

1	Title: The stable isotope ecology of mycalesine butterflies: implications for plant-insect co-
2	evolution
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26 Summary

1. One of the most dramatic examples of biome shifts in the geological record is the rapid replacement of C_3 vegetation by C_4 grasses in (sub-) tropical regions during the Late Miocene-Pliocene. Climate-driven biome shifts of this magnitude are expected to have a major impact on diversification and ecological speciation, especially in grazing taxa. Mycalesine butterflies are excellent candidates to explore the evolutionary impact of these C_3/C_4 shifts on insect grazer communities.

33 2. Mycalesine butterflies feed on grasses as larvae, have radiated spectacularly and occur
34 in almost all extant habitats across the Old World tropics. However, at present, we lack
35 a comprehensive understanding of the larval ecology of these butterflies and this
36 hampers investigations of co-evolutionary patterns among the geographically parallel
37 radiations of mycalesine butterflies and the remarkable evolutionary history of their
38 host plants.

39 3. By conducting several experiments under defined environmental conditions we 40 demonstrate that the feeding history of mycalesine larvae on C₃ and C₄ grasses can be 41 traced by analysing δ^{13} C in the organic material of the adult exoskeleton, while values 42 of δ^{18} O in the adult reflect atmospheric humidity during larval development.

43 4. To show the power of these isotopic proxies for ecological studies, we analysed the
44 isotopic composition of organic material obtained from adult butterflies sampled in two
45 extensive longitudinal surveys.

46 5. We observed strong associations among the larval ecology, habitat preferences of the 47 adult butterflies and patterns of seasonality, such that mycalesine species that inhabit 48 open environments are more opportunistic in their host plant choice but utilize C_3 49 grasses more frequently during the dry season. Crucially, the ability to process the less 50 palatable C_4 grasses appears to be phylogenetically clustered within mycalesine species,

51 suggesting that novel feeding adaptations may have evolved in response to the 52 ecological dominance of C_4 grasses in open savannah habitats.

53 Introduction

54 The origin of tropical savannahs is one of the most dramatic examples of climate-driven 55 biome shifts documented in the geological record (Edwards et al. 2010). Today's tropical 56 savannahs are dominated by grasses which utilize the C₄ photosynthetic pathway to fix carbon, whereas only 3 to 8 million years ago these tropical environments were largely 57 58 dominated by C₃ vegetation (Osborne & Beerling 2006). A superior strategy for carbon uptake and assimilation in warm climates and low atmospheric CO₂ concentrations 59 60 (Ehleringer, Cerling & Helliker 1997), in combination with different responses to climatic 61 extremes and wildfires (Edwards et al. 2010; Scheiter et al. 2012), led to the ecological 62 success of C₄ grasses in tropical environments (Ehleringer, Cerling & Helliker 1997). Such 63 major changes in biome characteristics would be expected to drive diversification across taxa. 64 For example, radiations in large terrestrial herbivores have been attributed to the expansion of grasslands and changes in vegetation distribution, based on isotopic evidence about feeding 65 66 ecology from tooth enamel (MacFadden 2005; Kuerschner, Kvacek & Dilcher 2008). 67 However, surprisingly little is known about the impacts of these C_3/C_4 shifts on insect grazer 68 communities in grasslands.

69 Most herbivorous insects are specialized in their utilization of host plants and, in 70 response to this host specificity, plants often evolve chemical or physical defenses to reduce 71 herbivore-induced damage (Dres & Mallet 2002; Braby & Trueman 2006). This co-72 evolutionary arms race is thought to play a crucial role in the evolution of key innovations 73 and drive diversification on each side of the plant-insect interaction (Ehrlich & Raven 1964; 74 Edger et al. 2015). In theory, C₄ photosynthesis should exert a strong influence on trophic 75 interactions with insect grazers via two key mechanisms. Firstly, C₄ grasses are expected to 76 have a higher physical resistance to herbivores because the anatomical changes required for C₄ photosynthesis are associated with a higher density of leaf veins, fibre bundles and silica 77

78 cells (Wilson & Hattersley 1989; Bouchenak-Khelladi et al. 2009). Host plants with a high 79 physical resistance rapidly increase mandible wear in lepidopteran larvae, while high levels 80 of silica in grasses decrease nitrogen absorption, reducing feeding efficiency and insect 81 growth rates, respectively (Massey & Hartley 2006; Massey & Hartley 2009). Secondly, 82 because of the high efficiency of their carbon concentrating mechanism, C₄ leaves typically 83 have lower nutritional values (lower leaf protein and nitrogen) than C₃ foliage (Long 1999). 84 Therefore, generalist herbivores are predicted to prefer C₃ over C₄ leaves, despite possessing 85 the ability to process the latter, when both are available in the same habitat (see Caswell et al. 86 1973).

