

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.

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15 Running head: Elytra response to radiations

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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.

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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*). First, heating experiments under controlled
69 conditions on dried specimens of 13 species of Palearctic Geotrupidae (*Carrascal et al., 2017*)
70 and seven Neotropical Scarabaeinae species (*Amore et al., 2017*) were carried out. The evidence
71 obtained in these studies suggested that there are interspecific differences in internal body

72 temperatures when these specimens are exposed dorsally to simulated sunlight (*Amore et al.*,
73 2017), and also that these internal temperatures are lower when these specimens are exposed to
74 infrared radiation (*Carrascal et al.*, 2017; *Amore et al.*, 2017). In a subsequent step (*Alves et al.*,
75 2018), a spectrophotometric analysis was used to examine if the reflectance, transmittance and
76 absorbance of the elytra exoskeleton to different wavelengths (ultraviolet, visible and near-
77 infrared) could help to explain the obtained patterns in the internal body heat of the beetles (what
78 can be the main source of body heat?). Thus, analysing the elytra of five Neotropical
79 Scarabaeinae species of the genus *Canthon* a similar spectrophotometric pattern was obtained:
80 the light from shorter wavelengths is almost entirely absorbed by the elytra, while radiation from
81 longer wavelengths can mostly pass through the elytra. Consequently, this temperature increase
82 probably results from the transmittance and/or absorbance of non-infrared wavelengths by the
83 dorsal cuticle. The elytra of these species could absorb most of the highly energetic radiation
84 from the ultraviolet and visible parts of the spectrum and convert it into body heat (*Alves et al.*,
85 2018, *Pavlovic et al.*, 2018). All these results suggest that the beetle exoskeleton may allow for
86 the "passive thermoregulation" of body temperatures. As the optima body temperatures of
87 individuals may tend to match the temperatures experienced in the environmental conditions
88 where they occur (*Bozinovic et al.*, 2011; *Deatherage et al.*, 2017), it can be hypothesized that
89 differences in the structures and colours of exoskeletons may help explain the ecological and
90 biogeographical characteristics of these organisms, as well as to understand their responses to
91 climatic changes.

92 In this study, the reflectance, transmittance and absorbance of elytra to different
93 wavelengths of electromagnetic radiation are examined in two phylogenetically close
94 Scarabaeinae species that are locally sympatric and diurnal but differ in their environmental

95 preferences (shaded vs. open habitats). The main aim of this comparison is to verify whether
96 there might be a correspondence between the general environmental preferences of these two
97 species and their capacity to reflect, absorb or transmit radiation of different wavelengths.
98 Specifically, it is hypothesized that species inhabiting shaded conditions would be associated
99 with a higher capacity for elytra transmittance mainly in the infrared range, while heliophilous
100 species should have elytra that are able to cope with a high level of direct sunlight to minimize
101 the risk of overheating. We additionally aim to discern whether these possible interspecific
102 differences in the management of radiation can be attributed solely to differences in body mass
103 and darkness or if, alternatively, any other exoskeletal characteristic could be involved in the
104 thermoregulation mechanism.

105

106 **MATERIAL & METHODS**

107 **Studied species**

108 Individuals of *Onthophagus (Palaeonthophagus) coenobita* (Herbst, 1783) and *Onthophagus*
109 *(Palaeonthophagus) medius* (Kugelann, 1792) were used in this study. The used specimens of
110 these two species were collected within the El Ventorrillo field station with the required
111 permissions provided by the Consejería de Medio Ambiente y Ordenación de Territorio of the
112 Comunidad de Madrid (approval number 10/069528.9/18). The used specimens *O. medius* is a
113 recently proposed taxa (Rössner *et al.*, 2010) that is very similar to *O. vacca* (Linnaeus, 1767)
114 and can be accurately differentiated by using mitochondrial DNA sequences and, to a lesser
115 extent, by some subtle and overlapping morphological characters among which elytra darkness
116 stands out (Roy *et al.*, 2016). In our case, all the studied specimens were carefully selected
117 according to non-overlapping morphological character states (Roy *et al.*, 2016), thus the

