

Visible and near infrared radiation may be transmitted or absorbed differently by beetle elytra according to habitat preference

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Background: The exoskeleton of an insect could be an important factor in the success of its evolutionary process. This reaches its maximum expression in beetles, which constitute the most diversified animal taxon. The involvement in the management of environmental radiation could be one of the most important functions of the exoskeleton due to the passive contributions to the thermoregulation of body temperature. We study whether the elytra of two sympatric and closely related beetle species respond differentially to the radiation of distinct wavelengths in agreement with their ecological preferences.

Methods: *Onthophagus coenobita* (Herbst) and *O. medius* (Kugelaan) occupy different habitats and environmental conditions (shaded versus unshaded from solar radiation). The potential adaptive variations to thermoregulation under these different ecological conditions were studied using the responses of their exoskeletons to radiation of different wavelengths (ultraviolet, visible and near-infrared). For these two species, the amounts of the three wavelengths that were reflected, transmitted or absorbed by the exoskeleton were measured using a spectrophotometer. In addition, the darkness and thickness of the elytra were examined to determine whether these two features influence the management of radiation by the exoskeleton. **Results:** Both species differ in the management of visible and near-infrared radiation. In agreement with habitat preferences, the species inhabiting shaded conditions would allow infrared and visible radiation to penetrate the elytra more easily to heat internal body parts, while the elytra of the heliophilous species would have increased absorbance of these same types of radiation. An increase in body size (and therefore in elytron thickness) and the quantity of dark spots may serve as barriers against exogenous heat gain. However, the maintenance of between-species differences independent of the effects of these two morphological features led us to suspect that an unconsidered elytron characteristic may also be affecting these differences. **Discussion:** The results of the involvement of the exoskeleton

thickness and spots in the thermoregulation of insects opens new research lines to obtain a better understanding of the function of the exoskeleton as a passive thermoregulation in Coleoptera.

1 **Visible and near-infrared radiation may be transmitted or absorbed differently by beetle**
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15 Running head: Elytra response to radiations

16

17

18 **ABSTRACT**

19 **Background:** The exoskeleton of an insect could be an important factor in the success of its
20 evolutionary process. This reaches its maximum expression in beetles, which constitute the most
21 diversified animal taxon. The involvement in the management of environmental radiation could
22 be one of the most important functions of the exoskeleton due to the passive contributions to the
23 thermoregulation of body temperature. We study whether the elytra of two sympatric and closely
24 related beetle species respond differentially to the radiation of distinct wavelengths in agreement
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27 and environmental conditions (shaded versus unshaded from solar radiation). The potential
28 adaptive variations to thermoregulation under these different ecological conditions were studied
29 using the responses of their exoskeletons to radiation of different wavelengths (ultraviolet,
30 visible and near-infrared). For these two species, the amounts of the three wavelengths that were
31 reflected, transmitted or absorbed by the exoskeleton were measured using of a
32 spectrophotometer. In addition, the darkness and thickness of the elytra were examined to
33 determine whether these two features influence the management of radiation by the exoskeleton.

34 **Results:** Both species differ in the management of visible and near-infrared radiation. In
35 agreement with habitat preferences, the species inhabiting shaded conditions would allow
36 infrared and visible radiation to penetrate the elytra more easily to heat internal body parts, while
37 the elytra of the heliophilous species would have increased absorbance of these same types of
38 radiation. An increase in body size (and therefore in elytron thickness) and the quantity of dark
39 spots may serve as barriers against exogenous heat gain. However, the maintenance of between-

40 species differences independent of the effects of these two morphological features led us to
41 suspect that an unconsidered elytron characteristic may also be affecting these differences.

42 **Discussion:** The results of the involvement of the exoskeleton thickness and spots in the
43 thermoregulation of insects opens new research lines to obtain a better understanding of the
44 function of the exoskeleton as a passive thermoregulation in Coleoptera.

45 **Subjects** Entomology, Thermal physiology, Ecology, Environmental Science.

46 **Keywords** Spectrophotometry, global radiation, thermoregulation, darkness, elytra thickness,
47 *Onthophagus*.

48

49 INTRODUCTION

50 The radiation emitted by the sun can be considered the ultimate cause of the functioning of
51 biogeochemical cycles in nature, and the flux of energy created by this radiation is a decisive
52 force that conditions the behavioural, ecological, morphological, metabolic and physiological
53 characteristics of living organisms (*Hessen, 2008; Angilletta, 2009*). This phenomenon is
54 especially true for the animals, such as insects, that depend on radiation and external
55 temperatures to warm their internal parts, thus enhancing metabolic processes and increasing
56 evolutionary rates (*Brown et al., 2004*).

