et al.*, 2018).

We thank two anonymous reviewers for constructive comments on previous drafts of the manuscript. We are grateful to Matteo di Nicola who provided the pictures of *Vipera aspis* and helped in the design of the image.

362 REFERENCES

- Alencar LRV, Quental TB, Grazziotin FG, Alfaro ML, Martins M, Venzon M, Zaher H. 2016.
- Diversification in vipers: Phylogenetic relationships, time of divergence and shifts in speciation rates. *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution* **105:** 50-62.
- Allen WL, Baddeley R, Scott-Samuel NE, Cuthill IC. 2013. The evolution and function of pattern diversity in snakes. *Behavioral Ecology* 24: 1237-1250.
- Arbuckle K, Speed MP. 2015. Antipredator defenses predict diversification rates. *Proceedings of. National Academy of Sciences U.S.A.* 112: 13597-13602.
- 370 **Barton K. 2015.** *MuMIn: Multi-model inference. R package version 1.15.1.* http://CRAN.R-project.org/package=MuMIn.
- Beaulieu JM, O'Meara BC, Donoghue MJ. 2013. Identifying Hidden Rate Changes in the Evolution of a Binary Morphological Character: The Evolution of Plant Habit in Campanulid Angiosperms. Systematic Biology 62: 725-737.
- Becker RA, Wilks AR. 1993. Maps in S. AT\&T Bell Laboratories Statistics Research Report [93.2].
- 377 **Brodie ED III. 1992.** Correlational selection for color pattern and antipredator behavior in the garter snake *Thamnophis ordinoides*. *Evolution* **46(5)**: 1284-1298.
- Brodie ED. III. 1993. Consistency of individual differences in anti-predator behaviour and colour pattern in the garter snake, *Thamnophis ordinoides*. *Animal Behaviour* 45(5): 851-861.
- Burnham KP, Anderson DR. 2002. Model selection and multimodel inference: a practical
 information-theoretic approach. New York: Springer Verlag.
- Clark RW. 2006. Fixed videography to study predation behavior of an ambush foraging snake, Crotalus horridus. Copeia 2006: 181-187.
- Colombo M, Di Nicola M. 2012. Quando la vipera non ha lo zigzag. Piemonte Parchi 221: 26-27.
- 386 Cott HB. 1966. Adaptive Coloration in Animals. London: Methuen & Co. Ltd.
- Cuthill IC, Allen WL, Arbuckle K, Caspers B, Chaplin G, Hauber ME, Hill GE, Jablonski
- NG, Jiggins CD, Kelber A, Mappes J, Marshall J, Merrill R, Osorio D, Prum R, Roberts
- NW, Roulin A, Rowland HM, Sherratt TN, Skelhorn J, Speed MP, Stevens M, Stoddard
- MC, Stuart-Fox D, Talas L, Tibbetts E, Caro T. 2017. The biology of color. Science 357: eaan0221.
- da Silva FM, de Oliveira LS, de Souza Nascimento LR, Machado FA, da Costa Prudente AL.
- 393 2017. Sexual dimorphism and ontogenetic changes of Amazonian pit vipers (*Bothrops atrox*).
 394 Zoologischer Anzeiger-A Journal of Comparative Zoology 271: 15-24.
- del Marmol GM, Mozaffari O, Gállego J. 2016. Pseudocerastes urarachnoides: the ambush specialist. Boletín de la Asociación Herpetológica Española 27: 36-42.
- De Bona S, Valkonen JK, López-Sepulcre A, Mappes J. 2015. Predator mimicry, not conspicuousness, explains the efficacy of butterfly eyespots. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B* 282: 20150202.
- Dormann CF, Elith J, Bacher S, Buchmann C, Carl G, Carre G, Marquez JRG, Gruber B, Lafourcade B, Leitao PJ, Munkemuller T, McClean C, Osborne PE, Reineking B,
- Schroder B, Skidmore AK, Zurell D, Lautenbach S. 2013. Collinearity: a review of
- methods to deal with it and a simulation study evaluating their performance. *Ecography* **36:** 27-46.
- Endler J. 1984. Progressive background matching in moths, and a quantitative measure of crypsis.

