

Running head “Pigmentation and eye structure in ants”

Color, activity period, and eye structure in four lineages of ants: pale, nocturnal species have evolved larger eyes and larger facets than their dark, diurnal congeners

Robert A. Johnson\* and Ronald L. Rutowski

School of Life Sciences

Arizona State University

Tempe, AZ 85287-4501, USA

\*Corresponding author

Email: [Robert.Johnson4@asu.edu](mailto:Robert.Johnson4@asu.edu)

## 1 **Introduction**

2 Ectotherms display extensive variation in color that arises at least in part from variation  
3 in the amount of pigment deposited in the cuticle/integument, with melanin being the most  
4 common pigment [1, 2]. Diverse selective factors favor the evolution of dark body coloration  
5 including biotic factors such as predation and sexual selection [3-6], and abiotic factors such as  
6 temperature, ultraviolet-B radiation, and desiccation [7-11]. Despite the various potential  
7 benefits of melanin deposition, numerous clades contain species with little or no pigment in their  
8 integument. These pale species occur in various taxa including fish, salamanders, insects,  
9 shrimp, and spiders [12-15].

10 One common correlate of pigment level in the integument is light environment. Pale  
11 animals with little to no melanin are common in environments with no ambient light such as  
12 caves, the deep sea, soil, and parasites inside the body of hosts [14, 16, 17], but are rare in  
13 terrestrial environments. Animals that live in dim light conditions, i.e., active nocturnally,  
14 sometimes also have little pigmentation and thus are pale compared to their diurnal congeners  
15 [e.g., bees, 18, 19]. However, the adaptive advantage of low pigment levels in low-light  
16 environments is unclear given that melanin is relatively cheap to produce and its potential  
17 advantages are many [20, 21, but see 22].

18 Species that deposit little pigment in their integument often display a suite of associated  
19 and selectively advantageous traits. One common adaptation in these species, especially those in  
20 lightless environments, is a severe reduction in or loss of eyes, with this trait being particularly  
21 well-studied in fish and other species that have pigmented terrestrial counterparts with fully  
22 developed eyes [12, 13, 23, 24]. Alternatively, many organisms that live in dim light

23 environments and have lost some to most of their pigment possess exceptionally large eyes that  
24 enhance visual system performance in low light [18, 19].

25       Herein, we explore the association between body coloration, daily activity patterns, and  
26 eye structure in ant species that vary in the extent of their cuticular pigmentation. We designate  
27 two categories of coloration: pale (little pigmentation, appearing mostly concolorous whitish-  
28 yellow to yellowish to amber), and dark (extensive pigmentation, appearing orange or light to  
29 dark brown or black) (see Figs 1-4). Existing knowledge about the relationship between body  
30 color, light environment, and eye structure in ants suggests that they display relationships  
31 common in other taxa, i.e., (1) compared to close relatives from well-lit environments, species  
32 that live in lightless subterranean habitats are paler in color and have eyes that are absent or  
33 severely reduced in size [e.g., 25, 26], and (2) pale, nocturnal species that forage above ground  
34 have relatively large eyes compared to diurnally foraging species [e.g., 27]. Specifically, this  
35 study was motivated by the observation that eyes and facet lenses were larger in pale, nocturnal,  
36 above ground foraging species of honey pot ants (*Myrmecocystus* subgenus *Myrmecocytus* –  
37 subfamily Formicinae) compared to their dark congeners [see 28].

38       Broadly, we were interested in the evolution and consequences of these associations, and  
39 we used a comparative approach to examine these relationships in four ant genera in two  
40 subfamilies (*Myrmecocystus* - subfamily Formicinae and *Aphaenogaster*, *Temnothorax*,  
41 *Veromessor* - subfamily Myrmicinae) that contain pale and dark species. This multitaxa  
42 approach strengthened our ability to make evolutionary inferences.

43       We first quantified for each genus the association between cuticular pigmentation and  
44 daily activity patterns, i.e., whether pale species are more nocturnal than their dark congeners.  
45 We then examined how eye size varies with body color and activity time. Specifically, we

46 determined if within each genus pale species have larger eyes than their dark congeners, i.e.,  
47 eyes that would enhance vision in dim conditions. Several studies have compared the compound  
48 eyes of nocturnal and diurnal ants [27]. However, most of these comparative studies lacked  
49 adequate controls for phylogeny in that they compared relatively small numbers of species from  
50 different lineages or with unknown phylogenetic relationships [27, 29, 30].

51 For a subset of these species, we examined eye structure in more detail to explore the  
52 effects of activity-pattern-related variation in eye size on visual sensitivity, acuity, and field  
53 dimensions. High visual acuity is generally expected for members of the Hymenoptera (i.e.,  
54 ants, wasps, bees) whose apposition eyes [31] are typically structured to maximize image  
55 resolution rather than light capture. Visual resolution of apposition eyes can be assessed by  
56 measuring facet diameter ( $D$ ) and interommatidial angle ( $\Delta\phi$ , the angle between the optical axes  
57 of adjacent ommatidia). Larger facets capture more light and  $D$  is positively correlated with  
58 sensitivity, while resolving power is negatively correlated with  $\Delta\phi$ . Consequently, there may be  
59 a potential tradeoff between resolution and sensitivity given that  $D$ ,  $\Delta\phi$ , and eye size interact in  
60 complex and sometimes opposing ways [32]. Nocturnal animals usually resolve this tradeoff in  
61 favor of sensitivity, and thus have lower acuity compared to their diurnal counterparts [33].  
62 Hence, we expected  $D$  to be greater and  $\Delta\phi$  to be larger in pale species of ants.

63 We also used the eye parameter ( $\rho$ , which is the product of  $D$  in  $\mu\text{m}$  and  $\Delta\phi$  in radians)  
64 [33-35], to characterize the compromise between sensitivity and acuity for each species. The  
65 calculated  $\rho$  indicates how closely the eye is constructed to the limits imposed by diffraction, i.e.,  
66 whether the eye is structured to enhance resolution over sensitivity. These values are low for  
67 diurnally active species, and they increase at lower light intensities with nocturnal species often  
68 having  $\rho$  values  $\geq 2$ .

69 For two species within each genus (one pale, one dark), we also measured  $\Delta\phi$  in the  
70 center of the eye, visual field span, and regional variation in  $D$ . Collectively, these measures  
71 permit inferences about how visual field structure varies between nocturnal and diurnal species  
72 both within and across genera.

73 We also examined variation in size of the ocelli in *Myrmecocystus*, which was the only  
74 examined genus in which workers possess these structures. Ocelli are a second visual system  
75 present in most flying insects that detect polarized light and assist in head stabilization and  
76 horizon detection [36-38], but also reflect the natural history and environment of the species  
77 [39]. Ocelli are present in alate queens and males of nearly all ant species, but they typically are  
78 lacking in the pedestrian workers with *Myrmecocystus* being a notable exception [40, 41].  
79 Snelling [28] noted that the ocelli were smaller in pale than in dark species of *Myrmecocystus*.

80 All species examined herein were geographically restricted to the southwestern United  
81 States and northwestern Mexico. The relatively large number of pale species found in this region  
82 suggests that pale ants may occur in other regions of the world and in other genera and/or  
83 subfamilies. Consequently, we assessed variation in ant color and its correlation with eye size on  
84 a larger geographical and taxonomic scale by surveying photographs across species in several ant  
85 genera. Here again, we expected pale body color to be correlated with nocturnal activity as well  
86 as eye morphology that enhances visual sensitivity.

87

## 88 **Methods**

### 89 **Study species**

90 We examined the relationship between body color, activity pattern, and eye structure in  
91 23 ant species spread across four genera in two subfamilies – *Myrmecocystus* (subfamily

92 Formicinae) and *Aphaenogaster*, *Temnothorax*, and *Veromessor* (subfamily Myrmicinae); all  
93 four genera contained pale and dark species. Hereafter, names of pale species are in normal font,  
94 and names of dark species in **bold** font.

95 *Myrmecocystus*: We examined 74 workers from six species (Fig 1). This genus is  
96 restricted to North America, and it consists of 29 described species [28, 42], plus several  
97 undescribed and cryptic species [43]. We compared three size-similar species pairs that differed  
98 in pigmentation: small (*M. christineae* and ***M. yuma***), medium (*M. navajo* and ***M. kennedyi***),  
99 and large (*M. mexicanus*-02 and ***M. mendax***-03). All pale species of *Myrmecocystus* occur in  
100 two clades, while dark species comprise the rest of the clades in the genus [43].

101 In his revision of *Myrmecocystus*, Snelling [28] also indicated that the ocelli were  
102 reduced in size or absent in pale species compared to their dark congeners. We tested this  
103 observation by measuring diameter of the anterior ocellus for workers of the above six species,  
104 plus workers of three additional pale species (*M. ewarti*, *M. testaceus*, *M. mexicanus*-01). As  
105 such, our analysis included all known pale species except *M. melanoticus* and *M. pyramicus* [28,  
106 43], for which specimens were not available.

107 *Aphaenogaster*: We examined 38 workers from four species (Fig 2). This genus includes  
108 30 species in North America. We compared *A. megommata*, the only pale species, with three  
109 closely related dark congeners ***A. boulderensis***, ***A. occidentalis***, and ***A. patruelis*** [44, 45].

110 *Temnothorax*: We examined 29 workers from three species (Fig 3). In North America,  
111 this genus consists of more than 80 described species plus numerous undescribed species, with  
112 the *T. silvestrii* clade consisting of several poorly known, poorly collected pale species (M.  
113 Prebus, pers. comm.). Our analysis included the undescribed pale species *T. sp.* BCA-5 [in 46,  
114 as *Leptothorax sp.* BCA-5] from the *T. silvestrii* group, and ***T. neomexicanus*** and ***T.***

115 *tricarinatus*, which are two dark species from the *T. tricarinatus* group, which is sister to the *T.*  
116 *silvestrii* group [47, M. Prebus, pers. comm.].

117 *Veromessor*: We examined 133 workers from the 10 species that occur in the genus (Fig  
118 4). This genus only occurs in North America [48, 49]; two species are pale, *V. lariversi* and *V.*  
119 *RAJ-pseu*, while the eight other species are dark.

120 All specimens are deposited in the collections of Robert. A. Johnson, Tempe, AZ  
121 (RAJC), Matthew M. Prebus, Tempe, AZ (MMPC), and the Social Insect Biodiversity  
122 Repository (SIBR), Arizona State University, Tempe, AZ.

123

## 124 **Measure of body coloration**

125 All brightness, body size, and eye measurements were made from photographs of  
126 workers as described below. We quantified worker color using the brightness value (v or B, in  
127 HSV format), which is similar to the lightness value in HSL that has been used to characterize  
128 body color in other studies of ants [8, 10]. Brightness (B) was measured using the color window  
129 in Adobe Photoshop from photographs downloaded from Antweb ([www.antweb.org](http://www.antweb.org)).

130 Obviously discolored specimens were excluded, i.e., those in which the color differed  
131 substantially from intraspecific specimens recently collected by RAJ. Using the photograph of  
132 the worker body in profile, we measured B on the head (immediately posterior to the eye),  
133 mesosoma (center of mesopleura), and gaster (anteroposterior portion of first gastral tergum),  
134 then averaged these values for each worker, then averaged that value across all workers for each  
135 species. We compared mean B values for pale versus dark species using a t-test.

136

137

## 138 **Activity patterns**

139           The relationship between color and activity pattern was evaluated by glean-  
140 ground foraging times from literature, personal observations, and personal communications.  
141 Foraging times were classified as one or more of the following: diurnal, nocturnal, matinal,  
142 crepuscular, and variable. The category “variable” included species in which foraging time  
143 varies seasonally with temperature – diurnal when days are cool, crepuscular-matinal as  
144 temperatures increase, and nocturnal when nights are warm. Exclusively day-active or night-  
145 active species were classified as diurnal and nocturnal, respectively. Species that forage during  
146 both day and night (e.g., variable) and those that have matinal and crepuscular foraging were  
147 classified as variable. We tested the association between color (pale and dark) and activity time  
148 (diurnal, nocturnal, variable) using a Fisher’s exact test [50].

149

## 150 **Body size and eye measurements**

151           We measured body size and eye characteristics for workers from all 23 species listed  
152 above. Body size was measured as mesosoma length, which is a standard measure for body size  
153 in ants. Mesosoma length was measured as the diagonal length of the mesosoma in profile from  
154 the point at which the pronotum meets the cervical shield to the posterior base of the metapleural  
155 lobe. Mesosoma length was measured from photographs taken using a Spot Insight QE camera  
156 attached to a Leica MZ 12<sub>5</sub> microscope. Images were then displayed on a video monitor, and  
157 mesosoma length was measured using ImageJ (available at <http://rsb.info.nih.gov/nih-image/>).  
158 Measurements were calibrated using photographs of an ocular micrometer scaled in 0.01 mm  
159 increments.



160 Eye measurements were made from high-resolution photographs of the left eye taken in  
161 profile focused on the center of the eye at an angle that allowed viewing all facets. Photographs  
162 were taken using a Leica M205C microscope at 100 $\times$  that was linked to the stacking software  
163 program Helicon Focus ([www.heliconsoft.com/heliconsoft-products/helicon-focus](http://www.heliconsoft.com/heliconsoft-products/helicon-focus)). This  
164 software combines photographs taken in different focus planes into one photograph where the  
165 entire eye surface is in focus. Facet lenses were counted, and eye area and facet diameter ( $D$ )  
166 were measured using Digimizer (<https://www.digimizer.com/>). The area tool was used to  
167 calculate area. This tool also calculated the centroid of the eye, and  $D$  was the average of four  
168 adjoining facets at the centroid. We also measured the diameter of the anterior ocellus for  
169 species of *Myrmecocystus*. All photographs contained a 0.15 mm scale bar for calibrating  
170 measurements.

171

## 172 **Detailed eye measurements**

173 Detailed measures of eyes and visual field were taken from a subset of the 23 species.  
174 We conducted four eye measurements on two species from each genus, one pale, the other dark  
175 that were closely matched in mesosoma length.

176

## 177 **Interommatidial angle ( $\Delta\phi$ ), eye parameter ( $\rho$ ), and visual field**

178 Measurements of  $\Delta\phi$  allowed us to examine how spatial resolution varied with activity  
179 period, eye size, and body size. We measured  $\Delta\phi$  in the lateral region of the eye for five workers  
180 from one pale and one dark species in each of the four genera (*M. navajo*, *M. kennedyi* in  
181 *Myrmecocystus*; *A. megommata*, *A. patruelis* in *Aphaenogaster*; *T. BCA-5*, *T. neomexicanus* in  
182 *Temnothorax*; *V. lariversi*, *V. chicoensis* in *Veromessor*) using the radius of curvature method

183 outlined in Bergman and Rutowski [51] with minor modifications. For each specimen, we  
184 photographed the left eye in side view from a position on a line perpendicular to the anterior-  
185 posterior axis of the eye. This created a photograph showing the edge of the eye surface  
186 corresponding at its apex in side view with individual facets visible at the eye edge. Each image  
187 was copied into Geogebra (©International Geogebra Institute, 2013; [www.geogebra.org](http://www.geogebra.org)) to  
188 measure the angle subtended by the eye surface spanned by two facets in the apical region.  
189 Briefly, a point was identified between two facets at the edge of the eye at its apex. We then  
190 drew a line to a point on the eye surface two facet rows away in the anterior direction. This was  
191 taken as the tangent to the eye at that point and the perpendicular bisector of these lines between  
192 these points was drawn. This was also done for a line extending from the original point to a  
193 point two facet rows in the posterior direction. The  $\Delta\phi$  was the angle between these two  
194 perpendicular bisectors divided by two. We measured  $\Delta\phi$  three times in the same area for each  
195 worker and used the average in our analysis. We calculated  $\rho$  for each worker as the product of  
196  $\Delta\phi$  in radians and  $D$  in  $\mu\text{m}$ .

197 The same images that were used to measure  $\Delta\phi$  also were used to measure the anterior-  
198 posterior visual field span. Lines perpendicular to the tangent of the eye surface were drawn at  
199 the anterior and posterior edge of each eye. The angular span of the visual field along the  
200 anterior-posterior axis was characterized by the angle between these lines. This measurement  
201 was repeated three times for each specimen and the mean value was used in our analyses.

202

### 203 **Regional variation in $D$**

204 Regional variation in  $D$  was measured for *Myrmecocystus* and *Veromessor*. The small  
205 eyes of *Aphaenogaster* and *Temnothorax* contained too few facets to warrant examination of

206 regional variation. We quantified regional variation in  $D$  using the photographs taken for eye  
207 size measurements (see above) for one pale and one dark species of *Myrmecocystus* (*M. navajo*  
208 and *M. kennedyi*) and *Veromessor* (*V. lariversi* and *V. chicocensis*). The image for each  
209 individual was printed on letter size paper, and  $D$ 's were measured in five eye regions: anterior,  
210 dorsal, lateral, posterior, and ventral. The anterior-posterior axis of the eye was a line from the  
211 mandible to the posterior corner of the head, and eye regions were described relative to this line.  
212 In each region, three facets in one row were measured to the nearest 0.1 mm with digital calipers,  
213 then scaled using the 0.15 mm scale bar present on each photograph. Mean  $D$  in each region was  
214 total length divided by three.

215

## 216 **Data analysis**

217 Eye area, facet number, and mean  $D$  (dependent variables) were compared across species  
218 (independent variable) within each genus using a multivariate analysis-of-covariance  
219 (MANCOVA) in the general linear models (GLM) program of SPSS [50]; mesosoma length was  
220 the covariate. A least significant difference (LSD) post-hoc test compared the estimated  
221 marginal means across species for each variable using mesosoma length as a covariate.  
222 Diameter of the anterior ocellus (dependent variable) was compared similarly across species  
223 (independent variable) of *Myrmecocystus* using analysis-of-covariance (ANCOVA).  
224 *Myrmecocystus navajo* was omitted from this analysis because only one worker had a visible  
225 anterior ocellus (see below).

226 Regional variation in  $D$  was analyzed using a one-way repeated measures ANOVA  
227 followed by a LSD post-hoc test for each species [50]. The dependent variables -  $\Delta\phi$ ,  $p$ , and  
228 visual field span - were compared in separate ANCOVA's using genus (4 levels) and activity

229 period (diurnal versus nocturnal) as independent variables, with mesosoma length as a covariate  
230 [50]. A Tukey's HSD post-hoc test compared differences across genera and species for each  
231 variable. For all tests, data were transformed, as necessary, to meet the assumptions for  
232 homogeneity of variance (Box's M test and Levene's test) and homogeneity of regression slopes.

233

## 234 **Survey for additional pale ant species**

235 We used Antweb ([www.antweb.org](http://www.antweb.org)) to scan photographs for pale ant species in the  
236 genera *Aphaenogaster*, *Crematogaster*, *Messor*, and *Temnothorax* (subfamily Myrmicinae), and  
237 *Dorymyrmex* and *Iridomyrmex* (subfamily Dolichoderinae). We scrolled through frontal  
238 photographs of the head for all species in each of these genera looking for species that appeared  
239 pale and that also appeared to have eyes that were larger than those of nearby dark species (e.g.,  
240 [https://www.antweb.org/images.do?subfamily=myrmicinae&genus=temnothorax&rank=genus&](https://www.antweb.org/images.do?subfamily=myrmicinae&genus=temnothorax&rank=genus&project=allantwebants)  
241 [project=allantwebants](https://www.antweb.org/images.do?subfamily=myrmicinae&genus=temnothorax&rank=genus&project=allantwebants)). We verified our visual assessment of color for these taxa by measuring  
242 their brightness value (B) using Adobe Photoshop, as detailed above.

243

## 244 **Results**

### 245 **Pigmentation and daily activity pattern**

246 We first quantitatively confirmed our visual impressions of variation in body color. As  
247 predicted, our brightness values (B) measured from Antweb photographs were consistently and  
248 significantly higher for species that we visually classified as pale compared to dark across all  
249 four genera (t-test,  $t=-9.8_{24\text{ df}}$ ,  $P < 0.0001$ ). Mean B values were 76.3 ( $n = 10$ ) for pale species  
250 and 42.1 ( $n = 16$ ) for dark species (Table 1, Fig 5). Values did not overlap for any pale and dark  
251 species as all dark species had a mean B below 60, whereas all pale species had a mean B above

252 65. However, note that the two pale species of *Veromessor* displayed mean B values that ranged  
 253 from 65–70, which was intermediate to pale and dark species in the other three genera (Fig 5).  
 254 There also was a significant effect of color (pale, dark) on activity period (diurnal, nocturnal,  
 255 variable) ( $P < 0.0001$ , two-sided Fisher’s exact test) with a preponderance of pale species that  
 256 are nocturnal and dark species that have diurnal/variable activity periods (Table 2). Henceforth,  
 257 we use pale and dark to refer to species with nocturnal and diurnal/variable activity periods,  
 258 respectively.

259

260 **Table 1.** Foraging time for ant species examined in this study. Species are listed alphabetically  
 261 by subfamily, genus, and species within each genus. Pale species (see text) are in normal font;  
 262 dark species are in **bold** font. Brightness values (B) are given as mean  $\pm$  1 SE (number of  
 263 workers) (see text). Taxonomy follows Bolton [52]; species followed by a number are  
 264 undescribed or in the process of revision [see 43].

Species	Brightness value	Foraging time	References
<b>Subfamily Formicidae</b>			
<b><i>Myrmecocystus</i></b>			
<i>christineae</i> Snelling	80.7 $\pm$ 2.2 (4)	nocturnal*	[53]
<i>ewarti</i> Snelling <sup>#</sup>	74.9 $\pm$ 1.7 (3)	nocturnal	[28, 53]
<b><i>kennedyi</i> Snelling</b>	51.9 $\pm$ 3.7 (3)	diurnal	[28, 53]
<b>sp. mendax-03</b>	59.0 $\pm$ 3.2 (4)	diurnal	[28]
sp. <i>mexicanus</i> -01 <sup>#</sup>	77.0 $\pm$ 3.2 (4)	nocturnal	[28, 53]
sp. <i>mexicanus</i> -02	76.3 $\pm$ 3.7 (3)	nocturnal	[28, 53]
<i>navajo</i> Wheeler	76.6 $\pm$ 2.4 (6)	nocturnal, crepuscular in cooler months	[28, 53]
<i>testaceus</i> Emery <sup>#</sup>	75.2 $\pm$ 5.1 (3)	nocturnal	[28, 53]
<b><i>yuma</i> Wheeler</b>	35.3 $\pm$ 0.8 (3)	matinal-crepuscular	[28]
<b>Subfamily Myrmicinae</b>			

Species	Brightness value	Foraging time	References
<b><i>Aphaenogaster</i></b>			
<i>boulderensis</i> Smith	46.5 ± 7.2 (2)	crepuscular, nocturnal, matinal	[53]
<i>megommata</i> Smith	78.1 ± 4.3 (6)	crepuscular, nocturnal	[53, 54]
<i>occidentalis</i> (Emery)	46.1 ± 3.3 (8)	variable <sup>+</sup>	B. DeMarco, pers. comm.; P.S. Ward, pers. comm.
<i>patruelis</i> Forel	43.1 ± 5.2 (9)	variable	D. Holway, pers. comm.; P.S. Ward, pers. comm.
<b>Subfamily Myrmicinae</b>			
<b><i>Temnothorax</i></b>			
sp. BCA-5	86.8 ± 1.2 (2)	nocturnal	[46, as <i>Leptothorax</i> sp. BCA-5]; R.A. Johnson, pers. obs.
<i>neomexicanus</i> (Wheeler)	23.3 ± 3.4 (4)	crepuscular	S.P. Cover, pers. comm.
<i>tricarinatus</i> (Emery)	32.7 ± 2.5 (3)	crepuscular	S.P. Cover, pers. comm.
<b>Subfamily Myrmicinae</b>			
<b><i>Veromessor</i></b>			
<i>andrei</i> (Mayr)	40.0 ± 3.6 (15)	variable	[55, 56]
<i>chamberlini</i> (Wheeler)	41.7 ± 5.4 (6)	diurnal	M. Bennett, pers. comm.; R.A. Johnson, pers. obs.
<i>chicoensis</i> Smith	44.1 ± 2.1 (6)	variable	[57]
<i>julianus</i> (Pergande)	39.0 ± 6.0 (6)	crepuscular-nocturnal-matinal	[58]
<i>lariversi</i> Smith	67.8 ± 1.2 (9)	nocturnal	R.A. Johnson, pers. obs.
<i>logobnathus</i> (Andrews)	52.1 ± 5.7 (6)	variable	[59, 60]; M. Bennett, pers. comm.
<i>pergandei</i> (Mayr)	22.1 ± 2.0 (4)	variable	[53, 60]; R.A. Johnson, pers. obs.
RAJ- <i>pseu</i>	69.6 ± 1.6 (8)	nocturnal	[60, as <i>V. lariversi</i> ]; R.A. Johnson, pers. obs.
<i>smithi</i> Cole	51.9 ± 4.3 (6)	crepuscular-nocturnal	[60, 61]; M. Bennett, pers. comm.
<i>stoddardi</i> (Emery)	45.1 ± 2.7 (4)	crepuscular-nocturnal	M. Bennett, pers. comm.