57 The development of an external skeleton that protects and supports internal body parts is
58 an essential feature of Coleoptera, which is the most diversified animal group on Earth
59 (*Chapman, 2009*) and originated during the early Permian period (*Zhang et al., 2018*). Among
60 the many functions attributed to the exoskeleton of Coleoptera (*Vincent & Wegst, 2004; Gorb,*
61 *2013*), some authors suggest that its structure and colour may help in controlling temperature
62 (*Mikhailov, 2001; Ishay et al., 2003; Gross et al., 2004; Clusella-Trullas et al., 2007; Davis et*
63 *al., 2008; Drotz et al. 2010; Roulin, 2014; Schweiger & Beirkuhnlein, 2016*). In a series of recent
64 studies carried out on specimens of different species belonging to the Geotrupinae and
65 Scarabaeinae subfamilies (Coleoptera, Scarabaeoidea), the existence of "passive
66 thermoregulation" without associated energetic costs was proposed as a consequence of the
67 interaction of the exoskeleton with different types of electromagnetic radiation (*Carrascal et al.,*
68 *2017; Amore et al., 2017; Alves et al., 2018*). The obtained evidence indicates that there are
69 interspecific differences in internal body temperatures when dry specimens are exposed dorsally
70 to simulated sunlight (*Amore et al., 2017*), and that these internal temperatures are lower when
71 these specimens are exposed to infrared radiation (*Carrascal et al., 2017; Amore et al., 2017*).

72 Thus, this temperature increase probably results from the transmittance and/or absorbance of
73 non-infrared wavelengths by the dorsal cuticle. The elytra of these species may absorb most of
74 the highly energetic radiation from the ultraviolet and visible parts of the spectrum and convert it
75 into body heat (*Alves et al., 2018, Pavlovic et al., 2018*). All these results suggest that the beetle
76 exoskeleton may allow for the "passive thermoregulation" of body temperatures. As the optima
77 body temperatures of individuals may tend to match the temperatures experienced in the
78 environmental conditions where they occur (*Bozinovic et al., 2011; Deatherage et al., 2017*), it
79 can be hypothesized that differences in the structures and colours of exoskeletons may help
80 explain the ecological and biogeographical characteristics of these organisms, as well as to
81 understand their responses to climatic changes.

82 In this study, the reflectance, transmittance and absorbance of elytra to different
83 wavelengths of electromagnetic radiation are examined in two phylogenetically close
84 Scarabaeinae species that are locally sympatric and diurnal but differ in their environmental
85 preferences (shaded vs. open habitats). The main aim of this comparison is to verify whether
86 there might be a correspondence between the general environmental preferences of these two
87 species and their capacity to reflect, absorb or transmit radiation of different wavelengths.
88 Specifically, it is hypothesized that species inhabiting shaded conditions would be associated
89 with a higher capacity for elytra transmittance mainly in the infrared range, while heliophilous
90 species should have elytra that are able to cope with a high level of direct sunlight to minimize
91 the risk of overheating. We additionally aim to discern whether these possible interspecific
92 differences in the management of radiation can be attributed solely to differences in body mass
93 and darkness or if, alternatively, any other exoskeletal characteristic could be involved in the
94 thermoregulation mechanism.

95

96 **MATERIAL & METHODS**97 **Studied species**

98 Individuals of *Onthophagus (Palaeonthophagus) coenobita* (Herbst, 1783) and *Onthophagus*
99 *(Palaeonthophagus) medius* (Kugelann, 1792) were used in this study. The used specimens of
100 these two species were collected within the El Ventorrillo field station with the required
101 permissions. The used specimens *O. medius* is a recently proposed taxa (Rössner *et al.*, 2010)
102 that is very similar to *O. vacca* (Linnaeus, 1767) and can be accurately differentiated by using
103 mitochondrial DNA sequences and, to a lesser extent, by some subtle and overlapping
104 morphological characters among which elytra darkness stands out (Roy *et al.*, 2016). In our case,
105 all the studied specimens were carefully selected according to non-overlapping morphological
106 character states (Roy *et al.*, 2016), thus the specimens were unambiguously assigned to *O.*
107 *medius*. These two dung beetle species (Coleoptera; Scarabaeidae) are widely distributed across
108 the Palaearctic region. *O. coenobita* has a geographical distribution ranging from Spain to
109 Sweden and from Belgium to Turkmenistan. Although the knowledge of the geographic
110 distribution of *O. medius* is limited, the available data suggest that *O. vacca* and *O. medius*
111 overlap extensively in their distributions, although *O. medius* is assumed to be absent in North
112 Africa and present from Spain to Finland and Russia and from Great Britain to Kazakhstan
113 (Rössner *et al.*, 2010; Roy *et al.*, 2016).