118 specimens were unambiguously assigned to *O. medius*. These two dung beetle species
119 (Coleoptera; Scarabaeidae) are widely distributed across the Palearctic region. *O. coenobita* has
120 a geographical distribution ranging from Spain to Sweden and from Belgium to Turkmenistan.
121 Although the knowledge of the geographic distribution of *O. medius* is limited, the available data
122 suggest that *O. vacca* and *O. medius* overlap extensively in their distributions, although *O.*
123 *medius* is assumed to be absent in North Africa and present from Spain to Finland and Russia
124 and from Great Britain to Kazakhstan (Rössner *et al.*, 2010; Roy *et al.*, 2016).

125 Different studies (Villalba *et al.* 2002; Roggero *et al.*, 2017; Rössner *et al.*, 2010; Roy *et*
126 *al.*, 2016) agree on the phylogenetic closeness of *O. coenobita* and *O. vacca* and therefore
127 between *O. coenobita* and *O. medius*. Both species also show clear ecological differences; *O.*
128 *coenobita* is frequently reported to be associated with forests and shaded localities and consumes
129 human dung, corpses and mushrooms, in addition to herbivore dung (Goljan, 1953; Jessop,
130 1986; Lumaret, 1990; Martín-Piera & López-Colón, 2000). Despite the lack of reliable data on
131 the environmental preferences of *O. medius*, the available information suggests that this species
132 has a similar ecology to *O. vacca*, which is associated with open green pastures and the
133 consumption of cow, horse or sheep dung, but with the seasonal activity mainly focused on the
134 warmest spring months (Rössner *et al.*, 2010; Roy *et al.*, 2016). A yearly non-published survey
135 conducted during 2017 and 2018 at the “El Ventorrillo” biological station (Madrid, Spain,
136 Lat: 40.75°, Long = -4.02°, ≈1430 m a.s.l) clearly indicates that these species do not overlap
137 environmentally but may partially coexist seasonally. While *O. medius* and *O. coenobita* do not
138 differ in their general midday daily activity, *O. coenobita* shows a marked preference for
139 woodland sites. Adults of *O. coenobita* are also active at higher air temperatures (approximately
140 21.8 °C) than those of *O. medius* (approximately 16.8°C), which is basically due to the early

141 seasonal occurrence of *O. medius* (mean seasonal occurrence around 11 May) compared with *O.*
142 *coenobita* (mean seasonal occurrence around 7 June).

143

144 **Body measurements and spectrophotometric analysis**

145 Ten individuals of each of the two taxa preserved in 70% ethanol were randomly selected from a
146 collection of 4,502 dung beetles belonging to 53 species collected at the “El Ventorrillo”
147 biological station during 2012-2013 (collection deposited in the Museo Nacional de Ciencias
148 Naturales of Madrid). After drying, each specimen was weighed using a Tx423L Shimadzu®
149 balance with a precision of 0.001 g. Subsequently, the left elytron of each specimen was
150 carefully removed with tweezers (Fig. 1) and mounted on black vinyl to estimate their
151 reflectance. The total area of each elytron and the proportion with dark spots were calculated
152 using ImageJ 1.52i software (Schneider et al., 2012; see Fig. 1). The area of the
153 spectrophotometer light beam falling perpendicular to the surface of the elytron was 10.89 mm²,
154 thus the beam practically covered the entire area of the elytron (see supplementary data).
155 However, when the area of the elytron was slightly smaller than the area of the light beam, the
156 obtained reflectance measurements were corrected to subtract the part of the light that fell
157 outside of the elytron by using the following equation: $RE = RT - (Rv * Av)$, where *RE* is the
158 elytron reflectance, *RT* is the total obtained reflectance, *Rv* is the reflectance of the vinyl per mm²
159 for the different wavelengths, and *Av* is the vinyl area not covered by the elytron (10.89- elytron
160 area). In the case of transmittance, such correction is unnecessary because the elytron is mounted
161 on an opaque metal plate with a hole smaller than the minor size of an elytron (3.301 mm²).