265

266 # only ocelli measured.

267

268 \* foragers of pale species are nocturnal, except that they sometimes exit nests just

269  
270 prior to dusk, and sometimes forage on overcast days.  
271 + foraging time varies seasonally depending on temperature – diurnal when days are cool,  
272 crepuscular-matinal as temperatures increase, nocturnal when nights are warm.

273  
274 **Table 2.** Association between color and activity period based on data in Table 1. Pale species  
275 have a brightness (B) value > 65 and dark species have a B value < 60 as measured in Adobe  
276 Photoshop (see text).

	<b>Foraging time</b>			
<b>Cuticular coloration</b>	<b>Nocturnal</b>	<b>Variable*</b>	<b>Diurnal</b>	<b>Total</b>
<b>Pale</b>	9	1	0	10
<b>Dark</b>	0	13	3	16
<b>Total</b>	9	14	3	26

277  
278 \* variable includes species in which foraging time varies seasonally as well as those that display  
279 crepuscular-matinal activity.

280

## 281 **Eye area, facet number, and facet diameter**

282 We determined the magnitude of interspecific differences in eye area, facet number, and  
283 facet diameter for species in each of the four genera. Before running the MANCOVA for each  
284 genus, we tested the homogeneity of variance-covariance (Box's M test and Levene's test) and  
285 homogeneity of slopes assumptions (Wilks' lambda for the species × mesosoma interaction  
286 effect). Dependent variables met both assumptions for *Myrmecocystus*, *Aphaenogaster*, and  
287 *Temnothorax*, but the Levene's test was significant for *Veromessor* (Table 3). We adjusted for  
288 this effect by using a *P* value of 0.01 in our pairwise comparisons for species of *Veromessor*.

289

290 **Table 3.** Results for the homogeneity of variance-covariance and regression slopes assumptions  
 291 in the MANCOVA. The MANCOVA for each genus was run twice; the first run tested  
 292 homogeneity of variance-covariance and homogeneity of regression slopes assumptions, and the  
 293 second run was for results of the model. For the Levene's test, the first column gives the *P* value  
 294 for the assumptions run, the second gives the *P* value for the results run. Values for these three  
 295 lines are eye area, facet number, and facet diameter, respectively.

Genus	Homogeneity of variance-covariance tests				Homogeneity of regression slopes test		
	Box's M test	<i>P</i>	Levene's test*		Wilks' $\lambda$	F	<i>P</i>
			Assumptions	Results			
<i>Myrmecocystus</i>	$F_{30, 8480} = 1.63$	0.016	0.047 0.048 0.13	0.10 0.38 0.14	0.698	$F_{15, 166} = 1.54$	0.095
<i>Aphaenogaster</i>	$F_{12, 5277} = 0.98$	0.47	0.20 0.38 0.28	0.12 0.21 0.89	0.743	$F_{9, 68} = 0.99$	0.46
<i>Temnothorax</i>	$F_{12, 728} = 2.60$	0.002	0.62 0.27 0.55	0.18 0.60 0.55	0.522	$F_{6, 42} = 2.68$	0.027
<i>Veromessor</i>	$F_{54, 18615} = 1.83$	0.0002	0.016 < 0.001 0.44	0.16 0.012 0.48	0.775	$F_{27, 325} = 1.10$	0.34

296

297

### 298 *Myrmecocystus*

299 Eye structure (eye area, facet number, facet diameter) varied significantly across species  
 300 of *Myrmecocystus* (Wilks'  $\lambda = 0.028$ ,  $F_{15, 180} = 31.9$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ). The tests of between-subject  
 301 effects demonstrated that all three dependent variables varied significantly across species (eye  
 302 area:  $F_{5, 67} = 81.5$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ; facet number:  $F_{5, 67} = 4.9$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ; mean *D*:  $F_{5, 67} = 130.0$ ,  $P <$   
 303  $0.001$ ; Fig 6). Based on the estimated marginal means, pairwise comparisons across all species  
 304 pairs using a LSD test showed that eye area and mean *D* were significantly larger in the pale  
 305 species (*M. christineae*, *M. navajo*, *M. mexicanus*-02) than in their dark congeners (*M. yuma*, *M.*



306 *kennedyi*, *M. mendax-03*) ( $P < 0.05$ , Fig 6). Facet number varied across species in a different  
 307 manner being significantly higher in *M. mexicanus-02* and *M. yuma*, but with *M. yuma* also  
 308 overlapping the four other congeners with fewer facets. Relative to the three size-paired pale and  
 309 dark species (*M. christineae* vs. *M. yuma*; *M. navajo* vs. *M. kennedyi*; *M. mexicanus-02* vs *M.*  
 310 *mendax-03*), mean *D* (using estimated marginal means) was 1.44× larger for *M. christineae*  
 311 (20.81 μm) compared to *M. yuma* (14.42 μm), 1.43× larger for *M. navajo* (20.41 μm) compared  
 312 to *M. kennedyi* (14.29 μm), and 1.41× larger for *M. mexicanus-02* (20.78 μm) compared to *M.*  
 313 *mendax-03* (14.79 μm) (Table 4).

314

315 **Table 4.** Mean values ( $\pm 1$  SE) for eye area (mm<sup>2</sup>), number of facets, facet diameter (μm), and  
 316 mesosoma length (mm) for species examined in this study (see also Figs 6 & 8–10). For each  
 317 species, values on the first line are raw data, values on second line are estimated marginal mean  
 318 values using mesosoma as a covariate. Pale species in normal font; dark species in **bold font**  
 319 (see text).

Species	Eye area	Number of facets	Facet diameter	Mesosoma length
<i>Myrmecocystus</i> <sup>a</sup>				
<i>christineae</i>	0.0763 $\pm$ 0.0049 0.1196 $\pm$ 0.0077	277.5 $\pm$ 9.3 384.1 $\pm$ 14.2	19.68 $\pm$ 0.26 20.81 $\pm$ 0.49	1.14 $\pm$ 0.04
<i>navajo</i>	0.1052 $\pm$ 0.0068 0.1103 $\pm$ 0.0052	349.8 $\pm$ 14.5 352.3 $\pm$ 9.6	20.27 $\pm$ 0.37 20.41 $\pm$ 0.33	1.67 $\pm$ 0.07
sp. <i>mexicanus-02</i>	0.1609 $\pm$ 0.0118 0.1207 $\pm$ 0.0067	524.1 $\pm$ 21.3 425.1 $\pm$ 12.4	21.83 $\pm$ 0.50 20.78 $\pm$ 0.43	2.31 $\pm$ 0.08
<b><i>yuma</i></b>	0.0378 $\pm$ 0.0009 0.0825 $\pm$ 0.0079	287.0 $\pm$ 4.2 397.1 $\pm$ 14.4	13.25 $\pm$ 0.21 14.42 $\pm$ 0.50	1.12 $\pm$ 0.02
<b><i>kennedyi</i></b>	0.0463 $\pm$ 0.0025 0.0685 $\pm$ 0.0058	322.8 $\pm$ 11.3 377.6 $\pm$ 10.7	13.71 $\pm$ 0.22 14.29 $\pm$ 0.37	1.43 $\pm$ 0.04
<b>sp. <i>mendax-03</i></b>	0.0817 $\pm$ 0.0048 0.0413 $\pm$ 0.0067	457.4 $\pm$ 16.3 358.2 $\pm$ 12.4	15.85 $\pm$ 0.26 14.79 $\pm$ 0.43	2.31 $\pm$ 0.10

Species	Eye area	Number of facets	Facet diameter	Mesosoma length
<i>Aphaenogaster</i> <sup>b</sup>				
<i>megommata</i>	0.0815 ± 0.0032 0.0745 ± 0.0020	241.4 ± 7.9 226.1 ± 5.7	23.10 ± 0.23 22.78 ± 0.31	1.68 ± 0.03
<i>occidentalis</i>	0.0264 ± 0.0008 0.0328 ± 0.0019	79.8 ± 2.1 93.7 ± 5.4	19.58 ± 0.26 19.87 ± 0.30	1.42 ± 0.03
<i>patruelis</i>	0.0331 ± 0.0019 0.0388 ± 0.0019	104.1 ± 4.9 116.6 ± 5.3	19.96 ± 0.26 20.22 ± 0.29	1.44 ± 0.02
<i>boulderensis</i>	0.0480 ± 0.0000 0.0176 ± 0.0067	147.5 ± 3.5 81.3 ± 18.7	19.88 ± 0.38 18.49 ± 1.03	2.14 ± 0.02
<i>Temnothorax</i> <sup>c</sup>				
sp. BCA-5	0.0238 ± 0.0026 0.0201 ± 0.0011	92.2 ± 6.9 80.8 ± 3.7	18.30 ± 0.29 17.76 ± 0.39	0.93 ± 0.06
<i>neomexicanus</i>	0.0109 ± 0.0002 0.0128 ± 0.0006	66.3 ± 0.9 72.0 ± 2.1	13.17 ± 0.16 14.43 ± 0.23	0.67 ± 0.02
<i>tricarinatus</i>	0.0138 ± 0.0003 0.0135 ± 0.0005	89.0 ± 2.1 88.1 ± 1.7	13.46 ± 0.23 13.42 ± 0.10	0.77 ± 0.02
<i>Veromessor</i> <sup>d</sup>				
RAJ-pseu	0.0910 ± 0.0016 0.1112 ± 0.0022	250.6 ± 3.6 283.7 ± 4.9	21.17 ± 0.26 22.04 ± 0.29	1.47 ± 0.18
<i>lariversi</i>	0.0796 ± 0.0027 0.0920 ± 0.0019	223.5 ± 4.9 243.7 ± 4.4	21.00 ± 0.31 21.53 ± 0.26	1.61 ± 0.05
<i>smithi</i>	0.1010 ± 0.0035 0.1032 ± 0.0020	240.1 ± 5.8 243.6 ± 4.5	22.52 ± 0.32 22.61 ± 0.26	1.79 ± 0.04
<i>pergandei</i>	0.0805 ± 0.0049 0.0771 ± 0.0018	231.9 ± 8.8 226.3 ± 4.0	19.87 ± 0.26 19.72 ± 0.24	1.90 ± 0.06
<i>lobognathus</i>	0.0808 ± 0.0024 0.0752 ± 0.0020	223.8 ± 2.4 214.7 ± 4.5	20.98 ± 0.33 20.74 ± 0.27	1.94 ± 0.05
<i>julianus</i>	0.0771 ± 0.0038 0.0629 ± 0.0020	198.8 ± 7.7 175.5 ± 4.5	22.07 ± 0.27 21.46 ± 0.26	2.09 ± 0.06
<i>chicoensis</i>	0.0678 ± 0.0062 0.0629 ± 0.0019	167.6 ± 10.1 159.6 ± 4.2	21.00 ± 0.26 20.79 ± 0.25	1.92 ± 0.09
<i>andrei</i>	0.0663 ± 0.0045 0.0492 ± 0.0022	198.4 ± 9.1 170.5 ± 4.9	21.00 ± 0.29 20.27 ± 0.29	2.14 ± 0.06

Species	Eye area	Number of facets	Facet diameter	Mesosoma length
<i>chamberlini</i>	0.0395 ± 0.0013	126.7 ± 3.2	19.60 ± 0.23	1.62 ± 0.03
	0.0513 ± 0.0021	145.9 ± 4.7	20.11 ± 0.28	
<i>stoddardi</i>	0.0483 ± 0.0035	130.7 ± 6.4	20.43 ± 0.31	1.85 ± 0.08
	0.0476 ± 0.0018	129.5 ± 4.0	20.40 ± 0.24	

320 <sup>a</sup> = estimated marginal means evaluated at a mesosoma length of 1.7434 mm.

321 <sup>b</sup> = estimated marginal means evaluated at a mesosoma length of 1.5468 mm.

322 <sup>c</sup> = estimated marginal means evaluated at a mesosoma length of 0.7534 mm.

323 <sup>d</sup> = estimated marginal means evaluated at a mesosoma length of 1.8333 mm.

324

325 Mesosoma length also was a significant covariate in the model (Wilks'  $\lambda = 0.400$ ,  $F_{3, 65} =$   
326  $32.5$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ), and tests of between-subjects effects were significant for all three variables  
327 (eye area:  $F_{1,67} = 85.5$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ; facet number:  $F_{1,67 \text{ df}} = 95.3$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ; mean  $D$ : ( $F_{1,67} = 12.9$ ,  
328  $P < 0.001$ ). All three eye features increased with body size within all six species (Fig 6).

329 The ANCOVA for diameter of the anterior ocellus was significant (Fig 7; tests of  
330 between-subject effects:  $F_{7,98} = 69.6$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ), but the species  $\times$  mesosoma length interaction  
331 term was not significant ( $F_{7,91} = 0.96$ ,  $P > 0.45$ ). Pairwise comparisons between all species pairs  
332 using LSD tests showed that anterior ocellus diameter usually was highest for dark species,  
333 though the diameter for one pale species (*M. christineae*) overlapped with this group. The other  
334 four pale species (*M. testaceus*, *M. mexicanus*-01, *M. mexicanus*-02, *M. navajo*) were  
335 significantly lower than all other congeners (Fig 7). Note that *M. navajo* was not included in our  
336 statistical analysis, but it was placed lowest in this group post-hoc because the anterior ocellus  
337 was lacking in 11 of 12 workers.

338 Diameter of the anterior ocellus also increased with body size within all species except  
339 *M. navajo*. Presence of the anterior ocellus also was associated with body size in *M. mexicanus*-  
340 01 and *M. mexicanus*-02, as workers with a mesosoma length  $< \approx 2.2$  mm lacked an anterior  
341 ocellus while those with a mesosoma length  $> \approx 2.2$  mm had this ocellus, with ocellus diameter  
342 increasing with body size in these latter workers (Fig 7). Both posterior ocelli usually were  
343 present, but tiny, in workers that lacked an anterior ocellus.

344

### 345 *Aphaenogaster*

346 Eye structure (eye area, facet number, facet diameter) varied significantly across species  
347 of *Aphaenogaster* (MANCOVA: Wilks'  $\lambda = 0.042$ ,  $F_{9,76} = 22.5$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ). Tests of between-  
348 subject effects demonstrated that all three dependent variables varied significantly across species  
349 (eye area:  $F_{3,33} = 125.0$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ; facet number:  $F_{3,33} = 146.8$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ; mean  $D$ :  $F_{3,33} = 31.9$ ,  
350  $P < 0.001$ ; Fig 8). Based on the estimated marginal means, pairwise comparisons across all  
351 species pairs using an LSD test showed that all three eye measures were significantly higher for  
352 the pale *A. megommata* than for all three dark congeners ( $P < 0.01$ ). Mean  $D$  (using estimated  
353 marginal means) was 1.15 $\times$  larger for *A. megommata* (22.78  $\mu\text{m}$ ) compared to *A. occidentalis*  
354 (19.87  $\mu\text{m}$ ), 1.13 $\times$  larger than that for *A. patruelis* (20.22  $\mu\text{m}$ ), and 1.23 $\times$  larger than that for *A.*  
355 *boulderensis* (18.49  $\mu\text{m}$ ) (Table 4).

356 Mesosoma length was a significant covariate in the model (Wilks'  $\lambda = 0.502$ ,  $F_{3,31} = 10.2$ ,  
357  $P < 0.001$ ), and tests of between-subjects effects were significant for eye area ( $F_{1,33} = 28.1$ ,  $P <$   
358  $0.001$ ) and facet number ( $F_{1,33} = 17.1$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ), but not for mean  $D$  ( $F_{1,33} = 2.7$ ,  $P = 0.11$ ).  
359 These patterns were evidenced in that eye area and facet number increased with body size within  
360 all three species (Fig 8; *A. boulderensis* excluded because of small sample size), while mean  $D$

361 increased with body size for *A. megommata* and *A. patruelis*, but it decreased with body size for  
362 *A. occidentalis* (Fig 8).

363

### 364 *Temnothorax*

365 Eye structure (eye area, facet number, facet diameter) varied significantly across species  
366 of *Temnothorax* (MANCOVA: Wilks'  $\lambda = 0.039$ ,  $F_{6,46} = 31.0$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ). The tests of between-  
367 subject effects demonstrated that all three dependent variables varied significantly across species  
368 (eye area:  $F_{2,25} = 24.9$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ; facet number:  $F_{2,25} = 20.8$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ; mean  $D$ :  $F_{2,25} = 53.4$ ,  $P$   
369  $< 0.001$ ; Fig 9). Based on the estimated marginal means, pairwise comparisons across all species  
370 pairs using a LSD test showed that eye area and  $D$  were significantly larger for the pale *T. sp.*  
371 BCA-5 than for the two dark congeners. Facet number was highest in *T. tricarinatus*, lowest in  
372 *T. neomexicanus*, and intermediate to and overlapping both other species for *T. sp.* BCA-5 (Fig  
373 9). Mean  $D$  (using estimated marginal means) was 1.23 $\times$  larger for *T. sp.* BCA-5 (17.76  $\mu\text{m}$ )  
374 compared to *T. neomexicanus* (14.43  $\mu\text{m}$ ) and 1.32 $\times$  larger than that for *T. tricarinatus* (13.42  
375  $\mu\text{m}$ ) (Table 4).

376 Mesosoma length was a significant covariate in the model (Wilks'  $\lambda = 0.448$ ,  $F_{3,23} = 9.45$ ,  
377  $P < 0.001$ ), and tests of between-subjects effects were significant for eye area ( $F_{1,25} = 29.9$ ,  $P <$   
378  $0.001$ ) and facet number ( $F_{1,25} = 20.7$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ), but not for mean  $D$  ( $F_{1,25} = 3.9$ ,  $P = 0.058$ ).  
379 Eye area and facet number increased with body size within all three species, while mean  $D$   
380 increased with body size for *T. sp.* BCA-5 and *T. tricarinatus*, but it decreased with body size  
381 for *T. neomexicanus* (Fig 9).

382

383

384 *Veromessor*

385 Eye structure (eye area, facet number, facet diameter) varied significantly across species  
386 of *Veromessor* (MANCOVA: Wilks'  $\lambda = 0.020$ ,  $F_{27,351} = 36.5$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ). The tests of between-  
387 subject effects demonstrated that all three dependent variables varied significantly across species  
388 (eye area:  $F_{9,122} = 149.2$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ; facet number:  $F_{9,122} = 141.4$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ; mean  $D$ :  $F_{9,122} =$   
389  $12.5$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ; Fig 10). Based on the estimated marginal means, pairwise comparisons across  
390 all species pairs using a LSD test showed that eye area was significantly larger for the pale *V.*  
391 *RAJ-pseu* than for the dark *V. smithi*, and eyes for both species were significantly larger than the  
392 pale *V. lariversi*. Eye area was significantly lower for all other dark congeners (Fig 10). Facet  
393 number was significantly higher for *V. RAJ-pseu* than for *V. smithi* and *V. lariversi*, and these  
394 three species were all significantly higher than all other dark congeners. Mean  $D$  (using  
395 estimated marginal means) was highest for *V. smithi* and *V. RAJ-pseu*, followed by *V. lariversi*  
396 and *V. julianus*, with the two latter species overlapping with *V. RAJ-pseu* but not *V. smithi*.  
397 Mean  $D$  was significantly lower for all other dark congeners ( $P < 0.05$ , Fig 10; Table 4).

398 Mesosoma length was a significant covariate in the model (Wilks'  $\lambda = 0.198$ ,  $F_{3,120} =$   
399  $162.4$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ), and tests of between-subjects effects were significant for all three variables  
400 (eye area:  $F_{1,122} = 486.0$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ; facet number:  $F_{1,122} = 149.2$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ; mean  $D$ :  $F_{1,122} =$   
401  $40.9$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ). Eye area and facet number increased with body size within all 10 species of  
402 *Veromessor*, and mean  $D$  increased for all species except *V. smithi* and *V. chamberlini* (Fig 10).

403

404

405

406

## 407 Detailed Eye Measurements

### 408 Variation in interommatidial angle ( $\Delta\phi$ )

409 Values of  $\Delta\phi$  ranged from 3.5–7° among the workers studied (Fig 11). The ANCOVA  
410 for  $\Delta\phi$  was significant for genus ( $F_{3,32} = 10.1$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ), but not for activity period ( $F_{1,32} = 4.0$ ,  
411  $P = 0.055$ ); the interaction of genus  $\times$  activity period was also significant ( $F_{3,32} = 7.3$ ,  $P = 0.001$ ).  
412 The dark species had marginally larger  $\Delta\phi$ 's than the pale species ( $P = 0.055$ ), and the significant  
413 interaction between  $\Delta\phi$  and genus indicated significant differences among genera in the direction  
414 and magnitude of differences in  $\Delta\phi$ . Pale species had larger mean  $\Delta\phi$ 's in *Myrmecocystus* (t-test:  
415  $t_8 = -3.4$ ,  $P < 0.02$ ) and *Veromessor* ( $t = -0.3$ ,  $P > 0.7$ ), but dark species had larger  $\Delta\phi$ 's in  
416 *Aphaenogaster* ( $t = -3.6$ ,  $P < 0.01$ ) and *Temnothorax* ( $t = 2.7$ ,  $P < 0.03$ ) (Fig 11). Across genera,  
417  $\Delta\phi$  was lowest for *Myrmecocystus* and *Veromessor* and greatest for *Aphaenogaster* and  
418 *Temnothorax* (Tukey's HSD test,  $P < 0.05$ ) (Fig 11).

419 We also ran the above model with mesosoma length as a covariate, and it was significant  
420 ( $F_{1,31} = 5.4$ ,  $P = 0.026$ ). This significance largely was caused by  $\Delta\phi$  decreasing in larger workers  
421 of *Temnothorax* and *Veromessor*, while this angle did not vary with mesosoma length within  
422 species of *Myrmecocystus* and *Aphaenogaster* (Fig 11).

