

1 **Running head: Spatial variation in butterfly abundance**

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3 **Spatial variation in relative abundances of two butterfly species sharing both host**
 4 **plant and natural enemies**

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16 **ABSTRACT**

17 The decline of insect populations is of great concern because they play an essential part
18 in several services that are key for ecosystem functioning and human well-being.
19 Therefore, full understanding of the processes and factors shaping spatial variation in
20 insects is required for their effective conservation. Here, we study a system comprising
21 two congeneric butterfly species (Brimstone *Gonepteryx rhamni* and Cleopatra *G.*
22 *cleopatra*) that share both host plants and natural enemies and analyse whether biotic
23 and/or abiotic factors explain their relative abundances. The two species coexist in
24 continental Spain but not on a nearby archipelago, where only the Cleopatra occurs. The
25 hypotheses tested were based on (H1) dispersal behaviour; (H2) apparent competition
26 mediated via shared parasitoids; and (H3) environmental conditions (overwintering
27 habitat availability, abundance of host plants and temperature). H1 explained
28 differences in Brimstone abundance between climate regions on the mainland since in
29 warmer summers populations increased in cooler areas but decreased in warmer areas.
30 Cleopatra did not show the same pattern but was found to have twice the number of
31 summer adults on one island than on the mainland. It is unlikely that H2 can explain this
32 result because, although richer parasitoid communities were found on the mainland,
33 larval mortality rates were similar. H3 was important in explaining variation in
34 abundances between sites within each climate region even though similar environmental
35 conditions were found on the mainland and on the islands. Our study demonstrates the
36 complexity of any attempt to understand insect population dynamics in space due to the
37 number of factors that are potentially involved. We argue thus that a more
38 comprehensive approach taking into account landscape topography and resource
39 connectivity on a broader scale is required to unravel the factors shaping the relative
40 abundance of insects in island systems.

INTRODUCTION

Insects represent more than half of the biodiversity on Earth and play a central role in trophic networks through many different types of biotic interactions and involvement in several processes as herbivory, detritivory, nutrient recycling or pollination (Chapman 1998). Consequently, the diversity of insects over space and time shapes ecological networks and ecosystem functioning. However, species occurrence and the population densities that determine the strength of biotic interactions are both relevant.

Insect population density, as in many other taxa, is regulated by biotic and abiotic factors: species experience different climatic conditions and occur in a variety of assemblages where the presence or absence of predators and competitors throughout their distributions drive abundances over space and time. However, when populations of the same species live under similar climatic conditions, differences in densities should be explained above all by differences in biotic interactions. In this regard, island biogeography theory states that species densities on islands may be higher than on the mainland due to competitive release resulting from the species impoverishment of island assemblages (Whittaker and Fernández-Palacios 2007). Nevertheless, competitive release in insect communities seems unlikely to occur because interspecific competition in phytophagous insects has been suggested (Lawton and Strong 1981, Shorrocks et al. 1984) and empirically shown to be rare (e.g. Kaplan and Denno 2007).

Indirect interactions may play a more important role in structuring insect communities (Holt 1977). The sharing of natural enemies (i.e. predators or parasitoids) between species may account for the decrease in the abundance of some of these species when they coexist, the so-called ‘apparent competition’ (see a review of this concept in Holt and Bonsall 2017). Apparent competition in insect communities has been demonstrated to exist under controlled conditions in experimental settings (Bonsall and Hassell 1997),

66 even though conclusive evidence is rare under natural conditions (but see e.g. Van
67 Nouhuys and Hanski 2000, Frost et al. 2016, Audusseau et al. 2021).

68 Other factors such as the availability of suitable habitats and food resources should also
69 be considered when attempting to unravel intraspecific density differences. These
70 factors are especially relevant for species with strict ecological requirements such as
71 monophagous insects or insects that only overwinter in particular habitats (Dennis et al.
72 2003, Dennis 2010). Moreover, a number of factors may interact and influence how the
73 abundance of a species is distributed over space. For instance, the population dynamics
74 of the small tortoiseshell *Aglais urticae* in the southern part of its range are driven by
75 the interaction between aridity, host plant quality and larval parasitism (Stefanescu et al.
76 2022).

77 Here, we investigate two closely related butterfly species, *Gonepteryx rhamni*
78 (Brimstone) and *G. cleopatra* (Cleopatra), that coexist on a mainland (Iberian
79 Peninsula), of which one (Cleopatra) is also present on nearby continental islands
80 (Balearic Islands). On the mainland, the two *Gonepteryx* species occupy different
81 climatic niches, although their distribution broadly overlaps in the warmer area of the
82 Brimstone's range, which corresponds to the colder area of the Cleopatra's distribution.
83 Both these butterfly species use the same plants of the genus *Rhamnus* for larval
84 development and are known to be parasited by specialist wasps on the mainland (Shaw
85 et al. 2009); by contrast, no information was available about the parasitoid complexes
86 occurring on the Balearic Islands. The complexity of the population dynamics of these
87 two species increases when their highly dispersive behaviour is considered, and pre-
88 overwintering and post-overwintering adults occur in different areas (Pollard and Hall
89 1980, Gutiérrez and Wilson 2014).