- 406 Biological Journal of the Linnean Society 22: 187-231.
- Endler JA. 1990. On the measurement and classification of colour in studies of animal colour patterns. *Biological Journal of the Linnean Society* 41: 315-352.
- Endler JA, Mappes J. 2004. Predator mixes and the conspicuousness of aposematic signals. *The American Naturalist* 163: 532-547.
- Erbar C, Heiler A, Leins P. 2017. Nectaries in fly-deceptive pitcher-trap blossoms of *Aristolochia*.

 Flora 232: 128-141.
- Ficetola GF, Lunghi E, Canedoli C, Padoa-Schioppa E, Pennati R, Manenti R. 2018.
 Differences between microhabitat and broad-scale patterns of niche evolution in terrestrial salamanders. Scientific Reports 8: 10575.
- Fritz SA, Purvis A. 2010. Selectivity in Mammalian Extinction Risk and Threat Types: a New Measure of Phylogenetic Signal Strength in Binary Traits. *Conservation Biology* 24: 1042-1051.
- Gunn A. 1998. The determination of larval phase coloration in the African armyworm, *Spodoptera* exempta and its consequences for thermoregulation and protection from UV light. *Entomologia* experimentalis et applicata 86(2): 125-133.
- Gutberlet RL, Harvey MB. 2004. The evolution of New World venomous snakes. In: Campbell JA Lamar WW, eds. *The venomous reptiles of the Western Hemisphere*. Ithaca, NY: Cornell University Press: 634-682.
- Halliday WD, Paterson JE, Patterson LD, Cooke SJ, Blouin-Demers G. 2014. Testosterone,
 body size, and sexual signals predict parasite load in Yarrow's spiny lizards (Sceloporus jarrovii). Canadian Journal of Zoology 92: 1075-1082.
- Harris I, Jones PD, Osborn TJ, Lister DH. 2014. Updated high-resolution grids of monthly
 climatic observations the CRU TS3.10 Dataset. *International Journal of Climatology* 34:
 623-642.
- Hijmans RJ, van Etten J. 2012. Raster: Geographic analysis and modelling with raster data. R
 package version 2.0-12. Available from: http://CRAN.R-project.org/package=raster.
- 433 **Ho LST, Ane C. 2014.** A linear-time algorithm for Gaussian and non-Gaussian trait evolution models. *Systematic Biology* **63(3):** 397-408.
- 435 **Ives AR, Garland T Jr. 2010.** Phylogenetic logistic regression for binary dependent variables. 436 *Systematic Biology* **59(1):** 9-26.
- Jackson JF, Ingram WT III, Campbell HW. 1976. The dorsal pigmentation pattern of snakes as an antipredator strategy: a multivariate approach. *The American Naturalist* 110: 1029-1053.
- Jowers MJ, Garcia Mudarra JL, Charles SP, Murphy JC. 2019. Phylogeography of West Indies Coral snakes (*Micrurus*): Island colonisation and banding patterns. *Zoologica Scripta* 2019: 1-14.
- Kaliontzopoulou A, Pinho C, Martínez-Freiría F. 2018. Where does diversity come from?
 Linking geographical patterns of morphological, genetic, and environmental variation in wall lizards. *BMC evolutionary biology* 18(1): 124.
- Kettlewell HBD. 1973. The Evolution of Melanism: The Study of a Recurring Necessity, With

 Special Reference to Industrial Melanism in the Lepidoptera. Oxford: Claredon Press.
- Kingsolver JG, Wiernasz DC. 1991. Seasonal polyphenism in wing melanin pattern and thermoregulatory adaptation in *Pieris* butterflies. *The American Naturalist* 137(6): 816-830.
- 449 Kraemer AC, Serb JM, Adams DC. 2015. Batesian mimics influence the evolution of

