

UNIVERSITÀ DEGLI STUDI DI TORINO

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8	Title: Mobility and	oviposition	site-selection i	in Zerynthia	cassandra (Le	epidopte	ra, Papi	ilionidae)	;

- 9 implications for its conservation.
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27 28 Abstract 29

30 The adults' mobility and oviposition preferences of Zerynthia cassandra have been studied for the first 31 time, with the aim of integrating auto-ecological information into recommendations for the habitat's 32 management of this species. Results of our mark-release-recapture study have highlighted that Z. 33 cassandra is a strictly sedentary species, since detected movements only occurred over very short 34 distances (≤ 200 m) and mainly within the species' reproductive habitat (i.e. around Aristolochia 35 rotunda stands), with males moving further than females. Our study shows that the main oviposition 36 habitat of Z. cassandra is found where A. rotunda plants are growing in large stands; sites where plants 37 growing in half to full sun and mostly oriented to the South are preferred. The distance of deposited 38 eggs from the plants' roots was narrowly correlated with the plants' length. Eggs were deposited 39 singly, mainly on the underside of leaflets. Management strategies necessary for improving the most 40 important habitat features for the conservation of this species are suggested.

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45 Keywords: Butterfly conservation, Zerynthia cassandra, oviposition, Aristolochia rotunda

48 Introduction

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50 Causes for the widespread decline of many European butterfly species are 51 primarily recognised in habitat degradation and loss (New 1997; Fox 2012; Maes & 52 Van Dyck 2001; van Swaay et al. 2010). At least in principle, however, any 53 perturbation of the environment can negatively affect species' survival and may be at 54 the core of many extinction processes. As Samways (2007) suggests, strategies for 55 insect conservation must be planned at regional scale, to reduce locally negative 56 impacts. Stenotopic and univoltine butterfly species are particularly threatened 57 worldwide by habitat destruction and climate change, most particularly at the edges of 58 their range (Hoyle & James 2005; Bonelli et al. 2011). Habitat changes have even 59 stronger negative effects on species with low dispersal ability, including many 60 terrestrial invertebrates (Thomas et al. 2004) such as the Papilionid species of the 61 genus Zerynthia.

62 Zervnthia polyxena and Zervnthia cassandra are among the potentially most 63 vulnerable butterflies in the Mediterranean area. Z. polyxena is a strictly European 64 species, ranging from Southern France to the Urals, Italy and the Balkans (Kudrna et 65 al. 2011). In Italy, however, two separate species have been demonstrated to exist. 66 Their species-level separation was initially proposed by Dapporto (2010) on the basis 67 of genitalic characters and more recently confirmed by genetic data (Zinetti et al. 68 2013). In Italy, Z. polyxena occurs in the North of the Country, mainly in the northern 69 plains of the Po river valley and the surrounding foothills of the Alps. The other 70 species, known as Z. cassandra, occupies most of the Peninsula, starting from the 71 northern Tyrrhenian divide and as far South as Calabria, as well as in Sicily. Since 72 they are almost indistinguishable in external morphology, the two species remained 73 lumped under Z. polyxena for a long time. Since Z. cassandra was separated by Z. 74 polyxena (a EU Habitats Directive species) responsibility for the conservation of this 75 species has become a matter of particular importance for Italy, although not yet for the 76 European Union (Maes et al. 2013).

However, characteristics of the life history and ecology of these species are not well
understood and they can probably differ in such characters as habitat selection,
oviposition behaviour and dispersal ability. As concerns ecological characteristics,
adults of *Z. polyxena* require a sub-nemoral habitat and only spend a relatively short

part of the day in open herbaceous areas. Nothing is known, at the moment, as
concerns *Z. cassandra*.

