

1 **Title: Relationship Between Inter-individual Variation in Circadian Rhythm and Sociality: A case Study Using**
2 **Halictid Bees**

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18 **Abstract:**

19 The bee family Halictidae is considered to be an optimal model for the study of social evolution due to its
20 remarkable range of social behaviors. Past studies in circadian rhythms suggest that social species may express more
21 diversity in circadian behaviors than solitary species. However, these previous studies did not make appropriate
22 taxonomic comparisons. To further explore the link between circadian rhythms and sociality, we examine four
23 halictid species with different degrees of sociality, three social species of *Lasioglossum*, one from Greece and two
24 from Puerto Rico, and a solitary species of *Systropha* from Greece. Based on our previous observations, we
25 hypothesized that species with greater degree of sociality will show greater inter-individual variation in circadian
26 rhythms than solitary species. We observed distinct differences in their circadian behavior that parallel differences
27 across sociality, where the most social species expressed the highest inter-individual variation. We predict that
28 circadian rhythm differences will be informative of sociality across organisms.

29 **Keywords:** Circadian Rhythms, Halictidae, Sociality, Behavior

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42 files.

43 **Authors' contributions:**

44 All authors contributed to the study conception and design. Material preparation, data collection and analysis were
45 performed by Sofía Meléndez Cartagena, José L. Agosto-Rivera, Carlos A. Ortiz-Alvarado, Claudia S. Cordero-
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48 versions of the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

49 **Significance Statement:**

50 Circadian rhythms differ across solitary and social organisms. One important feature we discovered is that
51 in highly eusocial insects there was a high level of individual variation in circadian activity. We took advantage of
52 varying levels of sociality within halictids and examined the circadian rhythms of multiple members of the genus
53 *Lasioglossum* and of a *Systhropha* species. This work is the first report to link interindividual variation in circadian

54 rhythms with the degree of sociality: interindividual variation increases with increased level of sociality. This study
55 invites investigating the potential role of circadian rhythm variation in social organization.

56 **Introduction:**

57 Understanding the evolutionary link between solitary and eusocial lineages, and their adaptive behaviors,
58 such as those expressed in reproduction and brood care, is a perennial question in insect evolutionary biology (Toth
59 and Rehan 2017). Insects, and in particular hymenopterans, have been useful in observing how sociality is related to
60 other types of behaviors, such as competitor effects (Peters et al. 2017). A potential behavior to be evaluated in
61 relation to sociality is circadian rhythm, as it has been proposed to be governed by demands arising from sociality not
62 only in insects but also in mammals (Mistlberger 2004; Giannoni-Guzman et al. 2014; Beer and Helfrich-Förster
63 2020).

64 Circadian rhythms can be viewed as a biological clock that most living organisms possess. These biological
65 clocks regulate processes such as gene expression, behavior, body temperature, and sleep-wake patterns. Biological
66 clocks follow a rhythm that is approximately synchronized to Earth's 24-hour rotation using signals from the
67 environment called "zeitgebers" or time givers. This process of synchronization needs active reestablishment, and it
68 is called entrainment (Roenneberg et al. 2003).

69 Circadian rhythms have been studied in a wide range of organisms, from plants, invertebrates, birds to
70 mammals (Helm and Visser 2010). The traditional model animal to study this phenomenon is the fruit fly, *Drosophila*
71 *melanogaster*, where biological clocks are described at the molecular level (Dubowy and Sehgal 2017). Although this
72 model has been pivotal to the understanding of circadian rhythms, the lack of genetic diversity in the fruit fly reduces
73 the relevance of the model because it limits questions regarding individual differences in rhythms.

74 Past studies, such as those of Bloch et al. (2001) and Moore et al. (1998), revealed that the rhythmicity of
75 honey bees changed with age. Additionally, Giannoni-Guzman et al. (2020) showed that foragers in the wild display
76 discrete categories that suggest temporal shift work. An earlier study from Giannoni-Guzman and colleagues (2014)
77 compared the endogenous period of three different variants of honey bees (*Apis mellifera carnica*, *Apis mellifera*
78 *caucasica* and *Apis mellifera gAHB*) as well as similarly sized insects from different orders and families. They found
79 that honey bees and paper wasps (*Polistes crinitus* and *Mischocyttarus phthisicus*) had a larger degree of circadian
80 period variation within the population in comparison to *D. melanogaster*. The authors mentioned several possible
81 explanations for their observations, one of them being demands of sociality. In a more recent study by Beer and

82 Helfrich-Förster (2020), they explore this connection further and note that the development of the circadian circuitry
83 varies between a eusocial (*Apis mellifera*) and a solitary species (*Osmia bicornis*). In particular, they observe that
84 eusocial individuals do not display circadian locomotion at adult emergence, while the solitary individuals emerge
85 displaying a fully rhythmic circadian rhythm; These differences are attributed to their opposite levels of sociality.
86 However, because these two past studies were done with species spanning from different taxonomic groups, it would
87 be difficult to support their claims without taking phylogeny into account. Nevertheless, these works do give a basis
88 to ask how circadian rhythms vary and are an integral part of the survival strategy and organization of these animals.
89 Moreover, it makes us consider that the level of sociality in different organisms may play a role in their daily activity
90 patterns. An important emerging feature is that in social insects, be it groups of individuals as defined by their age and
91 job (Moore et al. 1998, Bloch et al. 2001), or individuals in the same age and task group (Giannoni-Guzman et al.
92 2014, 2020), exhibit differences in their circadian rhythms with functional significance for their sociality. We
93 hypothesize that with increasing levels of social organization, as can be measured in size of the social group, greater
94 levels of individual variation in circadian rhythms will be observed.

95 We tested this hypothesis of socially increased individual variation, by examining circadian rhythms of
96 foragers from differently social halictid bees. Halictidae (Hymenoptera) is a bee family considered to be a great model
97 for the study of social evolution due to its exceptional diversity in respect to social behavior within and among species
98 and populations (Schwarz et al. 2007). *Lasioglossum* Curtis is one of the two genera in the tribe Halictini that displays
99 eusocial behavior, but also includes solitary representatives and a range of intermediate social categories (Danforth et
100 al. 2003; Gibbs et al. 2012). Additionally, past studies have shown plasticity in the social behavior even among
101 populations of the same species (Eickwort et al. 1996; Field 1996; Field et al. 2010; Richards et al. 2003; Soucy and
102 Danforth 2002; Richards 2000). Depending on environmental conditions, such as elevation, latitude and seasonality,
103 halictid bees might display different modes of sociality. Species with social nests may revert to solitary behavior at
104 high latitudes and altitudes (Eickwort et al. 1996; Packer et al. 1983; Field et al. 2010) or based on access to mates
105 (Yanega 1988/1989). Jeanson et al. (2008) studied members of a solitary species, *Lasioglossum* (*Ctenonomia*) sp.
106 NDA-1 and observed the results of having them nest in pairs. They finally observed that after some time together, the
107 individuals in the nest started to show signs of division of labor. This plasticity and diversity of behavior in addition
108 to the close taxonomic relation, makes Halictidae an optimal model for observing the relationship between sociality
109 and circadian rhythm (Bloch and Grozinger 2011).

