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HISTÓRIA NATURAL E BIOLOGIA POPULACIONAL EM
***Euryades corethrus* (Boisduval, 1836) (Lepidoptera: Papilionidae: Troidini),**
UMA ESPÉCIE BRASILEIRA AMEAÇADA DE EXTINÇÃO.

Dissertação apresentada ao Programa de Pós-graduação
em Biologia Animal, Instituto de Biociências da
Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul, como
requisito parcial à obtenção do título de Mestre em
Biologia Animal.

Área de Concentração: Biodiversidade

Orientador: Prof. Dr. Nicolás Oliveira Mega

UNIVERSIDADE FEDERAL DO RIO GRANDE DO SUL

PORTO ALEGRE, FEVEREIRO DE 2016

HISTÓRIA NATURAL E BIOLOGIA POPULACIONAL EM *Euryades corethrus*
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Aprovado em _____ de _____ de 2016

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*“What is the point of the frustrating,
dirty and tedious job of ecology?”*

*It’s because of the jazz. The jazz is when
you figure something out, when you
discover one small part of how life works
on this planet”*

*Robert Denno, entomologista
(1945 – 2008)*

Agradecimentos

Durante minha trajetória como biólogo fui levado a acreditar, primeiro de uma maneira ingênua, de manual, depois de uma maneira um pouco mais crítica e pessoal, que a ciência é feita de trocas entre campos de conhecimentos e entre pessoas. Apesar da tendência que temos (eu tive) em inicialmente ver somente o lado bonito e enlevante disso, esse tipo de interação pode ser também muito difícil de se lidar. Para o bem e para o mal, lidar com pessoas envolve política, concessão, *mea culpa*, fatos e suas interpretações variadas. Bichos sociais são complexos. Não saio desse período de formação como uma pessoa pessimista, mas saio muito mais cético em relação a como é feita essa busca da realidade. Acredito que isso tenha sido o mais importante que internalizei.

Agradeço o apoio técnico e material do CNPq, pela bolsa, CAPES, PPGBAN e UFRGS. Que a universidade pública siga pública e de qualidade, e com o objetivo de melhorar a vida das pessoas.

Se faz necessário um longo agradecimento às pessoas da minha vida. Não poderia ser diferente, mas não há porque se alarmar: Robin Dunbar estima o número médio de amigos que uma pessoa consegue ter como 150, e isso a gente consegue agradecer em umas poucas resmas de papel.

Tiago Bortolini, meu amigo mais antigo foi, não há dúvida, minha principal inspiração para entrar na Biologia. Me mostrou os primeiros caminhos da pesquisa e foi o primeiro com quem tive essa maravilhosa sensação de conseguir vislumbrar um pedaço do padrão por trás do caos, e a eletricidade e o *jazz* que isso nos causa. Valeu, irmão!

Agradeço aos grandes parceiros Ismael Brack, Paulo Barradas e Ronaldo Paesi. Vocês são pessoas perto das quais quero estar por muito tempo ainda. Obrigado pelas diversas ajudas, acadêmicas e reais, e por serem coautores dessa alegria engarrafada que é a nossa cerveja artesanal “¡dALE!”.

Claudio Reis, por ser a personificação do esforço inteligente e da capacidade de se mudar de rota, e pelas melhores bóias pesadas; Leonardo Luvison, nosso professor, filósofo da ciência e especialista em cachaça em conserva. Alexis Kellermann, figura inteligentíssima, parceiro de grandes elucubrações, grandes sacadas e grandes viagens sem as quais eu não teria entrado no PPG. Valeu!

Michelle Abadie e Thayná Mendes, diabos loiros movidos a urânio, vocês são demais. Futuros brilhantes, um desdobramento diferente desse é inaceitável.

Os Laureños, melhor conjunto (somos um conjunto, banda é coisa de colonizado): Laura Verrastro, Camila de Oliveira, Gabriela Brack, Paulo, Ronaldo, Ismael (Mi e Andressa também, vá lá).

André Klein, que me introduziu ao instigante mundo das borboletas, pelas sacadas de natureza e mato, poesia e som y *otras cosas*. Thiago Marcelino, André Benitz, Marcelo Reis, parceiros de música e que compartilham do meu amor pela arte em geral e pela composição. Marcinho Bonesso e Rafael Bortolin, cervejeiros bagualíssimos!

João Ricardo Jacobus, Jonathan Rickes, Guilherme Kessler, Bruno Fernandes, Eduardo Georjão, amigos ‘de fora’, cada qual pelo motivo que lhe cabe. Seja pelos anos de amizade ou por trocas pontuais, o agradecimento é pelo conjunto da obra.

Irina Oliveira, Beatriz Aydos, Fabíola Barcelos, *bróderes* de trocas variadas, obrigado pela amizade duradoura. Que siga durando e que sigamos trocando!

Pela jornada e pela troca de conhecimentos variados agradeço ao meu orientador Nicolás Mega, faz-tudo dedicado e Professor Pardal por vocação. Te desejo tudo de melhor na tua carreira e na tua vida.

Ao Laboratório de Ecologia de Insetos (LEI) pelo brilhantismo conjunto em definir a reunião do clube de discussão de artigos seguida da reunião do clube de degustação de cervejas artesanais e assim fazer bom uso do condicionamento operante e do reforço positivo. Vejo muita capacidade em todos e em cada um e desejo o melhor pra vocês. Obrigado Helena Romanowski por me abrir as portas do LEI e pelas melhores piores piadas que um ser humano pode contar.

Agradeço à minha família nuclear esquisita, onde tio é pai, tia é mãe e primas são irmãs. Não poderia desejar uma família melhor nem nos meus sonhos mais malucos, me sinto um cara de sorte infinita por ter vocês. Obrigado por tudo, Dinamar, João, Julia e Melissa.

Por fim, agradeço à Andressa Caporale, mulher que eu amo. Passaste por muitas e péssimas, e soubeste ser brilhante e dedicada na adversidade. Gosto do jeito que olhas pra natureza e perguntas, e a humildade que há no jeito que expressas o que sabes, quando sabes. Teus olhos são dois sóis.

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RESUMO

Euryades corethrus (Boisduval, 1836) é uma borboleta da tribo Troidini que tem distribuição meridional na América do Sul. É uma espécie que usa como hospedeira plantas do gênero *Aristolochia*. A borboleta é categorizada como Vulnerável (VU) no Sul do Brasil, sendo que as maiores ameaças que sofre estão relacionadas à perda e fragmentação de seu habitat, que gera diminuição na oferta de sua planta hospedeira. Os principais motivos de conversão dessas áreas de campo são o uso na agricultura, principalmente monoculturas de eucalipto e soja, e a pecuária intensiva com pastos cultivados. Durante um ano nós conduzimos um estudo de captura-marcação-liberação-recaptura (CMLR) em uma área de campo nativo presente na Estação Experimental Agronômica da UFRGS, localizada no município de Eldorado do Sul, Rio Grande do Sul, com o intuito de investigar a dinâmica populacional, história natural e características ligadas ao uso de habitat da espécie. Durante esse período capturamos 955 indivíduos, sendo 367 fêmeas e 588 machos, dos quais 7.6% das fêmeas e 14.12% dos machos foram recapturados pelo menos uma vez. A maior abundância de indivíduos foi observada uma semana antes do Equinócio de Primavera. O comprimento de asa não diferiu entre machos e fêmeas, mas o tamanho de asas em geral variou durante o ano, com as maiores médias de comprimento sendo observadas em Dezembro. A estrutura etária variou em uma sucessão de picos de indivíduos jovens seguidas por um aumento no envelhecimento da população. Nenhum adulto foi observado de Junho a Agosto de 2014, e de Abril a Maio de 2015, o que sugere diapausa nesses períodos. Indivíduos geralmente preferiam áreas abertas e as fêmeas foram significativamente mais capturadas próximas a manchas da planta hospedeira. Os resultados encontrados sugerem que os esforços de conservação da espécie deveriam ser voltados para o aumento da conectividade da matriz ambiental, com a promoção da criação de gado de

uma maneira extensiva, com o uso sustentável de pastagens naturais e rotatividade, mas com atenção à época em que isso é feito, e para o aumento de extensão de habitat, com a implementação de Unidades de Conservação para as formações de campo.

CAPÍTULO 1

Introdução Geral

O Brasil é um país megadiverso cuja diversidade é altamente desconhecida e bastante ameaçada (Lewinsohn & Prado 2005). A conservação dos Biomas brasileiros é voltada, principalmente, para a preservação e conservação das suas formações florestais, ambientes com maior apelo carismático. Apesar de ser cada vez mais necessária, pouca atenção é direcionada para ambientes e formações que possam parecer menos atraentes para o público. Este é o caso dos chamados Campos, formações encontradas nos Biomas Mata Atlântica e Pampa e que apresentam fisionomias diversas, com presença de espécies vegetais gramíneas e arbustivas e alta diversidade de fauna associada. Pouco conhecimento a respeito de seu estado ecológico chega ao público em geral, e as políticas de conservação direcionadas às formações em questão vão de pouca a nenhuma (Overbeck et al. 2015).

O principal impacto aos Campos é relacionado ao seu mau uso, a conversão extensiva e a fragmentação da paisagem natural. A expansão das fronteiras agrícolas para suprir a necessidade dos chamados biocombustíveis no Brasil e o mercado de celulose no Uruguai promoveram a conversão de áreas que eram originalmente de gramíneas em campos de monocultura de soja e de eucalipto (Vélez-Martin et al. 2015). Por outro lado, o uso de campos naturais para a pecuária, especialmente quando esta é feita em uma escala pequena, causa um impacto menor, quando em comparação com sistemas intensivos de criação de gado de corte que usam pastos semeados (Borba e Trindade 2009), proporcionando uma alternativa econômica mais sustentável para a região de Argentina, Brasil e Uruguai. Contudo, os métodos de criação de gado na região permanecem arcaicos e muito intensos para que seja possível a manutenção da produtividade e a preservação do ecossistema de forma conjunta. Atualmente, a agricultura e a pecuária suprimiram as áreas de campos naturais da Savana Uruguia

para 51% da sua cobertura original no território brasileiro (Crawshaw et al. 2007) e para 70% no território uruguaio (Gautreau, 2010).

