



# Explanations for bird species range size: ecological correlates and phylogenetic effects in the Canary Islands

Luis M. Carrascal<sup>1\*</sup>, Javier Seoane<sup>2</sup>, David Palomino<sup>3</sup> and Vicente Polo<sup>4</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Biodiversity and Evolutionary Biology, National Museum of Natural Sciences, CSIC, <sup>2</sup>Departamento Interuniversitario de Ecología, Facultad de Ciencias, Universidad Autónoma de Madrid, <sup>3</sup>Área de Estudio y Seguimiento de Aves, SEO/BirdLife and <sup>4</sup>Área de Biodiversidad y Conservación, Escuela Superior de Ciencias Experimentales y Tecnología, Universidad Rey Juan Carlos, Madrid, Spain

## ABSTRACT

**Aim** To explore the determinants of island occupancy of 48 terrestrial bird species in an oceanic archipelago, accounting for ecological components while controlling for phylogenetic effects.

**Location** The seven main islands of the Canary archipelago.

**Methods** We obtained field data on population density, habitat breadth and landscape distribution in Tenerife, Fuerteventura and La Palma, aiming to sample all available habitats and the gradient of altitudes. In total, 1715 line transects of 0.5 km were carried out during the breeding season. We also reviewed the literature for data on occupancy, the distance between the Canary Islands and the nearest distribution border on the mainland, body size and endemism of the 48 terrestrial bird species studied. Phylogenetic eigenvector regression was used to quantify (and to control for) the amount of phylogenetic signal.

**Results** The two measurements of occupancy (number of occupied islands or 10 × 10 km UTM squares) were tightly correlated and produced very similar results. The occupancy of the terrestrial birds of the Canary Islands during the breeding season had a very low phylogenetic effect. Species with broader habitat breadth, stronger preferences for urban environments, smaller body size, and a lower degree of endemism had a broader geographical distribution in the archipelago, occupying a larger number of islands and 10 × 10 UTM squares.

**Main conclusions** The habitat-generalist species with a tolerance for novel urban environments tend to be present on more islands and to occupy a greater area, whereas large-sized species that are genetically differentiated within the islands are less widespread. Therefore, some properties of the ranges of these species are explicable from basic biological features. A positive relationship of range size with local abundance, previously shown in continental studies, was not found, probably because it relies on free dispersal on continuous landmasses, which may not be applicable on oceanic islands.

## Keywords

Abundance, birds, body size, Canary Islands, habitat breadth, macroecology, occupancy, phylogenetic effect, urban preferences.

\*Correspondence: Luis M. Carrascal, Department of Biodiversity and Evolutionary Biology, National Museum of Natural Sciences, CSIC, C/José Gutiérrez Abascal 2, 28006 Madrid, Spain.  
E-mail: lmcarrascal@mncn.csic.es

## INTRODUCTION

Understanding why species are more or less broadly distributed within their geographical limits is one of the cornerstones of macroecology and biogeographical ecology, and has spurred a large number of studies that attempt to identify prevailing patterns, infer the underlying processes, and use the

findings to forecast future distributional changes under global change (e.g. Channell & Lomolino, 2000; Gaston *et al.*, 2000; Linder *et al.*, 2000; Böhning-Gaese *et al.*, 2006; Hawkins & Diniz-Filho, 2006). The extent of geographical ranges also has important consequences for the conservation of biodiversity, as this is one of the primary variables determining the endangered status of species (IUCN Red List classification,

IUCN, 2001). Several analyses have studied the correlation of ecological and life-history traits with population size, population density and body mass (Gaston, 1996, 2003; Gaston & Blackburn, 2000), or with niche breadth and niche position (Fernández & Vrba, 2005; Harcourt, 2006). Evolutionary effects on interspecific differences in range occupancy have also been analysed, dealing with the phylogenetic conservatism of this trait (Waldron, 2007). However, consistencies in ecological, life-history and phylogenetic correlates have not always been found, which illustrates that predicting the fate of species across different taxa and geographical scenarios on the basis of simple traits is not always possible owing to the highly contingent nature of evolution and geography (see Böhning-Gaese & Oberrath, 1999; Duminil *et al.*, 2007).

With a few exceptions (Gottelli & Graves, 1990; Thiollay, 1997; Fofopoulos & Ives, 1999; Dennis *et al.*, 2000; Jones *et al.*, 2001), this research has been carried out largely in continuous continental areas. Insular systems offer an additional complication in macroecological studies because the range must be measured on disjoint geographical entities (i.e. islands), where three distinct types of phenomena acquire fundamental relevance. First, current range depends on the past events of island colonization, and on the local persistence and dispersal of populations among islands. Second, island populations may rapidly adapt to local conditions and differentiate into new taxa, which would initially have smaller ranges and would perhaps later extend and eventually contract again following a taxon cycle (Ricklefs & Bermingham, 2002; Millien, 2006). Finally, species may be freed from the pressure of competitors and predators and expand their realized niches, which could improve their ability to colonize new areas (for example by means of character release: Blondel *et al.*, 1988; Grant, 1998). Thus, the occupancy of individual islands within an archipelago may be a somewhat stochastic phenomenon, because the arrival is mediated by chance, and the subsequent population dynamics of the species most probably operates under novel constraints, where abiotic factors and biotic interactions can be totally different from those in the source regions.

In such a discontinuous geographical scenario, the number of occupied islands may provide a reasonable measure of the geographical extent, which substantially differs from the classical measure of the area over which the species actually occurs. This is because several islands within an archipelago may be the result of different geological events, and be of different age, area, landscape heterogeneity and distance to the continent. Thus, the distribution over an extensive area on only one large island may not imply such a high colonization success as the occupation of a similar area dispersed over several small islands (see also Hurlbert & White, 2007, for a discussion on this topic). The study of ecological and life-history correlates of the occupancy of island faunas is, however, of great interest because, owing to the small areas of islands compared with continental land masses, many endemic species should be considered as

endangered according to IUCN Red List distribution criteria on range size (IUCN, 2001). Taking into account that distribution within archipelagos is subject to dispersal limitations from the continental sources and from local demographic processes within individual islands, it is probable that not all species have the same ability to thrive and persist irrespective of human perturbations (Steadman, 2006). This probability of persistence, and thus the geographical extent within archipelagos, may have an evolutionary basis (i.e., phylogenetic niche conservatism), being phylogenetically structured. In support of this, the ability to colonize and thrive on a wide array of different islands has not been found to be arbitrarily distributed along an evolutionary tree, but rather it is concentrated in certain clades (Foufopoulos & Ives, 1999; Sol *et al.*, 2002). Conversely, the geographical extent may not be phylogenetically structured as a consequence of random sampling from the continental faunal pool, highlighting the role of stochasticity in the dispersal–colonization–extinction process (Juan *et al.*, 2000).

In this paper we analyse the interspecific variation in occupancy of the avifauna of the Canary Islands. This archipelago is composed of seven main islands of volcanic origin. They are located in the north-east Atlantic Ocean and show a broad range of variation in many environmental and geological traits (geological age, distance to the continent, area, altitude, climate, and vegetation). The bird fauna of the Canary Islands is typically Palearctic, although the geographical position of the islands coincides with the south-western limit of this biogeographical region (Kunkel, 1976; Clarke *et al.*, 2006). In insular systems such as this, the ecological patterns commonly found in continental areas and their proposed explanatory hypotheses may be altered as a result of the stochastic nature of colonization from the continental source, the processes of adaptive evolution and extinction (Juan *et al.*, 2000) and the intensive human influence on the islands (e.g. Rando, 2002).

We study and discuss several potential correlates of occupancy, such as body size, population density, habitat breadth, tolerance for human disturbances (agriculture and urbanism) and the distance of the Canary Islands to the distribution limits of the species on the continent. All of these variables have been claimed to affect the geographical range of species according to alternative hypotheses with contrasting supporting evidence (see Gaston, 2003, for a review). Furthermore, these potential determinants of occupancy are analysed within a phylogenetic framework, in order to control the potential degree of non-independence among species owing to common descent.

Thus, our main aim is to explore the determinants of occupancy in an oceanic archipelago scenario, estimating the influence of ecological factors, while accounting for phylogenetic inertia and endemism. We quantify the effect of these factors, discuss their relative merits for explaining the occupancy of terrestrial bird species in the Canary Islands, and consider why island scenarios may provide results contrasting with those from continental studies.

