

Host plant use drives genetic differentiation in syntopic populations of *Maculineaalcon*

András Tartally, Andreas Kelager, Matthias A Fürst, David R Nash

The rare socially parasitic butterfly *Maculineaalcon* occurs in two forms, which are characteristic of hygric or xeric habitats, and which exploit different host plants and host ants. The status of these two forms has been the subject of considerable controversy. Populations of the two forms are usually spatially distinct, but at Răscruçi in Romania both forms occur on the same site (syntopically). We examined the genetic differentiation between the two forms using eight microsatellite markers, and compared with a nearby hygric site, Şardu. Our results showed that while the two forms are strongly differentiated at Răscruçi, it is the xeric form there that is most similar to the hygric form at Şardu, and Bayesian clustering algorithms suggest that these two populations have exchanged genes relatively recently. We found strong evidence for population substructuring, caused by high within host ant nest relatedness, indicating very limited dispersal of most ovipositing females, but not association with particular host ant species. Our results are consistent with the results of larger scale phylogeographic studies that suggest that the two forms represent local ecotypes specialising on different host plants, each with a distinct flowering phenology, providing a temporal rather than spatial barrier to gene flow.

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Maculineaalcon

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23 Abstract

24 The rare socially parasitic butterfly *Maculinea alcon* occurs in two forms, which are
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 28 same site (syntopically). We examined the genetic differentiation between the two forms using
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 37 distinct flowering phenology, providing a temporal rather than spatial barrier to gene flow.

39 Introduction

40 Larvae of *Maculinea* van Eecke (Lepidoptera: Lycaenidae) butterflies start their development on
 41 specific host plants. A few weeks later they are adopted into the nests of suitable *Myrmica*
 42 Latreille (Hymenoptera: Formicidae) colonies, where they act as social parasites of the ants
 43 (Thomas et al., 1989). This unusual life cycle has shaped their evolution, as different populations
 44 are strongly selected to adapt to different initial host plants and *Myrmica* species depending on
 45 their availability (Thomas et al., 1989; Witek et al., 2008).

46 Larvae of the *Maculinea alcon* Denis & Schiffermüller group follow a rather specialised
 47 development compared to other *Maculinea* species, as they are not simply predators of ant brood,
 48 but are fed by *Myrmica* workers in preference to their own brood – a behaviour that has been
 49 described as a “cuckoo” strategy (Thomas & Elmes, 1998). Because they are constantly
 50 interacting with worker ants, this means that they need to adapt precisely to the local host ant
 51 species, e.g. by mimicking the odour (Akino et al., 1999; Nash et al., 2008; Thomas & Settele,
 52 2004) and sounds (Barbero et al., 2009) of the ants, in order to be accepted by a suitable
 53 *Myrmica* colony. While the initial host plants of this group are all species of gentian (*Gentiana*
 54 L. and *Gentianella* Mönch), they can occur in very different open habitats, such as lowland and
 55 mountain meadows or wet and dry swards (Munguira & Martín, 1999; Oostermeijer, Vantveer &
 56 Dennijs, 1994; Settele, Kühn & Thomas, 2005; Tartally, Koschuh & Varga, 2014). Based on
 57 these different habitat types, several forms or (sub)species of the *M. alcon* group have been
 58 described. The most widely accepted separation within this group is that the nominotypic *M.*
 59 *alcon* occurs on humid meadows and there is another xerophilous form which has usually been
 60 referred to as *M. rebeli* Hirschke (Thomas et al., 2005; Thomas & Settele, 2004; Wynhoff,
 61 1998). Both forms are patchily distributed (Wynhoff, 1998) and have been considered as

endangered in many European countries (Munguira & Martin, 1999), with the xerophilous form considered to be a European endemic (Munguira & Martin, 1999). However, several papers (Habeler, 2008; Kudrna & Belicek, 2005; Kudrna & Fric, 2013) have made the case that the xerophilous form is most likely not synonymous with the nominotypic *M. rebeli*, which is found at higher altitude, and has a unique host plant and host ant usage (Tartally, Koschuh & Varga, 2014). Furthermore, recent molecular phylogenetic studies (Als et al., 2004; Ugelvig et al., 2011b; Bereczki et al., 2015) suggest that the hygrophilous and xerophilous forms of *M.alcon*, while distinct from other congeners, are not two distinct lineages, and show very little variation in genes normally used for phylogenetic inference. This has been confirmed by several regional population genetic studies (Bereczki et al., 2005; Bereczki, Pecsénye & Varga, 2006; Sielezniew et al., 2012; Bereczki et al., 2015), where there is no consistent separation of the two forms. This has led to the current situation where xerophilous and hygrophilous *M.alcon* are not distinguished for conservation purposes, and the species is now considered as “of least concern” in Europe (Van Swaay et al., 2010). To avoid confusion, we will refer to the “typical” hygrophilous form of *M.alcon* as ‘*M.alcon H*’ and the xerophilous form as ‘*M.alcon X*’ throughout the rest of this manuscript, following Tartally, Koschuh & Varga (2014).

The host plant and host ant usage of the two *M.alcon* forms are different, because different gentian and *Myrmica* species are available on the hygic sites of *M.alcon H* and xeric sites of *M.alcon X*. While *M.alcon H* starts development typically on the marsh gentian (*Gentiana pneumonanthe* L.), *M.alcon X* typically uses the cross gentian (*G. cruciata* L.), and there is some evidence that enzyme systems related to host plant use may be diverging in the two forms (Bereczki et al., 2015). The development of *M.alcon X* typically continues in nests of *Myrmica schencki* Viereck and *My. sabuleti* Meinert but *M.alcon H* most often uses *My. rubra* L., *My.*

ruginodis Nylander or *My. scabrinodis* Nylander as host ants. Furthermore, some other minor or locally important host plant and host ant species have been recorded for both forms (summarized in Witek, Barbero & Markó, 2014).

