Beyond the Last Glacial Maximum: Island endemism is best explained by long-lasting archipelago configurations


Abstract

Aim: To quantify the influence of past archipelago configuration on present-day insular biodiversity patterns, and to compare the role of long-lasting archipelago configurations over the Pleistocene to configurations of short duration such as at the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM) and the present-day.

Location: 53 volcanic oceanic islands from 12 archipelagos worldwide—Azores, Canary Islands, Cook Islands, Galápagos, Gulf of Guinea, Hawaii, Madeira, Mascarenes, Pitcairn, Revillagigedo, Samoan Islands and Tristan da Cunha.

Time period: The last 800 kyr, representing the nine most recent glacial–interglacial cycles.

Major taxa studied: Land snails and angiosperms.

Methods: Species richness data for land snails and angiosperms were compiled from existing literature and species checklists. We reconstructed archipelago configurations at the following sea levels: the present-day high interglacial sea level, the intermediate sea levels that are representative of the Pleistocene and the low sea levels of the LGM. We fitted two alternative linear mixed models for each archipelago configuration using the number of single-island endemic, multiple-island endemic and (non-endemic) native species as a response. Model performance was assessed based on the goodness-of-fit of the full model, the variance explained by archipelago configuration and model parsimony.

Results: Single-island endemic richness in both taxonomic groups was best explained by intermediate palaeo-configuration (positively by area change, and negatively by palaeo-connectedness), whereas non-endemic native species richness was poorly explained by palaeo-configuration. Single-island endemic richness was better explained...
INTRODUCTION

Oceanic islands are among the most dynamic systems in the world: they emerge and submerge; they shrink and expand; and they split and merge. Changes in island geography and archipelago configuration are shaped by geological processes (e.g., plate tectonics, island ontogeny and within-island volcanism) and sea-level fluctuations (Fernández-Palacios et al., 2016). These sea-level fluctuations, driven by glacial–interglacial cycles over the Pleistocene, have influenced all archipelagos and their constituent islands simultaneously. During glacial periods, sea levels were low and archipelago configurations were often very different: islands had larger surface areas than at present, with some islands fused into larger islands. For example, the Hawaiian islands of Maui, Molokai and Lanai have repeatedly merged to form a single landmass (the Maui Nui complex; Price, 2004). Islands were also less isolated, with their larger areas reducing inter-island distance and with emerging sea mounts forming stepping stones for dispersal (Ali & Aitchison, 2014; Pinheiro et al., 2017; Rijsdijk et al., 2014). In contrast to these glacial periods, during interglacial high sea-level stands islands were smaller and further apart, as some islands were submerged and palaeo-islands fragmented. Glacial–interglacial cycles have followed a recurrent pattern over the Pleistocene with glacial periods spanning a much longer duration than interglacials (Figure 1). Therefore, for most of the Pleistocene, sea levels were lower than today, corresponding to larger and less isolated islands.

It has long been suggested that past archipelago configurations during lower sea levels have influenced the distribution and evolution of insular biota (Heaney, 1985; Mayr, 1944). Recently, attempts have been made to quantify this relationship (Ali & Aitchison, 2014; Fernández-Palacios, 2016; Heaney, Walsh, & Peterson, 2005; Papadopoulou & Knowles, 2017; Rijsdijk, Hengl, Norder, Ávila, & Fernández-Palacios, 2013; Rijsdijk et al., 2014; Weigelt, Steinbauer, Cabral, & Kreft, 2016). However, as Heaney, Balete, and Rickart (2013) noted, emphasis has been on the relatively short-lasting configuration prevailing during the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM) (e.g., Weigelt et al., 2016). The LGM refers to an exceptional and extreme situation (at approximately 21 ka) of maximum sea-level fall within only the most recent glacial–interglacial cycle of the nine cycles occurring over the last 800 kyr. Even when summing up the duration by intermediate archipelago configurations than by the archipelago configurations of the LGM or present-day.

Main conclusions: Archipelago configurations at intermediate sea levels—which are representative of the Pleistocene—have left a stronger imprint on single-island endemic richness patterns on volcanic oceanic islands than extreme archipelago configurations that persisted for only a few thousand years (such as the LGM). In understanding ecological and evolutionary dynamics of insular biota it is essential to consider longer-lasting environmental conditions, rather than extreme situations alone.

KEYWORDS
archipelago configuration, biotic interchange, endemism, flowering plants, glacial–interglacial cycles, land snails, late Quaternary, past environmental change, sea-level oscillations, volcanic oceanic islands
of all glacial maxima over the last 800 kyr, together they would constitute only about 2% of the time elapsed (Figure 1). The duration of these glacial maxima may have been insufficient to shape the assembly of island biotas and especially their endemic component. Similarly, Porter (1989) asked whether short-lasting extremes such as the LGM and the current interglacial might have received undue attention, and recognized the important role of average Quaternary conditions in landscape evolution and geomorphology. The cyclic nature of Pleistocene sea-level fluctuations leads to alternating periods of island separation and connection, and of shrinking and expanding island areas. Some of these periods lasted longer than others, and some sea-level stands occurred repeatedly, while others were more exceptional (Figure 1). Although Porter (1989) suggested the potential relevance of intermediate Pleistocene conditions for understanding biogeographical patterns, we are unaware of any study so far that has quantitatively analysed their relationship. Given that both LGM and current interglacial situations are exceptional and short lasting, it seems important to explore the extent to which present-day distributions of insular biota reflect past environmental conditions that are more representative of the Pleistocene.

