

Clearwing butterflies challenge the thermal melanism hypothesis

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1 Main Manuscript for

Clearwing butterflies challenge the thermal melanism hypothesis

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26	Main Text
27	Figures 1 to 4
28	

31 Abstract

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33 In contrast to most butterflies harboring opague wing colorations, some species display large 34 transparent patches on their wings. Wing transparency, which entails a dramatic reduction of 35 pigmentation, raises the question of potential costs for vital functions, such as thermoregulation, 36 especially along climatic gradients. The thermal melanism hypothesis posits that darker colorations 37 should be favored in colder environments, which enables them to absorb more radiation and 38 maintain a body temperature compatible with activity. This prediction extends to the near infrared 39 (NIR) range, which represents a large proportion of solar radiation. Here we assess the implications 40 of wing transparency for light absorption and thermal properties in 42 butterfly species from the neotropical tribe Ithomiini that range the extent of transparency, from fully opague to highly 41 42 transparent, and we test whether those species conform to the prediction of the thermal melanism 43 hypothesis. We find that transparent wings are less efficient than opaque wings to absorb light 44 across UV, Visible and NIR wavelength ranges, and are also less efficient to collect heat. Moreover, 45 dark coloration occupies a lower proportion of wing area as altitude increases, and ithomiine 46 species harbor more transparency at higher altitudes, where climatic conditions are colder, going 47 strongly against the prediction of the thermal melanism hypothesis. We discuss these surprising 48 results in light of recent studies suggesting that factors other than adaptation to cold, such as 49 predation pressure, physiology or behavior, may have driven the evolution of wing patterns in 50 Ithomiini.

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52 Significance Statement

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54 The thermal melanism hypothesis predicts that organisms should be darker and absorb solar 55 radiation more efficiently in colder environments. The Neotropical butterflies Ithomiini are unusual 56 in that many species harbor large transparent patches on their wings, raising questions related to 57 their efficacy of solar radiation absorption and heating capacities. We investigate optical and 58 thermal properties of several ithomiine species along a climatic gradient. We find that transparent 59 wings are less efficient at absorbing radiation and collecting heat. Unexpectedly, the proportion of 60 transparent species increases with altitude, challenging the thermal melanism hypothesis and 61 suggesting that factors other than adaptation to cold, such as predation pressure, may have driven 62 the evolution of wing patterns in Ithomiini.

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66 Main Text

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68 Introduction

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Diurnal butterflies are known for the great variety of colors they display. The scales covering their wings produce colorations through pigments (1) or structures (2, 3). Coloration is involved in multiple functions, including intraspecific signaling (4); antipredator defenses such as crypsis and camouflage (5), masquerade (6), aposematism and mimicry (7); as well as thermal adaptation (8). The balance between these selective pressures drives the diversity of color patterns in butterfly wings (9).

In ectotherms, coloration has been shown to play an important role in determining body
 temperature and activity, since the degree of darkness is positively correlated with internal body
 temperature (10). Darker butterfly wings absorb more light, and are associated with longer flight
 activity and larger flight distances in cold conditions than lighter wings (11, 12).

80 The thermal melanism hypothesis (TMH) posits that darker colorations provide thermal 81 advantages in cold environments (13), especially for ectotherms, as dark surfaces are more 82 efficient to absorb heat from the environment than light surfaces. Darker species or individuals are 83 expected to live at high altitudes or latitudes, whereas lighter ones are more likely to be present at 84 lower altitudes and latitudes, which offer warmer conditions. The existence of such melanism gradients has been shown in many case studies, across geographical regions and wide ranges of 85 86 taxa, from reptiles to insects (14-16). However, visible colors represent only a small part of the 87 incident solar radiation reaching the earth's surface. Over 50% of the solar energy lies in the near-88 infrared wavelengths (NIR, 700 to 2500 nm). NIR should then be of particular importance in 89 ectotherm thermal capacities, more than ultraviolet to red (i. e. 300 to 700 nm, hereafter UV-Visible 90 range) (17), since they are not involved in other aspects of their ecology because they cannot be 91 seen by most organisms. Recent studies on communities of European (18) and Australian (19) 92 butterflies confirmed that reflectance in the NIR range is strongly correlated with climatic factors, 93 especially temperature, and more strongly compared to UV and Visible wavelengths. In colder 94 environments, butterflies tend to reflect less and therefore absorb more in the NIR. These findings 95 highlight that optical properties can be disconnected to a certain extent between NIR and UV-Visible 96 ranges. By contrast, no clear trends exist regarding humidity or precipitation and wing darkness. 97 Gloger's rule, which predicts that darker individual should be found in more humid climates, has 98 been evidenced mainly for endotherms with little clear support in ectotherms (18, 20).