- conspicuousness in an aposematic salamander. *Journal of Evolutionary Biology* **28:** 1016-1023.
- **Krebs CJ. 1994.** Ecology: the experimental analysis of distribution and abundance. *Evolution and ecology* **57:** 17-26.
- 454 **Lev-Yadun S, Ne'eman G. 2012.** Does bee or wasp mimicry by orchid flowers also deter herbivores? *Arthropod-Plant Interactions* **6:** 327-332.
- Lindell LE, Forsman A. 1996. Sexual dichromatism in snakes: support for the flicker-fusion hypothesis. *Canadian Journal of Zoology* 74: 2254-2256.
- 458 **Marques OAV, Pizzatto L, Santos SMA. 2013.** Reproductive strategies of New World Coral Snakes, Genus *Micrurus*. *Herpetologica* **69:** 58-66.
- Martínez-Freiría F, i de Lanuza GP, Pimenta AA, Pinto T, Santos X. 2017. Aposematism and crypsis are not enough to explain dorsal polymorphism in the Iberian adder. *Acta oecologica* 85: 165-173.
- Merilaita S. 2006. Frequency-dependent predation and maintenance of prey polymorphism.
 Journal of Evolutionary Biology 19: 2022-2030.
- Morris RL, Reader T. 2016. Do crab spiders perceive Batesian mimicry in hoverflies?
 Behavioural Ecology 27: 920-931.
- Münkemüller T, Lavergne S, Bzeznik B, Dray S, Jombart T, Schiffers K, Thuiller W. 2012.
 How to measure and test phylogenetic signal. *Methods in Ecology and Evolution* 3: 743-756.
- Nikolić S, Simović A. 2017. First report on a trichromatic lowland *Vipera berus bosniensis* population in Serbia. *Herpetological Conservation and Biology* 12(2): 394-401.
- Orme D, Freckleton RP, Thomas GH, Petzoldt T, Fritz S, Isaac N, Pearse W. 2013. caper:

 Comparative Analyses of Phylogenetics and Evolution in R. R package version 0.5.2.

 http://CRAN.R-project.org/package=caper.
- 474 **Pagel M. 1999.** Inferring the historical patterns of biological evolution. *Nature* **401(6756):** 877.
- Paradis E, Claude J, Strimmer K. 2004. APE: analyses of phylogenetics and evolution in R language. *Bioinformatics* 20: 289-290.
- Pérez I de Lanuza G, Font E. 2007. Ultraviolet reflectance of male nuptial colouration in sand lizards (*Lacerta agilis*) from the Pyrenees. *Amphibia-Reptilia* 28(3): 438-443.
- Pike DA, Pizzatto L, Pike BA, Shine R. 2008. Estimating survival rates of uncatchable animals: the myth of high juvenile mortality in reptiles. *Ecology*, 89(3), 607-611.
- Poulton EB. 1890. The colours of animals: their meaning and use, especially considered in the case of insects. New York: D. Appleton and Company.
- 483 **R Core Team. 2017.** *R: A language and environment for statistical computing.* Vienna: R Foundation for Statistical Computing.
- 485 Revell LJ. 2012. phytools: An R package for phylogenetic comparative biology (and other things).
 486 Methods in Ecology and Evolution 3: 217-223.
- 487 Revell LJ. 2013. Two new graphical methods for mapping trait evolution on phylogenies. *Methods* 488 in Ecology and Evolution 4: 754-759.
- Roll U, Feldman A, Novosolov M, Allison A, Bauer AM, Bernard R, Böhm M, Castro-Herrera F, Chirio L, Collen B, Colli GR, Dabool L, Das I, Doan TM, Grismer LL, Hoogmoed M,
- Itescu Y, Kraus F, LeBreton M, Lewin A, Martins M, Maza E, Meirte D, Nagy ZT, de C.
- Nogueira C, Pauwels OSG, Pincheira-Donoso D, Powney GD, Sindaco R, Tallowin O,
- Torres-Carvajal O, Trape J-F, Enav Vidan E, Uetz P, Wagner P, Wang Y, Orme CDL,
- 494 Grenyer R, Meiri S. 2017. The global distribution of tetrapods reveals a need for targeted