110 To better understand association of sociality with individual variation in circadian rhythms, we have set out
111 to document the rhythm in four species of halictid bees that span a gradient of social complexity. *Systropha curvicornis*
112 (Scopoli) (Halictidae: Rophitinae), a solitary pollinator specialist (Grozđanić and Mučalica 1966) considered
113 ancestrally solitary within the family Halictidae (Patiny and Michez 2007; Patiny et al. 2008; Danforth et al. 2008),
114 and three species of *Lasioglossum* (*L. ferreri*, *L. enatum* and *L. malachurum*), which were selected because of their
115 varying levels of social behavior (Eickwort 1988; Wyman and Richards 2003; Gibbs 2018). Species of *Lasioglossum*
116 likely had a common ancestor capable of eusocial nesting but have reverted multiple times to other levels of sociality
117 (Danforth et al. 2003; Brady et al. 2006; Gibbs et al. 2012). *Lasioglossum (Dialictus) ferrerii* (Baker) and *L. (Dialictus)*
118 *enatum* (Gibbs) occurs in the Caribbean whereas *L. malachurum* across Europe; the first species nests communally,
119 that is each individual contributes to nest construction and reproduction (Michener 1974; Eickwort 1988). Although
120 *L. enatum* has not been thoroughly studied, this species is part of a species complex that includes weakly eusocial
121 species. Namely, *L. gemmatum* (Smith) and *L. parvum* (Cresson) from Jamaica and the Bahamas, which exhibit
122 reproductive division of labour (Eickwort 1988). There is no evidence of morphologically defined castes beyond
123 reproductive status in these two species and thus we assumed this is likely the case for *L. enatum* in Puerto Rico,
124 where we conducted our experiments. In contrast, *L. malachurum* (Kirby) is an obligately eusocial species with
125 morphologically well-defined queen and worker castes (Richards 2000; Wyman and Richards 2003). *Lasioglossum*
126 *malachurum* is known to display varying degrees of behaviors depending on location (Richards 2000). In Lesbos,
127 Greece, where we studied this species, they were observed to exhibit a facultatively eusocial behavior (Wyman and
128 Richards 2003). In summary, the level of sociality in the four species goes from lowest to highest: solitary *Systropha*
129 *curvicornis*, communal *Lasioglossum ferreri*, weakly eusocial *Lasioglossum enatum*, and the eusocial *Lasioglossum*
130 *malachurum*. The socially increased individual variation hypothesis predicts individual variation of foragers from
131 each species to increase from solitary to eusocial. Alternatively, individual variation could be the result of ecological
132 differences such as differences in robustness of time givers in different environments. Two of the halictids examined
133 here are from a tropical zone (a communal and an eusocial) and two are from a temperate zone (a solitary and an
134 eusocial).

135 The social plasticity of *Lasioglossum* and its potential as a model for social evolution leads us to believe that
136 observing this group of bees can give invaluable insight on how social behavior affects biological clocks. To test if

137 sociality increases individual variation, we captured the forager bees as they were visiting flowers and observed their
138 circadian variability in the laboratory using constant conditions.

139 **Methods and Materials:**

140 *Study sites*

141 *Puerto Rico:*

142 *Lasioglossum ferrerii* and *L. enatum* were captured using 15 mL falcon tubes from flowers at the Balneario
143 de Luquillo parking lot (18.38706 N 65.72517W, 3 Meters) in Puerto Rico. This site is characterized by having many
144 vine-type plants, high vegetation density, and it is located right next to a road with *Momordica charantia* being the
145 most abundant (Figure 1.A and 1.B). Most bees were caught between 8:00 and 12:00 h at the flowers of *Momordica*
146 *charantia* L. (Cucurbitaceae), *Sida acuta* Burm.fil. (Malvaceae), and *Bidens alba* (L.) DC. (Asteraceae). We also
147 observed them visiting *Euphorbia heterophylla* which has not been reported in previous literature. Collections took
148 place during the months of December, January, March, and August. In total we collected 36 bees, 26 of which were
149 *L. ferrerii* and 10 were *L. enatum*.

150 *Greece:*

151 *Systropha curvicornis* and *L. malachurum* bees were collected between 6:00 and 9:00 h from flowers of
152 *Convolvulus arvensis* (Convolvulaceae) that were growing on a recently cut wheat field in Skala Kallonis (39° 10'N
153 26° 20'E, 0 Meters) on the Island of Lesbos, Greece. We used 15 mL falcon tubes to catch bees in the field, which
154 would house the individual for the duration of the experiment. Sampling was conducted on July 3 of 2017. From this
155 sampling 118 bees were *L. malachurum* and 34 were *S. curvicornis*.

156 *Laboratory settings*

157 After collection in the falcon tubes, bees were provided with food that lasted for the whole of the observation
158 period. The food recipe we used varied between the studies in Puerto Rico and Greece (As explained below). The
159 main nutrient for both recipes was sugar and therefore are nutritionally comparable. However the agarose based recipe
160 (Puerto Rico) was more convenient in terms of ease and speed of preparation due to the fact that an independant water
161 system was not necessary.

162 Food preparation varied by locations as follows: In Puerto Rico, for every 0.89 ml of water, 1 g of sucrose
163 and 0.1 g of agarose were used. The water was heated in a stirring plate with a magnetic stirrer placed at the bottom.
164 We added the sucrose first to the solution, and when it was dissolved, the agarose was incorporated. The solution was

165 left stirring until it turned into a lighter color while mindful of not letting the solution heat too much, or part of the
166 volume would be lost. As a form of assurance, we made 3 ml more than what was expected to be used. After all solids
167 were diluted, we quickly pipetted 1 ml into the bottom of a 15 ml centrifuge tube, being mindful of not letting it splash.
168 Once all of the tubes had their portion of the solution, they were allowed to reach room temperature and finally they
169 were refrigerated. The final product was a gel that could be kept refrigerated until the day it needed to be used as long
170 as it did not dehydrate.

171 In Greece, captured *S. curvicornis* and *L. malachurum* were fed with ApiYem (Namik Kemal University with
172 Kosgeb R&D Innovation Project) which is a commercial bee feed composed of 78.5% sugar and 21.5% invert syrup.
173 Food was placed in the cap-end of each tube and a damp cotton was placed in the other end of the tube to provide
174 water to the bees. The water supply was refilled every 2–3 days. Resources were provided ad libitum during the
175 complete running period of the experiment.

176 *Locomotor activity monitoring*

177 Each bee was monitored individually for at least seven days in the falcon tube in which they were captured.
178 The tubes were plugged using cotton balls to let air circulate. These tubes were then placed into TriKinetics'
179 Locomotion Activity monitors (LAM16) that, in turn, were put inside incubators that were set to constant conditions.
180 In Greece the temperature was 26 , humidity 78%, constant darkness. In Puerto Rico the temperature was 30, humidity
181 65%, constant darkness. The differences in the environmental chamber conditions were set to resemble the average
182 daytime parameters at each location.

183 *Species Identification*

184 The individuals caught in Puerto Rico were identified using Gibbs (2018). Samples collected in Greece were
185 identified by an in-field expert, Victor H. Gonzalez (University of Kansas).

186 **Data processing and analysis**

187 *Circadian Analysis*

188 Circadian rhythm and locomotor activity for our subjects were analyzed using the MATLAB toolboxes
189 developed in Jeffrey Hall's laboratory (Levine et al. 2002). The outputs provided data on the individual's locomotor
190 activity throughout the experiment in the form of an actogram, average activity plot, and an autocorrelation that also
191 calculates rhythm strength.

192 To test if the observed differences in circadian patterns across species were statistically significant, we
193 applied a Brown-Forsythe one way ANOVA with a Dunnett's T3 multiple comparisons test using GraphPad Prism
194 version 8.4.3 for Windows, GraphPad Software, San Diego, California, USA, www.graphpad.com. The variables
195 taken into consideration for this was time, species, individuals, and interspecies variation.