In Lepidoptera, few species exhibit transparency on their wings, a feature that has evolved
 multiple times independently (21). Transparency is achieved by a large diversity of wing
 microstructures, including a combination of scale shape or insertion modification, reduced scale

102 size or density, as well as a reduction of scale pigments (21). In many cases, transparency is 103 enhanced by the presence of nanostructures on the wing membrane, which decreases reflection 104 (22-24). Transparency has attracted recent research effort regarding its now-established role in 105 crypsis in various species (25–27), and its involvement in predator-prey signaling in some clades 106 of mimetic Lepidoptera (22). Yet, transparency may come at the cost of other functions involving 107 wing coloration, notably thermoregulation. While thermoregulatory processes are well documented 108 in opaque species, they are largely unknown in clearwing butterflies. A study focusing on wing 109 transparency across the entire Lepidoptera order found that clearwing species tend to transmit less 110 light, and thus absorb more, in high latitudes than in tropical climates, suggesting a thermal cost 111 for butterflies (21). Yet, the actual impact of transparent wing patches on wing thermal properties 112 needs to be investigated.

113 Among Lepidoptera, Ithomiini is a remarkable neotropical tribe of ca. 400 species (28, 29), 114 80% of which exhibit transparency on their wings to some extent. Species are highly segregated 115 along the elevational gradient, from warm lowlands up to colder highlands, as high as 3,000 meters 116 (29, 30). Because wing transparency in Ithomiini is achieved by a reduction in membrane coverage 117 by scales (21, 22), and is therefore associated with a lower quantity of pigments, one might expect 118 those areas to poorly absorb solar light. Previous studies of geographical distribution of Ithomiini 119 wing patterns revealed that the proportion of clearwing species increases with altitude, to the extent 120 that all species above 2000 m have transparent wings (29, 30), contrary to the predictions of the 121 TMH. Yet, this observation is based on the UV-Visible range (22, 29, 30), and optical transparency 122 shown in that range may be dissociated from the absorption properties in the NIR.

Here, we investigate for the first time wing traits relevant for thermal adaptation in 42 transparent and opaque Ithomiini species that represent the diversity of wing colorations, by using Infrared imaging and spectrophotometry. We assess the distribution of these wing traits in relation to the climatic conditions the species are exposed to in a phylogenetic framework. Specifically, we characterize and quantify the optical and thermal properties of transparent and opaque wing patches to investigate two mutually exclusive scenarios:

(i) Absorption compensation: in this scenario, the higher transmission and lower absorption of
wavelengths in the UV-Visible range of transparent wing areas are compensated by a high
absorption in the NIR, and the thermal capacities of transparent wings may be similar to or even
better than those of opaque wings. Under this hypothesis, adaptation to climatic conditions may
drive the altitudinal distribution of wing patterns in Ithomiini.

(ii) *Thermal cost.* in this scenario, the disconnection between wavelength ranges is not significant
 enough, with transparent wings transmitting more and absorbing less in the NIR range than opaque
 wings, therefore, reflecting similar absorption patterns at shorter wavelengths. This results in
 transparency being costly in terms of intrinsic heating capacities. Under the thermal cost scenario,

thermal properties may not be the main target of selection with regard to the altitudinal distributionof wing patterns in Ithomiini.

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141 In addition, assuming that opague patches - even if not covering a high proportion of the wing 142 surface in transparent species – may follow the thermal melanism hypothesis, we tested whether 143 they represent a higher proportion of wing surface in species found in colder climates, a mechanism 144 that could also compensate for poorer thermal capacities of transparency under the thermal cost 145 scenario. The absence of evidence of compensation mechanisms (disconnection NIR from UV-146 Visible range, or increased proportion of opaque patches with altitude) would imply that factors 147 other than wing color patterns, such as behavior or metabolism, explain adaptation to colder 148 highland habitats in Ithomiini.

