RESEARCH ARTICLE

WILEY **Global Ecology and Biogeography** A Journal of Macroecology

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

Sietze J. Norder[1,2,3] | Konstantinos Proios[4] | Robert J. Whittaker[5,6] |

María R. Alonso[7] | Paulo A. V. Borges[2] | Michael K. Borregaard[6] |

Robert H. Cowie[8] | F. B. Vincent Florens[9] | António M. de Frias Martins[10] |

Miguel Ibáñez[7] | W. Daniel Kissling[3] | Lea de Nascimento[11,12] |

Rüdiger Otto[11] | Christine E. Parent[13] | François Rigal[2,14] | Ben H. Warren[15] |

José María Fernández-Palacios[11] | E. Emiel van Loon[3] | Kostas A. Triantis[4] |

Kenneth F. Rijsdijk[3]

[1]Centre for Ecology, Evolution and Environmental Changes (cE3c) / Azorean Biodiversity Group, Faculdade de Ciências, Universidade de Lisboa, Lisboa, Portugal

[2]Centre for Ecology, Evolution and Environmental Changes (cE3c) / Azorean Biodiversity Group and Universidade dos Açores – Faculdade de Ciências Agrárias e do Ambiente, Angra do Heroísmo, Portugal

[3]Institute for Biodiversity and Ecosystem Dynamics (IBED), University of Amsterdam, Amsterdam, The Netherlands

[4]Faculty of Biology, Department of Ecology and Taxonomy, National and Kapodistrian University, Athens, Greece

[5]School of Geography and the Environment, University of Oxford, Oxford, United Kingdom

[6]Center for Macroecology, Evolution and Climate, Natural History Museum of Denmark, University of Copenhagen, Copenhagen, Denmark

[7]Departamento de Biología Animal, Universidad de La Laguna, Tenerife, Spain

[8]Pacific Biosciences Research Center, University of Hawaii, Honolulu, Hawaii

[9]Tropical Island Biodiversity, Ecology and Conservation Pole of Research, Department of Biosciences and Ocean Studies, University of Mauritius, Réduit, Mauritius

[10]Universidade dos Açores, Ponta Delgada, Portugal

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

[11]Island Ecology and Biogeography Group, Instituto Universitario de Enfermedades Tropicales y Salud Pública de Canarias (IUETSPC), Universidad de La Laguna (ULL), Canary Islands, Spain

[12]Long-term Ecology Laboratory, Landcare Research, Lincoln, New Zealand

[13]Department of Biological Sciences, University of Idaho, Moscow, Idaho

[14]CNRS-Université de Pau et des Pays de l'Adour, Institut des Sciences Analytiques et de Physico-Chimie pour l'Environnement et les Materiaux, MIRA, Pau, France

[15]Institut de Systématique, Evolution, Biodiversité, UMR 7205 CNRS MNHN UPMC EPHE, Muséum National d'Histoire Naturelle, Sorbonne Universités, Paris, France

Correspondence
Sietze J. Norder, Centre for Ecology, Evolution and Environmental Changes (cE3c)/Azorean Biodiversity Group, Faculdade de Ciências, Universidade de Lisboa, Lisboa 1749-016, Portugal.
Email: sjnorder@fc.ul.pt

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

1 | 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
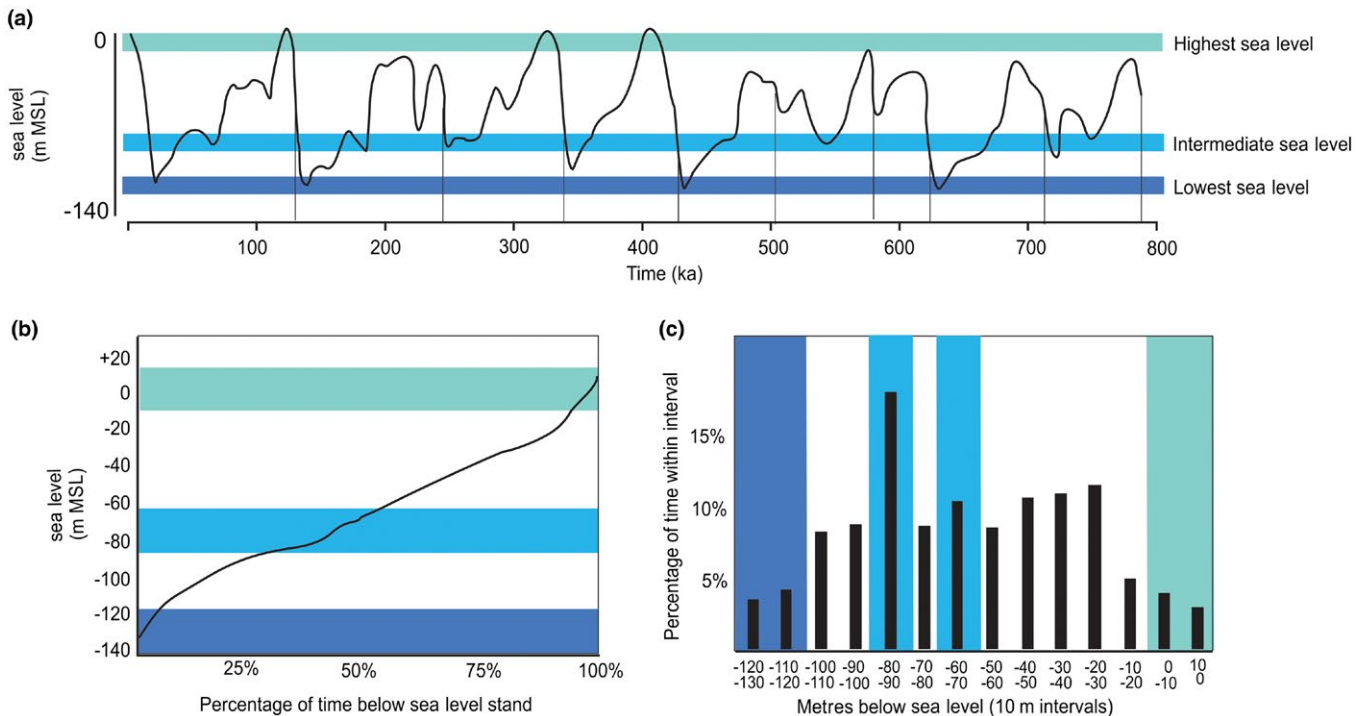
FIGURE 1 Characterization of sea-level fluctuations over the last ~800 kyr at highest, intermediate and lowest sea levels. (a) Sea-level fluctuations over the nine most recent glacial–interglacial cycles covering the period of the last ~800 kyr. (b) The percentage of time over the last ~800 kyr that 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)