Despite these differences in the host plant and ant usage of *M.alcon H* and *M.alcon X*, phylogenetic reconstruction using morphological and ecological characters suggests that western Palaearctic *M.alcon H* are closer to European *M.alcon X* than Asian *M.alcon H* (Pech et al., 2004). In combination, all these results suggest local ecological but not genetic differentiation of the two forms between hygic and xeric sites. Until recently this could only be tested by comparing sites that were separated by tens of kilometres or more, but in the last decade a site has been recorded from Răscruți (Transylvanian basin, Romania) where patches supporting *M.alcon H* and *M.alcon X* occur in a mosaic separated by tens of meters. The two forms use different host plants and mostly different host ants on this site (Tartally et al., 2008), and their flying periods are largely separated based on the phenology of their host plants (Czekes et al., 2014; Timuş et al., 2013). In addition, most previous genetic studies have been based on collecting samples from either flying adults or caterpillars as they emerge from the host plant, which means that any separation by host ant species could not be examined directly. Our aim was therefore to investigate the genetic differentiation between the two forms of *M.alcon* at this unique syntopic site, to relate this to differences in both host plant and host ant use, and to make recommendations for the conservation of the forms based on their shared and predicted future histories (c.f. Bowen & Roman, 2005).

Materials and Methods

Field methods

Two sites in Transylvania (Figure 1) were visited in the summers of 2007 and 2009 to record host plant and host ant usage and to collect genetic samples of *M. alcon*. Host ant specificity results from 2007 have already been published in Tartally et al. (2008). The first site is at Răscruci (46°54' N; 23°47' E; 485 m a.s.l.), which is predominantly an extensively grazed tall-grass meadow steppe with *Gentiana cruciata* (the host plant of *M. alcon* X), but also with numerous small marshy depressions with tall-forb vegetation in which *G. pneumonanthe* (the host plant of *M. alcon* H) is common (Czekes et al., 2014). This site gave the unique possibility to compare the host ant specificity and population genetics of *M. alcon* H and *M. alcon* X within the same site. To collect samples, two nearby patches were chosen within this mosaic site where *G. pneumonanthe* and *G. cruciata* were well separated from each other (there was a ca. 20 m wide zone without gentians). In other parts of this site border effects (because of the potential migration of *Myrmica* colonies) or the co-occurrence of the two gentians made it difficult to find *M. alcon* larvae originating clearly from *G. pneumonanthe* or *G. cruciata*. The patch with *G. pneumonanthe* will henceforth be referred to as ‘Răscruci wet’ (*M. alcon* H patch), while the patch with *G. cruciata* will be referred to as ‘Răscruci dry’ (*M. alcon* X patch). The nearest known *M. alcon* site (a *M. alcon* H site) to Răscruci is at Șardu (46°52' N; 23°24' E; 480 m a.s.l.), 29 km west of Răscruci, which was chosen as a control site. Șardu is a tall-grass, tall-sedge marshy meadow with locally dense stands of *G. pneumonanthe*. The two sites are separated by a range of hills without suitable *M. alcon* habitat (Figure 1).

To obtain data on the host ant specificity and to get samples for genetic analysis, *Myrmica* nests were searched for within 2 m of randomly selected *Gentiana* host plants, which is considered to be the approximate foraging zone of worker ants of the genus *Myrmica* (Elmes et al., 1998). Searches were made no earlier than four weeks before the flying period of *M. alcon* at both sites, so that any *M. alcon* caterpillars or pupae found must have survived the winter in the ant nest, and hence have become fully integrated (Thomas et al., 2005). Nests were excavated carefully but completely, after which the ground and vegetation were restored to as close to the original conditions as possible. All *M. alcon* caterpillars, pupae and exuviae were counted, placed in 98% ethanol, and stored at -20 °C until DNA could be extracted. Five to ten worker ants were also collected from each ant nest and preserved in 70% ethanol for later identification in the laboratory using keys by Seifert (1988) and Radchenko and Elmes (2010). For further details, see Tartally et al. (2008).

Host ant specificity

Host ant specificity (deviation from random occurrence in nests of different *Myrmica* species) was calculated based on the number of fully grown butterfly larvae, pupae and exuviae in two ways: *P1* is the 2-tailed probability from a Fisher exact test of heterogeneity in infection of host ant nests (as implemented at <http://www.quantitativeskills.com/sisa/>), and *P2* is the probability from a randomization test of ant nests between species, using the software MACSAMP (Tartally et al., 2008). Published (Tartally et al., 2008) and newly-collected data on host ant specificity were combined for these analyses. In the case of Răscruci, host ant specificity results were calculated

separately for Răscruci wet and Răscruci dry and also based on the combined data from both patches ('Răscruci both' below).

DNA extraction and microsatellite analysis

DNA was extracted from approximately 1-2 mm³ of tissue from caterpillars or pupae using a 10% Chelex-10mM TRIS solution with 5 µl Proteinase K. Samples were incubated at 56 °C for minimum 3.5 hours or overnight and boiled at 99.9 °C for 15 min. The supernatant was collected and stored at 5 °C or -20 °C for short or long term storage, respectively. For each sample, nine polymorphic nuclear microsatellite loci developed for *Maculinea alcon* were amplified: Macu20, Macu26, Macu28, Macu29, Macu30, Macu31, Macu40, Macu44, and Macu45 (Table 1; Ugelvig et al., 2011a; Ugelvig et al., 2012) using a REDTaq® ReadyMix™ PCR Reaction Mix (Sigma-Aldrich). These primer pairs (see concentrations in table 1) were amplified using standard PCR conditions: initial denaturation for 5 min at 95 °C followed by 30 cycles of 30 s at 95 °C, 30 s at locus-specific annealing temperature (see table 1) and 30 s extension at 72 °C, finishing with elongation of 15 min at 72 °C run on a Thermo PCR PXE 0.2 Thermal Cycler. Total reaction volume was 10 µl of which 1 µl was template DNA. PCR products were run on a 3130xl Genetic Analyzer with GeneScan 500 LIZ (Life Technologies) as internal size standard and analyzed with GENEMAPPER® Software version 4.0 (Applied Biosystems). Locus Macu40 could not be scored consistently (excessive stutter bands) and was omitted from all further analysis. The overall proportion of alleles that could not be amplified was 4.6 % (see table S1).