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151 Results

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To assess the thermal adaptation of Ithomiini butterflies, we examined the thermal and optical properties of the wings of 42 species in relation to climatic conditions. Unless specified otherwise, all statistical tests implemented Bayesian mixed models with Markov Chain Monte Carlo correcting for phylogenetic relatedness, with an associated Bayesian posterior P-value set to 0.05.

157 Wing optical and thermal properties

158 We first tested whether optical properties in the NIR wavelengths were correlated with those 159 properties in the UV-Visible range, and whether those properties differed between transparent and 160 opaque species, as defined hereafter. We measured transmission and reflection spectra on a 5mm-161 diameter spot on one hindwing and one forewing for each specimen, spanning the UV-Visible (300-162 700 nm) and NIR (700-2500 nm). We used the physical principle stating that Transmission (λ) + 163 Reflection (λ) + Absorption (λ) = 1 to compute the total absorption spectra over 300-2500 nm (Fig. 164 4C). The transmission of the patch in the UV-Visible range was set as a measure for the degree of 165 optical transparency. We split the species in two categories: transparent, for which wing 166 transmission was higher than 35%, and opague for the others (Table S1, Fig.S1).

167 Overall, UV-Visible transmission (300-700 nm), i.e., transparency as perceivable by 168 butterflies and predators, was a good predictor of both overall absorption (300-2500 nm) and NIR 169 absorption (700-2500 nm, Table S2, Fig. 1). NIR and UV-Visible absorption were highly correlated 170 (Table S2, Fig. 1), be the species transparent or opaque. More transparent patches absorbed less 171 light than opaque patches whatever the wavelength considered, supporting the *thermal cost* 172 scenario for transparency (Fig. S2). 173 To investigate the thermal capacities of transparent wings and test whether they differ from 174 those of opaque wings, we heated up wings with a flash illumination, and imaged them with an 175 infrared camera to record temperature across the wing and its variation through time (Fig. 4A-B). 176 Image analysis showed that the average heating capacity of the wing spot, represented by excess 177 temperature ΔT (maximum temperature reached after illumination - initial temperature), was closely 178 related to its transparency, as estimated by the transmission in the UV-Visible range (Table S3, 179 Fig. 2). Hence, the more transparent the spot, the less it heated up, in agreement with the thermal 180 cost scenario. ΔT of wing spots was also positively predicted by the mean total absorption of the 181 spot and by its NIR absorption (Table S3, Fig. 2). Therefore, wings that absorbed more in the UV-182 Visible-NIR range or in the NIR range heated up more. In an in-depth exploration of the intra-wing 183 variation in heating capacity, we extracted ΔT on various points on different parts of the wings 184 (veins and cells, i.e., the parts between veins), either in darkly colored patches DP (black to brown 185 colors), lightly colored patches LP (for opaque species only, yellow to orange colors), or transparent patches TP, and on light LV or dark veins DV. A close look at the different areas and structures of 186 187 the wings revealed that dark patches heated up significantly more than any other coloration on the 188 wings, transparent or light (DP>(LP,TP) in Table S4, Fig. S3). Moreover, light patches heated up 189 significantly more than transparent patches (LP>TP in Table S5, Fig. S3). Dark patches heated up 190 more than dark veins (DP>DV in Table S6, Fig. S3), but on the other hand, light veins absorbed 191 more heat than light patches (LV>LP in Table S7, Fig. S3). In all cases, the position of the patch 192 with respect to the thorax, proximal or distal, played a role in predicting ΔT , but this varied according 193 to the color of the patch considered, showing no clear-cut trend (Table S4-7).