196 **Results:**

197 During the Summer of 2017 on the 3rd of July between the hours of 6:00 am and 9:00 am, *S. curvicornis*
198 and *L. malachurum* were caught as they visited the flowers of *Convolvulus arvensis* on the island of Lesbos. They
199 were transported from the field to the laboratory and placed inside an incubator for 10 days of which 8 were in
200 constant conditions (26 °C and 57 % humidity) with the purpose of characterizing their intrinsic biological
201 clock. During this collection 118 bees were *L. malachurum* although only 98 survived until the end and 34 were *S.*
202 *curvicornis* of which only 4 females survived the study period.

203 Figure 2.A illustrates the average of individuals evaluated under constant conditions of the Greek, solitary
204 and specialist pollinator *S. curvicornis*. Its period runs slightly short at approximately 22 hours, with the peak of its
205 activity in the early morning and an average rhythm strength of 4.4. The population average is consistent with the
206 individuals examined, as illustrated in Figure 2.B; a randomly selected individual looks fairly similar to the activity
207 plotted for the population average. The average for period was 22.75 with a standard deviation of 0.41, Rhythm
208 Strength had an average of 4 and standard deviation of 0.707.

209 The consistency displayed by our population of female *S. curvicornis* is contrasted with the diversity
210 observed in the other 3 species analyzed in this study. This is especially true for the eusocial *L. malachurum*, for
211 whom after careful evaluation of the data we had to create a classification schematic (Figure 3) to appropriately
212 describe the phenotypes being displayed by the population. The population average shows that *L. malachurum*, as a
213 species, has a perfectly circadian 24-hour period under constant dark conditions. Peak average activity of *L.*
214 *malachurum* is at 6:00 h, with no clear rest periods when all individuals are averaged. When examined individually,
215 we found five distinct patterns of circadian activity patterns (Figure 3.A and Figure 4). These patterns can be divided
216 into 2 large branches (Figure 3.A), those that are rhythmic and those that are arrhythmic i.e, individuals with uniform
217 distribution of activity. Rhythmic individuals varied in the amplitude of their activity rhythm and therefore were
218 classified as strong or weakly rhythmic. Moreover, both strong and weak categories are subdivided into unimodal or

219 bimodal based on the number of activity peaks per day. For example, a bimodal individual is active during two
220 different instances of the day like the morning and the afternoon (Figures 4.B and 4.C), while a unimodal individual
221 is mostly active during a set time of the day (Figures 4.D and 4.E).

222 Strongly rhythmic individuals (either unimodal or bimodal) constituted 41% of individuals. These patterns
223 are recognized by a strong Rhythm Strength (RS)(Figures 4.B.iii and 4.D.iii) on average higher than 2.67 and clear
224 rest and active periods both in the double plotted actogram (Figures 4.B.i and 4.D.i) and the average activity
225 plot(Figures 4.B.ii and 4.D.ii). Weak rhythmicity (Figure 4.C and 4.E) was observed in 21.6% of individuals and
226 they were characterized by having RS values (Figure 4.C.iii and 4.E.iii) that average on 1.79, but their actograms
227 (Figure 4.C.i and 4.E.i) do not show a clear pattern of locomotor activity. Finally, 38% of individuals were
228 arrhythmic. Both the double plotted actogram (Figure 4.F.i) and the average activity plot (Figure 4.F.ii)for
229 arrhythmic bees do not have any discernible daily pattern of activity or inactivity. Often the autocorrelation (Figure
230 4.F.iii) does not return any values.

231 On February 19, 2020, between 8:00 am and 10:00 am, at the Balneario de Luquillo (Figure 1.A and B), 36
232 bees were captured as they visited *Bidens alba*, *Momordica charantia* and *Sida acuta*. Bees were captured and
233 monitored individually in one tube each (modified from Giannoni-Guzman et al. 2014). In the laboratory, the bees
234 were placed inside an incubator for seven days in constant conditions so we could characterize their intrinsic
235 biological clock.

236 Of the 36 bees captured, 26 were identified as *Lasioglossum ferrerii* (Figure 1.C and 1.D) and ten as
237 *Lasioglossum enatum* (Figure 1.E and 1.F). Only 22 *L. ferrerii* and 8 *L. enatum*, survived the entire observation
238 period and were used for analysis. The average peak of circadian activity for *L. ferrerii* is between 6:00–7:00
239 (Figure 5.A.ii) with a 23 hour period (Figure 5.A. iii), making it short. Individuals fell into two categories, 50% were
240 strongly rhythmic and 50% were weakly rhythmic (Figures. 5B and 5C). The peak of average activity for *L. enatum*
241 is from the fifth to the seventh hours of the day, with a circadian period of 23.8 hours (Figure 6.Aiii), just slightly
242 short of a day. The average peak of activity for *L. enatum* was 6:00-7:00 (Figure 6.A.ii). *L. enatum* also had three
243 patterns of activity with similar characteristics to that of the umbrella categories for *L. malachurum*, and we saw it
244 fit to categorize them in a similar fashion (Figure 6). 12.5% of the observed population fell into the strongly
245 rhythmic category, 25% in the weak rhythmic category and 62.5% in the arrhythmic category.

246 In summary, all four of the described species followed unique patterns of behavior (Figure 7.A)
247 characterized by the amount of interindividual variation. *Systropha curvicornis* was the species with the least
248 amount of observed interindividual variation in its daily activity patterns, followed by *L. ferrerii* with two distinct
249 patterns of behavior, then *L. enatum* with 3 and lastly *L. malachurum* with 5.

250 *Cross species comparison of observed circadian parameters*

251 Average activity was only significant between *L. ferrerii* and *L. malachurum* with a p-value of 0.0016
252 (Figure 7.B). Circadian Period (Figure 7.C) on the other hand showed differences between *S. curvicornis* and *L.*
253 *ferrerii* with a p-value of 0.0102 as well as *L. malachurum* and *L. ferrerii* with a p-value of <0.0001. Lastly, with
254 even more differences still, Rhythm Strength (Figure 7.D) presented differences between *S. curvicornis* and *L.*
255 *enatum* (p-value = 0.0014), *S. curvicornis* and *L. malachurum* (p-value = 0.0177), *L. ferrerii* and *L. enatum* (p-value
256 = 0.0056) and finally, *L. ferrerii* and *L. malachurum* (p-value = 0.0259).

257 **Discussion:**

258 This study lays the groundwork for the use of halictid bees for cross species comparisons of circadian
259 rhythms. Consistent with our hypothesis, we found that greater degrees of sociality are associated with larger
260 individual differences of circadian rhythms within a population.

261 The solitary specialist, *S. curvicornis* as observed in this work, suggests that at least for the females, the
262 population is consistent, displaying a single circadian activity phenotype (Figure 7.A). Activity of these bees is
263 highly rhythmic and shows little variation across samples with an average RS of 4.4 and the peak of activity appears
264 to be near the hour 6 of the day. Overall, the species exhibits a short period phenotype under constant darkness. This
265 high degree of rhythmicity might be due to *S. curvicornis*' evolutionary history as a foraging specialist of *C.*
266 *arvensis*, which blooms for a brief period during the morning, a pattern described for another closely related species
267 (*S. planidens*: Gonzalez et al. 2014). A rigorous internal clock is important to be able to anticipate the time when
268 resources are available. For example, the immediate development of *Osmia bicornis*' circadian rhythm (Beer and
269 Helfrich-Förster 2020) may be related to nourishment accessibility, as it has been shown in the past that large
270 quantities of pollen are the key to proper larvae development rather than diversity of pollen (Radmacher and Strohm
271 2010). All three of these species (*S. curvicornis*, *S. planidens* and *O. bicornis*) lead solitary lifestyles and

272 consequently must assure the survival of their progeny in an individual manner. A strong circadian rhythm can
273 ensure that a female may find sufficient resources efficiently to feed its young.