169 *Tests for Hardy-Weinberg and linkage disequilibrium*

170 The eight microsatellite loci analysed were tested for linkage disequilibrium (genotypic
171 disequilibrium) between all pairs of loci in each sample and for deviations from Hardy-Weinberg
172 proportions using exact tests in FSTAT version 2.9.3.2 (Goudet, 1995) based on 480 and 1260
173 permutations, respectively. The software package MICRO-CHECKER version 2.2.3 (Van
174 Oosterhout et al., 2004) using 1,000 iterations and a Bonferroni corrected 95% confidence
175 interval, was employed to test for possible null-alleles.

176

177 *Population structure, genetic differentiation and kinship*

178 We studied the genetic clustering of individual genotypes using the Bayesian algorithm
179 implemented in STRUCTURE version 2.3.4 (Falush, Stephens & Pritchard, 2003, 2007; Hubisz et
180 al., 2009; Pritchard, Stephens & Donnelly, 2000). The most likely number of genetically distinct
181 clusters (K) was estimated for each K in the range 2 to 12, allowing for sub-structuring of
182 samples. A burn-in length of 50,000 MCMCs was used to secure approximate statistical
183 stationarity, followed by a simulation run of 500,000 MCMCs using an admixture model with
184 correlated allele frequencies as recommended by Pritchard, Stephens & Donnelly (2000). No
185 location prior was used, and $\text{LnP}(D)$ values were averaged over 20 iterations. The most likely
186 value of K (number of clusters) was estimated using the ΔK method of Evanno, Regnaut &
187 Goudet (2005). To check whether the assumptions inherent in STRUCTURE were biasing our
188 genetic clustering, we also used the Bayesian genetic clustering programs BAPS version 5.2
189 (Corander et al., 2008) and INSTRUCT version 1.0 (Gao, Williamson & Bustamante, 2007), which
190 gave essentially identical results (see Additional Analysis S1, Figures S1, S2).

For more detailed population differentiation, samples were explored individually as well as in four different partitions: (a) pre-defined populations (**POP**: Răscruci dry, Răscruci wet and Șardu) which also relates to host plant use (Răscruci wet and Șardu: *G. pneumonanthe*. Răscruci dry: *G. cruciata*), (b) host ant use (**ANT**: *Myrmica scabrinodis*, *My. sabuleti*, *My. schencki* and *My. vandeli*), (c) host ant nests (**NEST**: specific nest ID within **POP**), and (d) year of sampling (**YEAR**: 2007 and 2009), the latter to test for potential temporal differences.

We studied the overall population differentiation between pre-defined populations (**POP**) calculating Weir and Cockerham's (1984) estimate of F_{ST} (θ) using FSTAT version 2.9.3.2 based on 1,000 permutations. As the magnitude of the value of θ is related to the allelic diversity at the marker loci applied, we further calculated the standardized G''_{ST} (Meirman & Hedrick, 2011), and the estimator D_{EST} (Jost, 2008) as alternative quantifications of genetic differentiation, making comparisons with studies based on other marker loci possible (Meirman & Hedrick, 2011). G''_{ST} and Jost's D_{EST} for pairs of **POP** samples were calculated using GENODIVE version 2.0 b27 (Meirmans & Van Tienderen, 2004). Hierarchical AMOVA (Analysis of Molecular Variance: Excoffier, Smouse & Quattro, 1992) was calculated for **POP**, **ANT**, **NEST**, and separately for **POP** and **YEAR** using the R-package HIERFSTAT (Goudet, 2005) with 9,999 permutations to estimate the variance components and their statistical significance. Individual-based Principal Coordinate Analysis (PCoA) with standardized covariances was employed to obtain a multivariate ordination of individual samples based on pairwise genetic distances, as implemented in the software GENALEX version 6.502 (Peakall & Smouse, 2012). The PCoA were explored for **NEST** within **ANT** within **POP** across **YEAR** using nested MANOVA based on the sum of the variances of the different coordinates, as implemented in JMP 12.02 (SAS Institute).

To examine whether the low dispersal ability of *Maculinea alcon* females could lead to high relatedness between samples of individuals collected in the same nest, pairwise measures of kinship (Loiselle et al., 1995) and relatedness (Queller & Goodnight 1989) between samples were estimated using GENODIVE and GENALEX respectively. Both of these values estimate the probability that samples share alleles by descent, based on the distribution of alleles in the whole set of samples, with possible values ranging from -1 to +1. Negative values show that the two individuals compared are less similar in the alleles they share than two randomly picked individuals. Values of kinship and relatedness were then compared between the different partitions of the data using stratified Mantel tests as implemented in GENODIVE. To further test the hypothesis that individuals found in the same nest were likely to derive from eggs laid by the same female, the program COLONY (v 2.0.6.1; Jones and Wang 2010) was used to give a maximum likelihood estimate of the probability that any two sampled individuals were likely to be either full or half siblings. Since males of *M. alcon* are much more mobile than females, who tend to oviposit in a limited area (Kőrösi et al., 2008; D R Nash, unpublished data), this was based on a mating system assuming female polygyny and male monogyny, with other parameters kept at their default values.