87 Here, we use data on butterflies of the subtribe Mycalesina (Nymphalidae: Satyrinae) to examine how physiological and ecological differences between C_3 and C_4 grasses may 88 89 have impacted the evolutionary ecology of insect grazers. These tropical butterflies feed 90 mainly on grasses as larvae and, especially in the case of Bicyclus anynana, have become important model organisms in ecological, evolutionary and developmental biology (van 91 92 Bergen et al. 2013; van den Heuvel et al. 2013; Mateus et al. 2014). Mycalesines have 93 radiated dramatically in Sub-Saharan Africa, Madagascar and Asia with over 300 extant 94 species (Kodandaramaiah et al. 2010; Aduse-Poku et al. 2015), and their evolutionary history 95 is expected to be closely tied to the rise to ecological dominance of C₄ grasses in savannah habitats (Pena & Wahlberg 2008). In addition, mycalesine butterflies that inhabit C₄ grass-96 97 dominated open habitats in East Africa and elsewhere in the Old World tropics, in contrast to 98 species found in the environmentally more stable forests, are faced with the challenge of 99 alternating seasons (Brakefield 2010). Many of these savannah species exhibit seasonal 100 polyphenism with alternative forms occurring in the wet and dry seasons (Windig et al. 1994; 101 Roskam & Brakefield 1999), such that polyphenism and adaptations to C₄ grass feeding are 102 expected to evolve in concert.

103 Our understanding of the larval ecology of this group is rudimentary in spite of many 104 ecological studies. Natural host plant records for grass-feeding mycalesines are very limited 105 and unreliable, as the larvae are generally cryptic and nocturnal feeders (Brakefield & 106 Mazzotta 1995). This seriously hampers investigations on the evolution of feeding ecology in 107 these butterflies. However, stable isotope analyses, which have become an important part of 108 the ecologist's toolbox over the last three decades, represent an unexploited opportunity to 109 better understand larval feeding preferences and micro-climate conditions during 110 development in mycalesine butterflies (West et al. 2006).

111 Isotopic data have, for instance, successfully been used to track migration patterns of 112 birds and insects (Wassenaar & Hobson 1998; Kelly et al. 2002; Brattström et al. 2010) and 113 to determine dietary preferences of fossil and modern animals (Ben-David, Flynn & Schell 114 1997; Cerling et al. 1997). These studies have shown that the feeding history of animals, with respect to C_3 and C_4 grasses, can be traced by analysing the relative amount of carbon-115 13 (¹³C) in the tissues of herbivores (Boutton, Cameron & Smith 1978; Fry, Joern & Parker 116 1978; Cerling et al. 1997; Fischer, O'Brien & Boggs 2004; Codron et al. 2012). Plants 117 discriminate against 13 CO₂ during photosynthesis, but the C₄ pathway significantly lowers 118 this discrimination, leading to distinct non-overlapping differences in $\delta^{13}C$ values between C_3 119 and C₄ plants (O'Leary 1988). These differences in ¹³C isotope ratios are transmitted to the 120 121 tissues of the herbivores that feed on the plant material (Cerling, Ehleringer & Harris 1998). Furthermore, stable isotopes of oxygen, and in particular the ¹⁸O composition of the 122 123 haemolymph and organic material of the exoskeleton of terrestrial arthropods, can be used to 124 quantify the mean atmospheric conditions surrounding the animal before moulting (Ellwood et al. 2011). Arthropods control the respiratory loss of water by opening and closing the 125 tracheal openings used for gas exchange. As water evaporates, diffusion and equilibration 126 fractionations favour the lighter isotope (¹⁶O) such that residual animal tissue water tends to 127

become enriched in the heavier isotope (¹⁸O). Individuals that experience conditions of low humidity, and therefore high rates of evaporation, prior to the final moult, show enriched values of δ^{18} O in exoskeleton organic material.

131 The aims of this study were, firstly, to experimentally determine whether stable isotopes of carbon and oxygen sampled from the exoskeleton of adult mycalesine butterflies 132 133 could provide key information about larval ecology. We used laboratory experiments to 134 elucidate the relationships between the environmental conditions during development and the 135 isotopic composition of the organic material obtained from the adult. Secondly, we analysed 136 the isotopic signatures of specimens from two extensive surveys of mycalesine butterflies, 137 one conducted in Africa and the other in Asia. Since these small herbivores are able to 138 complete development on a single or limited number of individual host plants and are 139 relatively immobile, we were able to investigate details of host plant-herbivore interactions in 140 the wild. This allowed us to explore whether the ecological and physiological differences between C₃ and C₄ grasses are associated with the larval host plant and/or adult habitat 141 142 preferences of several mycalesine species.

143 The ability of mycalesines to process C₄ foliage is expected to be phylogenetically 144 clustered and associated with adult habitat preferences. Mycalesine species which remained restricted to shaded forest understories, where the advantage of the C4 pathway is normally 145 lost, are expected to be C₃ specialists. In contrast, species which successfully inhabit the more 146 147 open C₄ grass-dominated environments as adults are expected to have acquired novel feeding 148 adaptations and predicted to be more opportunistic and generalist in their larval host plant 149 choice. In addition, larvae which complete development in these open habitats are more likely to respire at low levels of atmospheric humidity which should be reflected in the ¹⁸O 150 151 composition of the adult exoskeleton.

In the C₄-dominated savannah habitats, host plant quality decreases rapidly during the dry season as the environment gradually dries out. Seasonal patterns in host plant use are predicted for generalists that inhabit these open habitats, with an increased preference for high quality C₃ grasses during the dry season. For seasonal forms, we also predicted strong associations between the values of δ^{18} O in organic material and the varying seasonal environment in the open habitat. In contrast, the composition of oxygen stable isotopes is likely to remain more constant in stable environments.