Climatic and environmental fluctuations over the Pleistocene affected the extinction, speciation, fragmentation, merging and population size of biota (Blois, Zarnetske, Fitzpatrick, & Finnegan, 2013; Dynesius & Jansson, 2002; Hofreiter & Stewart, 2009). However, the rates of biogeographical processes shaping island biota during Pleistocene climatic fluctuations varied over time and across taxa (Knowles, 2001a, 2001b; Shepard & Burbrink, 2009; Willis & Niklas, 2004). To complicate matters further, the patterns of island endemism that we observe today might have been shaped by past biotic and abiotic regimes that are difficult to distinguish in retrospect (Figure 2). Despite the difficulty in making generalized statements about the prime response of biota to glacial–interglacial cycles, it is unambiguous that present-day biota consist of a large proportion of species (native and endemic) that have survived several glacial and interglacial periods (Hewitt, 2000; Webb & Bartlein, 1992). Present-day insular species richness might therefore be considered to be the cumulative outcome of varying biogeographical processes operating during different periods in the past (cf. Waldron, 2010; Dynesius & Jansson, 2014).

Volcanic oceanic islands are isolated from continental landmasses and therefore receive few colonists. The corresponding low rate of genetic exchange results in a relatively large number of endemic species confined to a single island (single-island endemics, SIE), or to several islands within the same archipelago (multiple-island endemics, MIE). This contrasts with (non-endemic) native species (N), which also occur outside the archipelago. There are two reasons to suggest that the effect of palaeo-configuration on extant species will be stronger for endemics (especially SIE) than natives (N). First, endemics differ from natives (non-endemic) in their adaptation to the insular environment and archipelagic setting; endemic

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**FIGURE 1** Characterization of sea-level fluctuations over the last ~800 kyr at highest, intermediate and lowest sea levels. (a) Sea-level fluctuations over the nine most recent glacial–interglacial cycles covering the period of the last ~800 kyr. (b) The percentage of time over the last ~800 kyr that the sea level was below a certain sea level. (c) The most frequently occurring sea levels are quantified as the percentage of time over the last ~800 kyr that sea levels were within a certain interval [in 10-m bins, e.g., between −90 m mean sea level (MSL) and −80 m MSL]. The period of ~800 kyr was chosen because it spans nine full glacial–interglacial cycles (estimated duration of interglacials from Tzedakis et al., 2012). All figures are based on data from Bintanja et al. (2005).
species have frequently undergone a longer duration of insular evolution (Warren et al., 2015; Whittaker & Fernández-Palacios, 2007; Whittaker, Fernández-Palacios, Matthews, Borregaard, & Triantis, 2017) than non-endemic natives (N) and have therefore experienced glacial–interglacial cycles for a longer period (in the case of palaeo-endemics insular evolution was not the only process, but the idea of experiencing glacial–interglacial cycles for longer periods still applies). Second, taxa frequently exhibit high levels of endemism as a consequence of low levels of gene flow with neighbour ing landmasses (Kisel & Barraclough, 2010). Further, low gene flow is often a consequence of a low dispersal capacity. Such poor-dispersing taxa may be expected to be impacted more profoundly by changes in the geographical configuration of archipelagos than good dispersers (cf. Borges & Hortal, 2009). Such enhanced impact is due to the lower chances of successful colonization of another island and the narrower habitat availability within their dispersal range. However, the degree to which archipelago configuration influences patterns of endemic species richness probably differs among taxa [e.g., resulting from differences in dispersal capabilities (Claramunt, Derryberry, Remsen, & Brumfield, 2012), number of life cycles (Comes & Kadereit, 1998), population sizes and ecological requirements]. Because of their isolated nature and high levels of endemism, volcanic oceanic islands are excellent study systems for understanding the role of long-term geographical processes on speciation and species richness, such as glacial-interglacial changes in archipelago configuration (Warren et al., 2015).