232 Results

233 *Host ant specificity*

234 A total of 135 *Myrmica* ant nests were found within 2 m of host gentian plants on the two sites,
 235 and 90 *Maculinea* larvae, pupae and exuviae were found in 26 infested nests (Table 2) including
 236 87 nests and 56 *Maculinea* already published in Tartally et al. (2008). Altogether four *Myrmica*
 237 species were found. Only *My. scabrinodis* was present at all sites, and was the most abundant ant
 238 species (59% of all ant colonies found). This species was used as a host on all three sites. Only a
 239 single *M. alcon* X was found in a nest of *My. scabrinodis* at Răscruci dry despite the dominance
 240 of this ant there and its frequent usage by *M. alcon* H on Răscruci wet (Fisher's exact test, $P =$
 241 0.032). The much greater exploitation rates of *My. sabuleti* and *My. schencki* led to significant
 242 overall host ant specificity at Răscruci dry (Table 2).

243

244 *Genetic diversity and inbreeding*

245 Measures of genetic diversity and F -statistics generated by FSTAT for each locus are listed in
 246 Table S2 in the supporting information. Analysis with MICRO-CHECKER revealed that Macu29
 247 had a highly significant ($P < 0.001$) excess of homozygotes and cases of non-amplification
 248 consistent with the presence of a relatively high proportion ($>20\%$) of null-alleles, and was
 249 therefore excluded from further analysis. All other loci showed no significant deviations from
 250 Hardy-Weinberg proportions. Tests for linkage disequilibrium revealed only a few sporadic
 251 significant results showing no overall pattern (Table S3), so all loci were retained in further
 252 analysis, which was thus based on 7 polymorphic loci. All three of the pre-defined populations

showed no evidence of inbreeding (Table 3), and in fact showed negative values for the inbreeding coefficient F_{IS} (meaning an excess of heterozygotes), although not significantly so (Table 3).

Population structure

STRUCTURE analysis revealed rather invariable log-likelihood values for partitioning of the data into genetic clusters, but the highest change in log-probability value was for $K = 2$, with lower maxima at $K = 4$ and $K = 10$ (Figure 1). There was a clear overall distinction between samples from Răscruci wet in one genetic group and Răscruci dry and Șardu in another group. Levels of admixture between genetic clusters were generally low, but four individuals from Răscruci wet (from two different *My. scabrinodis* nests) showed high affinity to the Răscruci dry-Șardu group, irrespective of the value of K . One individual found in a *My. sabuleti* nest at Răscruci dry (sample code: DA14) appeared genetically more similar to those from Răscruci wet. For values of K higher than 2 there was no additional partitioning between the pre-defined populations, but some substructure in Răscruci wet became apparent for $K = 3$, with two partitions that were relatively dissimilar, while for $K \geq 4$ no additional grouping of individuals was apparent (Figure 1).

Genetic differentiation

We found significant overall genetic differentiation between pre-defined populations ($\theta = 0.090$, $D_{EST} = 0.215$; Table S2). Pairwise genetic differentiation measures θ , G''_{ST} and D_{EST} were

significant for all population comparisons after Bonferroni adjustment ($P < 0.003$; Table 3). There was no evidence of inbreeding, either overall ($F_{IS} = -0.074$, Table S2), or within pre-defined populations (Table 3).

Hierarchical AMOVA (Table 4) revealed that most genetic variance (93.4%) was within individuals, but that significant variation was also explained by **POP** and **NEST**. The proportion of variation and inbreeding coefficients for individuals within **NEST** and **ANT** were both negative, indicating that there was greater heterozygosity between individuals in the same nest and between samples across different *Myrmica* species than between randomly chosen samples from the data set. Samples from different years explained only 0.12% of the genetic variance in a separate AMOVA ($P = 0.354$). The Principal Coordinate Analysis retained a total of six principal coordinates with eigenvalues greater than 1, which together explained 52% of the variance in genetic distance (13.5%, 10.3%, 8.4%, 8.0%, 7.2% and 4.5% for coordinates 1-6 respectively; see figure S3 for more details). These showed a similar result to the AMOVA where **YEAR** samples (2007 and 2009) overlapped completely in genetic ordination space ($F_{1,36} = 8.91 \times 10^{-16}$, $P = 0.999$), while samples from Răscruți wet were separated from those from Răscruți dry and Șardu (Figure 2; $F_{2,36} = 6.08$, $P = 0.005$). We found a pronounced structuring of samples when examining nests within pre-defined populations ($F_{18,36} = 3.59$, $P < 0.001$), with samples from the same nest clustering together, but there was no consistent clustering of samples from the nests of the same host ant species ($F_{3,36} = 0.887$, $P = 0.457$). The single sample from Răscruți dry that was collected from a *My. scabrinodis* nest (sample code DB15) had a first principal component that was more characteristic of samples from Răscruți wet (which all used this host ant species; figure 2), but was not assigned to this population in the Bayesian analysis (figure 1).