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
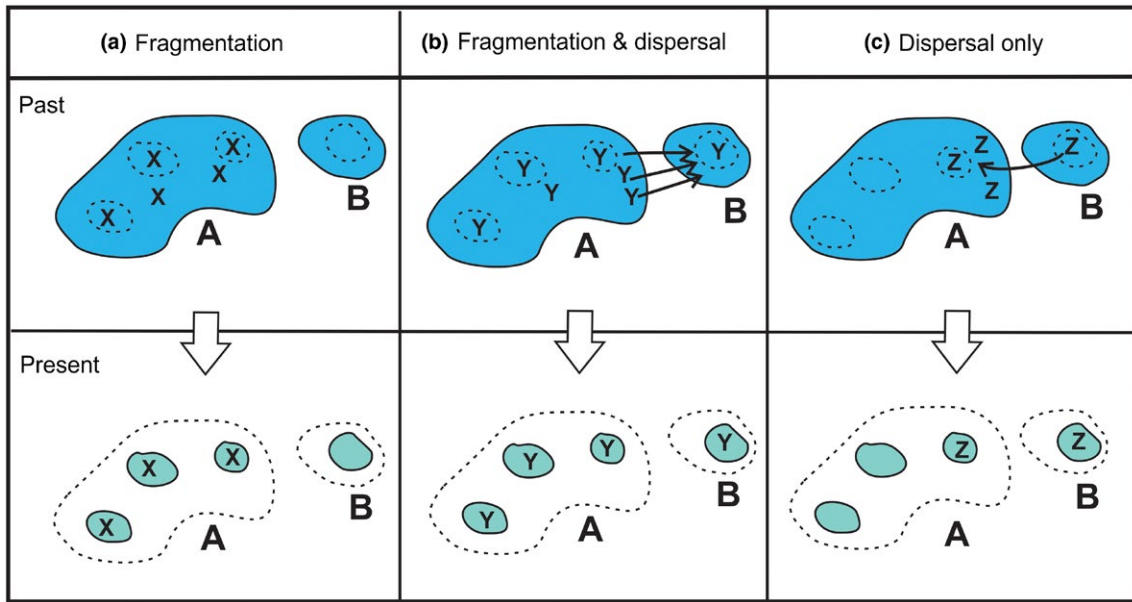
FIGURE 2 Conceptual figure illustrating how observed present-day endemism patterns might result from fragmentation and/or dispersal. The chorotype of a species might change from single-island endemic (SIE) to multiple-island endemic (MIE) as a result of either of these processes (or a combination thereof). (a) SIE on palaeo-island A becomes MIE by fragmentation. (b) MIE shared by palaeo-islands A and B continues to be a MIE (but as a result of fragmentation and dispersal). (c) SIE on palaeo-island B becomes MIE by dispersal

species have frequently undergone a longer duration of in situ 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 neighbouring 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_S), multiple-island endemic (MIE_S) and single-island endemic (SIE_S).

Angiosperm richness data were obtained from Weigelt et al. (2016) for native non-endemics (N_P) and single-island endemics (SIE_P). Weigelt et al. (2016) also included angiosperm species endemic to past island units at a sea level of −122 m (PIE_P). In a similar way, land snail species endemic to past island units (PIE_S) 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 1 Description and sources of the chorotypes and archipelago configurations (palaeo-configurations and present-day configurations) used in this study