114 Different studies (Villalba *et al.* 2002; Roggero *et al.*, 2017; Rössner *et al.*, 2010; Roy *et*
115 *al.*, 2016) agree on the phylogenetic closeness of *O. coenobita* and *O. vacca* and therefore
116 between *O. coenobita* and *O. medius*. Both species also show clear ecological differences; *O.*
117 *coenobita* is frequently reported to be associated with forests and shaded localities and consemes

118 human dung, corpses and mushrooms, in addition to herbivore dung (Goljan, 1953; Jessop,
119 1986; Lumaret, 1990; Martín-Piera & López-Colón, 2000). Despite the lack of reliable data on
120 the environmental preferences of *O. medius*, the available information suggests that this species
121 has a similar ecology to *O. vacca*, which is associated with open green pastures and the
122 consumption of cow, horse or sheep dung, but with the seasonal activity mainly focused on the
123 warmest spring months (Rössner et al., 2010; Roy et al., 2016). A yearly non-published survey
124 conducted during 2017 and 2018 at the “El Ventorrillo” biological station (Madrid, Spain,
125 Lat: 40.75°, Long = -4.02°, ≈1430 m a.s.l) clearly indicates that these species do not overlap
126 environmentally but may partially coexist seasonally. While *O. medius* and *O. coenobita* do not
127 differ in their general midday daily activity, *O. coenobita* shows a marked preference for
128 woodland sites. Adults of *O. coenobita* are also active at higher air temperatures (approximately
129 21.8 °C) than those of *O. medius* (approximately 16.8°C), which is basically due to the early
130 seasonal occurrence of *O. medius* (mean seasonal occurrence around 11 May) compared with *O.*
131 *coenobita* (mean seasonal occurrence around 7 June).

132

133 **Body measurements and spectrophotometric analysis**

134 Ten individuals of each of the two taxa preserved in 70% ethanol were randomly selected from a
135 collection of 4,502 dung beetles belonging to 53 species collected at the “El Ventorrillo”
136 biological station during 2012-2013 (collection deposited in the Museo Nacional de Ciencias
137 Naturales of Madrid). After drying, each specimen was weighed using a Tx423L Shimadzu®
138 balance with a precision of 0.001 g. Subsequently, the left elytron of each specimen was
139 carefully removed with tweezers (Fig. 1) and mounted on black vinyl to estimate their
140 reflectance. The total area of each elytron and the proportion with dark spots were calculated

141 using ImageJ 1.52i software (Schneider et al., 2012; see Fig. 1). The area of the
142 spectrophotometer light beam falling perpendicular to the surface of the elytron was 10.89 mm²,
143 thus the beam practically covered the entire area of the elytron (see supplementary data).
144 However, when the area of the elytron was slightly smaller than the area of the light beam, the
145 obtained reflectance measurements were corrected to subtract the part of the light that fell
146 outside of the elytron by using the following equation: $RE = RT - (Rv * Av)$, where RE is the
147 elytron reflectance, RT is the total obtained reflectance, Rv is the reflectance of the vinyl per mm²
148 for the different wavelengths, and Av is the vinyl area not covered by the elytron (10.89- elytron
149 area). In the case of transmittance, such correction is unnecessary because the elytron is mounted
150 on an opaque metal plate with a hole smaller than the minor size of an elytron (3.301 mm²).
151 The convexity of the elytra can be considered negligible in both species. The thickness of the left
152 edge of the elytron was also measured with a Nikon Measurescope 10 monocular stereo
153 equipped with a Nikon Digital Counter CM-6S (all measurements in mm). Each elytron was
154 measured on three different occasions by two researchers, and their data were averaged.

155 Reflectance (R ; the return of the electromagnetic radiation from the surface of the elytra)
156 and transmittance (T ; the passage of the electromagnetic radiation through the elytra) of the
157 external part of the left elytron (dorsal) were measured with a Shimadzu® UV-2600
158 spectrophotometer in the wavelength spectrum from 185 to 1400 nm (at 5-nm intervals). This
159 spectrophotometer is equipped with an integrating sphere (ISR-2600Plus) that is able to measure
160 the diffuse and specular reflectance of solid samples. In our case, the measurement conditions of
161 the optical system were adjusted to those needed to measure diffuse reflectance due to the
162 slightly rough characteristics of the elytral surface. Before each spectrophotometer measurement,
163 a white plate of barium sulfate was used to correct the baseline. The obtained data covering the

164 complete wavelength spectrum from 185 to 1400 nm were divided into three bands; ultraviolet
165 (UV; 185-385 nm), visible (VIS; 390-745 nm) and near-infrared (NIR; 750-1400 nm).
166 Absorbance (A; the transformation of the electromagnetic radiation received by the elytra into
167 internal energy) was estimated as $A = 100 - (T + R)$ (see *Kinoshita, 2008*). Thus, the values of T, R
168 and A were averaged to obtain only one value for each of the three bands as the response
169 variable to determine whether there was variation among elytra in response to the different
170 wavelengths emitted by the sun. The reflectance and transmittance of the internal sides of each
171 elytron (ventral) were also measured but in only the near-infrared range to estimate the possible
172 capacity of the elytra to reflect or transmit body heat generated by beetles. Each measurement
173 was repeated three times by two researchers (2 species x 10 individuals x 2 sides x 3
174 measurements = 120 measurements for transmittance and reflectance). The three repeated
175 measurements of transmittance and reflectance for each individual were averaged to obtain more
176 stable data that were not dependent on the position of the elytra or the sector sampled by the
177 spectrophotometer. As the immersion of the elytra in alcohol can modify spectrophotometer
178 measurements (e.g., by eliminating cuticular hydrocarbons), the UV, VIS and NIR reflectance
179 and transmittance values of five fresh elytra of *O. medius* were estimated before and after being
180 subjected to an immersion in 96° alcohol for sixteen days. Only the dorsal reflectance in the UV
181 band suggested an effect of alcohol soaking (t test = 2.81, $df = 8$; $P = 0.02$), although the
182 statistical significance of this relationship disappeared when a Bonferroni correction was applied
183 (mean UV reflectance \pm SD; fresh elytra = 2.44 ± 0.18 ; alcohol elytra = 2.70 ± 0.11). If there was
184 a potential effect of the immersion in alcohol on elytra reflectance, we assume here that it was
185 relatively small and similar in the two considered species.
186

