Colonizations cause host shifts, diversification of preferences and expansion of

butterfly diet breadth

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ABSTRACT.

Dynamics of herbivorous insect diet breadth are important in generation of novel pests,

biological control of weeds and responses of wild species to global change. To help elucidate

these dynamics, we propose that colonizations cause host shifts and that host shifts cause

evolutionary expansions of diet breadth by two mechanisms (1) adaptive response to natural

selection favouring the shift (2) non-adaptive side-effects, bringing additional hosts into the diet

during adaptation to the novel host. Here we reaffirm the adaptive mechanism and, for the first

time, document the non-adaptive mechanism operating in-tandem. We present evidence from a

four-decade study of Edith's checkerspot butterfly. First, we followed changes of diet breadth in

15 populations. At the most recent census eight populations used fewer host genera than in the

1980's and none used more, indicating increasing specialization in persistent populations.

Second, observed natural colonizations at two sites were followed by within-population

diversification of preference rank and increase of diet breadth, with subsequent homogenization

of preference and contraction of diet breadth. These observations may explain a significant

negative association found in the 1980's between population-level diet breadth and mtDNA

diversity. Populations with fewer mtDNA haplotypes had broader diets, while those with higher

haplotype diversity were more specialized. This suggests that diet breadth had increased in

younger, recently-colonized populations. In a separate study by Lancaster, global meta-analysis

supports the hypothesis that recent poleward range shifts have caused expansions of butterfly

diet breadth, thereby explaining latitudinal patterns of specialization/generalization. This implies

a broader applicability of our results, while at the same time our study provides a mechanism

underlying the global trends.

Subject terms: specialization, generalization, extinction-colonization dynamics, climate change,

diet breadth, range expansion, diet evolution, insect diet, host shift, oviposition preference,

Euphydryas

Evolution along a specialist-generalist axis has both practical and conceptual

significance[1-3], and herbivorous insects have figured prominently in studies of diet breadth

evolution. Phylogenetic analyses have tested the plausible hypothesis that specialists are derived

from generalists more frequently than evolution in the opposite direction. The hypothesis was not

well supported[4,5]; evidently diet breadth evolves readily in either direction. The idea that this

bidirectional evolvability causes oscillations between specialization and generalization, and that

these oscillations have acted as important drivers of insect speciation and biodiversity first

emerged from analyses of the butterfly family Nymphalidae[5,6]. This idea has stimulated lively

and apparently unresolved debate[7-11].

Hardy[9] asks "does experimental adaptation of a plant-eating insect population to a novel

host result in host-use generalism, and improve the odds of evolving additional new host

associations?" Braga et al.[12] use an experiment "in silico" to answer this question in the

affirmative. Here we answer it "in vivo," applying a combination of observation and experiment

to a single butterfly species, Edith's checkerspot *(Euphydryas editha)*, and illustrating

relationships between habitat colonizations, host shifts, individual host preferences and diet

breadth. We know from prior work that host preferences diversify and diet breadths expand

during host shifts by this insect. We here document that similar preference diversification occurs

in young populations in recently-colonized habitats. Later, as the populations age, preferences

become more homogeneous and diet breadth contracts.

Meta-analysis of insect diet breadth produces the generalization that mean diet breadth

increases with latitude[13,14]. As in other taxa[14], temperate zone insects tend to have broader diets

than those from equatorial climes. A possible reason is that generalists have been better

colonists, quicker to extend their ranges polewards as glaciations receded. Using a global

analysis of butterfly diets, distributions, and range dynamics, Lancaster[14] suggests the opposite

cause and effect: that the process of range expansion itself has generated the broader diets

observed at higher latitudes. Here, we show that, in our study insects, the fine-scale mechanics

of diet-breadth dynamics generate an expectation of the global patterns that Lancaster

documents. In general, range shifts caused both by human manipulation of wild species' habitats

and by regional climate warming[15] are increasing in pace and prevalence, so we have increasing

need to understand events that occur within these shifting ranges.