423

### 424 Eye parameter ( $\rho$ )

425 The ANCOVA for  $\rho$  was significant for genus ( $F_{3,32} = 11.6$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ), activity period  
426 ( $F_{1,32} = 11.2$ ,  $P = 0.002$ ), and the interaction of genus  $\times$  activity period ( $F_{3,32} = 13.1$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ).  
427 As expected, overall  $\rho$  was greater for pale (mean = 1.70) than for dark species (mean = 1.51),  
428 however, a significant genus  $\times$  activity period interaction indicated differences in direction and  
429 magnitude of these differences (Fig 12). Pale species had the larger mean  $\rho$  in *Myrmecocystus*

430 (t-test:  $t_{8\text{ df}} = -8.9$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ), *Veromessor* ( $t_8 = -0.3$ ,  $P > 0.7$ ), and *Temnothorax* ( $t_8 = -1.7$ ,  $P >$   
431  $0.10$ ), but  $\Delta\phi$  was larger for the dark species in *Aphaenogaster* ( $t_8 = -2.2$ ,  $P < 0.06$ ). Across  
432 genera  $\rho$  was highest for *Aphaenogaster*, intermediate for *Temnothorax* and *Veromessor*, and  
433 lowest for *Myrmecocystus* (Tukey's HSD test,  $P < 0.05$ ; Fig 12).

434 We also ran the above model with mesosoma length as a covariate, but it was not  
435 significant ( $F_{1,31} = 1.6$ ,  $P > 0.20$ ). The  $\rho$  was not positively or negatively correlated with body  
436 size for any of the examined species (Fig 11).

437

### 438 **Visual field span**

439 The ANCOVA for visual field span was significant for genus ( $F_{3,32} = 53.6$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ),  
440 activity period ( $F_{1,32} = 151.7$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ), and the interaction of genus  $\times$  activity period ( $F_{3,32} =$   
441  $14.8$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ). Visual field span was greater for pale (mean =  $98.8^\circ$ ) than for dark species  
442 (mean =  $73.0^\circ$ ), and the significant genus  $\times$  activity period interaction indicated that differences  
443 between the visual field of pale and dark species were larger in some genera, e.g.,  
444 *Aphaenogaster*, than others (Fig 13). Though not always significantly different, pale species had  
445 a larger mean visual field in all four genera (*Myrmecocystus* t-test  $t_{8\text{ df}} = -2.90$ ,  $P = 0.10$ ;  
446 *Aphaenogaster*:  $t_8 = 12.7$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ; *Temnothorax*: t-test  $t_8 = -4.6$ ,  $P = 0.002$ ; *Veromessor*:  $t_8 = -$   
447  $6.9$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ). The pale species of *Myrmecocystus* was also significantly different when  
448 comparing the means when including mesosoma as a covariate ( $F_{1,7} = 87.0$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ). Across  
449 genera the visual field was greatest for *Myrmecocystus*, intermediate for *Aphaenogaster*, and  
450 smallest in *Temnothorax* and *Veromessor* (Tukey's HSD test,  $P < 0.05$ ; Fig 13).

451 We also ran the above model with mesosoma length as a covariate, but it was not  
452 significant ( $F_{1,31} = 2.6$ ,  $P = 0.11$ ), in part, because of the differing patterns exhibited across



453 species. For example, visual field span was positively correlated with mesosoma length in *A.*  
454 *megommata*, *A. occidentalis*, *T. BCA-5*, *T. neomexicanus*, and *V. lariversi*, but these two  
455 variables were negatively correlated in *M. kennedyi*, *M. navajo*, and *V. chicoensis* (Fig 13).

456 The maximum visual span for pale species was 128° for *M. navajo* and 121° for *A.*  
457 *megommata*; the maximum for all other species was < 120°. Because their eyes are located on  
458 the side of the head, the center of these relatively small visual field spans was directed  
459 laterally. This means that, in the ants examined here, there was no forward part of the visual  
460 field for either eye directed toward the mouthparts, and so there was no anterior region of  
461 binocular vision.

#### 462 463 **Regional variation in *D***

464 *D* varied regionally in three (*M. navajo*, *V. chicoensis*, *V. lariversi*) of the four species;  
465 all three species met the assumption of sphericity (Table 5; Fig 14). Based on a post-hoc LSD  
466 test, the anterior and ventral facets were largest in *M. navajo*, ventral facets were largest in *V.*  
467 *chicoensis*, and lateral and ventral facets were largest in *V. lariversi*. *D* did not vary across  
468 regions in *M. kennedyi*, but the ventral facets had the largest mean *D* (Table 5; Fig 14).

469

470

471

472

473

474

475 **Table 5.** Repeated measures ANOVA results for regional variation in facet diameter for one pale  
476 (normal font) and one dark species (**bold font**) (see text) of *Myrmecocystus* and *Veromessor* ( $n =$   
477 12 per species for *Myrmecocystus*;  $n = 14$  per species for *Veromessor*).

	Multivariate test	Mauchley's test of sphericity			Within-subjects effects
<b>Species</b>	<b>(Wilks' lambda)</b>	<b>Mauchly's W</b>	<b>Chi-square, df</b>	<b>P</b>	<b>F, df, P</b>
<i>M. navajo</i>	0.273, $P = 0.022$	0.427	8.02, 9 df	0.539	7.04, 4 df, $P < 0.001$
<b><i>M. kennedyi</i></b>	0.671, $P = 0.469$	NA*	NA	NA	NA
<i>V. lariversi</i>	0.117, $P < 0.001$	0.302	13.67, 9 df	0.139	19.60, 4 df, $P < 0.001$
<b><i>V. chicoensis</i></b>	0.090, $P < 0.001$	0.269	14.98, 9 df	0.095	13.69, 4 df, $P < 0.001$

478

479 \* NA given that the Wilks' lambda value was not significant.

480

#### 481 **Additional pale ant species with enlarged eyes**

482 We visually identified numerous additional pale ant species with enlarged eyes during  
483 our survey on Antweb. We confirmed our visual estimate of brightness by measuring B values  
484 on available workers of these species, as detailed above, finding that numerous species displayed  
485 a B value greater than 70, which we used as our lower threshold for pale species (Table 6). We  
486 also visually judged that eyes for all of these species were larger than that of their dark  
487 congeners. The combination of pale color and enlarged eyes occurred in numerous additional  
488 species of *Temnothorax* from both the Old and New World, as well as in four additional genera –  
489 *Crematogaster* and *Messor* (subfamily Myrmicinae), and *Dorymyrmex* and *Iridomyrmex*  
490 (subfamily Dolichoderinae) (Table 6); the latter two genera comprise a third subfamily  
491 containing pale species. Moreover, this combination of traits occurred in both the Old and New

492 World, and they were especially common in *Temnothorax* (Table 6), where these traits evolved  
 493 independently in multiple species groups (in at least two species groups in the United States and  
 494 Mexico (*T. silvestrii* and *T. tricarinatus*) and in at least one species group in northern Africa (*T.*  
 495 *laciniatus*) (Table 6). Interestingly, several pale species of *Temnothorax* appeared to not have  
 496 enlarged eyes, e.g., *T. agavicola*, *T. atomus*, and *T. indra*.

497

498 **Table 6.** Additional pale ant species (see text) with enlarged eyes in five genera based on  
 499 photographs examined on Antweb ([www.antweb.org](http://www.antweb.org)). Species are listed alphabetically by  
 500 subfamily, genus, species group, species, and subspecies. High resolution photographs of each  
 501 species can be viewed by going to <https://www.antweb.org/advSearch.do>, then placing the  
 502 persistent identifier for each taxon in the basic search box. To compare eye size across all  
 503 species in a genus, place the genus name in the basic search box, click on images, then scroll  
 504 through the species. Brightness values are given as mean (*n*) (see text).

Species	Brightness value	Type locality (country)	Antweb persistent identifier
<b>Subfamily Dolichoderinae – genus <i>Dorymyrmex</i></b>			
<i>D. ensifer</i> Forel	73.5 (2)	ARGENTINA	CASENT0249686
<i>D. ensifer laevigatus</i> Gallardo	74.0 (1)	ARGENTINA	CASENT0911538
<i>D. ensifer weiseri</i> Santschi	73.0 (1)	ARGENTINA	CASENT0911539
<i>D. exsanguinus</i> Forel	74.6 (3)	ARGENTINA	CASENT0249685
<i>D. exsanguinus anaemicus</i> Santschi	82.7 (1)	ARGENTINA	CASENT0911519
<i>D. morenoi patagon</i> Santschi	83.0 (1)	ARGENTINA	CASENT0911545
<i>D. nr. morenoi</i>	76.7 (1)	ARGENTINA	CASENT0249687
<b>Subfamily Dolichoderinae – genus <i>Iridomyrmex</i></b>			
<i>I. macrops</i> Heterick & Shattuck	73.0 (1)	AUSTRALIA	CASENT0903102
<b>Subfamily Myrmicinae – genus <i>Crematogaster</i></b>			
<i>C. sp. cf. biroi</i>	87.0 (1)	MICRONESIA	CASENT0178365

Species	Brightness value	Type locality (country)	Antweb persistent identifier
<i>C. flavosensitiva</i> Longino	72.0 (3)	VENEZUELA	CASENT0914566
<i>C. madecassa</i> Emery	80.0 (2)	MADAGASCAR	CASENT0914538
<i>C. queenslandica</i> Forel	80.5 (2)	AUSTRALIA	CASENT0902130
<i>C. wardi</i> Longino	73.7 (2)	COSTA RICA	INBIOCRI001238527
<b>Subfamily Myrmicinae – genus <i>Messor</i></b>			
<i>M. sp. afrc-za01</i>	76.0 (1)	SOUTH AFRICA	CASENT0257793
<b>Subfamily Myrmicinae – genus <i>Temnothorax</i></b>			
<b><i>T. laciniatus</i>-group*</b>			
<i>T. arenarius</i> (Santschi)	77.1 (2)	TUNISIA	CASENT0917051
<i>T. arenarius fusciventris</i> (Santschi)	80.3 (1)	TUNISIA	CASENT0912904
<i>T. canescens</i> (Santschi)	75.0 (1)	SPAIN	CASENT0912918
<i>T. laciniatus</i> (Stitz)	74.7 (1)	ALGERIA	FOCOL2025
<i>T. laurae</i> (Emery)	74.3 (1)	TUNISIA	CASENT0904742
<i>T. laurae colettae</i> (Santschi)	72.3 (1)	TUNISIA	CASENT0912955
<i>T. laurae rosae</i> (Santschi)	78.0 (1)	TUNISIA	CASENT0912956
<i>T. lereddei</i> (Bernard)	72.3 (1)	ALGERIA	CASENT0913633
<i>T. mpala</i> Prebus	78.3 (1)	KENYA	CASENT0280870
<i>T. naeviventris</i> (Santschi)	75.2 (3)	TUNISIA	CASENT0906167
<i>T. naeviventris kefensis</i> (Santschi)	76.7 (1)	TUNISIA	CASENT0912968
<b><i>T. tricarinatus</i>-group*</b>			
<i>T. bestelmeyeri</i> (MacKay)	77.3 (1)	USA	CASENT0172986
<i>T. coleenae</i> (MacKay)	80.0 (1)	USA	CASENT0172988
<i>T. colkendolpheri</i> (MacKay)	78.1 (2)	USA	CASENT0103162
<i>T. liebi</i> (MacKay)	84.7 (1)	USA	CASENT0103164

505  
506  
507

\* Species groups for *Temnothorax* as per Matt Prebus (pers. comm.).

508

509

510

## 511 **Discussion**

### 512 **Foraging and cuticular color**

513 Worker color was correlated with foraging time across all four genera of ants, suggesting  
514 that pale coloration is linked to nocturnal foraging in these and other ants. Alternatively, dark  
515 species usually forage diurnally, but some species also forage nocturnally during warm seasons,  
516 and several species are largely matinal-crepuscular-nocturnal foragers. Moreover, pale color  
517 involves repeated evolution of similar color phenotypes in response to living in dim light to  
518 lightless environments both in these ants and in numerous other organisms [13, 14, 24], but it is  
519 not a necessary phenotype given the numerous taxa living in similarly dim conditions that have  
520 retained their pigmentation.

521 A species-level phylogeny is available for all four genera such that we can infer the  
522 direction of trait evolution. These phylogenies infer that pale color is a derived trait in  
523 *Aphaenogaster* [44], *Temnothorax* [47], and *Veromessor* [62], i.e., all most recent common  
524 ancestors of pale species were dark, but that it is an ancestral trait in *Myrmecocystus* [43], i.e.,  
525 pale color was a basal trait in this genus and that these species gave rise to dark congeners. Van  
526 Elst [43] also determined that the subgenus *Myrmecocystus* (all pale species) and the genus  
527 *Myrmecocytus* as a whole most likely originated from a nocturnal ancestor. Interestingly, the  
528 sister genus, *Lasius* [43], contains numerous pale species that are largely subterranean with very  
529 small eyes [63, 64].

530

### 531 **Compound eye morphology**

532 Using pale body color as an indicator of nocturnal activity in ants demonstrated  
533 consistent correlated adaptations in eye structure across four genera of ants in two subfamilies.

534 When controlled for body size, pale species exhibited convergent morphology for some  
535 characters, but not for others: all pale species (except *V. lariversi*) had larger eyes, a larger  $D$ ,  
536 and a larger visual span compared to their dark congeners. *Aphaenogaster megommata* and *V.*  
537 *RAJ-pseu* also possessed more eye facets than their dark congeners. Alternatively,  $\Delta\phi$  and  $\rho$   
538 displayed variable patterns both within and among genera. These general patterns suggest  
539 selection on pale species to maximize sensitivity, which is the pattern typical for most nocturnal  
540 insects with apposition eyes [33, 65].

541 Sensitivity (light gathering potential) of an eye is a function of four variables that effect  
542 photon capture –  $D$ , rhabdom diameter, rhabdom length, and focal length [see 27]. Facet area  
543  $[\pi/4 \times D^2]$  is one of the more important variables that affects light catching potential [33], and  
544 consequently can be used to assess differences between pale versus dark species in each genus.  
545 This mean difference was highest for *Myrmecocystus* with facet area for pale species about 2.0–  
546 2.1-fold higher than for their paired dark species (calculated using estimated marginal means as  
547  $[\pi/4 \times D^2_{\text{pale}}]/[\pi/4 \times D^2_{\text{dark}}]$ ; see Table 4), about 1.3–1.5-fold higher for *A. megommata* compared  
548 to its dark congeners, and about 1.5–1.7-fold higher for *T. sp. BCA-5* compared to its dark  
549 congeners. Alternatively, for *Veromessor*, facet area was highest in the dark *V. smithi*. The  
550 mean difference was about 1.05–1.10× higher for *V. smithi* than for *V. lariversi* and *V. RAJ-*  
551 *pseu*; all other dark congeners had a smaller  $D$ . This study examined only  $D$ , suggesting that  
552 these sensitivity values are minimum differences between pale and dark species. Pale species of  
553 *Myrmecocystus* also differed in that their eyes were more protruding and dome-shaped compared  
554 to the more flattened eyes of their dark congeners (Fig 1). These more bulging, dome-shaped  
555 eyes result in a greater radius of curvature and possibly a greater visual span field, as well as  
556 space for more facets within a given eye area.

557 Interestingly, the two pale sister species of *Veromessor*, *V. RAJ-pseu* and *V. lariversi*,  
558 displayed different patterns of eye structure, with *V. RAJ-pseu* having larger eyes and more  
559 facets than *V. lariversi* (Fig 9). Additionally, eyes of the dark species *V. smithi* were smaller  
560 with fewer facets than *V. RAJ-pseu*, but they were larger with larger  $D$ 's compared to *V.*  
561 *lariversi*. This may result from the fact that *V. smithi* is the most nocturnally-active of all dark  
562 species in the genus. One difference between *V. lariversi* and *V. RAJ-pseu* and other pale  
563 species examined herein is their more yellowish-amber to yellowish-orange color and lower  $B$   
564 value, indicating that they are less pale than pale species in the other three genera (see Table 1;  
565 Figs 1-4). Differences in eye structure across genera along with variation across species of  
566 *Veromessor* are similar to the wide variation in degree of pigment loss and eye degeneration  
567 found among cave-dwelling species that is caused by differences in divergence time and  
568 intensity of selection [16]. Similar variation occurs for nocturnal foraging bees in which many  
569 species have a relatively pale body color, and many but not all species have enlarged compound  
570 eyes and ocelli [18].

571 All of our species had relatively large  $\Delta\phi$ 's that ranged from 3.5–7°. Pale and dark  
572 species varied in their patterns of  $\Delta\phi$  which were significantly larger in the dark *Temnothorax*  
573 and *Aphaenogaster*, which had small eyes with fewer facets, but was larger for the pale  
574 *Myrmecocystus* which had numerous eye facets. Moreover,  $\Delta\phi$  did not decrease for pale species  
575 indicating that daily activity patterns have had little effect on the evolution of resolving power.

576 The eye parameter ( $\rho$ ) measures the tradeoff between sensitivity and resolution, with eyes  
577 that require higher sensitivity having larger  $\rho$  values. Consequently, insects active during high  
578 light conditions usually have low  $\rho$  values that enhance resolution, whereas species active in low  
579 light have higher  $\rho$  values that often exceed 2 um rad [34]. Across our four genera,  $\rho$  was

580 significantly higher only for the pale *M. navajo* compared to the dark *M. kennedyi*, with  $\rho$  for the  
581 former species approaching 2 (Fig 11). The higher  $\rho$  value for *M. navajo* resulted from the  
582 combination of significantly larger facets and a significantly larger  $\Delta\phi$  (Figs 5 & 10). In  
583 contrast, *M. kennedyi* was the only strictly diurnal forager among all dark species (Table 1), and  
584 correspondingly it had the lowest mean  $\rho$  value (0.91) among all species (Fig 11). The  $\rho$  value  
585 was similar for the other three pairs of congeners, with the dark *A. occidentalis* having the  
586 highest  $\rho$  value (2.12) of all species (Fig 10). The lack of significant and consistent patterns  
587 across the latter three genera likely reflect the wide range of light conditions under which dark  
588 species forage including nocturnal foraging in some seasons (Table 1).

589         The visual field was larger, usually significantly so, for pale species in all four genera  
590 (Fig 13). Moreover, there was no indication that these species had binocular vision in the  
591 anterior-posterior direction, that is, they cannot use their eyes for binocular depth perception.  
592 This infers that these ants do not use vision to find or capture food items, which aligns with diets  
593 that include stationary objects such as seeds, dead insects, and extrafloral nectaries. Instead, it  
594 seems likely their eyes are used for detection and orientation relative to land-based and celestial  
595 cues used in navigation (see below). In addition, our finding that visual field usually correlated  
596 with body size (positively or negatively, depending on the species), contrasted with the pattern  
597 for *Cataglyphis bicolor*, in which visual field was independent of body size [66].

598         Regional variation in  $D$  is common in insects [67], with these size differences probably  
599 related to the different selection pressures on eye structure in each region. Larger facets imply  
600 that insects have better vision from regions containing larger facets. In this study, ventral facets  
601 were significantly larger in three of the four examined species (along with anterior facets in two  
602 species), and they also were largest in the fourth species (*M. kennedyi*) but the difference was



603 not significant (Fig 12). This general pattern suggests that ventral facets are important for vision  
604 in both diurnal and nocturnal activity, perhaps as a mechanism for optic flow to measure distance  
605 [see 68, 69].

606

### 607 **Other pale ants with enlarged eyes**

608 Our survey of images on Antweb (<https://www.antweb.org/>) revealed numerous  
609 additional species of pale ants with enlarged eyes in the clades studied here and in other genera.  
610 Moreover, these coupled traits appear to have evolved independently multiple times in multiple  
611 genera across at least three subfamilies. Numerous additional pale species undoubtedly occur  
612 given the limited scope of museum specimens available, and it is likely that many pale species  
613 remain to be discovered. As these are located, our technique for measuring brightness provides a  
614 tool for mapping patterns of pigment loss within and across ant genera.

615 One commonality among pale species examined herein and in Table 6 is that many of  
616 these species largely are restricted to desert and semi-arid habitats. As such, these species  
617 possess visual adaptations to be nocturnal specialists in extreme environments in a manner  
618 similar to heat tolerance adaptations possessed by their thermophilic diurnal counterparts such as  
619 *Myrmecocytus kennedyi* and *Forelius* spp. [28; R.A. Johnson, pers. obs.] in the New World, and  
620 *Cataglyphis* spp. and *Melaphorus bagoti* in the Old World [70, 71]. The open, exposed nature of  
621 their foraging environment lacks overstory which suggests that these species can obtain  
622 navigation cues from local landmarks via their enlarged eye facets, but probably only horizon  
623 and lunar night sky cues. However, at this point, nothing is known about navigation in any pale  
624 species, and among dark species, orientation and navigation have been examined only in the

625 column-foraging, mostly diurnal *V. pergandei* [72-74]. There is much to learn about how ants  
626 use their eyes both at night and during the day.

627

## 628 **Ocelli**

629         Size of the anterior ocellus varied among pale and dark species of *Mymecocystus*. In  
630 larger species, the anterior ocellus was smaller in pale compared to dark species, but this  
631 difference largely disappeared for smaller species (Fig 6). The two largest pale species (*M.*  
632 *mexicanus*-01, *M. mexicanus*-02) also displayed size-dependent presence of the anterior ocellus  
633 as it was present only in larger workers. The anterior ocellus also was absent in nearly all  
634 workers of the intermediate sized *M. navajo*. The pattern was mixed for smaller species because  
635 the anterior ocellus was largest for the dark *M. yuma*, intermediate for the dark *M. kennedyi* and  
636 pale *M. ewarti*, and smallest for the pale *M. testaceus* (Fig 6). In contrast, the anterior ocellus is  
637 typically larger in nocturnal compared to crepuscular and diurnal flying bees and ants [31, 75-  
638 78], as well as in pedestrian workers in the ant genus *Myrmecia* [79].

639         Absence of the anterior ocellus in some to most workers of some pale species displays a  
640 phylogenetic component. Pale species in which some to most workers lacked the anterior  
641 ocellus fell into one clade, while all other species that always have an anterior ocellus were in  
642 two other clades [see 43]. We were unable to examine the two other pale species (*M. pyramicus*,  
643 *M. melanoticus*) because specimens were unavailable, but this phylogenetic association predicts  
644 that the anterior ocellus always is present in *M. pyramicus* and that it is only present in larger  
645 workers of *M. melanoticus* (see Fig 6). To our knowledge, these are the only known ant species  
646 in which workers display intraspecific variation in presence-absence of the anterior ocellus,  
647 making them excellent candidates to examine evolution, development, and function of the

648 anterior ocellus, as well as how such variation affects forager orientation and navigation (see  
649 below). Foraging behavior is poorly documented in pale species, but it appears that both small  
650 and large workers of *M. mexicanus*-02, i.e., those with and without an anterior ocellus, leave the  
651 nest to forage (J. Conway, pers. comm.).

652         The function of ocelli in ant workers is poorly understood because most species lack  
653 ocelli (notable exceptions include the genera *Cataglyphis*, *Formica*, *Myrmecocystus*, *Polyergus*  
654 in the subfamily Formicinae; *Myrmecia* in the subfamily Myrmeciinae). However, pedestrian  
655 workers that have ocelli provide a functional contrast to that of conspecific flying queens and  
656 males, where ocelli are almost always present. Flying insects have three ocelli that serve the  
657 general purpose of sensing polarized light for navigation and maintaining flight stability,  
658 whereas workers use their ocelli to detect polarized light for navigation in *Cataglyphis bicolor*  
659 [80] or to gather light in *Myrmecia* [79].