83 The present paper was designed to gain information on some population traits of 84 Z. cassandra deemed particularly useful for planning the conservation of this endemic 85 species. More in detail, our objectives were: (i) to obtain data on adult mobility, by 86 investigating whether Z. cassandra adults moved all through the landscape matrix, (ii) 87 to investigate the habitat factors and larval food-plant characteristics positively 88 influencing the choice of Z. cassandra females in oviposition-site selection and (iii) to 89 consider implications of results from this analysis for the conservation of the species. 90 Gaining this information will be a first step for developing a specific action plan for 91 the conservation of Z. cassandra and will provide useful guidelines for the 92 management of its habitat.

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- 94 Material and Methods
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96 The study species

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98 Similarly to Z. polyxena, Z. cassandra is single brooded and the flight period 99 of adults spans from late February, in Sicily, to the beginning of June, depending on 100 altitude and latitude (Verity 1947; our data), with hibernation diapause in the pupal 101 stage. For an adult female, total fecundity is about 50/60 eggs (personal observations). 102 During the flight period, which lasts around 15 days, females lay on the Aristolochia 103 leaves. In Italy, larvae generally feed on A. rotunda or A. pallida, which always grow 104 in small scattered stands within semi-natural ecotonal grasslands, between (0) 300 and 105 900 m.

106 At least 15 populations of Z. cassandra are known for having become extinct 107 in Italy during the past 50 years (Bonelli et al. 2011), generally as a consequence of 108 habitat loss and/or demographic stochasticity, since this species typically occurs only 109 at low-densities. Populations of all Zerynthia species are restricted to micro-habitats 110 where their larval food plants (Aristolochia spp.) grow, and their restricted, spots-like 111 distribution, is probably related to host plants' distribution, even though Zerynthia 112 populations are generally much rarer than those of their food-plants. Adults of Z. 113 polyxena do not move over great distances and seldom fly far from their reproductive

areas in search of suitable host plants. In a population from Slovenia, the maximumrecorded flight distance was 400 m (Çelik 2012).

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117 The study sites

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119 Two disjunct areas were used in Italy as study sites for the work presented 120 here (Fig.1). The "Capanne di Marcarolo" Regional Park (SCI IT 1180026) and the 121 "Laghi di Conversano e Gravina di Monsignore" Regional Park (SCI IT 9120006). 122 The two sites were chosen for their position at the extremity of the distribution range 123 of the species, as well as because of logistic reasons. These two areas contain large 124 and persistent populations of Z. cassandra. We investigated egg-laying behaviour at both sites, but we carried out also mark-release-recapture only at "Laghi di 125 126 Conversano".

127 The "Laghi di Conversano e Gravina di Monsignore" Regional Park is in 128 Apulia, in the Southeast of the Italian peninsula. The Natural Park area consists of a 129 set of ten karst ponds (dolines) located in a fragmented agricultural matrix (Altini et 130 al. 2007). Populations of Z. cassandra are here under threat from habitat loss by 131 anthropogenic disturbance and spread of vineyards. We analysed the egg-laying 132 behaviour and the adults' movement of Z. cassandra in one of these dolines, i.e the "Chienna lake" (48°58'37" N, 17°04'21" E), which is surrounded by orchards and 133 134 vineyards. For the mobility study, we divided the site into 7 arbitrary plots from 0.68 135 to 3.32 ha in size. Distances between occupied plots ranged from 110 to 477 meters.

The oviposition study was conducted at 3 sites a) Site 1: a grassland area of 96 m² located in plot C, near a Mediterranean pond and with a 25% canopy cover (40° 58' 17" N, 17° 04' 24" E).

139 b) Site 2: a 170 m² area within plot D (40° 68' 17" N, 17° 04' 30" E) with less than 140 10% canopy cover.

141 c) Site 3: an area of 78 m² in plot G, with 10% canopy cover (40° 58' 41" N, 17° 04'
142 47" E).

