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27 Abstract

| 28 | 1. | Body size is an integral functional trait that underlies pollination-related ecological |
|----|----|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 29 | | processes, yet it is often impractical to measure directly. Allometric scaling laws have |
| 30 | | been used to overcome this problem. However, most existing models rely upon small |
| 31 | | sample sizes, geographically restricted sampling and have limited applicability for |
| 32 | | non-bee taxa. Predictive allometric models that consider biogeography, phylogenetic |
| 33 | | relatedness and intraspecific variation are urgently required to ensure greater |
| 34 | | accuracy. |

35 2. Here, we measured body size, as dry weight, and intertegular distance (ITD) of 391 36 bee species (4035 specimens) and 103 hoverfly species (399 specimens) across four biogeographic regions: Australia, Europe, North America and South America. We 37 38 updated existing models within a Bayesian mixed-model framework to test the power 39 of ITD to predict interspecific variation in pollinator dry weight in interaction with 40 different co-variates: phylogeny or taxonomy, sexual dimorphism and biogeographic 41 region. In addition, we used ordinary least squares (OLS) regression to assess 42 intraspecific dry weight – ITD relationships for 10 bee and five hoverfly species. 43 3. Including co-variates led to more robust interspecific body size predictions for both 44 bees (Bayesian R^2 : 0.946; ΔR^2 0.047) and hoverflies (Bayesian R^2 : 0.821; ΔR^2 0.058)

45 relative to models with ITD alone. In contrast, at the intraspecific level, our results

- 46 demonstrate that ITD is an inconsistent predictor of body size for bees $(R^2: 0.02 -$
- 47 0.66) and hoverflies (R^2 : -0.11 0.44).
- 48 4. Therefore, predictive allometry is more suitable for interspecific comparative analyses
 49 than assessing intraspecific variation. Collectively, these models form the basis of the
 50 dynamic *R* package, '*pollimetry*', which provides a comprehensive resource for
 51 allometric research concerning insect pollinators worldwide.

52

53 Keywords: Apoidea, biogeography, body size, dry weight, pollimetry, pollination, *R* package,
54 Syrphidae

55

56 Introduction

57 Body size is an important functional trait that influences ecological patterns across all levels of 58 biological organisation. In insects, adult body size variation is the outcome of natural selection 59 affecting physiological and biochemical processes during ontogeny (Chown & Gaston 2010). 60 For example, body size impacts metabolic and growth rates (Angilletta et al. 2004; Ehnes et al. 61 2011), life history (e.g. life span and reproductive rate; Speakman 2005; Teder et al. 2008) and ecological attributes, such as species abundance, trophic interactions, geographic range size 62 63 and dispersal ability (Brown et al. 2004; White et al. 2007; Stevens et al. 2012; Velghe & 64 Gregory-Eaves 2013; DeLong et al. 2015). In addition, body size can drive key ecosystem functions and services such as decomposition, carbon cycling, predation, primary productivity 65 66 and pollination (Woodward & Hildrew 2002; Greenleaf et al. 2007; Rudolf & Rasmussen 2013; 67 Garibaldi et al. 2015; Schramski et al. 2015).

68

69 Body size is most commonly measured as specimen dry weight. As such, obtaining direct 70 measurements can be impractical and time consuming. Direct measurements often require 71 destructive methods, which is unfavourable for museum specimens and threatened species 72 (Rogers et al. 1977; Henschel & Seely 1997). Additionally, species with poor life-history 73 information, such as rare species with few specimens, may lead to inaccurate measurements of 74 intraspecific variation. Allometric scaling laws can be used to overcome these problems. These 75 laws refer to how traits, which can be morphological, physiological or chemical, co-vary with 76 an organism's body size, often with important ecological and evolutionary implications (Gould

77 1966). When these scaling laws are utilised to estimate body size or a hypothesised allometric 78 characteristic indirectly using a co-varying morphological trait, therefore circumventing the 79 use of destructive and/or time-consuming methods, we define this as 'predictive allometry'.

80

81 Predictive allometry has emerged across many biological disciplines. The most commonly used 82 co-varying trait used to predict body size is body length, which has been used extensively in 83 fish (e.g. Karachle & Stergiou 2012), mammals (e.g. Trites & Pauly 1998) and both aquatic (e.g. Burgherr & Meyer 1997) and terrestrial invertebrates (e.g. Rogers et al. 1977; Sabo et al. 84 85 2002). These models often show considerable predictive power ($R^2 > 0.9$), which has led to the 86 proliferation of multiple models for a wide range of taxa (e.g. there are 26 body length – body 87 size models for Diptera – See Supporting Information). However, when compared, these 88 models show considerably different allometric scaling coefficients both within- and between 89 insect orders (Schoener 1980; Sample et al. 1993; Ganihar 1997; Brady & Noske 2006). 90 Previously, these differences have been attributed to biogeographic factors, such as latitude 91 (Martin et al. 2014) and/or methodological influences such as sampling biases (e.g. the range 92 of sampled body sizes, Sage 1982). Importantly, they have also notably failed to incorporate 93 sexual size dimorphism which is common in invertebrates (Shreeves & Field 2008).

94

95 The allometry of functional traits have been shown to influence plant-pollinator interactions, 96 specifically in bees. For example, smaller body size can be associated with preferential activity 97 periods related to available light (Streinzer et al. 2016), whereas larger body size is associated 98 with greater pollen load capacity (e.g. within *Melipona quadrifasciata* colonies, see Ramalho 99 et al. 1998) as well as greater interspecific foraging distances (e.g. Greenleaf et al. 2007). 100 Importantly, body size can both influence and constrain plant-pollinator interactions and trait 101 matching both within and between pollinator groups (Stang et al. 2009; Bartomeus et al. 2016).

102 Therefore, allometric traits central to pollination-related ecological processes both appear and 103 interact at the intra- and interspecific levels. Despite their ubiquity, few predictive models for 104 body size exist for pollinating insects below the ordinal level, with one notable exception. Cane 105 (1987) pioneered a predictive model for bee body size as a function of the intertegular distance 106 (ITD) (the distance between the wing-attachment points on either side of the thorax (See Fig. 107 S1). Importantly, Cane's allometric model identified the ITD as an important body size proxy 108 and has since been used to establish other ecologically important allometric relationships, 109 primarily at the interspecific level (e.g. foraging distances and bee proboscis length; Greenleaf 110 et al. 2007; Cariveau et al. 2016).

111

The robustness of the ITD as a body size predictor has not been properly tested. First, the 112 original model is based solely on 20 North American solitary bee species, despite evidence 113 114 suggesting allometric coefficients can differ significantly between biogeographical regions 115 (Martin et al. 2014). Second, the power of predictive allometric equations in predicting 116 intraspecific variation has not been assessed. Third, sexual size dimorphism is present in 80% 117 of Aculeata (Shreeves & Field 2008), highlighting the need to include sex-specific co-variation. 118 Fourth, body size variation has been repeatedly linked to phylogeny, compelling allometric studies to incorporate species' evolutionary histories (Garland & Ives 2000; Blomberg et al. 119 120 2003). Lastly, other key pollinating taxa, such as hoverflies (Diptera: Syrphidae) lack 121 predictive models that could be used to examine allometric patterns.

122

These knowledge gaps are largely due to the lack of: (a) a general repository to house and connect all relevant predictive allometric models; (b) large high resolution datasets to build more accurate models that can incorporate co-variates and (c) the absence of an iterative framework, such as those utilised in ecological forecasting (e.g. Dietze et al. 2018; Harris et al.

127 2018) to continuously update existing models with new datasets, methodologies and
128 technologies. Addressing these key deficiencies will increase model accuracy and applicability
129 of predictive allometry for pollinating insects.

130

Here, we catalogue pre-existing models for key pollinating insect taxa (Diptera, Hymenoptera and Lepidoptera) and develop new predictive allometric models within an iterative framework for bees and hoverflies that incorporate species evolutionary histories, intraspecific variation and biogeography. These form the basis of a new *R* package, entitled "*pollimetry*". Specifically, we address the following research questions:

- 136 i. Is ITD a robust predictor of inter-specific body size variation for two dominant137 pollinator taxa, bees and hoverflies?
- 138 ii. Does incorporating sexual dimorphism and phylogenetic/taxonomic relatedness when
 139 constrained by biogeographic region improve interspecific predictions of pollinator
 140 body size by ITD?
- 141 iii. Is ITD reliable in predicting intraspecific variation in both bees and hoverflies and what
 142 sample size is required to accurately estimate intraspecific body size and co-varying
 143 trait values?

144

145 Materials and Methods

146

147 Specimen collection and measurements

We obtained specimens collected in recent field research projects on insect pollinator diversity.
We included studies across four continents. In Australia, collections were made in New South
Wales, Victoria, Queensland, South Australia and the Northern Territory. In Europe, we
amassed specimens from Belgium, UK, Germany, Ireland, Spain and Switzerland. In the

Americas, we included collections from Minnesota, USA and Ceará, Brazil. In addition, Cane's
(1987) original data from Alabama, USA was obtained using Engauge Digitizer version 10.6
(Mitchell et al. 2018).

155

The majority of specimens were dehydrated and weighed within three to six months of collection, although some, in particular, those from Victoria, Australia, Belgium, Switzerland and Cane's original samples were of variable ages: ranging from one to five years since collection. We excluded damaged specimens. For every specimen, we obtained sample location (latitude and longitude) and taxonomic identity. Full information about specimen identification, deposition locations and used taxonomic resources are provided in the Supporting Information.

163

164 *Body size and intertegular distance*

Body size was measured as the dry weight in milligrams of each specimen. We therefore refer 165 166 to body size as dry weight herein for continuity. Dry weight was measured by first dehydrating 167 specimens at 70 °C for at least 24hrs prior to weighing to remove residual humidity and then 168 weighed on an analytical balance to an accuracy of 0.001g. All North American bees as well 169 as small-bodied Australian bees were dehydrated and weighed prior to pinning. For all other 170 specimens, pins were not removed prior to weighing. Instead, we identified the pin type and 171 weighed a sample of 10 - 50 pins per type. The mean weight was then subtracted off the total weight. Pin weight variance was minimal (range of standard errors: 6.3*10⁻⁴ to 2mg). 172 173 Intertegular distance was measured in millimetres using a stereo-microscope, either mounted 174 with a calibrated scale or microscope camera. Body length was measured along the lateral side 175 of each specimen with a calibrated scale or microscope camera for Australian, British, German,

176 Irish and Spanish specimens (see Supporting Information for visual representation of ITD and 177 body length measurements).