Acronym	Group	Description	Sources
Chorotypes			
SIE_S	Land snails	Single-island endemic species richness	Supporting Information Table S1
SIE_P	Angiosperms	Single-island endemic species richness	Weigelt et al. (2016)
N_S	Land snails	Native (non-endemic) species richness	Supporting Information Table S1
N_P	Angiosperms	Native (non-endemic) species richness	Weigelt et al. (2016)
MIE_S	Land snails	Multiple-island endemic species richness	Supporting Information Table S1
Archipelago configurations			
SLH_{CA}	Highest	Archipelago configuration model based on the present-day sea level, consisting of only current area (CA)	(GADM; http://www.gadm.org/version1)
SLH_{CACI}	Highest	Archipelago configuration model based on the present-day sea level, consisting of CA and current isolation (CI)	(GADM; http://www.gadm.org/version1)
SLI_{MED}	Intermediate	Archipelago configuration model based on the median sea level of −65 m mean sea level (MSL), consisting of CA, delta area (dA) and palaeo-connectedness (PC)	Norder et al. (2018)
SLI_{FREQ}	Intermediate	Archipelago configuration model based on the central value of the most frequently occurring sea-level interval of −85 m MSL, consisting of CA, dA and PC	Norder et al. (2018)
SLL_{GM}	Lowest	Archipelago configuration model based on the Last Glacial Maximum sea level of −134 m MSL, consisting of CA, dA and PC	Lambeck et al. (2014), Norder et al. (2018)
SLL_{-122}	Lowest	Archipelago configuration model based on the sea level −122 m MSL, consisting of CA, dA and PC	Weigelt et al. (2016)

## 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_{FREQ} for the most recurrent, and SLI_{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_{FREQ}). For 32.5% of the time, MSL was below −85 m. Over the same nine glacial–interglacial cycles, the median sea level (SLI_{MED}) was −65 m MSL (the mean is −64 m MSL). For 50% of the time, MSL was below −65 m; for 9.5% 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_{GM}) of −134 m MSL (Lambeck, Rouby, Purcell, Sun, & Sambridge, 2014); and (b) the sea-level low stand of −122 m MSL (SLL_{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_{MED}, SLI_{FREQ}, SLL_{122} and SLL_{GM}) from the Palaeo-Islands and Archipelago Configuration (PIAC) database (Norder et al., 2018). For each palaeo-configuration, we calculated delta area (dA; 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
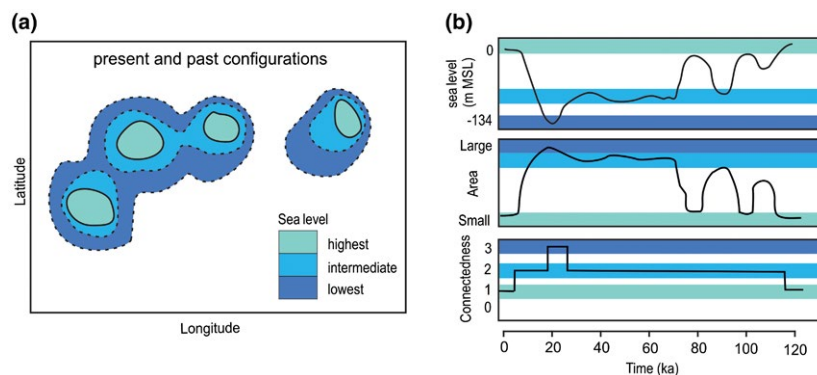
FIGURE 3 Conceptual figure showing three archipelago configurations (highest, intermediate and lowest sea level) that were used in this study, illustrated for one hypothetical sea-level cycle. (a) Conceptual illustration of how sea-level change affects archipelago configuration. (b) The three panels show how sea level (top), area (middle) and connectedness (bottom) change for one specific island. Connectedness is quantified as the number of present-day islands connected in a palaeo-island. Archipelago configurations at intermediate sea level are more representative of this cycle than the highest and lowest sea levels, which both represent an extreme configuration of short duration

NORDER ET AL.

Global Ecology
and Biogeography

A Journal of
Macroecology

WILEY 7

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 archipelagic 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 (SLI_{MED}, SLI_{FREQ}). For the lowest sea level (corresponding to extreme configurations of short duration) we fitted separate models for −134 m MSL (SLL_{GM}, Lambeck et al., 2014) and a sea level of −122 m MSL (SLL_{122}, 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 (SLH_{CA}) consists of current island area (CA) as the only fixed effect. The second model (SLH_{CACI}) 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 (SLH_{CA}, SLH_{CACI}, SLI_{MED}, SLI_{FREQ}, SLL_{GM}, SLL_{122}) for each chorotype of land snails (N_S, MIE_S, and SIE_S) and angiosperms (N_P, SIE_P).

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 Δ AIC > 2 relative to the best model is often used, it is an arbitrary rule and models with a Δ 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 Δ AICc to assess model parsimony.