297 *Kinship and parentage analysis*

298 Overall pairwise relatedness of individuals (Figure 3) sampled from the same nest (0.311) was
 299 significantly higher than that of those sampled from different nests within the same site (-0.032;
 300 Stratified Mantel test: $r^2 = 0.069$, $P = <0.0001$). Looking at individual sites, the same pattern was
 301 found at both *M. alcon* H sites (Răscruci wet: within-nest relatedness = 0.32, between nests =
 302 0.10, $r^2 = 0.130$, $P = 0.0002$; Şardu: within-nest = 0.249, between nests = 0.065, $r^2 = 0.126$, $P =$
 303 0.002), but relatedness was not significantly different within and between nests at Răscruci dry
 304 (within-nest = 0.003, between nests = 0.081, $r^2 = 0.001$, $P = 0.448$). Similar results were found
 305 when analysing pairwise kinship (see figure S4 and Additional Analysis S2). Maximum-
 306 likelihood analysis using COLONY identified 38 pairs of individuals as potential full siblings
 307 (with probabilities ranging from 0.002 to 0.935; Figure 3), and 161 as potential half siblings
 308 (with probabilities ranging from 0.002 to 0.742; Figure S4). For the 21 pairs with high (>0.5)
 309 probability of being full siblings, 13 (62%) were from the same nest, six were from nests of the
 310 same ant species at the same site, and only two were from different sites, both including
 311 individual SCA86-2 from Răscruci wet, which appears closely related to two individuals (DA14
 312 and SAB67-1) from different *Myrmica* nests from Răscruci dry (Figure 3). This last result
 313 probably reflects the non-amplification of characteristic loci for these individuals (see table S1),
 314 so that they share common alleles without being related. Within sites, a high proportion of
 315 individuals from both Răscruci wet (60.4%) and Şardu (37.5%) from multiply-infested nest had
 316 individuals estimated to be full siblings in the same nest (overall 52.9%, Generalized linear
 317 model with binomial errors and Firth corrected maximum likelihood, comparing sites:
 318 Likelihood-ratio $\chi^2 = 0.73$ d.f. = 1, $P = 0.391$). However, none of the *M. alcon* X individuals

319 sharing nests at Răscruci dry were estimated to be full siblings (*M.alcon X* vs. *M.alcon H*:
320 Likelihood-ratio $\chi^2 = 9.72$, *d.f.* = 1, *P* = 0.002).

321 Although there was evidence for strong within-nest relatedness of individuals, the patterns of
322 genetic diversity and differentiation were not strongly affected by this, and were unaffected when
323 analyses were repeated with only a single individual from each nest (see table S4).

324

325

326 Discussion

327 This study gives the first comparison of the host ant specificity and genetic composition of *M.*
328 *alcon H* and *M. alcon X* within the same site.

329 The host ant specificity found in this study confirm the earlier results of Tartally et al. (2008) that
330 these populations use the typical host ants found in other Central European studies (Höttinger,
331 Schlick-Steiner & Steiner, 2003; Sielezniew & Stankiewicz, 2004; Steiner et al., 2003; Tartally
332 et al., 2008; Witek et al., 2008). *M. alcon H* was found exclusively with *My. scabrinodis* at
333 Răscruci wet and also with *My. vandeli* at Șardu, but *M. alcon X* was found mainly with *My.*
334 *sabuleti* and *My. schencki* at Răscruci dry. Interestingly only one *M. alcon X* was found with *My.*
335 *scabrinodis*, despite this *Myrmica* species being the most numerous at Răscruci dry (Table 2) and
336 being the main host of *M. alcon X* in two other sites in the Carpathian-Basin (Tartally et al.,
337 2008). *My. scabrinodis* usage could therefore be a potential link between the *M. alcon H* and *M.*
338 *alcon X* populations at Răscruci (and probably in some other regions), but *M. alcon X* shows a
339 clear separation from the *M. alcon H* in the proportional usage of this host ant. The background
340 of this separation in the host ant specificity of *M. alcon H* and *M. alcon X* at Răscruci is not
341 clear, but could reflect the dynamic arms race between the different genetic lineages of *M. alcon*
342 and local host ants (Nash et al., 2008).

343 Our genetic results (Figures 1, 2) show strong genetic differentiation between *M. alcon H* and *M.*
344 *alcon X* at Răscruci, indicating limited gene flow between these two groups, although it is
345 interesting to note that a few individuals had genotypes more characteristic of the other
346 population. This differentiation is likely due to separation in time rather than space because of
347 the different phenology of the host plants, which results in largely non-overlapping flying

seasons of *M. alcon H* and *M. alcon X* (Timuş et al., 2013). This may be reinforced by lowered fitness of any hybrid individuals that would emerge during the approximately 2-week gap when neither host plant is suitable for oviposition.

The lowest level of between-population differentiation, on the other hand, was between *M. alcon X* from Răscruçi and *M. alcon H* from Şardu, and Bayesian population assignment suggests that these are so similar that they have almost certainly been part of a single population. This supports previous findings of no overall phylogenetic differentiation between the two forms of *M. alcon* (Als et al., 2004; Fric et al., 2007; Ugelvig et al., 2011b), and that the two forms tend to be more genetically similar regionally than either is to more distant populations that use the same host plant (Bereczki et al., 2005; Bereczki, Pecsénye & Varga, 2006; Pecsénye et al., 2007). Hence the two forms cannot be regarded as host races (Drès & Mallet, 2002), since they do not fulfil the criterion of spatial and temporal replicability. Genetic analysis of several Polish and Lithuanian *M. alcon* populations using microsatellite markers (Sielezniew et al., 2012) gave similar results to ours (Figures 1, 2) in that there was no clear pattern reflecting genetic division into two ecotypes. Sielezniew et al. also found that the *M. alcon X* ecotype was less polymorphic, and its populations more differentiated than those of the *M. alcon H* ecotype. Their data also suggest that *M. alcon H* populations form a single clade but *M. alcon X* can be split into more clades, suggesting that *M. alcon H* is an ancestral form and that *M. alcon X* represents a group of independently evolved *M. alcon H* populations that have switched to use dryer habitats with the locally available *Gentiana* and *Myrmica* species. They propose that the background of this pattern may be independent specialisations on different host ant species, since in their study clades of *M. alcon X* largely reflected host ant use. However, we find no evidence of genetic differentiation associated with host-ant usage at Răscruçi or Şardu (Figures 1, 2, 3), and no

difference in genetic diversity in populations of the two ecotypes (table 3). Due to the relatively large distances and potential barriers between Răscruci and Șardu it is unlikely that there has been recent gene-flow between the two sites, which suggests that Răscruci was likely colonized at least twice from two different gene pools, and that the ancestors of the Răscruci wet population are no longer locally extant (or have evaded detection).

