



Supplementary Materials for

Predator-driven natural selection on risk-taking behavior in anole lizards

Oriol Lapiedra,* Thomas W. Schoener, Manuel Leal, Jonathan B. Losos, Jason J. Kolbe

*Corresponding author. Email: olapiedragonzalez@fas.harvard.edu

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Materials and methods

All of the experiments conducted in this study were approved by the IACUC at Harvard University (Protocol # 26-11 from 2016). All the necessary permits to conduct scientific research were obtained from the Bahamas Environment, Science & Technology (BEST) Commission of the Ministry of Environment.

Capturing lizards in the field

In June 2016, we captured adult *Anolis sagrei* lizards (minimum SVL of 38.5 mm for males and 35 mm for females; following (32)) from the Snake Cay area along the east coast of Great Abaco, Bahamas. All source islands were less than 2 km away from our experimental islands. To collect habitat-use data, we walked on the island until we located an undisturbed lizard. We then measured the perch height and diameter to the nearest cm using the Rand survey method (35). Observations of lizards on the ground were given a perch height of 0 cm but they were not assigned a perch diameter. We measured body mass using a portable digital scale. We kept lizards individually overnight in plastic containers at a constant room temperature of 25 °C and started behavioral experiments the following morning.

Assessing risk-taking behavior in *Anolis sagrei*

Experimental setup

We conducted the trials to assess individual behaviors in sheltered, outdoor laboratory facilities at Friends of the Environment, Marsh Harbour (Bahamas). Following protocols in (25), we conducted all trials in collapsible butterfly cages (122 cm width by 68.5 cm depth by 68.5 cm height). These cages have a transparent plastic front and three sides with mesh to prevent small insects from entering the cages. At one end of the experimental cage, we placed a wooden refuge (16.5 width by 19 depth by 14 cm high) with an opening covered by a thick, dark cloth. We installed a single wooden perch in the middle of the cage at 40 cm from the refuge opening. We also placed three rocks of similar sizes (around 15 cm in diameter) surrounding the perch; these rocks are common on all experimental islands. This experimental setting allows *A. sagrei* to either climb on vegetation or hide underneath rocks, which are the two most common antipredator responses exhibited in our study system. All trials were videotaped, and during the trials the researcher sat motionless behind a wooden blind. Experimental cages were protected from the sun; we did not conduct experiments during rainy weather conditions. There were eight different cages. Including “cage identity” as a random factor in the models did not affect results of behavioral experiments. Temperature and humidity did not influence time to initiation of

exploration in a new environment or time spent on the ground ($p > 0.40$ in all cases), and therefore, were not included in further analyses.

*Experimental assessment after exposure to the ground predator *L. carinatus**

To assess individual variation in risk-taking behavior, we gently placed lizards individually inside the wooden refuge, where they spent a 3-minute habituation period. During the habituation period, we placed a transparent plastic container (30 cm width by 19 cm depth by 20 cm height) containing a live adult *L. carinatus* between the refuge and the perch (Figure 1A). Then, we proceeded to remove the cover from the refuge door and expose the *A. sagrei* to the caged predator for five minutes. Then, we replaced the cover on the refuge and removed the plastic container containing the *L. carinatus* from the experimental cage. After five minutes of habituation, we remotely uncovered the opening of the refuge and measured ‘time to initiation of exploration in a new environment’ as the interval of time for a lizard to poke its head out from the refuge after the cloth covering the refuge opening was removed –i.e., the time they took to start exploring the experimental cage. ‘Time exposed on the ground’ corresponded to the amount of time the lizard spent outside of the refuge before it either hid underneath the rocks or climbed onto the rocks or perch (Figure 1A). We assessed individual behaviors blindly with respect to the island from which the lizards were captured and the experimental island to which lizards were translocated. Our main aim was to assess if survival four months after translocation was associated with among-individual variation in these risk-taking behavioral traits.

Assessing the repeatability of inter-individual variation in behavior

Among-individual differences in both ‘time to initiation of exploration in a new environment’ and ‘time exposed on the ground’ have been shown to be repeatable in time and trials conducted in captivity are correlated with those conducted in their natural habitats (25). We assessed the repeatability of inter-individual variation on ‘time to initiation of exploration in a new environment’ as well as ‘time spent exposed on the ground’ in two ways. First, for all lizards included in the study, we tested if these behaviors were consistent when individuals were tested following the same experimental protocol without being exposed to *L. carinatus* at the beginning of the experiment. Second, we replicated this assay without the predator present in a subsample of 80 individuals. We used intra-class correlation coefficient scores to quantify within-individual repeatability in behavior among experiments. We computed these scores using the ‘icc’ function from the *irr* R package (36). Both of these comparisons are significantly repeatable (Table S1).

Although ‘time *initiation of exploration in a new environment*’ and ‘time exposed on the ground’ are weakly and negatively correlated (Pearson’s $Rho = -0.22$, $p = 0.001$), this correlation is driven by mean differences in behavior between males and females (i.e., within-sex correlations are not significant, females: $Rho = -0.16$, $p = 0.093$; males: $R = -0.21$, $p = 0.052$).

Measuring morphology and individually tagging lizards

After finishing all behavioral assays, we used a portable X-ray machine to obtain high-resolution images of the skeletal bones of all individuals included in the study (Figure 1B). We anesthetized anoles with the inhalable anesthetic Isoflurane, which has been widely used in studies of *Anolis* lizards. To quantify morphological variation from X-ray images, we used Object J – a plug-in for Image J software (37). Based on previous ecomorphological studies of selection in *Anolis sagrei* (22, 38), we focused our analyses on SVL and relative hindlimb length. Relative hindlimb length was computed from the residuals of a log-log regression of SVL (a measure of body size) and total hindlimb length (which was computed by adding up the lengths of the femur, tibia, metatarsus, and longest toe). Because allometric relationships differ between sexes, we computed residuals separately for males and females. We only found a weak association showing that larger males spent more time on the ground after being exposed to a predator (Pearson’s $Rho = 0.21$; $p = 0.02$). Thus, body size was included in all models assessing survival, but it was never significant in the case of males (see main text). We measured body condition of males and females separately both before and four months after translocation as $\log(\text{body mass in grams}) / \log(\text{SVL in mm})$. While anoles were still anesthetized, we tagged them individually using two 3 mm subcutaneous alpha tags, one on each hindlimb, and each one having a unique alphanumeric code. We adopted this redundancy to prevent the loss of a tag causing us to misidentify an individual. Some of the individuals captured (12 %) had lost one of their tags. A small scar was visible when a tag was lost. We only captured one untagged *A. sagrei*. This was a female from the one only island hosting a few *A. sagrei* before experimental translocation (island #8, see below). Since this individual did not have any visible scars on its hindlimbs, we believe we were able to correctly identify all of the translocated individuals in this experiment. We assessed morphology blindly with respect to the identity of the island of capture and the island to which each lizard was translocated.