- reptile conservation. *Nature ecology and evolution* **1:** 1677-1682.
- Ruxton GD, Sherratt TN, Speed MP, Speed MP, Speed M. 2004. Avoiding attack: the evolutionary ecology of crypsis, warning signals and mimicry. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Santos X, Vidal-García M, Brito JC, Fahd S, Llorente GA, Martínez-Freiría F, Sillero N. 2014. Phylogeographic and environmental correlates support the cryptic function of the zigzag pattern in a European viper. Evolutionary ecology 28: 611-626.
- Santos X, Azor JS, Cortés S, Rodríguez E, Larios J, Pleguezuelos JM. 2017. Ecological significance of dorsal polymorphism in a Batesian mimic snake. *Current zoology* 64(6): 745-753.
- Sepp T, McGraw KJ, Kaasik A, Giraudeau M. 2018. A review of urban impacts on avian lifehistory evolution: Does city living lead to slower pace of life? *Global Change Biology* 24: 1452-1469.
- 508 **Serventy DL. 1971.** Biology of desert birds. In: Farner DS, King JR, Parkes KC, eds. *Avian Biology, Vol. 1.* New York: Academic Press: 287-339.
- 510 **Sherbrooke WC. 2002.** Do vertebral-line patterns in two horned lizards (*Phrynosoma spp.*) mimic plant-stem shadows and stem litter? *Journal of Arid Environments* **50(1):** 109-120.
- 512 **Sherrat TN, Beatty CD. 2003.** The evolution of warning signals as reliable indicators of prey defence. *American Naturalist* **162:** 377–389.
- 514 **Slowinski JB. 1995.** A phylogenetic analysis of the new world coral snakes (Elapidae: Leptomicrurus, Micruroides and Micrurus) based on the allozymic and morphological characters. Journal of Herpetology **29:** 325-338.
- 517 **Stark G, Meiri S. 2018.** Cold and dark captivity: Drivers of amphibian longevity. *Global Ecology* and *Biogeography* **27:** 1384-1397.
- 519 **Stevens M, Merilaita S. 2009a.** Animal camouflage: Current issues and new perspectives.
 520 *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences* **364:** 423-427.
- Stevens M, Merilaita S. 2009b. Defining disruptive coloration and distinguishing its functions.

 Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London B: Biological Sciences 364: 481488.
- 524 Svensson PA, Pélabon C, Blount JD, Forsgren E, Bjerkeng B, Amundsen T. 2008. Temporal variability in a multicomponent trait: nuptial coloration of female two-spotted gobies.

 526 Behavioral Ecology 20: 346-353.
- 527 **Symonds MRE, Moussalli A. 2011.** A brief guide to model selection, multimodel inference and model averaging in behavioural ecology using Akaike's information criterion. *Behavioral Ecology and Sociobiology* **65:** 13-21.
- Tessa G. 2016. Preliminary data on distribution of a rare dorsal pattern in *Vipera aspis aspis*(Ophidia: Viperidae) in the Gran Paradiso National Park. In: Menegon M., Rodriguez-Prieto
 A, Deflorian MC, eds. *Atti XI Congresso Nazionale della Societas Herpetologica Italica*,
 Trento 22-25 settembre 2016. Trento: Ianieri Edizioni, 325-328.
- Trigo S, Mota PG. 2015. What is the value of a yellow patch? Assessing the signalling role of yellow colouration in the European serin. *Behavioral Ecology and Sociobiology* 69: 481-490.
- Trullas SC, van Wyk JH, Spotila JR. 2007. Thermal melanism in ectotherms. *Journal of Thermal Biology* 32(5): 235-245.
- Turner JRG. 1977. Butterfly mimicry: the genetical evolution of an adaptation. *Evolutionary Biology* 10: 163-206.

- 540 **Uetz P, Hošek J. 2017.** The reptile database. Available from: http://reptile-database.org/.
- Valkonen JK, Nokelainen O, Mappes J. 2011a. Antipredatory function of head shape for vipers and their mimics. *PLoS ONE* 6(7): e22272.
- Valkonen JK, Niskanen M, Björklund M, Mappes J. 2011b. Disruption or aposematism? Significance of dorsal zigzag pattern of European vipers. *Evolutionary Ecology* 25: 1047-1063.
- Waage J. 1981. How the zebra got its stripes-biting flies as selective agents in the evolution of zebra coloration. *Journal of the Entomological Society of Southern Africa* 44: 351–358.
- Warren DL, Cardillo M, Rosauer DF, Bolnick DI. 2014. Mistaking geography for biology: inferring processes from species distributions. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution* 29: 572-580.
- Wickham H. 2009. Elegant graphics for data analysis (ggplot2).