194 Wing trait distribution along climatic gradients

195 We tested whether climatic variables predicted the proportion of dark patches on the wings of all 196 the species, as posited by the TMH. We extracted 19 published average climatic variables for each 197 species (29) that included temperature and precipitation descriptors and performed a PCA. PC1 198 and PC2 explained respectively 49 % and 27.1 % of the total variation. Higher PC1 values 199 corresponded to warmer climates, while higher PC2 values corresponded mainly to wetter and 200 more time-stable climates (tables S8, S9, Fig. S4). Pearson's product-moment correlation tests 201 showed that PC1 was strongly negatively correlated with altitude (R=-0.95, N=42, p < .0001), 202 meaning that species inhabiting higher altitude habitats had a lower PC1 value. PC2 did not 203 correlate with altitude (R=0.24, N=42, p=0.12). To test if opaque and transparent species had 204 similar climatic ranges we used the Levene's heteroscedasticity test on climatic variables. We found 205 that opaque species were restricted to warmer environments, while transparent species were 206 ubiquitous and not associated to particular altitudes (F = 110.71, p < .005) (transparent species: 207 mean=-0.27, var=10.56, opaque species: mean=1.08, var=1.09), in contradiction with the TMH. Opaque and transparent species did not significantly differ in their variance for PC2 (F=1.76, 208

209 p=0.19) (transparent species: mean=0.29, var= 3.88, opaque species: mean=-1.89, var=3.45), 210 showing that they did not segregate according to humidity or environmental stability gradients. 211 Overall, climate did not predict wing optical properties. The degree of transmission of the wing spots 212 over the range UV-Visible were not predicted by PC1, with a negligible positive effect for PC2 which 213 goes against Gloger's rule (Table S10, Fig. S5). There was no significant association of spot 214 absorption in the UV-Visible-NIR (table S11) or NIR ranges (table S12) with PC1 or PC2. By 215 contrast, the average ΔT of the whole wing surfaces was positively correlated to PC1 (Table S13, 216 Fig. 3). In other words, species living in warm environments heated up more than butterflies living 217 in colder environments.

218 Across all species, the proportion of dark surface on the wings increased with PC1 and 219 was therefore higher in warmer environments (Table S14, Fig. S6). We found a similar trend when 220 restricting the analysis to only transparent species (Table S15, Fig. S7). We examined whether this 221 proportion varied with climate within the proximal zones alone, because wing conduction could be 222 limited, and a patch was expected to have a greater thermal effect when closer to the body. Again, 223 the proportion of dark surface in the proximal zones increased with PC1 (Table S16, Fig. S8), and 224 was therefore higher in warmer environments, in contradiction with the TMH. The proportion of dark 225 surface did not correlate with PC2, except when considering only proximal zones, indicating that 226 proximally darker wings were associated with more humid habitats. Finally, we found no effect of 227 climatic variables on total wing area, a proxy for butterfly size (Table S17).

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230 Discussion

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232 Thermal properties correlate with optical properties in clearwing butterflies

233 The thermal imaging of Ithomiini wings reveals that opague wings are on average more efficient to 234 heat up than transparent wings. Hence, transparency entails thermal costs, a conclusion supported 235 by the close-up study of the different wing patches, in agreement with the *thermal cost* scenario. 236 The darker the color, the more the patch heats up. Therefore, transparent patches contribute little 237 to wing heat absorption, in line with the long studied link between melanization and heating 238 capacities (31). Consistent with this finding, the optical examination of the transparent wing spots 239 reveals that the low absorption in the UV-Visible wavelength range is not compensated by a higher 240 absorption in the invisible NIR range, and therefore wing transparency comes at the cost of light 241 absorption. This result departs from findings in other organisms where visible reflectance tends to 242 be a poor predictor of NIR reflectance (32). Moreover, transparent spots always absorb less light 243 than opaque ones, regardless of the wavelength considered. This is in agreement with the 244 correlation of the UV–Visible and NIR spectra that has been previously described for transmission (21) or reflection (18, 19) in interspecific studies of butterflies taxa. Yet, veins in transparent
lthomiini species are always covered with melanized scales. Those veins heat up significantly more
than transparent and even lightly colored patches, and likely represent a major part of the overall
wing thermal capacities by providing heat to the dynamic hemolymph flow system to the thorax
(33).

In Ithomiini, absorption decreases in long wavelengths, and is quite low in the NIR for all
 the studied species. An interspecific comparison of the absorption of longer wavelengths (~8-12
 µm), especially infrared radiated by the environment, remains to be carried out as this wavelength
 range is supposed to have greater thermal impact. However, the thermal imaging results clearly
 show that transparent patches are poorer at accumulating heat than opaque patches, suggesting
 an absence of compensation in the far infrared range.