## METHODS

### Study area

We obtained data on occupancy, body size, abundance, habitat breadth, landscape distribution and endemism for 48 terrestrial bird species that breed in the Canary Islands (27°30'–29°30' N and 13°20'–18°15' W). The seven main islands encompass a wide range of environmental conditions, distances to mainland, and habitats. Island area ranges from 273 km<sup>2</sup> (El Hierro) to 2059 km<sup>2</sup> (Tenerife). The distance to the nearest mainland (north-western Africa) varies from 96 km for Fuerteventura to 417 km for La Palma. Fuerteventura, Lanzarote and Gran Canaria have an ancient geological history (15–20 Myr old), whereas El Hierro and La Palma are the youngest in the archipelago (1–2 Myr old). Fuerteventura and Lanzarote are the most arid and the lowest islands (300 mm of precipitation per year and < 800 m a.s.l.), with a predominance of semi-desert landscapes and an almost complete absence of woodlands, whereas Tenerife and La Palma reach higher altitudes (more than 2400 m a.s.l., with extensive areas with more than 600 mm of precipitation per year), and have a widespread representation of native pine and evergreen ('*laurisilva*') forests (although natural cover has been much reduced since humans occupied the islands: Walter & Breckle, 2002; de Nascimento *et al.*, in press). Habitat diversity in these islands is closely related to maximum altitude, ranging from the highest values for Tenerife, La Palma and Gomera, to the lowest value for Fuerteventura. See Juan *et al.* (2000) and Fernández-Palacios & Martín-Esquivel (2001) for more details on island characteristics.

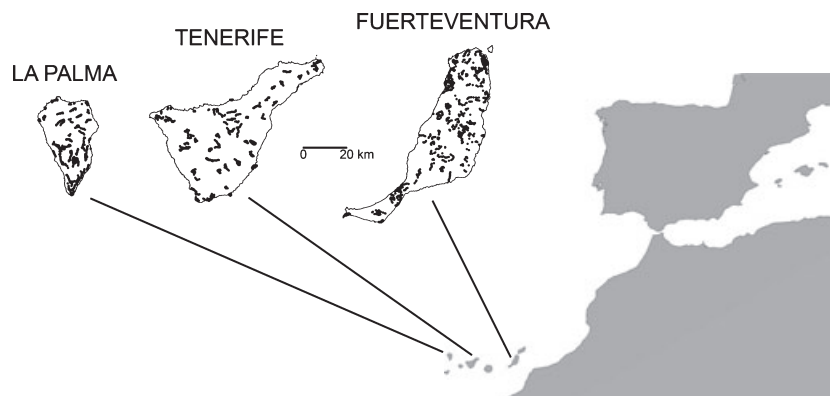
### Bird data

Bird surveys were carried out during the breeding season in 2002–2003 (Tenerife), 2005–2006 (Fuerteventura) and 2007 (La Palma), in an attempt to sample all available habitats and the gradient of altitudes (Fig. 1). Field work was conducted from March to April, depending on the geographical variation in the breeding phenology of the birds in these three islands (beginning earlier at lower altitudes and in the dry

Fuerteventura, then at higher altitudes and in the more western, oceanic, islands). The survey method was the line transect, frequently used in extensive assessments of abundance, general distribution patterns and habitat preferences of birds (Bibby *et al.*, 2000).

A total of 1715 line transects of 0.5 km (measured by means of portable GPSs) were made (Tenerife:  $n = 592$ , Fuerteventura:  $n = 686$ , La Palma:  $n = 437$ ; Fig. 1). The transects were carried out on windless and rainless days, walking cross-country or on little-used dirt tracks at a low speed (1–3 km h<sup>-1</sup> approximately), during the 4 h after dawn and the 2.5 h before dusk. From this we estimated densities (i.e., abundance per unit area), correcting for the detectability of the species by using the perpendicular distances to the birds (Buckland *et al.*, 2001). A number of variables used to characterize the 0.5-km transects were obtained, averaging three estimations on 25-m-radius circular plots located at 125, 250 and 375 m along the line transect. Three variables were used in this study: (1) altitude above sea level (measured with GPS receptors); (2) extent of urban areas (buildings, paved streets); and (3) agricultural land use (extents were estimated by eye).

These transects cover the wide variation of climate, altitude, anthropogenic impact, habitat structure and floristic characteristics available for terrestrial birds in the Canary archipelago. Bird transects were stratified *a priori* in 36 major habitat types according to overall vegetation and topographic characteristics: 12 in Fuerteventura (Fv), 14 in Tenerife (Tf) and 11 in La Palma (LP). These included the following environments: urban habitats, various kinds of agricultural areas, pasturelands, two kinds of euphorbia shrublands according to altitudinal distribution and vegetation cover, and lava fields, in the three islands; evergreen ('*laurisilva*') forests, tall heathlands, two pine forests according to altitudinal location, and high-altitude scrublands (> 2500 m a.s.l.) in Tf and LP; sandy areas covered with grasses, forbs and small shrubs ('*jable*'), semi-desert lowland areas, arid scrublands in mountain areas both with low and high shrub cover, and riparian dwarf woodlands of *Tamarix canariensis* only in Fv; and poorly vegetated subalpine areas (above 2500 m a.s.l.) only in Tf.



**Figure 1** The three study islands within the Canary archipelago. Each dot denotes the centre of the 0.5-km transects performed to survey bird species.

## Response and explanatory variables

We quantified the occupancy in the Canary Islands in two ways. First, we calculated the area of occurrence as the number of  $10 \times 10$  km UTM squares occupied by each species on the seven main islands of the Canary archipelago (according to the most recent breeding bird atlas of Spain: Martí & Del Moral, 2003). Second, we noted the number of occupied islands (one to seven), which is a measure of the extent of occurrence considering the very different geographic, orographic, climatic and landscape characteristics of the islands within the archipelago (see Appendix S1 in Supporting Information).

We estimated the maximum density recorded in the 36 major habitat types, as a measure of the maximum ecological abundance a species can attain in its most favourable environment in the Canary Islands. We also estimated the maximum ecological density of each species within each island, for the 12 habitats distinguished in Fuerteventura, 14 habitats in Tenerife and 11 habitats in La Palma (see Appendix S2). The average altitudinal distribution of each species in the archipelago was estimated as the average altitude of the samples where the species was observed (weighted by the number of birds recorded in each 0.5-km transect). Finally, the affinity for novel environments of anthropogenic origin in the Canary Islands was calculated as the weighted average (by the number of birds recorded in each transect) of the cover of urban and agricultural habitats (see above) in the transects where the species were recorded.

The niche breadth of habitat distribution in the Canary archipelago was calculated considering a re-arrangement of habitat types in nine categories that account for > 95% of the terrestrial surface of the Canary Islands: urban environments, agricultural areas, pine forests, evergreen arboreal vegetation ('*monteverde*'; laurel forests and tall heathlands), lowland semi-deserts, euphorbia scrublands, other shrublands in mountain areas (below 800 m a.s.l.), high-altitude scrublands (> 2500 m a.s.l.), and subalpine barren areas (above 2500 m a.s.l.). In the following analyses we use the maximum densities recorded in these main habitat categories. The habitat breadth (HB) of a species was calculated according to the Levins index, divided by the number of habitat categories considered (Levins, 1968):

$$HB = [(\sum p_i^2)^{-1}]/9,$$

where  $p_i$  is the proportion of the density for each species measured in habitat  $i$  (dividing the density in habitat  $i$  by the sum of all maximum densities recorded in the nine main habitat categories). This index ranges between 1 (evenly distributed across the nine habitats) and 1/9 (present only in one habitat). Habitat breadth on each island was also calculated for the species (see Appendix S2), using the same index and considering the habitats distinguished in Fuerteventura (12), Tenerife (14) and La Palma (11). The taxonomic status of each species was assessed using the recent compendium of bird natural history for the Canary Islands (Martín & Lorenzo, 2001), other more recent reports (Kvist *et al.*, 2005;

Packert *et al.*, 2006), and unpublished data from the regional government (J. L. Martín-Esquivel, personal communication). An ordinal categorical variable measuring the degree of endemism was created, assigning the value 2 to endemic species, 1 to endemic subspecies, and 0 to all other species, whether native or recently introduced.