- Wiernasz DC. 1989. Female choice and sexual selection of male wing melanin pattern in *Pieris occidentalis* (Lepidoptera). *Evolution* 43: 1672-1682.
- Wüster W, Allum CSE, Bjargardóttir IB, Bailey KL, Dawson KJ, Guenioui J., Pollard CP.
 2004. Do aposematism and Batesian mimicry require bright colours? A test, using European viper markings. Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences 271: 2495–2499.
- **Zuffi MAL, Bonnet X. 1999.** Italian subspecies of the asp viper, *Vipera aspis*: patterns of variability and distribution. *Italian Journal Zoology* **66:** 87-95.

563	
564	

560

561

Rank	Independent variables	AICc	ΔAICc	w
a)	Dependent: occurrence of blotchy pattern			
1	Arboreal habitus (-), mean temperature (+), sandy habitat (+)	134.04	0.00	0.48
2	Arboreal habitus (-), mean temperature (+), precipitation (-)	134.67	0.63	0.35
3	Arboreal habitus (-), forest habitat (-)	137.09	3.06	0.11
4	Arboreal habitus (-)	138.41	4.38	0.05
b)	Dependent: occurrence of zig-zag pattern			
1	Mean temperature (-); Water habitat (+), open habitat (-)	169.26	0.00	0.45
3	Mean temperature (-)	169.43	0.18	0.41
4	Water habitat (+), sandy habitat (+)	175.39	6.13	0.02
5	Rock habitat (+), forest habitat (-)	175.58	6.32	0.02
6	Precipitation (-), sandy habitat (+)	175.64	6.39	0.02
c)	Dependent: occurrence of uniform pattern			
3	Arboreal habitus (+)	140.79	0	>0.99

Independent	Dependent variables:			
variables	Blotchy pattern	Zig-zag pattern	Uniform pattern	
Arboreal habitus	1.00	0.01	1.00	
Habitat:				
Sandy	0.48	0.04	< 0.01	
Rocks	< 0.01	0.02	< 0.01	
Open	< 0.01	0.47	< 0.01	
Forest	< 0.01	< 0.01	< 0.01	
Water-related	< 0.01	0.48	< 0.01	
Climate:				
Mean temperature	0.84	0.86	< 0.01	
Annual precipitation	0.35	< 0.01	< 0.01	

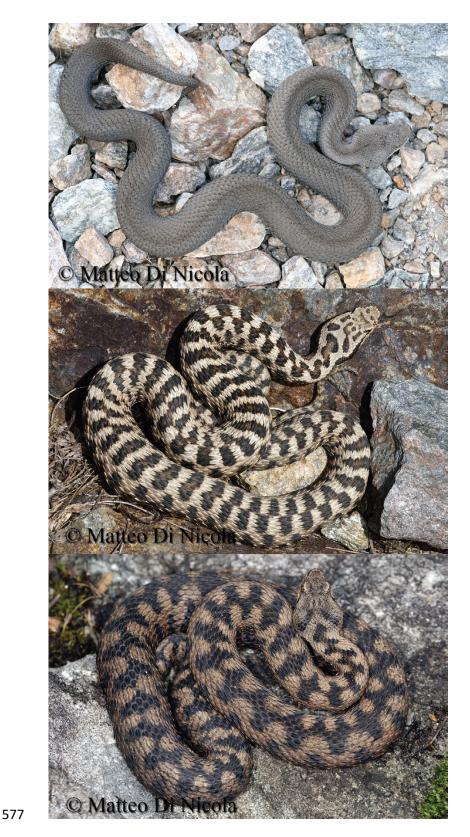


Figure 1. Example of intraspecific polymorphism in *V. aspis*, on the top a concolor individual displaying A) uniform coloration, in the middle an example of B) blotchy pattern (bars in this case) and on the bottom a C) zig-zag pattern-like coloration. Credit to Matteo Di Nicola (http://www.matteodinicola.it/).