The altitudinal distribution of transparent species contradicts the thermal melanism hypothesis

258 This study confirms the counterintuitive altitudinal distribution of Ithomiini wing patterns (30). While 259 the opaque species are only found in warm climates, clearwing species are ubiquitous and widely 260 distributed, from hot lowlands to the cold Andean highlands. Moreover, among clearwing species, 261 the proportion of opaque patches on the wings decreases in colder environments, i.e. at higher 262 altitudes, challenging the long history of studies supporting the TMH in butterflies and insects 263 e.g.(15, 16, 34, 35), but adding to the observation that TMH does not apply to all taxa or 264 communities. For instance a recent study found support for TMH in geometrids but not in noctuids 265 found in the same study sites (36). Yet, these studies often focus on temperate climates. 266 Neotropical case studies are scarce and show mixed support to the TMH. Two closely related 267 neotropical butterfly genera. Catastica and Leptophobia have a divergent coloration distribution 268 along altitudinal gradients (37), possibly explained by different behaviors and elevation ranges. 269 While body and wing colorations become darker with increasing altitude in Catastica, Leptophobia 270 shows a reversed pattern, similar to that observed in Ithomiini. In the case of Ithomiini, not only the 271 non-conformity to TMH is outstanding, but there is no high NIR absorbance to compensate the poor 272 UV-Visible absorption that would make highland butterflies more adapted to cooler conditions.

The NIR range is expected to be only subjected to thermoregulatory pressures, unlike UV-Visible wavelengths involved in vision. Indeed, NIR reflection spectra of Australian and European butterflies communities are well predicted by climatic conditions (18, 19). In contrast to their conclusions, our study of the absorption properties of wing spots showed that in general, climatic conditions do not predict wing absorption in any radiation range. Moreover, the exploration of wing heating capacities shows that Ithomiini species living in colder environments are less efficient to heat up than species living in warmer climates, adding even more to the thermal cost of transparency. Finally, there is hardly any link between thermal or optical properties and humidity,and as such this study does not support Gloger's rule in Ithomiini.

282 Adaptation to cooler conditions is not the only thermal constraint faced by organisms, as 283 high temperature may also be challenging. Here we found that opague species, which absorb more 284 radiation and have higher thermal capacities, live in environments where they are most exposed to 285 heat. For ectotherms, avoiding overheating (i.e. increasing body temperature above a critical 286 temperature threshold) can be challenging. Butterflies may have physiological adaptations (38) or 287 behavioral adjustments, such as changing the position of their wings according to environmental 288 radiations (33). Information on the metabolism and behavior of Ithomiini in natura would shed light 289 on their altitudinal adaptation, but are currently lacking. In addition, microhabitat variability can 290 result in individuals sharing the same overall environment being exposed to contrasting light and 291 temperature conditions. Microhabitat preferences thus likely play a role in adjusting body 292 temperature (38, 39). However, in lowland ithomiine communities, butterflies with transparent wing 293 patterns mostly fly in the understory, close to the vegetation and out of direct sunlight, while the 294 proportion of species with opaque wings increases with height in the canopy (40). The latter are 295 therefore more exposed to solar radiation, another counterintuitive distribution in relationship to 296 thermoregulation.