162 The convexity of the elytra can be considered negligible in both species. The thickness of
163 the left edge of the elytron was also measured with a Nikon Measurescope 10 monocular stereo

164 equipped with a Nikon Digital Counter CM-6S (all measurements in mm). Each elytron was
165 measured on three different occasions by two researchers, and their data were averaged.

166 Reflectance (R; the return of the electromagnetic radiation from the surface of the elytra)
167 and transmittance (T; the passage of the electromagnetic radiation through the elytra) of the
168 external part of the left elytron (dorsal) were measured with a Shimadzu® UV-2600
169 spectrophotometer in the wavelength spectrum from 185 to 1400 nm (at 5-nm intervals). This
170 spectrophotometer is equipped with an integrating sphere (ISR-2600Plus) that is able to measure
171 the diffuse and specular reflectance of solid samples. In our case, the measurement conditions of
172 the optical system were adjusted to those needed to measure diffuse reflectance due to the
173 slightly rough characteristics of the elytral surface. Before each spectrophotometer measurement,
174 a white plate of barium sulfate was used to correct the baseline. The obtained data covering the
175 complete wavelength spectrum from 185 to 1400 nm were divided into three bands; ultraviolet
176 (UV; 185-385 nm), visible (VIS; 390-745 nm) and near-infrared (NIR; 750-1400 nm).

177 Absorbance (A; the transformation of the electromagnetic radiation received by the elytra into
178 internal energy) was estimated as $A = 100 - (T + R)$ (see *Kinoshita, 2008*). Thus, the values of T, R
179 and A were averaged to obtain only one value for each of the three bands as the response
180 variable to determine whether there was variation among elytra in response to the different
181 wavelengths emitted by the sun. The reflectance and transmittance of the internal sides of each
182 elytron (ventral) were also measured but in only the near-infrared range to estimate the possible
183 capacity of the elytra to reflect or transmit body heat generated by beetles. Each measurement
184 was repeated three times by two researchers (2 species x 10 individuals x 2 sides x 3
185 measurements = 120 measurements for transmittance and reflectance). The three repeated
186 measurements of transmittance and reflectance for each individual were averaged to obtain more

187 stable data that were not dependent on the position of the elytra or the sector sampled by the
188 spectrophotometer. As the immersion of the elytra in alcohol can modify spectrophotometer
189 measurements (e.g., by eliminating cuticular hydrocarbons), the UV, VIS and NIR reflectance
190 and transmittance values of five fresh elytra of *O. medius* were estimated before and after being
191 subjected to an immersion in 96° alcohol for sixteen days. Only the dorsal reflectance in the UV
192 band suggested an effect of alcohol soaking (t test = 2.81, df = 8; P = 0.02), although the
193 statistical significance of this relationship disappeared when a Bonferroni correction was applied
194 (mean UV reflectance \pm SD; fresh elytra = 2.44 ± 0.18 ; alcohol elytra = 2.70 ± 0.11). If there was
195 a potential effect of the immersion in alcohol on elytra reflectance, we assume here that it was
196 relatively small and similar in the two considered species.