90 This work aims to identify the drivers shaping spatial variation in the relative abundance
 91 of herbivorous insects using a study system with a marked climatic gradient and data on
 92 species phenology and behaviour. In this regard, we first calculate and compare
 93 population densities of the two species in different biogeographic and climate regions,
 94 including two islands in the Balearic archipelago and several sites on the mainland, and
 95 consider separately post-overwintering and pre-overwintering adults. The predictive
 96 ability of abiotic and biotic factors to explain population densities in each flight period
 97 (pre- and post-overwintering) and climate region is tested. Then, taking into account the
 98 effect of these factors, we explore whether they are similar in magnitude in the two
 99 biogeographic regions. We also attempt to understand how important natural enemies
 100 (i.e. parasitoids) are to the variation in relative abundance through indirect interactions.
 101 Testing apparent competition in natural systems requires long-term studies tracking
 102 both hosts and parasitoid species over time and space, which is an inherently difficult
 103 challenge (Holt and Bonsall 2017). However, we were able to collect data for four years
 104 on parasitoid complexes and on their importance as a cause of mortality in *Gonepteryx*
 105 species on both the mainland and on the two nearby Balearic islands to test whether or
 106 not apparent competition between these two species could explain the high population
 107 density of *Cleopatra* on the islands. Long-term butterfly count data were used to test
 108 whether or not density dependence is higher when these two species coexist and
 109 whether or not it depends not only on the abundance of the same species but also on the
 110 abundance of the other co-occurring species as a possible sign of apparent competition.
 111 Finally, we discuss which explanations account best for the variation in relative
 112 abundance across the biogeographic and climate regions present in our study system.

113 **METHODS**

114 **Study system**

115 We analysed the coexistence of Brimstone and Cleopatra in a Mediterranean area of ca
116 36,900 km² in which butterflies are systematically monitored within the framework of a
117 citizen science project (www.catalanbms.org). The study area encompasses two
118 biogeographic regions (islands: Mallorca and Menorca – Balearic Islands; mainland:
119 Catalonia and Andorra – NE Iberian Peninsula) and three distinct climate regions:
120 Mediterranean xeric, Mediterranean mesic and alpine-subalpine (Fig. S1). These climate
121 regions were established using a threshold of 21GDD (number of hours per year in
122 which a temperature of 21°C is exceeded) and broadly correspond to those classified by
123 Metzger et al. (2013) as (1) alpine-subalpine (0–150 GDD); (2) mesic (between 150–
124 400 GDD); and (3) xeric (≥ 400 GDD).

125 The Brimstone is widespread in Europe but at its southerly limit it is mainly restricted to
126 upland and/or more humid areas. In our study area, it is found only sporadically in the
127 arid region and is completely absent from the Balearic Islands. By contrast, the
128 Cleopatra is mainly found in the Mediterranean Basin, where it is common in mesic and
129 arid regions including the Balearic Islands and, as a previous study has shown, flies in
130 very high population densities on the island of Menorca (Colom et al. 2019). Although
131 the two species have different climatic niches (Settele et al. 2008), in our study area
132 they often co-occur in the Mediterranean mesic zone, where they are amongst the
133 commonest species. Both species occur in a wide range of habitats (Fig. S2) but depend
134 on woodland for overwintering.

135 The Brimstone and Cleopatra are very closely related phylogenetically (Dapporto et al.
136 2022) and have similar phenologies and hostplant use (Vila et al. 2018). Although they
137 overwinter in the adult stage, the Brimstone is strictly univoltine. The Cleopatra, on the

other hand, has a more plastic phenology with a partially bivoltine life cycle in many years (albeit with a very low relative abundance in the second generation: see Fig. 1). In both species, mating occurs soon after the adult butterflies come out of hibernation in early spring (henceforth, overwintered adults). Oviposition is concentrated in spring and eggs are laid individually on the underside of the most tender leaves of the host plants. In the NE Iberian Peninsula, they both use *Rhamnus alaternus* as their main larval resource, which does not seem to be a limiting factor for their populations as it is frequent and abundant in Mediterranean habitats. In the xeric region, oviposition has also been recorded on *R. lycioides* and in Mallorca on the Balearic endemic *R. ludovici-salvatoris* (PC pers. obs.). In the alpine region, where *R. alaternus* does not occur, the main host plants of *G. rhamni* are *R. frangula*, which is also a frequent resource in northern Europe (Gutiérrez and Thomas 2000), and *R. alpina*. In general, the adults of the annual generation of both species emerge in June–July (henceforth, summer adults), although their flight periods vary depending on the climate region (Fig. 1).

The Cleopatra and Brimstone potentially share solitary hymenopteran larval parasitoids specific to their genus: *Hyposoter rhodocerae* (Ichneumonidae: Campopleginae), *Cotesia gonopterygis* and *C. risilis* (Braconidae: Microgastrinae) (Shaw et al. 2009; Jubany and Stefanescu 2009). They are also attacked by other more generalist hymenopteran parasitoids, including egg (*Trichogramma cordubensis*: Trichogrammatidae; CS unpublished data) and pupal (*Pteromalus apum*: Pteromalidae; Shaw et al. 2009) parasitoids.

Both butterfly species are highly dispersive and several studies have provided evidence of seasonal migrations between habitats (Pollard and Hall 1980), including altitudinal migrations (Jubany and Stefanescu 2009, Gutiérrez and Wilson 2014). Gutiérrez and Wilson (2014) found that Brimstone adults in summer flew at sites that were on average

163 3°C cooler than their breeding sites. Their great dispersive behaviour explains their
164 occurrence at sites where neither breed (Gutiérrez and Thomas 2000).

165 **Abundance data**

166 Butterfly populations have been monitored at 205 sites in the whole study area since
167 1994, of which 139 were active in 2019–2021. At each site, adult butterflies were
168 counted along fixed transects in a space 2.5 m on each side and 5 m in front of the
169 observer (Pollard and Yates 1994). Abundance data were recorded weekly from March
170 to September (i.e. 30 recording events per year, weather permitting). To estimate annual
171 abundances, only male counts were used as they are much more easily identified than
172 females to species level in the field. For each year we fitted flight curves for each
173 climate region using generalized additive models (GAMs), following the approach of
174 Schmucki et al. (2016). The GAMs fit bimodal curves that represent the post-
175 overwintering and pre-overwintering flight periods of each species in each year and
176 climate region (Fig. 1). This allowed us to estimate separately the total abundance of
177 overwintering and summer adults in each population for each year.