Description of the experimental islands

In the spring of 2016, we searched for islands of suitable size and vegetation structure to conduct our translocation experiment. Our experimental islands are interspersed between islands that

currently contain *A. sagrei* populations and others that contain populations of both *A. sagrei* and *L. carinatus*. Island populations of *A. sagrei* and *L. carinatus* in the study area regularly experience a natural colonization–extinction–re-colonization process. Hurricanes have occurred in the area in recent times and have caused local extinctions of lizards on these small islands (32). In fact, most small islands in the study area formerly had *A. sagrei* populations, but a hurricane in 2012 wiped out many of them. Our experiment therefore simulates a natural process in the study system. We set up eight experimental islands onto which we translocated a total of 273 adult *Anolis sagrei*: on four of these islands we translocated only *A. sagrei* lizards (Fig. S1), whereas on the other four islands we additionally introduced the ground predator *Leiocephalus carinatus* (Fig. S1). Two of our experimental islands (island #1 and #8) hosted small *A. sagrei* populations before our experiment started. To reduce lizard numbers on island #1 and #8 and ensure densities were similar across experimental islands, we intensively captured lizards from these islands. We removed all known lizards from island #1 and almost all (estimate > 90% according to recapture-rate curves) from island #8, and we used these lizards for our experiment, although they were never introduced onto their island of origin. To realistically sample the extant phenotypic variation in our study area, half of the translocated *A. sagrei* came from source islands that had populations of *L. carinatus*, whereas half of them came from predator-free islands. Each experimental island received lizards in equal proportion from both types of source islands.

Vegetation sampling of experimental islands

Before translocation, we measured vegetation structure following Kolbe et al. (32) (see Table S2) to ensure that islands in each experimental treatment were balanced in terms of vegetated area and vegetation structure. We placed a measuring tape along the longest axis of the island. Then, we defined perpendicular transects every two meters along the main axis. We measured maximum vegetation height and diameter every two meters along these perpendicular transects (the highest and widest perches on a 50 cm radius were measured at each sampling spot). Mean vegetated area averaged 164.4 m², varying from 73 to 240 m², whereas mean island vegetation height and perch diameter averaged 59.7 (range 40.1 – 86.0) and 2.1 cm (range 1.7 – 3.1), respectively (Table S2). In every sampling spot, we also reported whether there was any vegetation cover or not. We built a PCA pooling data on vegetation height, diameter, and vegetated area for each island (Table S2). We established four pairs of most similar islands according to the scores of PC1 and then randomly assigned one island in each pair to the predator treatment and the other island was the predator-free control. The number of *A. sagrei* individuals

released on experimental islands was significantly correlated with the scores from PC1 for each island (Pearson's correlation coefficient = 0.73; $p < 0.05$).

Releasing lizards onto the experimental islands

Before translocation, we ensured that our experimental islands did not host *A. sagrei* populations by having two experienced researchers visit each experimental island at three different times of the day on at least three different days. To ensure lizards had recovered from the anesthetic, we released them onto the experimental islands at least one day after they had been measured. [Table S2](#) provides details on the number of lizards released on each of the experimental islands. We released *L. carinatus* lizards at least five days after the last anoles were translocated to allow them to habituate to their new islands and potentially establish territories. We introduced two or three *L. carinatus* of recorded SVL depending on the number of anoles introduced on each island. We introduced one *L. carinatus* for every ~11 anoles, a slightly lower ratio than in previous *L. carinatus* experimental introductions to minimize the chances of extinction of *A. sagrei* population extinctions. Male:female sex-ratio of translocated lizards on the experimental islands was 0.46, close to our aimed ratio of 0.50.

Recapturing lizards from experimental islands four months after experimental translocation

In October 2016, we exhaustively recaptured adult lizards from each of our eight experimental islands. We estimated selection after four months to maximize statistical power. Based on previous studies (e.g. (22)), we predicted that mortality by this time would allow us to detect selection differences, but not so high that patterns would be obscured by excessive mortality. We recaptured a total of 122 adult anoles, which represents 44.5 % of the translocated individuals. We estimated the proportion of lizards that survived on each island as the proportion of individually tagged lizards that were recaptured after four months. We visited islands at least five independent times on different days or until we did not catch new lizards for at least two consecutive visits, except for two islands on which we captured one individual during the second-to-last visit (mean of 5.12 visits to each island over the course of 10 days; [Table S5](#); [Fig S6](#)). Each visit consisted of two hours of effective catching time by two team members—except for the last visited, which lasted one hour. All islands were visited during morning, midday, and afternoon times. We identified lizards from the individual alphanumeric codes of their subcutaneous alpha tags. Predators were present on all “predator” experimental islands when we recaptured *A. sagrei* four months after translocation.

Statistical analyses

Mixed-effects models: testing the association of both inter-individual variation in behavior and morphology with survival

To assess which factors affected survival of *A. sagrei* on our experimental islands, we used mixed effects models using the ‘glmer’ function in the *lme4* R package (39). Survival was modeled following a binomial distribution: animals were either dead (not recaptured) or alive (recaptured) four months after experimental translocation. Because intrinsic characteristics of each individual island could potentially affect survival irrespective of the experimental treatment, we included island ID as a random effect in all models. We assessed whether and how experimental treatment (predator-free vs. predator), sex (females vs. males), morphology (body size and size corrected hindlimb length), and behavior (time to initiation of exploration and exposed time on the ground) affected survival by including them as fixed factors in the models. Since interactions between behavioral and morphological traits were not significant, they were excluded from the final models. Models including both the identity of the island of origin and whether or not it contained predators did not contribute to explaining survival when individual-level variation data were included in the model. Therefore, these effects were dropped from the final reduced mixed-models. Because mortality differed between experimental treatments and sexes differ in body shape and behavioral traits, results are shown for each sex separately for simplification (as was done in a previous natural selection experiment in our study system (22)). Continuous variables were log-transformed before including them in the model. Relative hindlimb length was the product of regressing log-transformed hindlimb length by log-transformed SVL (snout-vent length, a measure of body length). Residuals were obtained for males and females separately because the slopes of this regression differ between sexes. All statistical analyses are two-tailed unless otherwise stated.

