Title: Individual reflectance of solar radiation as a thermoregulatory adaptation to microclimate:

A test in dimorphic male bees (*Centris pallida)*

Short Title: Microclimate Impacts UV-NIR Reflectance in Dimorphic Bees

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Abstract

Incoming solar radiation (wavelengths 290 – 2500 nm) significantly impacts an organism's

thermal balance via radiative heat gain. Species adapted to different environments can differ in

solar reflectance profiles. We hypothesized that conspecific individuals using thermally distinct

microhabitats to engage in fitness-relevant behaviors would show intraspecific differences in

reflectance: we predicted individuals that use hot microclimates (where radiative heat gain

represents a greater thermoregulatory challenge) would be more reflective across the entire solar

spectrum than those using cooler microclimates. Differences in near-infrared (NIR) reflectance

(700 - 2500 nm) are strongly indicative of thermoregulatory adaptation as, unlike differences in

visible reflectance (400 - 700 nm), they are not perceived by ecological or social partners. We

tested these predictions in male *Centris pallida* (Hymenoptera: Apidae) bees from the Sonoran

Desert. Male *C. pallida* use alternative reproductive tactics that are associated with distinct

microclimates: Large-morph males, with paler visible coloration, behave in an extremely hot

microclimate close to the ground, while small-morph males, with a dark brown dorsal coloration,

frequently use cooler microclimates above the ground near vegetation. We found that large-

morph males had increased reflectance of solar radiation (UV through NIR) resulting in lower

solar absorption coefficients. This thermoregulatory adaptation was specific to the dorsal surface,

and produced by differences in hair, not cuticle, characteristics. Our results showed that

intraspecific variation in behavior, particular in relation to microclimate use, can generate unique

thermal adaptations that changes the reflectance of shortwave radiation among individuals within

the same population.

Introduction

Solar (shortwave) radiation plays a large role in an organism's thermoregulation via radiative heat gain, driving adaptive patterns of body coloration and reflectance (Stuart-Fox et al. 2017, Munro et al. 2019). Organisms may absorb solar energy to heat up, or transmit/reflect solar energy to avoid additional heat gain (Amore et al. 2017, Gomez et al. 2021). Environmental conditions are particularly important for ectotherms, which rely heavily on managing the influence of abiotic factors like shortwave radiation to maintain non-lethal body temperatures (Huey and Kingsolver 1989). Differences in reflectance across the entire solar ultraviolet (UV) to near infrared (NIR) spectrum can thus have significant thermoregulatory consequences (Krishna et al. 2020; Wang et al. 2021); for example, the reflective hairs of Saharan silver ants reduce their body temperatures by as much as 7-10 °C (Shi et al. 2015). The thermal effects of variation in solar radiation affect population and species variation in color and reflectance across landscapes (Spicer and Gaston 1999; Willig et al. 2003; Munro et al. 2019; Gomez et al. 2021, Kang et al. 2021, Medina et al. 2018).

Differences in ectotherms' visible coloration (henceforth, VIS reflectance, wavelengths 400 - 700 nm) can serve as a morphological mechanism for thermal adaptation (e.g. Thermal Melanism Hypothesis or Bogert's Rule; Bogert, 1949; Schultz and Hadley 1987; Clusella-Trullas et al. 2007, Hegna et al. 2013). External coloration impacts operative temperatures both across and within lizard species (Cole 1943; Smith et al. 2016). However, climate is a poor predictor of visible color in butterflies, and ant assemblages demonstrate conflicting macrophysiological coloration patterns (Bishop et al. 2016; Schofield et al. 2016; Munro et al. 2019). These conflicting patterns may result from the fact that VIS reflectance is under selection by factors not related to thermoregulation, including social/sexual signaling and anti-predator adaptations,

which may conflict with thermal selective effects (e.g., Hegna et al. 2013, Stuart-Fox et al.

2017). By contrast, differences in external reflectance of NIR (701 – 2500 nm) radiation are not

confounded by ecological and social partners, and are thus generally only under selection for

thermoregulatory reasons (Stuart-Fox et al. 2017). NIR reflectance has larger impacts on heating

rates than VIS reflectance (Wang et al. 2021), and is more consistently associated with climate

variation (Shi et al. 2015; Munro et al. 2019, Kang et al. 2021, Gomez et al. 2021).

Research on adaptive coloration and reflectance has focused on population or species

differences (Baudier et al. 2018, Spacht et al. 2021). However, there can be significant

differences in body temperature associated with radiative heat gain in different microhabitats

(e.g., sunny vs. shaded sites ; Kaspari et al. 2014). Within populations, individuals may vary

consistently in which microhabitats they use based on their behaviors, with significant

thermoregulatory consequences (Baudier et al. 2015, Kaspari et al. 2014, Cerdá et al. 1998, Van

Dyck & Matthysen 1998, Cuesta & Lobo 2019). These individual differences are overlooked by

population- and species-level studies, which treat conspecific individuals as ecologically

equivalent despite the fact that individual variation can impact ecological and evolutionary

dynamics and serves as a major target of natural selection (Bolnick et al. 2003). Studies that

measure within-population differences can yield new insights into the selective pressures that act

on individuals to generate evolutionary adaptations to fine-scale thermal variation.

Centris pallida bees live in the Sonoran Desert and experience extremely high

temperatures during their mating aggregations (Chappell et al. 1984). Males are dimorphic in

behavior and morphology: large-morph males patrol near the ground, fully exposed to the sun,

and attempt to locate females in underground nests using scent. Large-morph males then dig out

and fight over females, which can last 19 minutes or more (Alcock et al. 1977). Small-morph

males occasionally participate in this strategy, but more typically hover 1 m or more above the

ground near vegetation and chase after flying females they locate visually (Alcock 1976, Alcock

et al. 1976, Alcock *et al.* 1977, Alcock 2013). Air temperature in the typical large male

microclimate is nearly 10 °C hotter than the typical small male microclimate by the time mating

behaviors cease, around 1000 - 1100 hr (Barrett et al. 2022).