To take into account the range position of the study species, we estimated the distance between the Canary Islands and the nearest area-of-distribution limit of the native species in the mainland from the distribution maps in the Western Palearctic (Perrins, 1998). This measurement could not be obtained for three recently introduced species from Argentina, India and Southern Africa (*Myiopsitta monachus*, *Psittacula krameri* and *Streptopelia roseogrisea*, respectively), nor for the 10 endemic species of Macaronesia (Madeira, Azores and Canary Islands: *Apus unicolor*, *Columba bollii*, *C. junoniae*, *Anthus berthelotii*, *Saxicola dacotiae*, *Phylloscopus canariensis*, *Regulus teneriffae*, *Cyanistes teneriffae*, *Fringilla teydea* and *Serinus canaria*).

Finally, body mass was used to account for several aspects related to life history (Peters, 1983), habitat use (Polo & Carrascal, 1999), flight performance (Ellington, 1991; Spaar, 1997), population density and the extent of occurrence (see review by Gaston & Blackburn, 2000). The body mass of species was obtained from published literature (Perrins, 1998) as the mean weight of males and females, or as the average value of body-weight range in spring and summer. In some instances where body mass was not available (*Apus unicolor*, *Columba bollii* and *C. junoniae*), it was calculated by means of allometric relationships among closely related species of the South-western Palearctic, using tarsus and wing lengths as predictors ( $R^2 > 0.90$ ).

## Statistical methods

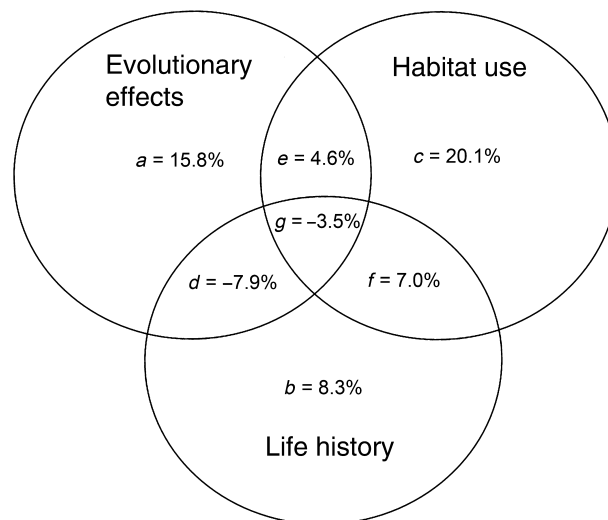
We used phylogenetic eigenvector regression (PVR) to quantify the amount of phylogenetic signal and to correct for this signal in analysing the relationship between occupancy and ecological and biogeographical variables (Diniz-Filho *et al.*, 1998; Diniz-Filho & Torres, 2002). In order to perform the PVR, we first created a matrix of pairwise phylogenetic distances between the 48 species and used it to carry out a principal coordinates analysis (PCoA). The axes of the PCoA account for the bird phylogeny. We selected the first four axes (PVR components) using the broken-stick rule to parsimoniously summarize the phylogenetic signal present in the data.

The phylogenetic hypothesis used was taken from Sibley & Ahlquist (1990), and is based on DNA-DNA hybridization data. Although more recent phylogenies (e.g. Barker *et al.*, 2004; Fain & Houde, 2004; Ericson *et al.*, 2006) show several regions of the Sibley and Ahlquist phylogeny to be misleading, these discrepancies do not affect the phylogenetic hypothesis used in this study for the analysed species. Accordingly, the matrices of phylogenetic distances between the 48 bird species are nearly identical considering Sibley & Ahlquist (1990) or more recent literature sources (Mantel test of correlation

between matrices:  $r = 0.94$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ). Moreover, Sibley & Ahlquist's (1990) work is the only one that provides a topology for all the families and genera used in this study and seems to be well resolved above the subfamily level (Mooers & Cotgreave, 1994). Because  $\text{deltaT}_{50H}$  values provided by Sibley & Ahlquist (1990) do not establish unequivocally the evolutionary time elapsed between species and nodes, and between nodes (Mooers & Cotgreave, 1994), alternative distance matrices can be designed by transforming the distances to test phylogenetic effects. Therefore, we carried out phylogenetic analyses with the original distances ( $d_{ij}$  between species  $i$  and  $j$ ), the squared transformed matrix ( $d_{ij}^2$ ; to decrease independence among contemporary tip species), and the square-rooted distances ( $d_{ij}^{0.5}$ ; to increase independence among contemporary tip species). Working with these extreme phylogenies allowed us to test the robustness of phylogenies when using inaccurate branch-length information (Martins & Garland, 1991).

A first assessment of the phylogenetic signal in the data ( $R^2$ , variance explained by the phylogenetic hypothesis) was made by linear regression of the study variables on the selected eigenvectors. This analysis was carried out using the first four PVR components obtained with the phylogenetic distance matrix using original, squared and square-rooted distances. Second, a multiple regression analysis was used, regressing the number of occupied Canary Islands (the response variable; log-transformed) upon the explanatory variables and the four phylogenetic PVR components. A type-III sum of squares for variance partitioning was used. Species body mass, maximum ecological density and midpoint altitude were log-transformed, whereas for habitat breadth and average urban and agriculture cover, the angular transformation was used ( $\arcsin$  square-root [ $x_i$ ],  $x_i$  being a number between 0 and 1). The degree of endemism was included as an ordinal predictor. Finally, the maximal regression model that included all the predictors was reduced with stepwise regression, where alternative models were compared with the version of the Akaike information criterion (AIC) corrected for small sample sizes (s-PLUS function stepAIC.c by Spencer Graves, available at <http://www.prodsyse.com>).

In order to determine the relative merits of the various explanations for the occupancy we followed a variance partitioning scheme (see Fig. 2 and Borcard *et al.*, 1992; Heikkinen *et al.*, 2004, for similar approaches; Carrete *et al.*, 2007; Diniz-Filho & Bini, 2008). We divided the explanatory variables into three sets: (1) the four phylogenetic eigenvectors and the endemism, (2) the maximum ecological density and the body mass, and (3) the midpoint altitude, the urban cover, the agricultural cover and the habitat breadth. Then we built multiple linear regressions models with each of these sets on their own, as well as three other models combining sets (1 + 2), (1 + 3), (2 + 3) and, finally, the maximal model with the full set of variables. The first three models allow the estimation of the fraction of the variance that can be attributed to evolutionary effects (set 1), life-history traits (set 2) and habitat use (set 3), and the rest serve to calculate the phylogenetically structured effects (sets 1 + 2 and 1 + 3), the concomitant effects of life-history and habitat-use patterns (set 2 + 3), and the maximum



**Figure 2** Variation partitioning for the extent of occurrence (number of islands occupied) among evolutionary (phylogenetic eigenvectors and endemism), life-history (body mass and maximum ecological density) and habitat-use (midpoint altitude, habitat breadth and cover of urban and agricultural areas) components.

explanation attainable (sets 1 + 2 + 3). Pure and joint fractions were estimated by simple algebra with the  $R^2$  of the models. For example, the portion of variance in the extent of occurrence attributed to pure evolutionary effects was calculated as the  $R^2$  of the maximal model (built with sets 1 + 2 + 3) minus the  $R^2$  of the regression built with sets (2 + 3).

The effect of the distance between the Canary Islands and the nearest distribution border on the European or African mainland on the species geographical ranges in the Canary Islands was tested by means of the correlation between the logarithm of these geographical distances and the residuals of the maximal regression model. Multiple regression analyses were carried out using STATISTICA 6.0 (StatSoft Inc., 2001). Residuals were checked for normality, patterns of relationship of residuals and predictions of the regression models (to identify deviations from the assumption of linearity), and for influence and outlier data points using Cook's distance and leverage. We also tried alternative Poisson regressions with the response variables (generalized linear models with Poisson errors and with the log-link function), but they resulted in a worse fit to the data (overdispersion parameter  $\phi$  highly deviated from one and poorer residual plots), so we based our analyses instead on general linear regression.

## RESULTS

### Phylogenetic effects

The PCoA on the original distance matrix resulted in 37 eigenvectors. We selected the first four eigenvectors, which accounted for 68% of the total variation observed in the

original distances in the phylogenetic matrix. The first eigenvector mainly separates the Passeriformes from the remaining species. The second eigenvector clearly separates the Columbiformes from a large clade composed of Falconiformes, Galliformes, Charadriiformes, Coraciiformes and Piciformes, which is again separated into two groups by the third eigenvector (Falconiformes and Charadriiformes vs. Galliformes, Coraciiformes and Piciformes). Finally, the fourth eigenvector introduces subtle differentiations between the clades previously defined by the first three eigenvectors. The alternative phylogenetic hypotheses using square or square-root transformations of original phylogenetic distances produced similar results (square-rooted distances: 56% of explained variation from original phylogeny; squared distances: 72%).