297 Transparency under multiple selection pressures

298 Colorations in butterflies, and therefore wing optical properties, are under multiple selection 299 pressures as they are involved in anti-predator defenses, signaling to conspecifics and thermal 300 adaptation, with potential trade-offs (9). Consequently, selection for crypsis and aposematism could 301 be detrimental for thermal capacities (41). Wood tiger moths are a good example of the 302 phenomenon: larvae with large black patches are at a thermal advantage compared to larvae with 303 equally black and orange patches, but the latter display a more efficient aposematic signal (42). 304 Imagoes display latitudinal variation in wing pattern, consistent with the TMH, which incurs cost in 305 the efficiency of warning signals as melanic individuals experience more predation (34). In Ithomiini, 306 the existence and pervasiveness of transparency is surprising given that those butterflies are toxic 307 and harbor aposematic signals. Previous work has shown that transparency in Ithomiini reduces 308 detection and attacks by naïve predators (27). Even though transparent patches are likely part of 309 the aposematic signal (22), transparency may reduce predator learning speed and memorization 310 of prey, as indirectly suggested by the observation that unpalatability tends to be stronger in 311 clearwing than in opaque species (43). Thus, transparency may incur a cost on aposematism, with 312 a trade-off between crypsis and aposematism. A possible explanation for the unexpected altitudinal 313 distribution of transparency in Ithomiini species may be different predation pressures at different 314 altitudes in tropical mountains (44), which may favor crypsis over aposematism at higher altitudes, 315 as observed in Andean arctiine moths or which conspicuousness decreases with height (45). Therefore, the altitudinal distribution of color patterns in ithomiine may be primarily driven by predation rather than climatic conditions.

318 Conclusion

319 In Ithomiini, the altitudinal distribution of wing patterns is unlikely driven by thermal constraints, and 320 goes against the predictions of the thermal melanism hypothesis. Transparent wings have a low 321 absorption of wavelengths in the UV-Visible-NIR range and this comes at a cost regarding heating 322 capacities. Conversely, transparency in these butterflies has probably evolved in response to 323 selection incurred by predation. The results question the critical significance of wing color pattern 324 for thermal adaptation in tropical ectotherms and lead the way to further investigations about 325 metabolic and behavioral thermoregulation, and their relative contributions to climatic adaptation in 326 these species.

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329 Materials and Methods

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331 Specimen sampling, climatic data and phylogeny

332 We studied wings of dried Ithomiini butterfly specimens, preserved in glassine envelops, collected 333 between 2005 and 2018 in south America. We focused on 42 species represented by two or more 334 females to reduce the potential variance due to sexual differences (Table S1). Measurements were 335 taken on one hindwing and one forewing of each specimen. The selected species spanned a large 336 range of wing coloration, from fully opague to highly transparent, and are evenly distributed along 337 the altitudinal gradient and across the phylogeny. GPS data on species distributions were obtained 338 from a database that contains more than 3500 occurrences of specimens of the species studied 339 here (29). We extracted the corresponding 19 climate variables (Table S8-9., Fig. S4) from 340 WorldClim2 historical climatic data (46) with a resolution of 2.5 arc-minutes. Variables were 341 averaged for each species. For the phylogenetic comparative analyses, we used the most 342 comprehensive phylogeny of the Ithomiini to date (28), which comprises 340 out of 393 extant taxa.

343 Spectrophotometry measurements

344 To quantify the extent to which wings transmit and absorb light, we performed spectrophotometry 345 measurements on a spot of 5 mm of diameter on the hindwing and forewing of each specimen. For 346 transparent species, the spot was in the proximal transparent patch. For opaque species, the spot 347 was located on the center of the proximal zone of the wing. Since a wing can reflect and transmit 348 a large proportion of the incident light, we measured both total (specular + diffuse) reflection and 349 total (specular + diffuse) transmission spectra of each patch, with an Agilent CARY 5000 UV-350 Visible-NIR spectrophotometer, equipped with an integrating sphere, over the range 300-2500 nm, 351 which includes ultraviolet (UV), Visible, and near-infrared (NIR) wavelengths. Wings were 352 maintained in a black paper mask with an opening of 5 mm of diameter. Spectra were measured 353 relative to a dark (paper mask without the wings, light off) and to a white reference (Spectralon 354 white diffuse reflectance standard), with the paper mask for reflection, nothing for transmission, 355 light on. The resulting total absorption spectra were calculated for each wavelength λ as Absorption 356 $(\lambda) = 1$ - (Transmission (λ) + Reflection (λ)) according to the law of conservation of energy (Fig. 4). 357 The negative values due to the noise of the signal were fixed to zero with the function fixneg of the 358 package Pavo in R (47), and each spectrum was smoothed with the loess function in R. We 359 quantified mean absorption at different wavelength ranges, in the UV-Visible between 300-700 nm, 360 in the NIR between 700-2500 nm, and the total 300-2500 nm. Mean transmission in the UV-Visible 361 range 300-700 nm was measured as a proxy for animal-visible transparency. We divided the 362 species into two categories, transparent and opague, based on a threshold of mean transmission 363 at 35% in the UV-Visible, matching butterflies and predators' visual perception (Table S16).