Here, we explore to what extent the persistence and recurrence of different archipelago configurations have left an imprint on present-day species richness on oceanic islands of volcanic origin. Archipelago configuration refers to any combination of area and connectedness (or its antonym: isolation) of islands within the same archipelago (palaeo-configuration refers to an archipelago configuration in the past). We focus here exclusively on changes in archipelago configuration driven by sea-level fluctuations, which have affected all islands globally (Norder et al., 2018). Although island bathymetry is also shaped by geological processes (such as volcanic eruptions, uplift, subsidence and erosion), these are not the main focus of our analysis because they are highly island and archipelago specific (Triantis, Whittaker, Fernandez-Palacios, & Geist, 2016; Whittaker, Triantis, & Ladle, 2008). We restrict the analysis to volcanic oceanic islands to avoid the confounding effect of different abiotic conditions and archipelago configuration dynamics among other island types, such as archipelagos of atolls, land-bridge continental shelf islands and continental fragments (Ali, 2017; Fernández-Palacios et al., 2016; Warren, Strasberg, Bruggemann, Prys-Jones, & Thébaud, 2010; Whittaker & Fernández-Palacios, 2007). We focus on two contrasting taxa with generally good availability of data, land snails and angiosperms, because they differ in terms of dispersal capabilities, ecological requirements and endemism level (which, on volcanic oceanic islands, is much higher for land snails than for angiosperms; Groombridge, 1992; Whittaker & Fernández-Palacios, 2007). Specifically, we test three hypotheses, that: (a) the signal of palaeo-configuration is stronger for SIE than for those that have wider distributions (i.e., MIE and N); (b) for SIE, palaeo-configurations that are more representative of the Pleistocene, associated with intermediate sea levels, will have left a stronger signal than extreme configurations of a short duration (such as the LGM);
and (c) land snails will be more affected by past archipelago configurations than angiosperms because they have more restricted distributions and often have lower dispersal capabilities. We test all hypotheses against the classical expectation that present-day richness is best explained by current archipelago configuration.

2 | MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1 | Islands and archipelagos

In total, 53 volcanic oceanic islands representing 12 archipelagos (Azores, Canary Islands, Cook Islands, Galápagos, Gulf of Guinea, Hawaii, Madeira, Mascarenes, Pitcairn, Revillagigedo, Samoan Islands and Tristan da Cunha) were included. Our criteria for inclusion of an island were: (a) species data were available for both land snails and angiosperms; (b) islands are oceanic and of volcanic origin.

2.2 | Species richness data

Species richness data for land snails for each island of the dataset were compiled from existing literature and species checklists (references in Supporting Information Table S1). Infraspecific entities were grouped into their respective specific taxonomic rank. Species status was standardized based on MolluscaBase (2017; https://www.molluscabase.org). We considered only islands for which complete lists were available. Recorded extinct species were included in the dataset, while species presumed to be introduced were excluded (Cameron et al., 2013; Triantis, Rigal, et al., 2016). Land snails were classified according to chorotype (a group of species with their distribution restricted to a certain region; see Table 1 for an overview of chorotype acronyms) as: native non-endemic (N), multiple-island endemic (MIE) and single-island endemic (SIE).

Angiosperm richness data were obtained from Weigelt et al. (2016) for native non-endemics (N) and single-island endemics (SIE). Weigelt et al. (2016) also included angiosperm species endemic to past island units at a sea level of −122 m (PIE). In a similar way, land snail species endemic to past island units (PIE) at various sea levels (see below) were initially calculated. However, for both land snails and angiosperms, the correlation between SIE and palaeo-island endemics (PIE) was $r > 0.99$, suggesting that for oceanic islands of volcanic origin, this distinction does not provide additional insights (Supporting Information Tables S2 and S3). Therefore, we only consider present-day chorotypes (i.e., N, MIE and SIE classes, but not PIE) for further analysis.

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Acronym</th>
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<td>Land snails</td>
<td>Single-island endemic species richness</td>
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<tr>
<td>$\text{SIE}_P$</td>
<td>Angiosperms</td>
<td>Single-island endemic species richness</td>
<td>Weigelt et al. (2016)</td>
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<td>$\text{N}_S$</td>
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<td>$\text{N}_P$</td>
<td>Angiosperms</td>
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<td>$\text{MIE}_S$</td>
<td>Land snails</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Highest</td>
<td>Archipelago configuration model based on the present-day sea level, consisting of only current area (CA)</td>
<td>(GADM; <a href="http://www.gadm.org/version1">http://www.gadm.org/version1</a>)</td>
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<tr>
<td>$\text{SLH}_{\text{CACI}}$</td>
<td>Highest</td>
<td>Archipelago configuration model based on the present-day sea level, consisting of CA and current isolation (CI)</td>
<td>(GADM; <a href="http://www.gadm.org/version1">http://www.gadm.org/version1</a>)</td>
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<td>$\text{SL}_{\text{MED}}$</td>
<td>Intermediate</td>
<td>Archipelago configuration model based on the median sea level of $\sim65$ m mean sea level (MSL), consisting of CA, delta area (dA) and palaeo-connectedness (PC)</td>
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<td>Lowest</td>
<td>Archipelago configuration model based on the sea level $\sim122$ m MSL, consisting of CA, dA and PC</td>
<td>Weigelt et al. (2016)</td>
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2.3 | Palaeo-configuration data

We considered three archipelago configurations (Figure 3; Table 1): (a) current configuration at the present-day high interglacial sea level (hereafter: “highest”) with small island area and small connectedness (i.e., large isolation); (b) palaeo-configuration at intermediate sea levels (hereafter: “intermediate”) with intermediate island area and connectedness; (c) palaeo-configuration at minimum sea level (hereafter: “lowest”) with largest island area and largest connectedness.