187 Statistical analyses

188 Between-taxa differences in elytron darkness (percentage of the elytron area that was dark) and
189 biometric variables (body mass, elytron area, and elytron thickness) were tested by means of
190 Student's *t*-tests considering that these variables follow a normal distribution ($n = 10$ for each
191 species), and the probability levels were corrected for unequal variances, if applicable. Darkness
192 was considered in these analyses because the melanic compounds responsible for darkness are
193 associated with the absorbance of shortwave radiation and the regulation of body heat (*Pinkert &*
194 *Zeuss, 2018*). Because the correlations between the three biometric variables were always
195 positive and high (Pearson *r* values oscillating from 0.83 to 0.96; $P < 0.0001$ in all cases), elytron
196 thickness was selected for further analyses assuming that a greater elytron thickness could
197 negatively affect the transmittance of radiation towards the interior of the body.

198 The variation between species (*O. coenobita* vs. *O. medius*) and between elytron sides
199 (internal vs. external; in the case of only NIR) in reflectance, transmittance and absorbance
200 (response variables) was examined by ANCOVAs using elytron thickness and elytron darkness
201 as covariates. In these analyses, the explanation of the additive main effects was obviated when
202 two-way interactions showed a relevant effect. Type III sums of squares were used to estimate
203 the partial effect of each explanatory variable once the effects of the other variables were
204 controlled for. The obtained standardized partial regression coefficients can be considered
205 unbiased estimates of the relative importance of predictors, even when they are highly correlated
206 (*Smith et al. 2009*). The effects of the species identity factor, including and excluding covariates,
207 were compared because their change in magnitude and/or sign may indicate the existence of
208 influential confounding or suppressor variables able to overestimate or underestimate the effect
209 of species identity (*Legendre & Legendre, 1998; Smith et al. 2009*).

210 The use of P-values as thresholds to discriminate significant and non-significant results is
211 increasingly questioned (Halsey, 2019), which is mainly due to their inability to inform about the
212 rate of false positives (Colquhoun, 2017). As a consequence, we have abandoned here the use of
213 the terms “statistically significant” and “statistically non-significant”, considering P-values as
214 indicators of the strength of the evidence of the studied relationships. Thus, Bonferroni corrected
215 P-values for multiple comparisons (3 wavelength ranges x 3 response variable; $0.05/9 = 0.006$)
216 were considered to identify “strong evidence” of relationships, while relationships with P-values
217 from 0.05 to 0.006 were considered “weak evidence”. We checked for homoscedasticity and
218 normality in the residuals of these models. StatSoft’s STATISTICA v12.0 was used for these
219 analyses

220

221 **RESULTS**

222 **Biometric and colour differences**

223 The average body mass (mg), elytron area (mm²) and elytron thickness (µm) differed between *O.*
224 *coenobita* and *O. medius*, with higher values for the latter taxon ($P < 0.001$, Table 1). The area of
225 dark pigmentation was also lower for *O. coenobita* than for *O. medius* (Table 1).

226

227 **General responses of elytra to wavelength spectrum**

228 The average values of reflectance, transmittance and absorbance across the examined wavelength
229 spectrum for both species and elytron sides (internal and external) are shown in Figure 2. On
230 average, the reflectance values were lower than the absorbance and transmittance values
231 throughout the complete wavelength spectrum, while absorbance was very high in the ultraviolet
232 and visible wavelength ranges.

233

234 The effect of elytron side

235 The interaction between species identity and the elytron side factor was highly unlikely to
236 explain the NIR reflectance, transmittance or absorbance (probabilities higher than 0.30 in all
237 cases), indicating that the effect of the elytra side was similar in the two species (Table 2). The
238 dorsal or ventral position of the elytra did not seem to influence the NIR reflectance values, but
239 strong evidence of the influence of elytra position on transmittance and absorbance existed. The
240 ventral NIR transmittance in *O. medius* (56.4 %; adjusted means) was higher than that in *O.*
241 *coenobita* (45.1%) and lower than those measured from the external side of the elytra (52.5%
242 and 37.5%, respectively). Elytra NIR absorbance also seems to be influenced by the elytron side
243 factor (Table 2) as it was lower in *O. medius* than in *O. coenobita* for both the internal side (30.3
244 % vs 45.8%) and the dorsal side (34.7% vs 53.5%). Interestingly, the addition of covariates in
245 the regression analyses changed the comparative transmittance and absorbance values of the two
246 species (Table 2). *O. medius* had lower percentages of NIR transmittance and higher percentages
247 of NIR absorbance, both dorsally and ventrally, than *O. coenobita* when the raw data were
248 considered. However, this comparative situation was reversed when the effect of elytron
249 thickness and darkness was considered (Table 2).