364 Thermal measurements

365 To characterize and compare the wing thermal characteristics, we measured wing temperature 366 kinetics following instant exposure to a flash light (Fig. 4B). We conducted stimulated heating 367 measurements on one hindwing and one forewing for each specimen, with a Neewer professional 368 photo system flash lamp N-300W set at maximum power, which emits over the UV-Visible-IR range. 369 Wings were recorded by an infrared camera T650sc 2019 FLIR Systems equipped with a FLIR lens 370 T197-915. Emissivity was set at 0.95. Wings were kept at a constant ambient temperature of 23°C 371 prior to the experiment. We placed each single wing horizontally on a custom grid made of 3 human 372 hair in a frame to minimize contact with any surface, 6 cm below the camera and the flash and 30 373 cm above a table covered with white paper, to avoid background interference with the measure. 374 The flash lasted for 1/800 seconds. We started the recording a few seconds before activating the 375 flash, and let the record run for 10 seconds. Each movie was recorded at 30 images.second⁻¹. From 376 the movies, we extracted the thermal kinetics - temperature as a function of time - of different 377 regions of interest on the wings with FLIR ResearchIR Max software, and more specifically the 378 excess temperature ΔT as the difference between the maximal temperature attained by the region 379 of interest after the flash hits minus the temperature prior to the flash. We extracted mean ΔT of 380 the overall wing surface, mean ΔT of the spot measured in spectrophotometry and finally ΔT of 381 precise points of interest on each wings as follows: 6 points in the dark colored patches DP (black 382 to brown colors), 6 points in light colored patches LP (yellow to orange colors and for opague 383 species only), 6 points in the transparent patches TP (for transparent species only), and 8 points 384 on veins, assigned to a category depending on their color: dark veins DV (black to brown) and light 385 veins LV (yellow to orange).

386 Image analysis

387 We used digital photography to quantify the proportion of dark pigmented surface on the full wings 388 of all the specimens. Melanization in proximal zones of the wing can be of primarily importance in 389 thermoregulation as the zone is closer to the thoracic muscles (8). We also guantified the color 390 proportion separately on the proximal and distal zone of each wing. We set the limit between the 391 zones as the perpendicular line to the middle of the transect line from the wing insertion to its apex. 392 We cropped the photos for each zone considered and the background was filled with green, a color 393 ignored when calculating the color proportions. In R, we used the getKMeanColors function from 394 colordistance package (48) to sort the pixels in clusters according to their RGB values. We set the 395 number of clusters to two, corresponding to mainly dark and brown, versus transparent, or any 396 other light colors in opaque wings. With ImageJ 1.52 (49) we computed the total surface of each 397 wing in mm².

398 Statistical analyses

399 We explored various scenarios linking absorption, transmission, thermal capacities and climatic 400 variables across the 42 species of the dataset (see supplementary materials for model details and 401 results). Because specimens are not independent and the species are related through the 402 phylogeny, we implemented for each test Bayesian mixed models with Markov Chain Monte Carlo, 403 correcting for phylogenetic relatedness, using the R package MCMCglmm (50) and the phylogeny 404 from (28). We controlled for chain convergence visually and with the Heidelberg stationarity test 405 diagnostic function of convergence heidel.diag from the R package coda (51). To get accurate 406 estimations of posterior distributions and avoid chain autocorrelation, we adjusted the iterations, 407 burn-in and thinning for each model to ensure an effective sample size across all parameters of at 408 least 1000. Models were run with a weakly informative prior for random effect and residual 409 variances (V = 1, nu = 0.002) not to constrain the exploration of parameter values. We selected the 410 best model with a backward selection of fixed parameters based on Bayesian P-value of 0.05, 411 within the 95% confidence interval excluding zero. In all the models, species identity was 412 implemented as a random factor. We included all individuals in the models unless specified 413 otherwise.