178 **Larval sampling**

179 We studied larval parasitism at several sites on Mallorca and Menorca and in Catalonia
180 (including the xeric and mesic climate regions) to test the possibility of apparent
181 competition between the two *Gonepteryx* species. From late March to early June over a
182 period of four years (2019–2022), we collected 949 larvae from 14 sites (Mallorca: 6
183 sites; Menorca: 4 sites; Catalonia: 4 sites). Larvae were reared indoors using transparent
184 plastic containers (155 x 105 x 45 mm) in groups of up to five individuals from the
185 same sample. We recorded the larval instar for each collected individual. When a
186 caterpillar was killed by a *Cotesia* parasitoid, we waited for the cocoon of the parasitoid
187 to be fully formed and hardened before isolating it in a corked glass tube (80ml). When

188 *Hyposoter rhodocerae* kills the host, it spins its cocoon within the host's larval skin,
189 after which we also isolated its structure in a corked glass tube. Once emerged, the adult
190 parasitoids were preserved in pure ethanol. All parasitoids were identified by MRS.

191 The DNA sequencing of the butterfly larvae killed by *Cotesia* parasitoids on the
192 mainland was carried out following standard protocols (Ivanova et al. 2006, deWaard et
193 al. 2008, Hebert et al. 2013) at the Centre for Biodiversity Genomics, University of
194 Guelph, Canada. All new sequences are deposited in BOLD, which are publicly
195 available at dx.doi.org/10.5883/DS-GONCOLOM.

196 Parasitism rates were compared between regions and years with GLMs assuming a
197 binomial distribution and logit link function.

198 **Environmental variables**

199 To analyse the biotic and abiotic determinants of species abundance, we collected field
200 data on habitat structure and host plant availability, and extracted climate data from an
201 online source (Cornes et al. 2018). Between 2019 and 2021, plant communities
202 (according to the CORINE land cover classification: Vigo et al. 2005) and cover of
203 *Rhamnus* species were sampled at 84 random sites in the butterfly monitoring network.
204 At each of these sites we then calculated the percentage cover of all types of forest
205 communities as an estimate of habitat availability for overwintering adults. Coverage of
206 host plants (i.e. m² of *Rhamnus* sp.) along the 5-m wide butterfly transect was also
207 calculated for the whole transect and standardized to a common area of 1000 m² to
208 allow transects to be compared.

209 We extracted daily maximum temperature data for the same subset of 84 sites at 0.1-
210 degree resolution (ca 11 km in latitude) from the Copernicus Climate Change Service
211 (Cornes et al. 2018). For each site and year, the maximum average temperatures in

spring (March–May) and summer (June–August) were calculated given that – according to Gutiérrez and Wilson (2014) – these variables explain larval development and adult thermoregulation, and thus determine the distribution of the abundance of butterflies over space.

Statistical analyses

Population density across biogeographic and climate regions

To test for differences in the density of populations between different climate and biogeographic regions we used data from 139 sites for which data were available for 2021. We used generalized linear models (GLMs) with a Gaussian distribution and a zero-inflation parameter (Brooks et al. 2017a). Abundance estimates were standardized by transect length and log-transformed to reach normality. We performed four models in which the response variable was the abundance of each flight period (overwintering and summer adults) of each species (Brimstone and Cleopatra). The independent variable was a categorical factor of four levels (Mallorca, Menorca, Cat. xeric and Cat. mesic) for the models of Cleopatra, and two levels (Cat. mesic and Cat. alpine-subalpine) for the models of Brimstone. We repeated the analyses for both species using generalized linear mixed models (GLMMs) for a data set of 205 sites and 28 years (1994–2021), with year as a random effect.

Environmental determinants of population density

The predictive power of the three selected environmental variables (forest cover, host plant cover and spring/summer maximum average temperatures) on the abundance of each generation of each species in each climate region was tested (eight models in total). Predictor variables were rescaled to values ranging from 0 to 1. We used data from the 84 sites for which data on both habitat and butterfly abundance were available.

236 The response variable was the mean standardized abundance for 2019–2021. Because
237 the data were extremely unbalanced to 0, GLMs were performed with a Tweedie
238 distribution that best fitted the models (Brooks et al. 2017a).

239 The environmental variables were compared between biogeographic and climate
240 regions using the same structure as the analyses of population densities (see above).

241 Density dependence models

242 A recent study has shown that density dependence in our study region plays an
243 important role in the population dynamics of most butterfly species including the
244 Brimstone and Cleopatra (Ubach et al. 2022). Density dependence is probably related to
245 the impact of natural enemies, particularly parasitoids, which have been shown by many
246 butterfly studies carried out in the region to represent a major cause of mortality (e.g.
247 Shaw et al. 2009, Stefanescu et al. 2022). Because Cleopatra and Brimstone potentially
248 share the same specialist parasitoids in our region (see Results), we investigated the
249 possibility that apparent competition was mediated by shared parasitoids on the
250 mainland (Bonsall and Hassell 1997) where the two butterfly species co-occur (Fig. S1).
251 Under apparent competition, we expected that the inter-annual population growth of one
252 species would depend not only on its own density in the previous year but also on the
253 density of the other species (henceforth, inter-specific density dependence). To test this
254 hypothesis, we used sites with data from at least 10 consecutive years in which both
255 species coexist (i.e. the Mediterranean mesic region; Fig. S1; $n = 41$). For each species
256 i , the response variable of the models was the inter-annual population growth calculated
257 as the difference between the log-transformed abundance in the current year (t) and in
258 the previous year ($t-1$). The predictors of the models were (a) the abundance of the
259 species i in $t-1$; (b) the abundance of the species j in $t-1$; and (c) the sum of the
260 abundance of the species i and j in $t-1$. Because predictor c was highly correlated to

261 predictors a and b , it was included in a model as the only predictor. For each species,
 262 GLMMs were carried out with all the combinations of the predictors and we then
 263 selected the best model based on AIC. For all the models, a Gaussian distribution
 264 including a zero-inflation parameter was used, with site controlled as a random effect.
 265 Finally, we compared the magnitude of the effect of the density dependence of species i
 266 between the region in which both species coexist and the regions in which they do not.