Model selection

We used AIC model selection criteria using backward stepwise factor elimination to obtain the best models to explain survival for each sex in each experimental treatment. We drew conclusions from those factors that significantly affected the survival of lizards in the best models. Residuals from these models were normally distributed and output from these models is reported in [Table 1](#) and [Table S4](#). To further confirm which of our candidate models best explains survival for each sex in each experimental treatment, we computed Akaike weights for all possible model combinations including factors that were statistically significant in the models. Akaike weights represent the relative likelihood of each of these models to be the best at explaining variation in

the dependent variable. We used the ‘weights’ function in the MuMIn package. In all cases, we found strong evidence (weights > 0.90) that the most favored model was the one including both behavioral and morphological traits in the model, and the favored model included inter-individual variation in behavior in > 0.95 of the cases for significant models.

Computing and representing survival curves in association with inter-individual variation in behavior

To represent graphically the association between survival and each behavioral and morphological trait, we used cubic splines based on generalized additive models using the gam R package (40). These models estimate a function that relates survival to each of the continuous variables (i.e., behavioral traits and morphology). Following Schluter (41), to maximize the predictability of the fitted model, we chose a smoothing parameter that minimizes the generalized cross validation score. We used a link='logit' function because our survival data follow a binary response.

Estimating the relative importance of behavioral vs. morphological traits for survival

We used the “rsq.partial” function from ‘rsq’ R package (Zang 2017) to compute the coefficient of partial determination (R^2) for each of the significant factors of the best mixed-effects models. In our case, the partial R^2 corresponds to the proportion of total variation in survival that can be attributed to a given factor (e.g. behavior or morphology) while simultaneously excluding the effects of the other factors from the model.

Depletion models to estimate population sizes on the studied populations

Our survival data rely on the recapture of individuals on the experimental islands. To estimate the probability that we missed animals that were actually present and alive on the islands, we used a depletion model. We used the function “deplet” in the R package “fishmethods” (Nelson 2014) to estimate population sizes from our catch-effort depletion data (Table S5; Figure S6). To estimate population size, these models take into account both the linear decrease in captures as well as the capturing effort during each capture session (Table S5). We used a Leslie depletion estimator (Leslie and Davis 1939) and these models assumed our experimental islands are closed populations. Depletion models estimated an overall population size of *A. sagrei* combining all islands of $n = 124$. During our recapture sessions, we captured a total of 122 marked *A. sagrei*, which represents **98.4%** of all lizards estimated to be alive on our experimental islands. Specifically, population estimates were exactly the same number of lizards captured on 6 of our

eight experimental islands, whereas one more *A. sagrei* than the number captured was estimated to be present on two other islands—in both cases these were predator-free islands ([Table S5](#)).

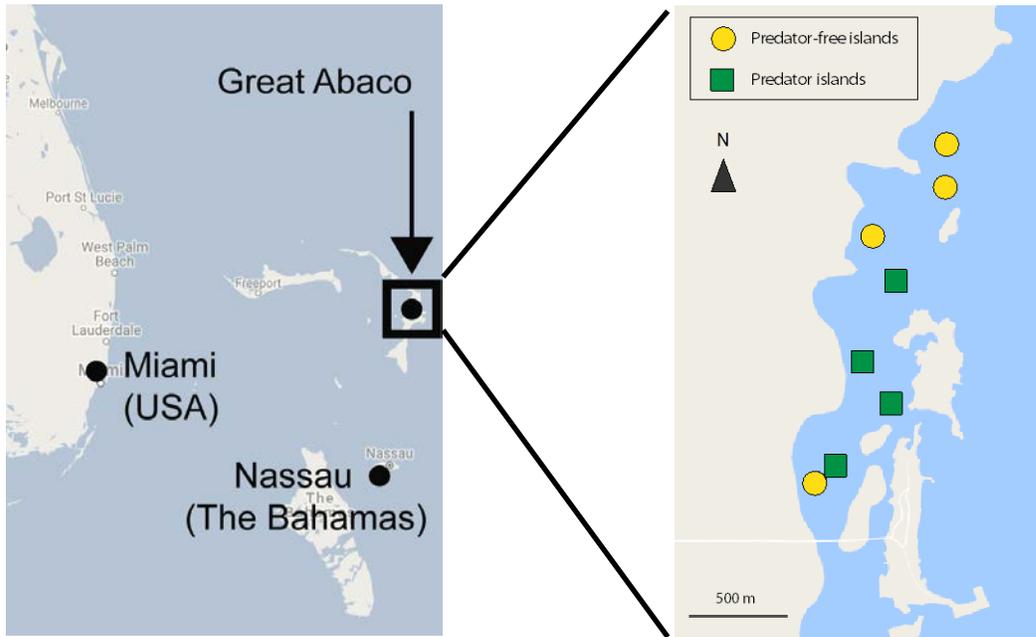


Figure S1

Spatial distribution of our eight experimental islands along the east coast of Great Abaco, Bahamas.

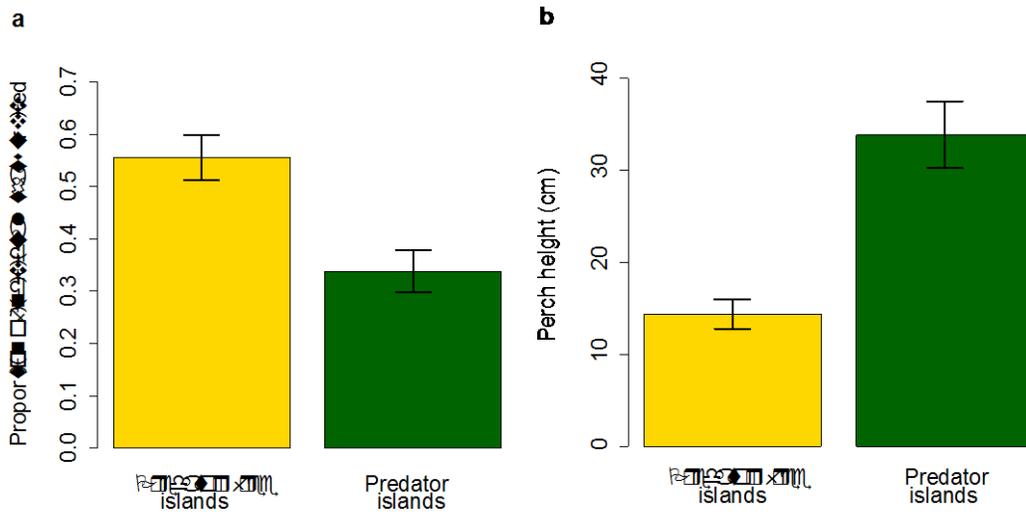


Figure S2

Comparison of survival and habitat use of *A. sagrei* between predator-free and predator islands four months after experimental translocation. **a)**, Mean survival differed between experimental treatments. **b)**, Mean perch height also differed between experimental treatments. Error bars indicate +/- 1 SEM.