197

198 **Statistical analyses**

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

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

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

231

232 RESULTS

233 Biometric and colour differences

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

237

238 General responses of elytra to wavelength spectrum

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

244

245 The effect of elytron side

246 The interaction between species identity and the elytron side factor was highly unlikely to
247 explain the NIR reflectance, transmittance or absorbance (probabilities higher than 0.30 in all
248 cases), indicating that the effect of the elytra side was similar in the two species (Table 2). The
249 dorsal or ventral position of the elytra did not seem to influence the NIR reflectance values, but
250 strong evidence of the influence of elytra position on transmittance and absorbance existed. The
251 ventral NIR transmittance in *O. medius* (56.4 %; adjusted means) was higher than that in *O.*
252 *coenobita* (45.1%) and lower than those measured from the external side of the elytra (52.5%
253 and 37.5%, respectively). Elytra NIR absorbance also seems to be influenced by the elytron side
254 factor (Table 2) as it was lower in *O. medius* than in *O. coenobita* for both the internal side (30.3

255 % vs 45.8%) and the dorsal side (34.7% vs 53.5%). Interestingly, the addition of covariates in
256 the regression analyses changed the comparative transmittance and absorbance values of the two
257 species (Table 2). *O. medius* had lower percentages of NIR transmittance and higher percentages
258 of NIR absorbance, both dorsally and ventrally, than *O. coenobita* when the raw data were
259 considered. However, this comparative situation was reversed when the effect of elytron
260 thickness and darkness was considered (Table 2).

261

262 **The role of thickness and darkness**

263 Our analyses support the existence of strong evidence of the role of elytron thickness in dorsal
264 NIR transmittance and absorbance and weak evidence of the effect of this covariate on NIR
265 reflectance and visible transmittance (Table 2). Thus, the transmittance of the NIR radiation
266 decreased and the NIR absorbance increased when the elytron thickness was higher (according to
267 the signs of the standardized coefficients); a thicker elytron thickness obstructed the penetration
268 of infrared radiation but facilitated its absorbance. The effect of thicker elytra in increasing NIR
269 reflectance and diminishing the transmission of visible radiation should be viewed with caution.

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

276

277 **Interspecific differences**

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

286

287 **DISCUSSION**

288 This research aims to assess whether the characteristics of the elytral exoskeleton may contribute
289 to facilitating the thermoregulation of beetles by differentially transmitting, absorbing or
290 reflecting radiation of distinct wavelengths in correspondence with the environmental
291 preferences of the species. The results obtained in this study support this assumption, although
292 more evidence will be needed to clearly discern the extent of the passive role of the beetle
293 exoskeleton in thermal performance. Thus, although the observed disparities can be associated
294 with biometric and darkness differences, the thermal performance of elytra is consistent with the
295 expectations.

296 Our results agree with those of previous studies (*Carrascal et al., 2017; Amore et al.,*
297 *2017; Alves et al., 2018*) in that elytron reflectance is minimal, transmittance of infrared radiation
298 is very high, and most of the ultraviolet and visible radiation is absorbed by the elytra. All these
299 exoskeletal characteristics are consistent with the requirements of an ectothermic organism that
300 spends a good deal of time in the soil and would need to obtain body heat from the surrounding

301 infrared and visible radiation (see also *Pavlovic et al., 2018*). Thus, elytra seem to be highly
302 transparent to the heat coming from the sun or the environment but opaque to the most energetic
303 wavelengths capable of causing harmful effects (*Beresford et al., 2013*). Of course, this pattern
304 may vary in those insects exposed to the extreme temperature conditions of deserts in which
305 large parts of visible and near-infrared radiation are reflected (*Shi et al., 2015*). On the other
306 hand, and in agreement with previous results (*Alves et al., 2018*), elytral transparency to infrared
307 radiation seems to be slightly higher on the inside part of the elytron than on the outside part,
308 suggesting that the elytra can be slightly more effective at facilitating the removal of body heat in
309 these dung beetle species. In a recent paper, *Pavlovic et al. (2018)* demonstrated that short (1400-
310 3000 nm) and mid (3000-8000) infrared wavelengths, which are mostly absorbed by atmospheric
311 gasses (*Eltbaakh et al., 2011*), can be used to dissipate body heat. Further studies are needed to
312 assess whether the transmittance of these infrared wavelengths is especially high from the
313 internal side of the elytra.