The higher within-nest than between-nest relatedness between individuals of *M. alcon H* is consistent with observations of limited dispersal of ovipositing females (Körösi et al., 2008) which is likely to lead to substantial within-population substructure between nests, as found here. The additional grouping of individuals from $K=2$ to $K=4$ in our population assignment analysis groups families of relatives within populations. Our parentage analysis confirms the relatively high probability that *M. alcon H* caterpillars infesting the same *Myrmica* nest are relatives, and in around 50% of cases may be full siblings. The lack of any association between relatedness and infestation of nests for *M. alcon X* from the Răscruci dry site is consistent with the difference in oviposition strategy and mobility of butterflies from this population compared with those from the Răscruci wet site (Czekes et al., 2014; Timuş et al., 2013).

Given the small size of these *M. alcon* populations (Timuş et al., 2013) and their low dispersal (Körösi et al. 2008), it is interesting to note that there is no evidence of inbreeding among the individuals that we examined, and that estimated inbreeding coefficients (F_{IS} and G_{IS}) were negative. This means that individuals were more heterozygous than expected if mating were random (albeit not significantly so), which is probably a result of difference in mating strategy of males and females. Males are highly mobile, and tend to patrol a large area while seeking females, whereas females are rather sedentary, and are often mated immediately after emerging from the *Myrmica* nest in which they developed, and then go on to lay eggs on host plants

relatively close by (Kőrösi et al., 2008). This means that females are unlikely to be related to their mates, and may in fact be less related to them than to a randomly chosen male, because males pupate and emerge several days before females (Meyer-Hozak, 2000). This, together with the observation that caterpillars that develop in the same *Myrmica* nest may be offspring of the same female, can easily lead to the negative inbreeding indices observed both overall, and for individuals within *Myrmica* nests and host ant species within pre-defined populations within our hierarchical AMOVA.

Regardless of its origin, it is clear that the *M. alcon* *X* population at Răscruci is ecologically highly differentiated from the local *M. alcon* *H* populations in terms of its host plant and host ant use, as well as in its behaviour (Czekes et al., 2014; Timuş et al., 2013). The pattern of differentiation we see is not that typically associated with speciation via host race formation (Drès & Mallet, 2002), since the two forms do not fulfil the criterion of spatial and temporal replicability (i.e. “are more genetically differentiated from populations on another host in sympatry (and at the same time) than at least some geographically distant populations on the same host”; Drès & Mallet, 2002, p. 473-4). *M. alcon* *X* cannot, therefore, represent an evolutionarily significant unit in conservation terms as usually defined, but we would argue that it should still be regarded as a functional conservation unit (Casacci, Barbero & Balletto, 2013). The site at Răscruci represents the only known area where both forms of *M. alcon* occur syntopically, and so is of particular value to research on speciation, and has great potential for examining adaptation at non-neutral genetic markers. This is enhanced by the occurrence of two other *Maculinea* species on the same site; *M. teleius* Bergsträsser (Tartally & Varga, 2008) and *M. nausithous kijevensis* Sheljuzhko (Rákossy et al., 2010; Tartally & Varga, 2008), as well as the *Myrmica* parasites *Microdon myrmicae* Schönrogge et al. (Diptera: Syrphidae; Bonelli et al.,

417 2011) and *Rickia wasmannii* Cava (Ascomycota: Laboulbeniales; Tartally, Szűcs & Ebsen,
 418 2007). The *Maculinea* spp. parasitoid *Ichneumon eumerus* Wesmael (Hymenoptera:
 419 Ichneumonidae) is also present (Tartally, 2008). Most of these species are also found at Şardu
 420 (except *M.alcon X* and *M. nausithous*: Tartally, 2008). It should be emphasized that all of these
 421 species can be found in the nests of, and ultimately depend on, *My. scabrinodis* (as well as other
 422 *Myrmica* species: see Witek, Barbero & Markó (2014) for a review), providing a unique
 423 opportunity to examine a complex set of parasitic interactions revolving around a single keystone
 424 ant species.

425

426

Conclusion

Our analysis of *Maculinea alcon* from a unique site where both the xerophilous and hygrophilous forms of this butterfly are found within tens of meters of each other has demonstrated strong genetic differentiation between the two forms. However, the xerophilous form was not significantly differentiated from the next closest known population of the hygrophilous form. This supports other recent work suggesting that the hygrophilous and xerophilous forms are not separate species or even subspecies, and that the name *M. rebeli* has frequently been applied to the xerophilous form incorrectly. There is some overlap in host ant species use between the two forms, so the most likely proximate reason for the local genetic differentiation found is differences in host plant phenology. We suggest that since the two different forms of *M. alcon* do not have a separate evolutionary history, they cannot be regarded as “evolutionarily significant units” for conservation as the term was originally used (Bowen & Roman, 2005; Casacci, Barbero & Balletto, 2013). However, since they represent current ecological diversification of the group, and may have different evolutionary potentials (e.g. through selection on different enzyme systems; Bereczki et al., 2015), they should continue to be treated as separate management units for long-term conservation (Bowen & Roman, 2005; Casacci, Barbero & Balletto, 2013). Hence we support the continued separation of the two forms in future studies to further explore their evolutionary trajectories and conservation potential.

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Table 1(on next page)

Details of microsatellites used in this study

SR = product size range (base pairs), T_A = Annealing Temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$), Primer dye and Multiplex group, N_a = Number of alleles. Ref. = Reference source (U11 = Ugelvig et al. 2011a, U12 = Ugelvig et al. 2012, New = This study). Primer concentration in the PCR mix is given below the table.