274 All three species of *Lasioglossum* examined were shown to have more than one distinct pattern of circadian
275 activity. The most diverse of the three was the facultatively eusocial *L. malachurum* (Figure 7.A) with 5 distinct
276 circadian behaviors. Two of the sub-categories of these behaviors fall under the strongly rhythmic category, which
277 we are calling binomial and unimodal. These rhythmic categories are characterized for having an easy to distinguish
278 pattern in the actogram, clear rest/activity periods in the average activity plot, and an RS higher than one. Another
279 two of the sub-categories fall under the weakly rhythmic umbrella. This umbrella, just like the strongly rhythmic
280 category, can be divided into bimodal and unimodal. These categories can be identified by an actogram with no
281 clear pattern, an average activity plot with more or less clear rest/activity pattern, and an RS larger than one. Lastly,
282 there is the arrhythmic category where no discernible pattern can be pinpointed in the actogram nor in the average
283 activity plot and its RS is less than one. A conceptual map on how these categories are identified can be found in
284 Figure 3.A.

285 To make descriptions comparable across species, we used the same metrics to categorize the other two bees
286 examined in this study. In categorizing *L. ferrerii* and *L. enatum*, our categories worked as a good basis. *L. ferrerii*
287 only had two distinguishable patterns: rhythmic and noisy rhythmic (Figure 7.A). We decided to change the name
288 from weakly rhythmic to noisy rhythmic because it is a better descriptor (Figure 3.B). Similarly, *L. enatum*, which
289 lives in the same environment as *L. ferrerii*, has 3 distinguishable categories (Figure 7.A). These categories are
290 rhythmic, noisy, rhythmic and arrhythmic. Contrary to *L. ferrerii*, *L. enatum* expressed 5 individuals in the
291 arrhythmic category. Taking into consideration that both of these species of bees were caught in the same
292 environment, and they belong to the same genus, the results suggest that something other than environmental
293 variables are behind these differences.

294 The difference in expression of circadian patterns between *L. ferrerii* and *L. enatum* could be explained by
295 competition. Both of these species share the same niche in Luquillo, to the point of them being caught in the same
296 flowers during the same range of time. Having a slight difference in rhythmicity can lower the possibility of
297 temporal competition when foraging. *L. ferrerii* on average would be active from 5:00 am to 10:00 am, while
298 average time of activity for *L. enatum* would be from 3:00 am to 8:00 am. Due to that two-hour disphase, it would

299 appear to be less likely that bees from these two species try to visit a flower simultaneously, yet their schedules still
300 have some overlap. These observations are echoed by another study conducted in Greece where they demonstrated
301 that 3 species of carpenter bees (*Xylocopa* spp.) that share the same resources have different circadian rhythms when
302 measured under natural field conditions and also in artificial constant and oscillating conditions (Ortiz-Alvarado et
303 al. *in rev.*). While the solitary *Xylocopa* species have interspecies variation in their circadian rhythms, two out of the
304 3 examined in Ortiz-Alvarado et al. follow a similar pattern as *S. curvicornis*, were there isn't much if any individual
305 differences in the populations examined. Therefore in that particular case, competitor effects can explain the
306 differences in rhythm across species, but in the case of *L. ferrerii* and *L. enatum* it cannot explain the individual
307 differences observed at the species level.

308 At a higher level looking at the statistical analysis of all 4 halictid bees (Figure 7), some interesting patterns
309 can be noted. In terms of average activity (Figure 7.B), there was only a difference between *L. ferrerii* and *L.*
310 *malachurum*, none of the other possible combinations of differences occurred. However, the length of the whiskers
311 in the box plots for both *L. enatum* and *L. malachurum* does suggest a level of diversity at the intraspecies level and
312 could be reflective of the number of circadian behaviors observed in these species.

313 When analyzing the circadian period, the observed differences were between *L. ferrerii* and *L. malachurum*
314 as well as *S. curvicornis* and *L. malachurum* (Figure 7.C). The latter of these pairs have shared environmental
315 conditions when the former pair does not. It is also interesting to note that *L. ferrerii* and *S. curvicornis* cannot be
316 found in the same locations, and yet they do not appear to have significantly different circadian periods, in fact for
317 the populations examined, they appear to be comparable.

318 The connection between individual differences in circadian rhythm and sociality becomes clearer still when
319 observing rhythm strength (Figure 7.D). Where those species with a lesser number of circadian phenotypes are more
320 similar to each other and likewise the ones with the most diversity are more similar to each other. In other words, *S.*
321 *curvicornis* and *L. ferrerii* were both significantly different to *L. enatum* and *L. malachurum*, but not to each other.
322 Likewise, there was no significant difference between *L. enatum* and *L. malachurum*. Because there is this
323 consistency of differences that is not associated with differences in environments, we believe that the key to
324 explaining the difference in diversity of behaviors may not lay in competition, but in something more endogenous of
325 the species. Nevertheless, more data is needed.

326 *Lasioglossum* as a genus is well-known for having a large diversity in social behaviors. This diversity in
327 sociality may also be reflected in other types of behaviors and could be the key to explaining the individual
328 differences in circadian rhythm we observed across foragers within the species. One caveat for the present work is
329 the sample size and populations evaluated (one population for each species and low number of individuals,
330 particularly for *L. enatum*). One future direction is to identify additional populations of the same 4 species to
331 examine consistency of the presented findings. In future studies we will focus on streamlining the process of
332 describing the diverse circadian behaviors observed in a species to facilitate studies with a higher volume of
333 observations. Additionally, we will continue describing the circadian rhythm of additional species of *Lasioglossum*
334 that present social behaviors not evaluated in this study. Understanding the functional relationship between sociality
335 and rhythm will add to further understanding of mechanisms underlying social organization.

336 **Figure Legends:**

337 **Figure 1: Habitat (A-B) and Species Observed (C-F).** **A)** Puerto Rico study site in which *L. ferrerii* and *L.*
338 *enatum* were captured. **B)** Some of the vegetation the bees were observed visiting, with flowers belonging to the
339 families: Commelinaceae, Cucurbitaceae and Euphorbiaceae. **C)** Female of *L. ferrerii* distinguished from the male
340 by its short antenna and pointed abdomen. **D)** Male of *L. ferrerii*, distinguished by its long antennae and flat
341 abdomen. This species is known for its long head shape and metallic metasoma (Gibbs 2018). **E)** Female of *L.*
342 *enatum* distinguished from the male by its short antenna and pointed abdomen. **F)** Male of *L. enatum*, distinguished
343 by its long antennae and flat abdomen. This species is distinguished by: “tegula punctate, extended posteriorly to
344 form a small angle, mesepisternum punctate and metasoma brown” (Gibbs 2018).