To represent long-term palaeo-configuration at intermediate sea levels (SLI), we calculated two alternative summary measures: SLI\textsubscript{FREQ} for the most recurrent, and SLI\textsubscript{MED} for the most persistent sea level. Both were calculated for the last nine full glacial-interglacial cycles using the estimated duration of interglacials from Tzedakis, Channell, Hodell, Kleiven, and Skinner (2012) and sea-level data from Bintanja, van de Wal, and Oerlemans (2005). Over these nine glacial-interglacial cycles (between 787.9 and 11.2 ka), sea levels between −90 m mean sea level (MSL) and −80 m MSL occurred most frequently (16% of the time sea levels were within this interval; Figure 1). We used the central value (−85 m) of this interval to represent the most frequent long-term sea level stand (SLI\textsubscript{FREQ}). For 32.5% of the time, MSL was below −85 m. Over the same nine glacial-interglacial cycles, the median sea level (SLI\textsubscript{MED}) was −65 m MSL (the mean is −64 m MSL). For 50% of the time, MSL was below −65 m; for 95% of the time sea levels were between −70 and −60 m MSL (Figure 1). To reconstruct palaeo-configuration during the lowest sea levels (SLL) we used two sea-level stands: (a) the most recent estimate for the LGM low stand (SLL\textsubscript{GM}) of −134 m MSL (Lambeck, Rouby, Purcell, Sun, & Sambridge, 2014); and (b) the sea-level low stand of −122 m MSL (SLL\textsubscript{122}) selected by Weigelt et al. (2016). To represent archipelago configuration at highest sea levels (SLH), we used the present-day sea level (although for 1.5% of the last ~800 kyr sea levels were higher; Figure 1).

We obtained the palaeo-configuration of all islands at the respective sea level stands (SLI\textsubscript{MED}, SLI\textsubscript{FREQ}, SLL\textsubscript{122} and SLL\textsubscript{GM}) from the Palaeo-Islands and Archipelago Configuration (PIAC) database (Norder et al., 2018). For each palaeo-configuration, we calculated delta area (\(dA; \text{km}^2\)) per reference sea level as the log-transformed absolute difference between current area and palaeo-area. Palaeo-connectedness (PC) was calculated for each respective sea level stand as the number of present-day islands that were connected within a single palaeo-island at a lower sea level. For the highest sea level we used the current area (CA) from the Database of Global Administrative Areas (GADM; https://www.gadm.org/version1), as reported in Weigelt et al. (2016). Current isolation (CI) was calculated as the distance to the nearest other island for which species data were available. As island age is known to influence endemism patterns on individual islands and archipelagos (Peck, 1990; Whittaker et al., 2008), we tested for correlation (herein Pearson’s correlation) between each of the aforementioned archipelago configuration variables and island age (island ages and sources in Supporting Information Table S4). All correlations were low and non-significant (Supporting Information Table S5 and Figure S1a–h). This is unsurprising; although volcanic and erosional processes show some age-progressive trends (Whittaker et al., 2008), it is problematic to stereotype the consequences of such trends for area and connectivity through sea-level fluctuations. The aim of the current study is to assess biotic responses to sea level driven changes in archipelago configuration, which is a necessary in-between step towards an integrated understanding of the role of archipelago dynamics and complex island geologies in shaping island biodiversity (Borregaard et al., 2017).

2.4 | Statistical analyses

All the statistical analyses conducted in this study were implemented within the R statistical programming environment (R Core Team, 2016). To test our first hypothesis (“H1: palaeo-configuration
per chorotype)—that the role of palaeo-configuration is stronger for SIE than for MIE and N—we fitted linear mixed models separately for each chorotype. In each model, we used archipelago identity as a random effect (Bunnefeld & Phillimore, 2012; Cameron et al., 2013) and used a Poisson error structure. Each of the models for palaeo-configuration consisted of the following fixed effects: current area (CA), delta area (dA) and palaeo-connectedness (PC) at either intermediate or lowest sea levels. We adopted linear mixed models with archipelago identity as random effect to account for non-independence of data due to the underlying archipelaglic structure (Borregaard et al., 2017; Bunnefeld & Phillimore, 2012; Triantis, Economo, Guilhaumon, & Ricklefs, 2015). For example, subsidence rates and erosion regimes (which are mainly climate-driven) vary greatly between archipelagos (Triantis, Whittaker, et al., 2016). We fitted the models with the lmerTest R package, which is a wrapper around lme4 (Bates, Mächler, Bolker, & Walker, 2015).