178

179 Data analysis: Model structures

180 All analyses were undertaken in *R* (version 3.5.1) (R Core Team 2018). We first assessed the 181 Pearson's correlation coefficient between ITD and body length. ITD and body length (BL) 182 were highly correlated in both bees ($\rho = 0.932$), and hoverflies ($\rho = 0.853$). We then compared 183 both ITD and body length independently in predicting body size using ordinary least squares 184 (OLS) regression to select the best body weight predictor. ITD was marginally more predictive than BL in estimating dry weight in bees: ITD R^2 : 0.896; BL R^2 : 0.877, and considerably better 185 than BL for hoverflies: ITD R^2 : 0.854; BL R^2 : 0.796. Hence, we used ITD in the following 186 187 analyses.

188

189 As traditionally performed, we used log-transformed values in the model formulation because allometric relationships are typically described by a power function $(y = ax^b)$ which is 190 191 linearised when log-transformed:

192

 $\ln(y) = \ln(\alpha) + \beta * \ln(x)$

193 where Y = dry weight, α = intercept, β = allometric co-efficient and x = dry weight or body 194 length.

195

196 OLS does not allow for the incorporation of random effects or phylogenetic co-variance 197 matrices. Therefore, to incorporate these more complex model structures with the best predictor 198 (i.e. ITD) of dry weight, we specified Bayesian generalised linear mixed models (GLMM) 199 using the brms package (version 2.4.0) (Bürkner 2017). Log-transformed dry weight was 200 predicted as a function of the log-transformed ITD in interaction with sex and taxonomic

201 grouping: bee families following Michener (2000) and hoverfly subfamilies following 202 Thompson and Rotheray (1998). We included a nested random effect: species nested within 203 their biogeographic region of origin. A few specimens from five bee species: Andrena wilkella 204 (North America), Halictus rubicundus (North America), Lasioglossum leucozonium (North 205 America), Anthidium manicatum (North America) and Apis mellifera (Australia), were 206 removed from their introduced ranges (in parentheses) prior to analyses. We call these models 207 taxonomic GLMMs. Both bee and hoverfly models were run for 2000 iterations with a burn-in 208 of 1000. We set Δ to 0.99 and manipulated maximum tree depth between 10 and 20 for 209 individual models to avoid divergent transitions. We fitted each model with weakly informative 210 priors on both fixed and random effects based off our domain expertise; priors are explicitly 211 provided in accompanying R code. Chain convergence was assessed using the \hat{R} statistic 212 (Gelman & Rubin 1992). Posterior predictive checks were visualised using the Bayesplot 213 package (version 1.6.0; Gabry & Mahr 2017).

214

215 Data analysis: Incorporating phylogeny

216 We explored the influence of phylogenetic relatedness in predicting dry weight for bees only 217 because a well-resolved hoverfly phylogeny was not available. We constructed an applicable 218 phylogeny for our dataset using a bee genera backbone tree (Hedtke et al. 2013). We removed 219 non-represented genera using the *ape* package (version 5.1; Paradis et al. 2004). Species tips 220 were added to genera nodes as simulated pure-birth subtrees using the *phytools* package 221 (version 0.6-44; Revell et al. 2012). This excluded a total of three species (Flavipanurgus 222 venustus, Protomeliturga turnerea and Tetrapedia diversipes), whose genera weren't included 223 in Hedtke et al. (2013)'s phylogeny.

225 As such, we made the explicit assumption that phylogenetic patterns in body size were 226 assessed at and above the genus level. We estimated relative node ages using the mean path 227 lengths method of Britton et al. (2002). We assessed the significance of phylogenetic signal 228 using Pagel's λ (Pagel 1999) with the *phytools* package (version 0.6-44; Revell et al. 2012). 229 Phylogenetic signal was highly significant for bee ln body size (λ : 0.793, p < 0.001) (Fig. 1). 230 Therefore, we implemented a nested phylogenetic generalised linear mixed model (PGLMM) 231 which considered ITD in interaction with intraspecific sexual dimorphism whilst accounting 232 for phylogenetic dependencies through a nested random term: species nested within region (i.e. 233 the nested species term was constrained by the constructed phylogeny). We refer to these 234 models as phylogenetic GLMMs.

235

236 Data analysis: Model selection: Bayesian R² and K-fold cross-validation

We first fitted the two full models described above; a taxonomic GLMM and a phylogenetic 237 238 GLMM. As we were interested in their predictive power, these models were then compared 239 against reduced models (i.e. without sex as either intercepts/slopes) including random effects 240 along with two ITD-only models, one with and one without random terms (Table 1) in order 241 to select the most suitable models for inclusion in the *R* package. We chose to rank our models based upon their Bayesian R^2 and K-fold cross-validation (CV) weighting as the Widely-242 243 applicable information criterion (WAIC) and Leave-one-out information criterion (LOOIC) 244 were inappropriate due to pWAIC estimates of >0.4 and Pareto k estimates of >0.7 (Gelman et 245 al. 2017; Vehtari et al. 2017). To calculate K-fold CV, species mean datasets were divided into 246 10 equal sets containing a random subset of species. Each model was then evaluated iteratively 247 upon each k-1 set (training set consisting of nine sets) by comparing the actual and predicted 248 values within the one left out 'test' set. This was done repeatedly so each set was both the test

set and contained within the training sets from which an information criterion weighting wasthen calculated.

- 251
- 252 *Model comparisons: Root mean square error (RMSE)*

We assessed the predictive error of all formulated models on the basis of the root-mean square error (RMSE), which is expressed in the same units of the response variable, between observedpredicted dry weight values and compared these point-estimates of error between our models and predicted values from Cane (1987)'s original model. Lastly, we calculated RMSE for observed-predicted values from existing body length models for both taxa and our body length measurements.

259

260 Data analysis: Intraspecific predictions

We assessed the utility of ITD in predicting intraspecific dry weight variation. For the 10 most abundant bee species of a given sex (nine using females, one using males) and five most abundant hoverfly species (all using females) we tested the utility of ITD in predicting intraspecific body size variation using species-level OLS regression.

265

To estimate the adequate sample size needed for robust mean trait measures for each bee species, we plotted trait means independently against increasing sample size. We then inferred the adequate sample size whereby variance stabilised within the 95% confidence intervals of the actual sample size.

270

- 271 **Results**
- 272

²⁷³ Pre-existing models

We collated 26 predictive allometric models for Diptera, 38 for Hymenoptera and 21 for Lepidoptera groups. We also gathered nine equations for bee foraging distance from two sources (van Nieuwstadt & Iraheta 1996; Greenleaf et al. 2007) and one allometric model for estimating bee tongue length (Cariveau et al. 2016) (See Supporting Information).

278

279 Species and specimen distribution

280 In total, we measured 391 bee species (4035 specimens) from Australia, Europe, North 281 America and South America and measured 103 hoverfly species (399 specimens) from 282 Australia and Europe (Supporting Information). Six out of seven bee families (all except 283 Stenotritidae) and two hoverfly subfamilies (Syrphinae and Eristalinae) were represented. The 284 mean specimen number per bee species was nine (\bigcirc) and five (\bigcirc) and ranged from one – 201. 285 In hoverflies, the mean specimen number per species was three for both sexes and ranged from 286 one -50. In bees, when dry weight variation was visualised across the phylogeny (Fig. 1), large 287 dry weight was most evident within the Apidae, the largest bee in our dataset being the South 288 American Xylocopa frontalis (\mathcal{Q} mean weight: 760.75mg). In contrast, Halictid (i.e. Halictus, 289 Homalictus and Lasioglossum species) and Colletid bees, in particular, the Australian Euhesma sp. (\bigcirc mean weight: 0.71mg, \bigcirc mean weight: 0.66mg) and the European Hylaeus communis 290 (\bigcirc mean weight: 6.15mg, \bigcirc mean weight: 2.76mg) were considerably small. 291

292

293 Interspecific model selection and performance

All three tested co-variables exhibited significant influences on the allometric scaling of ITD (Fig. 2, Table 1). For bees, both GLMM and PGLMM analyses indicated that models including family or phylogeny and sex in interaction or in addition with ITD, along with our nested random term better predicted dry weight relative to the baseline model (ITD-only model without random term) on the basis of K-fold CV and Bayesian R^2 (Table 2; ΔR^2 : 0.046, ΔK -

fold CV: 2226.6). However, differences in K-fold CV and Bayesian R^2 between the best-fitting taxonomic and phylogenetic models were minimal ($\Delta R^2 < 0.001$, ΔK -fold CV: 7.92). In hoverflies, incorporating taxonomy and/ sex increased body size predictions relative to the baseline ITD-only models considerably (ΔR^2 : 0.058, ΔK -fold CV: 73.3).

303

304 Increases in model performance as a result of incorporating co-variates were most pronounced 305 in bees in terms of root mean square error (RMSE) (Fig. 3). All formulated models 306 outperformed ITD-only models in their predictive precision. RMSE ranged between 10.804 -307 12.462mg for both taxonomic and phylogenetic GLMMs. The RMSE for the baseline ITD-308 only model was 15.565mg, which was near-identical the RMSE for Cane's (1987) original 309 model: 15.553mg. The RMSE for taxonomic GLMMs for hoverflies ranged from 4.619mg to 310 4.849mg and all were slightly lower than the RMSE of the baseline ITD-only model (6.179mg). 311 The range of prediction error for ITD was also considerably lower than any pre-existing and 312 applicable model using body length: 36.36 mg ± 8.29 for bees and 7.99 mg ± 0.69 for hoverflies.