267 All analyses were carried out using R v. 4.2.1 (R Core Team 2020) and the following
 268 packages: *climateExtract* to extract and manipulate ECAD climate data (Schmucki
 269 2022), *rbms* to fit the flight curves (Schmucki et al. 2022), *glmmTMB* to conduct GLMs
 270 and GLMMs (Brooks et al. 2017b), and *MuMIn* (Barton 2020) for model comparison.

271 **RESULTS**

272 **Predictors of population density**

273 The importance of each of the different environmental factors in predicting butterfly
 274 abundance depended on the climate region (Table 1). The availability of host plant
 275 resources and forest habitat explained the abundance of Cleopatra in the cooler region
 276 (mesic), while the maximum temperature constrained its abundance in the warmer
 277 region (xeric); nevertheless, this was only significant for the overwintered adults.
 278 Similarly, the abundance of Brimstone summer adults was constrained by the maximum
 279 temperature in the warmer region of its distribution (mesic), while forest cover was also
 280 found to be important for the overwintered population. In both species, a higher
 281 abundance of overwintered adults occurred at sites with greater forest cover. In the
 282 alpine-subalpine and cooler climate region, forest cover predicted the abundance of both
 283 the overwintered and summer adult Brimstones, while temperature had a significant
 284 positive effect on summer adults. Unlike the Cleopatra, the availability of host plant
 285 resources did not predict the abundance of the Brimstone.

Two biotic factors (forest and host plant cover) were well represented throughout all the biogeographic and climate regions (Fig. 2a,b). However, no host plants were found in the alpine-subalpine sites, while the mainland sites in the xeric regions had significantly higher levels of host plant cover in comparison with selected sites on Mallorca. Spring and summer average temperatures were significantly lower in the alpine-subalpine region (Fig. 2c,d).

Population density across biogeographic and climate regions

Overwintered individuals of both species had similar population densities throughout the study area regardless of biogeography or climate. By contrast, we found significant differences between regions for summer adults of both species. Cleopatra had significantly higher population densities on Menorca (0.52 ± 0.36) than on both Mallorca (0.2 ± 0.18) and the two mainland climate regions (xeric: 0.15 ± 0.24 ; mesic: 0.28 ± 0.22). On the mainland, the Brimstone was more abundant in the cooler (alpine-subalpine: 0.18 ± 0.18) than in the warmer regions (mesic: 0.09 ± 0.1). Population densities for each combination of species-flight period-region are shown in Figure 3. The same qualitative results were obtained using the GLMMs (see Methods).

Larval parasitism

During the study we collected 949 larvae from Menorca, Mallorca and Catalonia (including sites in the xeric and mesic climate regions): 103 larvae from Menorca in 2019, 412 from Mallorca (2019: 152; 2020: 122; 2021: 110; 2022: 28) and 434 from Catalonia (2021: 144; 2022: 290). However, 35% of the larvae died during rearing for unknown reasons and were excluded from the calculations of parasitism rates. Parasitism was an important source of mortality in *Gonepteryx* larvae (Fig. 4). On the islands, the percentage of larvae killed by parasitoids ranged from 15% to 45% on Mallorca, and was 28% in Menorca in 2019. In Catalonia, where total parasitism rates

311 were lower than on the islands, a total of 9% of larvae died from parasitism in both
312 2021 and 2022.

313 Interestingly, different parasitoid species occurred on the mainland and the islands. At
314 mainland sites, two species known to be specialist parasitoids of the genus *Gonepteryx*
315 (Shaw et al. 2009), the braconid and the ichneumonid wasps *Cotesia gonopterygis* and
316 *Hyposoter rhodocerae*, were recorded. All adults of *C. gonopterygis* emerged from *G.*
317 *ramni* larvae (n = 12), most of them from the sample taken from the coolest sampled
318 site on the mainland (in El Montseny mountains), while only two individuals were
319 recorded from the warmest site (Argentona). We could not identify the hosts of *H.*
320 *rhodocerae* to species level but they were found at all except the coolest site, including
321 a site where no larvae of *G. ramni* was found (Sant Quintí, see Supplementary Figure
322 S4). Surprisingly, *Cotesia risilis*, a fairly specialist parasitoid of *Gonepteryx* species in
323 the study area (Jubany and Stefanescu, 2009), did not appear at any site. On the islands,
324 the Cleopatra was only attacked by one as yet undescribed endemic parasitoid of the
325 genus *Cotesia* (Shaw and Colom in prep.).

326 Parasitism was concentrated in the first three larval instars, although the distribution of
327 parasitized larvae by instars showed differences between the mainland and the islands
328 (Fig. 4a). On the islands, the endemic *Cotesia* seems mainly to parasite larvae in their
329 first instar because parasitism rates decreased steadily from the first to the third instar at
330 the time of collection. On the mainland, on the other hand, parasitism rates were more
331 homogenously distributed among the larvae collected throughout the three first instars
332 (Fig. 4b). The parasitoids generally killed the larvae in the third instar. No statistical
333 differences in parasitism rates were detected between regions (Fig 4c). Fig. 4d illustrates
334 the variability in parasitism rates between sites in the same region between years.

335

336 **Density dependence**

337 Both the density of the same species and the sum of the densities of the two species had
338 significantly negative effects on the inter-annual population growth of the Brimstone
339 and Cleopatra (Supplementary Table S1). Inter-annual population growth was best
340 predicted by the density of the same species in *t-1* than by the sum of the densities of
341 the two species (Cleopatra: $dAIC = 41$; Brimstone: $dAIC = 118.9$). Models only
342 including the inter-specific density effect also had a significant effect but of lower
343 magnitude (Cleopatra: -0.5 vs -0.07 ; Brimstone: -0.62 vs -0.06) and had the highest AIC
344 values (Cleopatra: $dAIC = 88.7$; Brimstone: $dAIC = 132.8$).