To test our second hypothesis ("H2: intermediate configuration and SIE")—that the role of intermediate palaeo-configurations on SIE is stronger than extreme configurations—we included six alternative archipelago configuration models, including two for each of the three sea levels considered (lowest, intermediate, highest; Figure 3). For the intermediate, most representative, sea level we fitted separate models for the median and most frequent sea levels (SLIMED, SLIFREQ). For the lowest sea level (corresponding to extreme configurations of short duration) we fitted separate models for −134 m MSL (SLLM, Lambeck et al., 2014) and a sea level of −122 m MSL (SLL122, Weigelt et al., 2016). In addition to the models for intermediate and lowest sea levels, we included two models for the present-day high sea level. The first model (SLHC) consists of current island area (CA) as the only fixed effect. The second model (SLHCACI) consisted of two fixed effects: CA and current isolation (CI). We have included this alternative model because those islands with large PC might also be more proximate today.

To test our third hypothesis ("H3: palaeo-configuration per taxon")—that land snails are more affected by palaeo-configuration than angiosperms—we fitted the six models (SLHC, SLHCACI, SLIMED, SLIFREQ, SLGM, SLL122) for each chorotype of land snails (NS, MIES, and SIE) and angiosperms (Np, SIEp).

To make an informed decision about which archipelago configurations were most relevant in ecological terms, we adopted two complementary approaches to indicate which configuration had strongest statistical support: (a) we assessed for each model the total variance explained, and the proportion of variance explained by archipelago configuration; (b) we ranked significant models based on Akaike’s information criterion corrected for sample size (AICc). For the first approach, we calculated the marginal and conditional $R^2$ (Nakagawa & Schielzeth, 2013) for each model per chorotype. We choose these metrics because they are appropriate within a linear mixed model framework (Nakagawa & Schielzeth, 2013). The conditional R-squared ($R^2_C$) provides a measure of the variance explained by the full model (fixed and random effects). The marginal R-squared ($R^2_M$) indicates the variance explained by archipelago configuration (fixed effects). The difference between $R^2_M$ and $R^2_C$ was calculated to reflect the variance explained by archipelago identity (see Ibanez et al., 2018 for a similar approach). For the second approach, we started by selecting those models for which all individual predictors were significant at $p < 0.05$ to arrive at a set of "suggestive, but inconclusive" models (Murtaugh, 2014). The remaining models were ranked based on AICc. Although a cut-off rule of $\Delta$ AIC > 2 relative to the best model is often used, it is an arbitrary rule and models with a $\Delta$ AICc value between 2 and 7 should not be neglected (Burnham, Anderson, & Huyvaert, 2011). It should be noted that AICc is not an absolute measure of fit (Symonds & Moussalli, 2011) but is a metric that balances model complexity and model fit (Mundry, 2011). Therefore, Burnham et al. (2011) recommend inclusion of a metric to quantify how well models perform (we choose $R^2_C$ and $R^2_M$). To summarize, we calculated $R^2_C$ to assess goodness-of-fit of the full model, $R^2_M$ to assess the variance explained by archipelago configuration and $\Delta$ AICc to assess model parsimony.

## RESULTS

### 3.1 Description of the data

While all islands were larger than today during lowest and intermediate sea levels, each island has a unique area change pattern in response to sea level fluctuations (Supporting Information Figure S2a–c). Consider, for example, these four islands, which today have a similar area of roughly 140 km$^2$: Socorro (Revoliggedo), Flores (Azores), Tutulia (Samoa Islands) and Principe (Gulf of Guinea). At SLI(MED) their sizes were respectively 179%, 154%, 224% and 516% of the present day. At SLI(GM), the respective values were 219%, 240%, 308% and 951% (cf. Norder et al., 2018). Also PC responded very differently across islands following the same amount of sea-level change. At the median and most frequent sea levels (SLI(MED), SLI(FREQ)) seven and eight of the 53 present-day islands were connected to another island within their archipelago, respectively. At a sea level of −122 m MSL (SLL122) and during the LGM (SLI(GM)), 12 and 13 islands were connected, respectively. Pearson’s correlations of the predictor variables PC and palaeo-area range from $r = 0.28$ to $r = 0.55$, with the highest values for palaeo-area and PC at the same sea-level stand (Supporting Information Table S6). PC values at different sea levels are strongly correlated, with lowest correlations between SLI(MED) and SLI(GM) ($r = 0.67$) and highest correlations between SLL122 and SLI(LGM) ($r = 0.97$). The correlations between palaeo-area at different sea levels show the same pattern: palaeo-areas at SLI(MED) and SLI(GM) are least correlated ($r = 0.87$), while the palaeo-areas at SLI(GM) and SLL122 can be considered identical ($r > 0.99$) for our dataset of 53 volcanic oceanic islands.

For land snails, our data represented 1,903 species, consisting of 1,430 SIEs, 302 MIES and 171 native species Ns. In total, 1,627 SIEs were included in our dataset. Native species richness for angiosperms could not be calculated from the available data because we only had data on species richness per island but no species identities (see Weigelt et al., 2016). For land snails, the mean proportion of...
each chorotype across islands was 28.7% for \( N_s \), 34% for \( MIE_s \) and 37.2% for \( SIE_s \). Mean inter-island chorotype proportion for angiosperms was 92.9% for \( N_p \) and 7.1% for \( SIE_p \).

