Movement of moths through riparian reserves within oil palm plantations

Ross E. J. Gray[1,2*], Eleanor M. Slade[1, 3], Arthur Y. C. Chung[4] and Owen T. Lewis[1]

[1] Department of Zoology, University of Oxford, South Parks Road, Oxford OX1 3PS, UK.

[2] Department of Life Sciences, Imperial College London, Silwood Park Campus, Buckhurst
Road, Ascot, SL5 7PY, UK.

[3] Asian School of the Environment, Nanyang Technological University, 50 Nanyang Avenue,
Singapore 639798.

[4] Forest Research Centre, Forestry Department, P.O. Box 1407, 90715 Sandakan, Sabah,
Malaysia.

[*] **Correspondence:**

Ross E. J. Gray

ross.gray12@imperial.ac.uk

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ABSTRACT

Tropical forests are becoming increasingly fragmented through conversion to agriculture, with
negative consequences for biodiversity. Movement of individuals among the remaining
fragments is critical to allow populations of forest-dependent taxa to persist. In SE Asia,
conversion of forests to oil palm plantations is a particular threat. Many oil palm dominated
landscapes retain forested riparian reserves along streams and rivers, but the extent to which
these riparian reserves are used for movement, relative to the oil palm matrix, is poorly
understood. We used mark-release-recapture methods to investigate the movement of five moth
taxa in riparian reserves connected to a continuous forest area within oil palm matrix in Sabah,
Malaysian Borneo. Moths were recaptured on average 68m from the release point, and the mean
time to recapture was between 2 and 3 days. Moths showed a significant tendency to move
within forested riparian reserves than into adjacent oil palm. When moving within riparian
reserves moths also showed a tendency to orient their movement away from the continuous
forest into the riparian reserve rather than towards continuous forest or into oil palm. Overall, our
results show a role for riparian reserves as movement corridors through oil palm plantations for
some invertebrate species, strengthening the case for their retention and re-establishment.

INTRODUCTION

Tropical forests are increasingly degraded, fragmented and converted to agriculture, with
detrimental effects on biodiversity (Gardner et al., 2009; Barlow et al., 2010; Hansen et al., 2013;
Haddad et al., 2015). South East Asian forests have been particularly affected, with the Indo-
Malayan biodiversity hotspot experiencing pronounced biodiversity loss (Myers et al., 2000;
Sodhi et al., 2004; Sodhi et al., 2010; Gibson et al., 2011; Ewers et al., 2015; Lewis et al., 2015).
A major threat is the rapid expansion of areas planted with oil palm (*Elaeis guineensis* Jacq.)
(Fitzherbert et al., 2008; Gaveau et al., 2014), which is now the world's primary source of
vegetable oil and fat (Turner et al., 2008). Oil palm is thus a vital part of the economies of
Southeast Asia, accounting for 3.82% of the gross domestic product in Malaysia alone (~$896
million; Mahidin, 2018). As mosaic landscapes that incorporate both natural forest and oil palm
agriculture become increasingly common, it is important to understand how best to manage and
design these landscapes to support their remaining biodiversity.

Frequent features of mosaic oil palm landscapes are riparian reserves (also called buffer
zones or riparian strips)(Luke et al., 2019). These are linear areas of riverine forest, set aside
primarily to reduce run-off into streams (Sweeney et al., 2004). Riparian reserves improve water
quality (Mayer et al., 2007) and benefit aquatic and forest-dependent terrestrial fauna (Ricketts,
2004; Marczak et al., 2010; Gray et al., 2014). They may also serve as movement corridors
linking fragments to continuous forest (Beier and Noss, 1998; Tewksbury et al., 2002). Recently,
riparian reserves have been added as a requirement for Roundtable on Sustainable Palm Oil
(RSPO) certification, with a minimum forest buffer of 30 to 100 m on both sides of the river,
with the minimum width stipulated depending on river width, reserve placement, and perceived
use (Barclay et al., 2017; Lucey et al., 2017).

As rainforest habitats become increasingly fragmented and isolated, connectivity between
forest fragments may become critical to allow populations to persist (Hanski, 1999; Ewers and
Didham, 2006; Lucey and Hill, 2012). Understanding the movement ability of flora and fauna is
therefore a key consideration in conservation and management strategies in human-modified
landscapes. Movement ability is influenced by the behavioural responses of different species to
habitat boundaries (Lucey and Hill, 2012; Kallioniemi et al., 2014), the physical costs of
movement (Bonte et al., 2012), and the permeability of the matrix (Ewers and Didham, 2006;
Scriven et al., 2017). Forest dependent-taxa (i.e., those that need forest to support viable
populations) are the most vulnerable to fragmentation, as their restricted ranges and reluctance to
cross forest to non-forest boundaries result in small, isolated populations which suffer local
extinctions with little prospect of recolonization (Sodhi et al., 2010; Scriven et al., 2015).
However, only a few studies have investigated the movement behaviour of tropical forest-
associated taxa (Bouchard and Brooks, 2004; Brouwers and Newton, 2009; Lucey and Hill,
2012; Khazan, 2014; Scriven et al., 2017).