Results

Study system

Edith's checkerspot butterfly (*Euphydryas editha; Nymphalidae, Melitaeinae*), uses different host genera in a geographic mosaic across its range[16-18]. Adults lay eggs in clutches on hosts in the Orobanchaceae (*Pedicularis*, *Castilleja*) and Plantaginaceae (*Collinsia, Plantago, Penstemon, Veronica, Mimulus, Antirrhinum*). When the proportion of *E. editha* eggs laid on each host was ascertained by census at each of 57 sites, 43 populations were recorded as monophagous, with the remainder using two to four host genera[17]. These populations showed strong isolation by distance but no isolation by host, so they did not comprise a set of host-associated cryptic species[19].

Relationship between population-level diets and host preferences of individual females

Female *E. editha* that are motivated to oviposit behave naturally in staged encounters with potential hosts, allowing an experimenter to assess oviposition preferences by arranging a sequence of such encounters[20-25]. Use of this behavioural assay has shown that, in populations of *E. editha* that used more than one host, this diversity of diet could be achieved either by weakness of oviposition preference (causing butterflies to accept hosts that they did not prefer), and/or by diversity of preference rank within the population[20-22]. Diversity of rank was an important source of diet variation within two populations where diet was rapidly-evolving, while weakness of preference was the principal mechanism in 6 populations that were not currently indulging in bouts of diet evolution[22].

Preference tests performed on *E. editha* and two closely-related Melitaeine species, *Melitaea cinxia* and *Euphydryas aurinia,* examined butterfly responses to variation among host individuals, populations and genera. From the perspectives of all three butterfly species, variation of acceptability among host individuals or conspecific populations can be equivalent in magnitude to variation among host genera[23-25] (See Glossary for definitions of "preference" and "acceptability" and supplemental Text 1 for experiments). Because variation among host populations is so important to Melitaeines, it may often be the case that a colonizing female is effectively undertaking a host shift even if the host she uses after migrating is the same species

on which she developed at her site of origin. Host shifts may be much more frequent from the

butterflies' perspective than they appear to a human observer who classifies hosts by species.

Genetic evidence: mtDNA and diet breadth

The original genetic study[26] included 24 (meta)populations of *E. editha* in California, of

which 14 had sample sizes of n=4 individuals or more and are included in the current analysis.

Figure 1 shows the geographic locations of the 14 sites and identifies the hosts that butterflies

used there in the 1980's. Dots without pie diagrams show populations of *E. editha* that were not

included in the current analyses of mtDNA and diet diversity.

113   Figure 1

Re-examination of the mtDNA dataset reveals a relationship on which the original study did not

comment: an inverse association between population-level diet breadth in the 1980s and mtDNA

diversity (Figure 2, Table 1); samples from populations using fewer host genera contained more

mtDNA haplotypes. The butterflies used in mtDNA analyses were gathered independently of the

censuses used to assess diet breadths.

Figure 2. Numbers of mtDNA haplotypes found in the 14 study populations of *E. editha* plotted

against the 1980's diet breadths shown in Figure 1 and Table 1.

Because sample sizes were diverse, the association shown in Figure 2 might have

stemmed from sampling more individuals from populations that happened to be monophagous

than from those with broader diets. However, the opposite was the case: a regression of mtDNA

sample sizes on diet breadth, using the data in Table 1, gives a slope of +3.6 (P = 0.06, two-

tailed). The direction of this trend, with higher mtDNA sample sizes from populations with

broader diets, is opposite to that expected to produce the relationship in Figure 2. To control for

sample size in testing significance of the genetic diversity/diet breadth relationship, we

calculated an estimate of mtDNA diversity as the number of haplotypes per individual sampled

(Table 1, right hand column). The association between this statistic and the diet breadths listed

in column 2 of the Table is significant with p = 0.024, by Spearman rank test (two-tailed).

135   Table 1
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population	Number of host genera in 1980 decade	Number of host genera at last check (decade)	Number of mtDNA haplotypes	Sample size for mt DNA study (individuals)	mtDNA haplotypes per individual sampled
Rabbit Meadow	4_{20}	2 (2010)	1	30	0.03
Sonora Junction	3_{22}	2 (2010)	2	4	0.50
Tamarack Ridge	3_{22}	1 (2010)	2	14	0.14
Schneider's Meadow	3_{33}	$2 (2010)_{33}$	2	7	0.29
Del Puerto Canyon	3_{22}	2 (1990)	2	14	0.14
Frenchman Lake	3_{22}	2 (2010)	1	13	0.08
Tuolumne Meadow	3_{22}	1 (2000)	Not measured	n/a	n/a
Piute Mountain	2_{22}	2 (2010)	3	10	0.33
Colony Meadow	2	2 (2010)	1	17	0.06
McGee Creek	2	1 (2000)	1	11	0.09
Big Meadow	2_{26}	2 (2010)	4	19	0.21
Yucca Point	1_{26}	1 (2010)	3	7	0.43
Walker Pass	1_{26}	1 (2010)	4	4	1.00
Indian Flat	$1_{22,26}$	1 (2010)	7	14	0.50
Pozo	$1_{22,26}$	1 (2000)	2	6	0.33