314 As we expected, interspecific differences in the thermal role of the exoskeleton are
315 clearly mediated by biometric and colour characteristics, as exemplified by the effects of elytron
316 thickness and area of dark pigmentation in our analyses. Elytron thickness and especially elytron
317 darkness seem to be particularly relevant in preventing the entry of NIR and visible radiation into
318 the beetle body but also in absorbing these types of radiation. The species with lighter and
319 thinner elytra, which inhabit areas with shaded conditions (*O. coenobita*), would allow these
320 types of radiation to penetrate the elytra more easily to heat their internal body parts. Quite the
321 contrary, the species with darker and thicker elytra (*O. medius*), which inhabited sunny areas,
322 appears to be better able to absorb infrared and visible radiation. These results are in agreement
323 with those of a recently published study on the thermal capacity of the elytra of the saproxylic

324 beetle *Rosalia alpina* (Linnaeus, 1758) (Pavlovic et al., 2018), which inhabits the sun-exposed
325 forest along the Euro-Caucasian region. The black patches present in the elytra of this species are
326 also able to absorb visible radiation to heat its body, but the elytra also serve to quickly transmit
327 the infrared radiation to attain thermal equilibrium.

328 The effects of these physical or physicochemical attributes become so important that they
329 may even reverse the sign of the factor representing species identity. This statistical result has
330 been long recognised and is especially frequent when dealing with correlated predictors (Leamer,
331 1975). In biological and environmental data, the use of non-independent explanatory variables is
332 the norm rather than the exception and not including a valuable predictor because it is correlated
333 with others may imply under or overestimations of the effects of the considered predictors (Smith
334 et al., 2009). In our case, the inclusion of covariates in the models reversed the comparative
335 transmittance and absorbance values that could be obtained for the two considered species.
336 Therefore, as the species identity factor continued to be relevant when elytron darkness and
337 thickness were considered, it could not be excluded that some additional and unknown morpho-
338 structural differences may also be relevant in explaining the detected interspecific differences in
339 the capacity of the elytra to manage radiations. Notwithstanding the above, caution is required
340 when determining the comparative roles of correlated features such as elytron thickness and
341 darkness. Additional studies are thus needed to cover a broad range of species with different
342 degrees of darkening and elytron thicknesses to better discriminate the comparative roles of
343 biometric and colour characteristics on the thermal performance of the beetle elytral cuticle.

344 The maintenance of the strength of the exoskeleton with the increase in body size may
345 imply increasing thickness both allometrically and isometrically (Evans & Sanson, 2005; Lease
346 & Wolf, 2010). Thus, an increase in the body size of dung beetles can provide extra advantages

347 in open habitats by avoiding the internal overheating of the body under sunny conditions.
348 Similarly, the darkening of the exoskeleton could be partially considered an evolutionary
349 strategy to diminish heat transmission into the body. This supposition collides with the thermal
350 melanism hypothesis, which predicts that a darker colour may be advantageous in colder
351 environments (*Kalmus, 1941; Schweiger and Beierkuhnlein, 2016, Galván et al. 2018*) but could
352 explain why desert beetles are often dark (Turner & Lombard, 1990). In our case, the darkest
353 elytra seem to make the access of infrared and visible radiations into the body more difficult,
354 also facilitating the absorbance of these types of radiation; however, the elytra do not influence
355 the management of UV radiation. As the transmittance and absorbance of solar radiation may
356 vary between the elytral parts with different colours and structures (*Pavlovic et al., 2018*), the
357 future use of microspectrometry will be recommended to further assess the specific role of black
358 patches in thermal balance.

