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Implications for its conservation**

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8 **Title: Mobility and oviposition site-selection in *Zerynthia cassandra* (Lepidoptera, Papilionidae):**
9 **implications for its conservation.**

11 Authors: Alessio Vovlas^{1,2}, Emilio Balletto¹, Enrico Altini², Daniela Clemente² and Simona Bonelli¹.

13 ¹Zoology Unit, Department of Life Sciences and Systems Biology, University of Turin, Via Accademia
14 Albertina 13, 10123 Turin, Italy.

15 ²A.P.S. Polyxena, Via Donizetti 12, 70014 Conversano (Bari), Italy

16 e-mail: alessio.vovlas@unito.it; simona.bonelli@unito.it; emilio.balletto@unito.it;
17 enricoaltini@yahoo.it; dadaclemente@yahoo.it; info@polyxena.eu

19 **Corresponding author:**

20 Simona Bonelli

21 University of Turin

22 Department of Life Sciences and Systems Biology

23 Via Accademia Albertina 13 10123 – Turin ITALY

24 Telephone number 0039 011 6704552

25 Fax number 0039 011 6704508

26 e-mail address: simona.bonelli@unito.it

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**

49

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

81 part of the day in open herbaceous areas. Nothing is known, at the moment, as
82 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.

93

94 **Material and Methods**

95

96 The study species

97

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

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

116

117 The study sites

118

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
125 both sites, but we carried out also mark-release-recapture only at "Laghi di
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
133 "Chienna lake" (48°58'37" N, 17°04'21" E), which is surrounded by orchards and
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.

136 The oviposition study was conducted at 3 sites a) Site 1: a grassland area of 96 m²
137 located in plot C, near a Mediterranean pond and with a 25% canopy cover (40° 58'
138 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).

143

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

147 a) Site 1: Woodland edge. (44°36'22" N 8°46'01" E): consisting of a 128 m²
148 mesophilous meadow bordered by a Black locust (*Robinia pseudoacacia*) grove and
149 with 10% canopy cover.

150 b) Site 2: Riparian grassland (44°36'21" N 8°45'58" E): having a 50 m² grassland with
151 sparse alder (*Alnus glutinosa*) shrub and hygrophilous vegetation Canopy cover was
152 25% ;

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

155

156 Egg-laying studies

157

158 We thoroughly investigated our sites to locate egg-laying areas and to record
159 details of food-plant's characteristics, eggs' location and surrounding
160 vegetation/habitat. In April/May 2010, we exhaustively assessed the distribution of
161 *Aristolochia* plants and *Zerynthia* eggs at "Capanne di Marcarolo" and in April 2013
162 at "Laghi di Conversano". *Z. cassandra* occurred in small and often isolated
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
166 adults were still flying during the survey period, but the season was nearing its end, so
167 that we conducted egg census shortly after the butterflies had completed oviposition.
168 Observations were aimed at determining eggs' distribution on each host-plant. *Z.*
169 *cassandra* eggs are not morphologically different from those of *Z. polyxena*, but since
170 they are characteristic in shape, size and colour they can be unequivocally identified
171 even when hatched, since egg shells remain on the leaves for at least two weeks. To
172 avoid recounting the same plant twice during the survey, we marked each plant with a
173 flag-bearing stick.

174 The characteristics of *Z. cassandra* oviposition habitat were recorded at the landscape,
175 patch and plant level. At landscape level, the numbers of eggs and of *A. rotunda*
176 plants were assessed at all study sites. At patch level, the geographical orientation (the
177 direction the slope faces with respect to the sun, or "aspect"), number of plants (1
178 plant, small stand with 2-5 plants, large stand with > 5 plants) and sun exposure
179 (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
181 the plant in the centre. Measurements of plant height, height of the surrounding
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.

189

190 Butterfly mobility

191

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.

211

212 Statistical analysis

213

214 Adults' mobility was estimated separately for the two sexes, as the straight-
215 line 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
218 two observations of each individual was also recorded. The operational sex ratio was
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.

227 Data collected during MRR surveys were analysed by Cormack-Jolly-Seber type
228 constrained models (Schwarz & Arnason 1996; Schwarz & Seber 1999) using MARK
229 5.1 program (White & Burnham 1999).

230

231 For the egg-laying study, statistical analyses were performed on *R-2.9.0* (*R*
232 *development core team*). Since it was impossible to determinate if eggs on a plant
233 belonged to one or more females, each eggs-bearing host plant was treated as a single
234 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.

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

248 between the occurrence of oviposition and habitat variables. The best model was
249 assessed using the Akaike information criterion (AIC; cf. Zuur et al. 2009). Using a
250 multi-model inference, we examined the AICc values for all possible models with all
251 different combination of the explanatory variables mentioned above. Owing to the
252 large number of candidate models, we restricted model averaging to models for which
253 $D AICc < 4$ compared with model with the lowest AICc.