3 | 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 (Revillagigedo), Flores (Azores), Tutuila (Samoan Islands) and Príncipe (Gulf of Guinea). At SLI_{MED} their sizes were respectively 179%, 154%, 224% and 516% of the present day. At SLL_{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 (SLL_{122}) and during the LGM (SLL_{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 SLL_{GM} ($r = 0.67$) and highest correlations between SLL_{122} and SLL_{GM} ($r = 0.97$). The correlations between palaeo-area at different sea levels show the same pattern: palaeo-areas at SLI_{MED} and SLL_{GM} are least correlated ($r = 0.87$), while the palaeo-areas at SLL_{GM} and SLL_{122} 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 SIE_S, 302 MIE_S and 171 native species N_S. In total, 1,627 SIE_P 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.
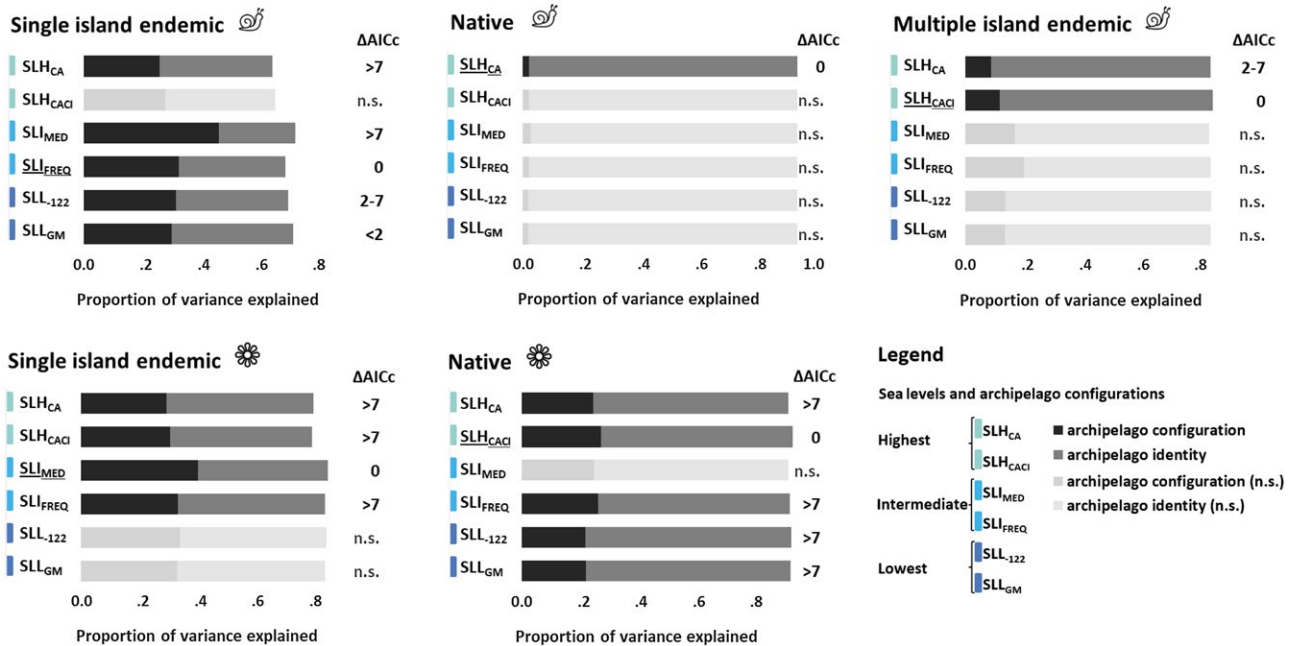
3.2 | The role of archipelago configuration differs between chorotypes and taxa

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 SLL_{GM}, SLL_{-122}, SLI_{FREQ}, SLI_{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 Δ 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_S, the model SLI_{FREQ} had the lowest AICc, the largest part

of the variance (73%) was explained by SLI_{MED}. Despite this model being outside Δ 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 SLI_{MED} explained the largest part of the variance (86%, of which 41% was explained by archipelago 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_S, the variance explained by palaeo-configuration at lowest sea levels (32% for SLL_{-122}, 30% SLL_{GM}) was similar to SLI_{FREQ} (33%) but lower than SLI_{MED} (47%); the palaeo-configuration models at lowest sea level were within Δ AICc < 7 (Figure 4). Just as for SIE_S, the variance in SIE_P explained by palaeo-configuration at lowest sea level (34% for SLL_{-122}, 33% SLL_{GM}) was similar to SLI_{FREQ} (34%), but lower than SLI_{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

FIGURE 4 Performance of different archipelago configuration models for 53 islands in 12 archipelagos for land snails and angiosperms. To explain species richness in both taxa, we considered archipelago configuration models at the following sea levels: lowest [palaeo-configuration at −122 m mean sea level (MSL), SLL_{-122}; and at −134 m MSL, SLL_{GM}], intermediate (palaeo-configuration at the most frequent sea level, SLI_{FREQ}; and at the median sea level, SLI_{MED}) and highest (current area at present-day sea level, SLH_{CA}; and current area and isolation at present-day sea level, SLH_{CACI}). The size of each bar indicates the explained variance by archipelago configuration (R^2_M, darker shades) and archipelago identity ($R^2_C - R^2_M$, lighter shades). The difference in Akaike's information criterion corrected for sample size (Δ AICc) is provided for those models for which all predictors are significant ($p < 0.05$), or marked "n.s." for models for which not all predictors are significant (the bars of these non-significant models are greyed out)
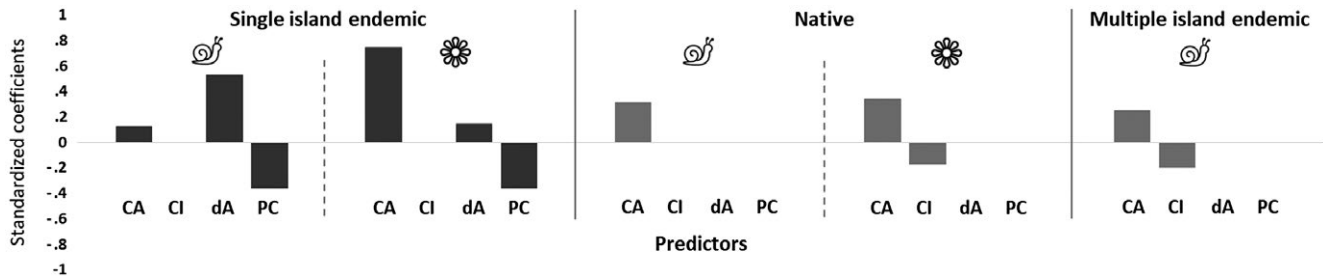
FIGURE 5 Bars indicate effect size of parameters in the best archipelago configuration models for 53 islands in 12 archipelagos for land snails and angiosperms. Standardized effect size of significant parameters ($p < 0.05$) in the model with lowest difference in corrected Akaike's information criterion (Δ AICc). The colours of the bars represent archipelago configurations at intermediate (dark grey) and highest (light grey) sea levels. Each model contains a selection of the following predictors: current area (CA), delta area (dA), palaeo-connectedness (PC) and current isolation (CI)