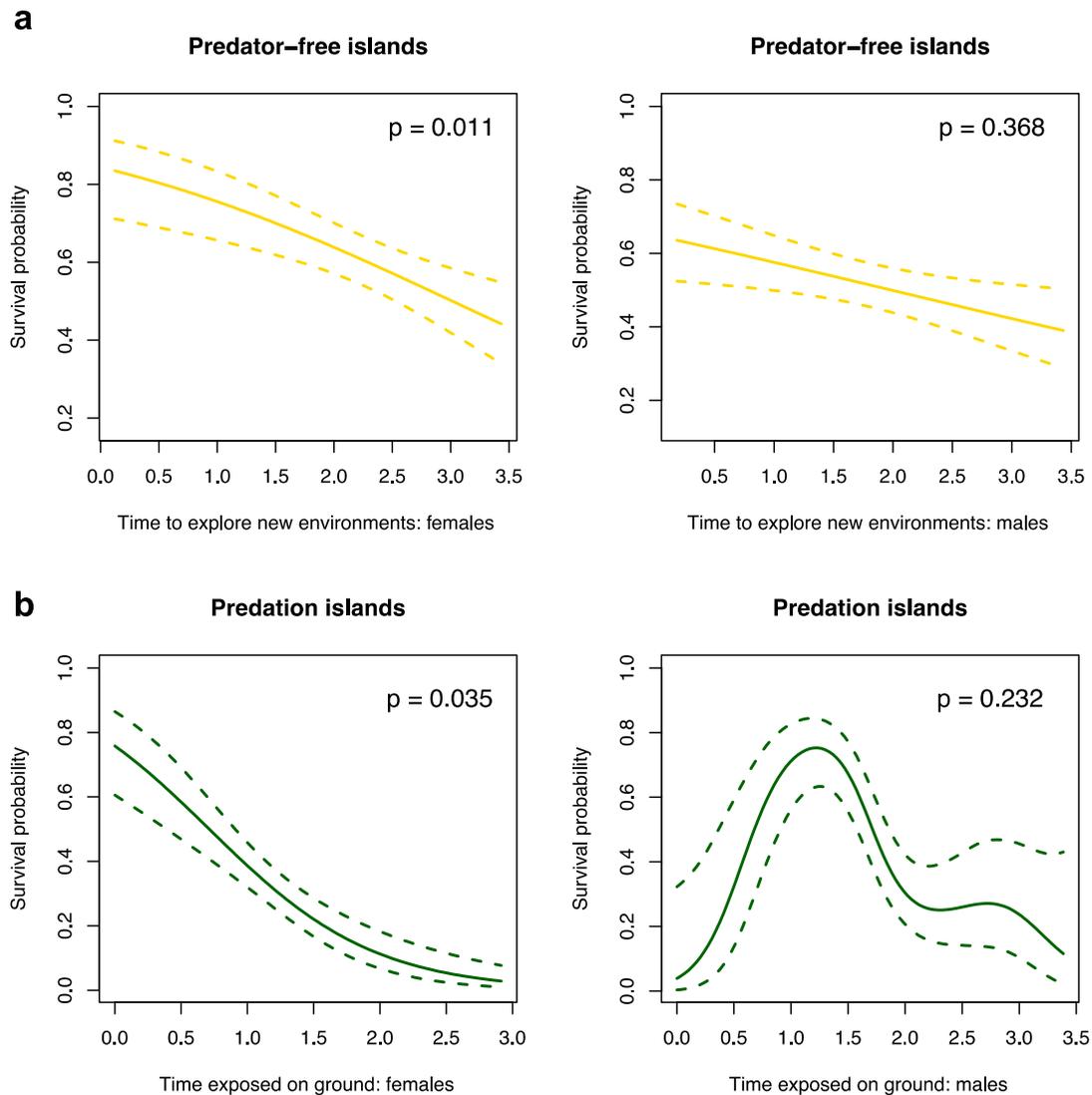


Figure S3A

Representation of natural selection on variation on a) time to initiation of exploration in a new environments and b) time exposed on the ground are represented for females and males separately. Time is represented in log(minutes). Solid lines represent the fitted model logistic regression and dashed lines are the 95% confidence intervals. Among-individual variation in risk-taking significantly predicts survival of *A. sagrei* individuals in the presence of *L. carinatus* (right) but not on predator-free islands (left). Those females that remained exposed on the ground for longer periods in experimental trials had lower survival on predation islands, whereas this behavioral trait was not associated with survival on predator-free islands. Indicated p-values were obtained from mixed models including both morphological and behavioral traits (Table 1).