1

Primer	SSR motif	Primer sequences 5' - 3'	SR	T _A	Dye and Multiplex	N _a	Genbank accession	Ref.
Macu20	(CT) _n (AT) _n (CT) _n	F: TGGCCCGATTTCCTCTAAAC R: TGCGTGTTTATTTTCATTTTAACAG	92-122	57	Fam 1	9	HM535963	U12
Macu26	(CA) _n	F: CTCCCGGGATAGCATTGAC R: CATTGTGCGGGTCGTAATTC	92-128	57	Ned 2	7	HM535964	U12
Macu28	(CA) _n (CGCA) _n (CA) _n	F: TTTTAATCAAAATCGGTTTCATCC R: TCAACCACAAAGCAAGTGAGTC	195-223	57	Fam2	12	KT851400	New
Macu29	(TC) _n	F: AAACGCGCTTATGGCTAAAC R: CGGTATGTCCCGTTACATCG	81-143	57	Vic 3	15	KT851401	New
Macu30	(TG) _n	F: GACGCGCTGTTATGTATTGC R: CGTCTAGCGTGACCGTAACA	93-109	57	Pet 4	5	HM586096	U11
Macu31	(GTA) _n (GTC) _n (GTA) _n	F: GTTCTGTCCCCGAACTAGG R: AAACCTGGGATTGGTTAAAAAC	110-173	62	Ned 5	5	HM586097	U11
Macu40	(CA) _n (GA) _n (CA) _n (GA) _n (CA) _n (GA) _n (CA) _n	F: CCGTTTGGGAGATACGATGT R: CGCGTGTGCGTATATGTGAT	110-220	57	Pet 1	-	KT851402	New
Macu44	(AC) _n	F: ATAAGTCAGCACGTCAAAGCTG R: TGCAAATACTCCGAATAAATAACTG	170-220	57	Ned 3	10	HM535965	U12
Macu45	(AC) _n (GC) _n (AC) _n	F: TGTGTGACTGCGGTTCTTATC R: TGTAATCGCAGGAGAGATGTG	145-217	57	Vic 4	20	HM535966	U12

2 Primer concentration in PCR mix: 0.1 ng/μl: Macu20, Macu26, Macu 29, Macu30; 0.2 ng/μl: Macu 28, Macu 31, Macu 40, Macu 44, Macu 45

3

Table 2 (on next page)

Details of sampled *Myrmica* nests

The number of nests found within 2 m of gentians at each site, their infection with *M. alcon* *H* or *M. alcon* *X*, the number of individual *M. alcon* used for genetic analysis (“Genetic samples”: listed in table S1), and statistical tests of host ant specificity within each site: *P1* = probability from Fisher exact test and *P2* = probability from a randomization test of ant nests between species. Significant *P*-values ($P < 0.05$) are marked in bold.

1

Site	<i>Maculinea</i>	<i>Myrmica</i>	N ^o . nests	N ^o . with <i>M.alcon</i>	<i>P1</i>	N ^o . of <i>M.alcon</i>	Range	<i>P2</i>	Genetic samples
Răscruci dry	<i>alcon X</i>	<i>sabuleti</i>	10	5	0.004	17	1-8	0.002	13
		<i>schencki</i>	6	2		18	1-15		5
		<i>scabrinodis</i>	23	1		1			1
Răscruci wet	<i>alcon H</i>	<i>scabrinodis</i>	31	9	-	30	1-7	-	28
Răscruci both	both	as above			0.078			0.021	
Șardu	<i>alcon H</i>	<i>vandeli</i>	27	2	0.147	9	2-7	0.495	2
		<i>scabrinodis</i>	38	7		15	1-4		11

2

Table 3 (on next page)

Pairwise differentiation between, and inbreeding and genetic diversity within pre-defined populations

Values above the diagonal in the matrix (with blue background) are θ (F_{ST}), values along the diagonal (with green background) are F_{IS} , values below the diagonal (with yellow background) are G''_{ST} / D_{EST} . Values in bold differ significantly from zero ($P < 0.001$). Below the matrix are mean values ($\pm SE$) of four different measures of within-population genetic diversity. The effective number of alleles per locus (A_E), the observed heterozygosity (H_O), the expected heterozygosity (H_E) and the unbiased expected heterozygosity (uH_E). P -values for comparisons between pre-defined populations based on mixed model comparison across loci are shown on the right.

1

	Răscruci dry	Răscruci wet	Şardu
Răscruci dry	-0.050	0.093	0.059
Răscruci wet	0.302 / 0.255	-0.106	0.103
Şardu	0.207 / 0.151	0.330 / 0.221	-0.052

P

A_E	4.000 ± 0.606	3.365 ± 0.418	4.594 ± 0.909	0.131
H_O	0.707 ± 0.067	0.717 ± 0.056	0.733 ± 0.090	0.944
H_E	0.707 ± 0.046	0.674 ± 0.034	0.709 ± 0.063	0.781
uH_E	0.729 ± 0.048	0.687 ± 0.035	0.738 ± 0.066	0.613

2

Table 4(on next page)

Hierarchical Analysis of Molecular Variance

Calculated using HierFStat (Goudet, 2005). The *F*-coefficient gives the estimated inbreeding coefficient (excess of homozygotes) at each hierarchical level. *P*-values are based on 1000 re-samplings of the data.