dA has a larger effect on SIE_S (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 SIE_S and SIE_P 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 (R^2_M 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 MIE_S, N_S and N_P 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 N_S and MIE_S). For all archipelago configuration models across chorotypes (except SLI_{MED} for SIE_S), 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 SIE_S than intermediate configurations (noting the small Δ AICc between models for SIE_S), and a weak non-significant effect on SIE_P. 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 SIE_P 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 (R^2_M) for both SIE_S and SIE_P. Also in terms of AICc intermediate palaeo-configurations performed best for SIE; however, for SIE_S, SLI_{FREQ} had the lowest AICc, while for SIE_P, SLI_{MED} had the lowest AICc. Although both R^2_M and AICc suggest that it is worthwhile to consider palaeo-configurations at
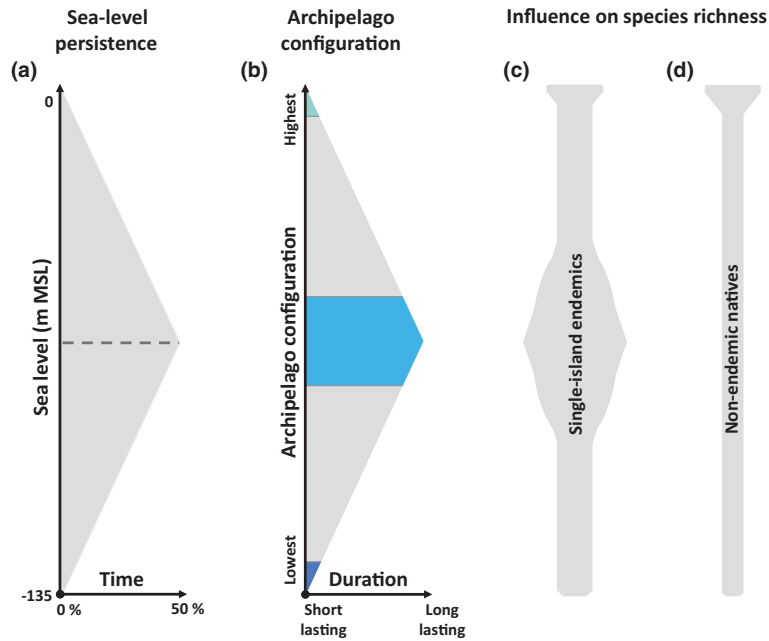
FIGURE 6 Conceptual figure illustrating the influence of sea-level driven changes in archipelago configuration on species richness patterns of single-island endemics and non-endemic natives. (a) The percentage of time the sea level was either above or below a certain level. (b) The duration of an archipelago 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

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 focussed 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_S and SIE_P richness, dA has a larger statistical effect on SIE_S, 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_S 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

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.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

KFR, SJN, RJW, KAT, JMFP, 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/).

ORCID

Sietze J. Norder https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4692-4543

Konstantinos Proios https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7545-5892

Robert J. Whittaker https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7775-3383

María R. Alonso https://orcid.org/0000-0002-7359-2284

Paulo A. V. Borges https://orcid.org/0000-0002-8448-7623

Michael K. Borregaard https://orcid.org/0000-0002-8146-8435

Robert H. Cowie https://orcid.org/0000-0002-2986-7092

F. B. Vincent Florens https://orcid.org/0000-0002-1720-5438

António M. de Frias Martins http://orcid.org/0000-0001-5358-8424

Miguel Ibáñez https://orcid.org/0000-0001-8948-1469

W. Daniel Kissling https://orcid.org/0000-0002-7274-6755

Lea de Nascimento https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1085-2605

Rüdiger Otto https://orcid.org/0000-0002-4278-6369

Christine E. Parent https://orcid.org/0000-0002-4378-6715

François Rigal https://orcid.org/0000-0001-6882-1591

Ben H. Warren https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0758-7612

José María Fernández-Palacios https://orcid.org/0000-0001-9741-6878

E. Emiel van Loon https://orcid.org/0000-0002-8895-0427

Kostas A. Triantis https://orcid.org/0000-0003-2737-8890

Kenneth F. Rijsdijk https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0943-2577

REFERENCES

Ali, J. R. (2017). Islands as biological substrates: Classification of the biological assemblage components and the physical island types. *Journal of Biogeography*, 44, 984–994. https://doi.org/10.1111/jbi.12872