313

314 Intra-specific predictions

Across the 10 most abundant species of bees (\bigcirc *Andrena flavipes*, \bigcirc *A. nigroaenea*, \bigcirc *Bombus* 315 316 impatiens, \bigcirc B. lapidarius, \bigcirc B. terrestris, \bigcirc Homalictus urbanus, \bigcirc Lasioglossum 317 glabriusculum, \mathcal{Q} L. lanarium, \mathcal{Q} L. pauxillum and \mathcal{Q} Trigona spinipes) and five most abundant hoverflies (\bigcirc Austrosyrphus sp. 1, \bigcirc Episyrphus balteatus, \bigcirc Helophilus parallelus, \bigcirc 318 319 Melanostoma scalare and \bigcirc Sphaerophoria macrogaster), the strength of intraspecific 320 predictions of body size using ITD varied considerably (Table 3; Fig. 3). All bee species 321 exhibited a significant relationship, however the adjusted- R^2 differed considerably from 0.02 in Homalictus urbanus to 0.66 for Bombus lapidarius. Similarly, three of five hoverfly species, 322 323 Austrosyrphus sp., Helophilus parallelus and Melanostoma scalare exhibited a significant

relationship. In order to accurately determine mean ITD and dry weight values for bees, a
sample size of 20-30 specimens is required for trait values to stabilise within the 95%
confidence intervals of the total sample size (See Supporting Information).

327

328 Summary of R package functions

329 The developed R package, '*pollimetry*', integrates models for estimating body size (i.e. dry 330 weight) in bees and hoverflies using the ITD and co-variates (see Table 2), which were 331 parameterized with the enclosed dataset, into a wrapper function that returns body size 332 estimates, along with standard error and 95% credible intervals. In addition, *pollimetry* includes 333 functions for estimating pollinator dry weight using pre-existing models which utilise the following co-varying traits: body length, head width and body length * body width; see 334 Supporting Information). The R package also includes functions for estimating bee foraging 335 336 distances using the ITD (Greenleaf et al. 2007) or head width (van Nieuwstadt & Iraheta 1996), 337 as well as models for estimating bee tongue length using the ITD and taxonomic family 338 (Cariveau et al. 2016). The equations will be updated in future package releases as novel data 339 become available and models are re-fit to these new data.

340

341 Discussion

We present the most comprehensive examination of allometric scaling for predictive means for two important pollinating insect taxa: bees and hoverflies. We propose an iterative framework to develop and test this suite of highly predictive dynamic allometric models that consider allometric scaling variation attributable to phylogenetic relatedness, sexual dimorphism and biogeographic differentiation.

347

348 Incorporating phylogenetic information is a cornerstone of comparative biological analyses, 349 especially in studies concerning body size variation. Phylogenetic signal in body size variation 350 has been inferred in a number of vertebrate and invertebrate groups (Ashton 2004). Failing to 351 account for dependent phylogenetic patterns is argued to heighten the risk of inaccurate 352 predictions (Martins et al. 2002; Garland et al. 2005). In our study, both PGLMM and GLMM 353 models were comparable in terms of predictive power as well as parameter values. 354 Interestingly, taxonomic and phylogenetic GLMM models were near-identical in all model 355 rankings (Bayesian R^2 , K-fold CV and RMSE), demonstrating that differential allometric 356 scaling is present at/or below the familial level. These results suggest that predictive inferences 357 of body size above the family level lack accuracy and generalisability.

358

359 Where the aim is prediction, GLMMs incorporating taxonomic groupings without considering 360 phylogeny are more practical given well-resolved phylogenies are lacking for most groups (e.g. 361 one can predict allometric relationships for non-represented species). A further advantage of 362 using taxonomic groupings over phylogeny is that they provide easy-to-interpret regression 363 intercepts and/or slopes as opposed to a phylogenetic co-variance matrix. Therefore, for bees, 364 we confirm that incorporating taxonomy is predictively equivalent in predicting allometric 365 scaling relationships where phylogenetic information is unavailable. Importantly, this 366 uniformity between taxonomic and phylogenetic models may not exist for other taxa with 367 either high paraphyly or low correspondence between taxonomy and phylogeny. In hoverflies, 368 including subfamily was less informative, yet still retained, in describing body size variation, 369 potentially due to their lower taxonomic ranking. In essence, our results suggest that where 370 previous studies have used taxonomy (i.e. bee families in Cariveau et al. 2016), results are 371 predictively comparable to incorporating phylogeny.

372

373 Sex was retained as an integral predictor either in addition or in interaction with ITD for both 374 taxa. Sexual size dimorphism (SSD) is common among insects. In both Diptera and 375 Hymenoptera, 80% of previously-studied species exhibit female-biased SSD including in 376 Apoidea and Syrphidae (Shreeves & Field 2008; Francuski et al. 2011). Female-biased SSD is hypothesised to be a result of greater fitness and increased fecundity as a result of larger female 377 378 body size (Stillwell et al. 2010). In bees, SSD is attributed to the physical requirements of nest 379 provisioning and construction (Shreeves & Field 2008). This suggests that intraspecific sex 380 differences in the allometric scaling of ITD may reflect the presence of sex-specific 381 morphologies such as the presence of specialised morphological structures for resource 382 collection (i.e. scopal hairs and corbiculae) as well as self-preservation (i.e. a stinger) in female 383 bees.

384

385 In hoverflies, SSD was also notably female-biased, with sex retained as an important body size 386 predictor in conjunction with the ITD. However, few examples of morphological sexual 387 dimorphism exist. In both taxa, including sex increased model precision by <4.25-1.38mg 388 RMSE, highlighting the predictive accuracy of the ITD even when sex is not considered. 389 Therefore, failing to incorporate sex in predictions will only introduce a subtle error. Sex is easily identifiable in both bees and hoverflies. Therefore, we recommend its inclusion if 390 391 predictive allometries are used as many ecologically relevant allometric traits are sex-related 392 (e.g. flight distances; Kraus et al. 2009).

393

Few previous studies have assessed the utility of predictive models in describing intrageneric or intraspecific allometric traits (e.g. Hagen & Dupont 2013; Cariveau et al. 2016). Our results suggest that intraspecific body size variation is difficult to predict accurately using co-varying traits such as the ITD. In particular, the large variation in predictive power suggests that it is

398 sensitive to environmental conditions and/or sample sizes. Adult body size variation in 399 holometabolous insects is a direct result of diet and environment during ontogeny and larval 400 development (Davidowitz et al. 2004). For example, within Bombus species, brood sizes 401 increase throughout the season in response to colony population increases (Inoue 1992). These 402 intra-specific patterns raise the question of how many individuals are necessary to measure to 403 accurately capture species' mean trait values. Based on our examination of trait-sample size 404 relationships we can provide a recommendation that measuring 20-30 specimens per species 405 will lead to accurate estimation intraspecific body size and morphological trait values. By 406 applying our iterative framework, we aim to reduce the noise in interspecific models due to 407 low sample sizes in some species by incorporating novel data sets.

408

409 Terrestrial invertebrates show considerable biogeographic variation in body shape and size. 410 While previous studies have compared predictive allometries between biogeographical regions 411 either independently (Schoener 1980) or within a meta-analytical framework (Martin et al 412 2014), we chose to represent biogeographical variation within a random effect structure. This 413 makes these models broadly applicable and not biogeographically restricted in utility. 414 Observed biogeographical differences within this study likely arise from differing species 415 diversification patterns as well as from sampling biases, such as variation in commonality 416 among species. Therefore, discerning hypotheses that explain biogeographic variation in the 417 allometric scaling of ITD is problematic. However, it is clear that the influence of biogeography 418 appears alongside species' evolutionary histories and intraspecific variation.

419

420 By incorporating phylogeny or taxonomy, sexual dimorphism and biogeographic random 421 effects we improved model predictions and reduced the limitations of traditional predictive 422 allometry. These three predictors represent fundamentally-related causes of body size variation 423 in pollinating insects. In consideration of the multiple metrics (i.e. Bayesian R^2 , K-fold CV, 424 and RMSE) used in model selection and performance, we provide multiple, near-equally accurate predictive models. This is important as research questions may not garner 425 426 investigation of sex-related allometric differences and may occur outside the included biogeographic regions. Therefore, disseminating the most appropriate allometric model 427 428 becomes a hypothesis-driven formula that should consider and then discount each examined 429 factor. Importantly, given the high resolution across our described models and large sample 430 size of specimens within our study, our models will improve body size predictions relative to 431 pre-existing models even when considering only ITD. After accounting for biogeographical 432 and species-level effects, failing to incorporate sex or phylogeny/taxonomy will not result in considerable error (see Fig. 3) although we endorse their use as it enables more meaningful 433 434 analyses. Lastly, we caution the use of ordinal-level predictive models as allometric constraints 435 are ubiquitous at the familial level (See Fig. 1).

436

437 *Conclusions and implications*

The accompanying R package, "pollimetry", provides a user-friendly interface to estimate 438 439 pollinator body size (as dry weight) and modelled allometric traits. Practical predictive allometric libraries require multiple models that are continually updated when novel datasets 440 441 become available. This will enable robust investigation of other allometric traits at both intra-442 or inter-specific levels. The consequences of body size variation are ubiquitous within 443 pollination research, yet few have utilised allometric theory in studying pollinating taxa beyond 444 bees. Adding hoverflies is an important first step, yet this comprehensive approach to 445 predictive allometric model development should be applied to other pollinating taxa, such as 446 moths and butterflies. The iterative framework used herein heralds a dynamic new direction

for predictive allometry and will provide more accurate predictions through hypothesis-ledmodel choice, testing and investigation in allometric research.