250

251 The role of thickness and darkness

252 Our analyses support the existence of strong evidence of the role of elytron thickness in dorsal
253 NIR transmittance and absorbance and weak evidence of the effect of this covariate on NIR
254 reflectance and visible transmittance (Table 2). Thus, the transmittance of the NIR radiation
255 decreased and the NIR absorbance increased when the elytron thickness was higher (according to

256 the signs of the standardized coefficients); a thicker elytron thickness obstructed the penetration
257 of infrared radiation but facilitated its absorbance. The effect of thicker elytra in increasing NIR
258 reflectance and diminishing the transmission of visible radiation should be viewed with caution.

259 Darkness seems to be the most influential covariate (*i.e.*, highest absolute values of the
260 standardized regression coefficients), showing strong evidence of being an influential variable in
261 explaining the variation in NIR and visible transmittance and absorbance (Table 2). Additionally,
262 the possibility should not be discounted that darker elytra reduce the reflectance of visible
263 radiations. Thus, darker elytra block the passage of infrared and visible radiation, but they favour
264 the absorption of these types of radiation.

265

266 **Interspecific differences**

267 Our results provide strong evidence that both species differ in the dorsal transmission and
268 absorbance of NIR and visible radiations and weak evidence of interspecific differences in the
269 dorsal reflectance of these radiation types (Table 2). The elytra of *O. medius* seem to have a
270 higher capacity to prevent the passage of these two types of radiation, while the elytra of *O.*
271 *coenobita* would better absorb these same types of radiation when the effect of the studied
272 covariates is considered. Again, the addition of elytron thickness and elytron darkness in the
273 regression analyses reversed the comparative transmittance and absorbance values of the two
274 species (Table 2).

275

276 **DISCUSSION**

277 This research aims to assess whether the characteristics of the elytral exoskeleton may contribute
278 to facilitating the thermoregulation of beetles by differentially transmitting, absorbing or

279 reflecting radiation of distinct wavelengths in correspondence with the environmental
280 preferences of the species. The results obtained in this study support this assumption, although
281 more evidence will be needed to clearly discern the extent of the passive role of the beetle
282 exoskeleton in thermal performance. Thus, although the observed disparities can be associated
283 with biometric and darkness differences, the thermal performance of elytra is consistent with the
284 expectations.

285 Our results agree with those of previous studies (*Carrascal et al., 2017; Amore et al.,*
286 *2017; Alves et al., 2018*) in that elytron reflectance is minimal, transmittance of infrared radiation
287 is very high, and most of the ultraviolet and visible radiation is absorbed by the elytra. All these
288 exoskeletal characteristics are consistent with the requirements of an ectothermic organism that
289 spends a good deal of time in the soil and would need to obtain body heat from the surrounding
290 infrared and visible radiation (see also *Pavlovic et al., 2018*). Thus, elytra seem to be highly
291 transparent to the heat coming from the sun or the environment but opaque to the most energetic
292 wavelengths capable of causing harmful effects (*Beresford et al., 2013*). Of course, this pattern
293 may vary in those insects exposed to the extreme temperature conditions of deserts in which
294 large parts of visible and near-infrared radiation are reflected (*Shi et al., 2015*). On the other
295 hand, and in agreement with previous results (*Alves et al., 2018*), elytral transparency to infrared
296 radiation seems to be slightly higher on the inside part of the elytron than on the outside part,
297 suggesting that the elytra can be slightly more effective at facilitating the removal of body heat in
298 these dung beetle species. In a recent paper, *Pavlovic et al. (2018)* demonstrated that short (1400-
299 3000 nm) and mid (3000-8000) infrared wavelengths, which are mostly absorbed by atmospheric
300 gasses (*Eltbaakh et al., 2011*), can be used to dissipate body heat. Further studies are needed to

301 assess whether the transmittance of these infrared wavelengths is especially high from the
302 internal side of the elytra.

303 As we expected, interspecific differences in the thermal role of the exoskeleton are
304 clearly mediated by biometric and colour characteristics, as exemplified by the effects of elytron
305 thickness and area of dark pigmentation in our analyses. Elytron thickness and especially elytron
306 darkness seem to be particularly relevant in preventing the entry of NIR and visible radiation into
307 the beetle body but also in absorbing these types of radiation. The species with lighter and
308 thinner elytra, which inhabit areas with shaded conditions (*O. coenobita*), would allow these
309 types of radiation to penetrate the elytra more easily to heat their internal body parts. Quite the
310 contrary, the species with darker and thicker elytra (*O. medius*), which inhabited sunny areas,
311 appears to be better able to absorb infrared and visible radiation. These results are in agreement
312 with those of a recently published study on the thermal capacity of the elytra of the saproxylic
313 beetle *Rosalia alpina* (Linnaeus, 1758) (*Pavlovic et al., 2018*), which inhabits the sun-exposed
314 forest along the Euro-Caucasian region. The black patches present in the elytra of this species are
315 also able to absorb visible radiation to heat its body, but the elytra also serve to quickly transmit
316 the infrared radiation to attain thermal equilibrium.