Ali, J. R., & Aitchison, J. C. (2014). Exploring the combined role of eustasy and oceanic island thermal subsidence in shaping biodiversity on the Galápagos. *Journal of Biogeography*, 41, 1227–1241. https://doi.org/10.1111/jbi.12313

Ávila, S. P., Melo, C., Berning, B., Cordeiro, R., Landau, B., & da Silva, C. M. (2016). *Persististrombus coronatus* (Mollusca: Strombidae) in the lower Pliocene of Santa Maria Island (Azores, NE Atlantic): Paleoecology, paleoclimatology and paleobiogeographic implications. *Palaeogeography, Palaeoclimatology, Palaeoecology*, 441, 912–923. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.palaeo.2015.10.043

Bates, D., Mächler, M., Bolker, B., & Walker, S. (2015). Fitting linear mixed-effects models using lme4. *Journal of Statistical Software*, 67, 1–48.

Bintanja, R., van de Wal, R. S. W., & Oerlemans, J. (2005). Modelled atmospheric temperatures and global sea levels over the past million years. *Nature*, 437, 125–128. https://doi.org/10.1038/nature03975

Blois, J. L., Zarnetske, P. L., Fitzpatrick, M. C., & Finnegan, S. (2013). Climate change and the past, present, and future of biotic interactions. *Science*, 341, 499–504. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1237184

Borges, P. A. V., & Hortal, J. (2009). Time, area and isolation: Factors driving the diversification of Azorean arthropods. *Journal of Biogeography*, 36, 178–191. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2699.2008.01980.x

Borregaard, M. K., Amorim, I. R., Borges, P. A. V., Cabral, J. S., Fernández-Palacios, J. M., Field, R., … Whittaker, R. J. (2017). Oceanic island biogeography through the lens of the general dynamic model: Assessment and prospect. *Biological Reviews*, 92, 830–853. https://doi.org/10.1111/brv.12256

Bunnefeld, N., & Phillimore, A. B. (2012). Island, archipelago and taxon effects: Mixed models as a means of dealing with the imperfect design of nature's experiments. *Ecography*, 35, 15–22. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1600-0587.2011.07078.x

Burnham, K. P., Anderson, D. R., & Huyvaert, K. P. (2011). AIC model selection and multimodel inference in behavioral ecology: Some background, observations, and comparisons. *Behavioral Ecology and Sociobiology*, 65, 23–35. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00265-010-1029-6

Cameron, R. A. D., Triantis, K. A., Parent, C. E., Guilhaumon, F., Alonso, M. R., Ibáñez, M., … Whittaker, R. J. (2013). Snails on oceanic islands: Testing the general dynamic model of oceanic island biogeography using linear mixed effect models. *Journal of Biogeography*, 40, 117–130. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2699.2012.02781.x

Carracedo, J. C. (2014). Structural collapses in the Canary Islands. Landscapes and landforms of Spain. In F. Gutiérrez & M. Gutiérrez (Eds.), *World geomorphological landscapes* (pp. 289–306). Dordrecht, the Netherlands: Springer.

Claramunt, S., Derryberry, E. P., Remsen, J. V., & Brumfield, R. T. (2012). High dispersal ability inhibits speciation in a continental radiation of passerine birds. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*, 279, 1567–1574. https://doi.org/10.1098/rspb.2011.1922

Comes, H. P., & Kadereit, J. W. (1998). The effect of Quaternary climatic changes on plant distribution and evolution. *Trends in Plant Science*, 3, 432–438. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1360-1385(98)01327-2

Dynesius, M., & Jansson, R. (2002). The fate of clades in a world of recurrent climatic change: Milankovitch oscillations and evolution. *Annual Review of Ecology and Systematics*, 33, 741–777. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.ecolsys.33.010802.150520

Dynesius, M., & Jansson, R. (2014). Persistence of within-species lineages: A neglected control of speciation rates. *Evolution*, 68, 923–934. https://doi.org/10.1111/evo.12316

Fernández-Palacios, J. M. (2016). Shaped by sea-level shifts. *Nature*, 532, 42–43.

Fernández-Palacios, J. M., Rijsdijk, K. F., Norder, S. J., Otto, R., de Nascimento, L., Fernández-Lugo, S., … Whittaker, R. J. (2016). Towards a glacial-sensitive model of island biogeography. *Global Ecology and Biogeography*, 25, 817–830.

GADM database of Global Administrative Areas. (2015). Retrieved from https://www.gadm.org

Gillespie, R. G., & Clague, D. A. (2009). Encyclopedia of Islands. (R. G. Gillespie & D. A. Clague, Eds.). Berkeley: University of California Press.

Gillespie, R. G., & Roderick, G. K. (2002). Arthropods on islands: Colonization, speciation, and conservation. *Annual Review of Entomology*, 47, 595–632. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.ento.47.091201.145244

Gillespie, R. G., & Roderick, G. K. (2014). Geology and climate drive diversification. *Nature*, 509, 297–298. https://doi.org/10.1038/509297a

Groombridge, B. (1992). *Global biodiversity: Status of the earth's living resources* (B. Groombridge Ed.). London, UK: Chapman & Hall.

Heaney, L. R. (1985). Zoogeographic evidence for middle and late Pleistocene land bridges to the Philippine Islands. *Modern Quaternary Research in Southeast Asia*, 9, 127–143.