449

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460

461 Data availability

462 All data including *R* code and the *R* package are available here: 463 https://github.com/liamkendall/pollimetry DOI:10.5281/zenodo.1313905

464

465 Author contributions

466 IB, LKK, VG and RR conceived the study. LKK, VG, JR and MH collected Australian 467 specimens. LKK measured Australian, German and Swiss specimens. LKK and MH identified 468 Australian bees. ZMP identified North American specimens. LR collected, identified and 469 measured Irish specimens. JMM collected and identified British specimens. FPM collected, 470 identified and measured Spanish specimens. NJV and SPMR collected, identified and 471 measured Belgian specimens. MA and LS collected and identified Swiss specimens. LKK, IB,

- 472 and VG devised and undertook all data analyses. LKK and IB formulated and wrote the R
- 473 package. LKK wrote the manuscript and all authors contributed significantly to the final
- 474 manuscript.
- 475
- 476

477 Table 1. Model selection tables for bee and hoverfly interspecific models. Models in bold are those included in the *R* package. Model types: i)

- 478 Taxo. GLMM: taxonomic generalised linear mixed models and ii) Phylo GLMM: phylogenetic generalised linear mixed model. lnITD: ln
- 479 intertegular distance (mm), Subf: Subfamily, R^2 : Bayesian R², K-CV: K-fold cross validation, Δ : Δ K-fold CV and RMSE: root-mean square
- 480 error. Estimates of best models are shown in Supporting Information.

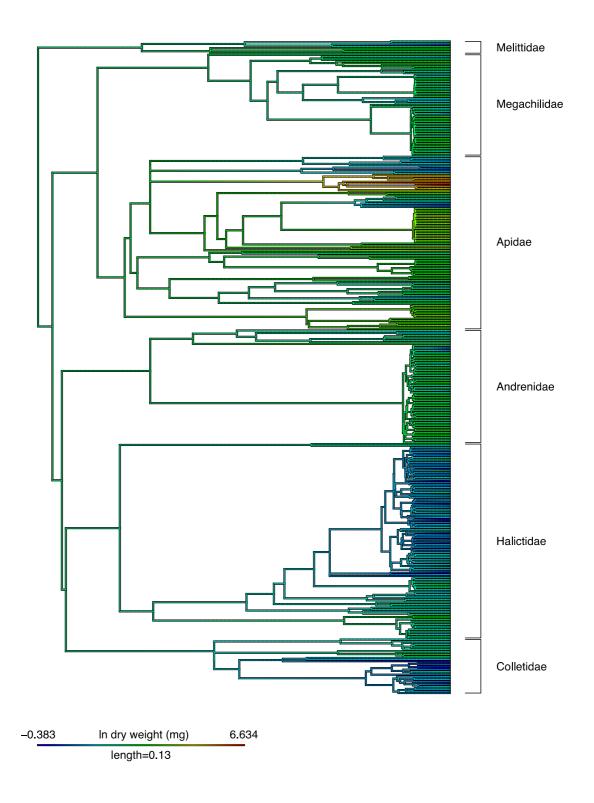
| | Taxa | | Model formulae | R^2 | K-CV | Δ | RMSE |
|---|------------|--------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------|--------|--------|--------|
| 1 | Bees | | ln(Dry weight) ~ ln(ITD) + Family + Sex+ Family:ln(ITD) + Sex:ln(ITD) + (1 Region/Species) | 0.946 | 2763.7 | 0.0 | 11.313 |
| 2 | | | $\ln(\text{Dry weight}) \sim \ln(\text{ITD}) + \text{Family} + \text{Sex} + \text{Sex:}\ln(\text{ITD}) + (1 \text{Region/Species})$ | 0.946 | 2774.3 | 10.7 | 11.216 |
| 3 | | | $\ln(\text{Dry weight}) \sim \ln(\text{ITD}) + \text{Family} + \text{Sex} + (1 \text{Region/Species})$ | 0.946 | 2778.2 | 14.5 | 11.629 |
| 4 | | Taxo. | $\ln(\text{Dry weight}) \sim \ln(\text{ITD}) + \text{Family} + \text{Sex} + \text{Family:} \ln(\text{ITD}) + (1 \text{Region/Species})$ | 0.946 | 2790.9 | 27.3 | 11.588 |
| 5 | | GLMM | $\ln(\text{Dry weight}) \sim \ln(\text{ITD}) + \text{Family} + (1 \text{Region/Species})$ | 0.943 | 2945.3 | 181.7 | 12.092 |
| 6 | | | $\ln(\text{Dry weight}) \sim \ln(\text{ITD}) + \text{Family} + \text{Family:}\ln(\text{ITD}) + (1 \text{Region/Species})$ | 0.943 | 2951.5 | 187.9 | 12.462 |
| 7 | | | ln(Dry weight) ~ ln(ITD) + (1 Region/Species) | 0.942 | 2985.9 | 222.3 | 11.896 |
| 8 | | | $\ln(\text{Dry weight}) \sim \ln(\text{ITD})$ | 0.898 | 4990.2 | 2226.6 | 15.565 |
| 1 | | Phylo. | ln(Dry weight) ~ ln(ITD) + Sex + Sex:ln(ITD) + (1 Region/Species) | 0.946 | 2771.6 | 0 | 11.06 |
| 2 | | GLMM | $ln(Dry weight) \sim ln(ITD) + Sex + (1 Region/Species)$ | 0.946 | 2786.8 | 15.2 | 11.321 |
| 3 | | | $ln(Dry weight) \sim ln(ITD) + (1 Region/Species)$ | 0.943 | 3004.1 | 232.5 | 11.758 |
| 1 | Hoverflies | | ln(Dry weight) ~ ln(ITD) + Subf + Sex + Subf:ln(ITD) + Sex:ln(ITD) + (1 Region/Species) | 0.821 | 526.1 | 0 | 4.776 |
| 2 | | | $ln(Dry weight) \sim ln(ITD) + Subf + Sex + Sex:ln(ITD) + (1 Region/Species)$ | 0.82 | 530.2 | 4.1 | 4.707 |
| 4 | | | $ln(Dry weight) \sim ln(ITD) + Subf + Sex + Subf:ln(ITD) + (1 Region/Species)$ | 0.822 | 533.1 | 7 | 4.713 |
| 5 | | Taxo. | $ln(Dry weight) \sim ln(ITD) + Subf + Sex + (1 Region/Species)$ | 0.821 | 538.9 | 12.8 | 4.624 |
| 6 | | GLMM | $ln(Dry weight) \sim ln(ITD) + Subf + (1 Region/Species)$ | 0.811 | 547.8 | 21.7 | 4.765 |
| 7 | | | $ln(Dry weight) \sim ln(ITD) + Subf + Subf:ln(ITD) + (1 Region/Species)$ | 0.812 | 549.5 | 23.4 | 4.838 |
| 8 | | | ln(Dry weight) ~ ln(ITD) + (1 Region/Species) | 0.81 | 554.5 | 28.4 | 4.8 |
| 9 | | | $\ln(\text{Dry weight}) \sim \ln(\text{ITD})$ | 0.762 | 599.4 | 73.3 | 6.158 |

481

483 Table 2. Model parameters of intraspecific ln (dry weight) - ln intertegular distance (ITD) relationships. F: F-statistic and degrees of freedom for

| Taxa | Region | Taxonomic ranking | Species | F _(df) | α | β | R^2 | Р | |
|----------|---------------|------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------|--------------------|-------------------|-------|--------|--|
| Bee | Europe | Andrenidae: Andreninae | $\stackrel{\bigcirc}{_{+}}$ Andrena flavipes | 17.63 (1,70) | 1.575 ± 0.367 | 1.73 ± 0.412 | 0.189 | < 0.00 | |
| | Europe | Andrenidae: Andreninae | \bigcirc Andrena nigroaenea | 30.17 (1,50) | 0.893 ± 0.488 | 2.459 ± 0.448 | 0.364 | < 0.00 | |
| | North America | Apidae: Apinae | <i>d</i> Bombus impatiens | 20.14 (1,66) | 2.128 ± 0.365 | 1.275 ± 0.284 | 0.222 | < 0.0 | |
| | Europe | Apidae: Apinae | \bigcirc Bombus lapidarius | 110.2 (1.54) | 0.277 ± 0.343 | 2.761 ± 0.263 | 0.665 | < 0.0 | |
| | Europe | Apidae: Apinae | \bigcirc Bombus terrestris | 137.8 (1,81) | 1.242 ± 0.274 | 2.136 ± 0.182 | 0.625 | < 0.0 | |
| | Australia | Halictidae: Halictinae | \bigcirc Homalictus urbanus | 6.055 (1.209) | -0.164 ± 0.033 | 1.166 ± 0.474 | 0.024 | 0.01 | |
| | Europe | Halictidae: Halictinae | $\begin{array}{c} \bigcirc \\ \square \end{array}$ Lasioglossum glabriusculum | 6.444 (1,47) | 0.302 ± 0.127 | 2.802 ± 1.104 | 0.102 | 0.01 | |
| | Europe | Halictidae: Halictinae | \bigcirc Lasioglossum lanarium | 53.87 (1.61) | 0.702 ± 0.198 | 2.13 ± 0.29 | 0.46 | < 0.0 | |
| | Europe | Halictidae: Halictinae | $\stackrel{\circ}{\downarrow}$ Lasioglossum pauxillum | 37.46 (1,129) | 0.488 ± 0.057 | 2.715 ± 0.444 | 0.219 | < 0.0 | |
| | South America | Apidae: Apinae | \bigcirc Trigona spinipes | 0.285 (1,48) | 2.144 ± 0.243 | 0.287 ± 0.537 | -0.02 | 0.59 | |
| Hoverfly | Australia | Syrphidae: Syrphinae | \bigcirc Austrosyrphus sp. 1 | 12.7 (1.30) | 0.087 ± 0.458 | 2.032 ± 0.57 | 0.274 | 0.00 | |
| - | Europe | Syrphidae: Syrphinae | \bigcirc Episyrphus balteatus | 0.08 (1,8) | 1.334 ± 1.885 | 0.885 ± 2.229 | -0.11 | >0. | |
| | Europe | Syrphidae: Eristalinae | \bigcirc Helophilus parallelus | 14.84 (1.17) | 0.286 ± 0.857 | 2.485 ± 0.645 | 0.435 | 0.00 | |
| | Europe | Syrphidae: Syrphinae | 9 Melanostoma scalare | 6.38 (1,7) | -2.172 ± 1.324 | 7.619 ± 3.016 | 0.4 | 0.0 | |
| | Australia | Syrphidae: Syrphinae | \bigcirc Sphaerophoria macrogaster | 0.04 (1,8) | 0.361 ± 0.274 | 0.195 ± 0.907 | -0.11 | >0. | |

| 484 | each model. α : intercept, β : ITD co-efficients \pm standard error, R^2 : Adjusted R^2 and P: p-value. |
|-----|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|



486

487 Fig. 1. Chronogram of bee genera (Hedtke et al. 2013) with simulated species subtrees.

488 Branch lengths correspond to relative time since divergence. Colour denotes mean ln dry

489 weight (mg) of each bee species.