159

160 Material and methods

161 Laboratory experiments

162 We conducted four laboratory experiments under defined environmental conditions to 163 examine how isotopic signatures are established in mycalesine butterflies. The first two experiments (A and B) investigated whether the feeding history of individual larvae on C_3 164 and C₄ grasses could be traced by analysing the δ^{13} C of adult leg tissue. They also explored 165 how a mixed larval diet of C₃ and C₄ plants affects the isotopic signature, and whether 166 different types of adult tissue share similar δ^{13} C values in our model species. The aim of the 167 next two experiments (C and D) was to examine the extent to which the relative humidity 168 (RH) of the environment affects ¹⁸O composition in the organic material of mycalesine 169 170 butterflies. Individuals experiencing low RH are expected to lose water faster through evaporation, which could lead to more enriched δ^{18} O values. The final experiment was 171 172 designed to identify the developmental period resulting in the evaporative signal found in adult butterflies: is ¹⁸O enrichment in the exoskeleton of adults the result of increased 173 174 evaporation rates in the host plants and transmitted to the tissue of the herbivorous insect 175 reflecting a signal of the atmospheric conditions during larval development, or is it 176 incorporated into the exoskeleton during the adult stage?

177 Experiments A and B were conducted with Mycalesis mineus (Linnaeus, 1758), an 178 Asian species which occurs throughout South and Southeast Asia from India to the Philippine 179 archipelago (Monastyrskii 2005). The founders of this population were collected near Khao 180 Chong Nature Reserve, Thailand in 2011. Experiments C and D used Bicyclus anynana (Butler, 1879), an African species which occurs in seasonal habitats from Ethiopia to the 181 182 most northern provinces of South Africa (Larsen 1991). The stock population used for experiments C and D was established in 2011 and indirectly originated from the Leiden 183 University laboratory stock population set up in 1988 from 80 gravid females collected near 184 185 Nkhata Bay in Malawi (Brakefield, Beldade & Zwaan 2009). Unless stated otherwise, all 186 larvae were reared on maize plants (Zea mays) in controlled environment chambers at 27°C, 187 70% RH, and L12:D12.

188 For experiment A, larvae were either reared on wheat (Triticum aestivum) or maize, 189 which are C_3 and C_4 grass species, respectively. Leaf samples were collected throughout larval development in order to compare the δ^{13} C values of the host plant (N=16) and leg 190 tissue of adult butterflies (N=24). The same protocol was followed for experiment B. 191 192 However, on the first day of the fifth instar, the larvae within each cohort were randomly transferred to a cage with either the original host plant or that of the alternative 193 194 photosynthetic pathway, and allowed to complete development. After eclosion, butterflies 195 were frozen at -20°C before the adults had fed, and then stored in individual envelopes until further processing. For experiment B, δ^{13} C values were obtained from leg, antenna and wing 196 197 tissue (N=40).

In experiment C, larvae were reared as described above and, on the first day after eclosion, adults were randomly transferred to a climate room with either the original RH (70%) or to a low humidity climate room (20% RH). Here, the adults were fed on moist banana and samples were collected from both cohorts on a daily basis for 21 consecutive

days (N=97). For the final experiment (D), host plants were cultivated under high (90%;
HIGH) or low RH (50%; LOW). Larvae were also reared under HIGH or LOW conditions
and on either HIGH or LOW host plants. The adults of these four cohorts were randomly
transferred to either a HIGH or a LOW climate room, resulting in eight experimental cohorts
(N=80). Adults were fed on moist banana, and after 14 days frozen and stored individually.
Schematic representations of these four laboratory experiments are given in figure S1.

208

209 Field material

210 We analysed the isotopic signatures of specimens from two independent longitudinal samples 211 of mycalesine butterflies, one collected in a seasonal open habitat in Africa and the other in a 212 more stable secondary forest in Asia. For the first dataset, the butterflies were caught daily 213 between June 1995 and May 1998 at Zomba, Malawi (15°22'S, 35°19'E). Here, three traps 214 were baited with fermenting banana and placed on the edge of the evergreen forest covering 215 the slopes of Zomba Mountain. The habitat rapidly changes into open grasslands and sparse 216 woodland-savannah just below the trapping site (Brakefield & Reitsma 1991; Windig et al. 217 1994). The second survey was conducted between December 2011 and January 2013 at the 218 Genting Tea Estate, Pahang, western Malaysia (3°21'N, 101°47'E). Five traps were located 219 near or in advanced secondary forest and baited twice a week with fermenting banana 220 (Holloway et al. 2013). All trapped mycalesine butterflies were killed and stored in 221 envelopes. After transport to Europe the samples were refrigerated (± 5°C), before sorting 222 and analysis in 2013. In Malaysia, daily climatic data (minimum and maximum temperature, 223 RH and rainfall) were collected during the trapping period. In Malawi, climatic data were 224 obtained from Chancellor College, about 2 km from the trapping site.

Three African mycalesine species were abundant in the Zomba material; *Bicyclus ena*(Hewitson, 1877), *B. safitza* (Westwood, 1850) and *B. vansoni* Condamin, 1965. Adults of *B.*

227 ena are normally found in open savannah habitats, especially on rocky hillsides (Pringle 228 1994; Windig et al. 1994). B. safitza has a wider distributional and ecological range, but the 229 adults mainly inhabit open grasslands (Larsen 2005). In contrast, adults of B. vansoni are 230 restricted to shaded forest habitats and forest margins (Kielland 1990; Windig et al. 1994). 231 Specimens were randomly selected from the available material, aiming to include at least 232 three males and three females of each species from every month (total N=587). The Genting 233 material contained eight mycalesine species, representing four genera; Telinga janardana 234 (Moore, 1857), Mycalesis intermedia (Moore, 1892), M. oroatis, Hewitson, 1864, M. orseis, 235 Hewitson, 1864, M. visala, Moore, 1858, Mydosama fusca (C. & R. Felder, 1860), M. 236 maianes (Hewitson, 1864), and Culapa mnasicles (Hewitson, 1864) (N=367).