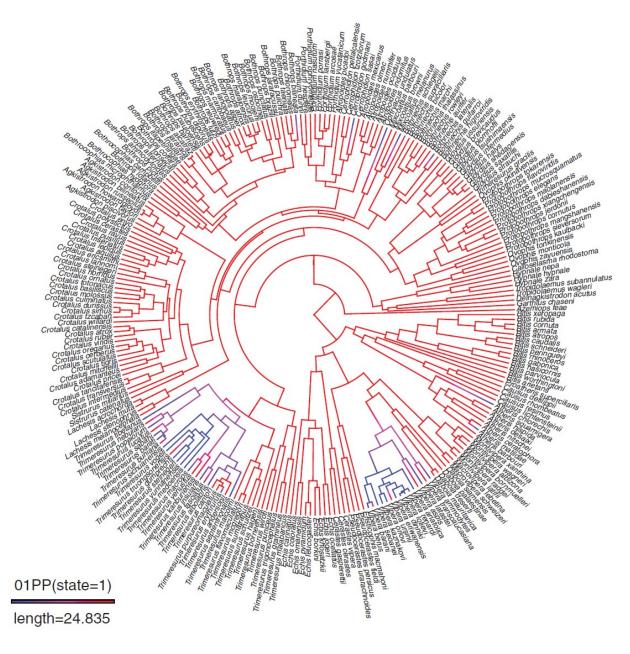


Figure 2. Ancestral character state reconstruction of the blotchy pattern along the branches of the phylogenetic tree of Viperidae. Red indicates a high posterior probability of the occurrence of the blotchy pattern within a clade, blue indicates low probability of occurrence, and intermediate colours indicate incertitude. Phylogeny is from Alencar *et al.* (2016).

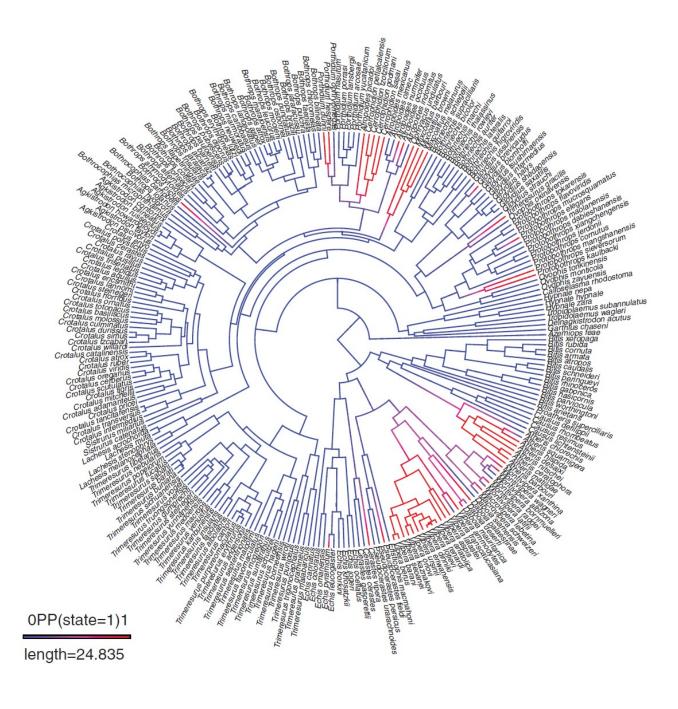


Figure 3. Ancestral character state reconstruction of the zig-zag pattern along the branches of the phylogenetic tree of Viperidae. Red indicates a high posterior probability of the occurrence of the blotchy pattern within a clade, blue indicates low probability of occurrence, and intermediate colours indicate incertitude.