Neither measure of occupancy (number of occupied islands or  $10 \times 10$  km UTM squares) regressed significantly on the phylogenetic eigenvectors (Table 1). Similarly, average position in the altitudinal gradients of the islands, distance to the nearest mainland distribution border, habitat breadth and preference for areas devoted to agriculture did not show any appreciable amount of phylogenetic signal. The occupation of urban environments and, most notably, body mass and maximum ecological density in the Canary Islands showed a marked phylogenetic effect accounting for 21–57% of the variation in the actual observed interspecific variation. These results hold irrespective of the phylogenetic distances used in

**Table 1** Phylogenetic signal in the study variables used in the analyses. We show the explained variance ( $R^2$  in percentage) and  $P$ -value ( $P$ ) for the multiple linear regression models of each variable on the first four eigenvectors extracted from the principal coordinates analysis performed on the phylogenetic matrix, using original, square and square-root transformed phylogenetic distances. The sample size is  $n = 48$  for all variables except for the nearest distance to the mainland distribution border, for which  $n = 35$

Variable	Original		Square		Square root	
	$R^2$	$P$	$R^2$	$P$	$R^2$	$P$
Occupied islands*	4.2	0.759	5.2	0.669	3.6	0.803
Occupied $10 \times 10$ km UTM squares*	13.0	0.189	6.9	0.534	13.2	0.182
Maximum ecological density*	50.6	< 0.001	51.0	< 0.001	51.3	< 0.001
Body mass*	57.2	< 0.001	57.0	< 0.001	57.2	< 0.001
Urban cover†	31.8	0.002	20.7	0.037	34.6	< 0.001
Cover of agricultural areas†	10.7	0.289	12.0	0.231	10.8	0.287
Midpoint altitude*	13.0	0.188	10.8	0.283	14.8	0.135
Habitat breadth†	7.6	0.485	4.9	0.694	7.7	0.474
Nearest distance to the mainland distribution border*	3.5	0.895	7.7	0.647	2.6	0.395

\*Log-transformed.

†Using the angular transformation.

the analyses (i.e. original, squared or square-rooted). Therefore, results obtained with the original phylogenetic distances are presented in the following paragraphs for the sake of simplicity.

### Archipelago occupancy

The maximal model (i.e. using the full set of predictor variables) for the extent of occurrence using the number of occupied islands was significant ( $F_{11,36} = 3.03$ ,  $P = 0.006$ ) and explained 48.1% of the variation in the data (Table 2). Controlling for phylogenetic effects in both the response and explanatory variables, the number of occupied islands in the Canary archipelago was positively influenced by habitat breadth and negatively affected by body size of terrestrial birds (both at  $P < 0.05$ ). The degree of endemism (with a negative effect) approached significance ( $P = 0.060$ ).

Most of the variation in occupancy was explained by the simple effects of variables describing the species habitat use (20.1%) and, to a lesser extent, by the evolutionary effects and life-history variables alone (15.8% and 8.3%, respectively; Fig. 2). The joint effects were low, and two resulted in negative values, showing low interaction effects between the sets of variables. There were no relevant phylogenetically structured effects (i.e. there is a lack of high positive joint effects with phylogeny).

All of the similar plausible regression models (those with  $\Delta AIC < 2$ ; Table 3) incorporated the degree of endemism, body mass and habitat breadth, reinforcing their prominent

**Table 2** Summary table for the maximal model explaining the extent of occurrence as the number of islands occupied ( $F_{11,36} = 3.03$ ,  $P = 0.006$ ). For each variable, the fitted standardized regression coefficient ( $\beta$ ) and its corresponding significance ( $F$  and  $P$  values for partial effects) are shown. Also shown is the model with the lowest Akaike information criterion (see Table 3). Numbers between square brackets indicate whether the variable describes [1] evolutionary effects, [2] life-history traits or [3] habitat use

	Maximal model			Best subset model		
	$\beta$	$F$	$P$	$\beta$	$F$	$P$
PVR1 [1]	-0.35	3.86	0.057	-0.34	4.29	0.045
PVR2 [1]	-0.04	0.06	0.801			
PVR3 [1]	-0.03	0.05	0.831			
PVR4 [1]	-0.36	6.88	0.013	-0.34	7.61	0.009
Endemism (0-non, 1-sub spp, 2-spp) [1]	-0.34	3.77	0.060	-0.36	7.72	0.008
Body mass [2]	-0.49	5.19	0.029	-0.48	7.53	0.009
Maximum ecological density [2]	-0.06	0.08	0.780			
Midpoint altitude [3]	0.06	0.16	0.688			
Urban cover [3]	0.26	2.76	0.105	0.25	3.82	0.057
Cover of agricultural areas [3]	0.14	1.00	0.325			
Habitat breadth [3]	0.41	9.82	0.003	0.44	12.72	0.001

**Table 3** Possible models for the extent of occurrence of terrestrial bird species in the Canary Islands (measured as the number of occupied islands) ordered by the value of the AIC (with small sample correction). Only those models with an increase in the AIC statistic lower than 2 are shown (see  $\Delta$ AIC figures)

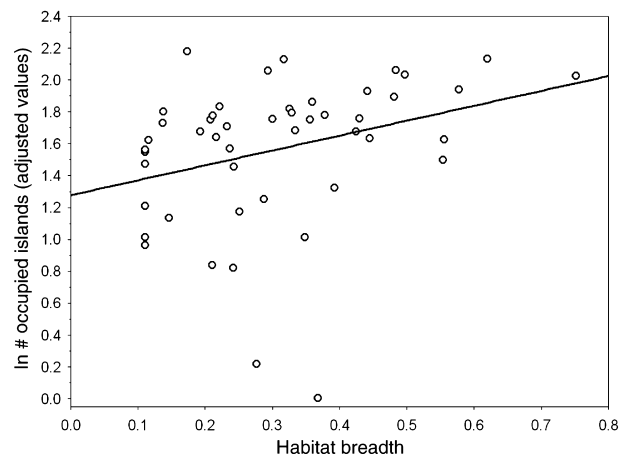
Model	AIC	$\Delta$ AIC
PVR1 + PVR4 + endemism + body mass + urban cover + habitat breadth	62.94	0.00
PVR1 + PVR4 + endemism + body mass + habitat breadth	63.85	0.90
PVR4 + endemism + body mass + urban cover + habitat breadth	64.62	1.67
PVR1 + endemism + body mass + urban cover + habitat breadth	64.72	1.78
PVR1 + PVR4 + endemism + body mass + urban cover + cover of agricultural areas + habitat breadth	64.79	1.85

role in determining the extent of distribution in the Canary Islands. Inclusion of urban cover and agricultural cover is more debatable, as these terms are in only some of the best models, all of which are equally plausible. The model with the lowest AIC included body size, habitat breadth, the degree of endemism and the average urban cover of the preferred habitat (the latter approaching significance at  $P = 0.057$ ) plus the phylogenetic eigenvectors PVR1 and PVR4 ( $R^2 = 0.461$ ,  $F_{6,41} = 5.84$ ,  $P = 0.0002$ ; see Tables 2 and 3).

The residuals from the maximal model were uncorrelated with the nearest distance to the mainland distribution border of the native species ( $r = 0.061$ ,  $n = 35$ ,  $P = 0.727$ ).

The two measures of occupancy (number of occupied islands and  $10 \times 10$  km UTM squares) were highly correlated ( $r = 0.744$ ,  $n = 48$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ). Indeed, the results were very similar regardless of the variable used. The best subset model obtained for the number of occupied  $10 \times 10$  km UTM squares was very close to the one obtained for the number of occupied islands (see the results on the right-hand side of Table 2). The regression model was highly significant ( $F_{6,41} = 19.98$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ,  $R^2 = 0.745$ ), with very significant negative associations with the degree of endemism ( $\beta = -0.31$ ,  $P = 0.001$ ) and body mass ( $\beta = -0.41$ ,  $P = 0.002$ ), and positive relationships with habitat breadth ( $\beta = 0.78$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) and the average urban cover of the preferred habitat ( $\beta = 0.19$ ,  $P = 0.038$ ), after controlling for the phylogenetic vectors PVR1 ( $P = 0.117$ ) and PVR4 ( $P = 0.007$ ).