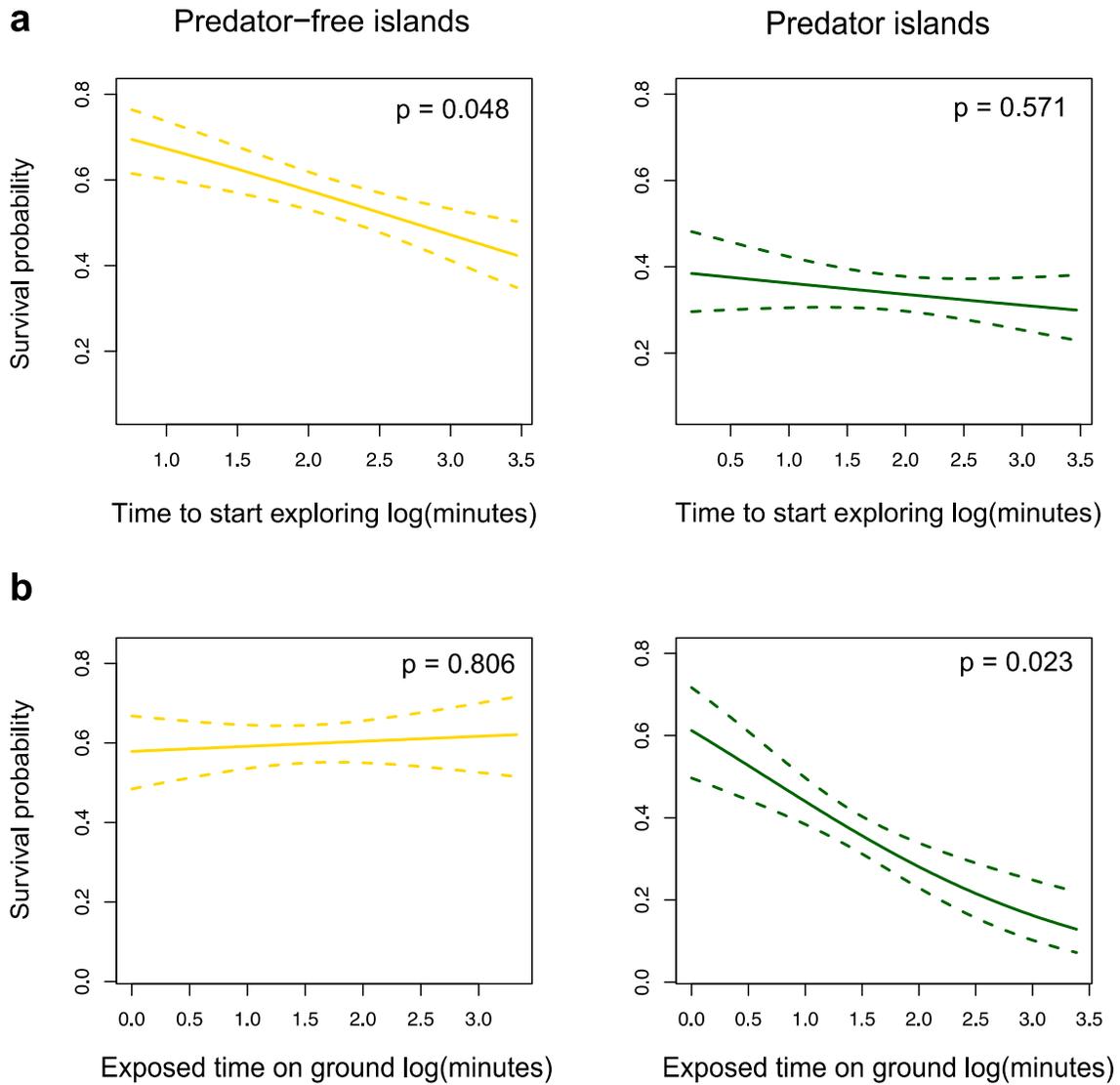


Figure S3B

Effects of time to initiation of exploration in a new environment and time exposed on the ground for *A. sagrei* survival on predator-free vs. predator islands. This figure presents data for both sexes combined. Solid lines represent the fitted model logistic regression and dashed lines represent the 95% confidence intervals. **a**, Inter-individual variation in the willingness to initiate exploration in new environments significantly predicts survival of *A. sagrei* individuals on predator-free islands (upper left), but not in the presence of the ground predator *L. carinatus* (upper right). **b**, In contrast, exposed time on the ground is not associated with survival on predator-free islands (lower left), but individuals that remained exposed on the ground for longer periods during experimental trials had lower survival on predator islands (lower right). When

conducting analyses pooling both sexes together, the directional patterns of selection on time exposed on the ground (i.e., the slope describing the association between survival and the behavioral trait) significantly differed between experimental treatments, whereas the patterns on time to initiation of exploration did not (see [Table S3](#)). This implies that, although selection for decreased time to initiation of exploration is only significant on predator-free islands, the patterns of selection do not differ significantly in the presence or absence of ground predators.