Invertebrados terrestres, dependendo do tipo de reação que apresentam às mudanças no ambiente, são categorizados em diferentes grupos. Os *detectores* são espécies nativas que são sensíveis a alterações ambientais e que reagem a elas com declínios populacionais; *exploradores* são organismos que, por outro lado, tiram vantagem na mudança e respondem com um aumento em abundância, e os *acumuladores*, espécies que tendem a acumular químicos presentes no ambiente e que podem ser usados como uma medida indireta da presença desses químicos (Gerlach et al. 2013). De qualquer modo, se mostra necessário um conhecimento prévio sobre o estado da fauna local para que seja possível a aplicação de alguma métrica para investigar modificações posteriores causadas por um eventual impacto. Entre a fauna, borboletas são tidos como bons indicadores (grupo dos *detectores*) do estado geral de conservação de uma área estudada, principalmente porque, dentre os insetos, são provavelmente o grupo mais conhecido, taxonomicamente e ecologicamente (Thomas 2005, Bonebrake et al. 2010).

O gênero *Euryades* Felder & Felder, 1864 (Papilionidae: Troidini) é um grupo de borboletas Neotropicais que tem distribuição concentrada no sul na América do Sul. O grupo é encontrado na Argentina, Brasil, Paraguai e Uruguai e apresenta duas espécies: *Euryades duponchelii* (Lucas, 1839) e *Euryades corethrus* (Boisduval, 1836). Os adultos de ambas espécies ovipositam somente em plantas do gênero *Aristolochia*, e os compostos tóxicos secundários que são absorvidos dessas plantas acabam tornando larvas e adultos impalatáveis (Tyler 1994).

Euryades corethrus é uma borboleta que apresenta um acentuado dicromatismo sexual: machos são pretos com manchas amarelas e vermelhas, enquanto fêmeas apresentam uma coloração amarela translúcida, bem como alguns *redspots* nas asas posteriores (Fig 1). Além das sinapomorfias de Papilionidae, que incluem o osmetério, a morfologia da veia A2 da asa posterior, e escleritos cervicais fundidos localizados posteriormente à cabeça do imago; a espécie também apresenta uma estrutura notável chamada *sphragis*: um tampão genital com duas pequenas alas, que é transferido pelo macho para a fêmea durante o acasalamento e que impede fisicamente que fêmeas previamente copuladas tenham novos encontros sexuais. *Euryades corethrus* pode ser encontrada nos meses de Fevereiro, Abril, Maio, Setembro, Outubro e Dezembro, e é propensa a ser visualizada em áreas abertas de campo e campos de altitude, exibindo seu comportamento de voo mais intenso durante as horas mais quentes do dia, quando está procurando por parceiros ou plantas para ovipositar (Link et al. 1977). Ela parece preferir áreas de arbustos e de campo próximas a bordas de florestas para executar esses comportamentos. Devido à sua oviposição característica, principalmente em *Aristolochia sessilifolia*, e devido à absoluta especialização das larvas à fonte de alimentação a qual foram inicialmente expostas, o fator mais importante de ameaça que parece afetar *E. corethrus* é a progressiva diminuição de áreas de campo nativo onde a planta hospedeira pode ser encontrada.

Devido à falta de conhecimento e descrição detalhada das características da espécie na natureza e sua biologia populacional, o objetivo do presente estudo é descrever as métricas e dinâmicas da população e alguns aspectos da história natural de *Euryades corethrus*, passando pelo seu comportamento de voo, comportamento reprodutivo e preferências alimentares.

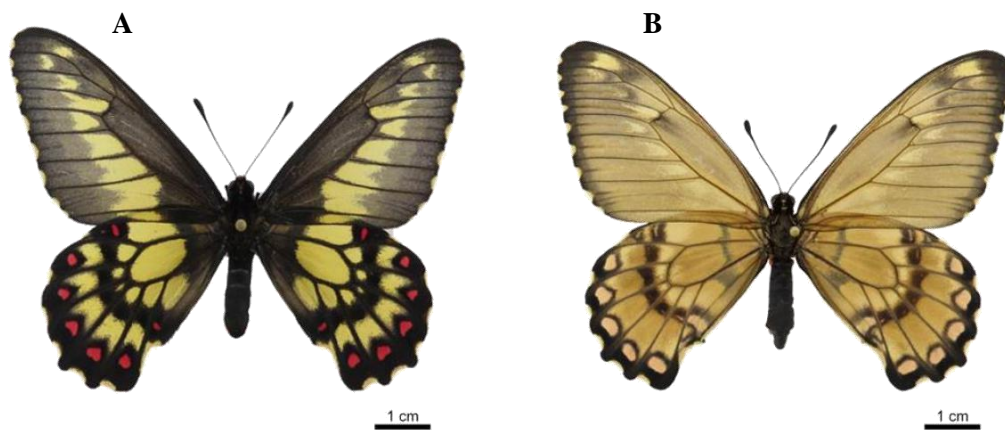


Figura 1. Espécimes de *Euryades corethrus* (Boisduval,1836) em vista dorsal: A, macho; B, fêmea.

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CAPÍTULO 2

Population Biology and Natural History of the grassland butterfly *Euryades corethrus* (Papilionidae: Troidini), an Endangered Brazilian species

Artigo a ser submetido para publicação no *Journal of Insect Conservation*

1 Article type: Original Article

2 **Population biology and natural history of the grassland butterfly *Euryades corethrus***
3 **(Papilionidae: Troidini), an endangered Brazilian species**

4

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13

14 Abstract

15 *Euryades corethrus* is a swallowtail butterfly with a southern South American distribution. It
16 only oviposits in plants of the *Aristolochia* genera. The butterfly is categorized Vulnerable
17 (VU), the main threats it suffers are habitat loss and fragmentation, and decrease in supply of
18 host-plants, due to extensive conversion of the *Campos* for monocultures and intensive cattle
19 raising. We conduct a yearlong mark-release-recapture (MRR) study in a South-Brazilian area
20 of native *Campos* aiming at population dynamics, natural history, and life traits related to the
21 use of habitat. We captured 955 specimens (367 females and 588 males); 7.6% of females and
22 14.12% of males were recaptured. The most individuals were observed a week prior the spring
23 equinox. Male and female wings sizes did not differ, general wing size showed variation
24 between months, the biggest length in December. Age structure varied in a succession of peaks
25 of young individuals outbreaks followed by increased aging. No adults were observed from
26 June to August 2014, and from April to May 2015, suggesting diapause. Individuals generally
27 preferred meadows, and female were prone to be found next to *Aristolochia* patches.

28 Conservation efforts should aim at landscape connectivity, by promoting the rearing of cattle in
29 an extensive way, with a rotating, season-wise use of small suitable areas of natural pasture,
30 and at extension of overall suitable are, by implementation of Conservation Units of *Campos*
31 formations.

32

33 Keywords

34 *Aristolochia*, *Campos*, conservation, mark and recapture, Pampa biome, phenology

35

36 Acknowledgments

37 The authors are thankful to Chico Mendes Institute for Biodiversity Conservation (ICMBio) for
38 the collection license (35153-1), and to National System of Biodiversity Research/National
39 Network for Research and Conservation of Lepidoptera (SiSBiota/RedeLep) for transport
40 financial. The authors also thank, CC Almeida, APS Carvalho, DS Martins, VW Scalco, for
41 field assistance. MC Costa and A. Caporale were funded by National Council for Scientific and
42 Technological Development (CNPq), RA Paesi and LL Fucinili by Coordination of
43 Improvement of Higher Level Personnel (CAPES), HP Romanowsky by CNPq, and N.O.
44 Mega by CAPES National Postdoctoral Program (PNPD/CAPES) (grant #23038.8306/2010-
45 62). This is the contribution #577 of the Department of Zoology of the Federal University of
46 Rio Grande do Sul.

47

48 **Introduction**

49 Brazil is a megadiverse country that presents heavily threatened species and that
50 has a still widely unknown diversity (Lewinsohn and Prado 2005). The matter of conservation
51 regarding Brazilian Biomes is mainly linked to the care and maintenance of its forests: very
52 little attention is directed to non-forestall environments, despite the high biodiversity,
53 noteworthy endemism rates and ecosystem services they display (Overbeck et al. 2015). Such
54 is the case of the so called *Campos*, the grassland formations found in both Atlantic Forest and
55 Pampa Biomes. These grasslands bear a high diversity of vegetal species (Boldrini 2009) and
56 associated fauna, and are largely forgotten when it comes to public awareness of their condition
57 and political efforts directed to their conservation (Overbeck et al. 2007, 2015).

58 Because their high suitability for agricultural enterprises (Lambin et al. 2013), the
59 leading impact related to the *Campos* conservation is linked to their misuse, especially the one
60 that leads to fragmentation and extensive conversion. The expansion of biofuel markets in
61 Brazil and the cellulose pulp trade in Uruguay have promoted the conversion of original native
62 grasslands to soybean and *Eucalyptus* monocultures (Vélez-Martin et al. 2015). On the other
63 hand, cattle raising on natural grasslands, especially when performed at a small scale, is
64 expected to cause lower impact when compared to intensive livestock systems using sown
65 pastures (Borba and Trindade 2009), providing a more sustainable economical alternative for
66 the Uruguayan Savanna. However, cattle raising methods in the region remain archaic and too
67 intense to manage productivity and ecosystem preservation in concert. Nowadays, agriculture
68 and livestock have suppressed the natural grassland areas of the Uruguayan Savanna to 51% of
69 its original coverage in the Brazilian territory (Crawshaw et al. 2007) and up to 70% in the
70 Uruguayan territory (Gautreau 2010).