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144 The Regional Park of "Capanne di Marcarolo" is located in the North-west of 145 Italy. Our field study was conducted at three sites, where the butterfly apparently 146 reached its locally highest densities a) Site 1: Woodland edge. (44°36'22" N 8°46'01" E): consisting of a 128 m²
mesophilous meadow bordered by a Black locust (*Robinia pseudoacacia*) grove and
with 10% canopy cover.

b) Site 2: Riparian grassland (44°36'21" N 8°45'58" E): having a 50 m² grassland with
sparse alder (*Alnus glutinosa*) shrub and hygrophilous vegetation Canopy cover was
25%;

c) Site 3: Dry grassland (44°38′ N 8°51′E): a 170 m² semi-natural grassland with 5%
canopy cover.

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156 Egg-laying studies

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158 We thoroughly investigated our sites to locate egg-laying areas and to record 159 food-plant's characteristics, eggs' location details of and surrounding 160 vegetation/habitat. In April/May 2010, we exhaustively assessed the distribution of Aristolochia plants and Zerynthia eggs at "Capanne di Marcarolo" and in April 2013 161 at "Laghi di Conversano". Z. cassandra occurred in small and often isolated 162 163 populations, so that individually following females and observing their egg-laying 164 behaviour was not the appropriate field method, in this case. To avoid any bias 165 towards expected habitat characteristics, we used intensive search method. Some adults were still flying during the survey period, but the season was nearing its end, so 166 167 that we conducted egg census shortly after the butterflies had completed oviposition.

Observations were aimed at determining eggs' distribution on each host-plant. *Z. cassandra* eggs are not morphologically different from those of *Z. polyxena*, but since they are characteristic in shape, size and colour they can be unequivocally identified even when hatched, since egg shells remain on the leaves for at least two weeks. To avoid recounting the same plant twice during the survey, we marked each plant with a flag-bearing stick.

The characteristics of *Z. cassandra* oviposition habitat were recorded at the landscape, patch and plant level. At landscape level, the numbers of eggs and of *A. rotunda* plants were assessed at all study sites. At patch level, the geographical orientation (the direction the slope faces with respect to the sun, or "aspect"), number of plants (1 plant, small stand with 2-5 plants, large stand with > 5 plants) and sun exposure (exposure to sunlight reaching the spot during a sunny day) were collected.

180 At plant level, habitat parameters were recorded in 1 x 1 m sample quadrats having the plant in the centre. Measurements of plant height, height of the surrounding 181 182 vegetation, vegetation coverage (estimated in 5% units) and distance from the nearest 183 tree were recorded in each quadrat. Finally, the number of eggs observed on each 184 plant, the height of each egg above the ground and its position on the plant were 185 registered. For data analysis we calculated the difference between the egg's position 186 in height and the average vegetation height, as a proxy for the "prominence" of the 187 host plant. Positive values show positive prominence of the eggs-bearing plants. 188 These parameters were then compared between occupied and unoccupied host plants.

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190 Butterfly mobility

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192 From 10 to 20 April 2013, a mark-release-recapture study (MRR) was 193 conducted at the "Laghi di Conversano" Regional Park (40°58' N, 17°04' E, see Fig. 194 2) within the peak flight periods of Z. cassandra adults. Since the population 195 occurring at this general area is patchily distributed and our target species occurred at 196 a number of patches, we conducted a preliminary study (Altini & Tarasco 2011), to 197 assess which patch contained the highest population density. All the areas were 198 walked during weather conditions suitable for adults' flight, and three to six people 199 participated in marking and capturing, summing up to 50 person-days in total. 200 Occasional visits were also made to apparently unsuitable areas, to check for the 201 occurrence of adults that might be moving outside their usual habitats. An attempt 202 was made to capture every observed individual and since adults of Z. cassandra are 203 not difficult to net, most sightings resulted in captures. On each day we carried out 204 three capture sessions, each 30 minutes long, between 10:00 and 14:00.