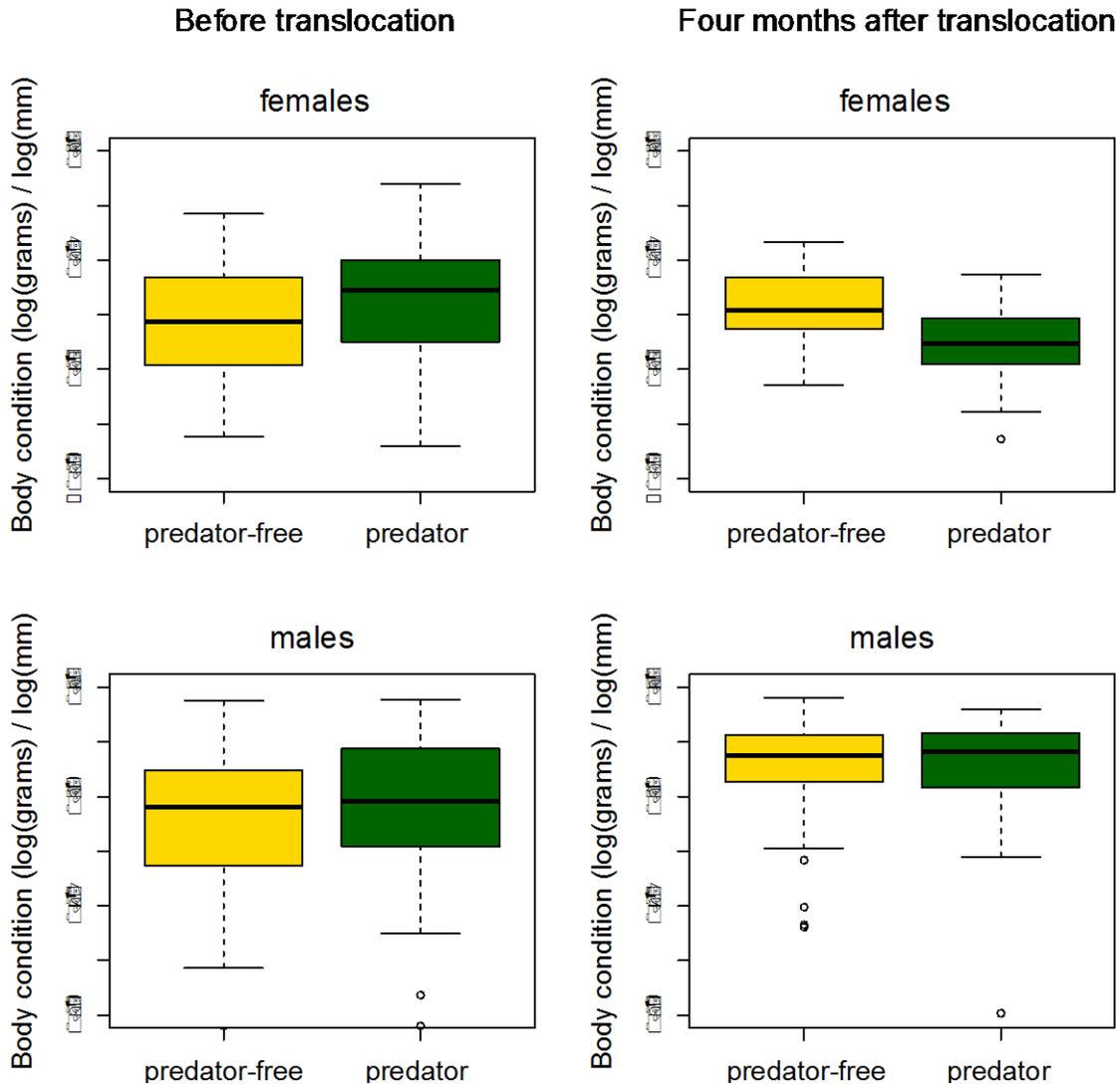


Figure S4

Body condition of males and females before and four months after translocation. Four months after experimental translocation, females on predation islands were in worse body condition [i.e. defined as $\log(\text{body mass in grams}) / \log(\text{SVL in mm})$] than those translocated to predator-free islands ($t = 4.22$, $p < 0.001$), a difference that did not exist before translocation ($t = -1.23$, $p\text{-value} = 0.22$). Males on different treatments did not differ in their body condition ($t = 0.08$, $p = 0.93$), and they did not differ before translocation either ($t = -0.80$, $p = 0.43$).

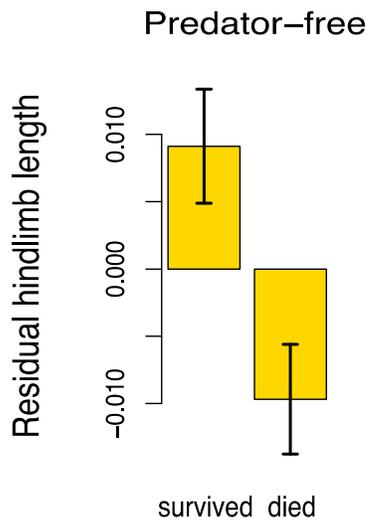


Figure S5

Mean \pm 1 s.e. of the residual hindlimb length of *A. sagrei* adult females that survived vs. died on predator-free and predator islands. Four months after experimental translocation, females with relatively longer hindlimbs survived better than shorter-limbed ones on predator-free islands ($p = 0.002$ from a generalized linear mixed model also including significant behavioral traits behavior, left) whereas we did not find a significant effect of hindlimb length on survival on predator islands ($p = 0.26$, right).

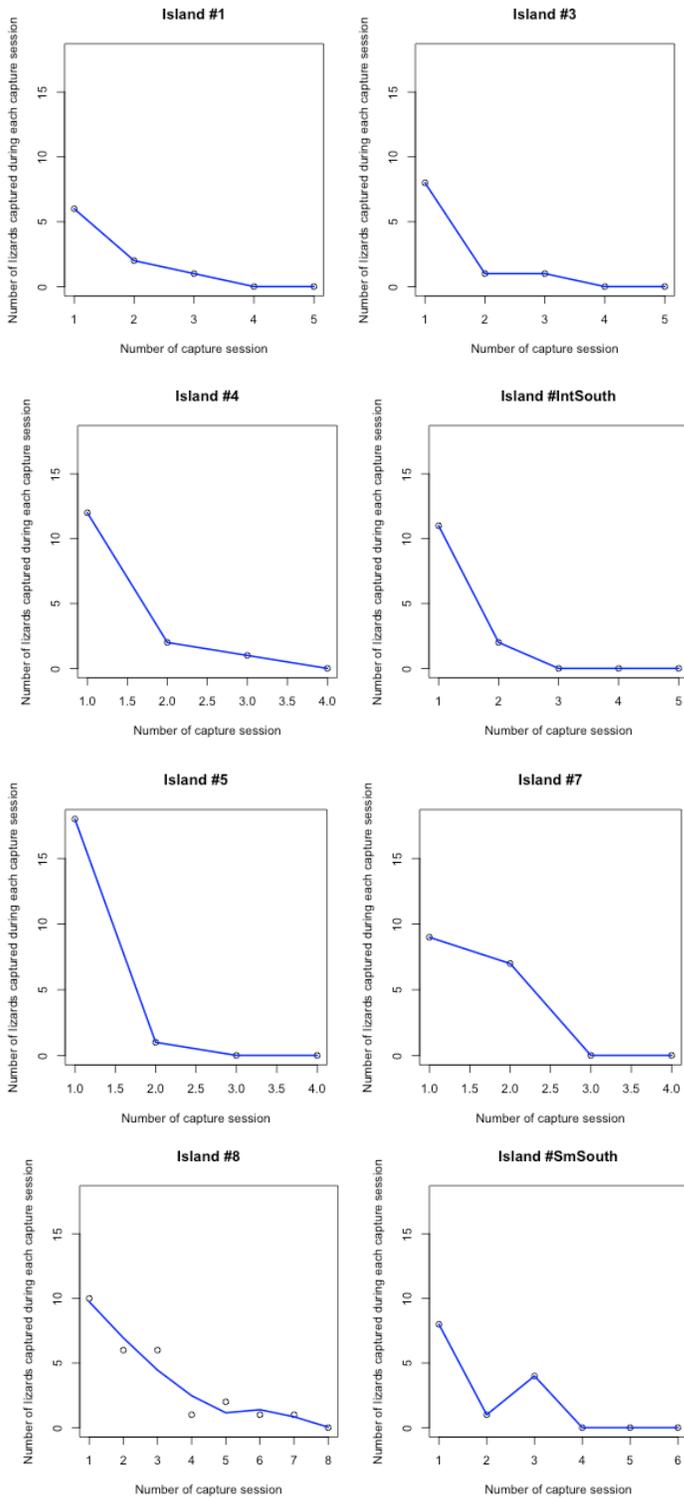


Figure S6

Number of new lizards captured during each recapture session on each experimental island. The four predator islands are represented above while the four predator-free ones are below.