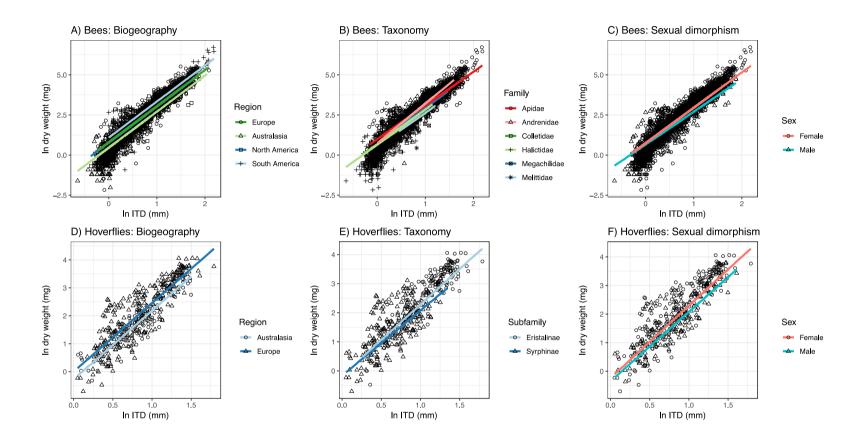
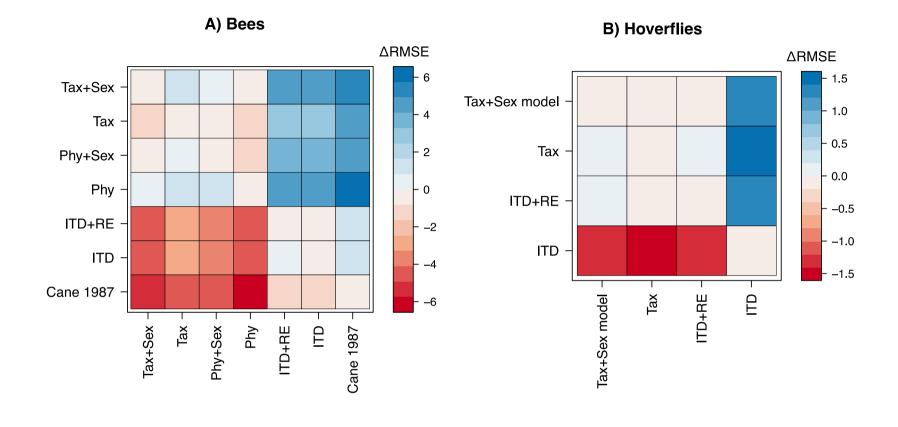


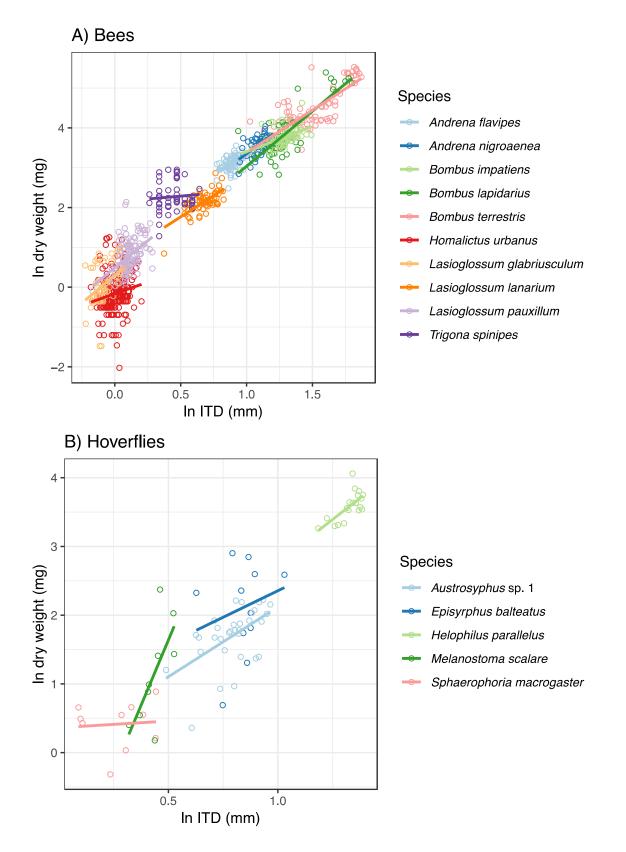
Fig. 2. Dry weight (mg) ~ Intertegular distance (ITD) interspecific relationships. From left to right: influence of biogeographic region,

- 493 taxonomic grouping and sexual dimorphism. Lines represent the posterior fits from Bayesian generalised linear mixed models. 95% credible
- 494 intervals are omitted for clarity. See Supporting Information for model co-efficients.



496

Fig. 3. Pairwise comparisons of Δ root mean square error (RMSE) in milligrams between bee and hoverfly models. Negative values denote that models on x axis have lower precision, whereas positive values signify higher precision. Tax+Sex: Full taxonomic model, Tax: Reduced taxonomic model, Phy+Sex: Full phylogenetic model, Phy: Reduced phylogenetic model, ITD+RE: ITD mixed effect model, ITD: ITD fixed effect model. Cane (1987)'s original model for bees.





502 Fig. 4. Intraspecific predictions of female* dry weight with intertegular distance (ITD)). Lines
503 denote line of best fit from OLS regression. *Except for Bombus impatiens.

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1 Supporting Information

2

3 Description of pre-existing models

In addition to developing new predictive allometric models for bees and hoverflies, we selected the three key pollinating insect orders: Diptera, Hymenoptera and Lepidoptera and collated all known predictive allometric models for those orders, regardless of whether they are acknowledged pollinators. Lepidoptera were not included in primary within-text analyses for logistic reasons and low abundances across sourced research projects. From an initial literature search, we obtained the publications analysed by Martin et al. (2014). We then reviewed each

10 publication individually, including their references and citations for additional models.

11

Diptera: 26 predictive allometric models for Diptera were collated (Table S1A). Eleven models
were reported for the entire order, including nine without any taxonomic breakdown of samples
used. Twelve models were collated for the three main suborders Nematocera (6), Brachycera
(4) and Cycllorapha (2) and two for specific families; Asilidae and Bombyliidae.

16

Hymenoptera: 38 predictive allometric models for Hymenoptera were collated (Table S1B).
These included eight models for the entire order, ten for Formicidae and seven for all
Hymenoptera excluding Formicidae. There are three models for Vespidae and two models for
Apidae (Cane 1987 & Sabo et al. (2002). Sample et al's (1993) body length and body length *
body width models are provided for Braconidae, Ichneumonidae, Halictidae and Pompilidae.

22

Lepidoptera: 21 predictive allometric models for Lepidoptera were collated (Table S1C). This
includes 13 with varying taxa and without lower classifications. Hodar (1997) provides specific
models for Heterocera (moths) and Ropalocera (butterflies). Sample et al. (1993) provide body

- 26 length and body length * body width models for Microlepidoptera and two moth families:
- 27 Geometridae and Arctiidae.
- 28

30 Table S1A. Allometric models for Diptera. Measure denotes trait measurement (BL = Body length, BW = Body width). Reg = regression type(L

= Linear regression. MA = Major axis regression or OLS = Ordinary Least Squares regression). Type denotes slope (EXP = exponential model, 31

PF = power function). Models are present in the form of $y = \ln(\alpha) + \ln(\beta) * x$ unless Type noted with *. ** = Included body width as well as 32 length.