Large-morph males are paler in visible coloration than small-morph males and females

(Figure 1); however, increased VIS reflectance may be driven in part by the need to camouflage

themselves against the desert soil to reduce predation events by birds and lizards (Alcock 1995).

If the increased reflectance of large-morph males extends into the NIR, it likely represents a

thermoregulatory adaptation to reduce their radiative heat gain in the hotter microclimate. The

darker coloration of small-morph males may also be thermally adaptive, allowing them to

maximize performance during cooler early-morning periods when males are observed to bask on

bushes prior to foraging/mating around 0700 (Barrett, pers. comm.). Radiative heat gain is

critical at low air temperatures (particularly for flying insects that lose heat via convective

cooling, Van Dyck & Matthysen 1998), and plays a large role in allowing ectotherms to reach

active temperatures at cool air temperatures (Kingsolver 1983b). Females, which emerge even

earlier in the cool mornings to forage than small-morph males (Barrett, pers. comm), may also be

darker in coloration in order to increase solar radiative heat gain and maximize foraging

performance.

We hypothesized that microclimate usage drives morph-specific differences in UV-NIR

reflectance. We predicted that large-morph males would have increased reflectance of solar

radiation compared to small-morph males, as a thermoregulatory adaptation to reduce or increase

shortwave radiative heat gain in their hotter or cooler microclimates, respectively. Because

microhabitat differences are strongest in incident radiation from above, we predicted morph

reflectance differences on the dorsal, but not ventral, body surfaces (see Shi et al. 2015). To

better understand mechanisms of morph-specific reflectance we tested whether differences in

reflectance were related to hair (branched setae) or cuticle characteristics; we measured solar

reflectance of the dorsal surface of the thorax with, and without, hairs present. We predicted that

hair density would correlate with increased reflectance across body regions, or morph/sex, and

calculated hair density on the thorax and abdomen across morphs and females. Finally, we

predicted that females would have similar reflectance profiles to small-morph males on the

dorsal surface, and would not differ from males in ventral surface reflectance.

Materials and Methods

Specimen Collection

We classified males as the 'large' male morph if we found them patrolling, digging, or

fighting and they had the grey/white coloration (Figure 1, Supplementary Figure 1) and leg

morphology distinctive to the large, behaviorally-inflexible morph (Alcock 1976, Alcock *et al.*

1977, Snelling 1984). We classified them as 'small' male morphs if we collected them hovering

near vegetation (large-morph males never engage in hovering behavior; Alcock *et al.* 1977). We

collected *C. pallida* males and females (n = 10/morph or sex) in late April and early May of 2018

in the floodplain of the Salt River, in Arizona (N33.552, W111.566), or in late April and early

May of 2019, approximately ~10 km away from the first location (N33.464, W111.632). We

transported bees in a cooler on ice to a lab where we weighed them on an analytical balance

(Metler Toledo AB54-S) to the nearest 0.1 mg.

Figure 1. Visible coloration and size dimorphism in *C. pallida*. Large-morph *C. pallida* male

(left) has a larger body size and a pale-grey coloration across the head, thorax, and abdomen

compared to the small-morph *C. pallida* male (middle), which has a brown head and thorax and

dark grey abdomen, most similar to the female of generally intermediate size (right). Close-up

photos of thorax and abdomen coloration in Supplementary Figure 1.

Morphological Measurements

We used digital calipers (Husky, 6 inch - 3 mode model) to measure the body parts of the

male and female bees used for reflectance spectrophotometry. We assumed the thorax and head

to be a single cylinder for surface area calculations, with a diameter was equal to the widest point

of the thorax and height equal to the length of the bee from the top of the head to the back of the

thorax. We assumed the abdomen was a cylinder with a diameter equal to the width of the

second tergite, and height equal to the length of the abdomen. For surface area calculations, we

subtracted one flat, circular side (e.g., base) of both the thorax-head, and abdomen, cylinders, in

order to account for the surface where the abdomen and thorax meet.

Reflectance Spectrophotometry

We stored males of each morph and females dry, and away from light, following field

collection. We captured total diffuse and spectral ultraviolet to near-infrared (290 - 2500 nm)

percent reflectance (R) of the external surface using a Cary 5000 spectrophotometer equipped

with an Agilent integrating sphere, deuterium arc (<350 nm) and tungsten-halogen (>350 nm)

lamps, and R928 photomultiplier and PbS IR detectors. We limited measurements to a consistent

diameter for all specimen using a custom aluminum aperture (2.18 mm diameter, 0.66 mm

thickness), which we also used during the zero and baseline (Labsphere certified reflectance

standard, Spectralon) measurements. We set integration time to 0.2 seconds, with data intervals

of 1 nm. Baseline measurements varied across set up days, possibly due to minor contamination

on the Spectralon surface, so we used the following formula to standardize measurements

($R_{standardized,n}$) across different set-ups:

$$R_{standardized,n} = R_n \frac{(B_{Day1-100\%} - B_{Day1-0\%})}{(B_{n-100\%} - B_{n-0\%})}$$

Where R_n is the measured percent reflectance on Day n, $B_{100\%}$ is the Spectralon baseline

(on Day 1 through Day n) and $B_{0\%}$ is the zero baseline (on Day 1 through Day n).