Here, we examine the movement behaviour of forest-associated moths (Lepidoptera) in
riparian reserves within oil palm landscapes in Sabah, Malaysian Borneo. Moths are a species-
rich and functionally important insect group in tropical forests, acting as pollinators, herbivores,
and prey for a wide variety of vertebrate and invertebrate taxa (Kitching et al., 2000;
Summerville et al., 2004; Slade et al., 2013). Tropical forest moths are relatively understudied in

terms of dispersal and movement. Only one study to our knowledge explicitly measures
movement capacity in tropical moths, assessing the distance to which moths are attracted to a
light trap (Beck and Linsenmair, 2006), with the closest comparable study grouping moths by
dispersal classes and measuring the correlation of these classes with certain dispersal traits (Beck
and Kitching, 2007). Studies in temperate agricultural landscapes have shown that habitat
connectivity is critical for moth movement (Merckx et al., 2010; Slade et al., 2013).

To understand the potential role of riparian reserves as movement corridors for tropical
moths, we used mark-release-recapture methods, a common approach for the study of animal
movement (e.g. Lewis et al., 1997; Hanski, 1999; Slade et al., 2013). We investigated (1)
whether forest-associated moths were more likely to move through riparian reserves than into oil
palm; and (2) whether there was tendency for these moths within riparian reserves to move
towards or away from the adjacent areas of continuous forest to which the riparian reserve is
connected. In combination, these analyses allow us to compare the likely permeability of oil
palm plantations and riparian reserves for moths, and their potential utility in linking forest
fragments.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

STUDY SITES – Fieldwork took place between November 2016 and April 2017 within the
Stability of Altered Forest Ecosystems (SAFE) project landscape in South Eastern Sabah,
Malaysia (4°38" N to 4°41" N, 117°31" E; Ewers *et al*. 2011; Fig. 1A). We selected three focal
sites where a riparian forest reserve, embedded within an oil palm matrix, was connected to a
large block of continuous virgin jungle reserve (VJR) of lowland dipterocarp rainforest. The VJR
covers 2,200 ha of land and is connected to a larger (> 1 million ha) area of protected forest
(Ewers et al., 2011). The oil palm plantations at each site were approximately the same age (~8
years). The three focal sites (RR3, RR10, RR18) were selected to be similar in configuration and
structure and, in each case, had tall trees (some >40m), high canopy cover, and similar mean
riparian forest widths (48m, 58m and 41m in RR3, RR10, and RR18 respectively (calculated
from satellite imagery of the sites (M. Pfeiffer, unpublished data)). However, there were
inevitably minor variations among sites in the precise configuration of landscape elements (Fig.
S1).

SPECIES SELECTION – Pilot studies identified five forest-associated moth taxa which could be
trapped in sufficient numbers for a focused study: *Erebus ephesperis* Hübner, *Erebus*
camprimulgus Fabricius, *Ischyja* spp. Hübner, *Erebus gemmans* Guenée and *Hypoprya* spp.
Guenée (Holloway, 2005). Multiple *Ischyja* and *Hypoprya* species were present in our samples;
living individuals could not always be identified reliably to species in the field, so individuals
within each of these genera were pooled for analyses. The focal moth taxa are nocturnal,
relatively large-bodied and common within the focal landscape. Their larval hostplants –
essential to maintain populations – are woody vines, shrubs and trees (Holloway, 2005) which
are absent from oil palm plantations.

MOTH MOVEMENT – Moth movement was studied by releasing individuals at a single, central
point where the riparian reserve connected to the VJR at each site. In each of the three study sites
we established a network of baited traps, spaced a minimum of 50m apart, with a single central
release point (without a trap) (Fig. 1B; individual site diagrams in Fig. S1). In RR10 and RR18,
six traps were placed within oil palm and six traps in the riparian reserve. However, the shape of
the riparian reserve allowed only 4 traps to be placed in the oil palm at RR3. We used Bugdorm[©]
Pop-up Butterfly Bait Traps with 10 cm cone openings, baited with fermented banana and
suspended so that the base was at least 1 m above the ground. During each round of sampling,
traps were set on day 1 and allowed to accumulate moths for 24 hours. On day 2, individuals of
the focal moths were removed from the trap sequentially and marked on the wing with a unique
number using a black Sharpie™ permanent marker (Betzholtz, 2002; Truxa and Fiedler, 2012).
Moths were transported in a ventilated, sealed container to the release point, where they were
released into dense vegetation while inactive. Data on species, trap of capture, release date, and
recapture data were recorded for each individual. Baits were replaced each day and any moths
from non-focal species were removed from the traps without marking. On day 3, the abundance
of focal moths in the traps was recorded, any new moths were marked and released from the