205 On each survey event, butterflies were captured, individually marked and 206 immediately released. Larval food plants density was estimated by counting the 207 number of *A. rotunda* plants per plot. Correlation between butterfly abundance and 208 food plant density was determined at each plot. For each capture or recapture, the 209 location (using a hand-held GPS device, min. accuracy 3 m), date, time, individual's 210 number and sex were recorded.

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212 Statistical analysis

Adults' mobility was estimated separately for the two sexes, as the straightline measurement of the distance between consecutive captures.

216 The summation of all single distances was taken to represent the minimum 217 cumulative distance travelled by each individual. The maximum distance between any two observations of each individual was also recorded. The operational sex ratio was 218 219 defined as the ratio between the number of estimated males and the total estimated 220 number of females. To test if the total number of males and females fitted the 221 expected 1:1 ratio, a chi-squared test was performed. At each plot, correlations 222 between the following parameters were computed: number of marked males, number 223 of marked females, total marked specimens, recaptured butterflies, plot area and A. 224 rotunda densities. A non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test was used to analyse 225 intersexual differences in mobility, to test association between sexes and moved 226 distances. All statistical analyses were performed on SPSS 21.

Data collected during MRR surveys were analysed by Cormack-Jolly-Seber type
constrained models (Schwarz & Arnason 1996; Schwarz & Seber 1999) using MARK
5.1 program (White & Burnham 1999).

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For the egg-laying study, statistical analyses were performed on R-2.9.0 (R*development core team*). Since it was impossible to determinate if eggs on a plant belonged to one or more females, each eggs-bearing host plant was treated as a single sample in our data set, regardless of the number of batches it carried.

235 In those cases when data were normally distributed (Komogorov-Smirnov test) and 236 variances were homogenous (Levene test), parameters for occupied and unoccupied 237 plants were compared using t-tests. Otherwise, the Mann-Whitney U test was used. 238 Data from all sites were merged for evaluation of oviposition preferences at landscape 239 levels. To define the oviposition preferences at the landscape and patch levels, the 240 comparison of absolute frequencies for categorical variables, between occupied and 241 unoccupied plants was assessed using Likelihood ratio statistic, to establish if 242 environmental variables differed between eggs-bearing and unoccupied Aristolochia 243 plants, at both the landscape and the patch level. Standardized residuals were used to 244 define significant contributors to the overall Chi square value.

We used a generalized linear mixed-effects model to recognise those parameters possessing the highest explanatory power for oviposition sites selectivity. The variable "egg presence" was set as a random factor to examine the relationship

between the occurrence of oviposition and habitat variables. The best model was assessed using the Akaike information criterion (AIC; cf. Zuur et al. 2009). Using a multi-model inference, we examined the AICc values for all possible models with all different combination of the explanatory variables mentioned above. Owing to the large number of candidate models, we restricted model averaging to models for which D AICc < 4 compared with model with the lowest AICc.</p>

Statistical analyses were performed on SPSS 21 and R-2.9.0 (*R development core team*). Multimodel inference analyses were performed using 'MuMIn' package
(Barton 2011) for R.

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260 **Results**

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Egg laying habitat

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264 To evaluate how eggs' occurrence and abundance were affected by 265 environmental variables, we surveyed 275 A. rotunda plants potentially available for 266 Z. cassandra oviposition. At landscape level, eggs were found at all surveyed sites, 267 but host-plant quantity differed between patches (site 1: N = 95, site 2: N = 141, site 3: N = 39; Table 1b, c, d). Of 275 potential host plants for Z. cassandra, 120 were 268 269 selected for oviposition and 153 eggs were found (site 1: 47, site 2: 40, site 3: 66) 270 (Fig. 3). At patch level, the occupied and unoccupied plants differed significantly in 271 all measured landscape and patch parameters (Table 1a) except for the "Aspect" 272 parameter: eggs were predominantly laid on plants growing in large stands (68.5%), 273 and in half or full sun (83.1%), whereas single plants or plants growing in small 274 stands (2-5 plants) (31%), or in full shadow (16%) were generally avoided and played 275 minor roles in eggs deposition. < The great majority (> 70%) of occupied plants were 276 found on south or south-east facing slopes. More exactly, females preferentially 277 oviposited in south (44.9%) or south-east facing sites (29.1%), while they avoided northern orientation (Fig. 4) respect south and south-east facing sites ($\chi 2 = 29.930$; 278 279 d.f. = 1; p < 0.001). > At site 2, eggs were laid in full shadow (45%), but females 280 completely avoided plants in full shadow at sites 1 and 3, except in one case at site 1.