### 3.2 The role of archipelago configuration differs between chorotypes and taxa

We found that the variance in species richness that was explained by palaeo-configuration was larger for \( SIE \) than for species with a wider distribution, supporting H1 (palaeo-configuration per chorotype). The variance explained by palaeo-configuration (\( R^2_M \) of SL1GM, SL1-122, SL1-FREQ, SL1-MED) was 30%–47% for \( SIE_s \) and 33%–41% for \( SIE_p \) (Figure 4). For the more widespread chorotypes, the corresponding values were generally much lower: only 2%–3% for \( N_s \), 13%–20% for \( MIE_s \) and 22%–27% for \( N_p \). Comparing models in terms of AICc revealed a similar pattern. For \( SIE_s \) and \( SIE_p \), some palaeo-configuration models were within \( \Delta \text{AICc} < 7 \), while for \( MIE_s \), \( N_s \) and \( N_p \) there were no significant palaeo-configuration models within this range. These\( p \)-values were rather unrestrictive because consistent overdispersion was present across models. As a result, the subset of significant models initially included before AICc ranking was relatively broad.

The largest part of the variance in \( SIE \) richness for both taxa could be explained by palaeo-configuration at intermediate sea levels, supporting H2 (intermediate configuration and \( SIE \)). Although for \( SIE_p \), the model SL1-FREQ had the lowest AICc, the largest part of the variance (73%) was explained by SL1-MED. Despite this model being outside \( \Delta \text{AICc} < 7 \), it is the only model in which the variance explained by palaeo-configuration was larger than that explained by archipelago identity (47% and 26%, respectively; Figure 4). Also for \( SIE_p \), the model SL1-MED explained the largest part of the variance (86%, of which 41% was explained by palaeo-configuration and 45% by archipelago identity; Figure 4). In addition, this model also had the lowest AICc. As expected, palaeo-configurations at intermediate sea levels were able to explain a larger part of the variance than extreme configurations of a short duration. The performance of models for palaeo-configuration at lowest sea levels was generally poorer. For \( SIE_p \), the variance explained by palaeo-configuration at lowest sea levels (32% for SL1-122, 30% SL1-GM) was similar to SL1-FREQ (33%) but lower than SL1-MED (47%); the palaeo-configuration models at lowest sea level were within \( \Delta \text{AICc} < 7 \) (Figure 4). Just as for \( SIE_s \), the variance in \( SIE_p \) explained by palaeo-configuration at lowest sea level (34% for SL1-122, 33% SL1-GM) was similar to SL1-FREQ (34%), but lower than SL1-MED (41%). However, for \( SIE_p \) none of the models for palaeo-configuration at lowest sea level was entirely significant.

The directionality of the relationships between the predictors in palaeo-configuration models (current area, \( CA \); delta area, \( dA \); palaeo-connectedness, \( PC \)) is consistent across taxa (Figure 5): richness of \( SIE_s \) and \( SIE_p \) increase with \( CA \) and \( dA \), but decrease with \( PC \). However, the effect size of \( CA \) and \( dA \) show opposing patterns for \( SIE \) angiosperms and land snails: \( CA \) has a larger effect on \( SIE_p \), while
dA has a larger effect on SIE₃ (Figure 5). This is partly in line with our expectation that land snails would be more affected by palaeo-configurations than angiosperms ("H3: palaeo-configuration per taxon"). The contrast in effect sizes of CA and dA was consistent for other palaeo-configurations (Supporting Information Table S7).

4 | DISCUSSION

Our results are consistent with the hypothesis that palaeo-configurations at intermediate sea levels—which are representative of the Pleistocene—have left a stronger imprint on SIE₃ and SIEₚ richness patterns on volcanic oceanic islands than extreme archipelago configurations. This suggests that the relatively short-lasting configurations that have prevailed during the LGM are not sufficient to explain endemism patterns on volcanic oceanic islands.

4.1 | Palaeo-configuration at different spatial scales of endemism

Our results conform to our first hypothesis that the signal of palaeo-configuration is stronger for SIE than for MIE and N. The proportion of the variance that could be explained by palaeo-configuration (R²M at intermediate and lowest sea level) was indeed larger for SIE than it was for MIE and N. Ranking significant models based on AICc shows that for SIE, both models with palaeo-configuration and current configuration are within the set of most parsimonious models. In contrast, for MIE₃, N₃ and N₉, the set of most parsimonious models only contains configurations at present-day (highest) sea level. However, for these more widespread chorotypes, the variance explained by archipelago configuration was generally low (especially for N₃ and MIE₃). For all archipelago configuration models across chorotypes (except SLI_MED for SIE₃), the largest part of the variation is explained by the identity of the archipelago (random effects in the model), suggesting that other factors besides archipelago configuration (e.g., climate, geological dynamics, distance from the mainland, island age, human impact, etc.) probably play an important role in shaping current diversity patterns on oceanic islands. These findings suggest that archipelago configuration is an important factor related to patterns of single-island endemics but less so for (non-endemic) natives. Furthermore, for SIE, those palaeo-configurations that are representative of the Pleistocene are more relevant than short-lasting configurations (Figure 6).