660         Lastly, compound eyes and ocelli provide separate and functionally different visual  
661 pathways, so it is instructive to examine for convergence in the two pathways. Two studies  
662 compare compound eyes and ocelli between nocturnal and diurnal ant species. In leafcutter ants  
663 (genus *Atta*), both the ocelli and eye facets were larger in nocturnal compared to diurnal species  
664 of both flying queens and males, while eye area was similar for species in both activity groups  
665 [76]. The other study examined workers of four species of *Myrmecia* also finding that both the  
666 ocelli and eye facets were larger in nocturnal compared to diurnal congeners, while number of  
667 facets was similar for species in both activity groups [27, 79]. Alternatively, this study found  
668 that pale species had an anterior ocellus that was similar in size to smaller than comparable dark  
669 congeners, but that eye facet diameter and eye size were larger for pale compared to dark species  
670 of *Myrmecocystus*; facet number was similar for species in both activity groups. Moreover, facet

671 size and eye size/number of facets display similar patterns across these studies, whereas relative  
672 size of the ocelli varied across genera.

673

## 674 **Conclusions**

675 This study provides a first overview of variation in external eye structure across several  
676 ant genera that compares closely related pale and dark congeners. Our observations on body  
677 coloration and eye structure allow several statements about their visual ecology. First, the  
678 correlation between ant body color and activity period parallels that found in other animals. The  
679 specific selective factors shaping this correlation await more detailed work on the costs and  
680 benefits of cuticular pigmentation. Second, pale, above ground foraging ants have enlarged  
681 rather than reduced or no eyes relative to their dark congeners, suggesting that vision is  
682 important for both nocturnal and diurnal species across several lineages. That pale species  
683 possess optical adaptations to maximize sensitivity over resolution, which is the pattern typical  
684 for most nocturnal insects with apposition eyes [33, 65], also suggests that vision plays a role in  
685 navigation for these nocturnal ants. Third, the visual field span and mild regional variation in *D*  
686 suggest that their eyes are not adapted to gather detailed visual information from any specific  
687 region in the space around the ant, but rather they are gathering relatively low quality  
688 information from a large part of the space around them. Fourth, the mild differences in eye  
689 structure between pale and dark species suggest both groups use their eyes in similar ways, and  
690 they are consistent with observations that these ants use their vision in navigation guided by  
691 celestial and large landmark cues. Field studies that detail foraging behavior and navigational  
692 skills would complement these data. Additional research should be done to more thoroughly  
693 determine optical sensitivity. This study only examined facet diameter, but data are needed on

694 rhabdom diameter, rhabdom length, focal length, and neural adaptations to more completely  
695 determine and compare optical sensitivity [see 27]. We also note that activity period is the  
696 primary difference between our pale and dark species given that life history and behavior are  
697 similar for species within each genus, i.e., most species are solitary foragers that harvest seeds, or  
698 scavenge for debris, dead insects, and plant exudates [28, 48: R.A. Johnson, pers. obs.], probably  
699 using olfactory and/or tactile cues.

700       Of the genera examined herein, we believe *Myrmecocystus* has the most potential for  
701 further study given the consistently large variation in eye structure between pale and dark species  
702 (eye area,  $D$ ,  $\rho$ , visual span), combined with the fact that most species are strongly polymorphic  
703 such that traits can be compared allometrically [see 66]. Additionally, this is the only known  
704 genus with pale species that possess ocelli, such that it provides an excellent group to examine  
705 internal eye structure and to compare evolution of both eyes and ocelli. The flying queens and  
706 males might also be examined for comparative study of the sexual castes, especially given that  
707 the queen of *M. navajo* has extremely large ocelli.

708

## 709 **Acknowledgments**

710       We thank Brian Fisher, Michele Esposito, and Antweb for the high resolution  
711 photographs, Christian Rabeling for use of his microscope and photographic programs, and Matt  
712 Prebus for the loan of specimens.

713

## 714 **Supporting information**

715 All data will be deposited in the Dryad Digital Repository.

716

717 **Orchid**

718 Robert A. Johnson 0000-0002-0242-6385

719 Ronald L. Rutowski 0000-0002-7936-8494

720

721

722

723 **Author contributions:**

724 **Conceptualization:** Robert A. Johnson.

725 **Data curation:** Robert A. Johnson, Ronald L. Rutowski.

726 **Formal analysis:** Robert A. Johnson, Ronald L. Rutowski.

727 **Methodology:** Robert A. Johnson, Ronald L. Rutowski.

728 **Writing - original draft:** Robert A. Johnson.

729

730 **Financial Disclosure statement:** The authors received no specific funding for this work.

## 731 **References**

- 732 . True JR. Insect melanism: the molecules matter. *Trends Ecol Evol.* 2003;18:640–647.
- 733 2. Shawkey MD, D'Alba L. Interactions between colour-producing mechanisms and their  
734 effects on the integumentary colour palette. *Philos T R Soc B.* 2017;372:20160536.
- 735 3. Hines HM, Witkowski P, Wilson JS, Wakamatsu K. Melanic variation underlies  
736 aposematic color variation in two hymenopteran mimicry systems. *PLoS One.*  
737 2017;12:e0182135.
- 738 4. Malcicka M, Bezemer TM, Visser B, Bloemberg M, P. CJ, Snart CJP, Hardy ICW,  
739 Harvey JA. Multi-trait mimicry of ants by a parasitoid wasp. *Sci Rep.* 2015;5:8043.
- 740 5. Wellenreuther M. Balancing selection maintains cryptic colour morphs. *Mol Ecol.*  
741 2017;26:6185–6188.
- 742 6. Wiens JJ, Tuschhoff E. Songs versus colours versus horns: what explains the diversity of  
743 sexually selected traits? *Biol Rev.* 2020;95:847–864.
- 744 7. de Souza AR, Mayorquin AZ, Sarmiento CE. Paper wasps are darker at high elevation. *J*  
745 *Therm Biol.* 2020;89:102535.
- 746 8. Law SJ, Bishop TR, Eggleton P, Griggiths H, Ashton L, Parr C. Darker ants dominate the  
747 canopy: testing macroecological hypotheses for patterns in colour along a microclimatic  
748 gradient. *J Anim Ecol.* 2020;89:348–359.
- 749 9. Forsman A, Ahnesjö J, Caesar S, Karlsson N. A model of ecological and evolutionary  
750 consequences of color polymorphism. *Ecology.* 2008;90:34–40.
- 751 10. Bishop TR, Robertson MP, Gibb H, van Rensburg BJ, Braschler B, Chown SL, Foord  
752 SH, Munyai TC, Okey I, Tshivhandekano PG, Werenkraut V, Parr CL. Ant assemblages have  
753 darker and larger members in cold environments. *Global Ecol Biogeogr.* 2016;25:1489–1499.

- 754 11. Pinkert S, Brandl R, Zeuss D. Colour lightness of dragonfly assemblages across North  
755 America and Europe. *Ecography*. 2017;40:1110–1117.
- 756 12. Protas M, Jefferey WR. Evolution and development in cave animals: from fish to  
757 crustaceans. *Wiley Interdiscip Rev Dev Biol*. 2012;1:823–845.
- 758 13. Protas ME, Trontelj P, Patel NH. Genetic basis of eye and pigment loss in the cave  
759 crustacean, *Asellus aquaticus*. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA*. 2011;108:5702–5707.
- 760 14. Bilandžija H, Četković H, Jefferey WR. Evolution of albinism in cave planthoppers by a  
761 convergent defect in the first step of melanin biosynthesis. *Evol Dev*. 2012;14:196–203.
- 762 15. Lohaj R, Casale A. *Laemostenus (Iranosphodrus) rudichae*, new subgenus and new  
763 species of sphodrine beetle from Iran (Coleoptera: Carabidae: Sphodrini). *Acta Entomol Slov*.  
764 2011;19:43–50.
- 765 16. Culver DC. *Cave life – evolution and ecology*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard  
766 University Press; 1982.
- 767 17. Li C, Chen H, Zhao Y, Chen S, Xiao H. Comparative transcriptomics reveals the  
768 molecular genetic basis of pigmentation loss in *Sinocyclocheilus* cavefishes. *Ecol Evol*.  
769 2020;10:14256–14271.
- 770 18. Wcislo WT, Tierney SM. Behavioural environments and niche construction: the  
771 evolution of dim-light foraging in bees. *Biol Rev*. 2009;84:19–37.
- 772 19. Engel MS. Classification of the bee tribe Augochlorini (Hymenoptera: Halictidae). *Bull*  
773 *Am Mus Nat Hist*. 2000;250:1–90.
- 774 20. Oxford GS, Gillespie RG. Evolution and ecology of spider coloration. *Annu Rev*  
775 *Entomol*. 1998;43:619–643.



- 776 21. Poulson TL. Evolutionary reduction by neutral mutations: plausibility arguments and data  
777 from amblyopsid fishes and linyphiid spiders. *Bull Natl Speleol Soc.* 1985;47:109–117.
- 778 22. Bilandžija H, Abraham L, Ma L, Renner KJ, Jeffery WR. Behavioural changes controlled  
779 by catecholaminergic systems explain recurrent loss of pigmentation in cavefish. *Proc Roy Soc*  
780 *B.* 2018;285:20180243.
- 781 23. Protas M, Tabansky I, Conrad M, Gross JB, Vidal O, Tabin CJ, Borowsky R. Multi-trait  
782 evolution in a cave fish, *Astyanax mexicanus*. *Evol Dev.* 2008;10:196–209.
- 783 24. Re C, Fišer Ž, Perez J, Tacdol A, Trontelj P, Protas M. Common genetic basis of eye and  
784 pigment loss in two distinct cave populations of the isopod crustacean *Asellus aquaticus*. *Integrat*  
785 *Comp Biol.* 2018;58:421–430.
- 786 25. Rabeling C, Brown JM, Verhaagh M. Newly discovered sister lineage shed light on early  
787 ant evolution. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA.* 2008;105:14913–14917.
- 788 26. Hosoishi S, Yamane S, Ogata K. Subterranean species of the ant genus *Crematogaster* in  
789 Asia (Hymenoptera: Formicidae). *Entomol Sci.* 2010;13:345–350.
- 790 27. Narendra A, Kamhi JF, Ogawa Y. Moving in dim light: behavioral and visual adaptations  
791 in nocturnal ants. *Integrat Comp Biol.* 2017;57:1104–1116.
- 792 28. Snelling RR. A revision of the honey ants, genus *Myrmecocystus* (Hymenoptera:  
793 Formicidae). *Nat Hist Mus Los Angeles Co Bull.* 1976;24:1–163.
- 794 29. Menzi U. Visual adaptation in nocturnal and diurnal ants. *J Comp Physiol A.*  
795 1987;160:11–21.
- 796 30. Yilmaz A, Aksoy V, Camlitepe Y, Giurfa M. Eye structure, activity rhythms, and  
797 visually-driven behavior are tuned to visual niche in ants. *Front Behav Neurosci.* 2014;8:205.

- 798 31. Warrant EJ, Kelber A, Wallén R, Wcislo WT. Ocellar optics in nocturnal and diurnal  
799 bees and wasps. *Arthropod Struc Dev.* 2006;35:293–305.
- 800 32. Rutowski RL, Gislén L, Warrant EJ. Visual acuity and sensitivity increase allometrically  
801 with body size in butterflies. *Arthropod Struc Dev.* 2009;38:91–100.
- 802 33. Greiner B. Adaptations for nocturnal vision in insect apposition eyes. *Int Rev Cytol.*  
803 2006;250:1–46.
- 804 34. Snyder AW. Physics of vision in compound eyes. In: Autrum H, editor. *Handbook of*  
805 *sensory physiology*, Vol VII/6A. Berlin: Springer; 1979. pp. 225–313.
- 806 35. Land MF. Visual acuity in insects. *Annu Rev Entomol.* 1997;42:147–177.
- 807 36. Wilson M. The functional organisation of locust ocelli. *J Comp Physiol A.*  
808 1978;124:297–316.
- 809 37. Mizunami M. Information processing in the insect ocellar system: comparative  
810 approaches to the evolution of visual processing and neural circuits. *Adv Insect Physiol.*  
811 1994;25:151–265.
- 812 38. Simmons PJ. Signal processing in a simple visual system: the locust ocellar system and  
813 its synapses. *Microsc Res Tech.* 2002;56:270–280.
- 814 39. Berry RP, Wcislo WT, Warrant EJ. Ocellar adaptations for dim light vision in a nocturnal  
815 bee. *J Exp Biol.* 2011;214:1283–1293.
- 816 40. Zeil J, Ribi WA, Narendra A. Polarisation vision in ants, bees and wasps. In: Horváth G,  
817 editor. *Polarized light and polarization vision in animal sciences*. Berlin: Springer-Verlag; 2014.  
818 pp. 41–60.
- 819 41. Bolton B. *Identification guide to the ant genera of the world*. Cambridge, Massachusetts:  
820 Harvard University Press; 1994.

- 821 42. Snelling RR. A revision of the honey ants, genus *Myrmecocystus*, first supplement  
822 (Hymenoptera: Formicidae). Bull Southern Cal Acad Sci. 1982;81:69–86.
- 823 43. van Elst T, Eriksson TH, Gadau J, Johnson RA, Rabeling C, Taylor JE, Borowiec ML.  
824 Comprehensive phylogeny of *Myrmecocystus* honey ants highlights cryptic diversity and infers  
825 evolution during aridification of the American Southwest. Mol Phylogenet Evol.  
826 2020;155:107036.
- 827 44. DeMarco BB, Cognato AI. A multiple-gene phylogeny reveals polyphyly among eastern  
828 North American *Aphaenogaster* species (Hymenoptera: Formicidae). Zool Scr. 2016;45:512–  
829 520.
- 830 45. Demarco BB, Cognato AI. Phylogenetic analysis of *Aphaenogaster* supports the  
831 resurrection of *Novomessor* (Hymenoptera: Formicidae). Ann Entomol Soc Am. 2015;108  
832 (2):201–210.
- 833 46. Johnson RA, Ward PS. Biogeography and endemism of ants (Hymenoptera: Formicidae)  
834 in Baja California, Mexico: a first overview. J Biogeogr. 2002;29 (8):1009–1026.
- 835 47. Prebus M. Insights into the evolution and biogeography and natural history of the acorn  
836 ants, genus *Temnothorax* Mayr (Hymenoptera: Formicidae). BMC Evol Biol. 2017;17:250.
- 837 48. Johnson RA. Biogeography and community structure of North American seed-harvester  
838 ants. Annu Rev Entomol. 2001;46:1–29.
- 839 49. Johnson RA. Seed-harvester ants (Hymenoptera: Formicidae) of North America: an  
840 overview of ecology and biogeography. Sociobiology. 2000;36 (1):89–122.
- 841 50. SPSS. SPSS reference guide. Chicago: SPSS, Inc; 1990.

- 842 51. Bergman M, Rutowski RL. Eye morphology and visual acuity in the Pipevine  
843 Swallowtail (*Battus philenor*) studied with a new method of measuring interommatidial angles.  
844 Biol J Linn Soc. 2016;117:646–654.
- 845 52. Bolton B. An online catalog of the ants of the world 2021 Available from  
846 <https://antcat.org> (accessed 5 September 2021).
- 847 53. Snelling RR, George CD. The taxonomy, distribution and ecology of California desert  
848 ants (Hymenoptera: Formicidae). Report to Bureau of Land Management, US Department of  
849 Interior, Riverside, California, 335 pp + 89 pp. 1979.
- 850 54. DeMarco BB. Phylogeny of North American *Aphaenogaster* species (Hymenoptera:  
851 Formicidae) reconstructed with morphological and DNA data. PhD dissertation: Michigan State  
852 University, East Lansing, Michigan. 2015.
- 853 55. Hobbs RJ. Harvester ant foraging and plant species distribution. *Oecologia*. 1985;67  
854 (4):519–523.
- 855 56. Brown MJF, Gordon DM. How resources and encounters affect the distribution of  
856 foraging activity in a seed-harvesting ant. *Behav Ecol Sociobiol*. 2000;47 (3):195–203.
- 857 57. Hamm CA, Kamansky B. New record of *Messor chicoensis* (Hymenoptera: Formicidae)  
858 from the San Joaquin Valley of California. *Sociobiology*. 2009;53 (2):543–547.
- 859 58. Johnson RA. Reproductive biology of the seed-harvester ants *Messor julianus* (Pergande)  
860 and *Messor pergandei* (Mayr) (Hymenoptera: Formicidae) in Baja California, Mexico. *J*  
861 *Hymenopt Res*. 2000;9 (3):377–384.
- 862 59. Wheeler GC, Wheeler J. *Veromessor lobognathus*: second note (Hymenoptera:  
863 Formicidae). *Ann Entomol Soc Am*. 1959;52 (2):176–179.

- 864 60. Cole AC. A new species of *Veromessor* from the Nevada test site and notes on related  
865 species (Hymenoptera: Formicidae). *Ann Entomol Soc Am.* 1963;56 (5):678–682.
- 866 61. Cole AC. Ants of the Nevada test site. *Brigham Young Univ Sci Bull Biol Ser.* 1966;7  
867 (3):1–27.
- 868 62. Borowiec ML, Johnson RA. A molecular phylogeny of the North American seed-  
869 harvester ant genus *Veromessor*. *Mol Phylogenet Evol.* 2021;in prep.
- 870 63. Wing MW. Taxonomic revision of the Nearctic genus *Acanthomyops* (Hymenoptera:  
871 Formicidae). *Mem Cornell Univ Agric Exp Sta.* 1968;405:1–173.
- 872 64. Wilson EO. A monographic revision of the ant genus *Lasius*. *Bull Mus Comp Zool.*  
873 1955;113:1–201.
- 874 65. Stöckl A, Smolka J, O'Carroll D, Warrant E. Resolving the trade-off between visual  
875 sensitivity and spatial acuity - lessons from hawkmoths. *Integrat Comp Biol.* 2017;57  
876 (5)(5):1093–1103.
- 877 66. Zollikofer CPE, Wehner R, Fukushi T. Optical scaling in conspecific *Cataglyphis* ants. *J*  
878 *Exp Biol.* 1995;198:1637–1646.
- 879 67. Zagorski ER, Merry JW. How do eye size and facet lens size vary by age and sex in  
880 *Acheta domesticus*? *BIOS.* 2014;85(3):151–159.
- 881 68. Ronacher B, Gallizzi K, Wohlgemuth S, Wehner R. Lateral optic flow does not influence  
882 distance estimation in the desert ant *Cataglyphis fortis*. *J Exp Biol.* 2000;203:1113–1121.
- 883 69. Ronacher B, Wehner M. Desert ants *Cataglyphis fortis* use self-induced optic flow to  
884 measure distances travelled. *J Comp Physiol A.* 1995;177:21–27.
- 885 70. Christian KA, Morton SR. Extreme thermophilia in a central Australian ant, *Melophorus*  
886 *bagoti*. *Physiol Zool.* 1992;65:885–905.

- 887 71. Pfeffer SE, Wahl VL, Wittlinger M, Wolf H. High-speed locomotion in the Saharan  
888 silver ant, *Cataglyphis bombycina*. J Exp Biol. 2019;222:jeb198705.
- 889 72. Freas CA, Congdon JV, Plowes NJR, Spetch ML. Same but different: socially foraging  
890 ants backtrack like individually foraging ants but use different mechanisms. J Insect Physiol.  
891 2019;118:103944.
- 892 73. Freas CA, Congdon JV, Plowes NJR, Spetch ML. Pheromone cue triggers switch  
893 between vectors in the desert harvest ant, *Veromessor pergandei*. Anim Cogn. 2020;23 (6):1087–  
894 1105.
- 895 74. Freas CA, Plowes NJR, Spetch ML. Not just going with the flow: foraging ants attend to  
896 polarised light even while on the pheromone trail. J Comp Physiol A. 2019;205 (5):755–767.
- 897 75. Kerfoot WB. Correlation between ocellar size and the foraging activities of bees  
898 (Hymenoptera; Apoidea). Am Nat. 1967;101:65–70.
- 899 76. Moser JC, Reeve JD, Bento JMS, Della Lucia TMC, Cameron RS. Eye size and  
900 behaviour of day- and night-flying leafcutting ant alates. J Zool. 2004;264:69–75.
- 901 77. Somanathan H, Kelber A, Borges RM, Wallén R, Warrant EJ. Visual ecology of Indian  
902 carpenter bees II: adaptations of eyes and ocelli to nocturnal and diurnal lifestyles. J Comp  
903 Physiol A. 2009;195:571–583.
- 904 78. Coody CJ, Watkins JF, II. The correlation of eye size with circadian flight periodicity of  
905 nearctic army ant males of the genus *Neivamyrmex* (Hymenoptera; Formicidae, Ecitoninae). Tex  
906 J Sci. 1986;38:3–7.
- 907 79. Narendra A, Ribi WA. Ocellar structure is driven by mode of locomotion and activity  
908 time in *Myrmecia* ants. J Exp Biol. 2017;220:4383–4390.

- 909 80. Fent K, Wehner R. Ocelli: a celestial compass in the desert ant *Cataglyphis*. *Science*.  
910 1985;228:192–194.



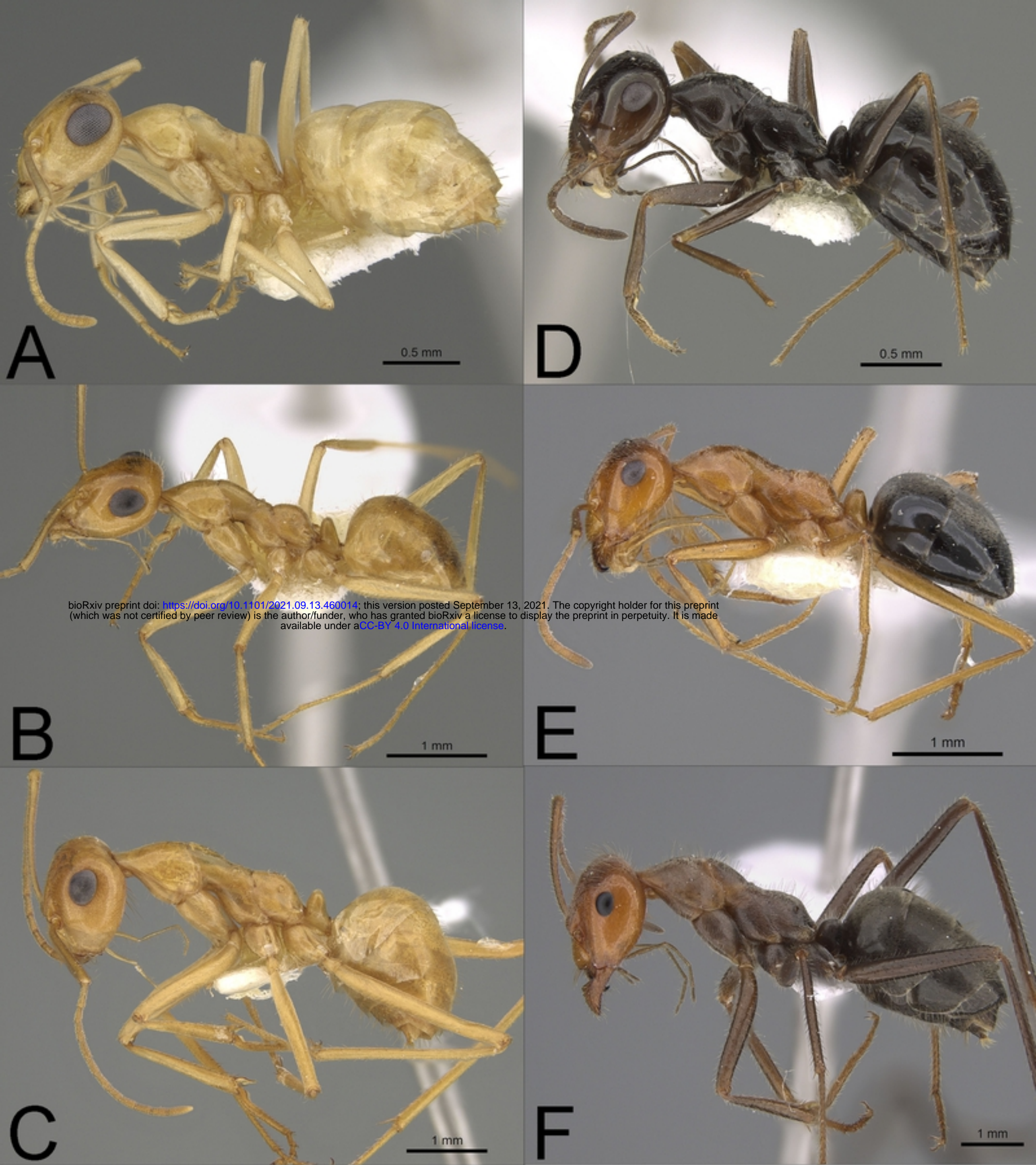


Figure 1



**Fig. 1. Profile photographs of pale (A-C) and dark species (D-F) (see text) of *Myrmecocystus* (subfamily Formicinae) examined in this study:**

(A) *M. christineae* (CASENT0923358), (B) *M. navajo* (CASENT0923356), (C) *M. mexicanus-02* (CASENT0923355), (D) *M. yuma* (CASENT0923359), (E) *M. kennedyi* (CASENT0923362), and (F) *M. mendax-03* (ASUSIBR00001132). Note the relatively larger eyes of pale compared to dark species. Species are arranged by size pairs – A&D, B&E, and C&F (see text).