345 **Figure 2: Female *S. curvicornis* exhibit short period phenotype under constant darkness (<24 h endogenous**
346 **circadian rhythm).** (i) Double-plotted actogram showing the locomotor activity pattern of: (A) The average of all 4
347 individuals examined of *S. curvicornis*. (B) A representative individual randomly selected from the population. In a
348 double plotted actogram, each row represents locomotor activity (counts per 30 min) of two consecutive days and
349 the second is repeated such that it is always the beginning of the next row. The x-axis shows the time of day under
350 constant darkness expressed as circadian time (CT). (ii) Average of the locomotor activity patterns of the five days
351 observed into one. The y-axis represents activity over time and the x-axis represents CT (iii) Autocorrelation plots
352 used to determine the period (p), rhythm index (RI) and rhythm strength (RS). The oscillations indicate periodicity.

353 The asterisk at the third peak of the autocorrelation plot indicates the particular time point used for the determination
354 of the rhythm parameters.

355 **Figure 3: A summary of the variations in the circadian rhythm as observed in: A) *Lasioglossum malachurum*,**
356 **B) *Lasioglossum enatum* and *Lasioglossum ferreirii*.** The circle represents the root of the flowchart, squares
357 represent nodes that branch off and rhombuses represent leaves. In total for malachurum, 5 distinct behaviors were
358 observed.

359 **Figure 4: *L. malachurum* exhibits a variety of circadian phenotypes under constant dark conditions.** (i)
360 Double-plotted actogram showing the locomotor activity pattern for 5 days of: (A) The average of all 98 individuals
361 examined and representatives for the following categories: (B) Bimodal Rhythmic (C) Weakly Rhythmic Bimodal,
362 (D) Unimodal Rhythmic, (E) Weakly Rhythmic Unimodal, (F) and Arrhythmic circadian behaviors. (ii) An average
363 activity plot for the five days of observation (iii) Autocorrelation plots used to determine the period (p), rhythm
364 index (RI) and rhythm strength (RS).

365 **Figure 5: Description of the circadian behaviors exhibited by *L. ferreirii* under constant dark conditions.** (i)
366 Double-plotted actogram of the locomotor activity from the five-day observational period for: **A)** All 22 individuals
367 from the data set averaged out into one representative individual. **B)** A representative individual out of the 11 from
368 the category Strongly Rhythmic. **C)** A representative individual out of the 11 from the category Noisy Rhythmic.
369 (ii) An average activity plot for the five days of observation (iii) Autocorrelation plots used to determine the period
370 (p), rhythm index (RI) and rhythm strength (RS).

371 **Figure 6: Description of the circadian behaviors exhibited by *L. enatum* under constant dark conditions.** (i)
372 Double-plotted actogram of the locomotor activity from the five-day observational period for: **A)** All 8 individuals
373 from the data set averaged out into one representative individual. **B)** The only individual from the category Strongly
374 Rhythmic. **C)** A representative individual out of the 2 from the category Noisy Rhythmic. **D)** A representative
375 individual out of the 5 from the Arrhythmic category. (ii) An average activity plot for the five days of observation
376 (iii) Autocorrelation plots used to determine the period (p), rhythm index (RI) and rhythm strength (RS).

377 **Figure 7: Summary of descriptive and inferential statistics.** **A)** Number of circadian categories observed by
378 species. **B)** Box plot illustrating the difference in average locomotor activity between species. *S.*

379 *curvicornis* has a minimum of 8.200, 25% percentile of 8.900, mean of 13.63, 75% percentile of 20.28 and
380 a maximum of 22.90. *L. ferrerii* has a minimum of 0.7000, 25% percentile of 2.675, mean of 4.950, 75%
381 percentile of 7.100 and a maximum of 11.20. *L.enatum* has a minimum of 1.000, 25% percentile of 2.875,
382 mean of 8.113, 75% percentile of 6.650 and a maximum of 36.00. *L. malachurum* has a minimum of 6.700,
383 25% percentile of 10.35, mean of 8.201, 75% percentile of 10.35 and a maximum of 26.30. There was only
384 a statistical difference between *L. ferrerii* and *L. malachurum* with a p-value of 0.0016, DF of 61.66 and t
385 of 3.867. C) Box plot illustrating the difference in circadian period between species. *S.curvicornis* has a
386 minimum of 22.20, 25% percentile of 22.35, mean of 22.75, 75% percentile of 23.10 and a maximum of
387 23.20. *L. ferrerii* has a minimum of 21.80, 25% percentile of 21.95, mean of 22.69, 75% percentile of 23.20
388 and a maximum of 24.200. *L.enatum* has a minimum of 20.00, 25% percentile of 22.40, mean of 23.31,
389 75% percentile of 24.60 and a maximum of 25.50. *L. malachurum* has a minimum of 20.20, 25% percentile
390 of 23.50, mean of 24.00, 75% percentile of 24.50 and a maximum of 27.80. Both *S. curvicornis* and *L.*
391 *ferrerii* were significantly different from *L. malachurum* with p-values of; 0.0102 and <0.0001, DFs of;
392 5.652 and 52.94 and, t of; 5.179 and 6.565, respectively. D) Box plot illustrating rhythm strength among
393 species. *S. curvicornis* has a minimum of 3.000, 25% percentile of 3.250, mean of 4.000, 75% percentile of
394 4.500 and a maximum of 4.500. *L. ferrerii* has a minimum of 0.6000, 25% percentile of 1.700, mean of
395 2.691, 75% percentile of 4.125 and a maximum of 4.600. *L. enatum* has a minimum of -2.500, 25%
396 percentile -0.4250, mean of 0.2125, 75% percentile of 1.200 and a maximum of 2.200. *L. malachurum* has
397 a minimum of -2.100, 25% percentile of 0.7250, mean of 1.754, 75% percentile of 2.800 and a maximum
398 of 4.500. The solitary, *S. curivcornis*, and communal *L. ferrerii*, were significantly different from the
399 eusocial species, but not each other. Likewise, *L. enatum* and *L. malachurum* were not significantly
400 different. *S. curvicornis* vs. *L. enatum* ; p-value of 0.0014, df of 7.932 and t of 6.226. *S. curvicornis*
401 vs. *L. malachurum*; p-value of 0.0177, df 4.04 of and t of 5.895. *L. ferrerii* vs. *L. enatum*; p-value of
402 0.0056, df of 17.09 and t of 3.982. *L. ferrerii* vs. *L. malachurum*; p-value of 0.0259, df of 33.42 and t of
403 3.054.