In addition to sampling tissues for isotopic analyses, the ventral surface of one hindwing of each individual was photographed using a Canon EOS 600D camera with a macro lens. These images were analysed with the image processing package Fiji v1.45b (Schindelin *et al.* 2012) and the following wing pattern elements measured to classify individuals into seasonal forms: (i) the wing size; (ii) radius and area of the inner black disc of the eyespot in the 2nd cell (the fifth eyespot); and (iii) radius and area of the yellow outer ring of the eyespot in the 2nd cell (adjusted from Wijngaarden & Brakefield 2001; figure S2).

245 Isotopic analyses

To assay the relative amount of stable isotopes of carbon in our specimens, leg tissue was placed into 8 x 5 mm tin capsules, sealed and loaded into an auto-sampler. The tissue within the capsule was combusted at 600 °C with a pulse of Oxygen and the resultant CO_2 fed into a Costech Elemental Analyser and analysed for ${}^{13}C/{}^{12}C$ with an in-line Thermo DELTA V mass spectrometer. Helium was used as a carrier gas and the gaseous products were separated by a packed gas chromatographic molecular sieve column at a temperature of 90°C and 252 passed into the mass spectrometer via a Thermo Conflo IV interface. The mass spectrometer software is programmed to compare the area under the peak of CO_2 and the ${}^{13}C/{}^{12}C$ isotope 253 254 ratio. For the analysis of oxygen isotopes, the samples were placed in silver capsules. These samples were pyrolysed at 1200°C using a Thermo Finnigan TC/EA attached to a Thermo 255 256 Delta V mass spectrometer via a ConFlo 3. Reference standards from IAEA in Vienna were run at intervals throughout the sequence and these values are used to calibrate to the 257 international standards of ${}^{13}C/{}^{12}C$ ($\delta^{13}C$ Vienna-PDB) and ${}^{18}O/{}^{16}O$ ($\delta^{18}O$ V-SMOW). 258 Precision of analyses is better than 0.1 per mille for ${}^{13}C/{}^{12}C$ and about 0.4 per mille for 259 ¹⁸O/¹⁶O. Both analyses were conducted at the Godwin Laboratory for Palaeoclimate 260 261 Research, Department of Earth Sciences, University of Cambridge.

262

263 Statistical analyses

All statistical analyses were performed with the R Statistical Package v 3.1.2 (R 264 265 Development Core Team 2014). We used Student's t-tests to analyse the data from experiment A, and for experiment B we conducted two-way ANOVAs. For experiment C we 266 carried out a multiple linear regression with the δ^{18} O values as the dependent variable, and 267 the adult RH treatment and adult age (i.e. time spent in RH treatment) as independent 268 269 variables. A significant interaction between both independent variables can be interpreted as a differential change in δ^{18} O values over time in both adult RH treatments. For experiment D, 270 271 a three-way ANOVA was used to analyse the effect of RH during each experimental stage on 272 the δ^{18} O values obtained from adult organic material, initially fitting full models with each 273 developmental stage, and their interactions, as fixed factors and removing non-significant terms successively. Dietary preferences among the three species from Zomba were 274 investigated by using Chi-squared tests to compare the number of δ^{13} C values per species 275 falling within the typical ranges for C₃ or C₄ plants. We used a generalised linear model 276

277 (GLM) to test for seasonal patterns in host plant use. The number of individuals in each 278 category was used as dependent variable with a Poisson distribution. The species, seasonal 279 form and photosynthetic pathway of the host plant and their interactions were used as fixed 280 factors. All interaction terms were initially included and backward elimination by Akaike 281 Information Criterion (AIC) was used to find the minimum adequate model. For the Genting 282 material we focused on the two most commonly used methods to estimate the phylogenetic signal: Blomberg's K (Blomberg, Garland & Ives 2003) and Pagel's λ (Pagel 1999). Both K 283 and λ were estimated for the proportion of C₃ signatures (N_{C3} : N_{C3}+N_{C4}) in each species 284 285 using the function phylosig in the R package phytools (Revell 2012). Finally, two and three-286 way ANOVAs were used to analyse the effects of the species, sex and seasonal form on the δ^{18} O values obtained from the field material. Again, this was done by initially fitting full 287 288 models with all fixed factors and interactions, and then removing non-significant terms 289 successively. This procedure was followed by a post hoc Tukey HSD test to identify differences between groups. 290

291

292 **Results**

293 Laboratory experiments

Experiment A revealed that δ^{13} C in adult leg tissue does not significantly differ from the isotopic signature of the larval host plant (C₃: t = -1.25, df = 12.49, P = 0.24 and C₄: t = -1.47, df = 11.89, P = 0.17; figure 1a). The results from experiment B indicated that the different adult tissues of leg, antennae and wing material have very similar δ^{13} C values (figure 1b). In addition, all analysed tissues largely reflect the isotopic composition of the nutrients obtained during the final phase of development, the fifth instar, as the δ^{13} C values of individuals that were swapped from the C₃ to the C₄ host plant at this final stage of larval development were 301 more similar to the isotopic signatures of individuals that were reared on C_4 plants during all 302 larval stages, and *vice versa* (table S1).