Heaney, L. R., Balete, D. S., & Rickart, E. A. (2013). Models of oceanic island biogeography: Changing perspectives on biodiversity dynamics in archipelagoes. *Frontiers of Biogeography*, 5, 249–257.

Heaney, L. R., Walsh, J. S., & Peterson, A. T. (2005). The roles of geological history and colonization abilities in genetic differentiation between mammalian populations in the Philippine archipelago. *Journal of Biogeography*, 32, 229–247. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2699.2004.01120.x

Hewitt, G. (2000). The genetic legacy of the Quaternary ice ages. *Nature*, 405, 907–913. https://doi.org/10.1038/35016000

Hofreiter, M., & Stewart, J. (2009). Ecological change, range fluctuations and population dynamics during the Pleistocene. *Current Biology*, 19, R584–R594.

Ibanez, T., Keppel, G., Baider, C., Birkinshaw, C., Culmsee, H., Cordell, S., … Birnbaum, P. (2018). Regional forcing explains local species diversity and turnover on tropical islands. *Global Ecology and Biogeography*, 27, 474–486. https://doi.org/10.1111/geb.12712

Kisel, Y., & Barraclough, T. G. (2010). Speciation has a spatial scale that depends on levels of gene flow. *The American Naturalist*, 175, 316–334. https://doi.org/10.1086/650369

Knowles, L. L. (2001a). Did the Pleistocene glaciations promote divergence? Tests of explicit refugial models in montane grasshoppers. *Molecular Ecology*, 10, 691–701.

Knowles, L. L. (2001b). Genealogical portraits of speciation in montane grasshoppers (genus *Melanoplus*) from the sky islands of the Rocky Mountains. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*, 268, 319–324.

Kreft, H., Jetz, W., Mutke, J., Kier, G., & Barthlott, W. (2008). Global diversity of island floras from a macroecological perspective. *Ecology Letters*, 11, 116–127.

Lambeck, K., Rouby, H., Purcell, A., Sun, Y., & Sambridge, M. (2014). Sea level and global ice volumes from the Last Glacial Maximum to the Holocene. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences USA*, 111, 15296–15303. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1411762111

Mayr, E. (1944). Wallace's line in the light of recent zoogeographic studies. *The Quarterly Review of Biology*, 19, 1–14. https://doi.org/10.1086/394684

MolluscaBase. (2017). Retrieved from https://www.molluscabase.org

Mundry, R. (2011). Issues in information theory-based statistical inference-a commentary from a frequentist's perspective. *Behavioral Ecology and Sociobiology*, 65, 57–68. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00265-010-1040-y

Murtaugh, P. A. (2014). In defense of P values. *Ecology*, 95, 611–617.

Nakagawa, S., & Schielzeth, H. (2013). A general and simple method for obtaining R^2 from generalized linear mixed-effects models. *Methods in Ecology and Evolution*, 4, 133–142.

Norder, S. J., Baumgartner, J. B., Borges, P. A. V., Hengl, T., Kissling, W. D., van Loon, E. E., & Rijsdijk, K. F. (2018). A global spatially explicit database of changes in island palaeo-area and archipelago configuration during the late Quaternary. *Global Ecology and Biogeography*, 27, 500–505. https://doi.org/10.1111/geb.12715

Papadopoulou, A., & Knowles, L. L. (2017). Linking micro- and macroevolutionary perspectives to evaluate the role of Quaternary sea-level oscillations in island diversification. *Evolution*, 17, 2901–2917. https://doi.org/10.1111/evo.13384

Peck, S. B. (1990). Eyeless arthropods of the Galapagos Islands, Ecuador: Composition and origin of the cryptozoic fauna of a young, tropical, oceanic archipelago. *Biotropica*, 22, 366–381. https://doi.org/10.2307/2388554

Pinheiro, H. T., Bernardi, G., Simon, T., Joyeux, J.-C., Macieira, R. M., Gasparini, J. L., … Rocha, L. A. (2017). Island biogeography of marine organisms. *Nature*, 549, 82–85. https://doi.org/10.1038/nature23680

Porter, S. C. (1989). Some geological implications of average glacial conditions. *Quaternary Research*, 32, 245–261.

Price, J. P. (2004). Floristic biogeography of the Hawaiian Islands: Influences of area, environment and paleogeography. *Journal of Biogeography*, 31, 487–500. https://doi.org/10.1046/j.0305-0270.2003.00990.x

Price, J. P., Clague, D. A., Bay, M., Road, S., & Landing, M. (2002). How old is the Hawaiian biota? Geology and phylogeny suggest recent divergence. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*, 269, 2429–2435. https://doi.org/10.1098/rspb.2002.2175

Qian, H., & Ricklefs, R. E. (2000). Large-scale processes and the Asian bias in species diversity of temperate plants. *Nature*, 407, 180–182. https://doi.org/10.1038/35025052

R Core Team. (2016). *R: A language and environment for statistical computing*. Vienna, Austria: R Foundation for Statistical Computing.