71 Among the fauna, invertebrates are thought to be good indicators of the overall
72 conservation state of a studied area. Depending on what is their reaction to environmental
73 change, they are categorized into different groups, namely, *detectors* (native species that are
74 sensitive to environmental alteration whose population decrease when it happens), *exploiters*

75 (organisms that take advantage on the change and increase in abundance), and *accumulators*
76 (species that tend to accumulate chemicals of the ambient and can be used as an indirect mean
77 of measure) (Gerlach et al. 2013). Anyhow, it is necessary a previous knowledge of the local
78 fauna species status in order to make possible a metric of further modifications caused by
79 impact.

80 The butterfly genus *Euryades* Felder & Felder, 1864 (Papilionidae: Troidini) is a
81 Neotropical group of insects that have a southern South American distribution, found in areas
82 of Atlantic Forest, Pampa and Chaco biomes from Argentina, Brazil, Paraguay and Uruguay.
83 One of those species, *Euryades corethrus* (Boisduval, 1836), oviposits solely on plants from
84 the genus *Aristolochia*, and the toxic secondary compounds absorbed from the host-plants end
85 up making both larvae and adults unpalatable (Tyler et al. 1994). The butterfly presents an
86 accentuated sexual dichromatism: males are black with yellow and red stains, while females
87 present a translucent yellow coloration, as well as few red spots in the hindwings (Fig 1). The
88 species also presents a noteworthy structure called *sphragis*: a mating plug that is transferred
89 by the male and carried by the female that physically inhibits mated females from further
90 copulation. *Euryades corethrus* can be found during the months of February, April, May,
91 September, October and December (Link et al. 1977), and is prone to be found in open areas of
92 grasslands and altitude fields, exhibiting its most intense flight behavior during the hottest
93 hours of the day, when it's looking for either mating partners or plants to oviposit (Link et al.
94 1977). It seems to prefer shrubland and grassland areas close to forest edges to perform such
95 behaviors.

96 In a recent actualization of the Red List of Threatened Species of Rio Grande do
97 Sul State by the Zoobotanic Foundation of Rio Grande do Sul State (FZB 2013), *E. corethrus*
98 was categorized as Vulnerable (VU), being labeled “B2ab(iii)”, which stands for faunal
99 individuals that are at menace because of factors impacting their area of occupancy. The
100 species' area of occupancy is either severely fragmented or presents an observable decline in its
101 extent and quality. In the Red List of Threatened Species from Paraná State (Mielke &

102 Casagrande 2004) the species is labeled as Endangered (EN), being labeled EN B2ab(ii,iii)
103 (Doilibaina et al. 2010), an even worse condition of threat. Natural history records point to
104 characteristic oviposition on five *Aristolochia* species, namely *A. sessilifolia*, *A. brevifolia*, *A.*
105 *angustifolia*, *A. fimbriata*, and *A. Lingua* (Beccaloni 2008, Klitzke and Brown Jr 2000,
106 Biezanko et al. 1974, Tyler et al. 1994, Núñez-Bustos 2010). Due to the specialization, the
107 most important factor of threatening that seems to affect *E. corethrus* is the progressive
108 shrinkage of native grassland areas where the host-plant can be found.

109 Given the lack of knowledge on the *E. corethrus* biology, the objectives of our
110 study were to describe the population dynamics and some aspects of the species' natural history
111 that can help to establish parameters for the conservation of *E. corethrus*. For that, we selected
112 a native grassland area preserved from any environmental impact to evaluate oviposition and
113 host-plant use, adult feeding preferences, dispersal, and mating strategies. We expect that
114 population size will vary directly with the day length and temperature, leading to adult local
115 extinction during later autumn, winter, and early spring; if summer conditions get too harsh,
116 temporary adult extinction may also occur. High ecological demands are common to all
117 endangered swallowtail butterflies, thus we expect that *E. corethrus* presence will be strongly
118 correlated with larval host-plants and adult resources abundance.

119

120 **Material and Methods**

121

122 **Study site**

123 The study area is in an experimental agronomic station, a property of Federal
124 University of Rio Grande do Sul, which is located in the municipality of Eldorado do Sul, state
125 of Rio Grande do Sul, southern Brazil (30°05'27"S, 51°40'18"W). The site upholds
126 approximately 800 ha of native Pampa meadows, which are mainly dedicated to cattle raising
127 and agronomic experimentation. Apart those activities there is a 30 ha area that did not suffer

128 any management in the last 30 years and are suited to conservation studies. We have conducted
129 the study in the least transformed area.

130 The site is primarily plane, with small hills in its East face, as well as a depression
131 in its middle. The site vegetation is composed by a myriad of grassland species and shrubs.
132 There are also a few water courses that support gallery forests and swamps in the lower part of
133 the terrain (Fig 2).The climate in the region is categorized as Cfa in the Köppen-Geiger
134 classification (Peel 2007), which stands for humid subtropical, tending more to the temperate
135 than to the tropical climate, with mean temperatures of the warmest month surpassing 22°C
136 (Moreno 1961).

137

138 **Butterfly sampling and parameters analyzed**

139 All field work was done along two 750 meters long trails in 30 ha area. Both trails
140 had numbered signs every 50 m, which were used to identify the point of encounter of
141 individuals. Captures were labeled as the closer to the encounter checkpoint in the trail. The
142 areas were next to one another, separated by a small creek and treated as two areas only as a
143 mean of organization. Both areas were covered in a field day, one by the morning and the other
144 by the afternoon. We started each day of work in a different trail to avoid sampling bias.

145 We used the mark-release-recapture (MRR) technique to monitor the population of
146 *E. corethrus* over a year, from June 2014 to May 2015. Butterflies were captured with insect
147 nets and given a unique number, which was marked with a waterproof felt-tip permanent-ink
148 pen in the discal cell in one of the hindwings (according Ehrlich & Davidson 1960). Field
149 surveys were conducted 1–3 times a week, except during the winter when field expeditions
150 were done each two weeks. Each field day included three researchers with nets. Butterfly
151 sampling was carried out between 09:00 am and 06:00 pm, and the captures were performed on
152 sunny days, with temperatures between 15 and 35°C and mild wind.

153 The sampling counted 34 field days scoring approximately 290 net-hours of
154 sampling effort. For each butterfly, the following aspects were recorded: point of capture,

155 numerical code, sex and presence of *sphragis*, age, forewing length (mm), and vegetation
156 formation type (meadows, shrublands, forest edges and swamps) it was interacting with, if any,
157 in the place of capture. The captures were made between consecutive marks on the trail. We
158 also account for the efficiency of butterfly sampling, which was the daily ratio between
159 captured individuals and overall individuals (either captured or visualized).

160

161 **Population dynamics**

162 We estimated the population size by using the MRR data. To that, we took into
163 account the number of specimens captured and marked each day and the records of recaptured
164 individuals. The MRR data was analyzed separately for each sex through the Jolly-Seber model
165 (Seber 1965) using the CLMR_2010 software pack (Francini 2010).

166

167 **Sex ratio**

168 Individuals were sexed by inspection of genitalia and wing coloration; the sex ratio
169 was calculated by scoring the observed sexual rate based on field days and distributing it
170 monthly, so to observe whether the proportion varied between sexes and between months. To
171 do so we used a chi-square test.

172

173 **Age structure**

174 The estimates of age followed Ehrlich & Gilbert (1973), using visually
175 distinguishable wing wear differences to allocate individuals into the following categories,
176 ranging from the youngest to the oldest: *teneral*, *young*, *experienced*, *old*, *very old*. To calculate
177 the age structure we assembled both sexes together and calculated the proportion of each age
178 category by each field day. Differences between sexes were tested using a chi-square test for
179 homogeneity.

180

181 **Residence time**

182 Residence time was estimated by the difference between the first and the last
183 captures (Brussard et al. 1974), and accounts as an indirect measure of longevity. The Mann-
184 Whitney test was used to verify the residence time differences between sexes.

185

186 **Wing size**

187 Wing overall size is considered to be directly correlated to body size (Miller 1977;
188 Baguette & Stevens 2013), a measure that goes from wing insertion on the thorax to the
189 terminal portion of vein R4, in the apical area of the wing. Such measure was taken with the
190 use of a digital caliper (accuracy 0.01 mm). It was ascertained if wing size had a normal
191 distribution using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and, afterwards, we investigated the character
192 for sexual dimorphism with a t-test and variation between months with an ANOVA followed
193 by a post-hoc Tukey test.

194

195 **Vegetation type preference**

196 In order to analyze for adult preference amongst the vegetation categories, we
197 scored butterfly captures by every 50-m sector, regarding vegetation type (meadows,
198 shrublands, swamps and forest edges), and applied a chi-square test to data. The vegetation
199 type were of each sector was defined based on the most representative vegetation formation
200 around the numbered signs where individuals were captured. After categorization, each sector
201 vegetation type was double-checked using satellite images on Google Earth Pro (Google Inc.,
202 Mountain View, USA).

203

204 **Vagility**

205 The estimation of vagility was calculated using a geographic information system
206 (GIS). We measured the linear distance from the sector of capture to the sector of recapture of
207 individuals. This measure also includes recaptures that were made on the same day. Vagility

208 was zero when an individual was recaptured in the same sector from a previous encounter. We
209 verified movement differences between sexes using a t-test.