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Notes for Table 1: Reference 22 recorded only two hosts at Del Puerto, forgetting to include

Collinsia bartsiaefolia, which had been not used since 1983. Where no reference is given, as is

the case for most of the "last check" column, data are previously unpublished.

Long-term observations of persistent populations

Table 1 shows time-trends of diet breadth across decades in 15 populations where these trends

have been recorded. The three left-hand columns of the Table show population names, the

numbers of host genera on which *E. editha* eggs or larval webs were found during the 1980's and

the numbers of genera used in the most recent decade of observation, which, with four

exceptions, is the current decade. Seven of the 15 study populations had the same diet breadth in

the most recent census as in the 1980's, while eight had narrower diets. None had broader diets.

A two-tailed binomial test rejects the hypothesis that diet breadth was equally likely to have

expanded or contracted (p = 0.008). Within our set of study populations, there has been a general

trend for diet breadth to be reduced over time (for caveats see supplemental text 2). Together

with the mitochondrial data, this evidence suggests that dietary breadth increases after

colonization, then declines as a function of population age. These indirect sources of evidence

are supported by direct observations of the process, presented below.

Observational evidence: diet breadth and preference diversity following colonizations

Sonora: extinction/colonization, diversification of preference ranks and expansion of diet breadth

At Sonora (Fig 1) in the 1980's host preference ranks were almost invariant; we found a

single exception to the rule that butterflies either ranked *Castilleja>Collinsia>Penstemon* or they

showed no preference[22,23]. However the top-ranked host, *Castilleja*, was estimated as receiving

only 24% of the eggs laid, with *Collinsia* receiving 76%[21]. *Castilleja* was sufficiently rare that

many searching insects failed to find it before reaching the level of oviposition motivation at

which they would accept either *Castilleja* or *Collinsia*, whichever they encountered next. They

were then more likely to encounter the more abundant host, *Collinsia*. The population achieved

diet diversity principally by interaction between weakness of preference and rarity of the most-

preferred host[21].

The Sonora population underwent a natural extinction in the late 1990s, was absent for

about four years, and was naturally recolonized. In 2002 we again conducted oviposition

preference tests (Table 2, Figure 3). Preference ranks were now diverse. When we examined

variation among individual butterflies, controlling for variation within plant species by offering

all insects the same individual plants, we found all possible rank orders for the three hosts,

Penstemon, Collinsia and *Castilleja.* In 2002, post-recolonization**,** any one of these could be

ranked at either the top or the bottom of the preference hierarchy.

Figure 3. Proportions of butterflies preferring *Castilleja* or *Penstemon* at Sonora before and after

natural extinction and recolonization. (additional data in Table 2).

Table 2: Preference ranks at Sonora Junction before and after natural extinction and

180   recolonization.

		<<<<Prefer plant named at left	No preference	Prefer>>>> plant named at right	
1986-88	Castilleja	20	2	0	Penstemon
1986-88	Castilleja	13	9	0	Collinsia
1986-88	Collinsia	43	3	1	Penstemon
Extinction & Recolonization					
2002	Castilleja	7	2	6	Penstemon
2002	Castilleja	5	5	5	Collinsia
2002	Collinsia	12	2	10	Penstemon
2014	Castilleja	21	0	0	Penstemon
2014	Castilleja	21	0	0	Collinsia
2014	Collinsia	13	5	0	Penstemon
2018	Castilleja	28	1	0	Penstemon
2018	Castilleja	29	1	0	Collinsia
2018	Collinsia	18	5	2	Penstemon

Data from 1986-8 are from references 21 and 23; data from 2002, 2014 & 2018 are unpublished.