Ramalho, R. S., Helffrich, G., Madeira, J., Cosca, M., Thomas, C., Quartau, R., … Ávila, S. P. (2017). Emergence and evolution of Santa Maria Island (Azores)—The conundrum of uplifted islands revisited. *Geological Society of America Bulletin*, 129, 372–390. https://doi.org/10.1130/B31538.1

Rijsdijk, K. F., Hengl, T., Norder, S. J., Ávila, S. P., & Fernández-Palacios, J. M. (2013). Modelling sea level driven change of Macaronesian archipelago configurations since 120 kyr BP. In J. M. Fernández-Palacios, L. de Nascimento, J. C. Hernández, S. Clemente, A. González, & J. P. Diaz-González (Eds.), *Climate change perspectives from the Atlantic: Past, present and future* (pp. 127–148). San Cristóbal de La Laguna, Spain: Servicio de Publicaciones, Universidad de La Laguna.

Rijsdijk, K. F., Hengl, T., Norder, S. J., Otto, R., Emerson, B. C., Ávila, S. P., … Fernández-Palacios, J. M. (2014). Quantifying surface-area changes of volcanic islands driven by Pleistocene sea-level cycles: Biogeographical implications for the Macaronesian archipelagos. *Journal of Biogeography*, 41, 1242–1254. https://doi.org/10.1111/jbi.12336

Shepard, D. B., & Burbrink, F. T. (2009). Phylogeographic and demographic effects of Pleistocene climatic fluctuations in a montane salamander, *Plethodon fourchensis*. *Molecular Ecology*, 18, 2243–2262.

Stuessy, T. F. (2007). *Evolution of specific and genetic diversity during ontogeny of island floras: The importance of understanding process for interpreting island biogeographic patterns. Biogeography in a changing world* (M. C. Ebach & R. S. Tangney, Eds., pp. 117–133). Boca Raton, FL: CRC Press.

Symonds, M. R. E., & 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. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00265-010-1037-6

Triantis, K. A., Economo, E. P., Guilhaumon, F., & Ricklefs, R. E. (2015). Diversity regulation at macro-scales: Species richness on oceanic archipelagos. *Global Ecology and Biogeography*, 24, 594–605. https://doi.org/10.1111/geb.12301

Triantis, K. A., Rigal, F., Parent, C. E., Cameron, R. A. D., Lenzner, B., Parmakelis, A., … Cowie, R. H. (2016). Discordance between morphological and taxonomic diversity: Land snails of oceanic archipelagos. *Journal of Biogeography*, 43, 2050–2061.

Triantis, K. A., Whittaker, R. J., Fernández-Palacios, J. M., & Geist, D. J. (2016). Oceanic archipelagos: A perspective on the geodynamics and biogeography of the World's smallest biotic provinces. *Frontiers of Biogeography*, 8, 1–9.

Tzedakis, P. C., Channell, J. E. T., Hodell, D. A., Kleiven, H. F., & Skinner, L. C. (2012). Determining the natural length of the current interglacial. *Nature Geoscience*, *5*, 138–141.

Vermeij, G. J. (1991). When biotas meet: Understanding biotic interchange. *Science*, *253*, 1099–1104. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.253.5024.1099

Waldron, A. (2010). Lineages that cheat death: Surviving the squeeze on range size. *Evolution*, *64*, 2278–2292. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1558-5646.2010.01018.x

Warren, B. H., Simberloff, D., Ricklefs, R. E., Aguilée, R., Condamine, F. L., Gravel, D., … Thébaud, C. (2015). Islands as model systems in ecology and evolution: Prospects fifty years after MacArthur-Wilson. *Ecology Letters*, *18*, 200–217. https://doi.org/10.1111/ele.12398

Warren, B. H., Strasberg, D., Bruggemann, J. H., Prys-Jones, R. P., & Thébaud, C. (2010). Why does the biota of the Madagascar region have such a strong Asiatic flavour? *Cladistics*, *26*, 526–538. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1096-0031.2009.00300.x

Webb, T., & Bartlein, P. J. (1992). Global changes during the last 3 million years: Climatic controls and biotic responses. *Annual Review of Ecology and Systematics*, *23*(1), 141–173. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.es.23.110192.001041

Weigelt, P., Steinbauer, M. J., Cabral, J. S., & Kreft, H. (2016). Late Quaternary climate change shapes island biodiversity. *Nature*, *532*, 99–102. https://doi.org/10.1038/nature17443

Whittaker, R. J., & Fernández-Palacios, J. M. (2007). *Island biogeography: Ecology, evolution, and conservation* (2nd ed.). UK: Oxford University Press.

Whittaker, R. J., Fernández-Palacios, J. M., Matthews, T. J., Borregaard, M. K., & Triantis, K. A. (2017). Island biogeography: Taking the long view of nature's laboratories. *Science*, *357*, eaam8326.

Whittaker, R. J., Triantis, K. A., & Ladle, R. J. (2008). A general dynamic theory of oceanic island biogeography. *Journal of Biogeography*, *35*, 977–994.

Willis, K. J., & Niklas, K. J. (2004). The role of Quaternary environmental change in plant macroevolution: The exception or the rule? *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*, *359*, 159–172. https://doi.org/10.1098/rstb.2003.1387

BIOSKETCH

Sietze J. Norder (http://ce3c.ciencias.ulisboa.pt/member/sietzenorder) is a PhD candidate at the Centre for Ecology, Evolution and Environmental Changes (cE3c), University of Lisbon. He is interested in the biophysical and anthropogenic factors that shape island ecosystems and environments. His recent work has focused on understanding the role of glacial–interglacial cycles in shaping insular biodiversity patterns, and on human–environment interactions on islands.

SUPPORTING INFORMATION

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