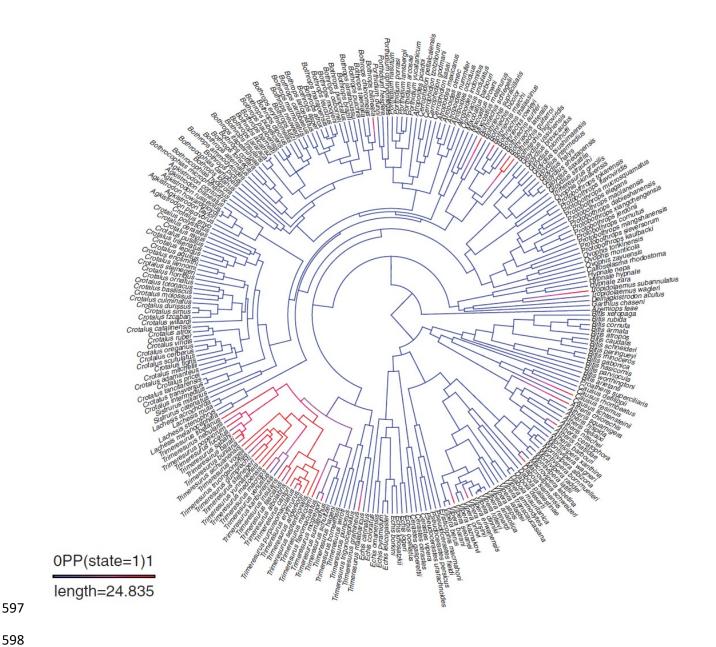


Figure 4. Ancestral character state reconstruction of the uniform pattern along the branches of the phylogenetic tree of Viperidae. Red indicates a high posterior probability of the occurrence of the blotchy pattern within a clade, blue indicates low probability of occurrence, and intermediate colours indicate incertitude.

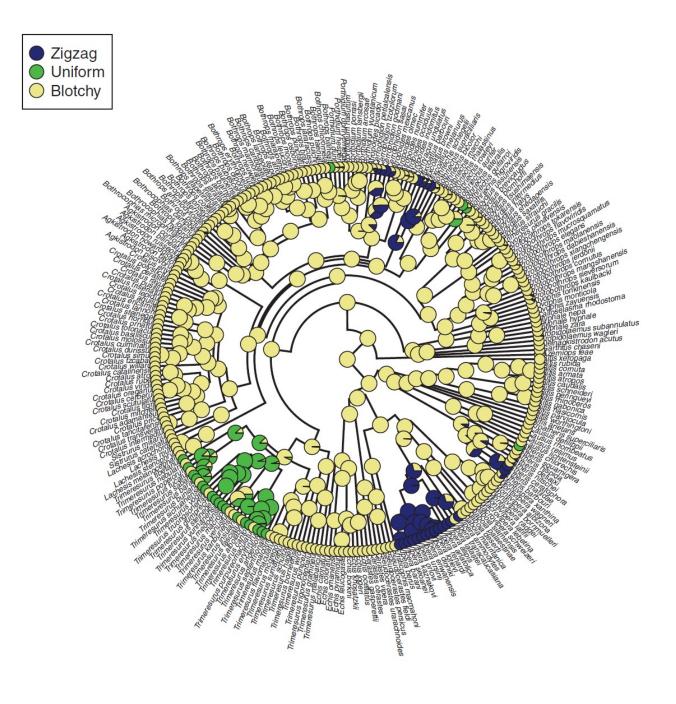


Figure 5. Ancestral character state reconstruction for the three patterns. Pies indicate the probability of the occurrence of each pattern within a clade.

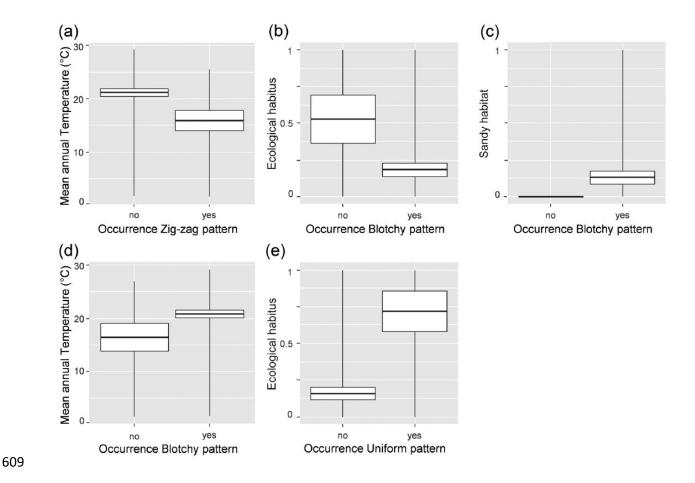


Figure 6. Occurrence of dorsal patterns in relation to the variables, predicted on the basis of the best phylogenetic logistic regression models. Boxplots indicate: the occurrence of zig-zag pattern in relation to (a) mean annual temperature; the occurrence of blotchy pattern predicted by (b) arboreality, (c) occurrence in sandy habitat and (d) mean annual temperature; the occurrence of uniform pattern type predicted by (e) arboreality. The categorical variables arboreality (b-e) and occurrence in sandy habitat (c), express the probability that a species has a given pattern based on the habitat where it lives.