To summarize, the occupancy of the terrestrial birds of the Canary Islands during the breeding season shows a very low phylogenetic effect. Those species with broader habitat breadth (Fig. 3), smaller body size, lower endemism score, and (marginally) more intense preferences for urban environments had a broader geographical distribution in the archipelago, occupying a larger number of islands.



**Figure 3** Relationship between the number of islands occupied by terrestrial birds in the Canary Islands and their habitat breadth. Habitat breadth is measured using the distribution of maximum densities measured in the nine main habitats defined in the Canary Islands (see Methods). The  $y$ -axis shows the partial effects for habitat breadth (that is, it shows the response variable modelled with the maximal model in Table 3, excluding the habitat breadth term).

### Within-island occupancy

Table 4 shows the relationships between the area of occupancy (measured as the number of occupied  $10 \times 10$  km UTM squares), the abundance and the habitat breadth of the species in Fuerteventura, Tenerife and La Palma, after controlling for the phylogenetic effects accounted for by the vectors PVR1 to PVR4. The other five variables included in Table 2 were not considered here owing either to lack of significance or variation across islands (for variables endemism and body mass), or to sample-size deficiencies that prevented the estimation of accurate averages for some species (for variables midpoint altitude, urban cover and cover of agricultural areas).

The effect of phylogeny was very low, reaching significance only on Fuerteventura Island (again the vectors PVR1 and PVR4). Habitat breadth had a consistent positive and significant influence for the three islands. The maximum ecological density had a positive influence on area of occupancy for the three islands, although it reached the significance level only on Fuerteventura.

### DISCUSSION

The two measurements of occupancy of the species examined in this study were tightly correlated and produced very similar results, although the amount of variance explained by the ecological and phylogenetic correlates was larger for the area of occurrence (73%) than for the number of islands on which the species were present (47%). Nevertheless, it can be argued that the number of occupied islands is a better measure of the geographical extent of a species within archipelagos (although

	Fuerteventura			Tenerife			La Palma		
	$\beta$	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>	$\beta$	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>	$\beta$	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>
PVR1	-0.35	7.87	0.010	-0.10	0.56	0.461	0.07	0.17	0.686
PVR2	-0.19	1.99	0.171	-0.04	0.07	0.800	0.25	1.96	0.174
PVR3	-0.23	4.14	0.053	0.01	0.00	0.947	0.19	2.17	0.154
PVR4	-0.25	5.05	0.034	-0.14	1.42	0.242	0.12	0.82	0.374
Maximum ecological density	0.34	5.84	0.024	0.10	0.51	0.480	0.25	1.29	0.267
Habitat breadth	0.88	49.49	< 0.001	0.75	38.85	< 0.001	0.59	17.15	< 0.001

**Table 4** Multiple regression analyses showing the relationship between the number of  $10 \times 10$  km UTM squares occupied and the maximum ecological density and habitat breadth of the terrestrial birds in Fuerteventura (31 species), Tenerife (39 species) and La Palma (31 species), controlling for the phylogenetic effects PVR1–PVR4. For each variable, the standardized regression coefficient ( $\beta$ ) and its corresponding significance (*F* and *P* values for partial effects) are shown

more difficult to model) than the number of geographical spatial units occupied (e.g. number of UTM squares of  $10 \times 10$  km), because it is more closely related to demographic processes and ecological niche requirements. For example, although two species may show the same area of occurrence in an archipelago, one could inhabit several habitats on a single homogeneous large island (e.g. *Saxicola dacotiae*, which occupies 28  $10 \times 10$  km UTM squares in the dry habitats of Fuerteventura), whereas the other could be restricted to fewer habitats on several islands (e.g. *Scolopax rusticola*, which occupies 29 squares on five islands). The number of occupied islands is a rough index of eurytopicity both at the landscape (habitats available and occupied on different islands) and at the geographical (occupation of different islands according to their size, altitudinal gradients, and distance from the mainland) scale, and summarizes a species' ecological ability to colonize and persist under a wide variety of environmental conditions.

Niche-based characteristics may explain patterns of distribution and abundance from the level of local habitats to that of geographical ranges (Gaston *et al.*, 1997b). High range occupancy is frequent in species that are common and tolerate a relatively wide range of ecological conditions (Swihart *et al.*, 2003; Böhning-Gaese *et al.*, 2006; Hurlbert & White, 2007). Consistent with this, a direct measure of the ecological width of the terrestrial bird species of the Canary Islands (habitat breadth) is tightly correlated with occupancy measured for the entire archipelago, either as the number of occupied islands or as  $10 \times 10$  km UTM squares (Fig. 3). Moreover, this relationship is also found within each of the three studied islands. The regional range size of a species has often been explained by the species habitat breadth or position in such a way that those species with larger realized niche breadths, or those occupying common and extensive habitats, are in turn more widespread (Gaston & Blackburn, 2000; Gaston, 2003). Being of volcanic origin, the Canary islands differ in age, size, topography and habitat types, and this variability provides a wide range of highly contrasting environmental conditions to which species must adapt, such that eurytopic or tolerant species are more likely to inhabit a wide variety of habitats and to establish populations on several islands.

On the other hand, the maximum ecological density attained in the preferred habitat did not enter the best subset models for occupancy over the entire archipelago (Table 3),

and was not significantly related to the area of occupancy at the within-island level in Tenerife and La Palma. These results are consistent with observations of birds in continental areas (see also arguments for the lack of this association in Blackburn *et al.*, 2006; Reif *et al.*, 2006; Symonds & Johnson, 2006). Interestingly, the explanations of the abundance–range relationship based on local population dynamics rely on the ability of the species to disperse and colonize new areas (Watkinson *et al.*, 2003), and these processes may be disrupted in insular contexts.

Barriers to dispersal could clarify the effect of abundance on range size because individuals in local dense populations can colonize new areas (thus creating the positive relationship between local abundance and range size) only if they are first able to disperse to such new areas. Within a single island, such barriers to dispersal do not exist, and thus if the same processes as driving continental occupancy–abundance relationships are at work, one would expect a positive relationship between the density and the number of UTM squares occupied on that island. This relationship is positive and attains significance only in the most homogeneous and arid of the islands (Fuerteventura; Table 4). However, if these occupancy–abundance relationships are not stronger than the archipelago-wide relationship, then it may be caused not only by barriers to dispersal, but possibly by other features either of the species or of the region. This would be the case for the more heterogeneous islands of Tenerife and La Palma, for which the great environmental heterogeneity (both in habitat types and in altitudinal belts) provides many opportunities for local adaptations and specialization, resulting in high ecological densities in more productive environments (e.g. laurel forests; see, for example, Carrascal *et al.*, 1992; Valido *et al.*, 1994, for the Canary common chaffinch).

The association between the extent of the geographical range and body size of species is controversial, with highly contrasting patterns, depending on the taxonomic and geographical scenarios examined (see the review by Gaston, 2003). The relationship between occupancy and body size for terrestrial bird species in the Canary Islands was significant and negative for both the number of occupied islands and the occurrence in UTM squares. This association may be founded in the widely recognized influence of body mass on population size and life-history traits. Thus, body mass and abundance are usually



negatively correlated in birds (Gaston & Blackburn, 2000), especially if maximum ecological densities in the preferred habitats are considered at the regional scale (Carrascal & Tellería, 1991). These two variables were significantly correlated in the Canary Islands: smaller birds reached higher densities in their preferred habitats than did larger terrestrial birds ( $\beta = -0.48$ ,  $F_{1,42} = 12.89$ ,  $P < 0.001$  in the regression analysis controlling for the four phylogenetic vectors). A high population density, combined with the intense allometric relationship of body mass in birds with some demographic parameters, such as fecundity or age at first breeding attempt (Peters, 1983; Brown *et al.*, 2004; Hendriks, 2007), decreases the probability of local extinctions that are especially adverse on small islands, and for those stenotopic species restricted to some particular habitats of reduced extent (Reynolds, 2003).