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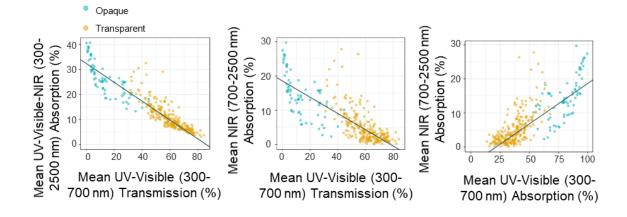


Figure 1. Relationship between absorption and transmission spectra at different ranges: overall
UV-Visible-NIR (300-2500 nm) absorption against UV-Visible (300-700 nm) transmission, NIR
(700-2500 nm) absorption against UV-Visible transmission, NIR (700-2500 nm) absorption
against UV-Visible (300-700 nm) absorption. All relationships are significant and the solid line is
drawn from the prediction of the Bayesian phylogenetic mixed model (see Table S2) (N opaque =
72, N transparent = 235).

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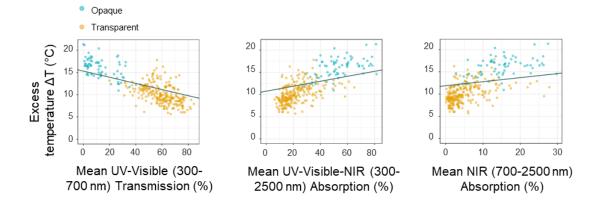


Figure 2. The thermal properties of wing spots represented by the Excess Temperature ΔT (T°final – T°initial) under a flash illumination, extracted from the thermal imaging, against their optical properties at different ranges: UV-Visible (300-700 nm) transmission, UV-Visible-NIR (300-2500 nm) absorption, and NIR (700-2500 nm) absorption. All relationships are significant and the solid line is drawn from the prediction of the Bayesian phylogenetic mixed model (see Table S3) (N opaque = 72, N transparent = 235).

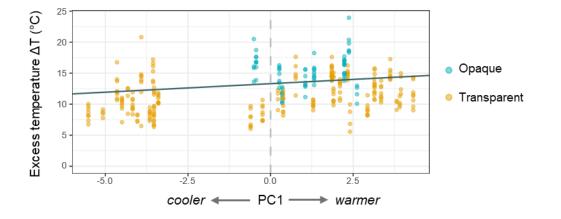


Figure 3. Wings mean Excess Temperature ΔT (T°final – T°initial) under a flash illumination, extracted from the thermal imaging, as a function of climatic principal component PC1. The relationship is significant and the solid line is drawn from the prediction of the Bayesian phylogenetic mixed model (see Table S13) (N opaque = 72, N transparent = 235).

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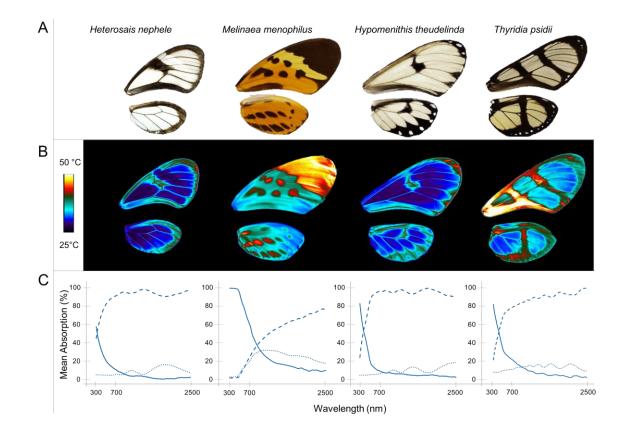


Figure 4. Examples of optical and thermal imaging on the wings of four species of different opacity. A: Photos under standard illumination of the hindwings and forewings of four of the species studied, Heterosais nephele, Melinaea menophilus, Hypomenithis theudelinda, Thyridia psidii. B: Visualization of the thermal imaging in false colors of the same wings under a flash light. C: Corresponding measured transmission (dashed lines) and reflection (dotted lines) spectra in percentage, for a spot of 5 mm of diameter on the proximal forewing of each butterfly, from 300 to 2500 nm, and the resulting computed absorption spectra (solid lines) for each wavelength λ as Absorption(λ)+ Transmission(λ) + Reflection(λ) = 1.