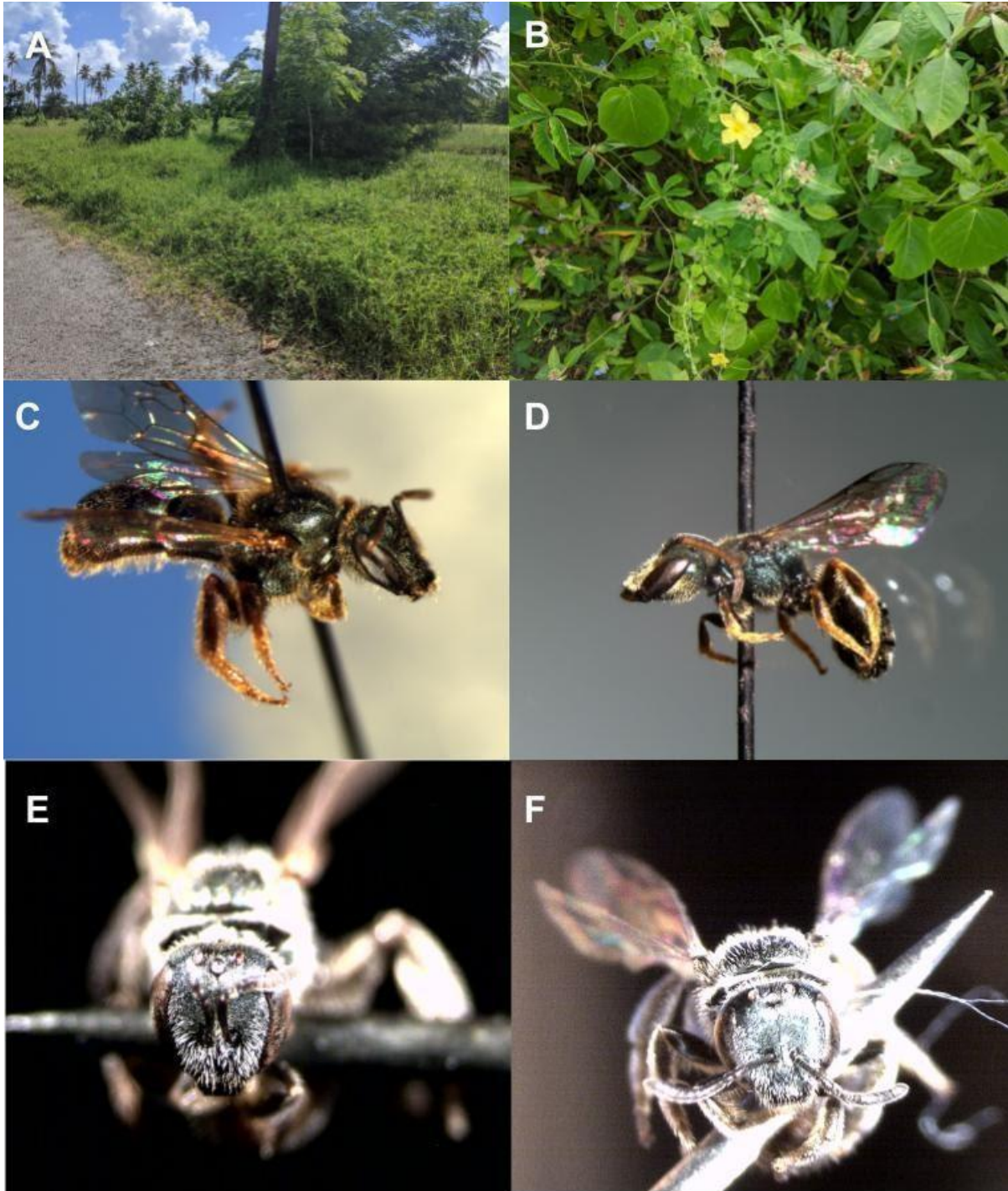
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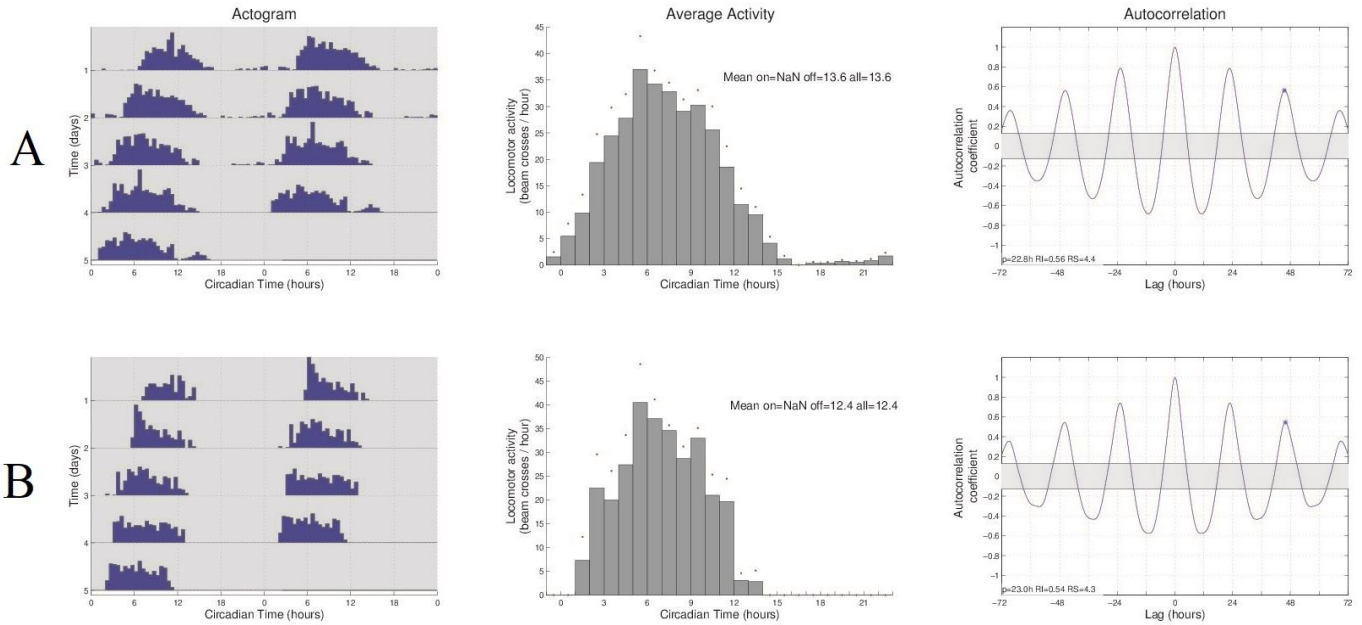
408 **Tables and Figures:**