Large body size is apparently a common correlate of present extinction susceptibility in many vertebrate groups (Purvis *et al.*, 2003; Brook & Bowman, 2005), and especially so in birds (Gaston & Blackburn, 1995; Owens & Bennett, 2000). Large-sized species usually have 'slow' life cycles (i.e., they produce small numbers of offspring at a late age) and often live at low densities (Gaston & Blackburn, 2000; Reynolds, 2003). If they have restricted geographical ranges, it is probable that declining abundances and range sizes mediated by habitat loss or mortality render them more susceptible to local extinctions that would result in their extirpation from small islands. In insular volcanic environments the probability of catastrophic natural phenomena is high (e.g., volcanic eruptions, storms) and the influence of human impacts is proportionally higher owing to the small area (Whittaker & Fernández-Palacios, 2007; Fernández-Palacios & Whittaker, 2008). Several examples illustrate this pattern of body size and extinction in the Canary Islands (Rando *et al.*, 1999; Martín & Lorenzo, 2001; Rando & Alcover, 2008). *Puffinus holeae* (c. 700 g), *P. olsoni* (c. 350 g) and *Coturnix gomerae* (probably c. 150 g) are three large endemic Canarian species considered extinct as a result of past anthropogenic activities. In contrast, the only evidence of a historic extinction of a small endemic Canarian species is that of *Emberiza alcoveri* (c. 37 g), probably caused by the reduction of laurel forests, and the introduction of terrestrial predators. On the other hand, four out of five large terrestrial bird species breeding in the Canary Islands have experienced severe conservation problems or local extinction in the past 50 years: the Houbara bustard (*Chlamydotis undulata*, 1200–2400 g), and the large-sized birds of prey *Milvus milvus*, *Buteo buteo* and *Neophron percnopterus* (550–2200 g, Martín & Lorenzo, 2001; Gangoso *et al.*, 2006). The sole Canary endemic extinct in recent historical times is the Canary Islands oystercatcher *Haematopus meadewaldoi* (perhaps 600–800 g). All of these species reached very low maximum ecological densities (lower than 1.2 birds/km<sup>2</sup>) and have body masses larger than 600 g. In contrast, not one small species (i.e., < 20 g, 13 spp.) has become extinct since the mid 20th century on any of the Canary Islands, nor have any been recognized as threatened on the Canary Islands Red List of birds. The only exceptions within medium-sized terrestrial bird species (i.e., 20–750 g,

31 spp.) are the locally threatened *Calandrella rufescens* in Tenerife (23 g) and the endemic *Fringilla teydea polatzeki* (30 g) in Gran Canaria, with their status attributed mainly to the lack or recent loss of adequate habitat.

From the two measures of habitat use related to human impact (agriculture and urbanism), only the cover of urban structures in the areas where the species were present was directly related to occupancy. Although this effect is quite obvious with alien species or with those that have recently colonized the islands (e.g., *Psittacula krameri*, *Myiopsitta monachus*, *Streptopelia roseogrisea*, *Streptopelia decaocto*, *Passer hispaniolensis*), it also affects several native birds principally inhabiting natural environments, such as *Phylloscopus canariensis*, *Cyanistes teneriffae* and *Motacilla cinerea canariensis*. This is in agreement with a previous study (Palomino & Carrascal, 2005), which found that the overall proportion of bird species from the regional pool 'captured' by urban environments is higher on the island of Tenerife than on the mainland (central Spain), leading to the conclusion that the avifauna of the Canary Islands is more prone to occupying novel urban environments. Urban environments are recent, artificial habitats and are structurally similar between the islands. Hence, species having traits that enable them to become 'urban exploiters' should increase their geographical extent in the archipelago in parallel to urban sprawl (Kark *et al.*, 2007). In contrast, those species that are unable to take advantage of the urban environments ('urban avoiders') have a restricted extent of occupancy in the archipelago. Future landscape planning associated with urbanization (a common threat to coastal habitats) should be considered carefully, since the impact of increased urban sprawl will lead to even greater restriction of distributions of 'urban avoider' species.

Species from mountain areas have less potential habitat available than those living in lowland areas, simply because of the conic shape of mountains (high-altitude belts have smaller surfaces than lower-altitude belts). Therefore, bird species inhabiting areas at higher altitudes should have smaller occupancies, which leads to smaller population sizes and could thus render them more prone to local extinctions (O'Grady *et al.*, 2004). This prediction is not supported by bird populations in the Canary Islands. This counterintuitive result is the consequence of the lack of mountain or alpine bird species in the avifauna of this region (Martín & Lorenzo, 2001), which is located at a great distance from the large alpine areas of the Western Palaearctic. Indeed, the bird species that reach higher altitudes in the Canary Islands are those with broad altitudinal ranges and are mainly distributed in lowland areas (Carrascal & Palomino, 2005).

The Canary Islands are located at the south-western limit of the Western Palaearctic, and thus biogeographical factors may also be important in explaining interspecific variation in range sizes. Species should be more prevalent towards the centre of a range than towards its periphery, because the probability of encountering a site meeting their ecological needs should decrease with increasing distance from the 'optimal' core area (Brown, 1984). This paper does not support the predicted

association, as the residuals from the maximal model in Table 2 were uncorrelated with distance to the continental distribution border. A possible explanation for this lack of association is that the Canary archipelago has highly contrasting environmental conditions and a large number of available habitats for colonizers as a result of the wide altitudinal range and the considerable climate variation, providing many distinct ecological opportunities for the bird fauna.

Endemic island birds can exhibit niche release and develop local adaptations that enable them to exploit a wider spectrum of resources and habitats than their continental counterparts (the niche expansion hypothesis; Lack, 1969; Blondel *et al.*, 1988; Owens *et al.*, 2006), particularly if they are highly mobile species such as birds. Consequently, endemic species, having had enough time to undergo this process, would colonize a larger area (Fjelds  & Lovett, 1997; but note, however, that niche expansion could be an entirely plastic response of the species occurring on an ecological timescale). Alternatively, endemic taxa are older colonizers or have evolved more rapidly than non-endemics, in either case having developed phenotypic changes in response to the novel environments on the islands (Millien, 2006). These changes could fine-tune the species to particular insular habitats, generating local adaptations that would limit their potential distribution area. Our results support the latter scenario, as we found a negative relationship between endemism and range size: endemic taxa occupied fewer islands and 10 × 10 km UTM squares. A possible explanation is that successful recent colonizers have not had the time to differentiate, adapt and specialize to very particular environments. However, several other taxa have apparently radiated rapidly, differentiating into recognized species or subspecies that become restricted to a few habitats and islands.

In conclusion, the occupancy of bird species in the Canary Islands, an oceanic archipelago, correlates positively with habitat breadth (and to a lesser extent with preferences for urban environments) and negatively with the degree of endemism and body size. Consequently, generalist species with a tolerance for novel urban environments tend to be present on more islands (or to occupy a greater area), whereas larger species that have at least partially differentiated within the islands are less widespread. We did not find the positive relationship of range size with local abundance previously shown in continental studies, probably because it relies on free dispersal over continuous landmasses, and thus may be disrupted in island scenarios. Therefore, the range of a species – even across limited areas such as an archipelago – is at least partly determined by basic biological features and is independent of anthropogenic alterations to the habitat.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This paper was funded by projects CGL2005-02642/BOS of the Spanish Ministry of Educaci n y Ciencia and CENTINELA for the monitoring and management of Macaronesian endangered species (Interreg III-B A ores-Canarias-Madeira 2000–2006). The local government (cabildo) of Fuerteventura allowed us to

use their facilities at La Oliva Biological Station. We also thank Claire Jasinski and Sarah Young for improving the English. Michael Patten, Robert J. Whittaker and two anonymous referees made suggestions to improve the first versions of the manuscript.