4.2 | Persistence and recurrence of palaeo-configurations

Palaeo-configuration at lowest (glacial maxima) sea level had a weaker explanatory power on SIE₃ than intermediate configurations (noting the small ∆AICc between models for SIE₃), and a weak non-significant effect on SIEₚ. This supports our second hypothesis that palaeo-configurations that are more representative of the Pleistocene, associated with intermediate sea levels, have left a stronger signal than extreme configurations of a short duration. Our findings contrast with those of Weigelt et al. (2016), who reported that the number of SIEₚ could be explained by palaeo-configuration at a sea level of ~122 m below today. The difference might be explained by the fact that we selected a subset of angiosperm data exclusively from volcanic oceanic islands, thus preventing confounding geological or genetic effects derived from mixing with islands of other geological origins (Ali, 2017; Whittaker & Fernández-Palacios, 2007). On continental fragments in particular, differences in bathymetry lead to dissimilar responses to cyclic sea-level fluctuations. The granitic Seychelles are a case in point illustrating the drastic area change and PC of continental fragments (Warren et al., 2010). However, the most important reason for the poor performance of models based on palaeo-configuration at lowest sea levels compared to intermediate configurations is probably related to the short lasting and interruptive character of glacial maxima.

Intermediate palaeo-configurations were reconstructed at the SLI_MED and the SLI_FREQ. Palaeo-configuration at SLI_MED explained most of the variance (R²M) for both SIE₃ and SIEₚ. Also in terms of AICc intermediate palaeo-configurations performed best for SIE; however, for SIE₃, SLI_FREQ had the lowest AICc, while for SIEₚ SLI_MED had the lowest AICc. Although both R²M and AICc suggest that it is worthwhile to consider palaeo-configurations at
intermediate sea levels for understanding present-day patterns of SIE richness, they do not provide conclusive evidence regarding the best choice of approach. We anticipate that future studies focused on specific archipelagos (and other taxa) will shed more light on which sea levels are most relevant in a particular archipelagic context. We hypothesize that the answer will depend on the sea-level thresholds at which island area and connectedness change significantly.

4.3 | Contrasting roles of palaeo-area and palaeo-connectedness across taxa

Sea-level fluctuations in the past have modified island area and isolation simultaneously. However, when considering these elements of archipelago configuration separately, it becomes clear that SIE richness of both land snails and angiosperms increases with CA and dA, but decreases with PC. Although CA and dA both hold a positive relationship with SIE\(_q\) and SIE\(_p\) richness, dA has a larger statistical effect on SIE\(_q\), while CA is most important for SIE\(_p\) (cf. Kreft, Jetz, Mutke, Kier, & Barthlott, 2008). This finding is consistent with our third hypothesis that land snails will be more affected by palaeo-configuration than angiosperms. As already mentioned in the Introduction, this pattern may be explicable in relation to general differences in speciation and dispersal between the two taxa; land snails tend to be able to speciate at smaller spatial scales than most angiosperms (Kisel & Barraclough, 2010).

Hence land snails can produce more SIE in any given island area, and show stronger effects of island area being formerly larger than do angiosperms. Conversely, a greater mobility of plants could connect “would-be endemics” or replace them with fresh colonists and as such reduce the effect of area change. This reasoning seems in line with the chorotype proportions for SIE in our dataset, which are high for land snails and low for angiosperms. An interesting avenue for future research would be therefore to further explore the underlying mechanisms that might explain the differential response of both taxa to palaeo-area. Our results indicate a negative relationship between PC and SIE richness of both taxa. The decreasing number of SIE\(_q\) and SIE\(_p\) with PC might result from higher levels of gene flow, hindering diversification into distinct lineages (cf. Heaney et al., 2005). This agrees with a recent study on the Puerto Rico Bank where repeated connectedness and fragmentation impeded divergence and speciation of ground crickets (Papadopoulou & Knowles, 2017). Alternatively, elevated biotic interchange following climatic fluctuations and geographical rearrangements over the Pleistocene might have resulted in local extinctions (Vermeij, 1991). Weigelt et al. (2016) also found a negative relationship between palaeo-connectedness and SIE\(_p\), and concluded that this result falsifies the species pump hypothesis, that is, that repeated separation and connectedness drive speciation (Gillespie & Roderick, 2014; Qian & Ricklefs, 2000). However, it may also be explained by the fragmentation of a population of a SIE species on a palaeo-island into subpopulations, changing the

FIGURE 6 Conceptual figure illustrating the influence of sea-level driven changes in archipelago configuration on species richness patterns of single-island endemics and non-endemic natives. (a) The percentage of time the sea level was either above or below a certain level. (b) The duration of an archipelago configuration as shaped by sea-level fluctuations. (c, d) The width of the bars indicates the importance of an archipelago configuration (b) in shaping single-island endemic and non-endemic native richness.
chorotype from SIE to MIE as sea levels rose towards the current interglacial high sea level (Figure 2).