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

257

258

259

260 **Results**

261

262 Egg laying habitat

263

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
268 3: N = 39; Table 1b, c, d). Of 275 potential host plants for *Z. cassandra*, 120 were
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
278 northern orientation (Fig. 4) respect south and south-east facing sites ($\chi^2 = 29.930$;
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.

281 At plant level, the distribution of occupied and unoccupied plants was best explained
282 by the combination of prominence (difference in height with respect to the
283 surrounding vegetation), number of plants per stand and exposure to sun. The
284 occupied and the unoccupied plants also differed in height (Mann-Whitney U-test: N
285 = 275; $Z = 3.468$; $P = 0.001$) and the more prominent *A. rotunda* plants were
286 significantly preferred $P < 0.05$ by t-test (Fig. 5).

287 The distributions of host plants and egg-deposition heights were more or less
288 bell-shaped (Fig. 6) and eggs were in significantly higher number ($N: 65 = 62\%$) than
289 expected on plants 21-40 cm high. More than a half of the egg-bearing plants were
290 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
293 ($N: 15 = 9.8\%$), or even more rarely ($N: 2 = 1.3\%$) on flower buds ($\chi^2 = 199,991$ $df =$
294 2 , $P < 0.001$). Usually one egg per plant was found. Eggs, in fact, were laid mainly
295 singly ($N: 56 = 63\%$), sometimes in pairs ($N: 16 = 18\%$), or rarely in small batches of
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%.

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

304

305 To evaluate eggs' occurrence at "Laghi di Conversano", we surveyed 82 *A.*
306 *rotunda* plants potentially available for *Z. cassandra* oviposition. Eggs were found at
307 all surveyed sites, but host-plant quantity differed between patches (site 1: $N = 21$,
308 site 2: $N = 21$, site 3: $N = 40$). Of 82 potential host plants, 15 (18%) were selected for
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

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

315

316 The great majority (> 70%) of occupied plants were found on south facing
317 slopes. Eggs were laid mainly singly (N: 67 = 43%). The maximum number of eggs
318 per plant was 6 at Marcarolo and 14 at Conversano. Probably the smaller number of
319 plants on the site of Conversano induces individuals to lay a larger number of eggs on
320 a single plant. At Marcarolo the chosen plants grew in very thick vegetation cover (>
321 80%), whereas in southern Italy plants carrying more eggs were found on bare soil.
322 Most sites with egg-bearing *A. rotunda* plants were found in areas with no tree cover.

323

324 Mobility

325

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 (± 19) individuals, with 79 (± 11) males and 37 females (± 6).
329 No individuals were captured in nearby plots, showing no exchange between
330 populations. The sex ratio of captures was male biased ($\chi^2 = 4.235$, d.f. = 1, P =
331 0.039) and males were recaptured more often than females ($\chi^2 = 4.083$, d.f. = 1, P =
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.

338

339

340

341 **Discussion**

342

343 Egg laying habitat

344

345 In this study we investigated the oviposition microhabitat of *Z. cassandra*.
346 Characteristics of the oviposition site play an important role in determining habitat
347 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
364 expected the opposite result. The majority of eggs, however, were placed on the
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
368 as the older larvae and adults (Albanese et al. 2008). Elevated ambient temperatures
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
383 larvae (Kuer & Fartmann 2005). Furthermore, *Z. cassandra* females laid their eggs on
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
386 generally have lower amounts of alkaloids, as well as nitrogen contents (Agerbirk et
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 *Allancastris* (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 *pistolocheia*). This could be related with the lower concentration of defence chemicals
395 (Batory 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.

403

404 Mobility

405

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
408 population structure. Similarly to many other butterfly species, *Z. cassandra* is
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 the
416 most likely at least in many cases.

417

418 Conclusion and implications for conservation

419

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.

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

447 In general, schemes based on the application of the integrated organic production
448 rules 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).

456 We also agree with Thomas et al. (1992) and with Maes et al. (2004), that installing a
457 stepping stones system of suitable habitat patches is the most efficient way to restore
458 a healthy meta-population structure, which surely works much better than
459 '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
462 closely matches that of the immature stages, at least insofar as suitable nectar sources
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

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.

654 **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.

656 **Figure 3.** Number of available food plants and number of eggs observed in the three
657 habitat 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.

661 **Figure 5.** Prominence of unoccupied and occupied plants. Prominence was calculated
662 as the difference between the host plant's and the turf's height. The dotted line
663 indicates turf height.

664 **Figure 6.** Distribution of plant and oviposition height in NW Italy.

665 **Figure 7.** Differences in height between plants receiving or not receiving eggs, vs
666 plant height.

667 **Table 1.** Absolute (N) and relative (%) frequencies of landscape and patch parameters
668 of foodplants (*Aristolochia rotunda*), either occupied, or unoccupied by *Zerynthia*
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