## REFERENCES

- Barker, F.K., Cibois, A., Schikler, P., Feinstein, J. & Cracraft, J. (2004) Phylogeny and diversification of the largest avian radiation. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences USA*, **101**, 11040–11045.
- Bibby, C.J., Burgess, N.D., Hill, D.A. & Mustoe, S.H. (2000) *Bird census techniques*, 2nd edn. Academic Press, London.
- Blackburn, T.M., Cassey, P. & Gaston, K.J. (2006) Variations on a theme: sources of heterogeneity in the form of the interspecific relationship between abundance and distribution. *Journal of Animal Ecology*, **75**, 1426–1439.
- Blondel, J., Chessel, D. & Frochet, B. (1988) Bird species impoverishment, niche expansion, and density inflation in Mediterranean island habitats. *Ecology*, **69**, 1899–1917.
- B hning-Gaese, K. & Oberrath, R. (1999) Phylogenetic effects on morphological, life-history, behavioural and ecological traits of birds. *Evolutionary Ecology Research*, **1**, 347–364.
- B hning-Gaese, K., Caprano, T., Van Ewijk, K. & Veith, M. (2006) Range size: disentangling current traits and phylogenetic and biogeographic factors. *The American Naturalist*, **167**, 555–567.
- Borcard, D., Legendre, P. & Drapeau, P. (1992) Partialling out the spatial component of ecological variation. *Ecology*, **73**, 1045–1055.
- Brook, B.W. & Bowman, D.M.J.S. (2005) One equation fits overkill: why allometry underpins both prehistoric and modern body size-biased extinctions. *Population Ecology*, **47**, 137–141.
- Brown, J.H. (1984) On the relationship between abundance and distribution of species. *The American Naturalist*, **124**, 255–279.
- Brown, J.H., Gillooly, J.F., Allen, A.P., Savage, V.M. & West, G.B. (2004) Toward a metabolic theory of ecology. *Ecology*, **85**, 1771–1789.
- Buckland, S.T., Anderson, D.R., Burnham, K.P., Laake, J.L., Borchers, D.L. & Thomas, L. (2001) *Introduction to distance sampling*, 1st edn. Oxford University Press, Oxford.
- Carrascal, L.M. & Palomino, D. (2005) Preferencias de h bitat, densidad y diversidad de las comunidades de aves en Tenerife (islas Canarias). *Animal Biodiversity and Conservation*, **28**, 101–119.
- Carrascal, L.M. & Teller a, J.L. (1991) Bird size and density – a regional approach. *The American Naturalist*, **138**, 777–784.
- Carrascal, L.M., Teller a, J.L. & Valido, A. (1992) Habitat distribution of Canary chaffinches among islands: competitive exclusion or species-specific habitat preferences? *Journal of Biogeography*, **19**, 383–390.
- Carrete, M., Grande, J.M., Tella, J.L., S nchez-Zapata, J.A., Don zar, J.A., D az-Delgado, R. & Romo, A. (2007)

- Habitat, human pressure, and social behavior: partialling out factors affecting large-scale territory extinction in an endangered vulture. *Biological Conservation*, **136**, 143–154.
- Channell, R. & Lomolino, M.V. (2000) Dynamic biogeography and conservation of endangered species. *Nature*, **403**, 84–86.
- Clarke, T., Orgill, C. & Disley, T. (2006) *Field guide to the birds of the Atlantic islands: Canary Islands, Madeira, Azores, Cape Verde*. Helm Field Guides, London.
- de Nascimento, L., Willis, K.J., Fernández-Palacios, J.M., Criado, C. & Whittaker, R.J. (in press). The long-term ecology of the forest of La Laguna, Tenerife (Canary Islands). *Journal of Biogeography*.
- Dennis, R.L.H., Donato, B., Sparks, T.H. & Pollard, E. (2000) Ecological correlates of island incidence and geographical range among British butterflies. *Biodiversity and Conservation*, **9**, 343–359.
- Diniz-Filho, J.A.F. & Bini, L.M. (2008) Macroecology, global change and the shadow of forgotten ancestors. *Global Ecology and Biogeography*, **17**, 11–17.
- Diniz-Filho, J.A.F. & Torres, N.M. (2002) Phylogenetic comparative methods and the geographic range size – body size relationship in new world terrestrial carnivora. *Evolutionary Ecology*, **16**, 351–367.
- Diniz-Filho, J.A.F., de Sant’ana, C.E.R. & Bini, L.M. (1998) An eigenvector method for estimating phylogenetic inertia. *Evolution*, **52**, 1247–1262.
- Duminil, J., Fineschi, S., Hampe, A., Jordano, P., Salvini, D., Vendramin, G.G. & Petit, R.J. (2007) Can population genetic structure be predicted from life-history traits? *The American Naturalist*, **169**, 662–672.
- Ellington, C.P. (1991) Limitations on animal flight performance. *Journal of Experimental Biology*, **160**, 71–91.
- Ericson, P.G.P., Anderson, C.L., Britton, T., Elzanowski, A., Johansson, U.S., Källersjö, M., Ohlson, J.I., Parsons, T.J., Zuccon, D. & Mayr, G. (2006) Diversification of Neoaves: integration of molecular sequence data and fossils. *Biological Letters*, **2**, 543–547.
- Fain, M.G. & Houde, P. (2004) Parallel radiations in the primary clades of birds. *Evolution*, **58**, 2558–2573.
- Fernández, M.H. & Vrba, E.S. (2005) Body size, biomic specialization and range size of African large mammals. *Journal of Biogeography*, **32**, 1243–1256.
- Fernández-Palacios, J.M. & Martín-Esquivel, J.L. (2001) *Naturaleza de las Islas Canarias: ecología y conservación*. Turquesa, Santa Cruz de Tenerife.
- Fernández-Palacios, J.M. & Whittaker, R.J. (2008) The Canaries: an important biogeographical meeting place. *Journal of Biogeography*, **35**, 379–387.
- Fjeldså, J. & Lovett, J.C. (1997) Geographical patterns of old and young species in African forest biota: the significance of specific montane areas as evolutionary centres. *Biodiversity and Conservation*, **6**, 325–346.
- Foufopoulos, J. & Ives, A.R. (1999) Reptile extinctions on land-bridge islands: life-history attributes and vulnerability to extinction. *The American Naturalist*, **153**, 1–25.
- Gangoso, L., Donázar, J.A., Scholz, S., Palacios, C.J. & Hiraldo, F. (2006) Contradiction in conservation of island ecosystems: plants, introduced herbivores and avian scavengers in the Canary Islands. *Biodiversity and Conservation*, **15**, 2231–2248.
- Gaston, K.J. (1996) The multiple forms of the interspecific abundance–distribution relationship. *Oikos*, **76**, 211–220.
- Gaston, K.J. (2003) *The structure and dynamics of geographic ranges*. Oxford University Press, Oxford.
- Gaston, K.J. & Blackburn, T.M. (1995) Birds, body-size and the threat of extinction. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*, **347**, 205–212.
- Gaston, K.J. & Blackburn, T. (2000) *Pattern and process in macroecology*. Blackwell Science, Oxford.
- Gaston, K.J., Blackburn, T.M. & Lawton, J.H. (1997b) Interspecific abundance–range size relationships: an appraisal of mechanisms. *Journal of Animal Ecology*, **66**, 579–601.
- Gaston, K.J., Blackburn, T.M., Greenwood, J.J.D., Gregory, R.D., Quinn, R.M. & Lawton, J.H. (2000) Abundance–occupancy relationships. *Journal of Applied Ecology*, **37**, 39–59.
- Gottelli, N.J. & Graves, G.R. (1990) Body size and the occurrence of avian species on land-bridge islands. *Journal of Biogeography*, **17**, 315–325.
- Grant, P.R. (1998) Patterns on islands and microevolution. *Evolution on islands* (ed. by P.R., Grant), pp. 1–17. Oxford University Press, Oxford.
- Harcourt, A.H. (2006) Rarity in the tropics: biogeography and macroecology of the primates. *Journal of Biogeography*, **33**, 2077–2087.
- Hawkins, B.A. & Diniz-Filho, J.A.F. (2006) Beyond Rapoport’s rule: evaluating range size patterns of New World birds in a two-dimensional framework. *Global Ecology and Biogeography*, **15**, 461–469.
- Heikkinen, R.K., Luoto, M., Virkkala, R. & Rainio, K. (2004) Effects of habitat cover, landscape structure and spatial variables on the abundance of birds in an agricultural–forest mosaic. *Journal of Applied Ecology*, **41**, 824–835.
- Hendriks, A.J. (2007) The power of size: a meta-analysis reveals consistency of allometric regressions. *Ecological Modelling*, **205**, 196–208.
- Hurlbert, A.H. & White, E.P. (2007) Ecological correlates of geographical range occupancy in North American birds. *Global Ecology and Biogeography*, **16**, 764–773.
- IUCN (2001) *IUCN Red List categories and criteria: version 3.1*. IUCN Species Survival Commission, Gland, Switzerland and Cambridge, UK.
- Jones, M.J., Sullivan, M.S., Marsden, S.J. & Linsley, M.D. (2001) Correlates of extinction risk of birds from two Indonesian islands. *Biological Journal of the Linnean Society*, **73**, 65–79.
- Juan, C., Emerson, B.C., Oromí, P. & Hewitt, G.M. (2000) Colonization and diversification: towards a phylogeographic synthesis for the Canary Islands. *Trends in Ecology and Evolution*, **15**, 104–109.