345 The strength of the density dependence varied significantly between climate regions but
346 not between biogeographic regions (Supplementary Table S2). Density dependence was
347 greater in the mesic than in the xeric region for Cleopatra, while this same effect was
348 greater in the alpine-subalpine than in the mesic region for Brimstone (Fig. 5).

349 **DISCUSSION**

350 Observational and experimental studies have shown that insect populations fluctuate
351 strongly over space and time according to differences in environmental conditions,
352 resources and biotic interactions. All these factors that have been related potentially to
353 intraspecific variability in insect population densities have been explored in this work.

354 In a previous study we found evidence for greater population densities in the Cleopatra
355 in Menorca than in their mainland counterparts (Colom et al. 2019). In the current work,
356 we improved the complexity and reliability of the measures of these relative
357 abundances. First, the number of study sites was substantially greater and Mallorca was
358 included in the study system as an island with habitats and species assemblages similar
359 to those found on Menorca. Second, mainland sites were clustered by climate region

360 and, finally, because of the dispersal behaviour of adult butterflies, pre-overwintering
361 and post-overwintering abundances were differentiated.

362 This new approach confirms the exceptional population densities of Cleopatra in
363 Menorca, where densities are higher than in all mainland climate regions. Although the
364 highest densities of post-overwintered adults were recorded on Menorca, differences
365 from the other regions become statistically significant in summer with the emergence of
366 the annual generation. For this generation, the mean density on Menorca is twice the
367 mean density in the other regions (Fig. 3c). However, the numbers of Cleopatra
368 recorded on Mallorca were closer to those observed on the mainland than to those on
369 Menorca. We further detected important differences in the abundance of Brimstone
370 summer adults between the two climate regions in which this species occurs on the
371 mainland.

372 Below we discuss the role of the different factors explaining variation in the relative
373 abundance of the two study species.

374 **Climate-driven dispersal behaviour**

375 The greater abundances in the alpine-subalpine than in the Mediterranean mesic region
376 of Brimstone summer adults (Fig. 3d) can be easily explained by the dispersal of adults
377 to cooler sites in summer (Gutiérrez and Wilson 2014). The fact that host plants were
378 not recorded at the alpine-subalpine study sites supports the idea that butterflies present
379 at these sites in summer came from other areas. Indeed, our results suggest that higher
380 temperatures increase the rates of adult dispersal from warmer to cooler sites, which
381 means that the differences between these sites are likely to increase with future global
382 warming (Table 1). On the other hand, no significant differences were found between
383 Cleopatra population densities in xeric and mesic regions. This does not imply that
384 summer adults of Cleopatra do not perform similar movements to those of the

385 Brimstone; nevertheless, we may failed to find significant differences between regions
386 simply because the differences in maximum temperatures between the xeric and mesic
387 regions were not as strong as between the alpine and mesic regions (Fig. 2d). Moreover,
388 the significant negative effect of maximum temperature on overwintered adult
389 Cleopatras in the xeric region suggests that a major dispersal of individuals to cooler
390 sites does occur in warmer years.

391 The movements of summer adults to cooler sites could be influenced by the availability
392 of nectar resources. However, Gutiérrez and Wilson (2014) found no support for the
393 resource availability hypothesis (based on flower abundance) as an explanation for the
394 summer altitudinal migration of *G. rhamni* in central Spain. Migration in the Painted
395 Lady *Vanessa cardui* has been discussed partly as an evolutionary response to
396 parasitism pressure (Stefanescu et al. 2012), although this hypothesis does not apply to
397 the dispersal movements of *Gonepteryx* adults because the vast majority of individuals
398 do not reproduce in summer.

399 **Variation in parasitism pressure and apparent competition**

400 The data obtained from larval sampling do not support the hypothesis that indirect
401 interactions between Brimstone and Cleopatra on the mainland lead to lower
402 abundances than on the islands since, first, compared to the mainland regions Cleopatra
403 populations were more abundant on Menorca but not on Mallorca, and, second, because
404 larval parasitism rates were not higher on the mainland than at the island sites. Indeed,
405 although only one parasitoid species was found on the islands, it caused similar
406 mortality rates to those provoked by the two parasitoid species combined on the
407 mainland (Fig. 4). The endemic *Cotesia* species was found at all island sites and was
408 found to have a great capacity to parasitize Cleopatras in a wide range of habitats and
409 environmental conditions. On the other hand, our data suggest that the two parasitoids

found on the mainland have a low niche overlap as they only co-occurred in one of the four sampled sites (Fig. S3). Specialist parasitoids tend to vary their use of temporal and spatial resources to facilitate coexistence (Hood et al. 2021), so more natural enemies on the mainland do not necessarily imply higher levels of butterfly larval mortality. The low niche overlap between the two parasitoids on the mainland can be explained by climate, habitat and/or host preferences, differences that may have originated as a result of a phenomenon of competitive exclusion. Our findings suggest that *Cotesia gonopterygis* occurs at colder sites and *Hyposoter rhodocerae* at warmer sites, although *H. rhodocerae* at least is known to be a common parasitoid of *G. rhamni* in colder regions such as the UK (MRS pers. obs.). The fact that all *C. gonopterygis* individuals emerged from Brimstone larvae suggests that it specializes on this species; yet, *H. rhodocerae* was found at a site where we found no Brimstone larvae, which suggests that it can use both *Gonepteryx* species as a host. Therefore, although apparent competition could still be mediated by *H. rhodocerae*, surprisingly we found no *H. rhodocerae* at the site with a more equal representation of the larvae of both species (El Montseny, see Fig. S4).