We measured R on the dorsal surface of the thorax (unshaved, and shaved of all hairs

using a razor blade and the tips of #5 forceps), the dorsal surface of the abdomen on the first two

terga, and the ventral surface of the abdomen on terga 2-3, for each specimen. We mounted

specimen so that the thorax or abdomen was flat against the aperture, with measurements normal

to the surface. Measurement error occurred between 799 and 800 nm due to the detector

switching from the R928 to PbS IR (an artefact of sample orientation changing in relation to the

new detector). To account for this, we averaged the difference in R between 799 and 800 and

then added this value to all measurements ≤ 799 and subtracted it from all values ≥ 800. As *C.*

pallida can lose hair over their lifetime, we only used individuals collected when the aggregation

had just started, with low wing wear and no visible hair thinning on the thorax.

We assumed transmission through the bee was 0, and calculated average absorption (a_n)

for a morph or sex at a wavelength 'n', using the following equation:

$$\overline{a_n} = 1 - \overline{R_n}$$

where $\overline{R_n}$ was the average fraction of reflectance of all ten specimen at wavelength n.

Solar Radiation Calculations

Thermal flux due to solar radiation can be defined by summing direct beam (b), diffuse

sky (d), and reflected (from substrates; r) radiation:

$$Q_{solar} = \overline{a_b}A_bI_b + \overline{a_d}A_dI_d + \overline{a_r}A_rI_r$$

where $\overline{a}$ is the absorption coefficient of the bee (the fraction of beam, diffuse, or reflected

radiation absorbed by the bee); A_b, A_d, and A_r are the surface area of the bee exposed to beam,

diffuse, or reflected radiation; and I_b, I_d, and I_r is the total irradiance of the beam, diffuse, or

reflected source. Here, we assumed $A_b = 0.25$ A_s (total surface area), and A_d and $A_r = 0.5$ A_s. For

A_b and A_d, we used the total thorax and abdomen surface areas separately for A_s, in order to take

advantage of the two distinct absorption coefficients we calculated for each region dorsally; for

A_r, we combined the two regions into a total surface area. Because only male morphs

consistently differ in surface area, we did not perform thermal flux calculations for females; we

did, however, calculate their absorption coefficients as described below.

We obtained the direct normal irradiance spectra in order to calculate $\overline{a_b}$ and $\overline{a_r}$ from the

National Renewable Energy Laboratory (ASTM G173-03 Reference Air Mass 1.5 Spectra

Derived from SMARTS v. 2.9.2; Gueymard et al. 2002). We calculated the direct beam

absorption coefficient (a_b) for each individual on the dorsal surface of the abdomen and the

thorax, as well as the shaved cuticle, between 290 and 2500 nm (λ_{min} and λ_{max}) as:

$$\overline{a_b} = \frac{\sum_{\lambda_{min}}^{\lambda_{max}} a_nI_n}{I_b}$$

Where I_n is the intensity of solar radiation at wavelength n and I_b is the total direct beam

irradiance between the min and max wavelengths.

We obtained the spectrum of radiation reflected from a light soil substrate (RS[substrate]), at

each wavelength (n), from the USGS Spectral Library (sample ID: splib07a record = 13249;

Kokaly et al. 2017), in order to calculate the intensity of reflected radiation, I_r, based on the

intensity of direct beam solar radiation (I_b) at each wavelength (n).

197
$$I_r = \sum_{\lambda_{min}}^{\lambda_{max}} I_n^{beam} \times RS_n^{substrate}$$

198 We then calculated the average absorption coefficient ($\overline{a_r}$) of reflected radiation, using each

199 bee's ventral abdominal absorption (a_{rn}) coefficient at each wavelength (n):

200
$$\overline{a_r} = \frac{\sum_{\lambda_{min}}^{\lambda_{max}} a_{rn}(I_n^{beam} \times RS_n^{substrate})}{I_r}$$

We also calculated a second measure of I_r using an albedo measurement of light sand

from the Sonoran Desert ($I_r = 0.245 I_b$; Marion et al. 2020), to compare with the light soil

substrate spectrum obtained from the USGS spectral library. Unlike the USGS sample, this

summed-reflectance value could not account for wavelength specific effects – but this value had

the advantage of being from the location of interest.

We assumed $\overline{a_d}$ to be equal to $\overline{a_b}$ (as in Stupski and Schilder 2021). We assumed I_d was a

100 W/m^2 (Peterson and Dirmhirn 1981). We estimated direct beam radiation on April 20th, 2018

at 1000 hr using the following formula:

209
$$I_b = a_{cd}^{\left(\frac{1}{\sin\left(\emptyset * \left(\frac{\pi}{180}\right)\right)}\right)} * S_{po}$$

210 With the following assumptions: $S_{po} = 1361$ W/m^2, $a_{cd} = 0.83$ (clear day), and atmospheric

211 pressure at the study site = standard air pressure (101.3 x 10^3 kPa). Altitude angle (ø) was

212 calculated using the following equations, using the Julian date (J = 110), Latitude (32.2°, 0.562

213 rad [λ]), time (t = 1000), and solar noon time (t_0 = 1200):

214
$$hour\ angle: \theta = \frac{2\pi}{24}(t - t_0)$$

215 $$solar\ declination: \delta = 0.4102\ \cos(\frac{2\pi(J-172)}{365})$$

216 $$solar\ zenith\ angle\ (\zeta)\ \cos\zeta = (\sin\lambda\sin\delta) + (\cos\lambda\cos\delta\cos\theta)$$

217 $$altitude\ angle: \emptyset = 90 - (\zeta * \frac{180}{\pi})$$

218   Finally, We divided Q_{solar} by body mass (g) to determine solar radiative heat flux per unit

219 of body mass.