At plant level, the distribution of occupied and unoccupied plants was best explained by the combination of prominence (difference in height with respect to the surrounding vegetation), number of plants per stand and exposure to sun. The occupied and the unoccupied plants also differed in height (Mann-Whitney U-test: N = 275; Z = 3.468; P = 0.001) and the more prominent *A. rotunda* plants were significantly preferred P < 0.05 by t-test (Fig. 5).

The distributions of host plants and egg-deposition heights were more or less bell-shaped (Fig. 6) and eggs were in significantly higher number (N: 65 = 62%) than expected on plants 21-40 cm high. More than a half of the egg-bearing plants were 21-60 cm high (min: 17 cm, max 75 cm) (Figure 7).

291 The vast majority of eggs (N: 136 = 88.88%) were laid on the underside 292 (abaxial) surface of the leaves, while a small fraction were laid on the upper surface (N: 15 = 9.8%), or even more rarely (N: 2 = 1.3%) on flower buds (χ^2 =199,991 df = 293 294 2, P < 0.001). Usually one egg per plant was found. Eggs, in fact, were laid mainly singly (N: 56 = 63%), sometimes in pairs (N: 16 = 18%), or rarely in small batches of 295 296 3 (N: 7 = 8%), 4 (N: 7 = 8%), 5 (N: 2 = 2%) or 6 (N: 1 = 1%) eggs. The vegetation 297 cover was over 70% in all plots and areas. Most of the eggs (40%) were observed in 298 plots with grass coverage between 80 and 90%.

GLM analysis showed that the likelihood of an *A. rotunda* plant being selected for oviposition was positively correlated with the distance from the nearest tree (Tab. 2). The likelihood of a site being accepted as oviposition habitat increased with host plant presence and with southerly orientation. Most egg-bearing *A. rotunda* plants were found in areas with no tree cover.

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To evaluate eggs' occurrence at "Laghi di Conversano", we surveyed 82 A. 305 306 rotunda plants potentially available for Z. cassandra oviposition. Eggs were found at all surveyed sites, but host-plant quantity differed between patches (site 1: N = 21, 307 site 2: N = 21, site 3: N = 40). Of 82 potential host plants, 15 (18%) were selected for 308 309 oviposition (site 1: 7, site 2: 7, site 3: 25). Eggs were predominantly laid on plants 310 growing in large stands (N= 296; 82%), whereas single plants or plants growing in 311 small stands were avoided, and in half (24.3%) or full sun (75.6%). The great 312 majority of occupied plants were found on dry stone wall surfaces (58.5%) and plants

on dry stone wall bore more eggs (N = 28, 73.6%). Females preferentially oviposited in south- (66.6%), or east facing sites, but the latter bore more eggs (N = 23; 59%).

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The great majority (> 70%) of occupied plants were found on south facing slopes. Eggs were laid mainly singly (N: 67 = 43%). The maximum number of eggs per plant was 6 at Marcarolo and 14 at Conversano. Probably the smaller number of plants on the site of Conversano induces individuals to lay a larger number of eggs on a single plant. At Marcarolo the chosen plants grew in very thick vegetation cover (> 80%), whereas in southern Italy plants carrying more eggs were found on bare soil. Most sites with egg-bearing *A. rotunda* plants were found in areas with no tree cover.