Photographs by Michele Esposito from [www.antweb.org](http://www.antweb.org).

bioRxiv preprint doi: <https://doi.org/10.1101/2021.09.13.460014>; this version posted September 13, 2021. The copyright holder for this preprint (which was not certified by peer review) is the author/funder, who has granted bioRxiv a license to display the preprint in perpetuity. It is made available under aCC-BY 4.0 International license.

**Fig. 2. Profile photographs of pale (A) and dark species (B-D) (see text) of *Aphaenogaster* (subfamily Myrmicinae) examined in this study:**

(A) *A. megommata* (CASENT0923367), (B) *A. boulderensis* (CASENT0005722), (C) *A. occidentalis* (CASENT0005725), and (D) *A. patruelis* (CASENT0923366). Note the relatively larger eyes of pale compared to dark species. Photographs by Michele Esposito from [www.antweb.org](http://www.antweb.org).

**Fig. 3. Profile photographs of pale (A) and dark species (B-C) (see text) of *Temnothorax* (subfamily Myrmicinae) examined in this study:**

(A) *T. sp. BCA-5* (CASENT0118165), (B) *T. neomexicanus* (CASENT0923368), and (C) *T. tricarinatus* (CASENT0102845). Note the relatively larger eyes of pale compared to dark species. Photographs by Michele Esposito from [www.antweb.org](http://www.antweb.org).

**Fig. 4.** Profile photographs of pale (A–B) and dark species (C–J) (see text) of *Veromessor* (subfamily Myrmicinae) examined in this study:

(A) *V. lariversi* (CASENT0923345), (B) *V. RAJ-pseu* (CASENT0923346), (C) *V. andrei* (CASENT0923137), (D) *V. lobognathus* (CASENT0923126), (E) *V. chamberlini* (CASENT0005730), (F) *V. pergandei* (CASENT0923124), (G) *V. chicoensis* (CASENT0923347), (H) *V. smithi* (MCZ-ENT00671466), (I) *V. julianus* (CASENT0104946), and (J) *V. stoddardi* (CASENT0922825). Note the relatively larger eyes of pale compared to dark species. Photographs by Wade Lee, April Nobile, and Michele Esposito from

www.antweb.org.

**Fig. 5.** Brightness values for the 26 ant species examined in this study (see text and Table 1, Figs 1–4).

**Fig. 6.** Eye area (mm<sup>2</sup>) (A), facet number (B), and mean facet diameter (D) (μm) (C) for species of *Myrmecocystus* (subfamily Formicinae: tribe Lasiini).

Three species are pale (open symbols and normal font: *M. christineae*, *M. navajo*, *M. mexicanus*-02), and three species are dark (filled symbols and **bold** font: *M. yuma*, *M. kennedyi*, *M. mendax*-03) (see text). For each species, number of workers examined and number of colonies they were derived from is given in parentheses. Significant differences ( $P < 0.05$ ) among species are denoted after each species name by the letters *a–c*:  $a > b > c$ ; the three sets of letters for each species correspond to panels A, B, and C, respectively. Groupings are based on univariate F tests within MANCOVA using the estimated marginal means followed by pairwise comparisons



using a least significant differences test (see text). Foraging time for each species is given in Table 1.

**Fig. 7. Anterior ocellus diameter for species of *Myrmecocystus* (subfamily Formicinae: tribe Lasiini).**

Six species are pale (open or red symbols and normal font: *M. christineae*, *M. ewarti*, *M. navajo*, *M. testaceus*, *M. mexicanus-01*, *M. mexicanus-02*), and three species are dark (filled symbols and

bioRxiv preprint doi: <https://doi.org/10.1101/2021.09.13.460014>; this version posted September 13, 2021. The copyright holder for this preprint (which was not certified by peer review) is the author/funder, who has granted bioRxiv a license to display the preprint in perpetuity. It is made available under aCC-BY 4.0 International license.

**bold font: *M. yuma*, *M. kennedyi*, *M. mendax-03***) (see text). For each species, number of

workers examined and number of colonies they were derived from is given in parentheses.

Significant differences ( $P < 0.05$ ) among species are denoted after each species name by the

letters *a–f*:  $a > b > c > d > e > f$ ; the three sets of letters for each species correspond to panels A,

B, and C, respectively. Groupings are based on univariate F tests within ANCOVA followed by

pairwise comparisons of the estimated marginal means using a least significant differences test

(see text). Foraging time for each species is given in Table 1.

**Fig. 8. Eye area (mm<sup>2</sup>) (A), facet number (B), and mean facet diameter (D) (μm) (C) for species of *Aphaenogaster* (subfamily Myrmicinae: tribe Stenammini).**

*Aphaenogaster megommata* is pale (open symbols and regular font), while *A. boulderensis*, *A.*

*occidentalis*, and *A. patruelis* are dark (filled symbols and **bold font**) (see text). For each

species, number of workers examined and number of colonies they were derived from is given in

parentheses. Significant differences ( $P < 0.05$ ) among species are denoted after each species

name by the letters *a–c*:  $a > b > c$ ; the three sets of letters for each species correspond to panels

A, B, and C, respectively. Groupings are based on univariate F tests within MANCOVA using

the estimated marginal means followed by pairwise comparisons using a least significant differences test (see text). Foraging time for each species is given in Table 1.

**Fig. 9. Eye area (mm<sup>2</sup>) (A), facet number (B), and mean facet diameter (D) (μm) (C) for species of *Temnothorax* (subfamily Myrmicinae: tribe Crematogastrini).**

*Temnothorax* sp. BCA-5 is pale (open symbols and regular font), while *T. neomexicanus* and *T.*

*triacarinatus* are dark (filled symbols and **bold** font) (see text). For each species, number of workers examined and number of colonies they were derived from is given in parentheses.

bioRxiv preprint doi: <https://doi.org/10.1101/2021.09.13.460014>; this version posted September 13, 2021. The copyright holder for this preprint (which was not certified by peer review) is the author/funder, who has granted bioRxiv a license to display the preprint in perpetuity. It is made available under aCC-BY 4.0 International license.

Significant differences ( $P < 0.05$ ) among species are denoted after each species name by the letters  $a-b$ :  $a > b$ ; the three sets of letters for each species correspond to panels A, B, and C, respectively. Groupings are based on univariate F tests within MANCOVA using the estimated marginal means followed by pairwise comparisons using a least significant differences test (see text). Foraging time for each species is given in Table 1.

**Fig. 10. Eye area (mm<sup>2</sup>) (A), facet number (B), and mean facet diameter (D) (μm) (C) for species of *Veromessor* (subfamily Myrmicinae: tribe Stenammini).**

*Veromessor lariversi* and *V. RAJ-pseu* are pale (open symbols and regular font), while the other eight species are dark (filled symbols and **bold** font) (see text). For each species, number of workers examined and number of colonies they derived from is given in parentheses. Significant differences ( $P < 0.01$ ) among species are denoted after each species name by the letters  $a-g$ :  $a > b > c > d > e > f > g$ ; the three sets of letters for each species correspond to panels A, B, and C, respectively. Groupings are based on univariate F tests within MANCOVA using the estimated



marginal means followed by pairwise comparisons using a least significant differences test (see text). Foraging time for each species is given in Table 1.

**Fig. 11. Interommatidial angle ( $\Delta\phi$ ) for one pale (open circles and regular font) and one dark (filled circles and bold font) (see text) species in each of four ant genera:**

**(A) *Myrmecocystus*, (B) *Aphaenogaster*, (C) *Temnothorax*, and (D) *Veromessor*.** All plots have

the same x-axis and y-axis scaling in order to visualize differences between light and dark

bioRxiv preprint doi: <https://doi.org/10.1101/2021.09.13.460014>; this version posted September 13, 2021. The copyright holder for this preprint (which was not certified by peer review) is the author/funder, who has granted bioRxiv a license to display the preprint in perpetuity. It is made available under aCC-BY 4.0 International license.

species across genera. Mean  $\Delta\phi$  (in degrees) is given after each species name with an asterisk

denoting the species with a significant larger  $\Delta\phi$  based on a t-test ( $P < 0.05$ ). The significant

interaction of genus  $\times$  activity period is shown by larger  $\Delta\phi$ 's for pale species of *Myrmecocystus*

and *Veromessor*, whereas  $\Delta\phi$  was larger for dark species of *Aphaenogaster* and *Temnothorax*.

Sample size is  $n = 5$  for each species.

**Fig. 12. Eye parameter ( $\rho$ ) for one pale (open circles and regular font) and one dark (filled circles and bold font) (see text) species in each of four ant genera:**

**(A) *Myrmecocystus*, (B) *Aphaenogaster*, (C) *Temnothorax*, and (D) *Veromessor*.** All plots have

the same x-axis and y-axis scaling in order to visualize differences between light and dark

species across genera. Mean  $\rho$  is given after each species name with an asterisk denoting the

species with a significant larger  $\rho$  based on a t-test ( $P < 0.05$ ). The significant interaction of

genus  $\times$  activity period is shown by larger differences between light-colored and dark-colored

species of *Aphaenogaster* compared to those in the other three genera. Sample size is  $n = 5$  for

each species.

**Fig. 13. Anterior-posterior visual field span (in degrees) for one pale (open circles and regular font) and one dark (filled circles and bold font) (see text) species in each of four ant genera:**

(A) *Myrmecocystus*, (B) *Aphaenogaster*, (C) *Temnothorax*, and (D) *Veromessor*. All plots have the same x-axis and y-axis scaling in order to visualize differences between pale and dark species across genera. Mean visual field span (in degrees) is given after each species name with an asterisk denoting the species with a significant larger visual field based on a t-test ( $P < 0.05$ ); the double asterisk denotes that the t-test was not significant, but that the visual field was significantly larger when including mesosoma length as a covariate. The significant interaction of genus  $\times$  activity period is shown by larger differences between pale and dark species of *Aphaenogaster* compared to those in the other three genera. Sample size is  $n = 5$  for each species.

bioRxiv preprint doi: <https://doi.org/10.1101/2021.09.13.460014>; this version posted September 13, 2021. The copyright holder for this preprint (which was not certified by peer review) is the author/funder, who has granted bioRxiv a license to display the preprint in perpetuity. It is made available under aCC-BY 4.0 International license.

**Fig. 14. Regional variation in facet diameter for one pale (open circles and regular font) and one dark (filled circles and bold font) (see text) species in each of two ant genera:**

(A) *Myrmecocystus* and (B) *Veromessor*. Significant differences within each species are denoted by the letters  $a-c$ :  $a > b > c$  for pale species;  $d-f$ :  $d > e > f$  for dark species. Groupings for each species are based on a repeated-measures ANOVA followed by a least significant differences test. Sample size is given after each species name.





bioRxiv preprint doi: <https://doi.org/10.1101/2021.09.13.460014>; this version posted September 13, 2021. The copyright holder for this preprint (which was not certified by peer review) is the author/funder, who has granted bioRxiv a license to display the preprint in perpetuity. It is made available under aCC-BY 4.0 International license.



Figure 2





bioRxiv preprint doi: <https://doi.org/10.1101/2021.09.13.460014>; this version posted September 13, 2021. The copyright holder for this preprint (which was not certified by peer review) is the author/funder, who has granted bioRxiv a license to display the preprint in perpetuity. It is made available under aCC-BY 4.0 International license.



Figure 3



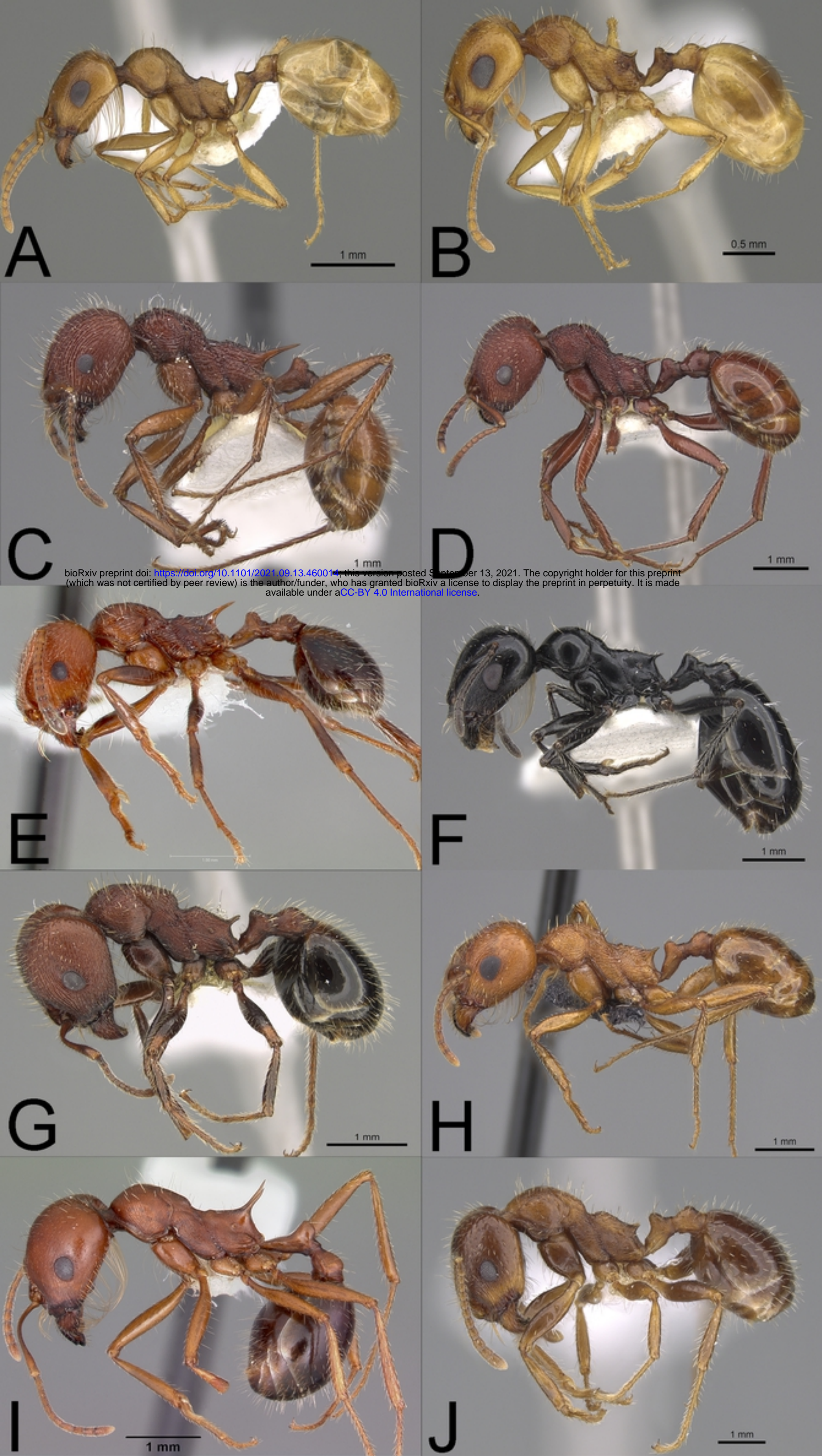


Figure 4



bioRxiv preprint doi: <https://doi.org/10.1101/2021.09.13.460014>; this version posted September 13, 2021. The copyright holder for this preprint (which was not certified by peer review) is the author/funder, who has granted bioRxiv a license to display the preprint in perpetuity. It is made available under aCC-BY 4.0 International license.