Experiment C showed that δ^{18} O in adult leg tissue is not affected by high rates of 303 local water evaporation during the adult stage. The interaction between the humidity 304 treatment and the age of the adult was non-significant (P=0.93) and the δ^{18} O values obtained 305 306 from adults that were transferred to the LOW (50% RH) humidity climate room remained 307 stable throughout the 21 day sampling period. Similar results were found for control 308 individuals which were kept under HIGH (90% RH) conditions for the same period (table 1). Neither the RH conditions under which the host plants were cultivated, nor the RH 309 experienced during the adult phase, affected the δ^{18} O values in adult leg material in 310 311 experiment D. In contrast, the leg tissue of individuals reared under low RH and which had, 312 therefore, experienced increased rates of evaporation during the larval stage was significantly 313 enriched in 18 O (table 2).

314

315 Stable isotopes of carbon in field material

316 In both the open and seasonal habitat in Zomba, Malawi, as well as in the shaded secondary forest in Genting, Malaysia, we found distinct bimodal distributions in $\delta^{13}C$ values, 317 representing the isotopic composition of C_3 and C_4 grasses (individuals with $\delta^{13}C$ values less 318 319 than -25% were classified as C₃ feeders; figure S3). At Zomba, the proportion of larvae that developed on C₃ grasses was significantly higher in *B. vansoni*, the species where adults are 320 predominantly found in (semi-)shaded forest habitats and forest margins (B. vansoni:B. ena 321 comparison, $X^2 = 187.16$, df =1, P < 0.01; B. vansoni:B. safitza comparison, $X^2 = 216.50$, df 322 =1, P < 0.01). The ratios of $C_3:C_4$ feeding did not significantly differ between B. ena and B. 323 safitza, the two species where adults inhabit the open grasslands (B. ena:B. safitza 324 comparison, $X^2 = 0.04$, df =1, P = 0.86). In addition, in all three species, we observed a trend 325

326 towards an increased use of C_3 host plants during the dry season, although this interaction 327 between seasonal form and host plant-use only approached significance (z = 1.753, P = 0.08; table 3 and table S2). The δ^{13} C values of half of the eight mycalesines collected in Genting, 328 T. janardana, M. intermedia, M. orseis and M. visala, revealed that these species frequently 329 330 develop on C₄ grasses throughout the year. We found no evidence for C₄ larval feeding in any of the remaining four species; *M. oroatis*, *M. fusca*, *M. maianes* and *C. mnasicles*. The ability 331 332 to use C₄ grasses as the natural host was significantly correlated with the phylogenetic 333 relatedness of the Genting species (Blomberg's K = 1.23, P < 0.05; Pagels λ = 1.08, P < 0.05; 334 figure 3).

335

336 Stable isotopes of oxygen in field material

The δ^{18} O values collected throughout the sampling period in Genting did not differ among 337 338 the different species nor to the sex of the individuals (table 4). In contrast, in the seasonal 339 habitat in Zomba, the isotopic signatures were significantly higher in dry season form (DSF) individuals compared to wet season form (WSF) specimens of the same species (table 4; 340 Tukey's HSD test, P < 0.01). In addition, B. ena was significantly more enriched in ¹⁸O 341 342 compared to the other two species (Tukey's HSD tests, P < 0.01), while there was no significant difference in δ^{18} O between *B. safitza* and *B. vansoni* (Tukey's HSD test, P = 0.54). 343 The δ^{18} O values of specimens collected during the early phase of the dry season were slightly 344 lower compared to the DSF individuals caught just before the following rainy period. In 345 346 addition, the WSF individuals that emerged immediately in the early wet season were more enriched in ¹⁸O compared to WSF specimens that had emerged in the middle of the wet 347 348 season (figure 2).

349

351 Discussion

Our laboratory experiments indicate that dietary preferences for grasses with a C_3 or C_4 352 photosynthetic pathway can be traced accurately in mycalesine butterfly larvae by analysing 353 the relative amount of ¹³C deposited in the exoskeleton of adult butterflies. We have also 354 shown that the values of δ^{18} O measured in adult organic material reflect atmospheric 355 356 humidity during larval development. Together, these isotopic proxies provide key information about the larval feeding ecology and atmospheric environment of mycalesine 357 358 butterflies in the wild, and enable three key inferences. First, species that inhabit open environments are more opportunistic in their larval host plant choice, whereas C₃ grass 359 360 specialists were only found in the shaded habitat. Secondly, we observed seasonality in host 361 plant utilization and larval respiration in the open savannah habitat, such that during the early 362 dry season, larvae are more likely to use C₃ grasses and to experience higher rates of 363 evaporation. Finally, our data suggest that the ability to process C₄ grasses is phylogenetically 364 clustered within mycalesine species.