409

410 **Figure 1: Habitat (A-B) and Species Observed (C-F).**

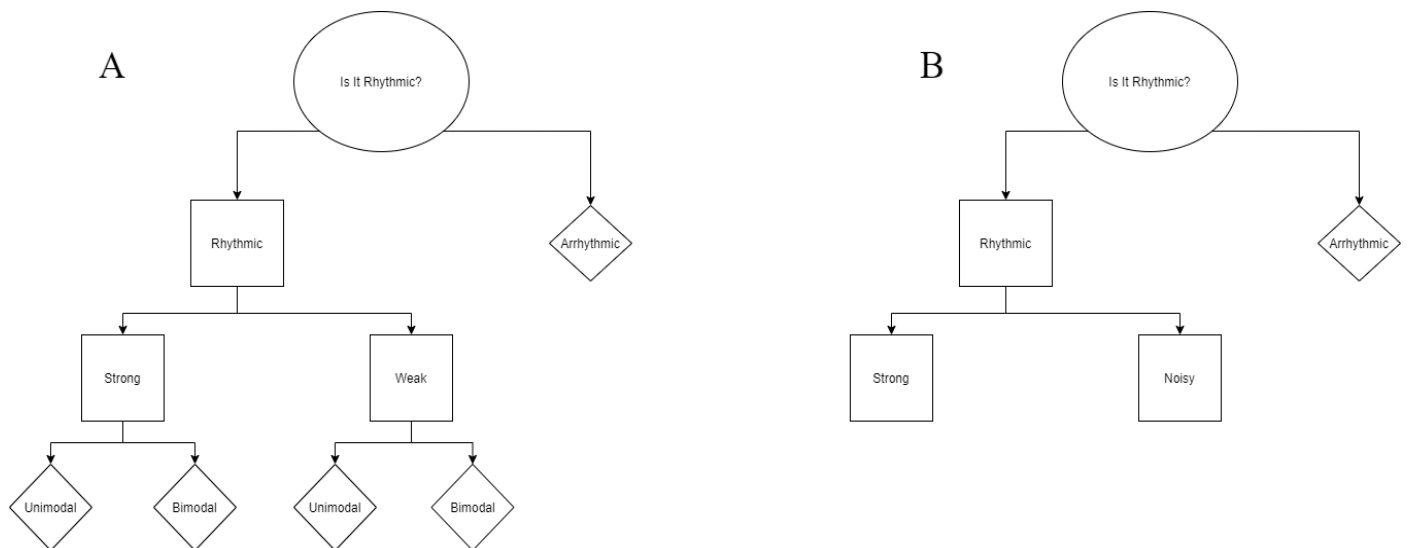
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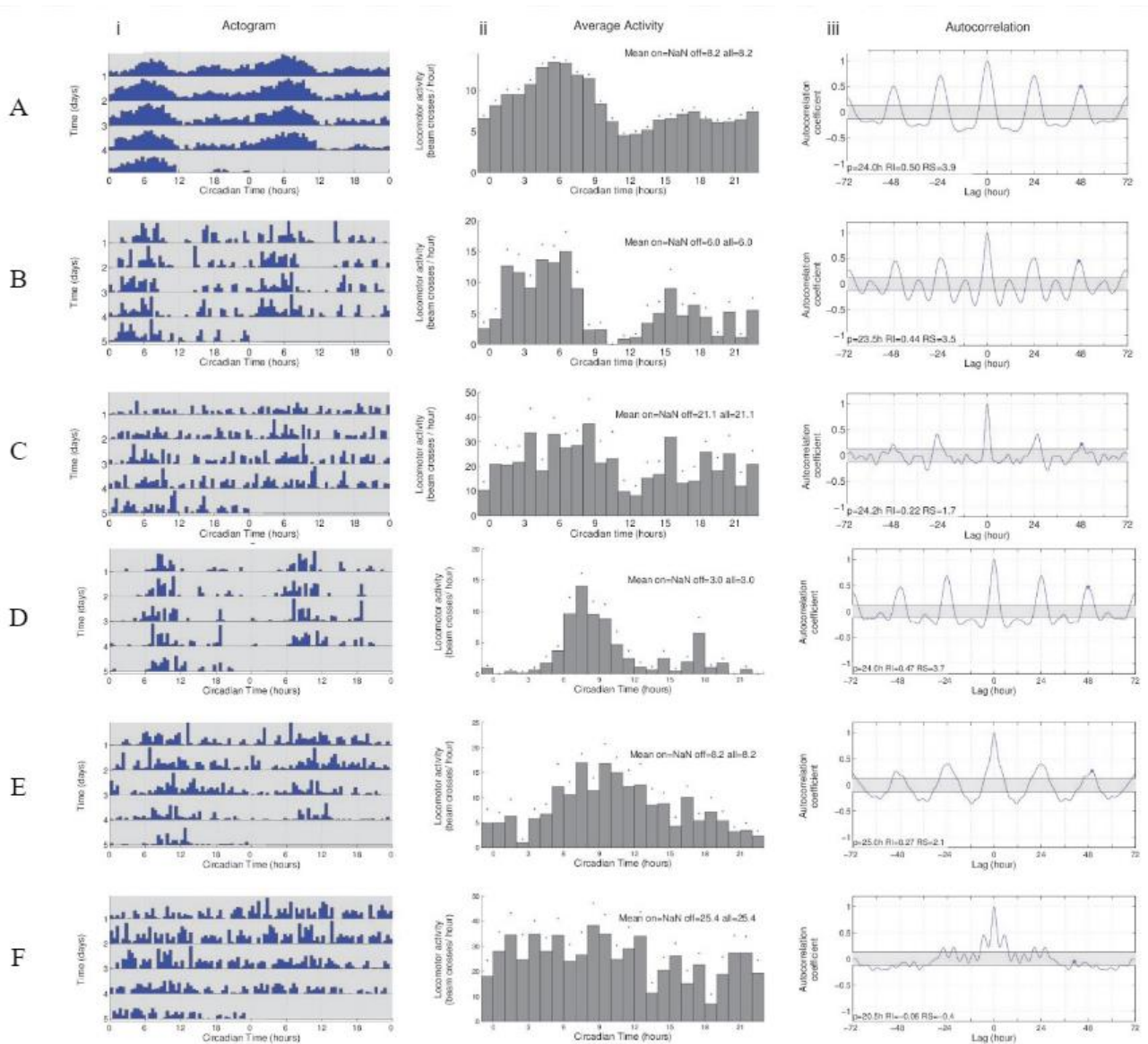
413 **Figure 2: Female *S. curvicornis* exhibit short period phenotype under constant darkness (<24 h endogenous**
 414 **circadian rhythm)**

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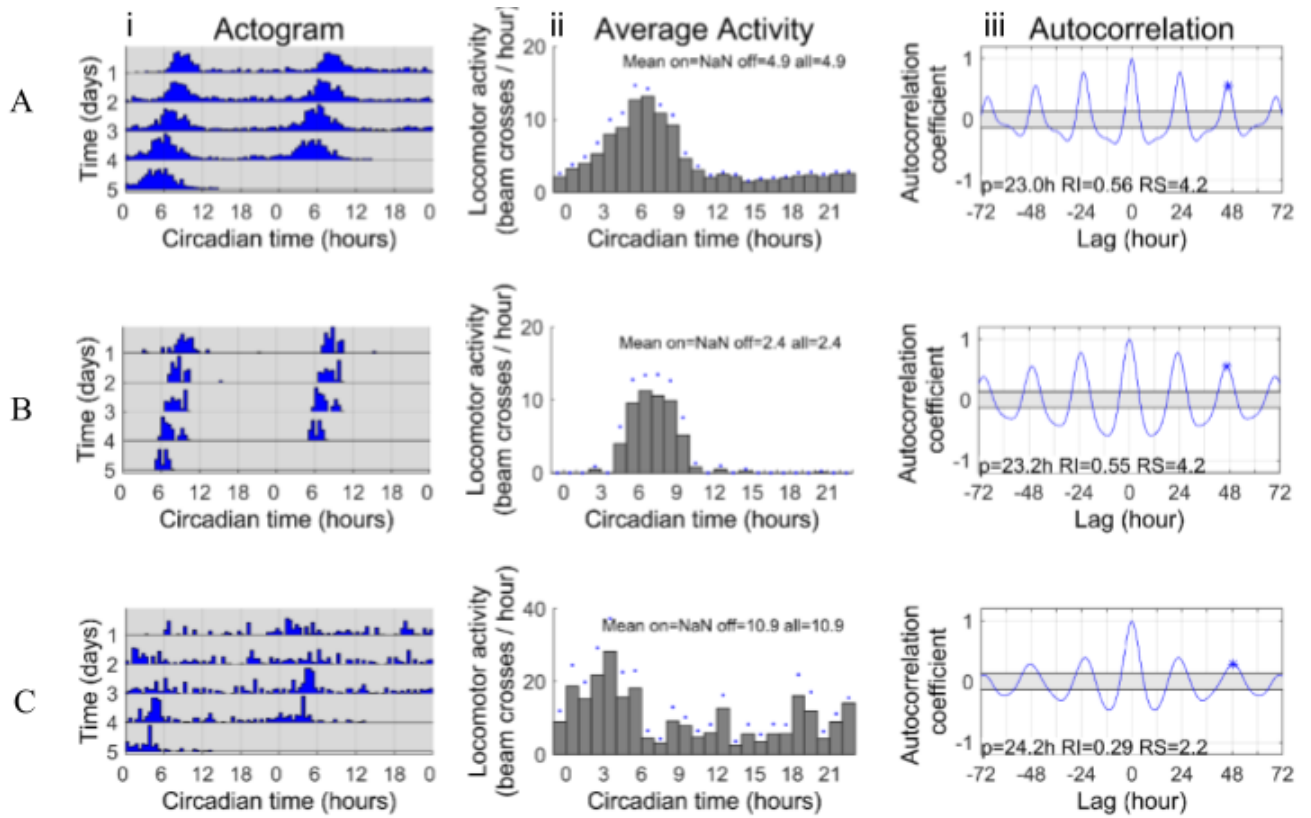
416