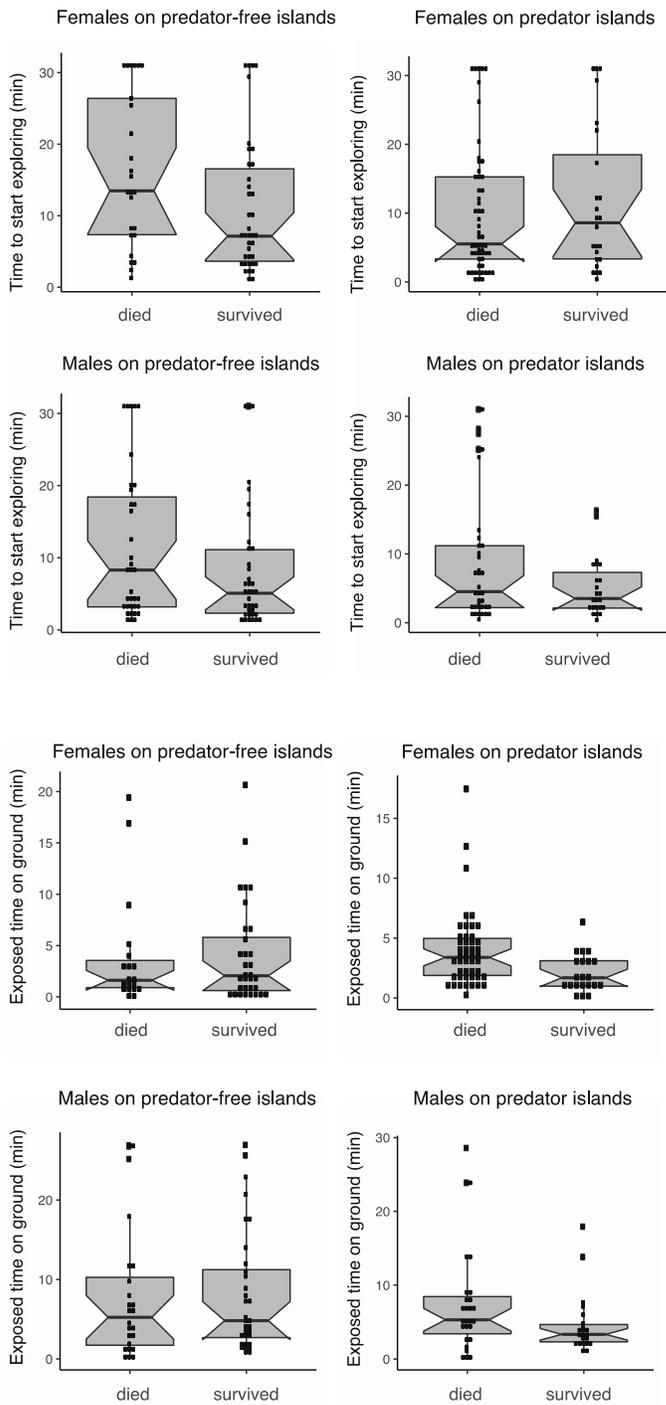


Figure S7

Distribution of the scores of behavioral tests for time to initiation of exploration (top panel) and time exposed on the ground (bottom panel). Plots show differences between survivors and individuals that died and data are depicted separately for males and females.

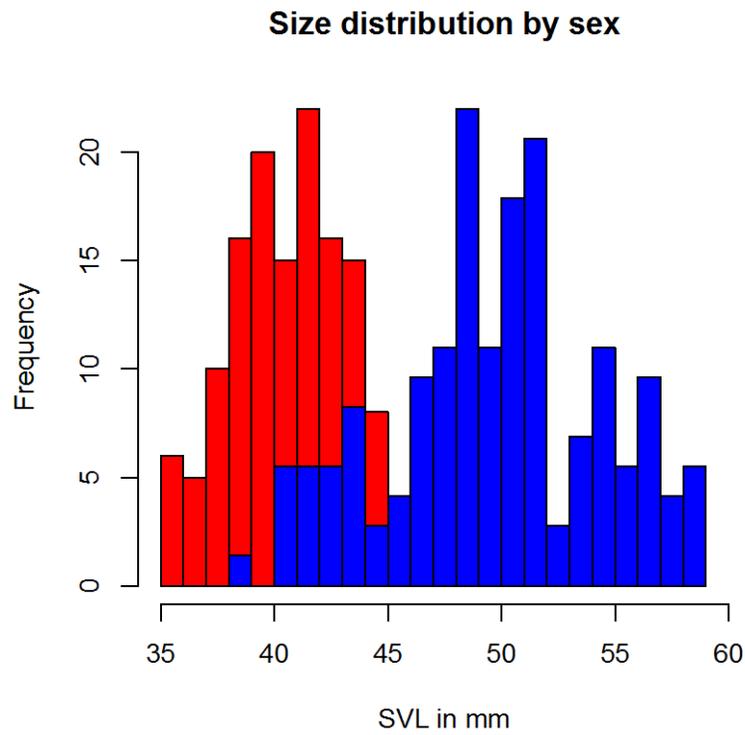


Figure S8

Size distribution for females (red) and males (blue) included in the translocation study. Size was measured as snout-vent length (SVL) from X-ray images.

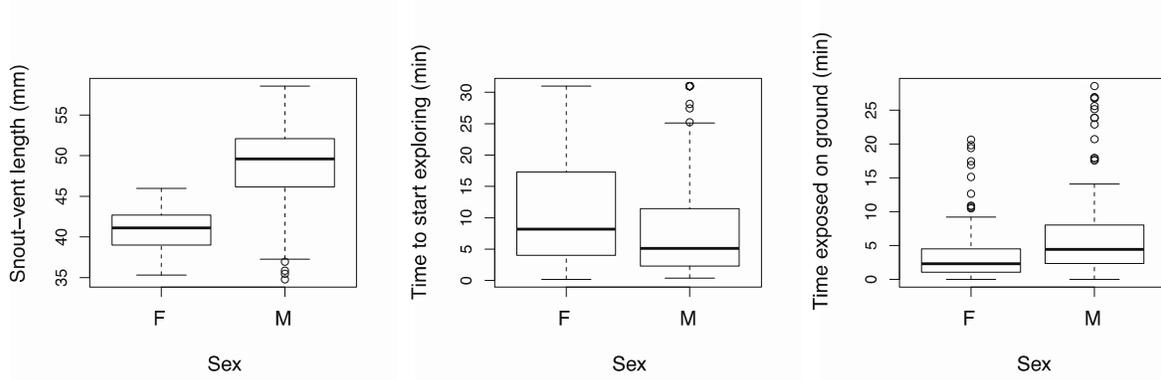


Figure S9

Average phenotypic differences between sexes before experimental translocation onto the experimental islands. *Anolis sagrei* is a sexually dimorphic species (Kruskal-Wallis test: Chi Sq=134.97; $p < 0.0001$). In addition, female *A. sagrei* took more time to initiation of exploration in a new environment than males (Kruskal-Wallis test: Chi Sq=921.98; $p < 0.0001$). Females also spent less time on the ground than males (Kruskal-Wallis test: Chi Sq=7.94; $p = 0.005$).