Apparent competition between *Gonepteryx* species seems even more unlikely if we take into account the fact that larval coexistence was unexpectedly low despite the high adult overlap (Fig. S4). While Brimstone adults were common at three of the four sampled mainland sites, only at the coolest sites were the larvae of this species common too. Therefore, our results indicate that, although adults of both *Gonepteryx* species coexist over a vast area, there is a great segregation in the breeding areas that limits the possibility of indirect effects. This suggests that these two closely related species have differentiated their climatic niches more than might be expected given the spatial distribution of adults alone, and that this could be the result of an evolutionary process promoting coexistence (Duyck et al. 2006).

An indirect approach using the density dependence models also failed to give support for the hypothesis of apparent competition. We expected that if significant indirect effects occurred, the sum of the densities of both species in the previous year ($t-1$) would govern the inter-annual population growth of their populations. However, the density of the same species in $t-1$ was the variable that best explained the inter-annual population growth (Supplementary Table S1). The only result supporting the apparent competition hypothesis were the higher levels of density dependence in the Cleopatra populations in the region where this species co-exists with the Brimstone than in the warmer region (Fig. 5a). Nevertheless, the opposite was found in Brimstone populations because the density dependence effect was higher in the region where the Cleopatra is not present (Fig. 5b). However, factors other than parasitism may account for density dependence processes in butterfly populations dynamics (Stiling 1988, Dooley et al. 2013).

Overwintering habitat and abundance of larval resources

The availability of host plants and overwintering habitat play an important role in explaining the spatial heterogeneity of butterfly abundances (Yamamoto et al. 2007, Curtis et al. 2015, Flockhart et al. 2015). Host plant and forest cover significantly influenced the abundance of overwintering and summer Cleopatra adults suggesting that larval trophic resources and overwintering habitat are both important. By contrast, Brimstones at cooler sites were more limited by overwintering habitat than by host plant availability.

Differences in forest and host plant cover are unlikely to be large between the mainland and the islands and between the two islands, at least at the study sites (Fig. 2a,b). Therefore, the high densities of Cleopatra in Menorca do not appear to be due to increased resource abundance or habitat cover on this island. However, Cleopatra adults

460 can perform long movements and our data set is restricted to the transect level. Thus,
461 data on host plant and habitat cover over wider areas are needed to establish whether or
462 not differences in summer populations between Menorca and the other regions are
463 attributable to differences in environmental variables at larger scales.

464 **Alternative factors shaping spatial variation in butterfly relative abundance**

465 Taking into account all these results, it is still difficult to find a clear explanation for the
466 much higher population densities of Cleopatra on Menorca. Differences between islands
467 could be attributable to island geography (size and distance from the mainland),
468 regional conditions or island heterogeneity (e.g. topographic heterogeneity) (Dennis and
469 Hardy 2018). Menorca is a small island (area: 695.7 km² vs Mallorca: 3640.1 km²) with
470 a very flat landscape (highest elevation: 385 m vs Mallorca: 1436 m), which means that
471 there are fewer opportunities for summer adults to disperse to cooler sites than on
472 Mallorca or the mainland (but see Colom et al. 2021). If dispersion is limited, summer
473 individuals may be forced to spend more time flying at the same sites, thereby
474 increasing their detectability relative to the sites in the other regions. Hence, the higher
475 numbers recorded in Menorcan transects may in fact result from behavioural differences
476 rather than real differences in population density.

477 Another hypothesis is that Menorca may have been less affected by land-use changes,
478 urbanization and the loss of habitat heterogeneity over the past two decades than either
479 Mallorca or the mainland given that it has been a Biosphere reserve since 1993. In spite
480 of the high mobility of Cleopatra adults, capable of reaching suitable distant habitats
481 and food resources, landscape structure may still play a role and enhance on Menorca
482 the connectivity between resources and their exploitation and, consequently, maintain
483 larger butterfly populations.

Overall, our work illustrates the complexity of attempting to disentangle the processes shaping the abundance of insects over space due to the many different factors that are potentially involved. It also highlights how important it is for biogeographic and macroecological studies to be able to count on good knowledge of the ecology of the studied species, as well as interspecific interactions of various kinds, for their analyses.

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CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

We will archive all data with the Figshare repository.

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632

633 Tables

634 **Table 1.** Results of the GLMs testing the effect of the environmental predictors on
635 butterfly abundance. Values of the coefficients for the variables included in the best-fit
636 model based on the AIC are shown. Values with a significant effect are shown in bold
637 with asterisks (* $P < 0.1$; ** $P < 0.05$; *** $P < 0.01$).

Species	Flight period	Climate region	Host plant cover	Forest cover	Spring maximum temperature	Summer maximum temperature
Cleopatra	Overwintered	Med. xeric			-0.59***	
	adults	Med. mesic	0.03**	1.82**		
	Summer	Med. xeric				-0.09
	adults	Med. mesic	0.03***	1.85**		
Brimstone	Overwintered	Med. mesic		2.41***	-0.29***	
	adults	Alpine-subalpine	0.34	1.28**		
	Summer	Med. mesic		1.84		-0.26**
	adults	Alpine-subalpine		2.05**		0.16***

638

639 **Figure captions**

640 **Figure 1.** Flight curves estimated by GAM models using count data from 2019, 2020
641 and 2021 to illustrate the adult phenology of (a) Cleopatra and (b) Brimstone in each
642 climate region. The first peak represents the overwintered adults and the second the
643 summer adults. The relative abundances of each flight curve are standardized to add up
644 to 1.

645 **Figure 2.** Comparison of the environmental variables between biogeographic and
646 climate regions. (a) Total percentage (0–1) of cover of woodland habitats along the
647 butterfly transects. (b) Host plant cover (*Rhamnus* sp.) standardized per 1000 m of
648 transect length. (c) Spring (March–May) average maximum temperature. (d) Summer
649 (June–August) average maximum temperature. Significant differences between the
650 groups are shown with different letters or with asterisks (* $P < 0.05$; ** $P < 0.01$).