Scanning Electron Microscopy

We shaved small patches of the second tergite of the abdomens of the specimen used for

reflectance spectrophotometry (thoraxes were already shaved). We then mounted thoraxes and

abdomens on metal stubs with electrically conductive tape and silver paint, before sputter-

coating samples (Pt/Pd target, 80/20; Cressington 208 Hr Sputter Coater) for 40 s at 40 mA

(approximately 8-10 nm deposition). We took three photos of the cuticular surface in three

different places on the abdomen/thorax at 100X or 200X magnification using a Zeiss Supra

50VP (EHT set to 5 kV, high vacuum mode, SE2 detector). We used ImageJ to count the number

of pores found at the base of the hairs within a standardized, circular region of 0.1 mm^2 area

(centered on a pore) on each of the three photos for each individual, and averaged these three

numbers to obtain hair density in terms of the number of hairs/mm^2. On the abdomen, both

unbranched and branched setae can be found, however the pores that at the base of these two

setae types are quite distinct (Figure 2); we counted only the pore type that led to the branched

setae, which was more common.

Figure 2. Difference between pores of branched (hairs) and unbranched setae on the abdomen.

A) Female abdominal cuticle, dorsal surface, with black arrowheads pointing to the locations of

unbranched setae pores (200X). This photo is representative of those used for quantification of

hair density (taken on Terga 2). B) Terga 5 & 6 of a female *C. pallida* showing many unbranched

setae (white arrowhead) against a background of generally shorter branched setae (black

arrowhead; 50X). Unbranched setae appeared longer and more common on terminal terga. C)

Female abdominal cuticle, showing difference in pores with branched (black arrowhead) and

unbranched (white arrowhead) setae still attached on Terga 2 (1000X). D) Close-up of (A),

showing difference in branched (black arrowhead) and unbranched (white arrowhead) setae

pores (1000X).

Analyses

We used GraphPad Prism 9.1.2 (GraphPad Prism for Windows 2021) to analyze

reflectance spectrophotometry, morphology, and hair density data. We used one-way ANOVAs

with Tukey's MCT to compare body mass, and thorax and head or abdominal surface area across

large/small males and females. We used a one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's MCT for

normally distributed data, or Kruskal-Wallis test with Dunn's MCT for data that were not

normally distributed, to assess variation in hair density on the abdomen and thorax. We

calculated mean percent reflectance in the UV (290-399), VIS (400-700) and NIR (split into

"close NIR" [cNIR, 701 – 1400] and "far NIR" [fNIR, 1401 – 2500]) for each individual, and

used a two-way RM ANOVA (with a Geisser-Greenhouse correction due to lack of sphericity in

wavelength) to assess the impact of morph (e.g. large-morph male, small-morph male, and

female), wavelength region (UV, VIS, close NIR, and far NIR), and individual differences in

mean reflectance. When we found significant p-values for 'morph', we used a Tukey's MCT to

assess variation across categorical morph assignments within each wavelength region (and

adjusted p-values for multiple comparisons). To test for differences in mean reflectance in the

UV, VIS, cNIR, and fNIR between the shaved and unshaved dorsal thorax surface, or the dorsal

and ventral side of the abdomen, of large and small males, we used two-way RM ANOVAs with

Geisser-Greenhouse corrections. When we found significant p-values for the effect of 'shaving'

(thorax) or 'side' (abdomen), we used a Bonferroni's MCT to assess variation associated with

that variable within each wavelength region (and adjusted p-values for multiple comparisons).

We used one-way ANOVAs followed by Bonferroni's MCTs were used to assess differences in

absorption coefficients between morphs and females.

Results

Morphology & Hair Density

Large and small morph males, and females differed in their wet body masses (Table 1;

One-way ANOVA: F = 42.80, df = 32, p < 0.0001). Large-morph males had increased abdomen,

and thorax + head, surface areas compared to both small-morph males and females (Table 1;

thorax and head SA: F = 53.70, df = 32, p < 0.0001; abdomen SA: F = 40.25, df = 32, p <

0.0001); small-morph males had slightly reduced abdomen (q = 3.67, p = 0.0369), but not thorax

+ head, surface areas (q = 3.21, p = 0.09), compared to females.

Table 1. Differences between male morphs and females in their surface area and body mass (n =
10; One-way ANOVAs with Tukey's MCT). Different letters indicate statistically significant
differences (p < 0.05), among morphs/sexes in that variable.

Variable	Morph/Sex	Mean ± SD	Range
Abdomen –			
Surface Area (mm²)	LM[a]	453.0 ± 34.9	399.9 – 510.3
	SM[b]	327.6 ± 27.0	292.9 – 368.6
	F[c]	368.1 ± 44.6	316.9 – 449.5
Thorax and Head –			
Surface Area (mm²)	LM[a]	489.1 ± 45.3	421.8 – 584.1
	SM[b]	332.8 ± 29.4	271.1 – 360.7
	F[b]	370.9 ± 40.4	302.5 – 431.6
Wet Body Mass (g)			
	LM[a]	0.27 ± 0.05	0.19 – 0.34
	SM[c]	0.14 ± 0.02	0.11 – 0.19
	F[b]	0.19 ± 0.03	0.14 – 0.23

Hair density also differed across the abdomen and thorax dorsal surfaces based on sex/morph

(Table 2, Figure 3; One-way ANOVA, abdomen: $F = 59.14$, $df = 27$, $p < 0.0001$; Kruskal-Wallis,

thorax: K-W = 11.44, $p = 0.0033$). Large-morph males had more densely hairy abdomens and

thoraxes than small-morph males (thorax: $Z = 3.23$, $p = 0.0037$; abdomen: $q = 3.84$, $df = 27$, $p =$

0.0299). Females did not differ from small-morph males in thorax hair density ($Z = 0.74$, $p >$

0.99), but had increased abdomen hair density compared to both male morphs (large: $q = 10.98$,

$p < 0.0001$; small: $q = 14.82$, $p < 0.0001$).