As expected from the preference tests, population-level diet breadth had increased: all
three hosts were substantially used in 2002. We found 20 egg clutches on *Castilleja* in a total
census of this rare plant; 9 on *Collinsia* in a census covering approximately 40% of
phenologically-suitable plants and 14 on *Penstemon* in a census covering about 20% of these
plants. We estimate that the most-used host was *Penstemon*, which had previously been the
least-preferred of the three hosts and not used at all in most years.
Preference tests were once again performed at Sonora in 2014 and 2018 (Table 2, Figure
3). With the exception of two butterflies that preferred *Collinsia* over *Penstemon*, preferences
had reverted to their original homogeneous ranking of *Castilleja>Collinsia>Penstemon*. We
found no females that preferred *Penstemon* over *Castilleja* and only one, out of 50 tested, that
failed to discriminate between these hosts, so it is not surprising that *Penstemon* had once again
disappeared from the diet. Despite intensive censuses, in neither 2014 nor 2018 did we find a
single oviposition on *Penstemon*. Both the diversification of preferences and the inclusion of
Penstemon into the diet as a major host had been ephemeral, appearing rapidly following the
recolonization event, then (almost) disappearing just as quickly.
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200   Site: Rabbit: two episodes of diversification of diet and preference: one adaptive, the other
201   nonadaptive.
202
Prior to human intervention, the *E. editha* metapopulation in the Rabbit metapopulation
(Fig. 1) used two perennial hosts and occupied >20 habitat patches distributed across 8 x 10
km[30]. The principal diet was *Pedicularis*, with minor use of the much rarer *Castilleja*[31]. A third
potential host, the annual *Collinsia*, was abundant but not used. Natural selection opposed using
Collinsia because its lifespan was so short at this site that larvae hatching from eggs laid on it
were almost certain to starve after host senescence[18].
Between 1967 and 1978, humans made 18 clearings in which all trees were removed,
fires were set and ground was bulldozed, locally extirpating the butterflies from the cleared
areas. Fertilization effect from the fires extended the size and lifespan of *Collinsia* to the point
where they could accommodate the life cycle of the butterflies. *Collinsia* in clearings suddenly
became a benign environment for the larvae, supporting higher fitness than the well-defended
Pedicularis, despite the butterflies being adapted to *Pedicularis* and demonstrably maladapted to

Collinsia in a suite of six host-adaptive traits[31].

By the mid-1980s all the larger clearings had been colonized by butterflies immigrating

from adjacent unlogged patches, where the insects had persisted on their original diet of

Pedicularis. In one such clearing a detailed census and map was made of the distribution and

host affiliations of *E. editha* oviposition[20]. Eggs had been laid on four hosts: two novel hosts,

Collinsia and *Mimulus*, plus the two traditional hosts, *Pedicularis* and *Castilleja*. *Pedicularis* is

a hemiparasite of gymnosperms, killed by logging, so it was restricted to the margins of the

clearing. *Collinsia* and *Mimulus* were used in the centre of the clearing but remained unused in

the adjacent unlogged patch, where both occurred and *Collinsia* was abundant. This pattern of

host use sets the context for the two cases of preference diversification that occurred in the

clearing and that are detailed below.

Case 1: adaptive diversification of preference as part of host shift from *Pedicularis* to *Collinsia*

Butterflies in Sequoia National Park (12 km from Rabbit) represent the putative pre-

logging state of the Rabbit population. We found no diversity of preference rank; most

butterflies from the Park showed varying strengths of preference for *Pedicularis* over *Collinsia*

and a few showed no preference, but none preferred *Collinsia* over *Pedicularis*[30].

In contrast, preference ranks for the same two hosts in the anthropogenically altered

Rabbit clearing were diverse and evolving through the 1980s. In the early 1980s most insects

emerging in the centre of the clearing preferred to oviposit on *Pedicularis*, despite having

developed on *Collinsia* from eggs naturally laid on it. The proportion of these butterflies that

preferred *Collinsia* increased significantly between 1984 and 1989[30].

This change, and the diversification of preference from the starting condition lacking

diversity of preference rank, are consistent with adaptive evolutionary response to measured

natural selection that favoured preference for *Collinsi,* but acted on an initially *Pedicularis*-

preferring population[31].