651 **Figure 3.** Comparison of populations densities between biogeographic and climate
652 regions. Overwintered adults of (a) Cleopatra and (b) Brimstone; summer adults of (c)
653 Cleopatra and (d) Brimstone. Letters and asterisks show significant differences between
654 groups. Population density estimates were standardized by transect length and log-
655 transformed to reach normality.

656 **Figure 4.** Parasitism rates in *Gonepteryx* larvae. (a) Total regional parasitism rates by
657 larval instar (L1-L5) at the moment they were collected in the field. (b) Total parasitism
658 rates for each parasitoid species by larval instar. (c) Comparison of local parasitism
659 rates (site level) between regions in the same year. (d) Variability of parasitism rates
660 between sites and years. Each bar represents the parasitism rate for a specific site and
661 year.

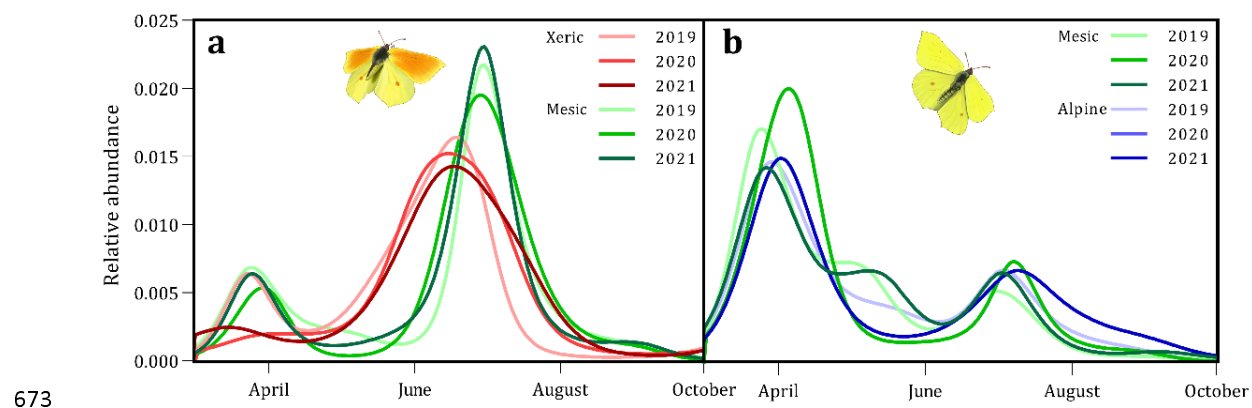
662 **Figure 5.** Predictor effect plots of density dependence differences between climate

663 regions. Density dependence was measured as the relationship between population
 664 growth and abundance in $t-1$. (a) Significant differences between the density dependent
 665 effect on Cleopatra in the xeric and mesic Mediterranean climate regions. (b)
 666 Significant differences between the density dependent effect on Brimstone in the
 667 Mediterranean mesic and alpine-subalpine climate regions. Lines depict model-
 668 predicted relationships between population growth and abundance in $t-1$. Dashed lines
 669 represent the 95% confidence intervals.

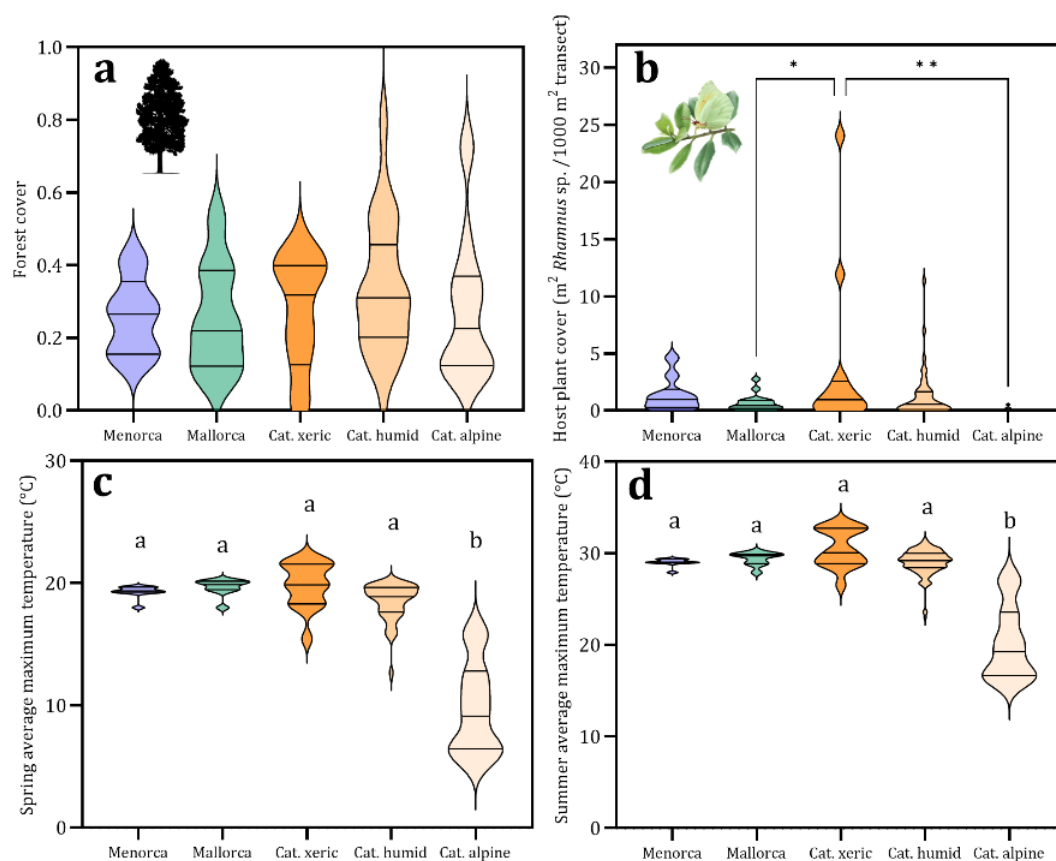
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Figures