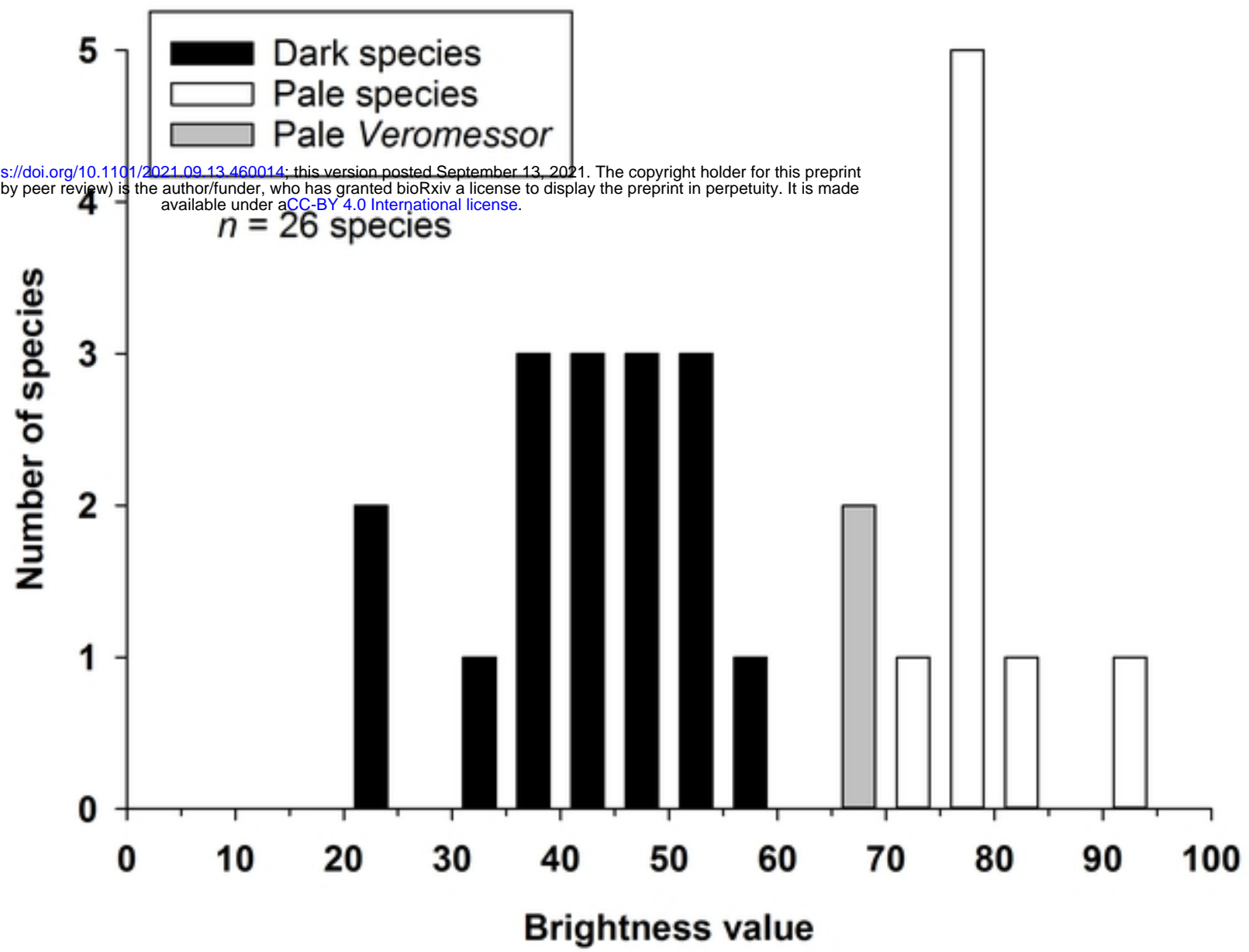


Figure 5

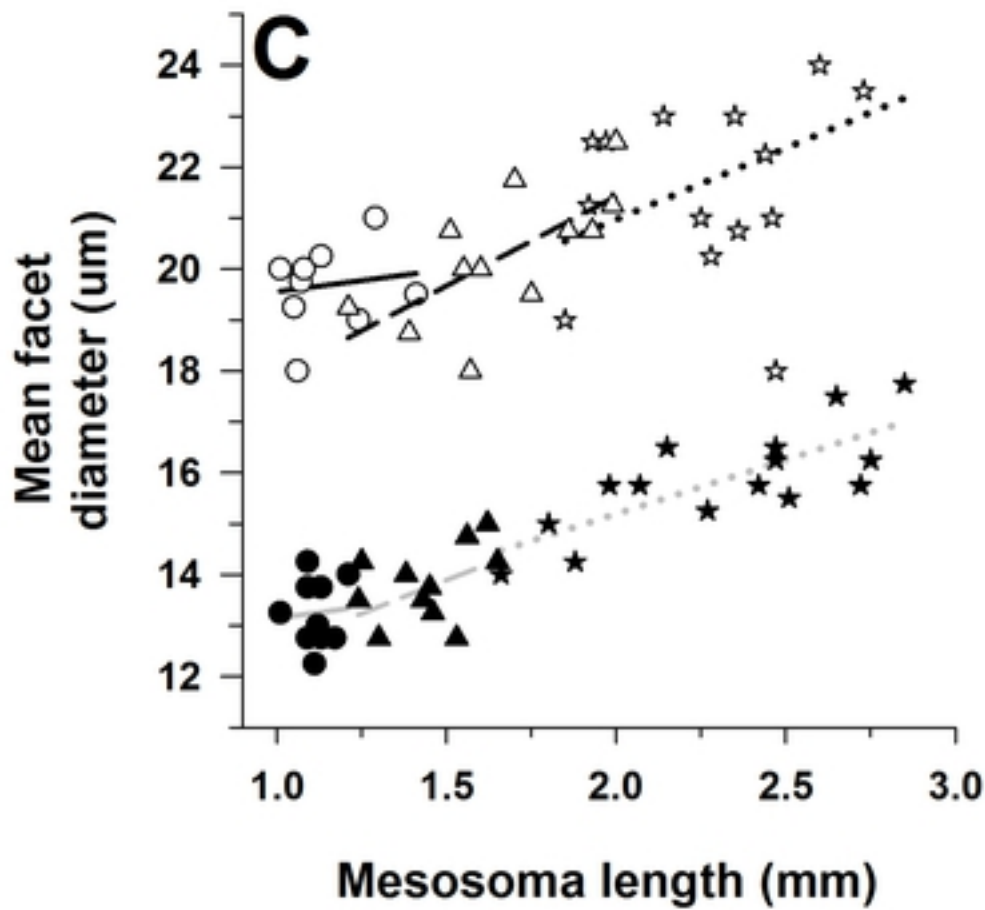
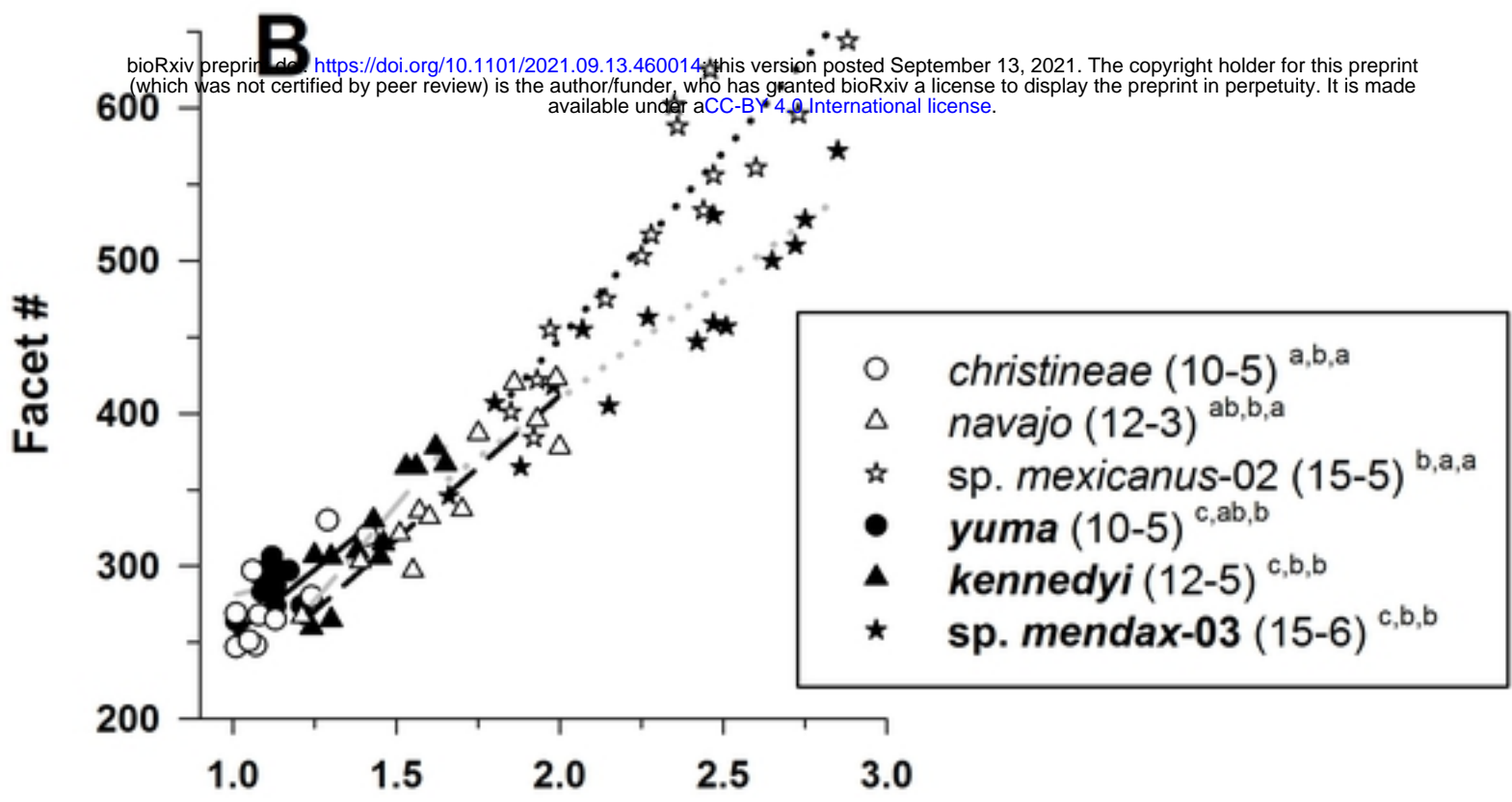
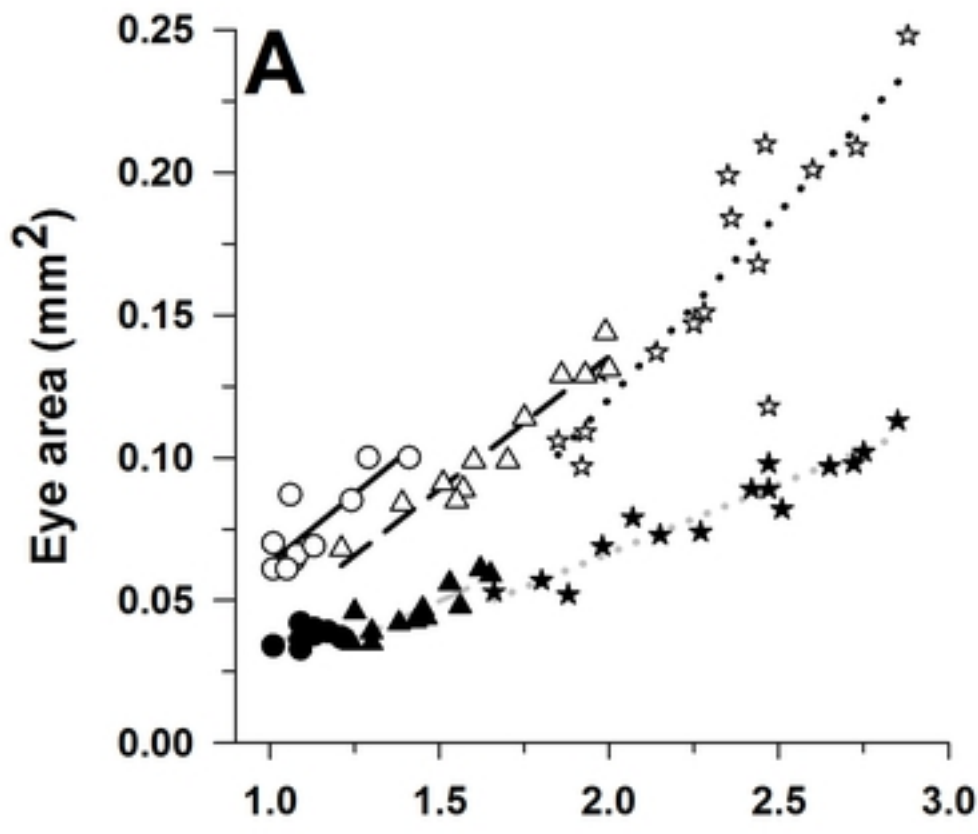


Figure 6

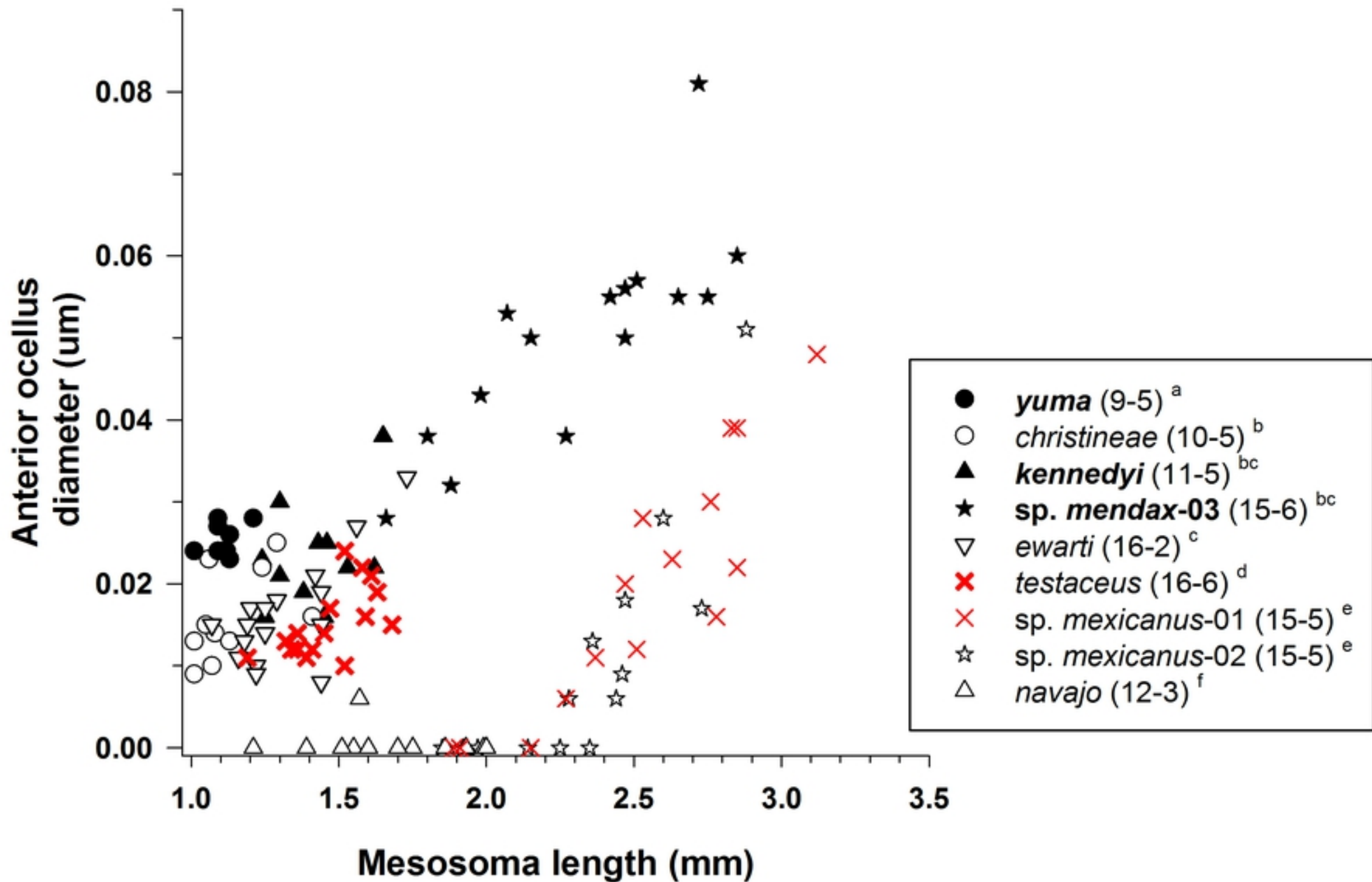


Figure 7

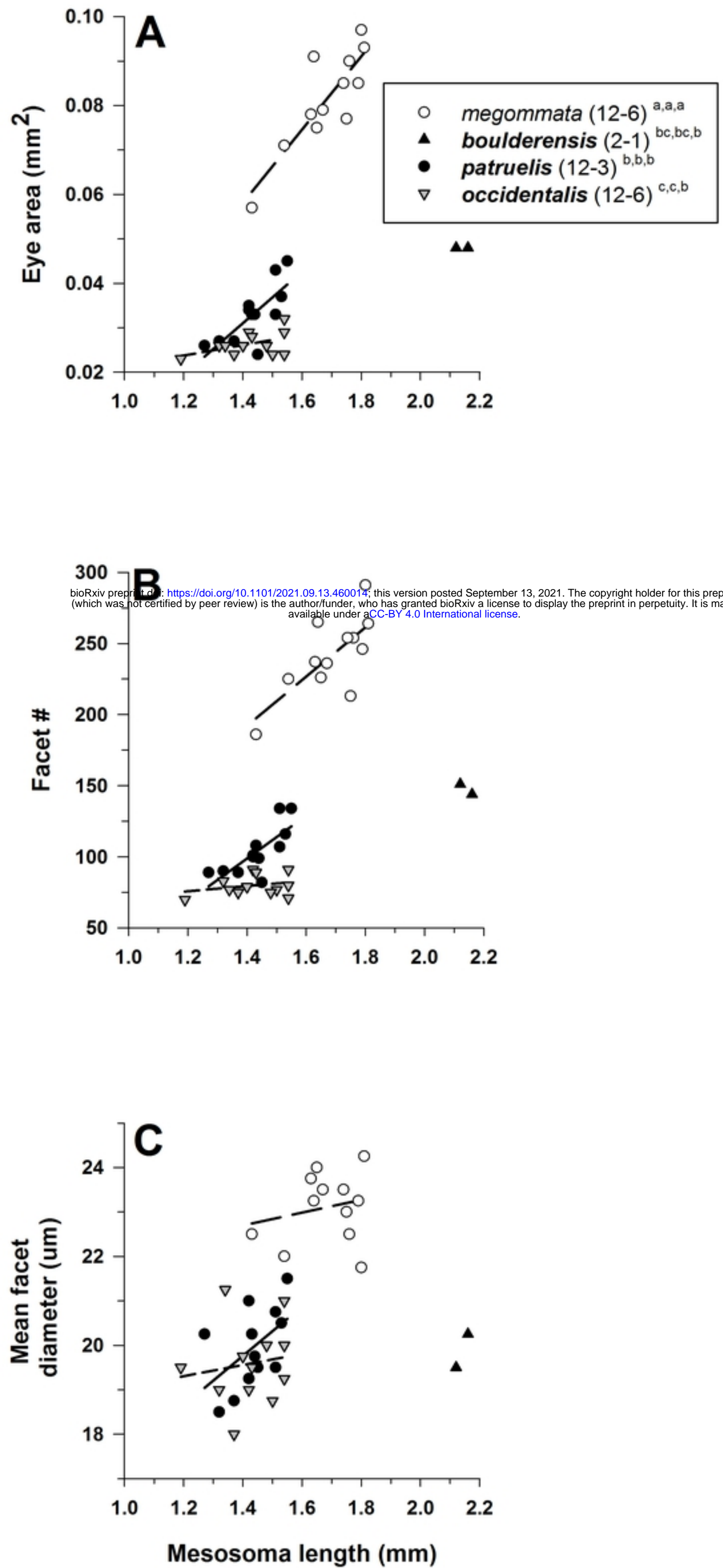


Figure 8

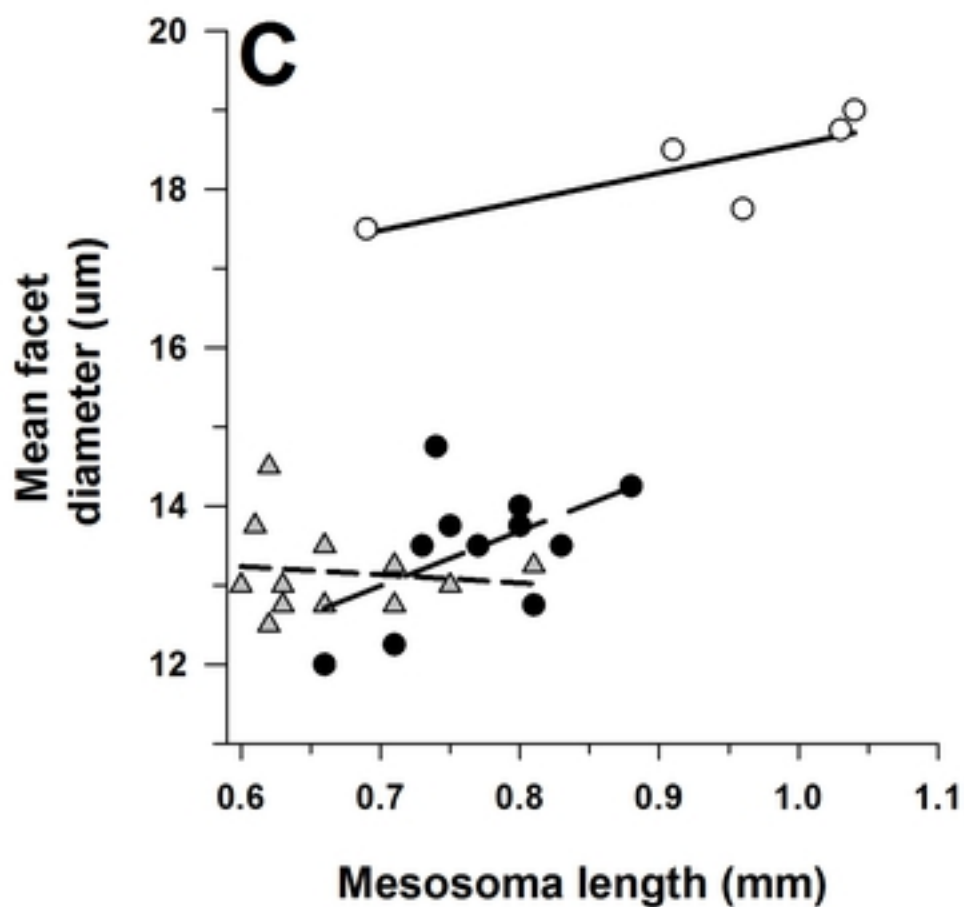
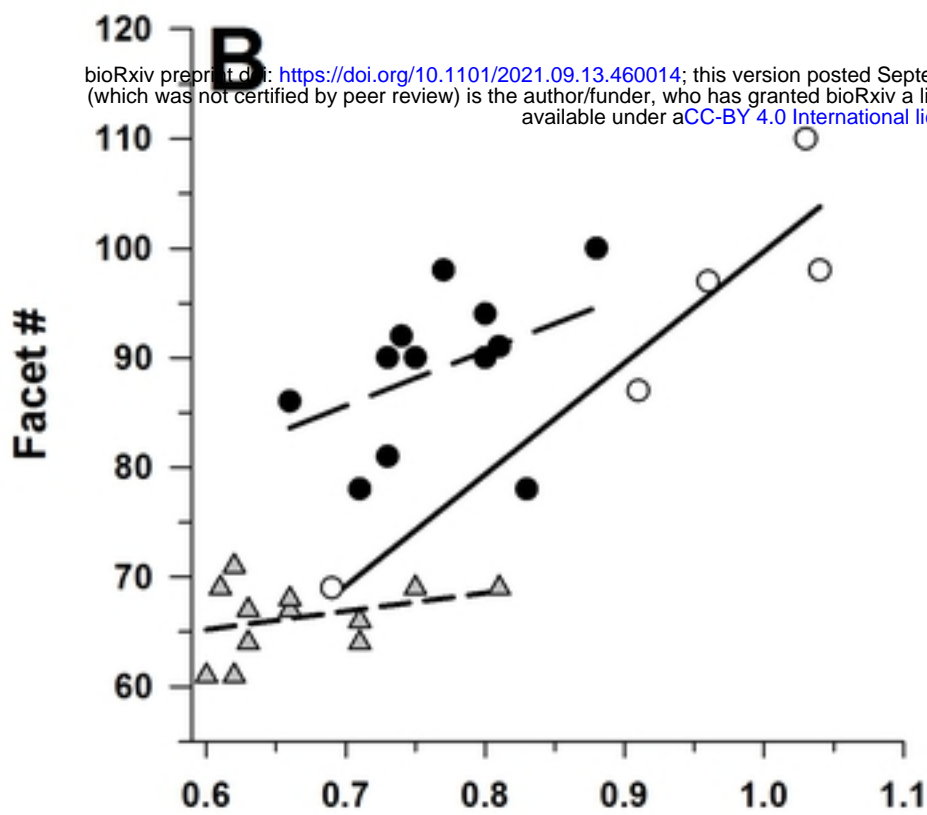
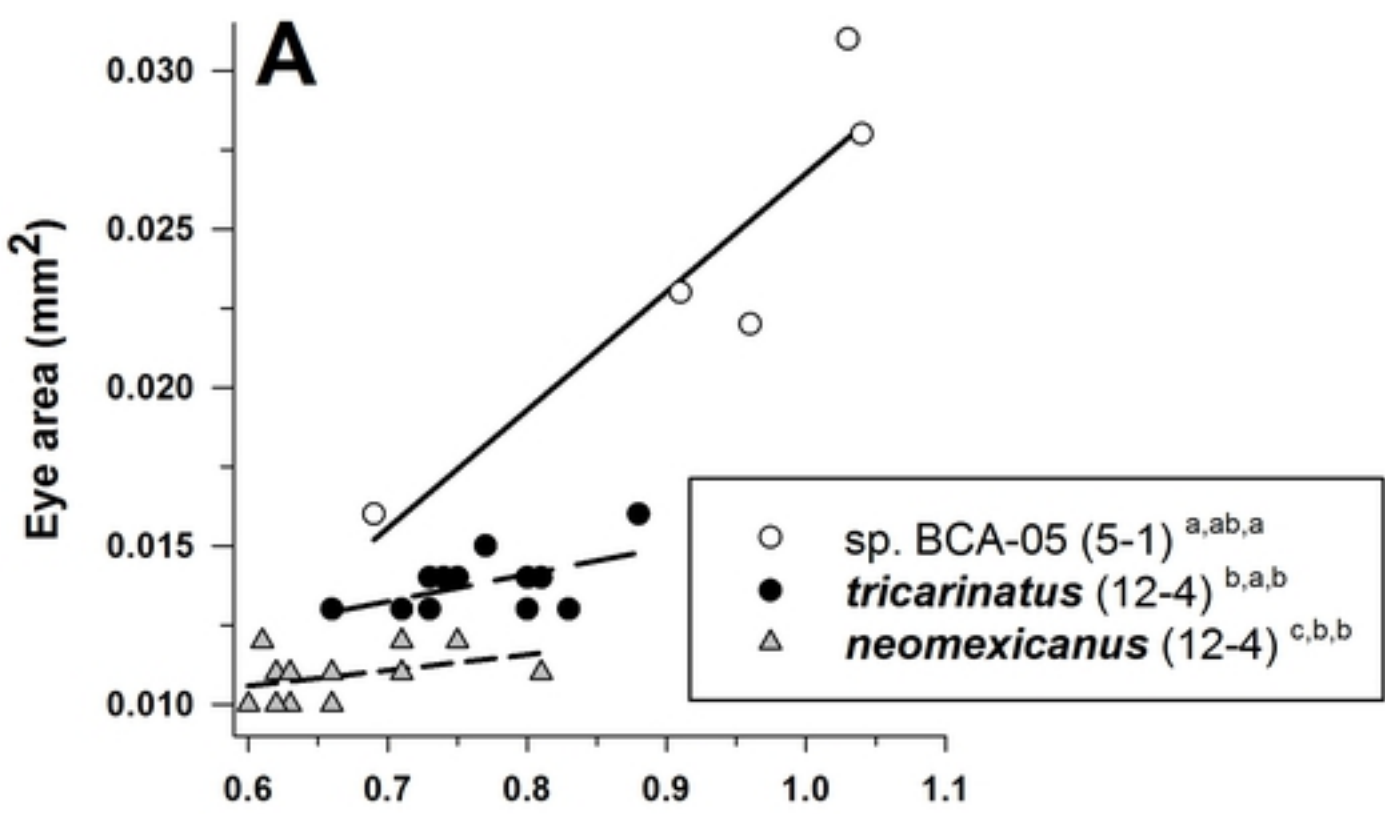