317 The effects of these physical or physicochemical attributes become so important that they
318 may even reverse the sign of the factor representing species identity. This statistical result has
319 been long recognised and is especially frequent when dealing with correlated predictors (*Leamer,*
320 *1975*). In biological and environmental data, the use of non-independent explanatory variables is
321 the norm rather than the exception and not including a valuable predictor because it is correlated
322 with others may imply under or overestimations of the effects of the considered predictors (*Smith*
323 *et al., 2009*). In our case, the inclusion of covariates in the models reversed the comparative

324 transmittance and absorbance values that could be obtained for the two considered species.
325 Therefore, as the species identity factor continued to be relevant when elytron darkness and
326 thickness were considered, it could not be excluded that some additional and unknown morpho-
327 structural differences may also be relevant in explaining the detected interspecific differences in
328 the capacity of the elytra to manage radiations. Notwithstanding the above, caution is required
329 when determining the comparative roles of correlated features such as elytron thickness and
330 darkness. Additional studies are thus needed to cover a broad range of species with different
331 degrees of darkening and elytron thicknesses to better discriminate the comparative roles of
332 biometric and colour characteristics on the thermal performance of the beetle elytral cuticle.

333 The maintenance of the strength of the exoskeleton with the increase in body size may
334 imply increasing thickness both allometrically and isometrically (*Evans & Sanson, 2005; Lease*
335 *& Wolf, 2010*). Thus, an increase in the body size of dung beetles can provide extra advantages
336 in open habitats by avoiding the internal overheating of the body under sunny conditions.
337 Similarly, the darkening of the exoskeleton could be partially considered an evolutionary
338 strategy to diminish heat transmission into the body. This supposition collides with the thermal
339 melanism hypothesis, which predicts that a darker colour may be advantageous in colder
340 environments (*Kalmus, 1941; Schweiger and Beierkuhnlein, 2016, Galván et al. 2018*) but could
341 explain why desert beetles are often dark (Turner & Lombard, 1990). In our case, the darkest
342 elytra seem to make the access of infrared and visible radiations into the body more difficult,
343 also facilitating the absorbance of these types of radiation; however, the elytra do not influence
344 the management of UV radiation. As the transmittance and absorbance of solar radiation may
345 vary between the elytral parts with different colours and structures (*Pavlovic et al., 2018*), the

346 future use of microspectrometry will be recommended to further assess the specific role of black
347 patches in thermal balance.

348 As in the case of body size, the reduced transmittance of near-infrared radiation by the
349 dark specimens of our two considered species may be a strategy to avoid overheating under some
350 circumstances. Considering that more than 50% of the total sunlight incident energy corresponds
351 to this wavelength spectrum (*Stuart-Fox et al., 2017*), the management of near-infrared radiation
352 by the beetle exoskeleton should be considered. In this case, darkness can affect thermal
353 performance due to its effect on longwave radiation, which is invisible to the human eye (*Stuart-*
354 *Fox et al., 2017*). Additional experiments are needed to better estimate whether the elytra of
355 different beetle species differ in their capacities to manage distinct wavelengths and discern the
356 comparative roles of body size and darkness in the thermoregulation of beetles.

357

358 **CONCLUSIONS**

359 The main hypothesis of this research has been that the elytra of two closely related beetle species
360 will manage environmental radiation differentially in agreement with their contrasting
361 environmental preferences. Thus, the results are in line with what was expected because the
362 elytra of the species inhabiting areas under shaded conditions (*O. coenobita*) allow the entry of
363 infrared and visible radiation more easily, while the heliophilous species (*O. medius*) would
364 better absorb these same types of radiation. These differences are determined largely by the
365 thickness and darkness of the elytra, but we cannot rule out the role that other unknown factors
366 could play in these differences. Further and more comprehensive studies are needed to
367 corroborate the role of the elytral exoskeleton as a mechanism of “passive thermoregulation”.

368

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371

372 **ADDITIONAL INFORMATION AND DECLARATIONS**

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376

377 **Competing Interests**

378 The authors declare there are no competing interests.

379

380 **Ethical approval**

381 Beetle collection was conducted with relevant permissions provided by the Comunidad de
382 Madrid (Dirección General de Medio Ambiente), considering all applicable international and
383 national guidelines for the care and use of animals.

384

385 **Author Contributions**

386 Both authors participated in the design of the study, carried out spectrophotometric analyses,
387 participated in data analysis, and drafted the manuscript.

388

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Table 1 (on next page)

Morphometric values of *Onthophagus coenobita* and *O. medius*.

Mean and standard deviation (sd) of the considered darkness and biometrical variables among *O. coenobita* (N=10) and *O. medius* (N=10) specimens. Student's *t*-tests, corrected for unequal variances, were used to establish statistical differences in these parameters between the two species.