323324 Mobility

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326 In total 34 individual were marked (23 males and 11 females) and 14 (41%) of 327 them were recaptured at least once (Tab. 3). Based on these data, we estimated a total 328 population size of 116 (\pm 19) individuals, with 79 (\pm 11) males and 37 females (\pm 6). 329 No individuals were captured in nearby plots, showing no exchange between populations. The sex ratio of captures was male biased ($\chi^2 = 4.235$, d.f. = 1, P = 330 0.039) and males were recaptured more often than females ($\chi^2 = 4.083$, d.f. = 1, P = 331 332 0.043). Grouped for sexes, distances between captures did not markedly vary and 333 ranged from 8.8 to 96.7 m. The longest detected movement between successive 334 captures was 110.63 m. Nevertheless, most (75%) of the movements were within 60 335 m from the release spot. Residence time provides a rough estimate of maximum adult 336 life span. The maximum recorded time between the first and the last capture was 6 337 days and was similar for males and females.

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341 **Discussion**

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343 Egg laying habitat

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In this study we investigated the oviposition microhabitat of *Z. cassandra*. Characteristics of the oviposition site play an important role in determining habitat suitability since, according to several studies (e.g. Rausher 1983; Janz 2002) the 348 choice of the deposition site is generally not random and is structured according to 349 various maternal behaviours. Probably the most interesting result of our eggs-laying 350 study is that irrespectively of a lower food-plants density, females lay in the more 351 open areas ($\chi^2 = 7.098$, d.f. = 2, P = 0.028) at both study sites.(Fig. 3).

352 The habitat requirements by Z. cassandra for egg laying are best explained by a 353 combination of presence in small stands of Aristolochia plants growing in medium 354 sun conditions, with no other preference for any type of vegetation structure and/or 355 feature of host plant quality. Although Aristolochia plants preferentially tend to 356 colonise ecotonal areas and are generally less abundant in full sunlight, Z. cassandra 357 prefers the more open habitats. This is probably a consequence of the fact that 358 Zerynthia caterpillars are chemically protected ectotherms in no need of concealing in 359 the shadow, while in the early Spring, when adults are flying, weather is surely more 360 unpredictable than in other seasons. Aristolochia plants growing the in the shadow 361 potentially represent ecological traps for strictly sedentary larvae. This is in contrast 362 with data from the Hungarian population of Z. polyxena recorded by Batary et al. 363 (2008). Considering that Z. cassandra occurs in Mediterranean areas, we would expected the opposite result. The majority of eggs, however, were placed on the 364 365 abaxial surface of the leaflets, which may be explained by the fact that eggs need 366 sufficient humidity to avoid desiccation (Anthes et al. 2008), as well as detection by 367 predators or parasites. Eggs and young larvae, in fact, are not as chemically protected as the older larvae and adults (Albanese et al. 2008). Elevated ambient temperatures 368 369 appear to be important for many butterfly species because they may increase rates of 370 larval development, decrease mortality (McKay 1991), improve females' fecundity by 371 increasing the time available for egg-laying, and therefore generally increase egg-372 laying rates (Davies et al 2006). The significant relationship between landscape, patch 373 and plant parameters of Z. cassandra oviposition habitat showed that, as is common 374 for butterflies in general (Dennis 2010), selection of oviposition sites is determined by 375 characteristics operating at different hierarchical levels, reflecting their importance in 376 the process of egg-laying site selection. A sufficient amount of food is essential for 377 larval survival, in particular for species having "sedentary" caterpillars. Visual 378 attraction is an important factor when searching for a suitable host plant (Porter 379 1992). For oviposition, females frequently choose the most conspicuous host plants 380 (Porter 1992; Garcia-Barros & Fartmann 2009). Compared to plants growing in 381 shadier areas, shoots that grow higher than their surrounding vegetation are also less

382 shaded and offer better microclimatic conditions for a quick development of eggs and larvae (Kuer & Fartmann 2005). Furthermore, Z. cassandra females laid their eggs on 383 384 the intermediate parts of plants probably also due to better food quality for the larvae, 385 and this may be a direct consequence of female oviposition choice. Upper plant parts generally have lower amounts of alcaloids, as well as nitrogen contents (Agerbirk et 386 387 al. 2010), compared to lower parts. Between occupied and unoccupied host plants, 388 plants' height was the most important discriminating variable and larger plants bore 389 more eggs, while Dennis (1996) showed that in Allancastria (or Zerynthia) cretica, 390 larger food plants bore more eggs.