365

366 Proof of principle experiments

Animal organic tissue is enriched in δ^{13} C, on average, by about 1% relative to the diet 367 (Deniro & Epstein 1978), but enrichment in δ^{13} C can be as high as 14.1% in the tooth enamel 368 of large mammals because of equilibrium fractionation associated with inorganic carbon 369 370 deposition (Cerling et al. 1997; Cerling & Harris 1999). Our results indicate that the isotopic 371 composition of leg tissue in mycalesine butterflies is not significantly enriched compared to the isotopic composition of the larval host plant (see also Fischer, O'Brien & Boggs 2004), 372 suggesting that isotopic discrimination during digestion and assimilation is very limited in 373 374 these species. In addition, we demonstrate that, in mycalesine butterflies, and probably, therefore, in other holometabolous insect herbivores, the isotopic signatures of adult tissue to 375

376 a large extent reflect the isotopic composition of the host plant consumed by the larvae during 377 the final phase of development when most larval growth occurs and development of adult tissues begins. The δ^{13} C values were comparable across tissues, although the isotopic 378 composition of antennal tissue showed a consistent deviation towards the isotopic of the host 379 380 plant utilized during the first four larval instars. This may indicate differences in the 381 allocation of nutrients acquired during the final larval instar amongst the analysed tissues, or differences in the timing of the initiation of the development of these adult tissues during the 382 383 larval stage.

While ¹³C has a proven track record of revealing dietary preferences, stable isotopes 384 385 of oxygen have rarely been used as a marker of abiotic conditions during development in 386 terrestrial insects and never been used in field studies. Using mycalesine butterflies under 387 defined experimental conditions, we show here that insect larvae respiring at low humidity are significantly enriched in the ¹⁸O composition of the organic material of the adult 388 exoskeleton. It has been demonstrated previously that the values of δ^{18} O of the haemolymph 389 390 continue to increase when adult insects are kept under low RH (Ellwood et al. 2011). Our 391 results indicate that this evaporative enrichment of adult haemolymph does not affect the isotopic composition of the exoskeleton. A similar result was obtained for the increased 392 393 evaporation rates of the host plant during seedling establishment and growth (Helliker & 394 Ehleringer 2000). As a caveat we note, however, that the adults of laboratory experiments C and D were only exposed to conditions of low humidity for a period of 21 and 14 days, 395 396 respectively. In the natural environment, DSF individuals have to cope with low humidity for 397 many months and our data do not allow us to exclude potential long-term effects of low humidity on the isotopic composition of the exoskeleton. In general though, the ¹⁸O signature 398 399 of the haemolymph of larvae is expected to be transferred to the organic material of the exoskeleton of the adult around the time of the final moult, and our data indicate that the ¹⁸O 400

401 composition of the chitin of terrestrial arthropods can be used as a direct indicator of402 atmospheric humidity during larval development.

403

404 Larval ecology

405 In both the open habitat in Zomba, as well as in the shaded forest in Genting, the isotopic signatures revealed that the larvae of some mycalesine species utilize C₄ grasses in their 406 natural environment. In the material from Zomba, the C3:C4 ratios of the different species 407 408 were strongly associated with the habitat preferences of the adult butterfly. Species that fly in 409 the more open grasslands, B. ena and B. safitza, were more likely to complete development 410 on C_4 grasses whereas individuals of *B. vansoni* from more shaded habitats mainly utilized C_3 host plants. None of these three species from a seasonal environment exclusively used host 411 412 plants from one of the two alternative photosynthetic pathways, suggesting that, within the 413 Poaceae, these species may indeed be opportunistic and generalist in their host plant choice. Where the δ^{13} C values indicated that the larval host plant use of both open savannah species 414 415 was more similar, the oxygen signatures revealed that the *B. ena* larvae consistently respired 416 at lower RH during development, compared to B. safitza and B. vansoni, which completed 417 development under more humid atmospheric conditions. Adults of *B. safitza* normally inhabit 418 grasslands with scrub and open woodland and have a wider ecological range than those of B. 419 ena. The latter species is restricted to open savannah habitats and is likely to be more tolerant of arid conditions during larval development. Overall, the combination of $\delta^{18}O$ and $\delta^{13}C$ 420 421 closely reflects the habitat preferences of adults.

In the shaded secondary forest in Genting where RH was constant and high throughout the sampling period, the ¹⁸O composition did not differ among species, indicating that the atmospheric humidity experienced during development was similar for all species. In contrast, the δ^{13} C values revealed clear differences in host plant preferences, with half of the 426 species frequently utilizing C_4 plants while the other species solely using C_3 grasses. This 427 indicates that there is no inherent barrier to forest species consuming C_4 grasses. 428 Furthermore, this observation conflicts with the prediction that generalists avoid C_4 leaves 429 when C_3 host plants are available (Caswell *et al.* 1973; see further below).

430

431 Seasonal variation at field sites

432 The climatic data were used to discover when seasonal shifts occurred during the period 433 when the specimens were collected. In the seasonal habitat in Zomba, Malawi, periods of 434 increased rainfall normally started around the beginning of November and extended into 435 April of the next year. Temperature starts to rise about two months before the first rains. The 436 RH increases rapidly during these rainy periods, peaks about six weeks after the onset of the 437 first rains and gradually decreases throughout the entire dry season. The dry season of 1995 438 was especially arid, with weekly means of RH as low as 21% immediately before the first 439 rains of that year. In contrast, in the secondary forest in Genting, Malaysia, the temperature 440 and RH remained constant and relatively high throughout the year (figure 2). Substantial 441 phenotypic variation was found for most species in both surveys. In Genting, the phenotypic 442 variability was not correlated to any of the measured abiotic factors. However, in the material 443 from Zomba, phenotypic variation was clearly associated with the seasonal climatic 444 fluctuations in all three species of *Bicyclus* (see also Windig et al. 1994). In each year, the 445 first wet season form (WSF) individuals appear soon after the onset of the first rains when the 446 temperature is high and humidity is increasing rapidly. In contrast, dry season form (DSF) adults begin to emerge when the environment is gradually drying out and the temperature is 447 448 significantly lower (Brakefield, Pijpe & Zwaan 2007).