Table S1

Intra-class correlation coefficient scores describing the within-individual repeatability of log-transformed behavioral traits. ICCs represent the repeatability scores from comparisons of ‘time to initiation of exploration’ and ‘exposed time on the ground’ between different experiments: a) ‘Repeated trials’ represents a test of repeatability between a first experimental session conducted following (25) and a repetition of the same experiment on a different experimental day. b) ‘Trials with vs. without *Leiocephalus*’ represents a test of repeatability between two consecutive trials conducted with and without experimentally presenting a ground predator *L. carinatus* at the beginning of the experiment. We estimated ICC scores using the ‘icc’ function from the *irr* R package (36). The repeated trial was conducted on a subsample of individuals (n = 80). Sample sizes for time exposed on the ground were smaller than for time to initiation of exploration because those lizards that did not emerge from the refuge could not be assigned a score for time on the ground. Finally, note that sample size for the comparison of trials conducted with and without presenting a *L. carinatus* ground predator to experimental *A. sagrei* was larger than the number of lizards translocated onto experimental islands. This lower number resulted because some of the individuals for which we conducted behavioral experiments were randomly excluded from the translocation experiment due to limitations on the carrying capacity of islands, which was estimated based on previous studies in this system (22).

	ICC score	ICC range	p-value	n
<i>Time to initiation of exploration</i>				
a) Repeated trials	0.387	0.184 < ICC < 0.559	0.00018	79
b) Trials with vs. without <i>Leiocephalus</i>	0.278	0.170 < ICC < 0.379	<0.00001	298
<i>Exposed time on ground</i>				
a) Repeated trials	0.505	0.243 < ICC < 0.699	0.00025	42
b) Trials with vs. without <i>Leiocephalus</i>	0.402	0.272 < ICC < 0.517	<0.00001	180

Table S2

Mean vegetation height, vegetation diameter and total vegetated area for each of the experimental islands include in the study (top Table). PC1 and PC2 indicate correspond to the first two principal components from a PCA including these three vegetation characteristics. Numbers of lizards translocated onto each experimental island (bottom Table).

Island ID	Mean vegetation height (cm)	Mean vegetation diameter (cm)	Vegetated area (m ²)	PC1	PC2
#1	59.06	2.25	104	0.33115	0.77911
#3	71.20	1.83	103	0.34640	0.24728
#4	53.57	2.39	211	-0.06968	0.23811
#5	53.91	1.68	73	1.52900	0.08355
#7	63.53	2.13	240	-0.30799	-0.26817
#8	86.00	3.08	180	-2.48969	1.74046
#Int_south	60.86	1.66	150	0.84536	-0.46188
#Small_south	40.07	2.05	124	1.44915	0.19516

Island ID	N of lizards released		
	Males	Females	Total
#1	17	19	36
#3	12	19	31
#4	17	19	36
#5	16	16	32
#7	17	15	32
#8	21	19	40
Int_south	14	22	36
Small_south	17	13	30

Table S3

A. sagrei originally captured from islands with *L. carinatus* present did not have significantly higher chances of surviving on experimental islands with this predator (p-values indicated in the figure derive from a Pearson's Chi Square test using a Yates correction for binomial response variables). However, females—but not males—originally captured on islands with *L. carinatus* present had on average higher chances of surviving on experimental islands with this predator than females from predator-free islands (0.39 vs. 0.23). In addition, our mixed models revealed that individual variation in behavior was a better predictor than island of origin. Males originally captured on predator-free islands on average survived more on predator-free islands than males captured on predator islands (0.61 vs. 0.42); however, this pattern was not statistically significant.

	Type of island of origin	Type of island translocated	Proportion surviving	Pearson's Chi-Square	p-value
Females	Predator-free islands	Predator absent	0.59	~0	~1
		Predator present	0.61		
	Predator islands	Predator absent	0.23	1.59	0.21
		Predator present	0.39		
Males	Predator-free islands	Predator absent	0.61	2	0.16
		Predator present	0.42		
	Predator islands	Predator absent	0.38	~0	~1
		Predator present	0.39		

Table S4

Mixed-effects models examining the association between behavioral traits and survival, which is binomially distributed. For these analyses, we pooled males and females together and included experimental treatment as a fixed factor and island identity as a random factor.

Time to initiation of exploration (n =273)				
	Estimate	SE	z	p-value
(Intercept)	1.14	0.50	2.3	0.022
Random effects				
Island of translocation	0	0	-	-
Fixed effects				
Time to initiation of exploration	-0.42	0.21	-1.97	0.048
Experimental treatment	-1.59	0.66	-2.42	0.015
Time to initiation of exploration * Experimental treatment	0.30	0.29	1.03	0.302
Time exposed on the ground (n = 224)				
	Estimate	SE	z	p-value
(Intercept)	0.32	0.38	0.83	0.405
Random effects				
Island of translocation	0	0	-	-
Fixed effects				
Time exposed on ground	0.05	0.21	0.25	0.805
Experimental treatment	0.14	0.61	0.23	0.800
Time exposed on ground * Experimental treatment	-0.75	0.37	-2.01	0.045

Table S5

Number of unmarked *A. sagrei* lizards captured during each consecutive capture session. These numbers were used for computing depletion models to estimate population sizes on each experimental island. All visits correspond to the capture effort of two expert lizard catchers during two hours except for the last visit to each of the islands, which consisted of a one-hour visit. ‘NA’ indicates the islands was no longer visited for recaptures. ‘P’ refers to a predator present experimental treatment and ‘PF’ corresponds to islands on a predator-free experimental treatment. Table below indicates the number of lizards estimated to be present on the islands by the depletion model as compared with the number of lizards actually captured on each of these islands.

Island ID	Predator present	Visit 1	Visit 2	Visit 3	Visit 4	Visit 5	Visit 6	Visit 7	Visit 8
1	P	6	2	1	0	0	NA	NA	NA
3	P	8	1	1	0	0	NA	NA	NA
4	P	12	2	1	0	NA	NA	NA	NA
IntS	P	11	2	0	0	0	NA	NA	NA
5	PF	18	1	0	0	NA	NA	NA	NA
7	PF	9	7	0	0	NA	NA	NA	NA
8	PF	10	6	6	1	2	1	1	0
SmS	PF	8	1	4	0	0	0	NA	NA

Island ID	Predator present	Number of lizards estimated	Number of lizards captured
1	P	9	9
3	P	10	10
4	P	15	15
IntS	P	13	13
5	PF	19	19
7	PF	17	16
8	PF	28	27
SmS	PF	13	13

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