Females had increased hair density on their abdomens compared to their thoraxes

(Kruskal-Wallis, K-W = 38.14, $p < 0.0001$; Dunn's MCT: $Z = 4.67$, $p < 0.0001$). There was no

regional variation (e.g., thorax v. abdomen) in hair density within small-morph males, or large-

morph males (Dunn's MCT: small: $Z = 0.92$, $p > 0.99$; large: $Z = 0.12$, $p > 0.99$).

Table 2. Differences between male morphs and females in the density of hairs per mm^2 on their dorsal thorax (Kruskal-Wallis with Dunn's MCT) and abdominal surfaces (One-way ANOVA with Tukey's MCT). Letters indicate significant differences (p < 0.05) across morphs/sex (n = 10) for that region. Asterick indicates significant differences (p<0.05) between regions (abdomen vs. thorax) for that morph/sex (Kruskal-Wallis with Dunn's MCT).

Region	Morph/Sex	Mean ± SD	Range
Abdomen - Dorsal			
	LM[a]	617.8 ± 76.82	522.9 – 776.0
	SM[b]	538.2 ± 46.90	479.6 – 626.1
	F[c]*	845.6 ± 69.37	766.0 – 955.8
Thorax - Dorsal			
	LM[a]	604.6 ± 48.86	482.0 – 661.1
	SM[b]	494.4 ± 78.47	411.5 – 656.1
	F[b]*	525.7 ± 44.20	471.2 – 604.0

Figure 3. Differences in hair density of females, large and small morph males, on the dorsal surface. Large morph males have increased thorax hair density compared to small morph males and females (which do not differ in hair density; Kruskal-Wallis: K-W = 11.44, p = 0.0033). Females have increased abdominal hair density compared to males, and large-morph males have increased abdominal hair density compared to small-morph males (One-way ANOVA: F = 59.14, df = 27, p < 0.0001). Tukey's or Dunn's MCT: **** = p < 0.0001; ** p < 0.01; * = p < 0.05; ns = not significant

Reflectance of Solar Radiation

Morph/sex significantly impacted mean reflectance on the dorsal abdomen and thorax surfaces (Supplementary Figure 2, Table 3; Two-way RM ANOVA; dorsal-abdomen: F = 26.32, df = 2, p < 0.0001; dorsal-thorax-unshaved: F = 22.01, df = 2, p < 0.0001; dorsal-thorax-shaved: F = 3.94, df = 2, p = 0.0314). Large-morph males had increased mean reflectance across the entire UV-NIR spectrum compared to small-morph males on both the dorsal abdomen and thorax surfaces (Supplementary Figure 2A,B, Supplementary Table 1; Tukey's: all p > 0.05).

314 **Table 3.** Two-way RM ANOVA with Geisser-Greenhouse Correction of mean reflectance of
315 different morphs (small males, large males, and females) in different wavelength (UV [290-399],
316 VIS [400-700], close NIR [701-1400] and far NIR [1401-2500]) on dorsal surface of the
317 abdomen and thorax (unshaved), the dorsal surface of the thorax (shaved), and the ventral
318 surface of the abdomen.

Comparison region	Source of difference in reflectance	Percent of total difference	F	df	adjusted p value
Abdomen - Dorsal	Wavelength*	77.48	862.3	3	< 0.0001
	Morph	11.19	26.32	2	< 0.0001
	Wavelength x Morph	3.16	17.56	6	< 0.0001
	Individual	5.74	7.10	27	< 0.0001
Abdomen - Ventral	Wavelength*	90.11	711.2	3	< 0.0001
	Morph	0.24	0.65	2	0.53
	Wavelength x Morph	1.12	4.41	6	0.0007
	Individual	5.10	4.48	27	< 0.0001
Thorax - Dorsal (Unshaved)	Wavelength*	88.72	1599	3	< 0.0001
	Morph	6.01	22.01	2	< 0.0001
	Wavelength x Morph	0.09	0.79	6	0.58
	Individual	3.68	7.38	27	< 0.0001
Thorax - Dorsal (Shaved)	Wavelength*	96.13	2045	3	< 0.0001
	Morph	0.48	3.94	2	0.0314
	Wavelength x Morph	0.48	5.12	6	0.0002
	Individual	1.64	3.88	27	< 0.0001

319 *Geisser-Greenhouse ε for wavelength: Abdomen-Dorsal (0.41), Abdomen-Ventral (0.56), Thorax-Dorsal
320 (Unshaved; 0.53), Thorax-Dorsal (Shaved; 0.59).
321

The only significant difference between morphs/sexes in the mean reflectance of the

shaved dorsal thorax (e.g., cuticle-only) was between small males and females in the UV

(Supplementary Figure 2C, Supplementary Table 1; Tukey's: q = 5.70, df = 16.66, p = 0.0301).

All differences in mean reflectance between large and small males on the thorax disappeared

when the hairs were shaved (Supplementary Table 1; Tukey's: all p > 0.05). The presence of

thorax hairs significantly increased mean reflectance across the entire UV-NIR spectrum for both

small males and large males compared to just the cuticle (Table 4 & Supplementary Table 2;

Two-way RM ANOVA with Bonferroni MCT: all p < 0.05).

Table 4. Two-way RM ANOVA with Geisser-Greenhouse Correction of mean reflectance of the
thorax, shaved versus unshaved, and abdomen, dorsal versus ventral, at different wavelengths
(UV [290-399], VIS [400-700], close NIR [701-1400] and far NIR [1401-2500]) in large males
or small males.