Case 2: non-adaptive preference diversification: incorporation of *Mimulus* into the diet as a side-

effect of host shift to *Collinsia*.

In the ancestral state *Mimulus* and *Collinsia* were present but neither was used for oviposition, though *Collinsia* was fed upon by wandering late-instar larvae. By the early 1980s both plants were hosts in the clearing[20] (Table 3A) and oviposition preferences for them were diverse (Table 3B). Field experiments[22] estimated that selection in the clearing favoured oviposition on *Collinsia* over that on *Mimulus*, so *Mimulus* had been included in the diet in the absence of natural selection favouring this addition (*Mimulus* is "host 4" in Fig 2 of reference 22). By the late 1980s preferences for *Collinsia* over *Mimulus* had become homogeneous and *Mimulus* was no longer used (Tables 3A, B).

Table 3A: Egg distributions on *Collinsia* and *Mimulus* in Rabbit clearing and adjacent unlogged patch. * indicates that no census was done

year	Habitat: clearing patch	Habitat: clearing patch	Habitat: unlogged patch	Habitat: unlogged patch
	Clutches on *Collinsia*/quadrats searched	Clutches on *Mimulus*/plants searched	Clutches on *Collinsia*/quadrats searched	Clutches on *Mimulus*/plants searched
1979	16/41	*	0/22	*
1981	5/33	6/25	0/50	0/32
1982	37/118	13/36	0/56	0/46
1986	*			
1988	*	0/47	*	*
1989	9/69	0/37	*	*
1991	19/54	0/18	*	*

Table 3B: Preferences for *Collinsia* vs *Mimulus* in Rabbit Meadow clearing after its colonization in the 1970's.

year	Butterflies preferring *Collinsia*	No preference	Butterflies preferring *Mimulus*
1981	1	8	4
1982	10	5	4
1988	14	2	0
1992	9	1	0

<u>Site: Schneider:</u>

The traditional diet of *E. editha* at Schneider (Carson City, Nevada, Fig 1) can be

deduced from that of the closest known population of the same ecotype, at Simee Dimeh

Summit. After fire had caused a brief population explosion of *E. editha* at Simee Dimeh in 2013,

we recorded >100 egg clusters on *Collinsia* and none on the only other potential host present,

Penstemon, despite intensive search. Therefore, our estimate of the starting condition at

Schneider is monophagy on *Collinsia.* The same conclusion was drawn by Thomas et al[32] from

the diet of the closest population to Schneider that was then known, at Curtz Lake.

By 1969 the European exotic *Plantago lanceolata* had already been incorporated into the

diet alongside *Collinsia*[33]. We began detailed censuses in the early 1980's, when three hosts were

used: *Collinsia, Plantago* and *Penstemon*. Oviposition preferences were diverse, heritable, and

expressed in nature: butterflies captured in the act of oviposition strongly tended to prefer, in

preference trials, the host species they had chosen naturally[34].

From 1982 onwards the population evolved from majority use of *Collinsia* towards

increasing use of *Plantago*. By 2005-7 oviposition preferences were invariant, with butterflies

unanimously preferring *Plantago* over *Collinsia*. Both *Collinsia* and *Penstemon* were

abandoned. In 2008, the population became extinct in response to a change in land management.

In 2013-4 the site was recolonized by *E. editha* adapted to *Collinsia,* on which the new

population was initially monophagous[33].

How does this history fit our scenarios? As at Rabbit, preference tests performed on

butterflies in the presumed ancestral condition at Curtz Lake found no diversity of preference

rank; butterflies either preferred *Collinsia* over *Plantago* or showed no preference[32,33]. We

attribute to natural selection the appearance of preference rank diversity for these two hosts at

Schneider in the 1980s and the disappearance of *Collinsia* preference in 2005-7 as the population

became monophagous on *Plantago*[33]. It's possible that *Penstemon* was temporarily included in

the diet as a nonadaptive side-effect of the host shift to *Plantago*, in a manner similar to the

temporary inclusion of *Mimulus* at Rabbit Meadow.

After recolonization in 2013-4 the population reverted to monophagy on *Collinsia*, failing

to exhibit our expected diet breadth expansion[33]. In 2018 we found only two ovipositions, which

were on different hosts (Table 1) but we draw no conclusion from this small sample.