417 **Figure 3: A summary of the variations in the circadian rhythm as observed in:** A) *Lasioglossum malachurum*,
 418 **B) *Lasioglossum enatum* and *Lasioglossum ferreirii***



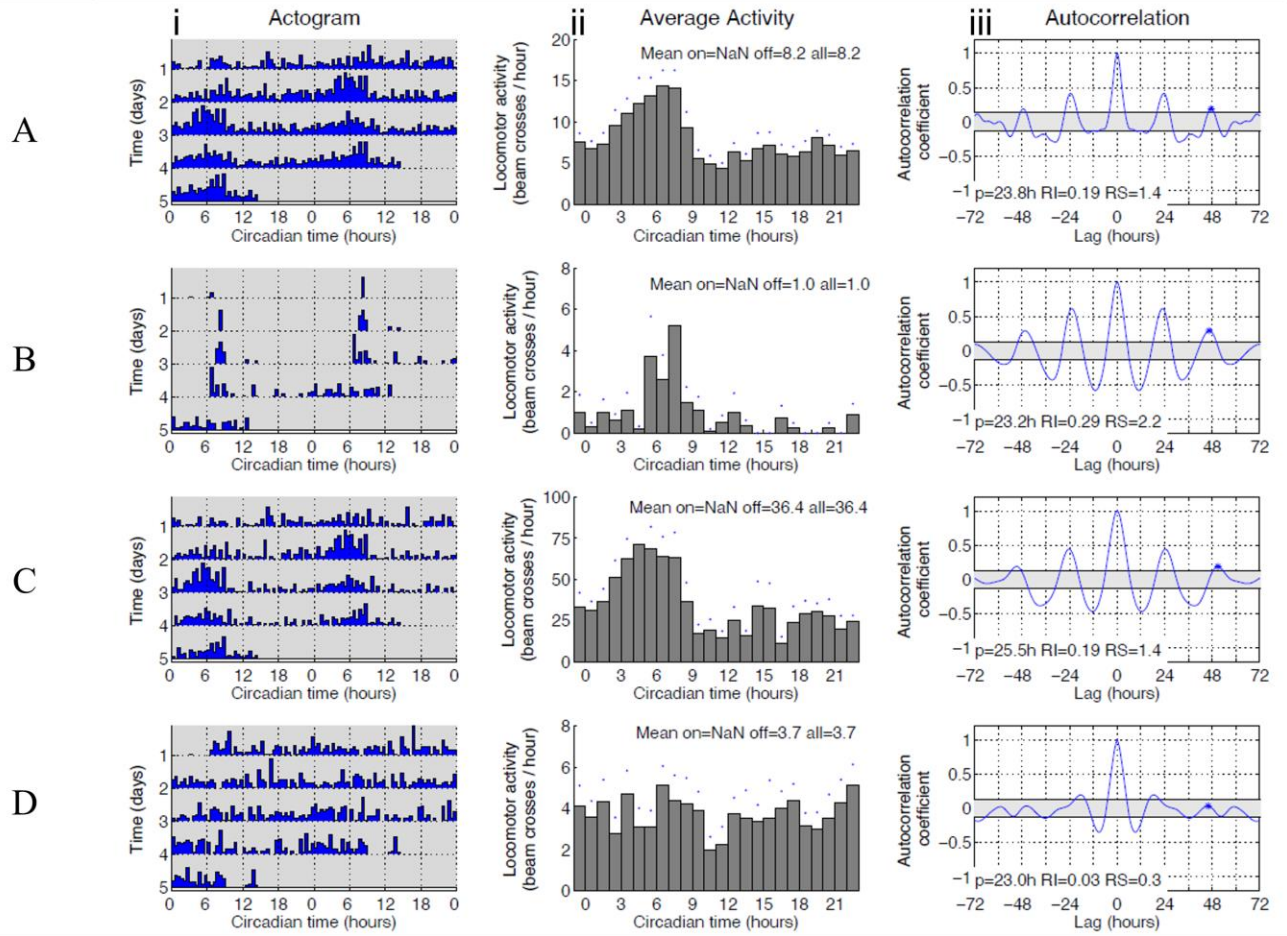
419

420 **Figure 4: *L. malachurum* exhibits a variety of circadian phenotypes under constant dark conditions.**



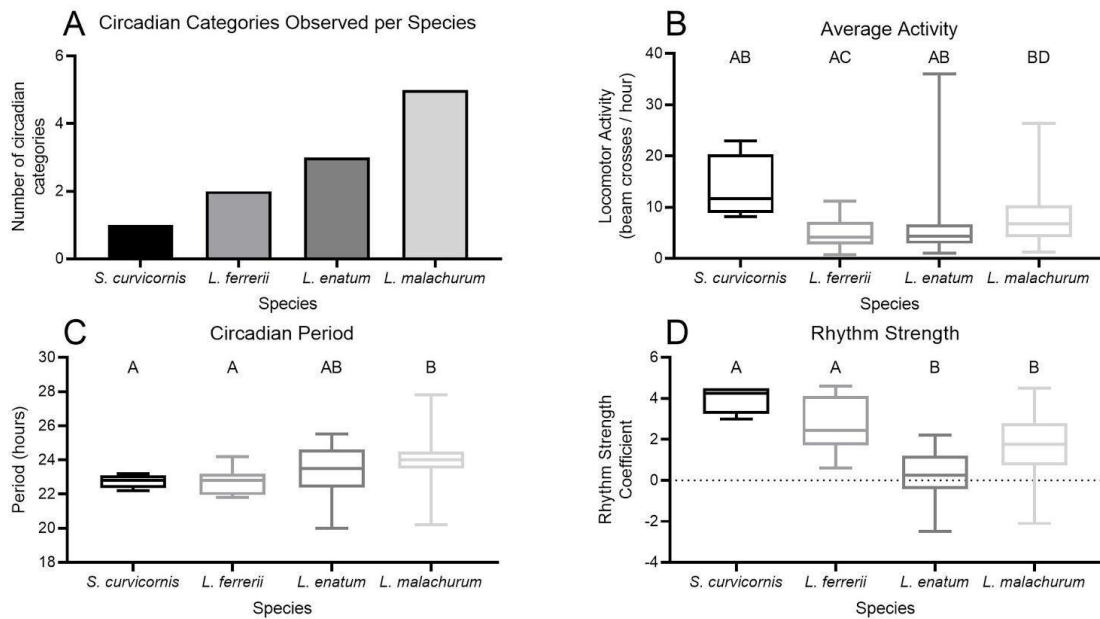
421

422 **Figure 5: Description of the circadian behaviors exhibited by *L. ferrerii* under constant dark conditions.**



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424 **Figure 6: Description of the circadian behaviors exhibited by *L. enatum* under constant dark conditions.**



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426 **Figure 7: Summary of descriptive and inferential statistics.**

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