210

211 **Resource phenology, natural history, and behavior**

212 The phenology of flowers from different plants occurring in the study area was
213 recorded to access information about adult foraging behavior. At each sampling occasion, the
214 plants in bloom were identified and the availability of flower resources mapped along the trail
215 using the 50-m sectors. Blossomed flowers were identified with the help of a botanist using
216 both photos and exsiccates of plants. After plant identification, *ad libitum* observations
217 (Altmann 1974) during field surveys were performed to identify which flowers were visited by
218 *E. corethrus* butterflies. The hypothesis of heterogeneous distribution of flowers along the
219 study area was analyzed using a Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. The hypothesis that the presence of
220 nectar sources increases the likelihood of finding a butterfly was tested by the association of
221 flower records with butterfly captures using the Spearman's rank-order correlation test. The
222 presence of the host-plants (*Aristolochia* species) was mapped in the study site to provide data
223 on their availability over the months and details on their use as host-plants. The hypothesis that
224 clustered distribution of host-plants along a sampling area increases the likelihood of finding a
225 butterfly was tested using Pearson's correlation. *Aristolochia* branches present in the study area
226 were measured (branch length, presence of apical bud, number of leaves) once per season, and
227 inspected for the presence of *E. corethrus* immature forms and signs of herbivory. Eventual
228 immature forms from other Troidini species were also recorded to access resource partitioning
229 information. In addition to the population sampling, adult foraging behavior, sexual behavior,
230 male activity and female oviposition were recorded. The observation method used was the
231 Focal-Animal Sampling (Altmann 1974). Behavioral recordings were performed at each
232 sampling occasion, when butterflies were observed during flight before being net-captured.
233 Once chosen, the focal butterfly was followed for as long as possible and all behaviors were
234 annotated.

235

236 **Results**

237 **Population dynamics**

238 We captured and marked a total of 955 individuals (367 females and 588 males).
239 The efficiency of butterfly sampling was 47.34%. The number of daily captures varied from
240 zero to 33 for females (mean \pm SD = 12.88 \pm 11.45) and from zero to 44 for males (mean \pm SD
241 = 22.20 \pm 17.87). Males and females were recaptured up to three times. Approximately 7.6% of
242 females (28 individuals) were recaptured at least once. For the males the numbers were slightly
243 larger, with 14.12% of the males recaptured at least once (83 individuals).

244 The number of butterflies captured was not stable during the year, suggesting a
245 seasonal pattern abundance, though the estimated population size did not differ significantly
246 during some samplings (note error bars in Fig 4). The number of both males and females
247 peaked in early spring and early summer. The number of captures did not correlate with
248 relative humidity ($r_{\text{Pearson}}=-0.361$, $p=0.249$), month temperature ($r_{\text{Pearson}}=0.460$, $p<0.132$), and
249 rainfall ($r_{\text{Pearson}}=-0.338$, $p=0.282$), but was significantly correlated with day length ($r_{\text{Pearson}}=-$
250 0.612; $p=0.034$).

251 The maximum number of individuals was observed approximately a week prior
252 spring equinox. There were at least two visible marked peaks in the capture and visualization of
253 butterflies (Fig 4), which were from the beginning of September to the end of October and,
254 after a small gap with an acute descend in encounters, from the beginning of November to the
255 end of December. No adults were observed from June to August of 2014, and from April to
256 May 2015, suggesting the occurrence of overwinter diapause behavior.

257

258 **Sex ratio**

259 The sex ratio of the marked individuals was slightly male biased (588 males and
260 367 females were marked, a ratio of 1.6M:1F), however, this sex-ratio differences was not

261 significant among the months of the survey ($\chi^2=4.759$; $p=0.691$, Fig. 5). Sex ratio was male
262 biased in all months of survey, with the greatest difference observed in September (1.9M: 1F).

263

264 **Age structure**

265 There was a significant variation in the age structure of the population during the
266 study ($\chi^2=121.56$, $p<0.001$) (Fig 6). Teneral individuals, which may account as *very* young
267 ones, were found in higher proportions at the beginning and middle of September, late
268 November and from the start of February to the middle of March 2015. Young butterflies
269 scored the most captures until approximately the end of September, when the population
270 seemed to get increasingly old. There was a clear pattern of aging that peaked at the end of
271 October, what coincided with a depletion of the teneral individuals and the dominance of very
272 old individuals in the captures. The same pattern recurred, although lightly peaked, in
273 December 2014, after a mild renewal of the population and, again, past the start of April 2015,
274 when the population appeared to have suffered an intense aging process that culminated with
275 the absence of individuals in the beginning of May 2015.

276

277 **Wing size**

278 Male and female overall wing size had no significant difference between each other
279 (females, 42.78 ± 2.39 mm; males, 42.60 ± 2.28 mm; $t= 1.050$; $p=0.250$ - Table 1). The
280 butterflies' wing size showed variation between months. In females it ranged from 36.32 to
281 53.87 mm, and in males it ranged from 36.75 to 46.46 mm. Both females' and males' largest
282 absolute wing size was found in September 2014. There were significant general differences in
283 wing length throughout the year, both sexes showed their largest wing mean sizes in December.
284 The smaller sizes from September showed increment in size until December and, from there
285 on, a progressive decrease in size.

286

287 **Vegetation type preference**

288 Butterflies significantly differ regarding the preference for the four types of
289 vegetation ($\chi^2=819.38$, $p<0.0001$). Forty seven percent of butterfly captures were performed in
290 meadows, 44% in shrublands, 7% swamplands, and 1% in forest edges. No significant
291 differences regarding male and females preferences for any vegetation type were observed ($\chi^2=$
292 0.910, $p= 0.823$).

293

294 **Residence time**

295 Residence time varied from 1 to 23 days, with a significant difference found
296 between the mean residence time of sexes (male median=2.3 days; female median=1.7 days;
297 $U= 100645.00$, $p= 0.0012$).

298

299 **Vagility**

300 Most butterflies were recaptured in a different sector from previous encounters,
301 scoring from 49.2 m up to 1,510 m; five of the recaptures were done in the same sector of
302 previous encounters, scoring 0 m of displacement. The vagility was not statistically different
303 between sexes ($t =-1.0031$, $p=0.317$). Males and females averaged very similar traveled
304 distances (males = 388.05 ± 277.53 m; females = 336.46 ± 256.6 m). The maximum male
305 vagility recorded was of 1,510 m and the maximum for a female was 1,177 m. The daily
306 vagility of males varied from 52.6 to 495 m and from 49 to 407 m for females.

307

308 **Resource phenology, natural history, and behavior**

309 The distribution of flowers along sampling transects was not homogenous
310 ($\chi^2=819.381$, $p<0.0001$). Near 47% of flowers were found in meadows, 44% in shrubland, 7%
311 in swamp areas and 2% near forest edges. The most abundant nectar resource used by *E.*
312 *corethrus* was *Senecio riograndensis* Matzenbacher and *Senecio cisplatinus* Cabr. (Asteraceae)
313 flowers, which were available from October to December, followed by *Verbena rigida* Spreng.
314 (Verbenaceae), and *Chromolaena squarrosa* Hook. & Arn. available year round. *Euryades*

315 *corethrus* adults were eventually sighted feeding on *Baccharis articulata* (Lam.) (Asteracee),
316 *Austroeupatorium inulaefolium* Kunth (Asteraceae), *Lantana camara* L. (Verbenaceae),
317 *Richardia grandiflora* (Cham. & Schltdl.) Steud. (Rubiaceae) and *Criscia stricta* (Spreng.)
318 (Asteraceae). The presence of flowers along the study area was strongly correlated with
319 butterfly records ($r_{\text{Spearman}}=0.581$, $p=0.003$).

320 Field surveys showed that only one host-plant was present at the study site: *A.*
321 *sessilifolia*. Fully grown and bigger leafed *A. sessilifolia* plants were only available from late
322 spring to early autumn, being restricted to the open-field and shrubland areas; during winter
323 most of *A. sessilifolia* losses its apical bud and leaves, remaining only low-quality tissues
324 (stalks, stems and damaged leaves with chlorosis). *Aristolochia sessilifolia* had clustered
325 distribution along sampling transect ($\chi^2=45.401$; $p<0.001$), and the presence of this host-plant
326 along the study site was correlated with records of both sexes ($r_{\text{Pearson}} = 0.536$, $p=0.032$). When
327 investigated separately, the sexes showed another difference regarding foraging behavior, with
328 only females presenting significant correlation with host-plants distribution ($r_{\text{Pearson}} = 0.530$,
329 $p=0.035$).

330 Flight activity started only after the dew deposited on vegetation dried out. In the
331 early hours of activity, both males and females were sighted searching for nectar on flowers.
332 Latter, adults were sighted during dispersal, in a flight moderately slow and less erratic than the
333 one of other swallowtail butterflies found in the same area; if disturbed *E. corethrus* adults may
334 engage in a very fast, erratic and, sometimes, very high flight. Males were frequently sighted
335 during straight flights, probably in search of females.

336 Very few male-female encounters were observed, and not a single one resulted in
337 mating. When an encounter occurred the individuals engaged in high speed descending
338 spiraling flights, which lasted few seconds, and ended when the male broke off and flew way.
339 During male-male encounters, individuals embraced in a close spiral ascendant flight,
340 reminding a war of attrition. This behavior lasted some seconds, being terminated when one
341 male broke off and flew away. The fugitive male was always chased for a few meters by the

342 other male; the last male returned to his dispersal flight in no time after the pursuit. Females
343 generally flew randomly and at lower speed and closer to the ground when compared to males,
344 searching for suitable host-plants to lay their eggs. The eggs were laid singly on the abaxial
345 face of undamaged *A. sessilifolia* leaves. Females avoided to lay eggs on plants with other
346 oviposition, but in big leafed host-plants , up to five eggs can be found on the same plant. No
347 pupation event was observed, but two events of newly fresh adult emergences from clumps of
348 grass suggested that pupation occurred far from host-plant, using the clumps as shelters. Eggs
349 and larvae of *E. corethrus* were observed in the host-plants from early spring to early autumn.