Discussion

Much of the literature that ties insect diet evolution to generation of biodiversity carries
the assumption that host shifts facilitate speciation. In Melitaeine butterflies this does not seem
to be true. Host shifts are frequent, closely-related sympatric species typically have overlapping
diets[35], and *E. editha* itself shows strong isolation by distance but no residual isolation by host[19].
The failure of Melitaeines to speciate with host shifts may reflect the fact that they don't mate on
their hosts. Apart from this trait, we have no reason to think that diet evolution in Melitaeines is
unusual, so we expect its mechanisms, as revealed in the current study, to be informative about
processes that operate more widely than in this butterfly subfamily. Whether the short-term
changes we show are informative about long-term diet breadth oscillations that occur across
millennia[5-12] is an open question, but the fact that insects tend to recolonize long-lost ancestral
diets suggests that processes measured on very different time scales are related.

Cause of the negative association between mtDNA and diet breadth

What are possible causes of the genetic diversity/diet breadth association? If gene flow
and admixture were the main driver of variable diet breadth, populations with broader diets
would be those that had received more diverse gene flow, so they should show more, rather than
less, genetic variation – opposite to our findings. On the other hand, the observed relationship
could be explained if both were functions of population age: that is, if young populations had
both lower genetic diversity and broader diets than long-established populations.

Newly-founded populations are, indeed, expected to have reduced genetic diversity and
to acquire more genotypes as they age, from some combination of immigration and mutation[27,28].
However, it is not obvious that recently-colonized populations should have broader diets than the
sources from which they were derived. Indeed, the opposite relationship can occur. If diet
breadth of a source population reflects diversity of individuals with different host adaptations, we
expect "specialization by drift"[29]; founder effects should reduce diet breadths at newly-colonized
sites, compared to their sources.

One possible mechanism to generate increase in diet breadth after colonizations would be

that colonization events were followed by host shifts, and additional hosts were added to the diet

during evolutionary transitions from traditional to novel hosts, as suggested by Hardy[9]. A model

of parasite evolution in the context of a fitness landscape with heterogeneous hosts does, indeed,

generate this scenario[12].

Colonizing females are unlikely to actively switch host species with high enough

frequency to produce the association in Figure 2. However, if, as we have suggested (above and

in supplemental text 1), each host population were effectively unique from the butterflies'

perspective, then adapting to a newly-colonized population of a traditional host species might

require sufficient change of host preference that additional host species were temporarily drawn

into the diet. In this case, an explanation of the diet breadth/mtDNA relationship on the basis of

colonizations, host shifts and population age becomes less unlikely (example in supplemental

text 1)**.**

Causes of preference diversification

The first cause of preference diversity that we show is natural selection driving a shift

from monophagy on one host towards monophagy on another. We note two previously-published

examples from our own work: the generation, during independent host shifts at Rabbit and

Schneider, of novel diversity of preference ranks from starting points lacking such diversity. At

Schneider we saw this preference diversity appear, persist for >8 years, and then disappear as the

insects evolved to monophagy on their novel host[33]. At Rabbit the host shift did not proceed this

far. Prior to the metapopulation achieving monophagy on the novel host, the direction of natural

selection, and hence the direction of evolution, was reversed, the butterfly populations in the

patches using the novel host were extirpated, and the system reverted to its starting point[31].

The second cause of preference diversity, as a nonadaptive consequence of colonization

events, is less expected and not previously published. It is supported both by the mtDNA study

and by the ephemeral inclusion at Rabbit of the relatively unsuitable novel host, *Mimulus*,

immediately following the adoption of the highly suitable novel host, *Collinsia*.

Our results do not apply universally. Two unrelated studies have shown increased dietary

specialization after colonization. First, Hardy et al[29] use phylogenetic analyses to argue that, in

scale insects, diet diversity is positively associated with genetic diversity, so founder effects

associated with colonizations and range expansions have caused population-level diet to become

more specialized, not less.

The second study with a result contrary to ours is from a butterfly, the Brown Argus,

which, like many other species, is indulging in a poleward range expansion attributed to regional

climate warming. This expansion is associated with increasing host specialization. Oviposition

preferences were more specialized and homogeneous, both within and among populations, in the

expanding parts of the range than in long-established populations[36]. In addition, larvae in the

expanding regions were physiologically more host-specialized and had lost evolvability,

compared to their ancestral populations[37]. These two contrary results give us pause in suggesting

the level of generality of our results.