449 In the seasonal habitat in Zomba, we found a tendency to utilize C_3 grasses more 450 frequently when the C_4 host plants potentially become less palatable during the early dry

451 season. This observation suggests that the preference of grass-feeding generalist herbivores 452 for high quality C_3 grass species increases during this period (Caswell *et al.* 1973). However, 453 the differences in $C_3:C_4$ ratios between seasonal forms may also reflect seasonal variation in 454 the availability of the two types of host plants or indicate that there may be a longer window 455 of opportunities for successful development and adult recruitment in forest margins, where C_3 456 grass species are expected to be more prevalent.

Mycalesine species that developed in the stable and shaded habitat in Genting had 457 similar δ^{18} O values throughout the year, while we observed significant differences between 458 seasonal forms in the material collected in the open seasonal habitat in Zomba. Here, the ¹⁸O 459 460 composition of DSF individuals was significantly enriched in all species. The butterflies 461 collected immediately after the onset of the first rains expressed WSF phenotypes as are 462 induced by high temperatures experienced during the late larval and early pupal stages (Kooi 463 & Brakefield 1999). Interestingly, these early WSF individuals also demonstrated an enriched ¹⁸O composition of the exoskeleton indicating that they had experienced conditions of low 464 465 RH, and therefore high rates of evaporation, during larval development. In the early wet 466 season, these individuals are likely to utilize the first vegetation that appears after a long 467 period of drought and develop while the environment is becoming increasingly more humid 468 (see figure 2). Later in the wet season, when the temperature is still relatively high and the maximum levels of RH are reached, larvae develop into WSF individuals and have 469 comparatively low values of δ^{18} O. The temperature drops further during the early months 470 471 following the final rains and DSF individuals begin to appear. The environment is then gradually drying out as is reflected by enrichment in the ¹⁸O composition of adult 472 exoskeletons. The temperature rises significantly during the final phase of the dry season 473 474 while the RH continues to drop. No recruitment occurs during this part of the season as the 475 grasses in the open savannah habitats dry out and disappear completely (see also Windig et 476 *al.* 1994). The butterflies collected in this period likely completed development in the early 477 dry season and survived until they could reproduce with the onset of the next rains. This is 478 confirmed by the absence of intermediate or WSF butterflies with extremely high values of 479 δ^{18} O.

480 These results clearly indicate that the ratios of stable isotopes of carbon and oxygen 481 obtained from adult organic material can shed light on the larval ecology of insect herbivores and contribute to our understanding of local tropical communities. To our knowledge, this is 482 the first study in which stable isotopes of oxygen have been used in an ecological context in 483 terrestrial arthropods. However, δ^{18} O tends to decrease with increasing latitude, altitude and 484 485 towards the continental interior due to environmental effects on the source water (Bradley 486 2015), which could make biological comparisons across ecological communities and 487 continental gradients challenging.

488

489 Phylogenetic signal

490 Of the three species of *Bicyclus* we sampled in the seasonal environment, adults of *B*. 491 vansoni, in contrast to B. ena and B. safitza, are normally found in more shaded habitats. 492 Interestingly, B. vansoni is not considered to be a true forest species as it is frequently found 493 in the semi-shaded forests margins while most *Bicyclus* species, and especially the basal 494 lineages of the genus, are less tolerant to habitat disturbance and only found in habitats with 495 complete canopy cover. This may indicate that only those mycalesine species that frequently 496 interact with C₄ grass-dominated open environments, or have done so in the past, are able to 497 utilize the C₄ host plants that are available in their natural habitat. In this context, the results 498 from the more stable environment in Genting are particularly interesting. Here, four out of the 499 eight species solely utilized C₃ host plants during larval development while, evidently, C₄ 500 grasses were available in their natural habitat. The ability to use C₄ grasses as the natural host 501 is significantly correlated with the phylogenetic relatedness of the species, indicating that 502 closely related species exhibit similar host plant preferences in this habitat. This is consistent 503 with the hypothesis that those mycalesine species that have been restricted to shaded forest 504 understories throughout their evolutionary history have not evolved adaptations to cope with 505 the lower palatability of C₄. In contrast, species which acquired novel feeding adaptations 506 could colonize new, open ecological niches in the C4-dominated habitats which were 507 comparatively free of competition from other herbivores, resulting in divergent selection and 508 ultimately speciation (Heckathorn, McNaughton & Coleman 1999).

509 The results of this small-scale comparative analysis of host plant use in mycalesine 510 butterflies are encouraging and emphasize the importance of a more detailed investigation of 511 co-evolutionary patterns between mycalesines and their natural host plants. The phylogenetic 512 relationships of about 200 species, across the entire Mycalesina subtribe, have been inferred 513 recently (Aduse-Poku et al. 2015). With a robust phylogenetic framework readily available 514 and the applicability of stable isotopes verified, it is now timely to investigate whether the 515 evolutionary history of mycalesine butterflies is closely tied to the evolutionary history of 516 their hosts and the colonisation of open habitats.