1 **Table 1:**

2 **Morphometric values of *Onthophagus coenobita* and *O. medius*.** Mean and standard deviation
 3 (sd) of the considered darkness and biometrical variables among *O. coenobita* (N=10) and *O.*
 4 *medius* (N=10) specimens. Student's *t*-tests, corrected for unequal variances, were used to
 5 establish statistical differences in these parameters between the two species.

	<i>O. coenobita</i>		<i>O. medius</i>		<i>t</i>	P
	mean	sd	mean	sd		
Body mass (mg)	52.70	12.68	104.90	33.43	4.62	<0.001
Elytral area (mm ²)	8.79	1.35	13.11	1.94	5.78	<0.001
Elytral thickness (μm)	82.10	7.52	100.10	9.90	4.58	<0.001
% Darkness	3.68	1.83	24.59	5.20	12.00	<0.001

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Table 2 (on next page)

ANCOVAs results using species identity (*Onthophagus coenobita* and *O. medius*) and elytron side as factors and elytron thickness and elytron darkness as covariates to estimate its effects on reflectance (R), transmittance (T) and absorbance (A)

β are the standardized regression coefficients obtained in the regression analyses representing the comparative magnitude and sign of the predictor variables. Results including elytron side and the interaction species x side are only estimated in the case of NIR (β is negative if the average of the internal side is higher than that for the external side). In the case of the species factor β is negative if the average of *O. medius* is higher than that for *O. coenobita*. Those relationships showing P-values equal or lower than a Bonferroni corrected P-value for multiple comparisons ($0.05/9=0.006$) are considered as “strong evidences” (in underlined bold), while relationships with P-values from 0.05 to 0.006 are considered as “weak evidences” (in bold). The two first columns represent average dorsal R, T or A percentages for each species taking into account raw data (first figure) and adjusted means taking into account the effect of the covariates estimated considering that the effect of the covariates is zero in the two species (second figure).

1 **Table 2:**

2 **ANCOVAs results using species identity (*Onthophagus coenobita* and *O. medius*) and**
3 **elytron side as factors and elytron thickness and elytron darkness as covariates to estimate**
4 **its effects on reflectance (R), transmittance (T) and absorbance (A) for three different**
5 **wavelength ranges (NIR = near infrared from 750 to 1400 nm; VIS= visible from 390 to 745**
6 **nm; and UV = ultraviolet from 185 to 385 nm). β are the standardized regression coefficients**
7 **obtained in the regression analyses representing the comparative magnitude and sign of the**
8 **predictor variables. Results including elytron side and the interaction species x side are only**
9 **estimated in the case of NIR (β is negative if the average of the internal side is higher than that**
10 **for the external side). In the case of the species factor β is negative if the average of *O. medius* is**
11 **higher than that for *O. coenobita*. Those relationships showing P-values equal or lower than a**
12 **Bonferroni corrected P-value for multiple comparisons ($0.05/9=0.006$) are considered as “strong**
13 **evidences” (in underlined bold), while relationships with P-values from 0.05 to 0.006 are**
14 **considered as “weak evidences” (in bold). The two first columns represent average dorsal R, T or**
15 **A percentages for each species taking into account raw data (first figure) and adjusted means**
16 **taking into account the effect of the covariates estimated considering that the effect of the**
17 **covariates is zero in the two species (second figure).**

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	<i>O.coenobita</i> <i>a</i>	<i>O.</i> <i>medius</i>	Species	Elytron thickness	Elytron darkness	Elytron side	Species x side	R^2
R-NIR	10.0/9.0	11.8/12.8	$F_{1,34} = 4.41, P=0.04$ $\beta = -0.883$	$F_{1,34} = 5.42, P=0.03$ $\beta = 0.400$	$F_{1,34} = 2.95, P=0.10$ $\beta = -0.722$	$F_{1,34} = 0.21, P=0.65$ $\beta = -0.063$	$F_{1,34} = 0.13,$ $\beta = 0.049$	34.12%
T-NIR	46.4/37.5	43.5/52.5	$F_{1,34} = 12.85,$ $\beta = -0.973$	$F_{1,34} = 29.76,$ $\beta = -0.605$	$F_{1,34} = 14.53,$ $\beta = -1.031$	$F_{1,34} = 22.74,$ $\beta = -0.428$	$F_{1,34} = 2.31,$ $\beta = -0.136$	72.61%
A-NIR	43.6/53.5	44.7/34.7	$F_{1,34} = 15.23,$ $\beta = 1.261$	$F_{1,34} = 12.36,$ $\beta = 0.465$	$F_{1,34} = 15.33,$ $\beta = 1.264$	$F_{1,34} = 17.35,$ $\beta = 0.445$	$F_{1,34} = 1.23,$ $\beta = 0.118$	61.14%
R-VIS	4.2/3.1	4.7/5.8	$F_{1,16} = 6.10, P=0.03$ $\beta = -1.519$	$F_{1,16} = 0.99, P=0.33$ $\beta = 0.250$	$F_{1,16} = 5.63, P=0.03$ $\beta = -1.458$			33.78%
T-VIS	17.0/9.0	14.0/22.0	$F_{1,16} = 9.69, P=0.007$ $\beta = -1.470$	$F_{1,16} = 5.85, P=0.03$ $\beta = -0.467$	$F_{1,16} = 12.01,$ $\beta = -1.636$			60.94%
A-VIS	78.8/87.9	81.3/72.2	$F_{1,16} = 11.93,$ $\beta = 1.674$	$F_{1,16} = 3.92, P=0.06$ $\beta = 0.393$	$F_{1,16} = 14.10,$ $\beta = 1.819$			58.85%
R-UV	1.8/1.9	2.5/2.5	$F_{1,16} = 1.63, P=0.22$ $\beta = -0.611$	$F_{1,16} = 0.51, P=0.49$ $\beta = 0.139$	$F_{1,16} = 0.03, P=0.87$ $\beta = 0.078$			59.94%
T-UV	1.1/0.4	2.2/2.9	$F_{1,16} = 0.83, P=0.38$ $\beta = -0.652$	$F_{1,16} = 0.17, P=0.68$ $\beta = -0.122$	$F_{1,16} = 0.22, P=0.66$ $\beta = -0.324$			10.02%
A-UV	97.0/97.7	95.3/94.7	$F_{1,16} = 1.24, P=0.28$ $\beta = 0.752$	$F_{1,16} = 0.09, P=0.76$ $\beta = 0.085$	$F_{1,16} = 0.18, P=0.67$ $\beta = 0.290$			20.01%