- 33
- 34

| Source | Tax. grouping | Sample size | Biog. region | Measure | Range (mm) | Reg. | Туре | | Model | | |
|-----------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------|---------------------|--------------|---------|------------|------|------|-----------------------|---------------------|----------|-----------------------|
| | | (Families: species) | | | | | | $\alpha \pm S.E.$ | $B \pm S.E.$ | Resi. SE | R ² |
| Rogers et al. (1977) | NA | (NA:84) | USA | BL | 0.9-34 | OLS | PF | -3.298 ± 0.115 | 2.366 ± 0.078 | 0.57 | 0.96 |
| Schoener (1980) | NA | (NA:107) | Costa Rica | BL | NA | OLS | PF | -2.603 ± 0.0688 | 1.64 ± 0.1224 | NA | 0.80 |
| 66 | NA | (NA:124) | ** | ** | " | " | " | -2.688 ± 0.051 | 1.59 ± 0.1173 | NA | 0.78 |
| 66 | NA | (NA:171) | USA | ** | " | " | " | -3.816 ± 0.561 | 2.42 ± 0.0969 | NA | 0.89 |
| Gowing and Recher (1984) | NA | (NA:100) | Australia | BL | 2-11 | OLS | PF | 3.653 ± 0.129 | 2.546 ± 0.071 | 0.37 | 0.93 |
| Sample et al. (1993) | Combined | (15:257) | USA | BL | 2.9-23.65 | OLS | PF | -3.184 ± 0.184 | 2.213 ± 0.085 | NA | 0.85 |
| | cc | " | ** | BL*BW | " | " | " | -2.197 ± 0.089 | 1.309 ± 0.03 | ** | 0.94 |
| ** | BIB, SCI, TIP | (3:46) | 66 | BL | 3.55-23.65 | " | " | -3.675 ± 0.23 | 2.212 ± 0.141 | 66 | 0.92 |
| 66 | ~~ | " | 66 | BL*BW | " | " | " | -2.217 ± 0.205 | 1.288 ± 0.071 | 66 | 0.94 |
| 66 | ASI, DOL, EMP, RHA, STR, THE | (6:80) | 66 | BL | 2.9-17.99 | " | " | -3.374 ± 0.230 | 2.158 ± 0.101 | 66 | 0.92 |
| 66 | ~~ | " | " | BL*BW | " | " | " | -2.2 ± 0.147 | 1.259 ± 0.049 | " | 0.95 |
| 66 | CAL, LAU, MUS, OTI, SYR, TAC | (6:119) | " | BL | 2.9-15.65 | " | " | -3.619 ± 0.212 | 2.632 ± 0.101 | " | 0.92 |
| 66 | ~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~ | | 66 | BL*BW | " | " | " | -2.02 ± 0.131 | 1.298 ± 0.042 | 66 | 0.94 |
| Hodar (1997) | BRA | (NA:26) | Spain | HW | NA | OLS | PF | 0.655 ± 0.105 | 2.526 ± 0.139 | 0.47 | 0.93 |
| u` ´ | NEM | (NA:10) | • ‹ ‹ | ٠٠ | NA | " | " | 3.942 ± 0.259 | 3.106 ± 0.278 | 0.55 | 0.94 |
| Ganihar (1997) | NA | (NA:20) | India | BL | NA | OLS | PF | -3.4294 ± 0.01994 | 2.5943 ± 0.0334 | 0.03 | 0.99 |
| Johnson and Strong (2000) | NA | (NA:75) | Jamaica | BL | 1-12.5 | OLS | PF | -2.462 ± 0.196 | 1.881 ± 0.146 | NA | 0.83 |
| " | NEM | (NA:21) | دد | ٠٠ | 1-4.8 | " | " | -2.562 ± 0.244 | 1.373 ± 0.207 | دد | 0.84 |
| دد | NEM exc. | (NA:54) | دد | ٠٠ | 1.2-12.5 | " | " | -2.105 ± 0.178 | 1.805 ± 0.124 | دد | 0.89 |
| Sabo et al. (2002) | BRA | NA | USA | BL | NA | OLS | PF* | 0.006 ± 0.007 | 3.05 ± 0.36 | NA | 0.85 |
| ~ ~ ~ ~ ~ ~ ~ ~ ~ ~ ~ ~ ~ ~ ~ ~ ~ ~ ~ ~ | NEM | NA | دد | ٠٠ | دد | " | " | 0.1 ± 0.06 | 1.57 ± 0.2 | دد | 0.90 |
| دد | ASI | (1:9) | ~~ | ** | ~~ | " | " | 0.38 ± 2.625 | 1.5 ± 2.469 | ~~ | 0.74 |
| ٠٠ | BOM | (1:10) | دد | دد | ٠٠ | " | " | 0.007 ± 0.011 | 3.337 ± 0.676 | ٠٠ | 0.95 |
| Brady and Noske (2006) | NA | (NA:9) | Australia | BL | 2-28 | OLS | L* | -0.041 ± 0.004 | 0.010 ± 0.001 | 0.02 | 0.84 |
| Wardhaugh (2013) | NA | (NA:16) | Australia | BL | NA | MA | PF | -3.29 ± 0.45 | 2.65 ± 0.36 | NA | 0.72 |
| | | " | " | BL * BW | NA | " | " | -1.91 ± 0.19 | 1.22 ± 0.11 | " | 0.87 |

35 36

BIB = Bibionidae, SCI = Sciaridae, TIP = Tipulidae, ASI= Asilidae, BOM: Bombyliidae, DOL = Dolichopodidae, EMP = Empididae, RHA = Rhagionidae, STR = Stratiomyidae, THE = Therevidae, CAL = Calliphoridae, LAU = Lauxaniidae, MUS = Muscidae, OTI = Otitidae, SYR = Syrphidae, TAC = Tachinidae. NEM = Nematocera, BRA= Brachycera, CYC = Cyclorrapha

Table S1B. Allometric models for Hymenoptera. Measure denotes trait measurement (BL = Body length, BW = Body width, ITD = Intertegular distance). Reg = regression type (L = Linear regression. MA = Major axis regression or OLS = Ordinary Least Squares regression). Type denotes slope (EXP = exponential model, PF = power function). Models are present in the form of $y = \ln(\alpha) + \beta * \ln(x)$ unless Type noted with *. ** = Included body width as well as length.

| Source | Tax. grouping | Sample size | Biog. region | Measure | Range (mm) | Reg. | Туре | | Model | | |
|--------------------------|---------------|---------------------|----------------|---------|------------|------|-----------------|----------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------|--------------|-------|
| | | (Families: species) | | | | | | $\alpha \pm S.E.$ | $B \pm S.E.$ | Resi. SE | R^2 |
| Rogers et al. (1977) | ** | (NA:97) | USA | BL | 0.7-27 | OLS | PF | -3.871 ± 0.108 | 2.407 ± 0.06 | 0.55 | 0.97 |
| | FOR | (NA:34) | " | " | 1.2-13.5 | OLS | PF | -4.029 ± 0.171 | 2.572 ± 0.097 | 0.4 | 0.98 |
| Cane (1987) | Apidae | (6:20) | USA | ITD | 1,6 | NL | PF | $0.6453 \pm NA$ | $2.4691 \pm NA$ | NA | 0.96 |
| Schoener (1980) | ** | (NA:174) | Costa Rica | BL | NA | OLS | PF* | 0.043 ± 0.05 | 2.07 ± 0.091 | NA | 0.87 |
| cc | ** | (NA:122) | ** | ** | " | " | ~~ | 0.022 ± 0.056 | 2.29 ± 0.137 | ~~ | 0.84 |
| ** | " | (NA:82) | USA | BL | دد | ** | " | 0.016 ± 0.072 | 2.55 ± 0.107 | 66 | 0.94 |
| ~~ | FOR | (NA:25) | Costa Rica | BL | " | ** | " | 0.012 ± 0.113 | 2.72 ± 0.26 | " | 0.9 |
| ** | " | (NA:20) | " | BL | " | ** | " | 0.21 ± 0.127 | 2.31 ± 0.224 | " | 0.93 |
| ** | ** | (NA:13) | USA | BL | " | ** | ~~ | 0.034 ± 0.155 | 2.19 ± 0.342 | " | 0.9 |
| Gowing and Recher (1984) | ** | (NA:86) | Australia | BL | 1-12 | OLS | EXP | -2.860 ± 0.099 | 0.478 ± 0.016 | 0.48 | 0.92 |
| " | FOR | (NA:68) | | | 2-18 | OLS | PF | -3.306 ± 0.258 | 2.489 ± 0.051 | 0.32 | 0.9 |
| Sample et al. (1993) | ALL | (7:274) | USA | BL | 2.81-34.91 | OLS | PF | -4.284 ± 0.183 | 2.696 ± 0.083 | NA | 0.8 |
| | ** | (| " | BL * BW | | " | " | -2.375 ± 0.08 | 1.456 ± 0.028 | NA | 0.9 |
| ** | Ichneumonidae | (1:106) | " | BL | 3.65-34.91 | " | " | -4.149 ± 0.262 | 2.464 ± 0.116 | NA | 0.9 |
| ** | " | (11 100) | " | BL * BW | " | ** | ** | -2.497 ± 0.147 | 1.445 ± 0.053 | NA | 0.9 |
| دد | Braconidae | (1:41) | ٠٠ | BL | 2.81-15.42 | " | " | -3.854 ± 0.273 | 2.441 ± 0.147 | NA | 0.9 |
| ~~ | " | | " | BL * BW | ** | ** | ** | -2.19 ± 0.142 | 1.445 ± 0.069 | NA | 0.9 |
| دد | Vespidae | (1:19) | ٠٠ | BL | 8.14-20.58 | " | " | -3.540 ± 0.544 | 2.782 ± 0.195 | NA | 0.9 |
| " | | " | ٠٠ | BL * BW | ** | " | " | -1.537 ± 0.307 | 1.319 ± 0.07 | NA | 0.9 |
| دد | Formicidae | (1:45) | " | BL | 3.62-17.41 | " | ٠٠ | -4.727 ± 0.350 | 2.919 ± 0.11 | NA | 0.9 |
| دد | " | ٠٠ | " | BL * BW | ** | " | ٠٠ | -2.378 ± 0.265 | 1.473 ± 0.106 | NA | 0.9 |
| ٠٠ | Halictidae | (1:21) | " | BL | 6-12.76 | " | ٠٠ | -2.891 ± 0.386 | 2.302 ± 0.182 | NA | 0.9 |
| ** | 66 | | " | BL * BW | ** | ** | ** | -2.758 ± 0.357 | 1.590 ± 0.119 | NA | 0.9 |
| ** | Pompilidae | (1:15) | ** | BL | 5.55-14.32 | ** | ** | -2.341 ± 0.873 | 2.006 ± 0.396 | NA | 0.8 |
| ** | | ٠٠ | ** | BL * BW | ~~ | ** | ** | -1.946 ± 0.431 | 1.444 ± 0.154 | NA | 0.9 |
| Hodar (1997) | ALL | NA | Spain | HW | NA | OLS | PF* | 1.999 ± 0.112 | 2.09 ± 0.132 | 0.51 | 0.9 |
| ** | FOR - Workers | NA | | ** | ** | ** | " | 0.552 ± 0.068 | 2.550 ± 0.116 | 0.19 | 0.9 |
| ** | FOR -Winged | NA | ** | 66 | دد | ** | " | 1.607 ± 0.127 | 2.752 ± 0.25 | 0.31 | 0.9 |
| Ganihar (1997) | NA** | (NA:26) | India | BL | NA | OLS | PF | -3.5917 ± 0.1646 | 2.6429 ± 0.1127 | 0.24 | 0.9 |
| ohnson and Strong (2000) | ALL | NA | Jamaica | BL | 1.4-24.3 | OLS | PF | -3.556 ± 0.183 | 2.193 ± 0.110 | NA | 0.9 |
| 2. | FOR | NA | " | " | 1.6-9.9 | ** | ** | -3.730 ± 0.298 | 2.103 ± 0.238 | " | 0.9 |
| | | NA | " | " | 1.4-24.3 | ** | ** | -3.295 ± 0.241 | 2.102 ± 0.132 | " | 0.9 |
| Sabo et al. (2002) | 7**** | (7:54) | USA | BL | NA | OLS | PF* | 0.56 ± 0.64 | 1.56 ± 0.4 | NA | 0.7 |
| " (2002) | API | (1:10) | | | " | °, | | 0.006 ± 0.041 | 3.407 ± 2.471 | | 0.8 |
| " | VES | (1:10) | " | " | " | ~~ | " | 0.000 ± 0.001 0.001 ± 0.002 | 3.723 ± 0.798 | " | 0.9 |
| Brady and Noske (2006) | FOR | (NA:8) | Australia | BL | 2-10 | OLS | PF* | 0.001 ± 0.002 | 3.723 ± 0.798 2.330 ± 0.0151 | 0.49 | 0.9 |
| Brady and POSKE (2000) | FUK ** | (NA:8) (NA:9) | Australia " | BL | 4-29 | OLS | PF* PF* | 6.783 ± 0.001 | 2.530 ± 0.0131 2.544 ± 0.26 | 0.49 | 0.7 |
| Wardhaugh (2013) | NA | (NA:26) | Australia | BL | NA | MA | PF | -4.3 ± 0.38 | 3 ± 0.24 | NA | 0.8 |
| matunaugn (2015) | INA " | (INA.20) | Australia " | BL * BW | 1NA " | WIA | F1 [.] | -4.3 ± 0.38 -2.1 ± 0.09 | 3 ± 0.24 1.34 ± 0.05 | 1 N A | 0.8 |