517

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529 7. TABLES

530

Table 1: For experiment C, we carried out a multiple linear regression with the δ^{18} O values as the dependent variable, and the adult RH treatment and adult age, (i.e. time spend in RH treatment), as independent variables. The non-significant interaction between both independent variables (in bold) was interpreted as an absence of change in δ^{18} O values over time in both adult RH treatments.

fixed effects	t	Р
Age	0.11	0.916
RH adult stage	1.28	0.205
Age : RH adult stage	0.09	0.930
	Age RH adult stage	Age0.11RH adult stage1.28

537 Table 2: Minimum adequate models of the effect of RH during each experimental stage on

538 the δ^{18} O values obtained from adult organic material in experiment D. The exoskeleton of

539	individuals that experienced low RH during the larval stage was significantly enriched in ¹⁸ O.

dependent variable	fixed effects	F	df	Р
δ^{18} O values	RH host plant	0.11	1,76	0.743
	RH larval stage	75.76	1,76	<0.001
	RH adult stage	2.51	1,76	0.118

541	Table 3: In Zomba, the proportion of larvae that developed on C_3 rather than C_4 grasses, was
542	significantly higher in B. vansoni; the species that is predominantly found in (semi-) shaded
543	forests and forest margins, while the larvae of the two species that inhabit the open grasslands
544	(B. ena and B. safitza) largely completed development on C_4 grasses. In addition, we
545	observed a seasonal trend in host plant use towards an increased relative consumption (RC)
546	of C ₃ host plants during the dry season in all species (minimum adequate model presented in
547	table S2). The change in relative consumption between both seasonal forms (DSF/WSF) is
548	greater than 1 in all species, indicating an increased utilization of C_3 host plants in DSF
549	individuals.

Species	Seasonal form	C ₃	C ₄	RC	DSF/WSF
B. ena	DSF	11	101	0.11	2 22
	WSF	2	61	0.03	3.32
B. safitza	DSF	10	113	0.09	2.01
	WSF	4	91	0.04	2.01
B. vansoni	DSF	69	19	3.63	1.20
	WSF	78	27	2.89	1.26

Table 4: Minimum adequate models of the effects of species, sex and seasonal form on the δ^{18} O values obtained from the field material in Genting and Zomba. The δ^{18} O values that were measured for animals collected in the stable secondary forest in Genting were neither correlated to the different species nor to the sex of the individuals. In contrast, in the seasonal habitat in Zomba, the values of δ^{18} O of the different species and their seasonal forms were significant different.

dependent variable	fixed effects	F	df	Р
δ^{18} O values Genting	Species	0.44	7,358	0.876
	Sex	0.09	1,358	0.761
δ^{18} O values Zomba	Species	27.78	2,564	<0.001
	Sex	0.11	1,564	0.742
	Seasonal form	481.29	1,564	<0.001

558 8. FIGURES

559

Figure 1: The left hand figure represents the data collected for experiment A. δ^{13} C in adult leg 560 tissue does not significantly differ from the isotopic signatures of the plant material. The δ^{13} C 561 562 values obtained from leg, antenna and wing tissue in experiment B are represented in the 563 right hand figure. For the first four instars, larvae were either reared on plants of wheat 564 (circles) or maize (squares). On the first day of the fifth instar, the larvae within each cohort 565 were randomly transferred to a cage with either the original host plants (solid lines) or host plants of the alternative photosynthetic pathway (swapped: dashed lines), and allowed to 566 567 complete development. Filled symbols indicate individuals which completed development on 568 wheat while the blank symbols represent specimens which were feeding on maize during the 569 fifth instar. The isotopic signatures of adult tissue mainly reflect the isotopic composition of 570 the host plant which was consumed by the larvae during the final phase of development, when most larval growth occurs and development of adult tissues begins. Error bars represent 571 572 95% confidence intervals.

573 Figure 2: The lower part of this graph is a schematic representation of temperature, relative 574 humidity and daily rainfall through the fluctuating dry and wet seasons in Zomba, Malawi (left) and the stable secondary forest in Genting, Malaysia (right). The small red dots are 575 576 daily mean temperature measurements in Celsius while the red dashed line reflects the 577 seasonal fluctuations in temperature. The small blue dots are daily measurements of RH in percent at 2 pm and the blue dashed line represents the seasonal fluctuations in relative 578 579 humidity. Purple bars represent the daily rainfall in mm. Temperature and rainfall are 580 associated with the left hand axis, relative humidity with the right hand axis. For Zomba, the background colours provide a simplified representation of the dry season (yellow) and wet 581 582 season (green), while the dashed vertical grey lines divide the seasons into early and late. The δ^{18} O values obtained from the exoskeleton of the specimens are represented above the 583 climatic data. $\delta^{18}O$ data have been corrected with five weeks to account for the time lag 584 585 between catching date and the climatic conditions during development. For Zomba, the red 586 circles are WSF individuals and black circles DSF.

Figure 3: The δ^{13} C values for all specimens collected in the stable environment in Genting (N=367). Individuals with δ^{13} C values less than -25‰ were classified as C₃ feeders and values above as C₄ feeders. Pie charts represent the proportion of C₃ feeders in green and C₄ feeders in yellow. Phylogenetic relationships were inferred from the work of Aduse-Poku et al. (2015). In addition, here we refer to *Telinga janardana* (Moore, 1857), which is the novel circumscription of the genus based on a taxonomic revision of the *Heteropsis* clade (see Aduse-Poku *et al.* in press).

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