350 No courtship was observed. Most of captured females (92.64%) had a *sphragis*
351 attached to her terminalia. The only females that had a free terminalia were the teneral ones,
352 which suggests that mating may occur very early in female adult life. Several mating pairs were
353 found already in copulation (N=14). Some of the females in copulation were in a teneral state,
354 also suggesting that no courtship had occurred. If not disturbed during the copulation, the pair
355 remains motionless on the vegetation; if disturbed the pair either broke apart from each other,
356 or flew away, with the female caring the male attached to her genitalia. The male secretes a
357 large mating plug (*sphragis*) which later hardens around the female terminalia. We speculate
358 that females may mate only once, and that the *sphragis* visually deters other males from
359 attempting to mate with a mated female.

360

361 **Discussion**

362 **Population dynamics**

363 The number of butterflies captured for both sexes were higher in the beginning of
364 September (austral spring) to the beginning of October. This is a period in which diapause
365 termination of many dormant swallowtail butterflies is expected to occur (Tyler et al. 1994),
366 which could explain the outburst of butterflies after a short gap when no butterfly was found.

367 Male abundance for late October and late December 2014 estimated the day
368 population numbers to be around 50 and 65 individuals, respectively, but estimates had very

369 large errors. The estimated abundances for the following months were very similar to the
370 butterfly records, showing very low error bars. Females, on the other hand, did not show
371 estimates, when those could be calculated, with that amount of error past the first overflow
372 period of September.

373 Apart the somewhat gross estimation of high abundance, there is an apparent
374 overall reduction in captures and, assumed, in the population abundance, during the October –
375 November period. The tendency is clearer for females, but is present in males nonetheless. We
376 think that could be explained by the progressive aging of individuals and subsequent slow
377 recruiting of larvae, given that a small but steady increase in young adults abundance is
378 perceived shortly thereafter. Compared to previous studies, we found difference to the months
379 of encounter reported by Link et al. (1977) for *E. corethrus*, especially in the month of May,
380 when we found no individuals.

381

382 **Wing size**

383 Caporale (2016) indicates that the mean time of *E. corethrus* development from egg
384 to imago is of about 30 days. Although no wing size variation through treatments was found in
385 the former study, the differences we have found *in situ* may be of difficult replication in
386 laboratory conditions. In our study there was a clear pattern of increasing in mean wing length
387 from September to December 2014 and thereafter a progressive shortening in wing length
388 means until June 2015 (Table 1). Wing length, a linear measure representation of wing size,
389 positively correlates with body size in butterflies (Miller 1977), which could be directly
390 interpreted as if the individuals captured in December had bigger bodies. That may be due the
391 increased quality of food those individuals have taken during spring, when they were in larval
392 stage.

393

394 **Sex ratio**

395 Tyler et al. (1994) indicates that all swallowtail populations tend to show a 1M:1F
396 sex proportion in the wild, while Brown Jr et al. (1995) says the common expected sex ratio for
397 Papilionidae in the field is of 2M:1F. Although the differences found in our study sample had
398 no significance between the months, the results stand between the two aforementioned,
399 showing a sex ratio of 1.6M:1F. A male biased sex ratio may be explained by a myriad of
400 reasons, such as a genetic sex ratio expected to be male biased, differences in the recruitment
401 due to differential larvae or pupae mortality or differences in behavior between sexes that may
402 influence individual's detectability and catchability. Distinct sampling procedures used to
403 assess the spruce budworm sex ratio showed that the estimation may vary widely in response to
404 behavioral, life-history linked, sexual differences (Rhainds and Heard 2015).

405 In general, swallowtails flight performance is strong and rapid (Tyler et al. 1994),
406 what hinders the capture by the entomological net. Another bias could be due to behavioral
407 differences between males and females. We have observed different patterns of flying between
408 sexes, with females flying lower than males and more constantly amongst shrubs; differences
409 in the sexual distribution of captures seemed to link females to oviposition sites, in a way
410 similarly discussed by Pennekamp et al. (2013). Those are not unexpected findings: a mark-
411 release study of *Erebia epipsodea* with similar data suggested that a 1:1 sex ratio could be
412 assumed and that variations from that could be accepted as result from behavioral variation as
413 well (Brussard and Ehrlich 1970).

414

415 **Age structure**

416 The sample of captured individuals showed an oscillating age structure. A
417 composition of, mainly, teneral to experienced individuals gave place to a progressively elderly
418 deal of butterflies, and that appeared to happen at least three times, culminating in an acute
419 aging in late May. Thenceforth, we had no captures. September, late October, November 2014
420 and late February 2015 were periods in which there were present very young butterflies (teneral
421 individuals), which may also indicate a large immature population.

422

423 **Residence time and vagility**

424 We obtained a low residence time average for both sexes, having a high number of
425 captures. If we compare the maximum residence time of *E. corethrus* with other Neotropical
426 Troidini, it resembles the residence times of *Parides anchises* (30 days) (Freitas and Ramos
427 2001), *Parides ascanius* (28 days) (Henkenhoff et al. 2013), and *Battus polystictus* (20 days)
428 (Scalco et al. 2015). Other Troidini show a higher residence time, such as *Battus polydamas*
429 (48 days), *Parides proneus* (48 days), *Parides bunicus* (46 days), and *Parides agavus* (56
430 days) (Brown Jr. et al. 1995). The low values can be due to the previous discussed high vagility
431 or due to low longevity of individuals.

432

433 **Physical traits are linked to conservation**

434 Environmental features such as the abiotic cues of temperature and photoperiod, as
435 well as factors like competition, food quality and resource availability are known to affect
436 butterflies body size (Mega 2014). Of those, the resources are rather critical in determining
437 adult morphology and life history traits linked to fitness (Boggs and Freeman 2005). Quality
438 and density of host-plant food for the larvae were said to be the best predictors of site quality
439 (Pennekamp et al. 2013). Larvae that fed on spring may have had access to better food sources,
440 mostly because there is a peak in the amount of rainfall, what could induce an nutritional
441 improvement in plants in general (Tourinho and Freitas 2002). Since plant sprouting in spring
442 is very sensitive to photoperiod (total day length) and since most dormant swallowtail pupae
443 will not respond to greater temperature and moisture only, it is likely that increasing
444 photoperiod is a first cue to prepare to break diapause when it starts raining.

445 A bigger body can influence on the area an individual can cover, or its dispersal
446 distance. An organism's body size is connected to its energetic necessities, which
447 characteristics are both entwined to the amount of quality territory such organisms require
448 (Baguette & Stevens 2013). Tyler et al. (1994) stresses the perceived flight strength of

449 swallowtails that permits they cover a large foraging area and rapidly change places when
450 resources are scarce.

451 The movement that swallowtail individuals perform is usually big, seeming to
452 cover areas two to five kilometers afar from the site of first encounter (Brown Jr et al. 1995),
453 probably covering up to 10km a day (Tyler et al. 1994). Even though our estimates of distances
454 traveled did not show such superb digits, we think they are an underestimation of the species
455 flight potential due to the low recapture rate we had and due to intrinsic limitations of the
456 experiment design.

457 Although the study site seems to be fairly large, it may be of the most fragility with
458 respect to its connectivity to other suitable areas. Native grasslands with such a vegetal
459 formation are increasingly less common in the vicinity of the study area. Even though personal
460 observations from other sites point that grass covered areas that suffer periodic management,
461 namely lawn mowing by machine, still present the host-plant resources, we cannot assure such
462 plant populations are enough to maintain a viable population. A feasible conservation plan
463 involves gathering the knowledge relative to the species of interest. The minimum area
464 requirement (MAR) of a species is the quantity of functional habitat that can maintain a viable
465 population. Landscape connectivity and MAR are the two essential, species-specific parameters
466 for the design of conservation networks aiming at preserving biodiversity (Vos et al. 2001).

467 Previous studies in the *Campos* show that the variation in grassland physiognomy
468 and composition appears to be determined by fire regimens and grazing (Pillar and Quadros,
469 1997), but Swengel (1996) showed that specialist butterflies had a strong and significant
470 decline in abundance after fire in *Campos*-like grasslands of the central North America, and
471 that this effect persisted for three to five or more years after the disturbance.

472 The use of grazing as a mean of conservation should not be reckless, either.
473 Grassland management already showed its potential to harm butterflies populations when not
474 done properly. Such is the case of the Pieridae *Colias mymidone* local extinction on a White
475 Carpathians, Czech Republic reserve. Excessive machine mowing as a mean of grazing

476 emulation on the grasslands formations led to a decline of resources heterogeneity in the region
477 and to the subsequent species disappearance (Konvicka 2008). Also, plowing techniques must
478 be used with caution, given the capability to destroy *Aristolochia spp.* underground rhizome.

479 With respect to butterflies, there is evidence that overgrazing may cause serious
480 harm to the population abundance as well, and that general impact may also strongly depend on
481 the time in which it is applied. Grazing during the hibernating period of *Melitaea cinxia*
482 (Nymphalidae) had a profound impact on the population abundance (Noordwijk 2012). Grazing
483 can lead to incidental omnivory and trampling of individuals that have limited or no dispersal
484 abilities, such as slow moving larvae and immobile pupae.

485 There are two major agricultural approaches to production in an ecological-wise
486 way. Benayas and Bullock (2012) present them as being the Land Sharing and the Land
487 Separation regimens. The first aims to make production more connected to wildlife and could
488 be summarized as a transformation of a conventional, monoculture paradigm into an
489 agroforestral-like, diversification of crops, while the latter, Land Separation, involves the
490 restoration or creation of refuges amidst agricultural landscapes – what could have a positive
491 impact on connectivity.