41 ANT = Anthophoridae, API = Apidae, CHR = Chrysididae, FOR = Formicidae, ICH = Ichneumonidae, SPH = Sphecidae, VES = Vespidae. ** = excluded ants. ****Seven families = ANT, API, CHR, FOR, ICH, SPH, VES

42 Table S1C. Allometric models for Lepidoptera. Measure denotes trait measurement (BL = Body length, BW = Body width). Reg = regression type

43 (MA = Major axis regression, OLS = Ordinary Least Squares regression). Type denotes slope (EXP = exponential model, PF = power function).

44 Models are present in the form of $y = \ln(\alpha) + \ln(\beta) * x$ unless Type noted with *. ** = Included body width as well as length.

| Source | Tax. grouping | Sample size | Biog. region | Measure | Range (mm) | Reg. | Туре | | Model | | |
|---------------------------|---------------|---------------------|--------------|---------|------------|------|------|---------------------|--------------------|----------|-------|
| | | (Families: species) | | | | | | $\alpha \pm S.E.$ | $B \pm S.E.$ | Resi. SE | R^2 |
| Rogers et al. (1977) | NA | (NA:22) | USA | BL | 1.6-17 | OLS | PF | -4.037 ± 0.133 | 2.903 ± 0.08 | 0.31 | 0.99 |
| Sample et al. (1993) | ALL | (NA:384) | USA | BL | 2.76-40.73 | OLS | PF | -5.036 ± 0.157 | 3.122 ± 0.064 | NA | 0.93 |
| ** | " | ** | ** | BL * BW | ** | " | ** | -2.607 ± 0.088 | 1.457 ± 0.024 | ** | 0.95 |
| cc | MIC. | (NA:46) | ** | BL | 2.76-10.6 | ** | ** | -4.913 ± 0.325 | 2.918 ± 0.169 | ** | 0.93 |
| ٠٠ | دد | ~ | ** | BL * BW | | ** | دد | -2.715 ± 0.199 | 1.395 ± 0.08 | 66 | 0.93 |
| " | GEO | (1:58) | ** | BL | 6.45-21.70 | ** | دد | -4.172 ± 0.411 | 2.628 ± 0.167 | 66 | 0.9 |
| " | دد | ~ | ** | BL * BW | ** | ** | دد | -2.343 ± 0.283 | 1.387 ± 0.084 | 66 | 0.91 |
| دد | ARC | (1:60) | ** | BL | 5.05-20.06 | ** | دد | -3.755 ± 0.242 | 2.658 ± 0.105 | 66 | 0.96 |
| ~~ | ** | " | ** | BL * BW | ** | ٠٠ | دد | -1.658 ± 0.148 | 1.222 ± 0.044 | دد | 0.96 |
| Hodar (1996) | HET | (NA:10) | Spain | HW | NA | OLS | PF | 2.053 ± 0.25 | 2.804 ± 0.236 | 0.49 | 0.95 |
| | ROP | (NA:10) | • | HW | NA | ٠٠ | ** | 1.634 ± 0.46 | 2.793 ± 0.446 | 0.48 | 0.83 |
| Ganihar et al. (1997) | NA | (NA:10) | India | BL | NA | OLS | PF | -4.7915 ± 0.751 | 2.8585 ± 0.257 | 0.46 | 0.93 |
| Johnson and Strong (2000) | NA | (NA:40) | Jamaica | BL | 2.2-18.6 | OLS | PF | -3.268 ± 0.255 | 2.243 ± 0.130 | NA | 0.94 |
| Schoener (1980) | NA | (NA:29) | Costa Rica | BL | NA | OLS | PF* | 0.026 ± 0.186 | 2.55 ± 0.571 | NA | 0.96 |
| ** | " | (NA:7) | ** | ** | " | ** | " | 0.078 ± 0.139 | 1.32 ± 0.683 | ** | 0.75 |
| دد | " | (NA:18) | USA | " | " | ~~ | ** | 0.014 ± 0.18673 | 2.55 ± 0.571 | 66 | 0.77 |
| Brady and Noske (2006) | NA | (NA:6) | Australia | BL | 7.34 | OLS | PF* | 0.001 | 2.313 ± 0.223 | 0.4 | 0.81 |
| Wardhaugh (2013) | NA | (NA:11) | Australia | BL | NA | MA | PF | -3.83 ± 0.41 | 2.77 ± 0.27 | NA | 0.83 |
| Wardhaugh (2013) | " | " | " | BL * BW | " | ** | ** | -2.1 ± 0.21 | 1.37 ± 0.11 | 66 | 0.88 |

45 HET = Heterocera, ROP = Ropalocera, MIC = Microlepidoptera, GEO = Geometridae, ARC = Arctiidae

46 Table S2. Predictive allometries for bee foraging distance. HW: Head width, IT: Intertegular

47 distance.

| Source | Taxa | Distance measure | Model |
|---------------------------------|----------------------|-------------------|------------------------------|
| Roubik and Aluja (1983) (in van | Apidae: Meliponini | Artificial nectar | y = -579.1 + 550.9 * HW |
| Nieuwstadt & Iraheta (1996) | | source | |
| van Nieuwstadt & Iraheta (1996) | | Artificial nectar | y = -908.2 + 560.8 * HW |
| | | source | |
| Greenleaf et al. (2007) | Hymenoptera: Apoidea | Maximum | y = -1.363 + 3.366 * ln(ITD) |
| | | Typical | y = -1.643 + 3.242 * ln(ITD) |
| | | Feeder | y = -0.760 + 2.313 * ln(ITD) |
| | | Communication | y = -0.993 + 2.788 * ln(ITD) |

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Table S3. Distribution of included specimens. Numbers in parenthesis denote total specimens and species per country, family and/or subfamily. Exact sampling locations are available in the included dataset. ID: Specimen identifier. Either study author initials or full name and affiliation. DL: Specimen deposition location. Numbers refer to author affiliations or institution address is provided. * All excluding Jim Cane's specimens (see Cane 1987).

| Tax a | Region | Country | Family | Subfamily | ID | DL |
|----------|---------------|-----------------------|----------------------|--------------------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------|
| Bee | Australasia | Australia (899, 93) | Apidae (185, 20) | Apinae (125, 13),Xylocopinae (60, 7) | LKK & MH | UNER; |
| | | | Colletidae (130, 15) | Colletinae (76, 7), Euryglossinae (49, 3) | | MHPC |
| | | | | Hylaeinae (5, 5) | | |
| | | | Halictidae (519, 38) | Halictinae (441, 25) | | |
| | | | | Nomiinae (78, 13) | | |
| | | | Megachilidae | Megachilinae (65, 20) | | |
| | Europe | Belgium (703, 49) | Andrenidae | Andreninae (253, 15) | NJV, SPMR & | ULBC |
| | | | Apidae (242) | Apinae (192, 9), Nomadinae (50, 4) | Alain Pauly ^A | |
| | | | Halictidae | Halictinae (120, 9) | | |
| | | | Megachilidae | Megachilinae (74, 9) | | |
| | | | Melittidae (14) | Dasypodainae (3, 1), Melittinae (11, 2) | P | |
| | | Germany (765, 63) | Andrenidae | Andreninae (197, 14) | Klaus Mandery ^B | KMIB |
| | | | Apidae (189, 12) | Apinae (188, 11), Nomadinae (1, 1) | | |
| | | | Colletidae | Hylaeinae (13, 6) | | |
| | | | Halictidae | Halictinae (337, 18) | | |
| | | | Megachilidae | Megachilinae (29, 13) | | |
| | | Ireland (52, 15) | Andrenidae | Andreninae (4, 2) | LR | TCDS |
| | | | Apidae | Apinae (29, 6) | | |
| | | | Colletidae | Hylaeinae (5, 2) | | |
| | | | Halictidae | Halictinae (14, 5) | | |
| | | Spain (74, 46) | Andrenidae (18, 13) | Andreninae (10, 8), Panurginae (8, 5) | FPM & Oscar | EBDS |
| | | | Apidae (27, 17) | Apinae (16, 10), Nomadinae (6, 4) | Aguado ^H | |
| | | | | Xylocopinae (5, 3) | | |
| | | | Colletidae | Colletinae (4, 2) | | |
| | | | Halictidae (11, 6) | Halictinae (8, 5), Rophitinae (3, 1) | | |
| | | | Megachilidae | Megachilinae (7, 6) | | |
| | | | Melittidae | Dasypodainae (7, 2) | | |
| | | Switzerland (210, 63) | Andrenidae | Andreninae (54, 14) | Sonja Gerber ^C , | AGZS |
| | | | Apidae (60, 20) | Apinae (54, 16), Nomadinae (4, 3), | Michael | |
| | | | | Xylocopinae (2, 1) | Herrmann ^D and | |
| | | | Colletidae | Colletinae (3, 1) | Andreas Müller ^E | |
| | | | Halictidae | Halictinae (76, 20) | | |
| | | | Megachilidae | Megachilinae (15, 6) | | |
| | | | Melittidae | Melittinae (2, 2) | | |
| | | UK (46, 4) | Apidae | Apinae (46, 4) | JMM | UNER |
| | North America | USA (1082, 132) | Andrenidae (155, 35) | Andreninae (150, 30), Oxaeinae (1, 1), | ZMP, Cane | UMSP, |
| | | | . , | Panurginae (4, 4) | (1987) | |
| | | | Apidae (378, 27) | Apinae (195, 18), Nomadinae (17, 4), | | |
| | | | | Xylocopinae (166, 4) | | |
| | | | Colletidae (86, 8) | Colletinae (3, 2), Hylaeinae (83, 6) | | |
| | | | Halictidae (396, 44) | Halictinae (241, 42), Nomiinae (1, 1), | | |
| | | | | Rophitinae (1, 1) | | |
| | | | Megachilidae (17) | Megachilinae (67, 17) | | |
| | | | Melittidae (1) | Dasypodainae (1, 1) | | |
| | South America | Brazil (204, 22) | Andrenidae | Panurginae (8, 1) | BMF, JSP | UCFB |
| | | | Apidae (174, 17) | Apinae (149, 12), Xylocopinae (25, 5) | | |
| | | | Halictidae | Halictinae (11, 2) | | |
| | | | Megachilidae | Megachilinae (11, 2) | | |
| Hove | Australasia | Australia (120, 19) | | Eristalinae (25, 7), Syrphinae (95, 12) | Susan Wright ^F | UNER |
| rfly | r. | L 1 1(20, 15) | | | ID | TODO |
| | Europe | Ireland (39, 15) | | Eristalinae (8, 5), Syrphinae (31, 10) | LR | TCDS |
| | | Spain (8, 8) | | Eristalinae (6, 6), Syrphinae (2, 2) | FPM & Oscar | EBDS |
| | | | | | Aguado | 1070 |
| | | Switzerland (232, 79) | | Eristalinae (114, 37), Syrphinae (118, 42) | Ruth Bärfuss ^G | AGZS |