Figure 9



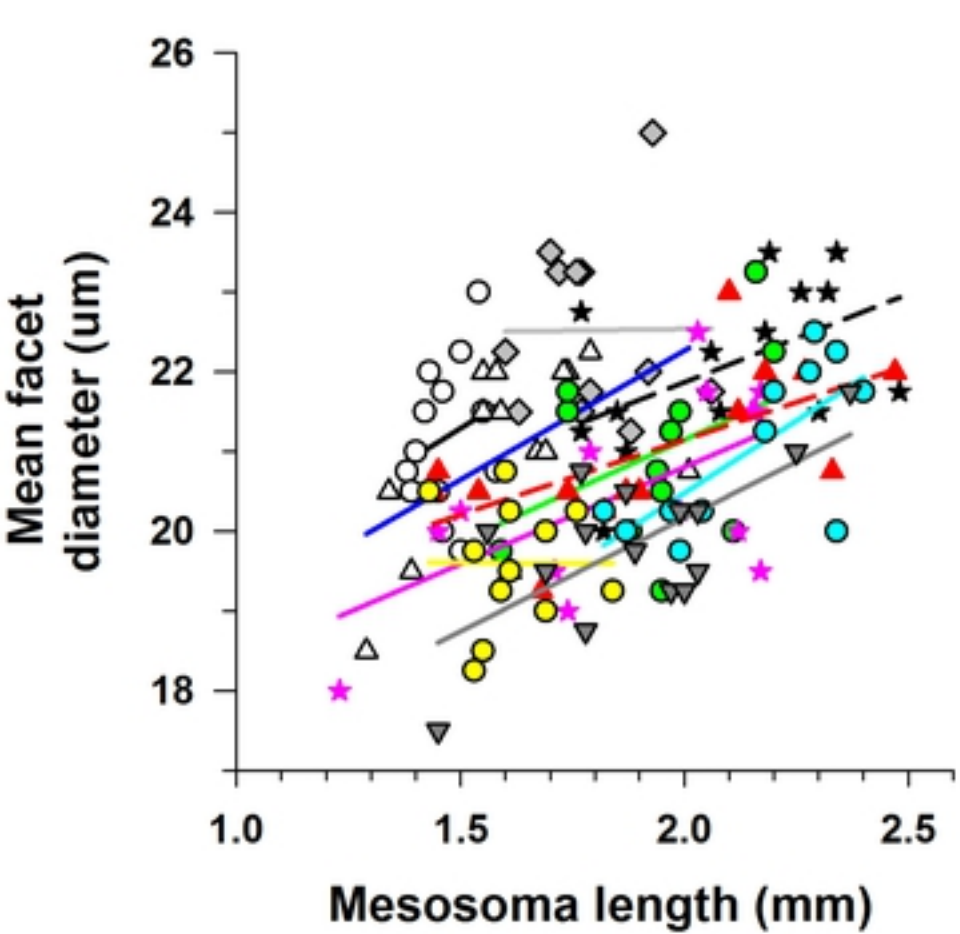
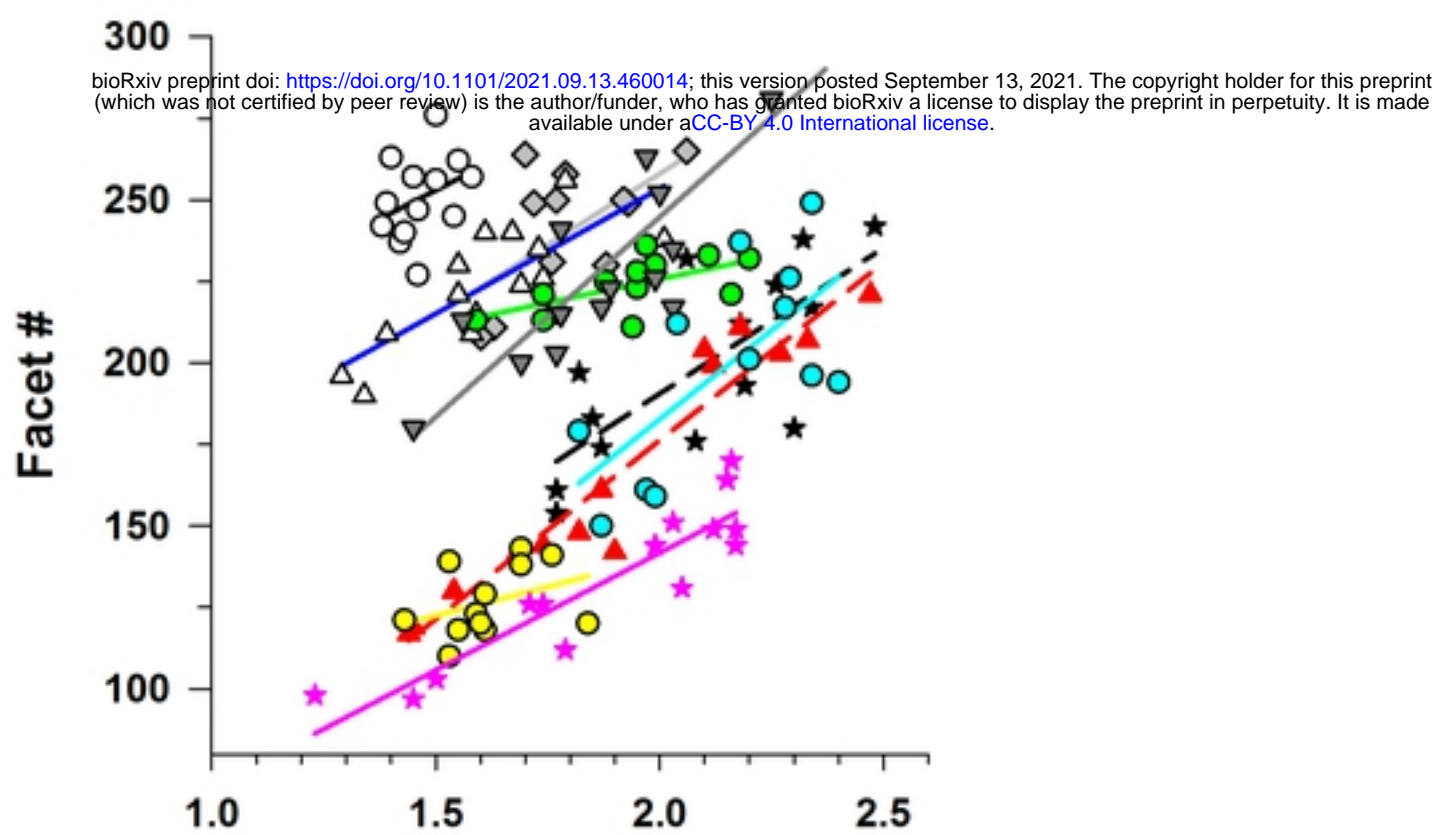
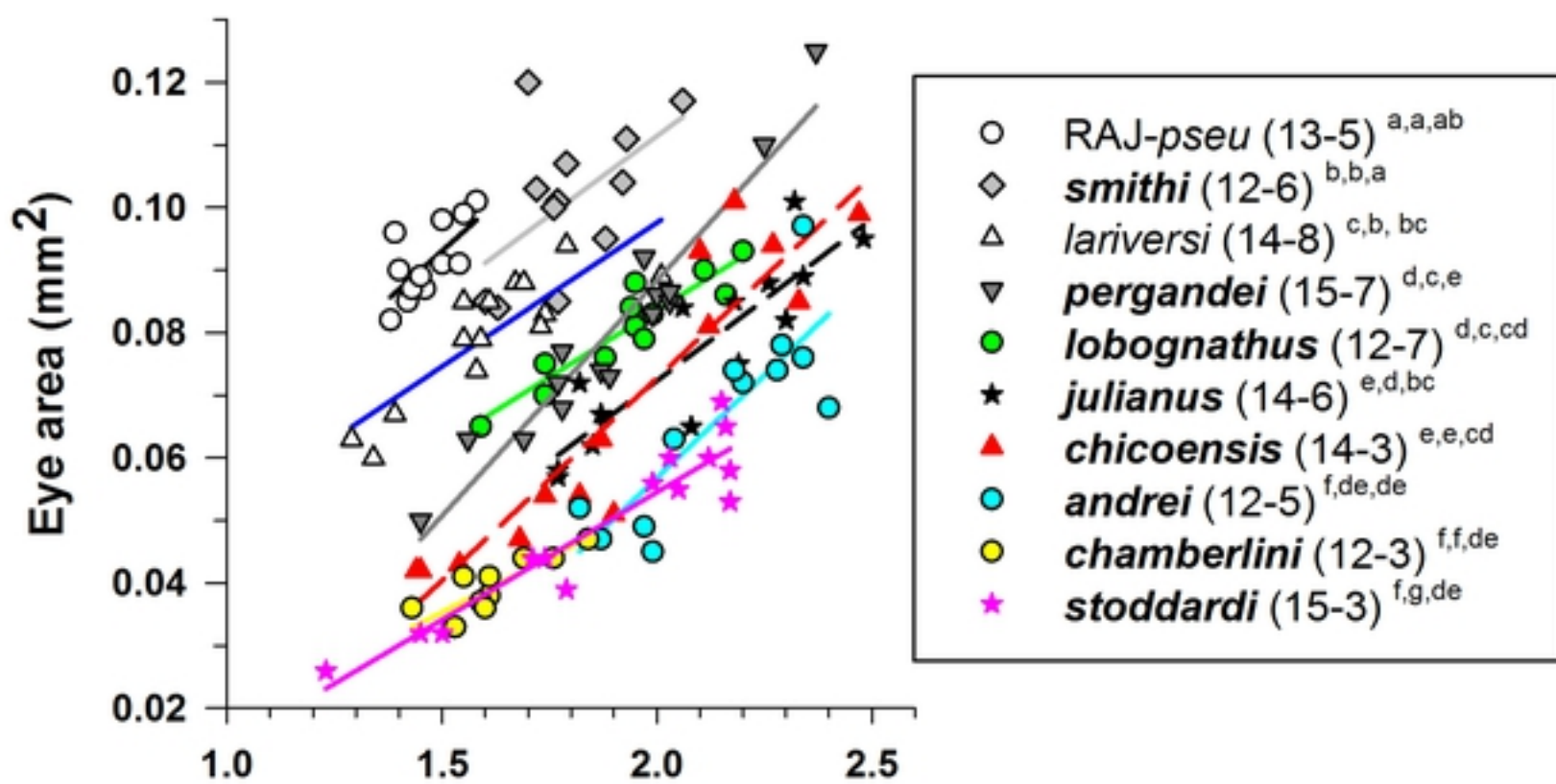


Figure 10

bioRxiv preprint doi: <https://doi.org/10.1101/2021.09.13.460014>; this version posted September 13, 2021. The copyright holder for this preprint (which was not certified by peer review) is the author/funder, who has granted bioRxiv a license to display the preprint in perpetuity. It is made available under aCC-BY 4.0 International license.

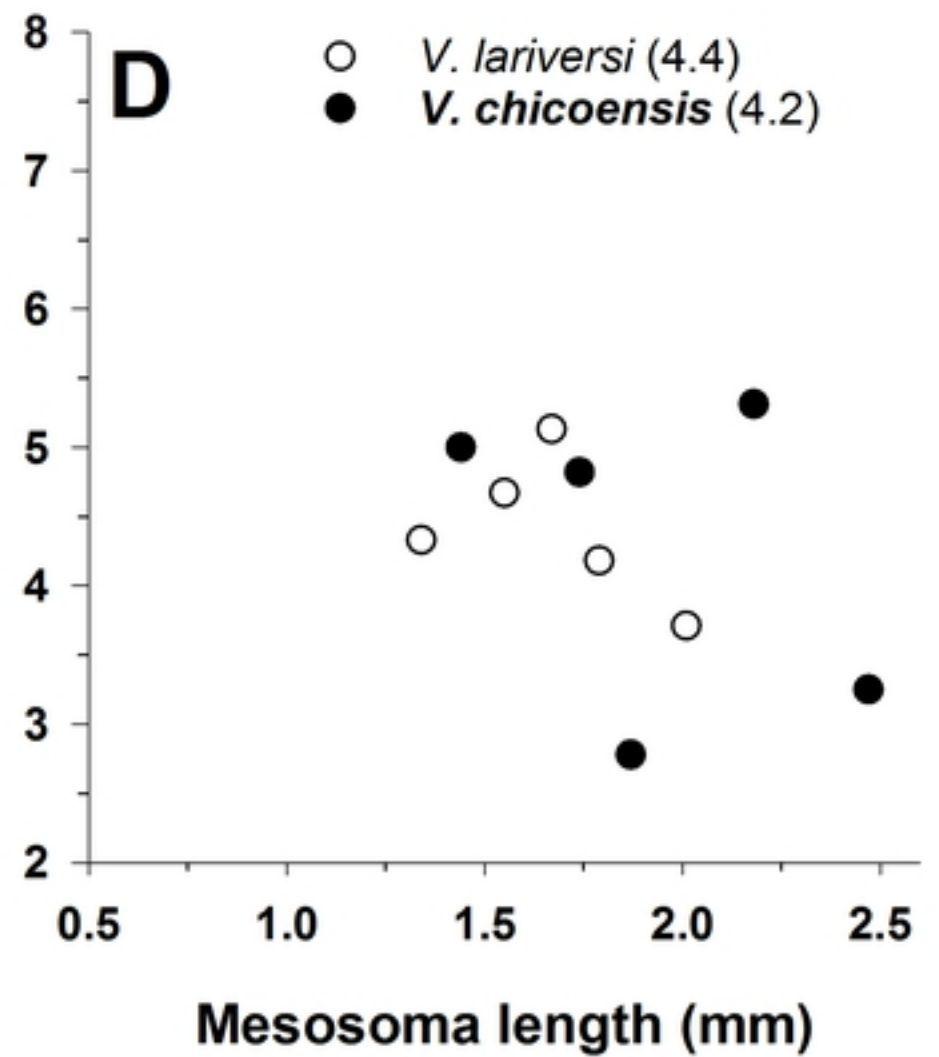
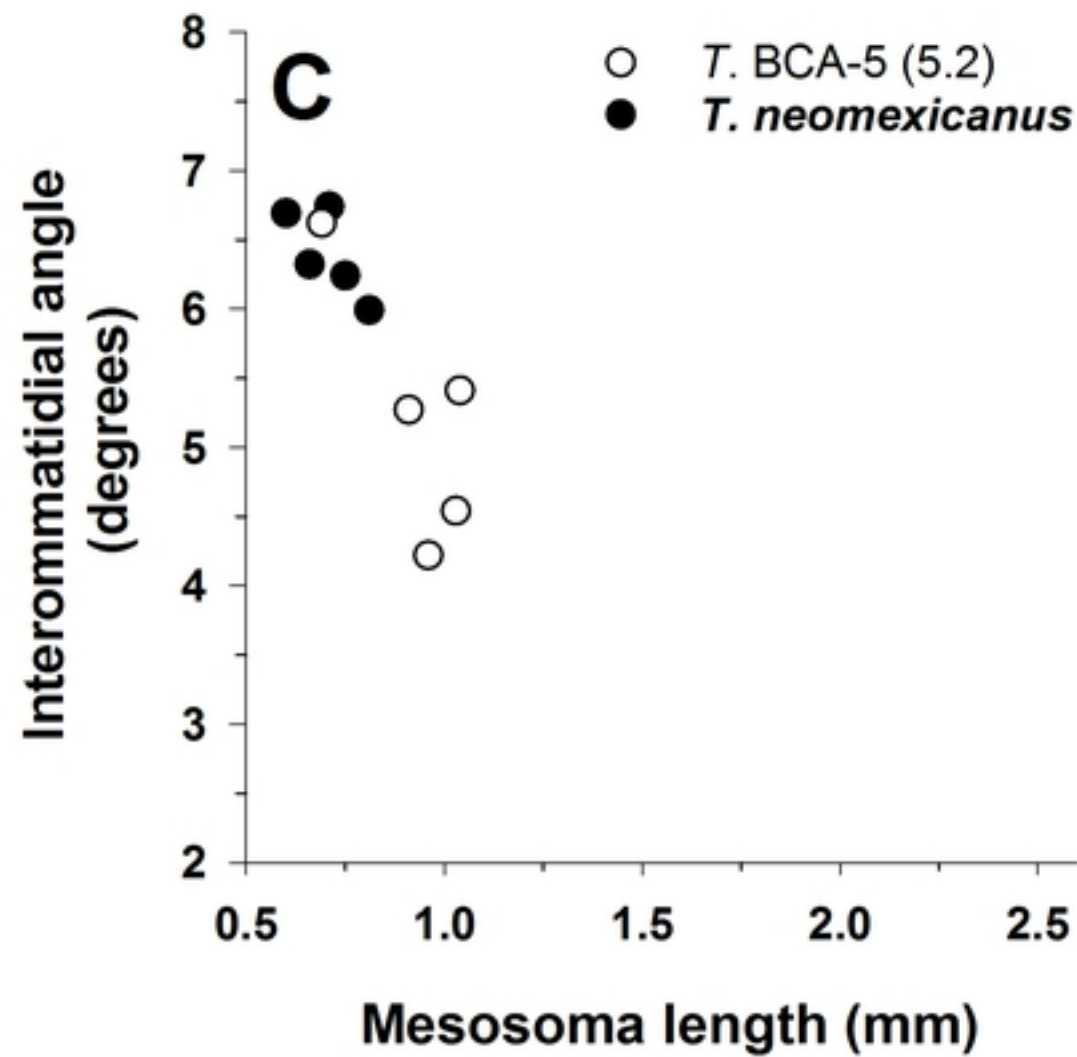
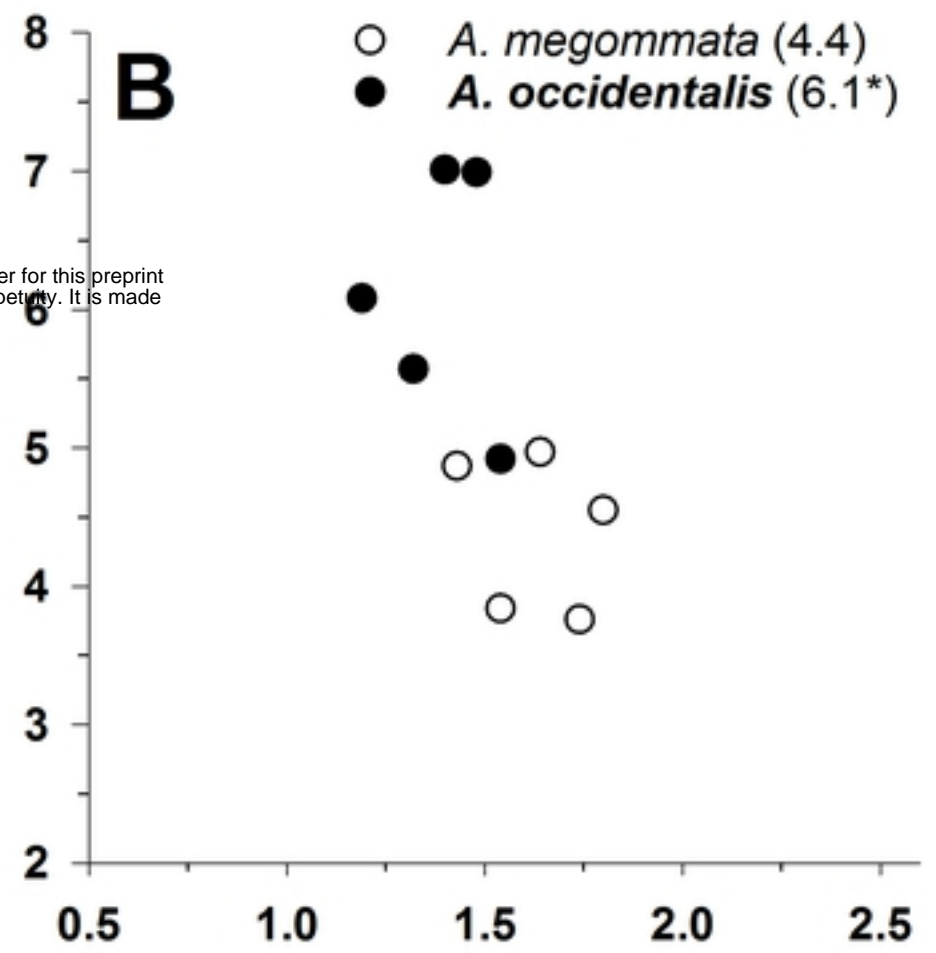
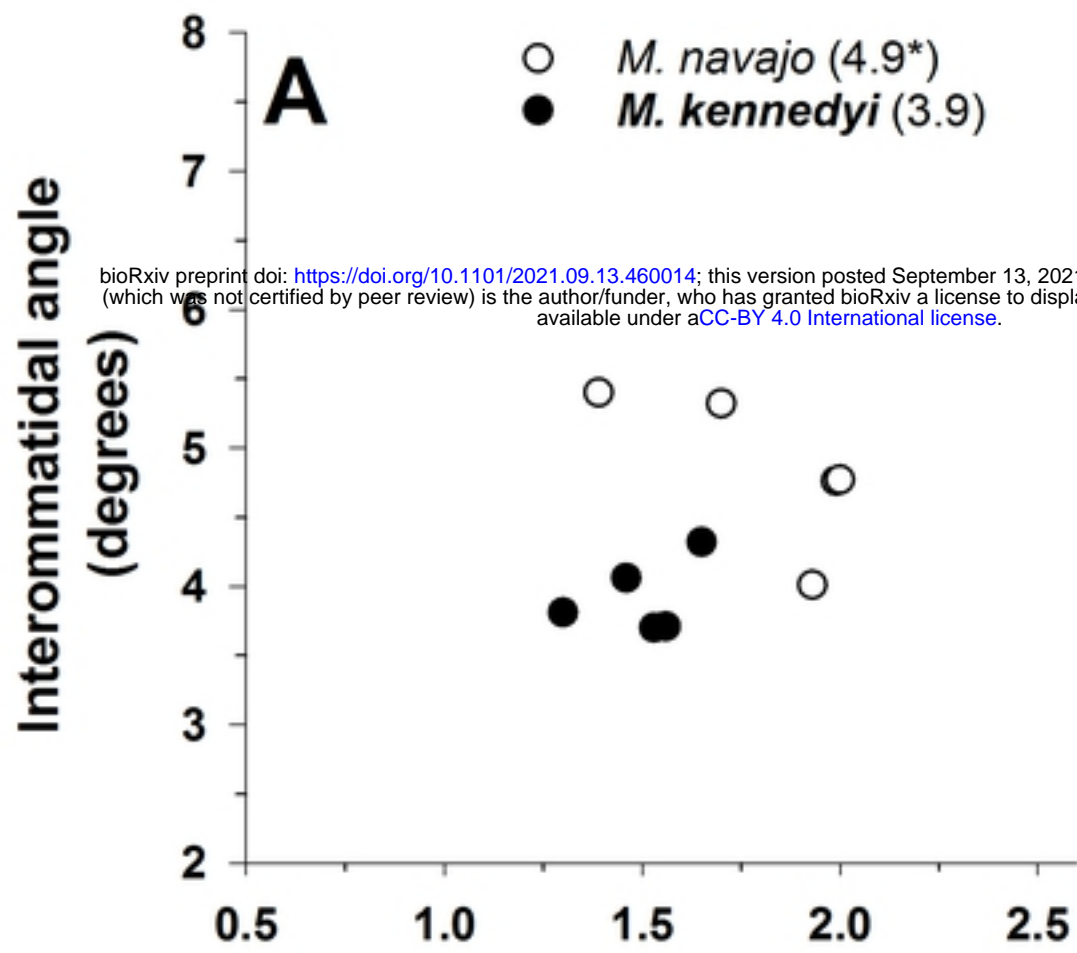