492 A conservatism reasonable aim would be to promote the inevitable economic use of
493 the grasslands of southern South America to the rearing of cattle in an extensive way, without
494 pasture sowing and, if possible, with rotating, season-wise use of the pasture. Furthermore,
495 even in an optimistic scenario of enhanced connectivity due to increase in suitable small areas,
496 a measure aiming the implementation of a greater extent area is urgent, the creation of a
497 Conservation Unit being one of the main directions given in the Red List of Threatened Species
498 of Rio Grande do Sul State, so to protect *E. corethrus*.

499

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634 **Table 1** Wing size (mm) for females and males of *Euryades corethrus* from July 2014 to June
 635 2015 at UFRGS's Agronomical Experimental Station, Eldorado do Sul, RS, Brazil. Monthly
 636 means marked with the same letter did not differ statistically from each other (ANOVA
 637 followed by the Tukey's post-hoc test).

638

Year	Month	Wing size (mean \pm standard error)	
		Females (n)	Males (n)
2014	September	41.80 \pm 0.27 (83) ^a	41.53 \pm 0.16 (141) ^a
	October	42.29 \pm 0.23 (53) ^a	41.77 \pm 0.19 (94) ^a
	November	43.49 \pm 0.34 (31) ^{ab}	42.67 \pm 0.29 (69) ^{ab}
	December	44.36 \pm 0.29 (70) ^b	44.16 \pm 0.19 (115) ^c
2015	January	43.09 \pm 0.29 (41) ^{ab}	43.46 \pm 0.3 (53) ^{bc}
	February	42.52 \pm 0.38 (40) ^a	42.84 \pm 0.28 (62) ^{bc}
	March	42.32 \pm 0.34 (47) ^a	42.52 \pm 0.24 (75) ^{ab}
	April	42.14 \pm 0.67 (12) ^a	41.68 \pm 0.47 (20) ^a

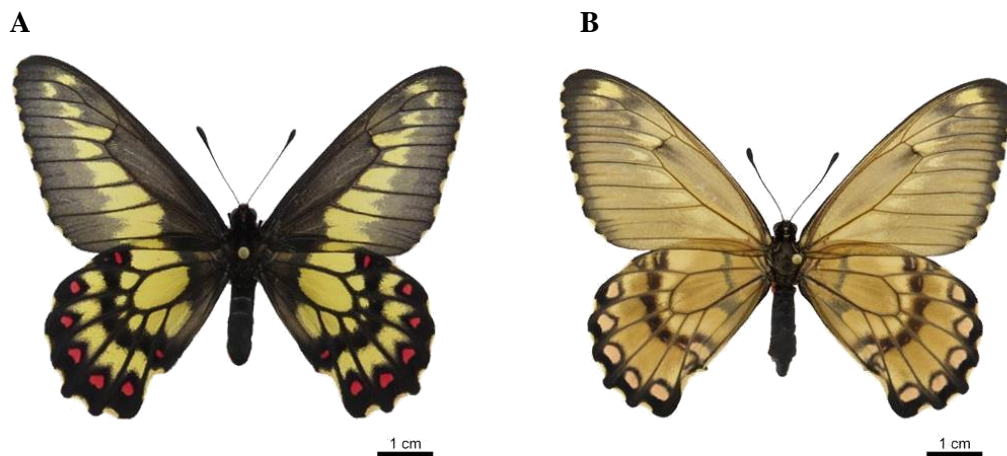
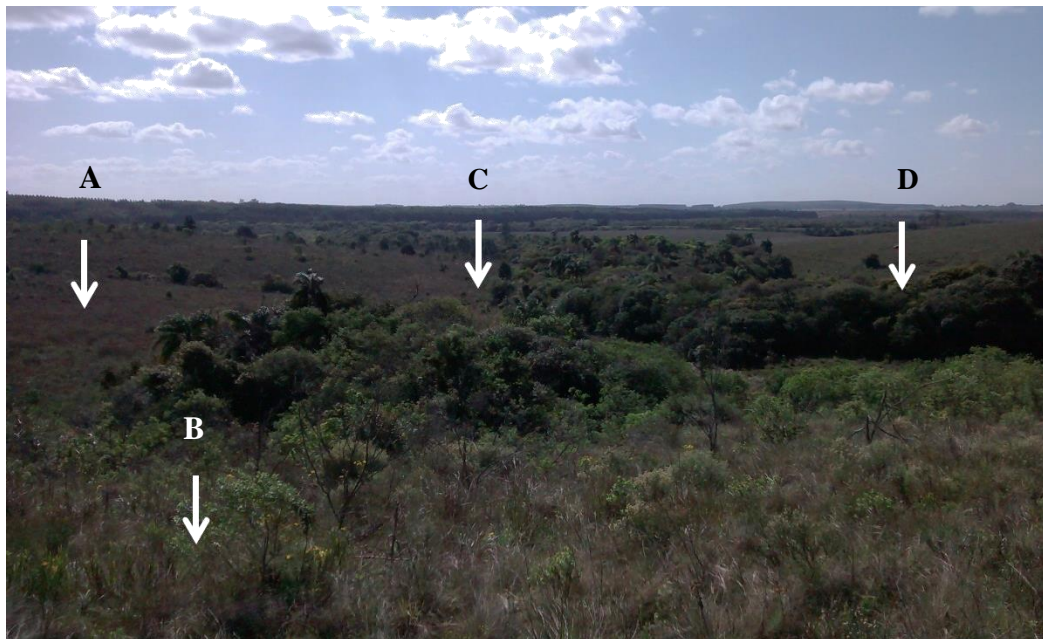
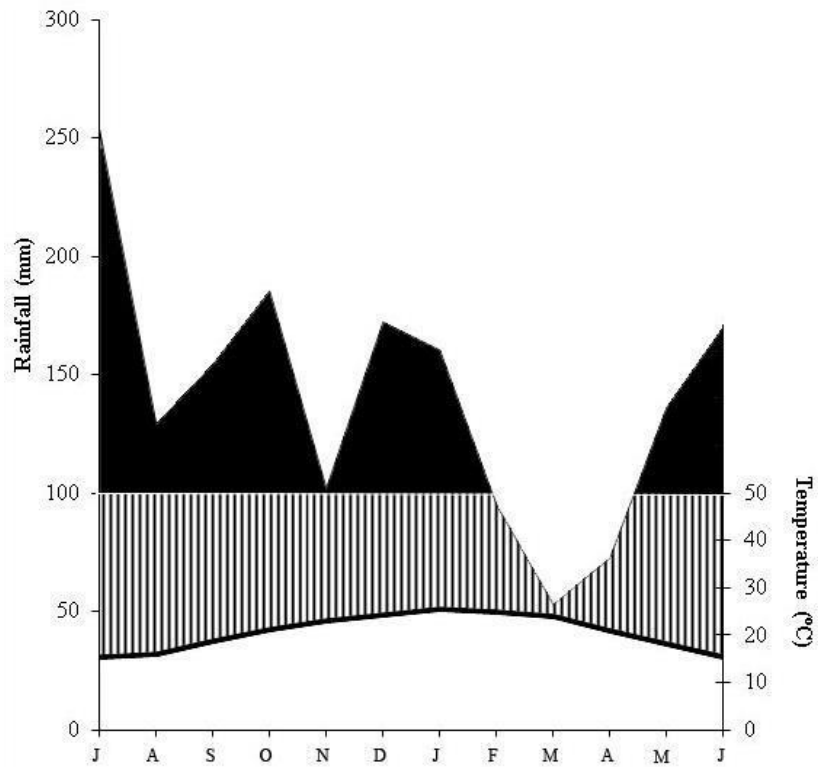


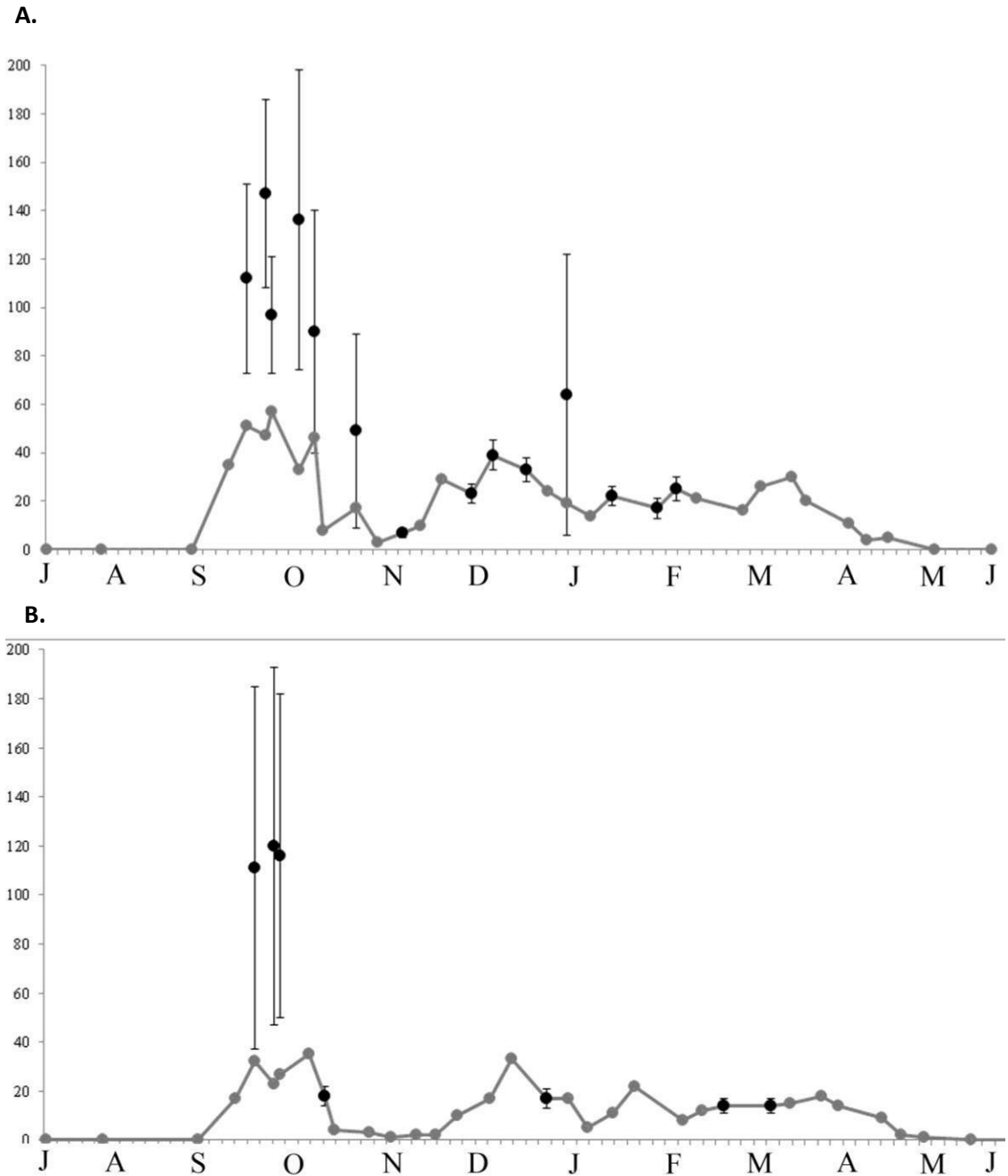
Fig 1 *Euryades corethrus* specimens. A, male; B, female.