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Specimen deposition locations: AGZS: Agroscope, Agroecology and Environment, Zürich, 65 Switzerland. **EBDS**: Estación Biológica de Doñana Collection, Sevilla, Spain. **KMIB**: Klaus 66 67 Mandery's collection, Institut für Biodiversitätsinformation, Bern, Germany. MHPC: Mark Hall's personal collection, Australia. TCDS: Stout Lab, Trinity College, Dublin, Ireland. 68 UCFB: Bee Laboratory Collection, Federal University of Ceará, Fortaleza, Brazil. ULBC: 69 70 Agroecology Lab reference collection, Université libre de Bruxelles (ULB), Belgium. UMSP: 71 University of Minnesota Insect Collection, USA. UNER: Rader Lab Insect Collection, 72 University of New England, Armidale, Australia.

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74 Taxonomic resources used within this study for identifying insect specimens

78

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203 Table S4A. Bees: Model parameters of best-fitting taxonomic GLMM and phylogenetic

204 GLMM. Post.: Posterior mean estimate (95% credible intervals). ESS: Effective sample size.

205 Taxo-GLMM model formula: ln Dry weight ~ ln ITD + Family + Family:ln(ITD) + Sex +

- 206 Sex:ln(ITD) + (1|Region/Species). Phylo-GLMM formula: ln Dry weight ~ ln ITD + Sex +
- 207 Sex:ln(ITD) + (1|Region/Species).

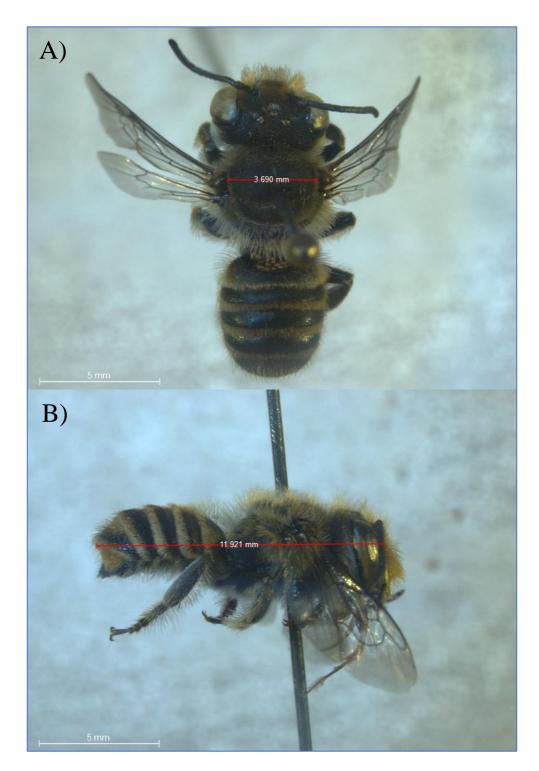
| | | Taxo. GLMM | | | Phylo, GLMM | |
|-------------|-----------|------------------------|----------------------|------|--------------------|------|
| Effect type | | Parameters | Post. | ESS | Post. | ESS |
| Fixed | Intercept | | 1.05 (0.64 – 1.37) | 873 | 0.81 (0.32 - 1.25) | 660 |
| | lnITD | | 2.09 (2.00 - 2.19) | 893 | 2.03 (1.94 - 2.11) | 1888 |
| | Sex | Male | -0.1 (-0.150.05) | 2552 | -0.13 (-0.170.08) | 3020 |
| | | Male:1nITD | -0.15 (-0.210.09) | 3069 | -0.14 (-0.20.08) | 3263 |
| | Family | Andrenidae | -0.08 (-0.27 - 0.10) | 879 | NA | NA |
| | | Colletidae | -0.33 (-0.520.13) | 629 | NA | NA |
| | | Halictidae | -0.35 (-0.490.21) | 632 | NA | NA |
| | | Megachilidae | -0.17 (-0.40 - 0.05) | 1024 | NA | NA |
| | | Melittidae | -0.47 (-0.97 – 0.03) | 2548 | NA | NA |
| | | Andrenidae:1nITD | 0.10 (-0.09 - 0.28) | 1265 | NA | NA |
| | | Colletidae:InITD | -0.14 (-0.44 -0.13) | 1330 | NA | NA |
| | | Halictidae:InITD | 0.02 (-0.15 -0.18) | 1195 | NA | NA |
| | | Megachilidae:1nIT D | 0.02 (-0.22 – 0.26) | 1135 | NA | NA |
| | | Melittidae:lnITD | -0.01 (-0.21 -0.09) | 2688 | NA | NA |
| Random | | Region | 0.29 (0.11 - 0.65) | 1702 | 0.27 (0.1 - 0.64) | 1752 |
| | | Region:Species | 0.30 (0.27 - 0.33) | 871 | 0.59 (0.52 - 0.66) | 977 |
| | | Sigma | 0.33 (0.32 - 0.34) | 4000 | 0.33 (0.32 - 0.34) | 4000 |

208

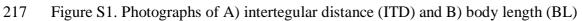
- 210 Table S4B. Hoverflies: Posterior mean model parameters for best-fitting taxonomic GLMM.
- 211 Post.: Posterior mean estimate (95% confidence intervals). ESS: Effective sample size.
- 212 Model formula: ln dry weight ~ ln ITD + Sex +Subfamily + Sex:lnITD + Subfamily:lnITD +
- 213 (1|Region/Species).

| | | Taxo. GLMM | | |
|-------------|-----------|-----------------|----------------------|------|
| Effect type | | | Post. | ESS |
| Fixed | Intercept | | -0.13 (-0.92 - 0.37) | 1287 |
| | lnITD | | 2.50 (2.23 - 2.76) | 2462 |
| | Sex | Male | -0.09 (-0.33 - 0.14) | 2811 |
| | | Male:InITD | -0.11 (-0.36 – 0.15) | 2885 |
| | Subfamily | Syrphinae | -0.02 (-0.35 – 0.31) | 2349 |
| | | Syrphinae:InITD | -0.16 (-0.48 - 0.18) | 2037 |
| Random | | Region | 0.31 (0.06 - 0.81) | 1664 |
| | | Region:Species | 0.2 (0.12 - 0.28) | 1357 |
| | | Sigma | 0.44 (0.41 - 0.48) | 4000 |

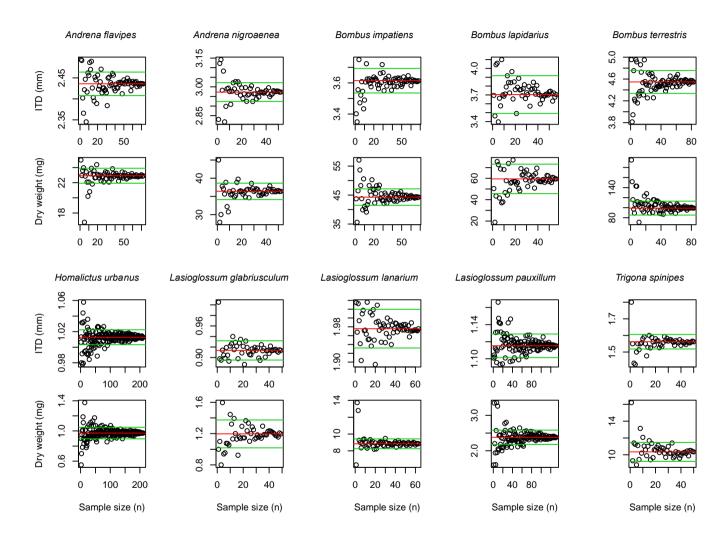
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218 measurements. Specimen is an Australian *Australian Megachile (Eutricharaea) serricauda*.



220 221

Figure S2. Intraspecific variation in intertegular distance (ITD) and body size (dry weight) in relation to sample size in the 10 most abundant bee

species. Red lines denote the total trait mean and green lines represent 95% confidence intervals.