Figure 11



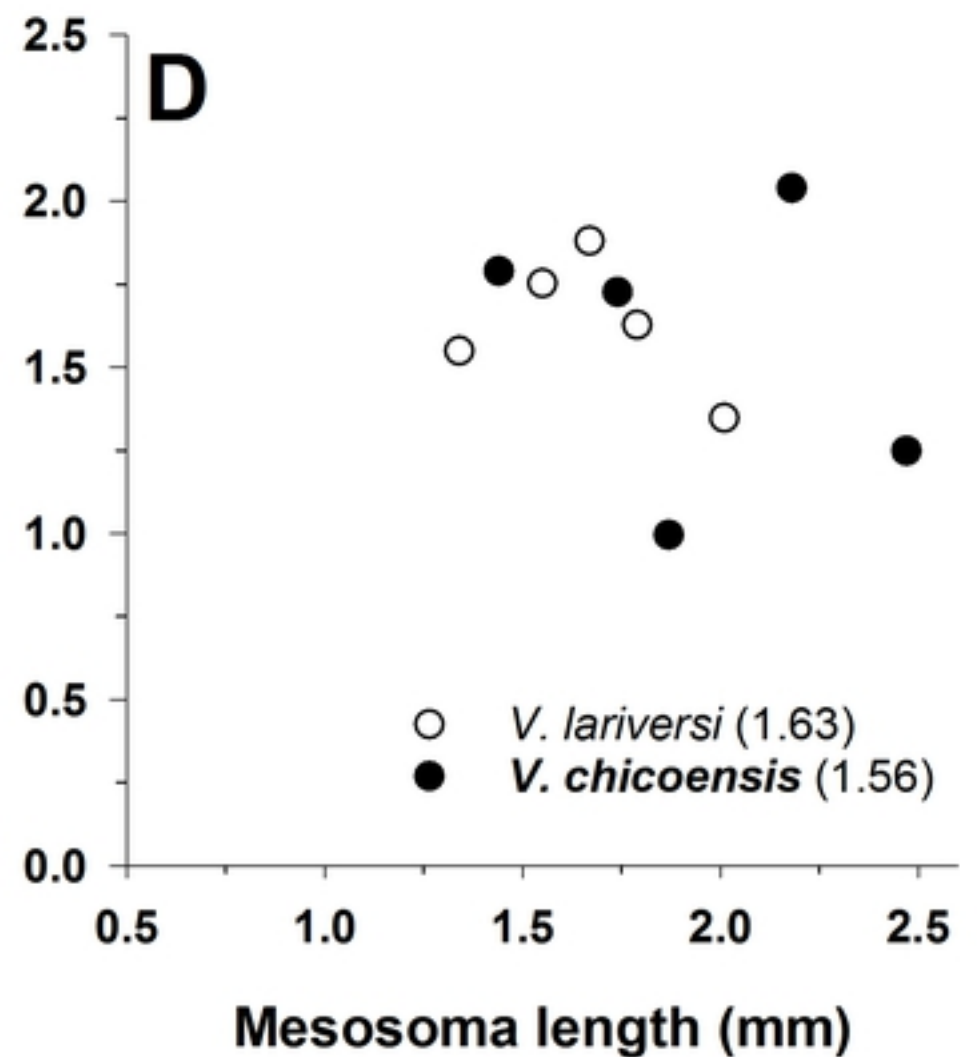
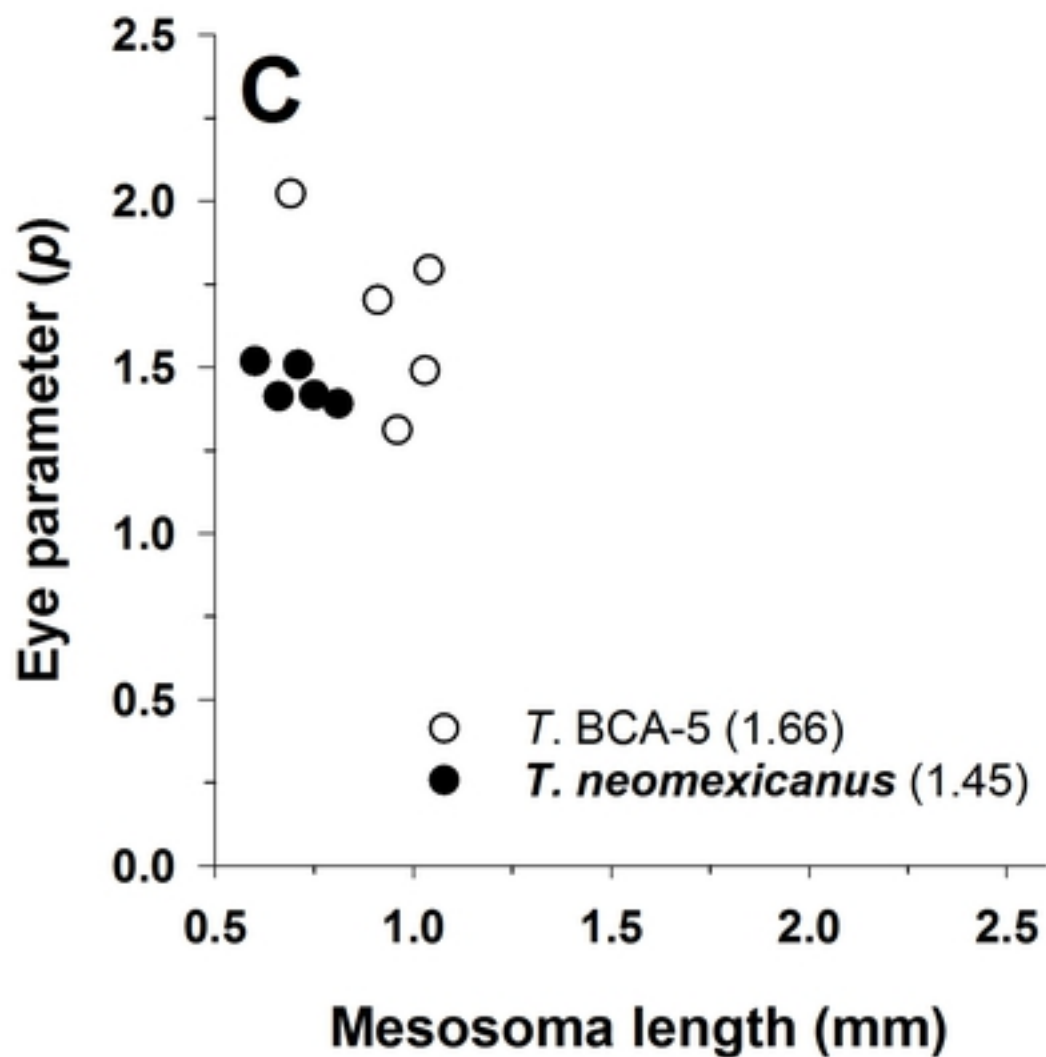
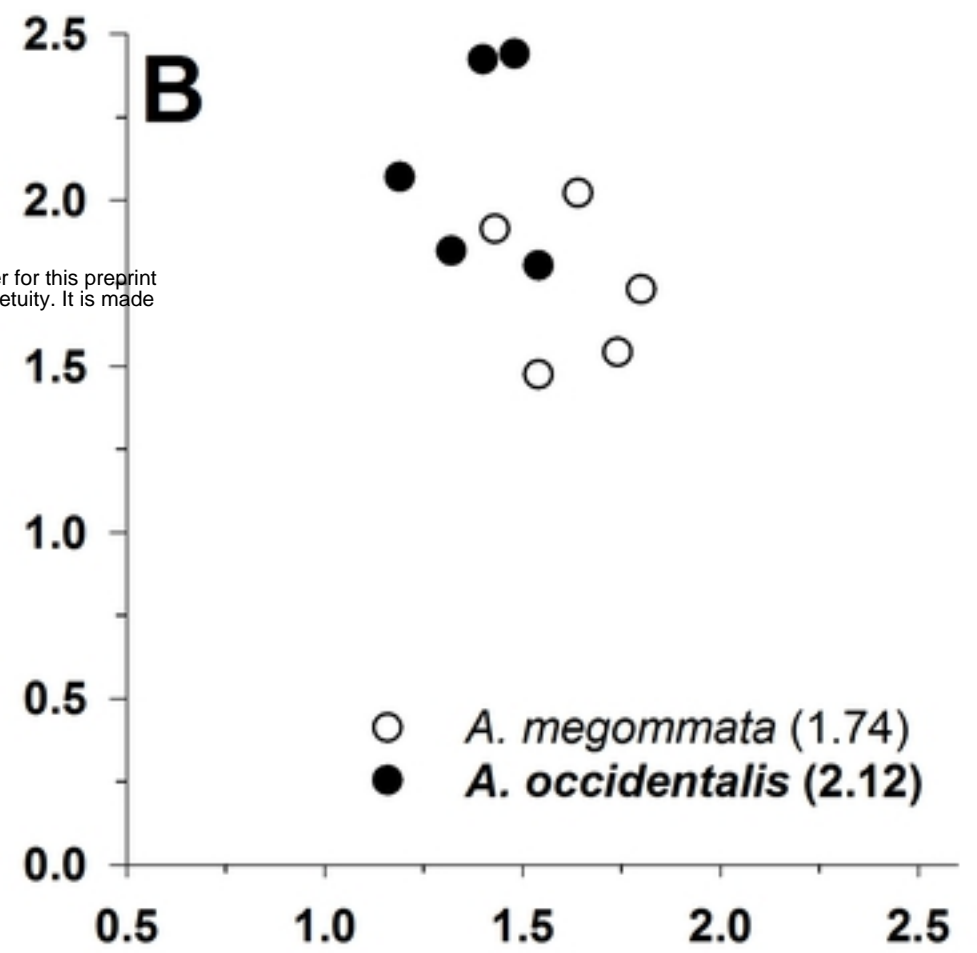
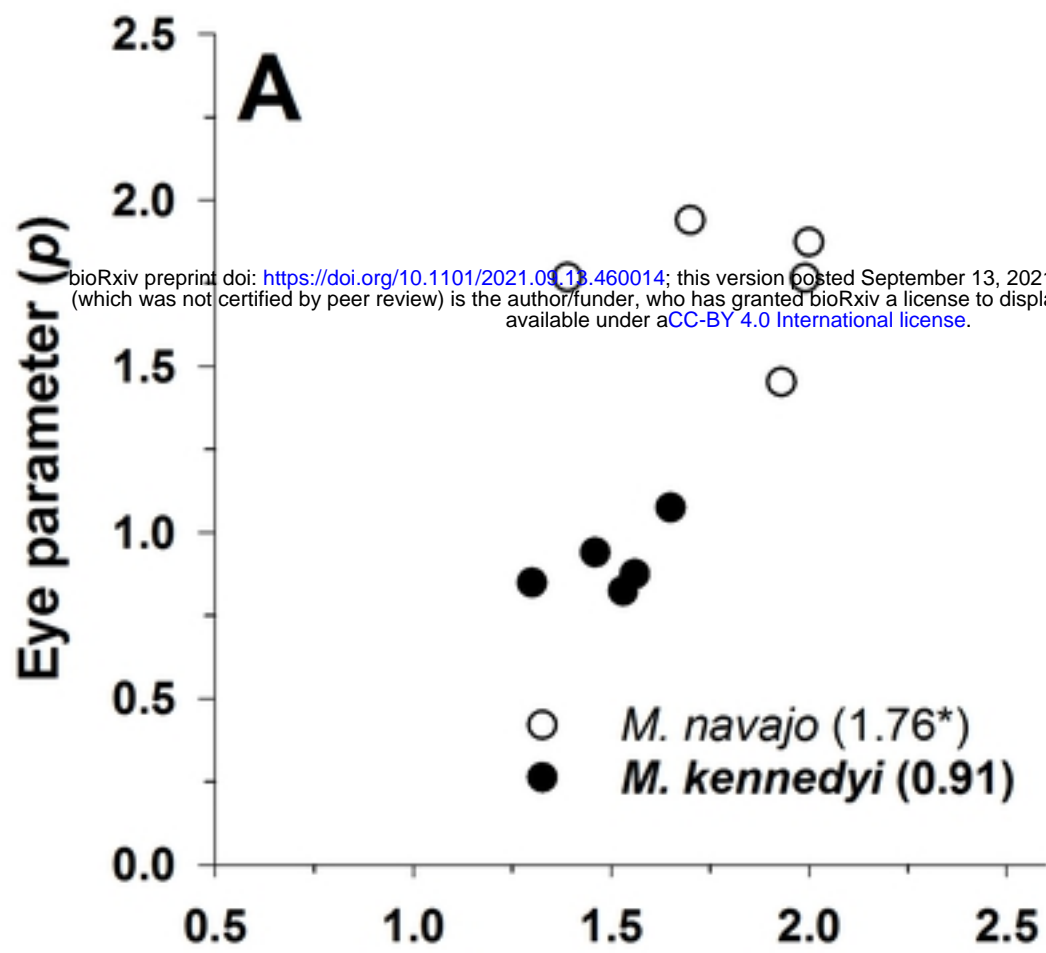


Figure 12

bioRxiv preprint doi: <https://doi.org/10.1101/2021.09.13.460014>; this version posted September 13, 2021. The copyright holder for this preprint (which was not certified by peer review) is the author/funder, who has granted bioRxiv a license to display the preprint in perpetuity. It is made available under aCC-BY 4.0 International license.

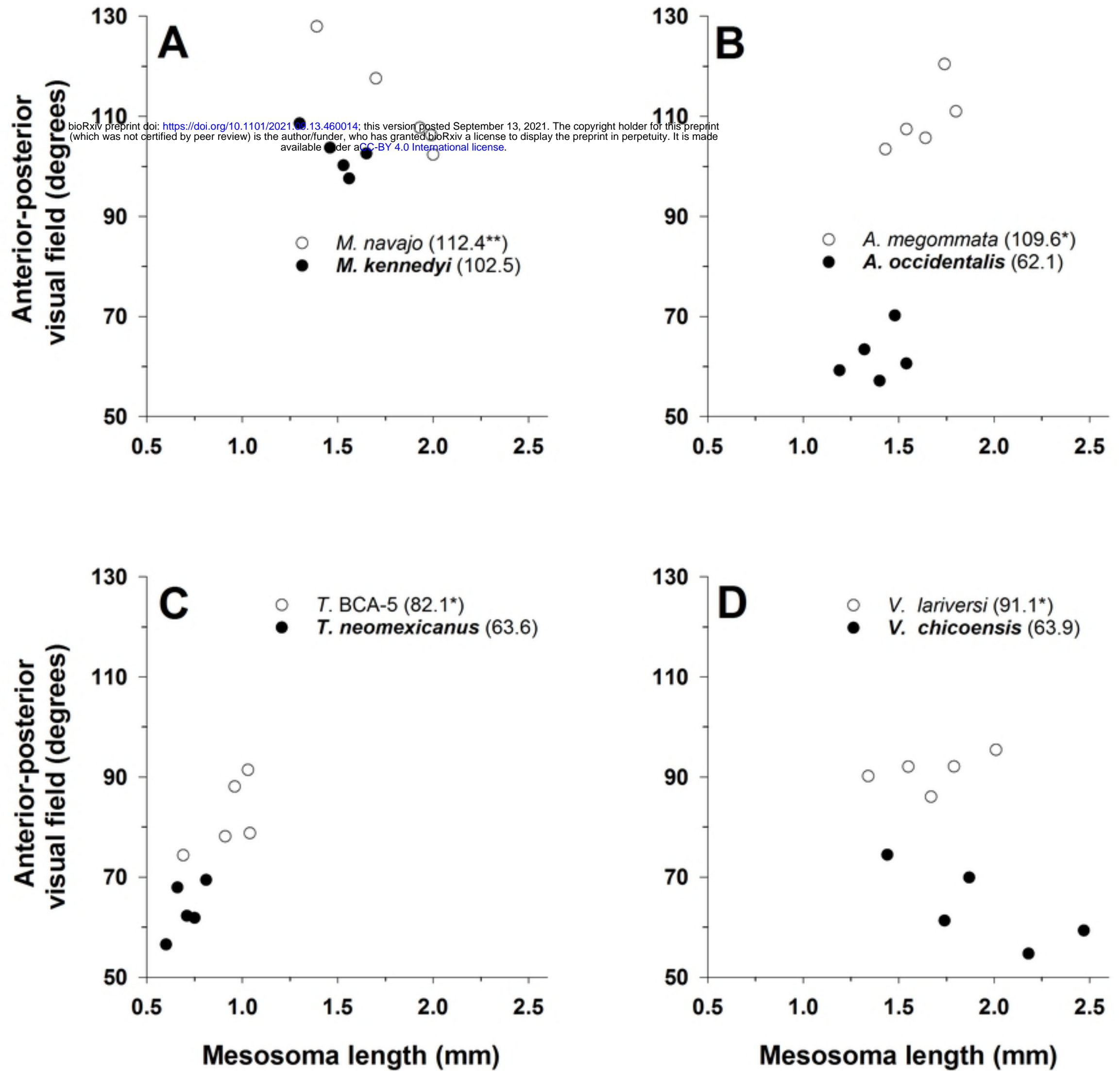


Figure 13

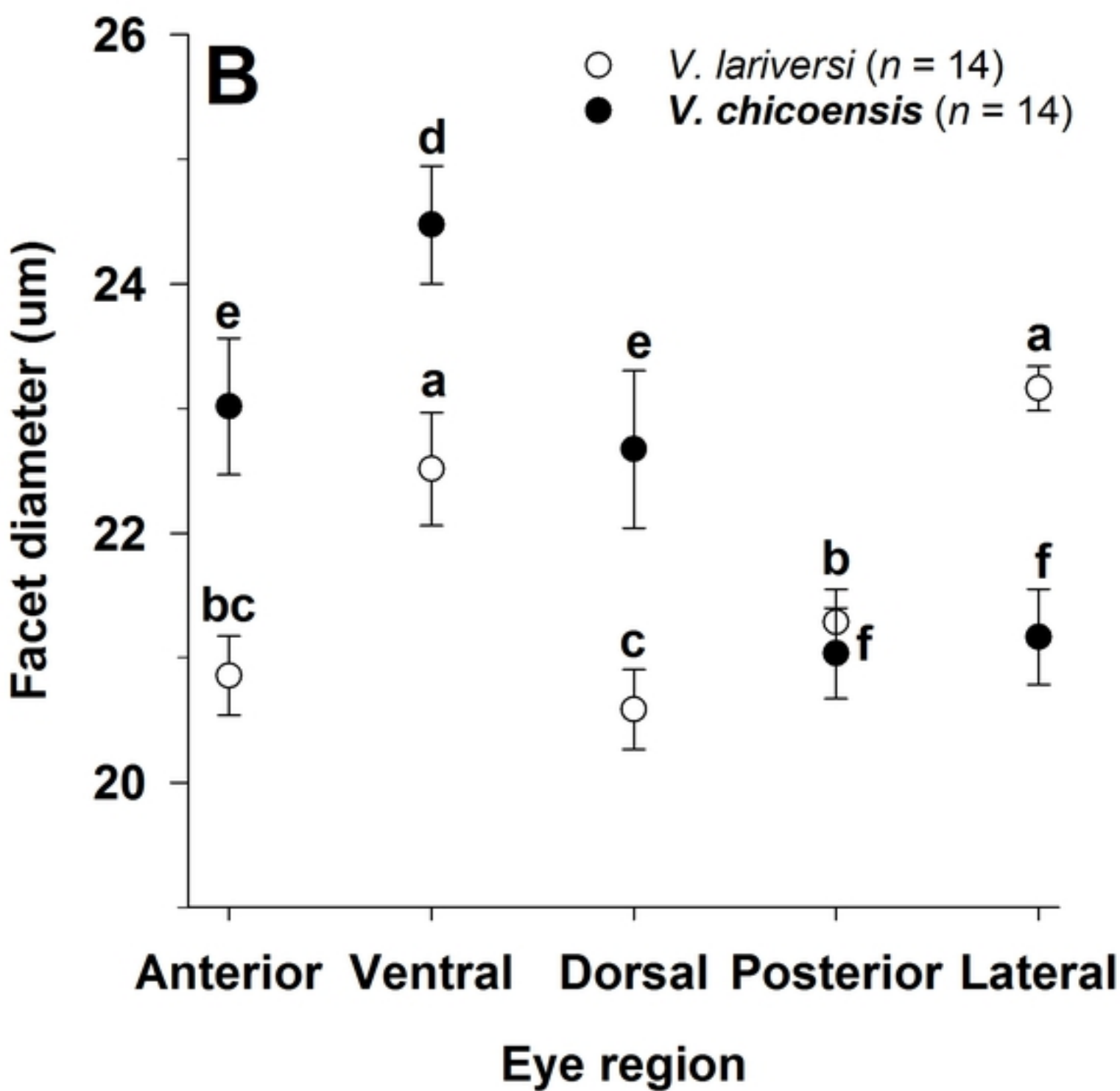
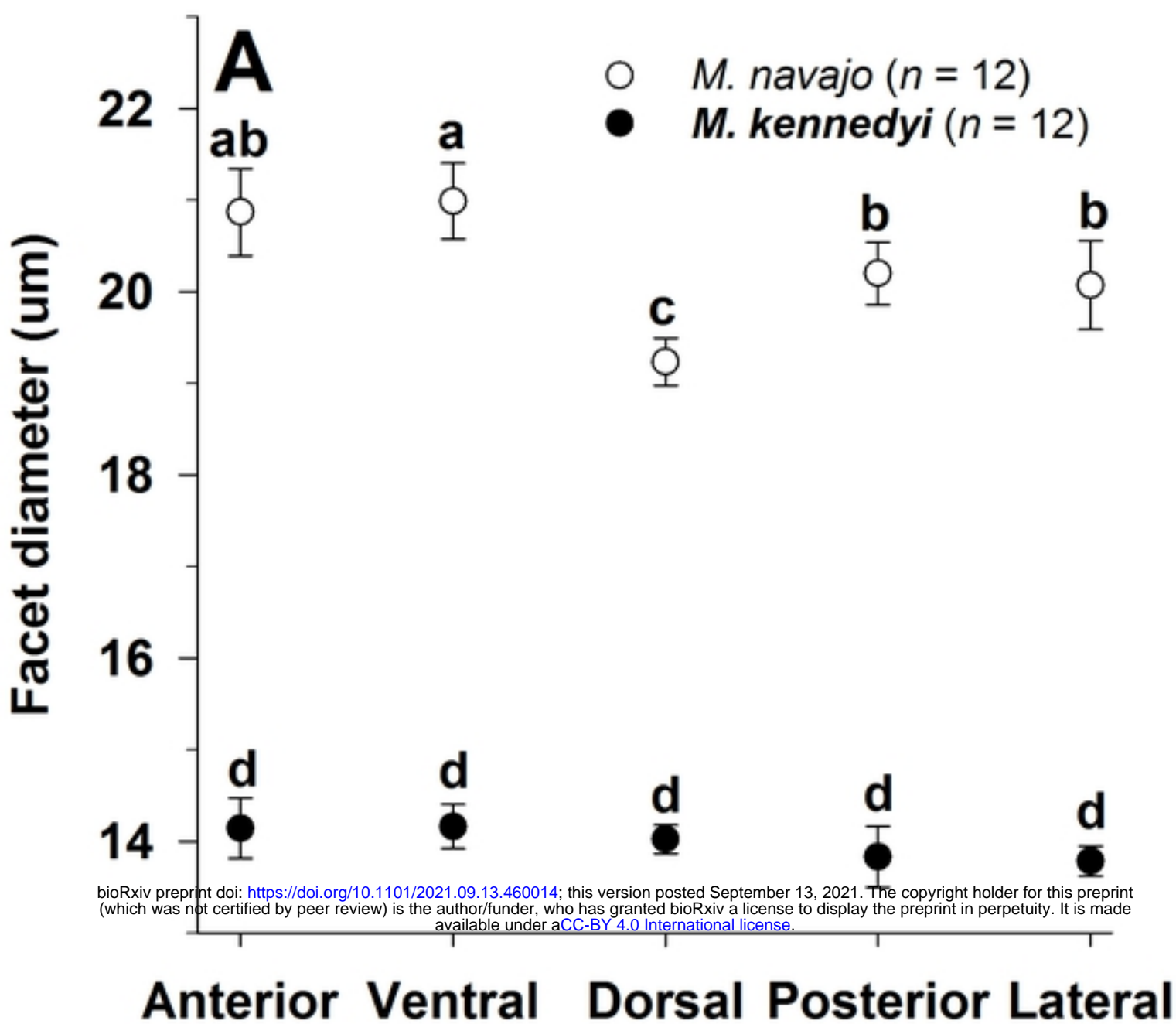


Figure 14