Archipelago configuration models containing PC as a predictor performed better for SIE than those containing current isolation. This suggests that the actual fusion and splitting of islands may be more important as a moderating factor reducing numbers of SIE than the proximity of islands within an archipelago. Our findings correspond to Heaney et al. (2005) who found little genetic variation among mammal populations on Philippine islands that were merged during lower sea levels, while populations on islands that were never connected (but sometimes in close vicinity) showed more genetic differentiation. A similar conclusion was reached by Rijsdijk et al. (2014) who found that the proportion of MIE/SIE plants shared between Fuerteventura and Lanzarote (which were joined in the palaeo-island Mahan) is significantly larger than all other Canary island pairs that were never connected.

4.4 | Island- and archipelago-specific factors

Glacial–interglacial cycles over the Pleistocene have simultaneously influenced the geography of all islands globally. However, there are many regional factors shaping differences in insular biodiversity patterns among and within archipelagos. Islands commonly occur in archipelagos that exhibit biogeographical coherence, that is, similar patterns, in species diversity as a result of shared climate, distance from the potential species pool, intra-archipelagic isolation and geological history (Ali, 2017; Heaney et al., 2013; Triantis et al., 2015). In our analyses archipelago identity explained a large part of the variance (random effect in linear mixed models), highlighting the importance of accounting for among-archipelago variation (Bunnefeld & Phillimore, 2012; Cameron et al., 2013).

Regarding the within-archipelago differences, geological dynamics arguably have a large role in shaping island geography and archipelago configuration. For example, geological processes of plate tectonics, volcanism, subsidence and erosion may drive major changes in island geography and archipelago configuration (Borregaard et al., 2017; Carracedo, 2014; Gillespie & Clague, 2009; Gillespie & Roderick, 2002; Price, Clague, Bay, Road, & Landing, 2002; Stuessy, 2007; Whittaker et al., 2017, 2008). While general developmental trends may be identified for particular classes of oceanic islands (Whittaker et al., 2017, 2008), in practice, island ontogeny and volcanic activity are island specific. For example, the eight main islands of the Hawaiian archipelago show linear age progression from east to west and range in age between 0.5 Ma (Hawaii Island) and 5.1 Ma (Kauai). Hawaii itself is the only island that is volcanically active, all others being disconnected from the hotspot and inactive for at least 0.75 Myr. This contrasts with the complex geological setting of the Azores, with a western group of two islands located on the North American plate, and a central and eastern group of five and two islands, respectively) located at the junction between the Eurasian and Nubian lithospheric plate (Ramalho et al., 2017), and no linear age progression from one side of the archipelago to the other (Ávila et al., 2016). In addition, some islands in our dataset are younger than the last nine glacial–interglacial cycles (~800 ka) we used to calculate the most frequent and median sea levels. However, due to the recurrent character of sea-level oscillations, later stages of these cycles will nonetheless have affected younger islands. Incorporating glacial–interglacial driven changes in island geography becomes challenging as longer time-scales are considered because they overlap and interact with geological dynamics. For future studies it will be important to include greater detail on regional geological dynamics that have shaped archipelago configuration in the past.

5 | CONCLUSION

To our knowledge this is the first time that the effects of long- and short-lasting archipelago configurations on species richness patterns have been compared at a global scale across multiple archipelagos. Although we included in our study 53 volcanic oceanic islands with different geological histories, we still found a consistent pattern for the two taxa considered: palaeo-configurations at intermediate sea levels have left a stronger imprint on single-island endemic richness patterns than extreme archipelago configurations of short duration, whereas non-endemic (native) species richness was generally poorly explained by palaeo-configuration. These findings support intermediate palaeo-configurations as most relevant for understanding present-day patterns of endemic biodiversity across volcanic oceanic islands. Further research is required to explore how these environmental dynamics may have influenced other archipelagos and taxa. Previous studies have acknowledged that islands were larger and less isolated in the past, but have generally overlooked the potential significance of the duration of different palaeo-configurations. Our results suggest that for understanding evolutionary dynamics of insular biota it is relevant to look beyond extreme palaeo-configurations that persisted for only a few thousand years (such as the LGM) and to test for biological legacies of alternative palaeo-configurations.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

KFR, SJN, RJW, KAT, JMF, EVL, BHW and WDK had the original idea. KP, KAT, MRA, AMdFM, RHC and CEP prepared the dataset on land snails. SJN and EVL developed the methodology and analysed the data. SJN coordinated the project and wrote the first draft of the manuscript. All authors contributed substantially to revisions and participated actively in discussions.

DATA ACCESSIBILITY

The data supporting the results are archived in ISLANDLAB (https://islandlab.uac.pt/software/ver.php?id=32) and PANGAEA (https://doi.pangaea.de/10.1594/PANGAEA.893265) under the CC BY 4.0 license (https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/).

REFERENCES


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**SUPPORTING INFORMATION**

Additional supporting information may be found online in the Supporting Information section at the end of the article.

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