Comparison region	Source of difference in reflectance	Percent of total difference	F	df	p value
Large Males					
Thorax	Wavelength*	63.42	688.1	3	< 0.0001
Shaved vs.	Shaved	28.81	198.5	1	< 0.0001
Unshaved	Wavelength x Shaved	3.50	37.97	3	< 0.0001
	Individual	2.61	4.73	18	< 0.0001
Small Males					
Thorax	Wavelength*	90.41	2098	3	< 0.0001
Shaved vs.	Shaved	3.47	26.75	1	< 0.0001
Unshaved	Wavelength x Shaved	3.01	69.85	3	< 0.0001
	Individual	2.33	9.02	18	< 0.0001
Large Males					
Abdomen	Wavelength*	79.35	522.1	3	< 0.0001
Dorsal vs.	Side	8.08	15.52	1	0.0010
Ventral	Wavelength x Side	0.45	2.98	3	0.0393
	Individual	9.37	10.28	18	< 0.0001
Small Males					
Abdomen	Wavelength*	87.33	396.8	3	< 0.0001
Dorsal vs.	Side	0.15	0.39	1	0.54
Ventral	Wavelength x Side	1.56	7.10	3	0.0004
	Individual	6.99	5.29	18	< 0.0001

334
335   *Geisser-Greenhouse ε for wavelength: LM thorax (0.54), SM thorax (0.55), LM abdomen (0.38), SM abdomen
336   (0.39)
337

The mean reflectance of the ventral abdominal surface did not differ across morphs/sexes

(Supplementary Figure 2D, Table 3; Two-way RM ANOVA: F = 0.65, df = 2, p = 0.53). The

ventral surface of the abdomen of large males had reduced mean reflectance across the entire

UV-NIR spectrum compared to the dorsal surface (Table 4 & Supplementary Table 2; Two-way

RM ANOVA with Bonferroni: all p < 0.05), however the mean reflectance of the dorsal and

ventral surface did not differ in small males (F = 0.39, df = 1, p = 0.54).

Absorption of Radiation

The direct beam absorption coefficients of the dorsal thorax and abdominal surfaces of

large-morph males were 0.76 ± 0.02 and 0.76 ± 0.06, significantly lower than those of small-

morph males, which were 0.83 ± 0.02 and 0.82 ± 0.04 (Figure 4A, Figure 5A, B; One-way

ANOVAs, Bonferroni, Thorax: t = 6.01, df = 27, p < 0.0001; Abdomen: t = 2.61, df = 27, p =

0.0433). Females had an abdominal absorption coefficient of 0.75 ± 0.02, statistically similar to

large males (One-way ANOVA, Bonferroni: t = 0.36, df = 27, p > 0.99) but lower than small-

morph males (t = 2.97, df = 27, p = 0.0186). Females had a thorax absorption coefficient of 0.80

± 0.03, higher than large males (t = 3.48, df = 27, p = 0.0052) but statistically similar to small

males (t = 2.53, df = 27, p = 0.0521).

Figure 4. Difference in direct beam and diffuse absorption coefficients of the dorsal

abdomen and thorax between male morphs. A) Difference in absorption of direct beam and

diffuse sky solar radiation of the dorsal abdomen, thorax, and shaved thorax cuticular surfaces.

Large males and females have reduced absorption coefficients compared to small-morph males

on the thorax and abdomen when hairs are present, but when hairs are shaved the absorption

coefficients do not vary across male morphs and females. B) There is no difference in the

absorption coefficients of male morphs and females when considering reflected solar radiation

off a light sand substrate on the ventral surface. **** = p < 0.0001; ** p < 0.01; * = p < 0.05; ns

= not significant

Figure 5. Spectral properties of *C. pallida* thorax and abdomen in relation to the irradiance

spectrum of direct beam sunlight and sunlight reflected off light sand. Left y-axis represents

the percentage of absorbed light at each wavelength, absorbed by the dorsal thorax (A), dorsal

abdomen (B), or ventral abdomen (C) cuticle and hairs of *C. pallida* large- and small- males or

females (mean, n = 10 each; females in purple, large males in orange, small males in blue). Right

axis represents the solar beam irradiance based on solar irradiance distribution standard

(Gueymard et al. 2002) in A and B, or the reflected irradiance off light sand (Kokaly et al. 2017)

in C (all irradiance in grey).

Females and males did not differ in the direct beam absorption coefficients of their

shaved cuticles (Figure 4A; One-way ANOVA, F = 2.78, df = 27, p = 0.08). There was also no

difference in the absorption of reflected light by the ventral surfaces of male morphs and females

(Figure 4B, Figure 5C; One-way ANOVA, F = 1.21, df = 27, p = 0.31).

Direct beam and diffuse sky radiation was calculated to be 1,178.82 W/m^2 at 1000 h on

April 20th. Reflected radiative energy was higher when accounting for wavelength specific

effects (329.85 W/m^2) as compared to when applying the same albedo for light sand (0.245)

across all wavelengths (288.81 W/m^2); we used 329.85 W/m^2 for all further calculations.

Large-morph males absorbed a mean of 0.36 ± 0.02 W of thermal energy from reflected,

direct, and diffuse radiative sources (1.28 ± 0.13 W/g of body mass), compared to 0.26 ± 0.02 W

for small-morph males (1.85 ± 0.21 W/g of body mass). If large-morph males had the same

reflectance profiles as the averages for small-morph males, they would absorb 0.37 ± 0.03 W of

thermal energy (or 1.40 ± 0.15 W/g of body mass, an 8-9% increase in W/g).

Females absorbed a mean 0.28 ± 0.03 W of thermal energy, or 1.40 ± 0.11 W/g of body

mass. For all three groups, hairs on the dorsal surface reduced thermal heat flux due to solar

radiation; thermal flux for shaved large males was 0.41 ± 0.03 W (1.42 ± 0.17 W/g), for small

males was 0.28 ± 0.02 W (1.94 ± 0.23 W/g), and for females was 0.31 ± 0.03 W (1.63 ± 0.12

W/g).