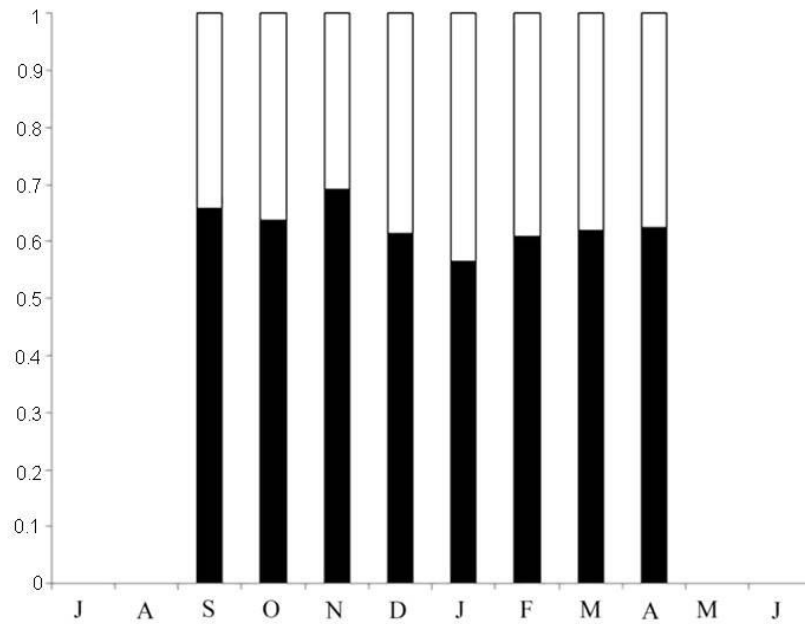
639 **Fig 2** Formations present at UFRGS's EAS Eldorado do Sul, RS, Brazil. The arrows indicate
640 the occurrence of different formations in the landscape of the study site: A, grasslands; B,
641 shrublands; C, swamps; D, forest edges.
642



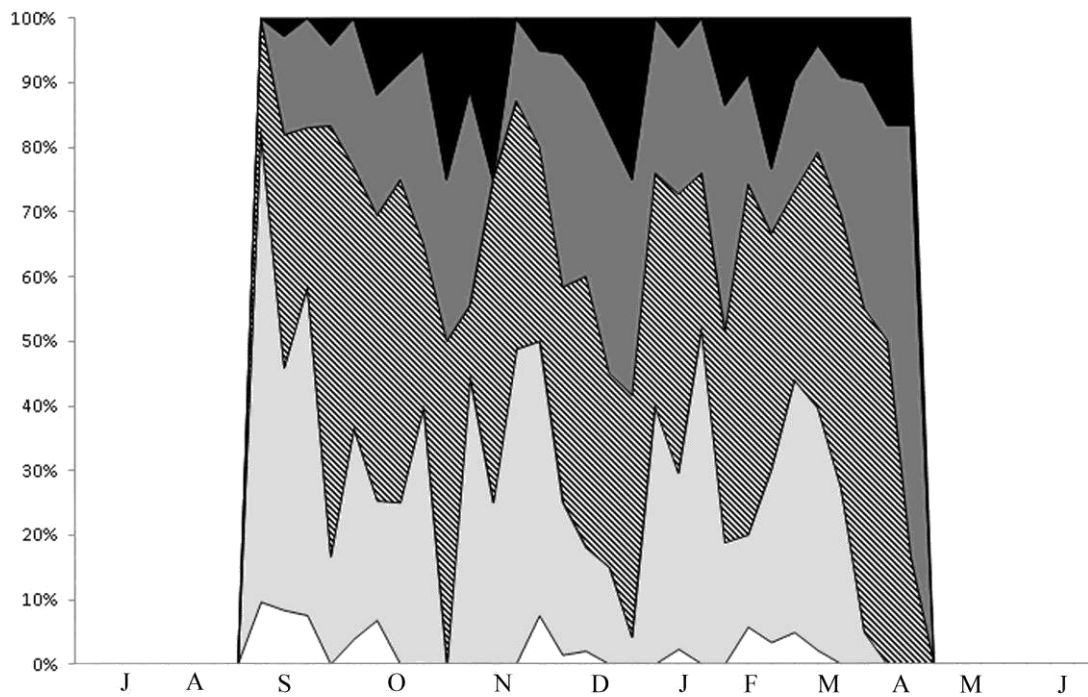
643 **Fig 3** Climatic diagram from July 2014 to June 2015 at Porto Alegre, RS, Brazil (according to
 644 Walter 1985). Black, superhumid periods; hatched, humid periods. Polygonal line, temperature



645 **Fig 4** Number of males (A) and females (B) of *Euryades corethrus* from July 2014 to
 646 June 2015. Grey circles indicate number of individuals per day; black circles and
 647 vertical lines are the estimated number and standard error based on the Jolly-Seber
 648 method.



649 **Fig 5** Sex ratio of *Euryades corethrus* from July 2014 to June 2015. Black bars
 650 represent the percent of males in each month's capture (means of capture on a daily
 651 basis). Blank areas indicate field days with no capture.



652 **Fig 6** Age structure of *Euryades corethrus* population from July 2014 to June 2015
 653 at . Colors and age categories as follows: White, teneral; bright grey, young;
 654 diagonal hatch, intermediate; dark grey, old; black, very old. The blank areas before
 655 September 2014 and after April 2015 indicate field days with no capture

CAPÍTULO 3

Considerações finais

Alguns autores indicam que a conversão de formações naturais em campos de cultivo é inevitável. As tecnologias agrícolas cada vez mais facilitam a expansão e a manutenção de plantações onde antes o cultivo era dificultoso, e as demandas industriais e sociais pedem produtos: papel, combustível, ração e, mais por bandeira do que por necessidade, comida. Também entram na conta outros artigos, como o gado de corte que, transformado em *commodity* e requisitado em quantidades condizentes com as que o termo dá a entender, acaba sendo criado em escala imensa.

No sul do Mundo essa realidade não é diferente: o avanço da soja, do eucalipto, e do *Pinus* são patentes, e o impacto é ainda maior quando se leva em conta que uma das formações naturais mais diversas e importantes dessa região não é devidamente protegida. Os Campos, talvez diferente do que o senso comum sugira, apresentam alta diversidade de plantas e animais, além de prestar serviços ecológicos difusos e essenciais; mas acabam sendo esquecidos na conservação no Brasil. Há grande esforço de proteção voltado para formações florestais, mas os campos não parecem ter o mesmo carisma e acabam não recebendo a mesma atenção da sociedade civil e da máquina política.

Euryades corethrus é uma borboleta de distribuição meridional na América do Sul, endêmica do sul do Brasil e que oviposita em plantas do gênero *Aristolochia*, das quais se alimentam as larvas. Justamente por se encontrar no meio dessa disputa de terra, e por não ter nenhuma prioridade em recebê-la, é considerada, no Livro Vermelho do Estado do Rio Grande do Sul, Vulnerável: as causas da sua classificação como tal são a destruição e a falta de conectividade de hábitat e, apesar de ser uma espécie de voo eficiente e longo, isso de nada ajuda na sua proteção se não houver oferta de área e pontes que as liguem.

Apesar da considerável abundância local e sazonal de *E. corethrus*, sua profunda dependência das plantas hospedeiras se mostra como um fator de fragilidade, e impactos aparentemente pequenos, quando mal colocados, podem levar a grandes desdobramentos negativos.

Mesmo medidas menos impactantes que visem o compartilhamento da terra devem tomar em consideração as dinâmicas populacionais da espécie. Se promovida na época da diapausa da espécie, a pecuária extensiva pode levar ao consumo acidental de pupas. Isso pode causar impactos muito grandes nas populações de adultos e, aliado ao consumo excessivo das gramíneas e ao pisoteio, a extinção local não parece impossível. Ainda, é temerosa, por imaginável, a destruição causada pelo uso de maquinário que destrua não só as folhas de *Aristolochia*, mas também propágulos e pedaços de plantas em situação de resistência.

Uma vez que a recomendação da FZB em relação às direções que devem ser tomadas no que tange a conservação de *E. corethrus* envolvem a busca por populações remanescentes, a conservação direta de seu habitat, o estudo de sua biologia básica e ecologia, e a criação de unidades de conservação que lhe incluam, este trabalho buscou preencher algumas dessas lacunas no conhecimento da espécie.