672



674 **Figure 1.**



676 **Figure 2.**

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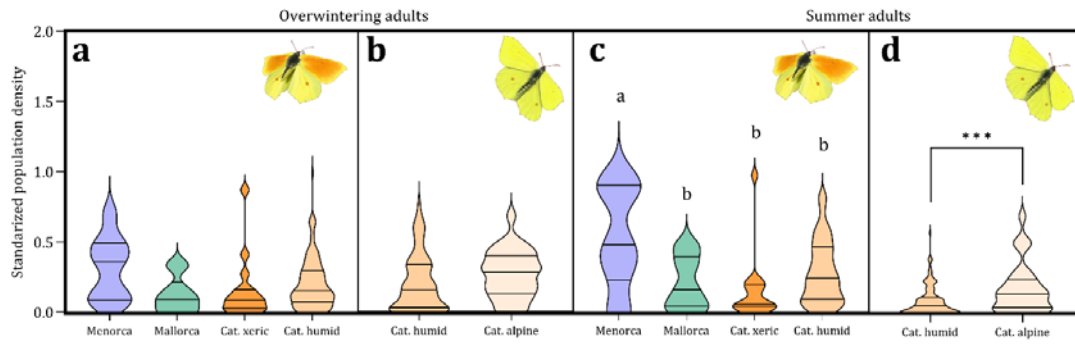


Figure 3.

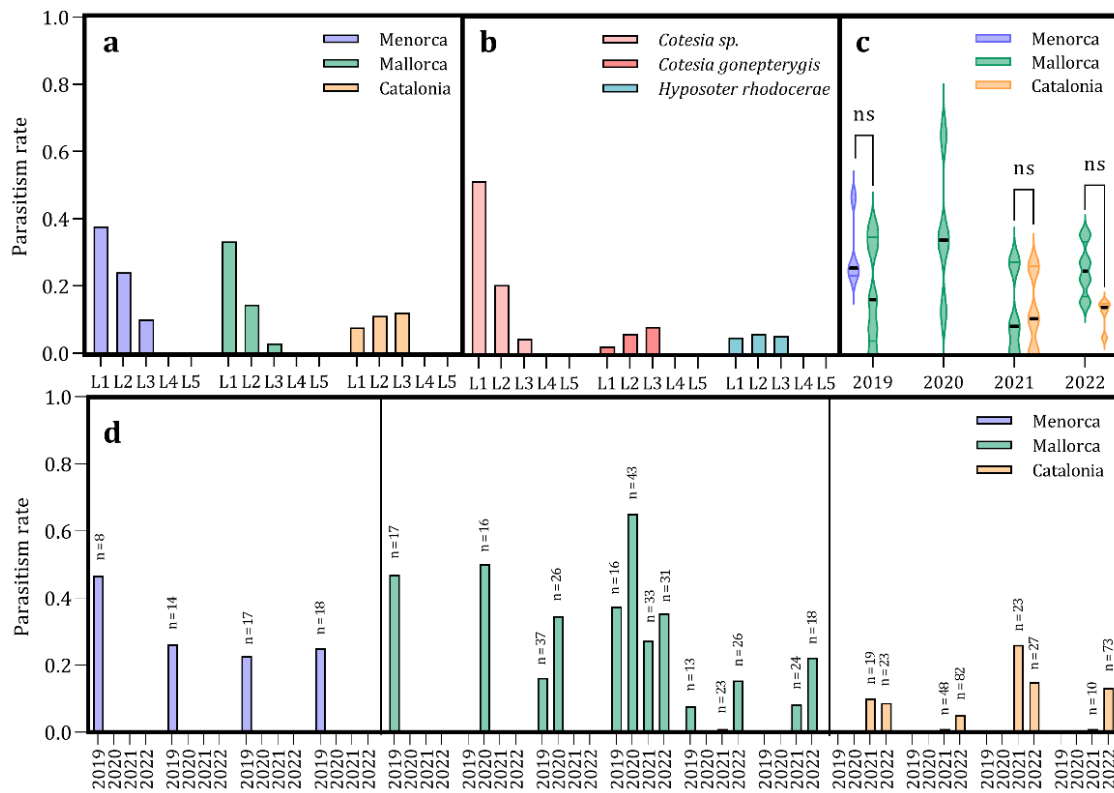
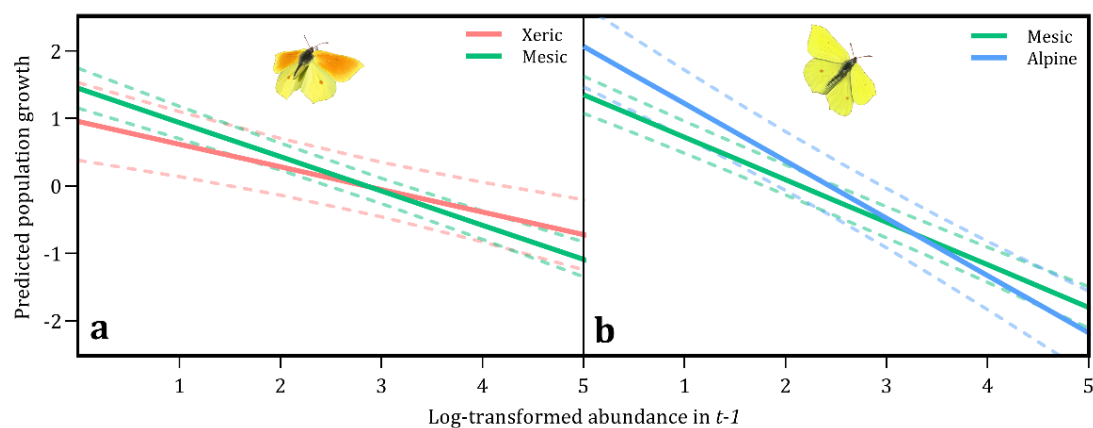


Figure 4.



683

684 **Figure 5.**