- Kark, S., Iwaniuk, A., Schalimtzek, A. & Banker, E. (2007) Living in the city: can anyone become an 'urban exploiter'? *Journal of Biogeography*, **34**, 638–651.
- Kunkel, G. (ed.) (1976) *Biogeography and ecology in the Canary Islands*. W. Junk B.V., The Hague.
- Kvist, L., Broggi, G., Illera, J.C. & Koivula, K. (2005) Colonisation and diversification of the blue tits (*Parus caeruleus teneriffae*-group) in the Canary Islands. *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution*, **34**, 501–511.
- Lack, D. (1969) The numbers of bird species on islands. *Bird Study*, **16**, 193–209.
- Levins, R. (1968) *Evolutions in changing environments: some theoretical explorations*. Princeton University Press, Princeton, NJ.
- Linder, E.T., Villard, M.-A., Maurer, B.A. & Schmidt, E.V. (2000) Geographic range structure in North American landbirds: variation with migratory strategy, trophic level, and breeding habitat. *Ecography*, **23**, 678–686.
- Martí, R. & Del Moral, J.C. (2003) *Atlas de las aves reproductoras de España*. Ministerio de Medio Ambiente-SEO/BirdLife, Madrid.
- Martin, A. & Lorenzo, J.A. (2001) *Aves del archipiélago canario*. Francisco Lemus, La Laguna, Tenerife.
- Martins, E.P. & Garland, T. (1991) Phylogenetic analyses of the correlated evolution of continuous characters – a simulation study. *Evolution*, **45**, 534–557.
- Millien, V. (2006) Morphological evolution is accelerated among island mammals. *PLoS Biology*, **4**, e321.
- Mooers, A.O. & Cotgreave, P. (1994) Sibley and Ahlquist's tapestry dusted off. *Trends in Ecology and Evolution*, **9**, 458–459.
- O'Grady, J.J., Reed, D.H., Brook, B.W. & Frankham, R. (2004) What are the best correlates of predicted extinction risk? *Biological Conservation*, **118**, 513–520.
- Owens, I.P.F. & Bennett, P.M. (2000) Ecological basis of extinction risk in birds: habitat loss versus human persecution and introduced predators. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences USA*, **97**, 12144–12148.
- Owens, I.P.F., Scott, S.N., Robinson, S.I., Clegg, S.M. & Kikkawa, J. (2006) Large body size in island-dwelling passerines: the roles of insular specialization, niche expansion and ecological release. *Acta Zoologica Sinica*, **52**(supplement), 262–266.
- Packert, M., Dietzen, C., Martens, J., Wink, M. & Kvist, L. (2006) Radiation of Atlantic goldcrests *Regulus regulus* spp.: evidence of a new taxon from the Canary Islands. *Journal of Avian Biology*, **37**, 364–380.
- Palomino, D. & Carrascal, L.M. (2005) Birds on novel island environments. A case study with the urban avifauna of Tenerife (Canary Islands). *Ecological Research*, **20**, 611–617.
- Perrins, C. (1998) *The complete birds of the Western Palearctic on CD-ROM*. Oxford University Press, Oxford.
- Peters, R.H. (1983) *The ecological implications of body size*, 1st edn. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- Polo, V. & Carrascal, L.M. (1999) Shaping the body size distribution of passeriformes: habitat use and body size are evolutionarily and ecologically related. *Journal of Animal Ecology*, **68**, 324–337.
- Purvis, A., Orme, C.D.L. & Dolphin, K. (2003) Why are most species small-bodied? A phylogenetic view. *Macroecology: concepts and consequences* (ed. by T.M. Blackburn and K.J. Gaston), pp. 155–173. Blackwell Science, Oxford.
- Rando, J.C. (2002) New data of fossil birds from El Hierro (Canary Islands): probable causes of extinction and some biogeographical considerations. *Ardeola*, **49**, 39–49.
- Rando, J.C. & Alcover, J.A. (2008) Evidence for a second western Palearctic seabird extinction during the last Millennium: the Lava Shearwater *Puffinus olsoni*. *The Ibis*, **150**, 188–192.
- Rando, J.C., López, M. & Seguí, B. (1999) A new species of extinct flightless passerine (Emberizidae: Emberiza) from the Canary Islands. *The Condor*, **101**, 1–13.
- Reif, J., Hořák, D., Sedláček, O., Riegert, J., Pešata, M., Hrázský, Z., Janeček, S. & Storch, D. (2006) Unusual abundance-range size relationship in an Afrotropical bird community: the effect of geographical isolation? *Journal of Biogeography*, **33**, 1959–1968.
- Reynolds, J.D. (2003) Life histories and extinction risk. *Macroecology: concepts and consequences* (ed. by T.M. Blackburn and K.J. Gaston), pp. 195–217. Blackwell Science, Oxford.
- Ricklefs, R.E. & Bermingham, E. (2002) The concept of the taxon cycle in biogeography. *Global Ecology and Biogeography*, **11**, 353–361.
- Sibley, C.G. & Ahlquist, J.E. (1990) *Phylogeny and classification of birds*. Yale University Press, New Haven, CT.
- Sol, D., Timmermans, S. & Lefebvre, L. (2002) Behavioural flexibility and invasion success in birds. *Animal Behaviour*, **63**, 495–502.
- Spaar, R. (1997) Flight strategies of migrating raptors; a comparative study of interspecific variation in flight characteristics. *The Ibis*, **139**, 523–535.
- StatSoft Inc. (2001) *STATISTICA (data analysis software system), version 6*. StatSoft, Inc., Tulsa.
- Steadman, D.W. (2006) *Extinction and biogeography of Tropical Pacific birds*. University of Chicago Press, Chicago.
- Swihart, R.K., Gehring, T.M., Kolozsvary, M.B. & Nupp, T.E. (2003) Responses of 'resistant' vertebrates to habitat loss and fragmentation: the importance of niche breadth and range boundaries. *Diversity and Distributions*, **9**, 1–18.
- Symonds, M.R.E. & Johnson, C.N. (2006) Determinants of local abundance in a major radiation of Australian passerines (Aves: Meliphagoidea). *Journal of Biogeography*, **33**, 794–802.
- Thiollay, J.M. (1997) Distribution and abundance patterns of bird community and raptor populations in the Andaman archipelago. *Ecography*, **20**, 67–82.
- Valido, A., Tellería, J.L. & Carrascal, L.M. (1994) Between and within habitat distribution of the Canary Common Chaffinch (*Fringilla coelebs ombriosa*): a test of the abundance resource hypothesis. *Ardeola*, **41**, 29–35.

- Waldron, A. (2007) Null models of geographic range size evolution reaffirm its heritability. *The American Naturalist*, **170**, 221–231.
- Walter, H. & Breckle, S.-W. (2002) *Walter's vegetation of the Earth*. Springer-Verlag, Berlin.
- Watkinson, A.R., Gill, J.A. & Freckleton, R. (2003) Macroecology and microecology: linking large-scale patterns of abundance to population processes. *Macroecology: concepts and consequences* (ed. by T.M. Blackburn and K.J. Gaston), pp. 256–273. Blackwell Science, Oxford.
- Whittaker, R.J. & Fernández-Palacios, J.M. (2007) *Island biogeography: ecology, evolution, and conservation*, 2nd edn. Oxford University Press, Oxford.

## SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Additional Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article:

**Appendix S1** Study variables used to explore the determinants of range size for 48 bird species in the Canary Islands.

**Appendix S2** Maximum ecological density (D<sub>max</sub>; birds/m<sup>2</sup>), habitat breadth, and number of occupied 10 × 10 km UTM squares for 48 bird species on three Canary islands.

Please note: Wiley-Blackwell is not responsible for the content or functionality of any supporting materials supplied

by the authors. Any queries (other than missing material) should be directed to the corresponding author for the article.

## BIOSKETCHES

**Luis M. Carrascal** is a research professor at the Department of Biodiversity and Evolutionary Biology at the Museo Nacional de Ciencias Naturales (Spain). His current research interests are focused on macroecology, the biogeographical ecology of the avifauna of the South-western Palearctic and on the study of habitat selection in birds for modelling patterns of species abundance/occurrence.

**Javier Seoane** is in the Ecology Department at the Universidad Autónoma de Madrid (Spain). He is interested in habitat models and their application to conservation biology.

**David Palomino** works for the Spanish Ornithological Society (SEO/BirdLife) and studies bird distribution, abundance and trends in Spain.

**Vicente Polo** is interested in honest signalling behaviour and sexual selection in birds.

---

Editor: Michael Patten