391 At least in some cases, laying eggs on the higher parts of the plant may 392 provide some advantage. In Z. rumina, Jordano & Gomariz (1994) found that the 393 freshly hatched larvae consumed the younger and softer leaves of the food plant (A. 394 *pistolochia*). This could be related with the lower concentration of defence chemicals 395 (Batary 2008). Early instars of Lepidopteran larvae are known to be sensitive to 396 environmental and chemical changes (Zalucki et al. 2002). Some larvae are known to 397 shelter inside the flower buds during their first instar, when they are less mobile and 398 more prone to suffer from environmental stress (Pinto et al. 2011) and can thereby 399 increase larval survival and growth. Anthes et al. (2003) noted a similar behaviour in 400 Euphydryas aurinia. They suggested that this strategy eliminated the risks of 401 predation and of exposure to adverse weather conditions, associated with moving 402 along the host plant or to another plant.

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404 Mobility

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406 No movement of adult individuals was detected away from their breeding 407 areas, which reveals that Z. cassandra is strongly sedentary and has relatively closed population structure. Similarly to many other butterfly species, Z. cassandra is 408 409 strongly dependent upon particular microhabitats, both at the larval and at the 410 imaginal stages. Due to strong human influence, suitable habitats have become 411 increasingly fragmented, thereby restricting gene flow among populations as well as 412 chances for a successful re-colonization of the remaining but isolated patches. Fitness 413 benefits of intermediate-distance dispersal will therefore become strongly reduced, 414 which will finally impose strong selection against dispersal (Bonelli et al. 2013).

415 Regional extinctions, in such a situation, represent a very likely scenario, perhaps the416 most likely at least in many cases.

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418 Conclusion and implications for conservation

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420 Protecting Z. cassandra populations requires that areas containing suitable nectar 421 plants are also protected. In the northern parts of the species' range, the main problem 422 is in the abandonment of rural areas. Thus, it is vital to maintain the few remaining 423 meadows, by promoting cyclical grass cutting or light cattle grazing, as well as to 424 create new grasslands, wherever possible. In the study area, which is part of the EU 425 NATURA 2000 network, appropriate agro-environmental schemes have already been 426 used to allocate the necessary funding for the maintenance of traditional land 427 management, within the framework of the regional Rural Development Program 428 (RDP). Grazing or grass cutting, whenever implemented in the end of June or in late 429 summer, does not affect the survival of Z. cassandra pupae, which shelter at the base 430 of their (unpalatable) host plant.

431 In Apulia, in contrast, the "tendone"-type vineyards have become largely dominant 432 since their plastic covering is particularly suitable to protect the (mainly table-433 consumed) grapes from excessively high summer temperatures, strong winds and 434 frequent hail. This particular cultivation type, however, is highly and negatively 435 impacting on Z. cassandra populations, since adults are unable to fly across or over 436 the vines. In our study area, as a consequence, butterfly populations tend to become 437 increasingly fragmented by the still spreading vineyards. Mobility data obtained in our 438 study are alarming, and urgent action is needed. To counteract the currently heavy 439 fragmentation, suitable habitats should be created within the framework of current 440 agro environmental schemes, to ensure host plant stands connectivity.

In South Italy *Aristolochia* plants that grow on dry stone walls will act as stepping stones. Dry-stone walls are important landscape elements in this area, but their importance has only been recognised in their aesthetic and cultural dimension. Current promotion policies officially aimed at preserving dry stone walls need to be better implemented to prevent any further loss of this irreplaceable asset, at communitarian level.