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Figure 1

Habitus and elytra of *Onthophagus coenobita* (A) and *O. medius* (B).

The left elytra was removed, showing coloured external and pale internal sides.

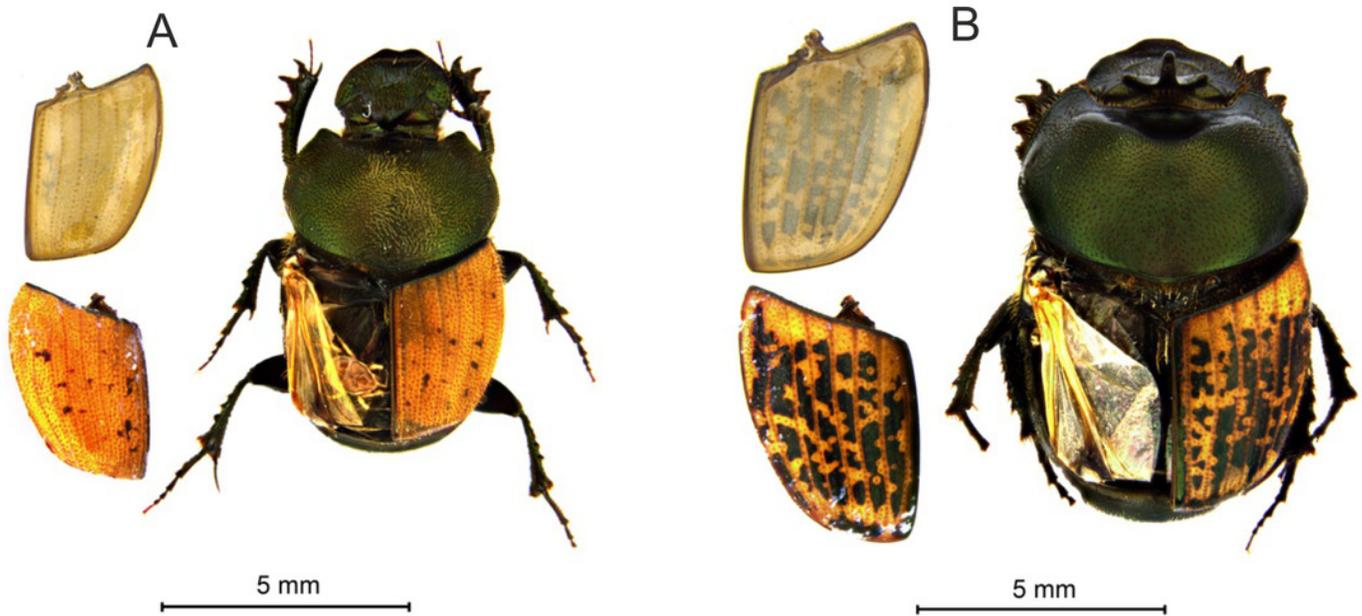


Figure 2

Spectrophotometric graphs.

Mean absorbance (ABS), transmittance (TRA) and reflectance (REF) from 185 to 1400 nm of ten individuals of *O. coenobita* (A, B) and *O. medius* (C, D), both for the external (A, C) and the internal sides of the elytra (B, D). The comparison between the two species was facilitated by including a thin broken line representing the transmittance pattern of *O. medius* in the plot of *O. coenobita*. The peak observed at 830 nm is due to the automatic detector change wavelength (the photomultiplier and the InGaAs detector).