Para tanto estudamos durante um ano, de Julho de 2014 a Junho de 2015, uma população de *E. corethrus* presente em área remanescente de campo nativo da Estação Experimental Agronômica da UFRGS, localizada no município de Eldorado do Sul, Rio Grande do Sul.

Investigamos aspectos de sua biologia básica e ecologia, como características de alimentação de adultos e larvas, oviposição, voo, seleção sexual e tamanho de asa. Além disso, usamos técnicas de marcação e recaptura para estimar abundância esperada de machos e fêmeas, razão sexual da população, vagilidade, residência, estrutura etária e distribuição na paisagem baseado na presença de plantas hospedeiras e fontes de néctar.

Os animais preferiram, no geral, áreas de campo a vassourais e mato. Também houve significativa diferença entre os sexos na captura em relação a áreas com presença ou não de *Aristolochia sessilifolia*, hospedeira presente na área de estudo: fêmeas foram mais encontradas próximas às áreas com maior densidade da planta, o que só faz eco à já discutida conexão que essa espécie tem com os Campos Sulinos.

Os resultados apresentados aqui reforçam que a conservação de *E. corethrus* deve passar, obrigatoriamente, pela conservação de áreas de campo que aumentem sua área disponível e sua conectividade com outras áreas distantes. Isso não pode ser feito sem investimento em (1) aumento de áreas de conservação de campo, inclusive com presença de pastoreio (leve), mas tomando cuidado para não dizimar a população em diapausa com onivoria acidental e pisoteio e (2) medidas mais profundas, que criem unidade(s) de conservação dedicada(s) às formações de campo, que preserve(m) sua grande diversidade de Flora e Fauna associada, e seus serviços ecológicos e imateriais prestados.

Anexo 1



Fig 1. Paisagem encontrada na área de estudo



Fig 2. Recursos alimentares de adultos



Fig 3. Ramo de *Aristolochia sessilifolia*



Fig 4. Manipulação de indivíduos em campo



Fig 5. A, detalhe da marcação de indivíduos; B, casal em cópula



Fig. 6 Medição de comprimento de asa com paquímetro digital

Anexo 2 – Diretrizes para autores

Authors guidelines for Journal of Insect Conservation



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Use the equation editor or MathType for equations.

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[LaTeX macro package \(zip, 182 kB\)](#)

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Footnotes to the text are numbered consecutively; those to tables should be indicated by superscript lower-case letters (or asterisks for significance values and other statistical data). Footnotes to the title or the authors of the article are not given reference symbols.

Always use footnotes instead of endnotes.

Acknowledgments

Acknowledgments of people, grants, funds, etc. should be placed in a separate section on the title page. The names of funding organizations should be written in full.

Important note:

All authors are requested to use the continuous line numbering function for their manuscripts.

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Please always use internationally accepted signs and symbols for units (SI units).

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Nomenclature: Insofar as possible, authors should use systematic names similar to those used by Chemical Abstract Service or IUPAC.

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Citation

Cite references in the text by name and year in parentheses. Some examples:

Negotiation research spans many disciplines (Thompson 1990).

This result was later contradicted by Becker and Seligman (1996).

This effect has been widely studied (Abbott 1991; Barakat et al. 1995a, b; Kelso and Smith 1998; Medvec et al. 1999, 2000).

Reference list

The list of references should only include works that are cited in the text and that have been published or accepted for publication. Personal communications and unpublished works should only be mentioned in the text. Do not use footnotes or endnotes as a substitute for a reference list.

Reference list entries should be alphabetized by the last names of the first author of each work. Order multi-author publications of the same first author alphabetically with respect to second, third, etc. author. Publications of exactly the same author(s) must be ordered chronologically.

Journal article

Gamelin FX, Baquet G, Berthoin S, Thevenet D, Nourry C, Nottin S, Bosquet L (2009) Effect of high intensity intermittent training on heart rate variability in prepubescent children. *Eur J Appl Physiol* 105:731-738. doi: 10.1007/s00421-008-0955-8

Ideally, the names of all authors should be provided, but the usage of “et al” in long author lists will also be accepted:

Smith J, Jones M Jr, Houghton L et al (1999) Future of health insurance. *N Engl J Med* 341:325–329

Article by DOI

Slifka MK, Whitton JL (2000) Clinical implications of dysregulated cytokine production. *J Mol Med*. doi:10.1007/s001090000086

Book

South J, Blass B (2001) *The future of modern genomics*. Blackwell, London

Book chapter

Brown B, Aaron M (2001) The politics of nature. In: Smith J (ed) *The rise of modern genomics*, 3rd edn. Wiley, New York, pp 230-257

Online document

Cartwright J (2007) Big stars have weather too. IOP Publishing PhysicsWeb. <http://physicsweb.org/articles/news/11/6/16/1>. Accessed 26 June 2007

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If you are unsure, please use the full journal title.

For authors using EndNote, Springer provides an output style that supports the formatting of in-text citations and reference list.

[EndNote style \(zip, 2](#)

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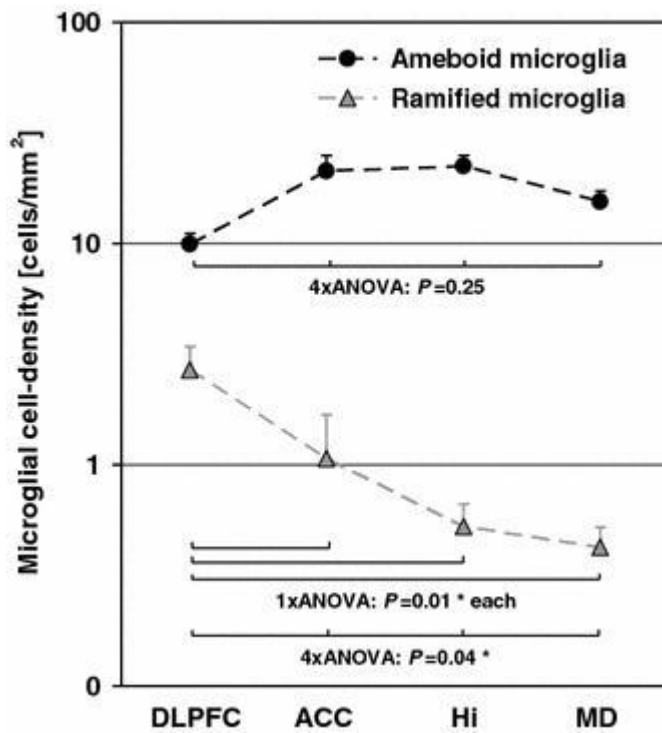
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For vector graphics, the preferred format is EPS; for halftones, please use TIFF format. MSOffice files are also acceptable.

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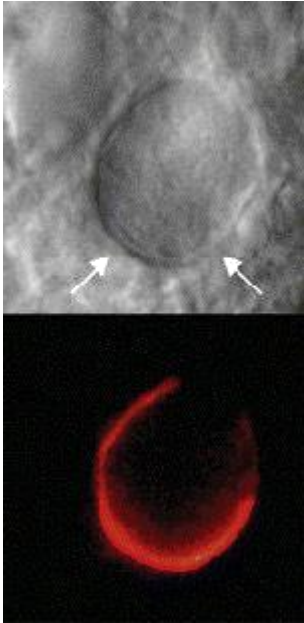
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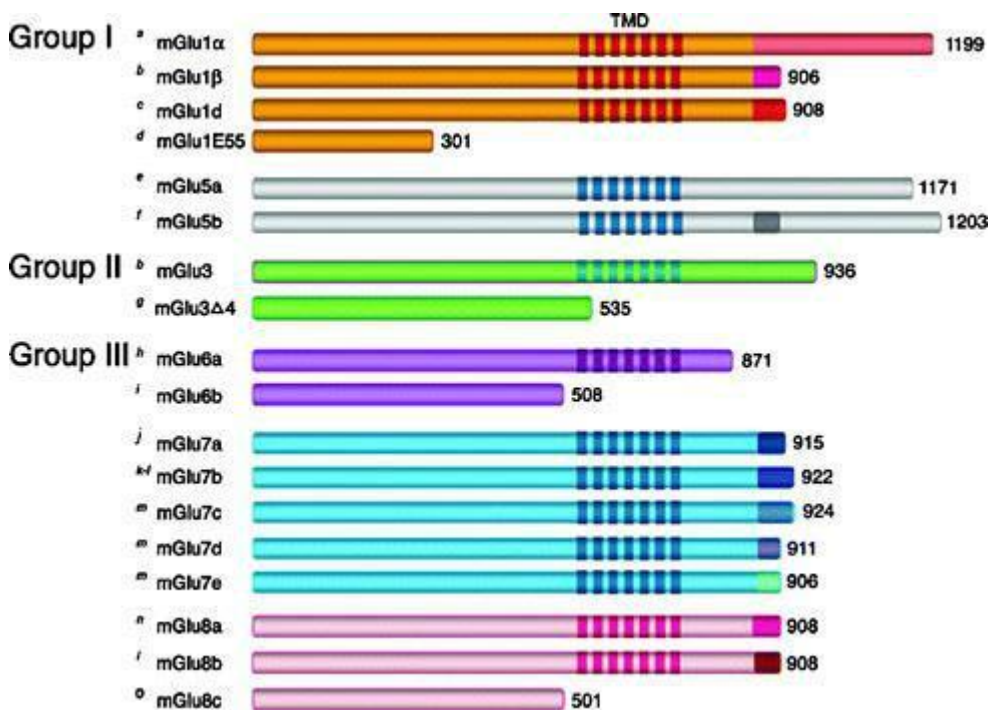


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