However, we regain some confidence because, if even moderately general, the

phenomena we document could underpin the broad geographic pattern of diet breadth with

decreasing specialization at higher latitudes[13]. Using a global database of diet observations and

geographic distributions of Lepidopteran species, Lancaster[14] concludes that the principal cause

of this latitudinal trend is that range expansions cause loss of population-level specialization

rather than that generalists make better colonists. Our studies of *E. editha* support this

interpretation and further suggest that population-level generalization in the biogeographic data

may often represent diversification of specialists rather than (or in addition to) loss of

specialization at the individual level.

<u>Conclusion</u>

As more and more species track shifting climate spaces driven by current warming

trends, the numbers experiencing poleward range expansions will continue to rise. Yet we have

little understanding of the behavioural and evolutionary processes accompanying these

ecological range expansions. The mechanisms driving diet expansion and contraction that we

document here may help us to better understand these underlying dynamics, thereby informing

projection models and conservation planning under continued anthropogenic climate change.

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GLOSSARY:

Population-level diet breadth: In the studies reported here, the number of host species on which

eggs of *E. editha* were laid in a particular population.

Host use. Again, in the work reported here, the proportion of eggs laid on each host species by

an insect or an insect population. In a practical sense, this must most often be measured from the

distributions of silken webs spun by young larvae, although groups that do not survive to this

stage are missed by this technique (see Methods).

Acceptance: a positive behavioural response by an insect to an encounter with a plant. It is a

description of an observable and measurable event. It is not a trait of either plant or insect, since

it depends on both insect preference and plant acceptability (see below). It is a trait of the plant-

insect interaction[38].

Insect preference: the set of likelihoods of accepting particular specified hosts that are

encountered. Defined in this way, it is a property of the insect that can vary among individuals

(Singer 2000) and can be heritable. *E. editha* first encounters hosts visually, then chemically,

then physically, with separate preferences expressed at each stage[31]. Again in *E. editha*, the

strength of post-alighting preference for two hosts, say host A and host B, is measured by the

length of time that a female will search accepting only host B (if encountered) until, after failing

to find host B, she reaches the level of oviposition motivation at which either A or B would be

accepted, whichever is next encountered (details and justification in reference 39).

Plant acceptability. The set of likelihoods that a plant will be accepted by particular specified

insects that encounter it. Defined in this way, it is a property of the host that can vary among

individuals[38] and can be heritable[23].

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Methods

MtDNA analyses: Reference 26 used 17 restriction endonucleases to identify 22 mtDNA haplotypes of *E. editha*, the distributions of which were recorded within and among 24 populations or metapopulations of the butterfly, with metapopulations treated as single sites. These sites varied dramatically in their haplotype diversity. (Meta)populations with sample sizes of 11, 13, 17 and 30 each contained single haplotypes, while a sample of 14 individuals produced 7 haplotypes and a sample of only four contained no replicates (Table 1). In order to retain this last small but informative sample we chose to include in our analysis all populations with mtDNA sample sizes of four or greater, thereby reducing the number of populations analyzed from 24 to 14.

Preference tests: Butterflies were captured in the field and their oviposition preferences tested by a standardized technique, in which encounters are staged between the tested insect and each plant in alternation. Plants were undisturbed in their natural habitats or freshly transplanted into pots in their own soil. Acceptance of plant taste was judged from full abdominal curling and extrusion of the ovipositor for 3 sec. Acceptance and rejection were recorded at each encounter, but oviposition was not allowed. Videos showing acceptance in such staged encounters are in Singer & Parmesan 2019. During each test the range of plants that would be accepted, if encountered, expands over time with increasing motivation to oviposit. Therefore, acceptance of plant A followed by rejection of plant B is recorded as preference for A over B. Testing of assumptions underlying this technique described in reference 32. Insects without preference are not shown in the Figure, so percentages do not sum to 100% except in 2005 & 2007, when preference for *Plantago* was unanimous among tested butterflies. Raw data are in Extended data table 3. A more detailed comparison between early and late periods, showing strengths as well as direction of preference, is given in Extended data Fig.8. The assumption that these insects' preferences are not influenced by prior experience, either as larvae or as adults, is supported by prior observation and experiment[40].