In general, schemes based on the application of the integrated organic productionrules financed by RDPs will be less impacting for butterfly populations occurring in

449 cultivated areas and particularly in vineyards. These include the insertion of buffer 450 stripes between the fields, the (cyclical) abandonment of some mown areas and the 451 encouragement of spontaneous re-vegetation in the alleyways and areas around crops. 452 In the current economical crisis, reaching a trade-off compromise between agro-453 industrial needs and biodiversity conservation may locally generate important 454 revenues, both by guaranteeing sustainability and by preserving the touristic 455 attractiveness of landscapes (Lasanta et al 2001).

We also agree with Thomas et al. (1992) and with Maes et al. (2004), that installing a stepping stones system of suitable habitat patches is the most efficient way to restore a healthy meta-population structure, which surely works much better than (generalistic' corridors in enhancing the conservation status of many invertebrates.

460 In the case of butterflies, each ontogenetic instar requires its own specific resources. 461 In Z. cassandra, however, resources are spatially overlapping, since the adults' habitat closely matches that of the immature stages, at least insofar as suitable nectar sources 462 463 are maintained. The way to a successful management is in keeping the sites open and 464 free from invading scrub. In both study sites, Z. cassandra is distributed mainly in the 465 meadows and along the surrounding hedges. Managing marginal lands to preserve 466 their biodiversity values and traditional farming systems, with mowing once or twice 467 a year, could contribute to species persistence in a fragmented landscape. An 468 optimum mowing heights for this species could range from 5 to 15 cm.

469 Conservation efforts are generally focused on maintaining species *in situ*, with 470 considerable debate about the possible merits of reintroductions. Natural 471 recolonisation of suitable habitats will be a slow process, provided that recolonisation 472 rates will not match extinction rates. So we suggest that at least in some case the 473 colonisations of some particularly suitable patches should be artificially encouraged. 474 A well-connected network of suitable habitats ought, however, to be established well 475 before any reintroduction scheme is implemented.

476

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650	Continue
651	Captions
652	Figure 1. Location of our study sites. Different habitat types are represented with

- 653 dots: white for woodland edge, black for riparian grassland, gray for dry grassland.
- **Figure 2.** Schematic map of the population of *Z. cassandra* investigated at
- 655 Conversano S-E Italy. Areas in grey represent the investigated (a-g) habitat patches.
- Figure 3. Number of available food plants and number of eggs observed in the threehabitat types.
- 658 **Figure 4.** Polarplot of the geographical orientation (in %) of *A. rotunda* plants, either
- 659 unoccupied (black line, N = 189), or occupied (grey line, N = 89) by Zerynthia 660 cassandra eggs.
- Figure 5. Prominence of unoccupied and occupied plants. Prominence was calculated
 as the difference between the host plant's and the turf's height. The dotted line
 indicates turf height.
- **Figure 6.** Distribution of plant and oviposition height in NW Italy.
- Figure 7. Differences in height between plants receiving or not receiving eggs, vsplant height.
- 667 **Table 1.** Absolute (N) and relative (%) frequencies of landscape and patch parameters 668 of foodplants (Aristolochia *rotunda*), either occupied, or unoccupied by *Zervnthia*
- 669 *cassandra* eggs in NW Italy. Likelihood ratio statistics (LR) are shown for
- 670 comparisons of absolute frequencies between occupied and unoccupied plants (a-d).
- 671 **Table 2.** GLMM statistic: relationship between probability of occurrence (binomial
- 672 response variable: presence [N = 89 occupied plants] or of absence [N = 186]
- 673 unoccupied plants] of A. rotunda, in relation to environmental parameters (predictor
- 674 variables: host plant height, height of surrounding vegetation, distance from the
- 675 nearest tree and vegetation cover).
- 676 **Table 3.** Summary of the MRR data.
- 677