Discussion

Comparative studies of animal solar reflectance (or VIS coloration) often collect data at a

macrogeographic scale, and demonstrate the impact of geographic gradients in climate variables

(such as ambient temperature or solar radiation) on solar reflectance (e.g., Hegna et al. 2013,

Bishop et al. 2016, Munro et al. 2019, Kang et al. 2021, Gomez et al. 2021). However, large

differences in ambient temperature can occur within populations when individuals use different

microclimates. The 1 cm above-ground microclimate where large male *C. pallida* engaged in

their mating behaviors has air temperatures > 8 °C hotter than the 1 m above-ground hovering

microclimate used by small males by 1100 am (Barrett et al. 2022), demonstrating that there can

be substantial differences in thermal selective pressure across distinct microclimates at the same

site. The reduced solar absorption of large-morph males may be a unique thermal adaptation to

this very hot microclimate, where they must behave for prolonged periods to successfully access

mates (males are known to dig and fight for up to 19 minutes; Alcock et al. 1977).

Morph-specific differences in solar reflectance on the dorsal surface went beyond the

VIS, with consistent divergence in reflectance in the NIR. Differences in reflectance between

male morphs are likely thermoregulatory adaptations to their distinct, mating microclimates, as

extension beyond visible coloration rules out visual selective factors (e.g., anti-predator

adaptations) as the sole drivers of reflectance differences. The increased UV-NIR reflectance of

large-morph males led to an 8-9% reduction in W/g of absorbed solar energy. Females had

intermediate dorsal absorption coefficients: female thorax reflectance profiles were similar to

small males, but lower compared to large males, and abdomen reflectance profiles were similar

to large males, but increased compared to small males. There was no significant difference in the

absorption of reflected irradiance on the ventral surface among morphs and sexes, supporting the

hypothesis that differences in reflectance serve to as an adaptation to increase radiative heat gain

in cooler microclimates, and decrease it in hotter microclimates.

Differences in dorsal reflectance were entirely caused by the hairs; there was no

significant difference in the shaved cuticular absorption coefficients of the male morphs or

females. Large-morph males had increased hair densities on the thorax and abdominal surfaces

compared to small-morph males; however, they had decreased hair density on the abdomen

compared to females, despite similar reflectance profiles. This suggests that both hair density, as

well as structural features of the hairs (Supplementary Figure 3), may contribute to the

reflectance profile differences across male morphs and females. Microstructural features of

insect hairs and scales are known to influence their reflective properties in both the NIR and mid-

infrared (Shi et al. 2015, Krishna et al. 2020, Krishna et al. 2021).

Temperature can vary both spatially and temporally at a given site: across the course of

the morning, temperature increased from a low of 16.9 °C to a high of 44.5 °C between 0600 and

1100 hrs in the 1 cm microclimate, and from 16.1 °C to 38.9 °C in the 1 m microclimate (Barrett

et al. 2022). In male *Colias* butterflies, intraspecific increases in radiative heat gain due to

melanization allowed for longer flight periods at cooler air temperatures, increasing access to

mating opportunities (Ellers & Boggs 2004, Kingsolver 1983b). The mean body size of the *C.*

pallida male population increases throughout the morning (both for males foraging, and males

engaged in mating-relevant behaviors; Barrett & Johnson 2022), suggesting smaller males may

use their darker coloration to increase radiative heat gain and increase their access to mates

during cooler early morning periods when large males are not yet as prevalent in the population.

An additional implication of this work relates to unraveling the various factors that may

lead to stabilizing selection for dimorphic body morphologies in ART systems. Generally, it has

been hypothesized that bird predation may select against the large-morph male mating advantage

in the *C. pallida* system, producing persistent size variation and two distinct morphs (Alcock

1995). However, bird predation is variable across field sites (Alcock 1995) while size

dimorphism is not; in addition, large-morph males are not behaviorally wary of predation events

(which might be expected if predation was as a significant selective force; Alcock 2013, Barrett

pers. obs.). An alternate hypothesis, better supported by our data, relates the continued existence

of two microclimate-specialized morphs to the thermoregulatory selective pressures of the

available microclimates. Males of an intermediate size and UV-NIR reflectance profile would be

disadvantaged due to higher metabolic rates (and higher metabolic heat production) when using

small male mating strategies (in other bees with intraspecific body size variation, smaller

individuals have increased power efficiency in flight without any additional metabolic cost

(Grula et al. 2021)), while also disadvantaged due to their increased solar absorptivity when

using the large male mating strategies. Individual morphological specialization in relation to

body form and reflectance may potentially facilitate the stability of the male *C. pallida* ART

system.

Our study demonstrates the importance of shortwave reflectance as an intraspecifically

variable thermoregulatory adaptation. Variation in reflectance of shortwave radiation, and other

morphological adaptation to thermal pressures (such as larger body sizes), may alter the

necessity for physiological thermoregulatory differences – for example, large morph males that

can avoid overheating in the sun due to their reduced relative solar heat load may not need

increased thermal tolerances to survive (see Barrett et al. 2022). The interplay between these

morphological and physiological thermoregulatory strategies thus deserves greater attention. In

addition, this variation suggests individuals within populations may find their fitness-relevant

behaviors to be differently constrained by increasing global temperatures due to the effects of

variation in shortwave radiative heat gain on their energy budget. If thermoregulatory selective

pressures play a role in maintaining size or behavioral variation within species (such as ART

systems), this suggests that climate change may have impacts that stretch beyond species-level

diversity – impacting intraspecific morphological and behavioral diversity as well.

We demonstrate that individual differences, often overlooked, may be important for

understanding the selective pressures acting on individuals to generate evolutionary adaptations

to fine-scale ecological variation. Future studies should thus pay greater attention to the effects

of morphological, physiological, or behavioral variation between conspecifics, which may have

important consequences for understanding proximate and ultimate causes of ecological

reflectance and coloration patterns.