Supplemental text 1.

<u>Complex variation of host acceptability from the butterflies' perspective.</u>

(1) *M. cinxia* were subjected to staged encounters with hosts during each of which they tasted the

plant and could respond by attempting to oviposit (host acceptance) or by basking (host

rejection). They were asked to rank three individual *Plantago lanceolata* and three *Veronica*

spicata plants. Some individual butterflies consistently ranked these hosts taxonomically, either

ranking all three *Plantagos* above all three *Veronicas* or vice versa. Other butterflies from the

same populations were more impressed with chemical variation among individual hosts than

between species, consistently producing rankings in which the two species were interdigitated[24].

(2) *E. aurinia* produced different rankings of host genera, depending on which individual plants

the butterflies were offered. This effect produced the false impression that insects from two

monophagous populations, one using *Lonicera* and the other using *Cephalaria,* preferred to

oviposit on *Succisa*, a plant that was not present in either of their habitats[25].

(3) The choice by *E. editha* of different host species at two sites with similar vegetation was

shown to be driven approximately equally by genetic variation in host acceptability between sites

and by genetic variation in butterfly preference[23].

<u>Colonization and host shifts.</u>

The studies summarized above all show that, from the butterflies' perspective, within-

host-species variation can complement or even overwhelm variation between host genera. With

this in mind. suppose that an emigrant from a population monophagous on *Penstemon rydbergii*

colonizes a new habitat, where, given her initial host adaptations, the host that supports highest

fitness is likewise *P. rydbergii.* However, the *Penstemon* population at the colonized site differs

sufficiently in chemistry from the conspecifics at the source site, that the immigrant female

perceives it just as differently as she would perceive a different host species. Colonizing what

appears to humans as the same host species would be, to the female, colonizing a different host

entity, and this difference could drive diversification of preference and temporary taxonomic

broadening of diet, pending natural selection causing a return to monophagy on *Penstemo*n. This

hypothetical scenario gains credibility since we have shown that heritable interpopulation

variation in acceptability of *P. rydbergii* to *E. editha* was sufficient to cause the butterflies to use

the *Penstemon* at one site but to drive them onto a different host genus (*Collinsia*) at another,

where the *Penstemon* was less acceptable[23].

Prior publication:

Some of the ideas presented here were foreshadowed in 2008[41], including a verbal

description of the relationship shown in Figure 2; but no data or analyses were provided at the

time.

Supplemental text 2

We interpret the trend of decreasing diet breadth over time (Table 1) with caution, for two

reasons. The first reason is that diet breadths recorded in the 1980s at two sites, Sonora and

Frenchman, depend on single observations of natural egg clutches on the least-used hosts

(*Penstemon* at Sonora and *Collinsia* at Frenchman). The second reason is that the broader 1980s

diet at one site, Del Puerto Canyon, clearly reflected plasticity of the insects, which temporarily

added *Collinsia* to their diet in 1983, when unusually high precipitation rendered this host

phenologically suitable by extending its lifespan. *Collinsia* had not been not used at Del Puerto

in our earliest observations, in 1969, so its absence from the diet in the most recent observation

likely reflects its low acceptability*,* rather than increased specialization of the insects. Diet

breadth at a second site, McGee, has also oscillated during our study, so the low diet breadth in

the most recent observation may be coincidental. However, removal of both Del Puerto and

McGee from the dataset does not eliminate significance of the trend for recent diets to be more

narrow than those originally recorded, within continuously-occupied sites ($p = 0.03$).

Since the mtDNA data in Figure 2 were compiled from long-outdated techniques, it

would seem logical to re-sample the populations with better methodology. However, as Table 1

shows, the diet breadth diversity that existed in the 1980s in our set of study populations has

diminished and we longer have the necessary variation of diet breadth among these populations`

to ask the question. If our thesis is correct, some of the new populations founded over the study

period should have broader diets, and the mean population-level diet breadth that existed in the

1980s may have been maintained across California. However, to ascertain this we would need to

have performed systematic searches for newly-founded populations. We have not done this.

Instead, our work has concentrated on the study sites that we first identified between 1968 and

1992.