359 As in the case of body size, the reduced transmittance of near-infrared radiation by the
360 dark specimens of our two considered species may be a strategy to avoid overheating under some
361 circumstances. Considering that more than 50% of the total sunlight incident energy corresponds
362 to this wavelength spectrum (*Stuart-Fox et al., 2017*), the management of near-infrared radiation
363 by the beetle exoskeleton should be considered. In this case, darkness can affect thermal
364 performance due to its effect on longwave radiation, which is invisible to the human eye (*Stuart-*
365 *Fox et al., 2017*). However, *Pantelić et al. (2017)* highlight the low capacity of melanin to absorb
366 the infrared radiation in a dusk moth species, which could indicate that the structural component
367 in which the pigment is embedded could influence this response. Additional experiments are
368 needed to better estimate whether the elytra of different beetle species differ in their capacities to

369 manage distinct wavelengths and discern the comparative roles of body size and darkness in the
370 thermoregulation of beetles.

371

372 **CONCLUSIONS**

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

382

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386

387 **ADDITIONAL INFORMATION AND DECLARATIONS**

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391

392 **Competing Interests**

393 The authors declare there are no competing interests.

394

395 **Ethical approval**

396 Beetle collection was conducted with relevant permissions provided by the Comunidad de
397 Madrid (Dirección General de Medio Ambiente; approval number 10/069528.9/18), considering
398 all applicable international and national guidelines for the care and use of animals.

399

400 **Author Contributions**

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

403

404

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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%

22

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.

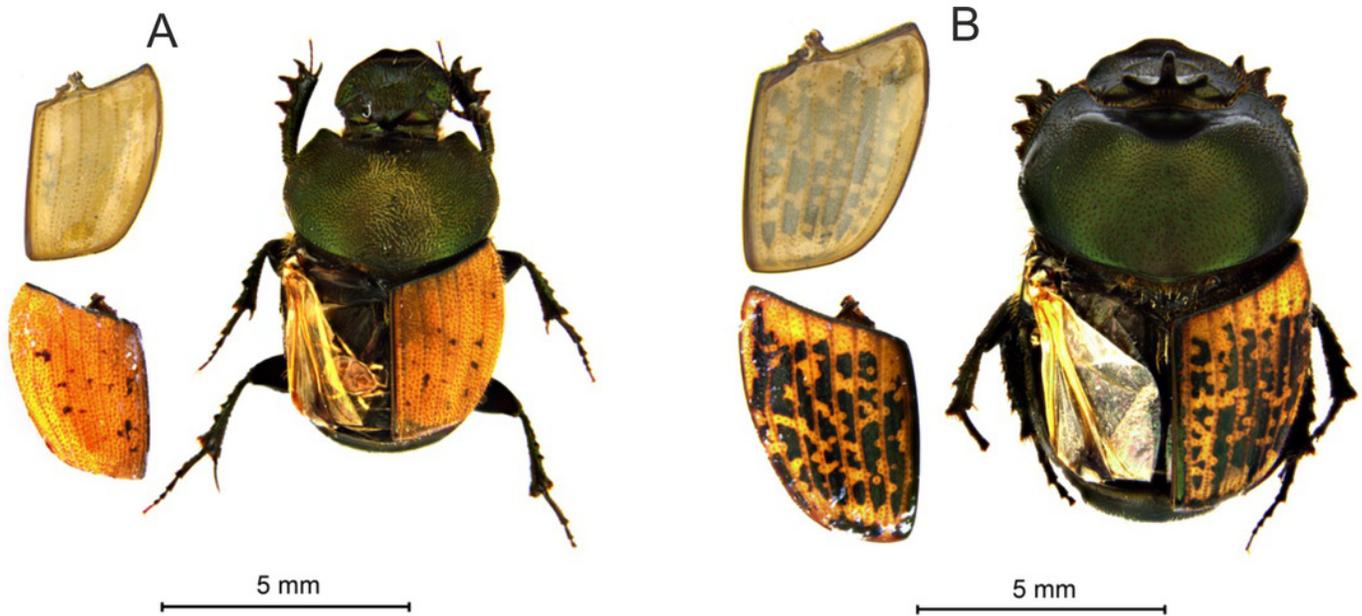


Figure 2

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).