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Supplementary Materials

Supplementary Figure 1. Difference in coloration of *C. pallida* hairs on the thoraxes and abdomens of large- and small-morph males and females. All photos taken at 85X magnification on a DinoLite AM4915ZT.

Supplementary Figure 2. Reflectance of females, large males, and small males on the dorsal and ventral abdominal surface and dorsal thorax surface when shaved or unshaved. A) Differences in reflectance between large males, small males, and females on the dorsal surface of the thorax (Two-way RM ANOVA: $F = 22.01$, $df = 2$, $p < 0.0001$; MCT: Supplementary Table 1) and B) of the abdomen ($F = 26.32$, $df = 2$, $p < 0.0001$). C) The only significant difference in reflectance on the shaved dorsal thorax (e.g., cuticle-only) was between small males and females in the UV ($F = 3.94$, $df = 2$, $p = 0.0314$; MCT: UV SM-Female, $q = 5.70$, $df = 16.66$, $p = 0.0301$; all other comparisons, $p > 0.05$). D) There was no difference in mean reflectance between male morphs and females on the ventral surface of the abdomen ($F = 0.65$, $df = 2$, $p = 0.53$). Thick, solid or dashed lines represent mean reflectance; dotted lines are SD. The dotted, vertical line at 700 nm separates the VIS and NIR wavelengths.

Supplementary Figure 3. Large male thorax hair characteristics. Left) The hairs of large-morph males have a round cross-section, and are covered in striations (5000X). **Right)** Close-up of striations on the exterior surface of large-morph male thorax hairs (8500X). The somewhat regular striations are reminiscent of the structure of the highly reflective hairs of the Saharan silver ant (in Shi et al. 2015).

Supplementary Table 1. Tukey's multiple comparisons test (following two-way RM ANOVA
with Geisser-Greenhouse Correction) of mean reflectance of small males (SM), large males
(LM), and females (F) in the UV (290-399), VIS (400-700), close NIR (701-1400) and far NIR
(1401-2500) on dorsal surface of the abdomen and thorax (unshaved and shaved).

Comparison Region	Wave-lengths	Comparison Groups	q	df	adjusted p value
Abdomen - Dorsal	*UV*				
		LM vs. SM	6.60	11.47	**0.0182**
		LM vs. F	4.35	11.14	0.20
		SM vs. F	4.77	17.90	0.10
	VIS				
		LM vs. SM	6.99	13.48	**0.0084**
		LM vs. F	1.50	11.34	> 0.99
		SM vs. F	9.92	16.17	**0.0001**
	close NIR				
		LM vs. SM	8.29	16.84	**0.0008**
		LM vs. F	0.20	12.88	> 0.99
		SM vs. F	11.35	15.07	**< 0.0001**
	far NIR				
		LM vs. SM	7.58	17.53	**0.0020**
		LM vs. F	0.69	13.73	> 0.99
		SM vs. F	9.15	15.16	**0.0004**
Thorax w/Hair	*UV*				
		LM vs. SM	11.32	14	**< 0.0001**
		LM vs. F	7.78	12.69	**0.0039**
		SM vs. F	6.05	17.49	**0.0174**
	VIS				
		LM vs. SM	10.69	17.74	**< 0.0001**
		LM vs. F	6.03	17.93	**0.0173**
		SM vs. F	3.96	17.42	0.26
	close NIR				
		LM vs. SM	6.67	17.97	**0.0069**
		LM vs. F	3.37	17.41	0.46
		SM vs. F	2.74	17.64	0.73
	far NIR				
		LM vs. SM	6.04	17.97	**0.0170**
		LM vs. F	3.11	17.77	0.57
		SM vs. F	2.50	17.58	0.81
Thorax Shaved	*UV*				
		LM vs. SM	0.24	12.5	> 0.99
		LM vs. F	2.78	11.01	0.71
		SM vs. F	5.70	16.66	**0.0301**
	VIS				
		LM vs. SM	0.05	15.30	> 0.99
		LM vs. F	3.42	17.98	0.44

	SM vs. F	3.99	14.99	0.26
close NIR				
	LM vs. SM	3.14	12.85	0.56
	LM vs. F	1.70	15.17	0.98
	SM vs. F	1.87	16.72	0.96
far NIR				
	LM vs. SM	4.44	13.00	0.17
	LM vs. F	2.96	17.05	0.63
	SM vs. F	1.26	14.97	> 0.99

Supplementary Table 2. Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test (following two-way RM ANOVA with Geisser-Greenhouse Correction) of mean reflectance of the thorax, shaved versus unshaved, and abdomen, dorsal versus ventral, at different wavelengths (UV [290-399], VIS [400-700], close NIR [701-1400] and far NIR [1401-2500]) in large males or small males.

Morph	Comparison	Wave length	t	df	adjusted p value
Large Males - Thorax	Shaved vs. Unshaved				
		UV	5.46	13.22	0.0004
		VIS	17.59	9.76	< 0.0001
		cNIR	12.52	16.97	< 0.0001
		fNIR	10.30	17.77	< 0.0001
Small Males - Thorax	Shaved vs. Unshaved				
		UV	4.95	11.91	0.0014
		VIS	8.77	9.40	< 0.0001
		cNIR	6.43	11.21	0.0002
		fNIR	4.53	12.50	0.0025
Large Males - Abdomen	Dorsal vs. Ventral				
		UV	5.61	14.06	0.0003
		VIS	5.31	15.66	0.0003
		cNIR	2.82	17.93	0.0458
		fNIR	3.19	17.99	0.0205

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 4

Figure 3

Figure 5