134 release point, and any recaptures were recorded. The protocol for day 3 was repeated until a
135 minimum of 60 recapture events (across all focal taxa) had been accumulated at each site
136 (between 8 to 14 days).

138 DATA ANALYSIS – We standardized comparisons by analyzing moth recapture data from a subset
139 of the traps at each site (8 traps per site: 4 in riparian, 4 in oil palm) spaced at comparable
140 distances from the release point (=<100m). We first used a one-tailed binomial test to investigate
141 whether the proportion of moth recaptures in riparian forest was significanty different from that
142 expected under the null hypothesis of random movement (50% expected proportion) to either
143 riparian forest or oil palm. Similarly, for the subset of moths recaptured within the riparian
144 reserves (4 traps per site), we used a one-tailed binomial test to investigate whether there was a
145 tendency for these moths to move towards continuous forest, as opposed to away from it down
146 the riparian reserve. Statistical analyses were carried out using R (R Development Core Team,
147 2017).

149 **RESULTS**

151 Across all species and sites, we marked and released 829 moths, of which 281 (33.7%) were
152 recaptured (Table S1). *Hypoprya* spp. had the highest percentage of recaptures (45.5%) and
153 *Ischyja* spp. the lowest (29.6%; Table S1). Of recaptured individuals, 37% were recaptured
154 within 24 hours of release, and the remainder after multiple days (2 to 12 days). Moths moved on
155 average 67.5m over an average of 2.63 days, with distances varying among taxa and among sites
156 (Table S2).

158 A significantly higher proportion of moth recaptures was recorded in riparian reserve traps than
159 in oil palm plantation traps at comparable distances (N = 283, Expected Proportion = 0.5,
160 Empirical Proportion = 0.622, CI = [0.572, 1.00], $P < 0.001$; Table 1; Fig. 2A). For those moths
161 moving within riparian corridors, individuals were significantly more likely to move along the
162 riparian reserve away from continuous forest than they were to move towards it (N = 176,
163 Expected Proportion = 0.5, Empirical Proportion = 0.665, CI = [0.602, 1.00], $P < 0.001$; Table 1;
164 Fig. 2B).

166 **DISCUSSION**

168 Riparian forest reserves can represent important habitat for many invertebrate taxa (Barlow et al.,
169 2010; Gray et al., 2016; Luke et al., 2017; Scriven et al., 2017) but their importance for
170 invertebrate movement is poorly studied. Previous studies on the dispersal and movement
171 behaviour of insects have shown that habitat boundaries are often barriers for forest-dependent

species (Gray et al., 2016; Scriven et al., 2017), suggesting that agricultural habitats bordering
forest habitats may limit movement (Arellano et al., 2008; Merckx et al., 2010; Slade et al.,
2013). Our data provide new information on the movement behaviour of moths in riparian forest
corridors embedded within an oil palm matrix.

Movement by the focal moth species responded strongly to habitat type and boundaries. Moths
were more likely to be recaptured in traps within riparian forest than in traps in oil palm at
equivalent distances. This supports previous studies in temperate regions showing that moth
movements are often influenced by habitat boundaries (Betzholtz, 2002; Slade et al., 2013). The
moth species investigated are relatively specialised in terms of their larval host plants (Holloway,
2005). The absence of these resources within plantations, along with a contrasting vegetation
structure characterised by a more open canopy and associated differences in microclimate, may
have discouraged boundary-crossing into adjacent oil palm (Barlow et al., 2010).

Since oil palm traps were placed relatively close to the riparian reserve (between 50 – 150 m),
movements of some individuals into the oil palm may represent a 'spillover effect', as has been
documented for butterflies (Lucey and Hill, 2012; Scriven et al., 2017), ants, bush crickets,
beetles and some small mammals in forest-oil palm matrices (Nurdiansyah et al., 2016). Traps
were baited with fermenting banana which may be detectable by foraging adult moths over
distances spanning the scale of the study. Thus, some moth movements into the oil palm may
represent foraging activities for moths that are otherwise dependent on forested areas to maintain
viable populations (Scriven et al., 2017). It seems likely that plantations provide feeding
opportunities for adult moths in the form of abundant oil palm fruit, so such movements may be
typical of these landscapes. However, whether these fruits benefit moth populations in the long
term by increasing population growth rates or carrying capacities is unknown.

Our data allow us to assess directionality of moth movements with respect to nearby areas of
continuous forest. This is of interest because it allows us to understand whether moths that enter
riparian reserves from large blocks of forest to which they are connected are likely to continue
along these reserves, or to turn back. Surprisingly, there was a significant tendency for moths to
move away from connected forests and further along the riparian reserve. It seems unlikely that
this tendency reflects an underlying orientation bias or preference (for example, a tendency to
move on a particular bearing), since there was no appreciable directional airflow during the
study, which can sometimes dictate orientation of movement (Vickers, 2005), and our three
riparian sites were oriented at different angles. Orientation could have been influenced by
unmeasured factors such as gradients in vegetation structure and composition. Whatever the
mechanism, this behaviour seems likely to facilitate successful crossing of the oil palm matrix in
situations where continuous riparian corridors link forest fragments within the landscape, as has
been suggested for other invertebrate (Lucey and Hill, 2012; Khazan, 2014) and vertebrate taxa
(Medina et al., 2007; Gillies and Clair, 2008; Keuroghlian and Eaton, 2008). Further study will
be needed to quantify the distances over which such movements can occur, and the extent to

which riparian reserves serve to support viable as opposed to sink populations of these and other
forest-dependent species.

We did not seek to explore between-species differences or measure life history traits in this
study, but traits are likely to explain interspecific differences in movement distances. In
temperate moths, life history traits such as wingspan and wing shape, along with the precise
habitat affinities of individual species, can significantly influence movement behaviour (Slade et
al., 2013).

Despite the limited number of taxa and sites we were able to investigate, our results suggest that
movement patterns and behaviours of tropical moths are amenable to study using mark release
recapture methods. Additional work is now needed to assess the radius over which moths are
attracted to baits and the extent to which this might influence moth movement patterns (Merckx
and Slade, 2014). Light traps are the most frequent method used to survey moth communities,
and attract higher numbers and diversities of species from a wider range of moth families than
fruit-baited traps (Beck and Linsenmair, 2006). However, light traps are rarely suitable for live
capture in tropical forests, as the high activity of trapped moths tends to lead to their damage and
death (personal observations). We suggest that baited traps like the ones used in our study have
considerable potential for studies of moth movement through fragmented landscapes.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTION STATEMENT

OTL and EMS conceived the research idea and secured funding. OTL and REJG designed the
study. REJG collected the data, carried out the analyses and led the writing of the manuscript.
All authors contributed to editing the manuscript.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT

The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or
financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

DATA AVALAILABILITY STATEMENT

The data used in this study are archived on the Environmental Information Data Centre
(https://doi.org/10.5285/4ca7f1ff-7bc4-4077-bc9c-96be1be3e655) and on Zenodo (doi to be
added following acceptance), with access through the SAFE project website
(www.safeproject.net, Dataset ID: to be added following acceptance).

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TABLES

Table 1. Summary table showing the number of recaptures for each trap in each site. Traps in
light grey shading are located in the riparian reserve and traps in dark grey shading are located in
the oil palm plantation

					Trap				
Site	-100	-50	50	100	OP50a	OP50b	OP100a	OP100b	Total
RR3	6	6	8	8	7	14	3	5	57
RR10	10	18	30	11	NA	NA	5	7	81
RR18	3	16	40	20	25	20	14	7	145
Total	19	40	78	39	32	34	22	19	283

FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. **(A)** The upper panel highlights the location of the study area in Sabah, Northern
Borneo. The lower panel displays a map of riparian reserve sites used in this study. The map is
adapted from Gray et al. (2014). Black dots represent the riparian sampling sites labelled RR18,
RR3 and RR10 from top to bottom. The dotted black line shows the SAFE project experimental
boundary. The solid grey shaded area in the top panel is the remaining logged forest, blue lines
indicate rivers, and the white area indicates the matrix of oil palm plantations. **(B)** Schematic
representation of the general sampling design in each riparian reserve for the mark-release-
recapture study for moths. Black crosses indicate trapping points which were spaced by at least
50 m. Lines on the diagram are to indicate spacing and are not drawn to scale. The star indicates
the release point of marked moths.

Figure 2. Number of recaptures and orientation of movement for moths. **(A)** Total number of
recaptures for each species in each habitat. **(B)** Total number of movement orientations for each
species towards riparian forest or towards continuous forest (VJR) in each site. Bars are shaded
based on taxon.