1

Source	d.f.	Variance component	%variance	<i>F</i> -coefficient	<i>P</i>
Between POP	2	0.577	10.6	0.106	0.027
ANT within POP	3	-0.257	-4.7	-0.053	0.956
NEST within ANT	18	0.609	11.2	0.119	<0.001
Individuals within NEST	36	-0.569	-10.5	-0.126	>0.999
Within Individuals	60	5.067	93.4		
Total	119	5.427			

2

3

4

5 Figure legends

6 **Figure 1: Site layout and Bayesian clustering of samples. A)** Map showing the relative

7 position of the two sample sites. Shaded areas in the detailed map correspond to 50 m contour

8 lines. **B)** Initial food plants of the hygic (*G. pneumonanthe*) and xeric (*G. cruciata*) forms of

9 *Maculinea alcon*. Images modified from WikiMedia commons. **C)** Posterior probabilities of the

10 number of clusters (K) identified by the Bayesian population assignment program Structure. The

11 solid line shows the mean posterior probability for each value of K, with error bars representing

12 the standard deviation across simulations. The dashed line shows the ΔK values of the posterior

13 probabilities from Structure using the method of Evanno, Regnaut & Goudet (2005) shown

14 relative to the maximum value of ΔK . Peaks in the value of ΔK may represent different levels of

15 population substructure. **D)** Comparison of genetic clustering of samples into two and four

16 groups using the Bayesian clustering program STRUCTURE without a location prior. Each column

17 represents an individual, and is divided according to its probability of membership of cluster 1

18 (orange), 2 (blue), 3 (black) or 4 (green).

19

20 **Figure 2: Ordination of samples based on principal coordinate analysis.** Each symbol

21 represents an individual, coloured according to its pre-defined population (blue = Răscruci wet,

22 orange = Răscruci dry, purple = Șardu). Coloured lines are convex hulls enclosing all samples

23 from each pre-defined population, while coloured regions are convex hulls enclosing samples

24 collected from the same nest. The single individual (sample DB15) collected from a *My.*

25 *scabrinodis* nest at Răscruci dry is shown with a larger symbol.

Figure 3: Relatedness and parentage analysis of samples. The pairwise matrix show the estimated Queller & Goodnight (1989) relatedness of each pair of individuals (excluding those with negative relatedness) above the diagonal, and the probability that each pair are full siblings based on maximum likelihood estimates from COLONY (Jones & Wang, 2010) below the diagonal. Comparisons between samples from the same pre-defined population are shaded according to the same colour scheme as Figure 2 (blue = Răscruci wet, orange = Răscruci dry, purple = Şardu). Individuals sharing the same ant nest are outlined with lines in these same colours, and those sharing the same *Myrmica* species as host are outlines with black lines. The area and shade of each data point is proportional to the relatedness or probability of being full siblings for that pair of individuals.

Figure 1(on next page)

Site layout and Bayesian clustering of samples

A) Map showing the relative position of the two sample sites. Shaded areas in the detailed map correspond to 50 m contour lines. **B)** Initial food plants of the hygic (*G. pneumonanthe*) and xeric (*G. cruciata*) forms of *Maculinea alcon*. Images modified from WikiMedia commons. **C)** Posterior probabilities of the number of clusters (K) identified by the Bayesian population assignment program Structure. The solid line shows the mean posterior probability for each value of K, with error bars representing the standard deviation across simulations. The dashed line shows the ΔK values of the posterior probabilities from Structure using the method of Evanno, Regnaut & Goudet (2005) shown relative to the maximum value of ΔK . Peaks in the value of ΔK may represent different levels of population substructure. **D)** Comparison of genetic clustering of samples into two and four groups using the Bayesian clustering program Structure without a location prior. Each column represents an individual, and is divided according to its probability of membership of cluster 1 (orange), 2 (blue), 3 (dark purple) 4 (green), or 5-10 (other colours).

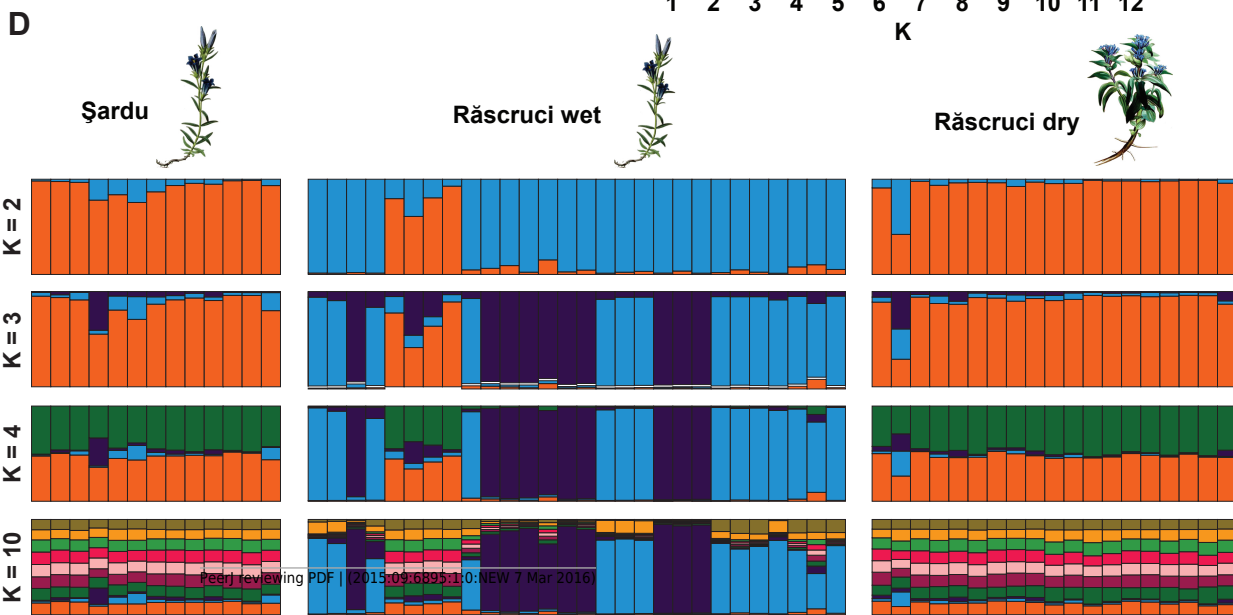
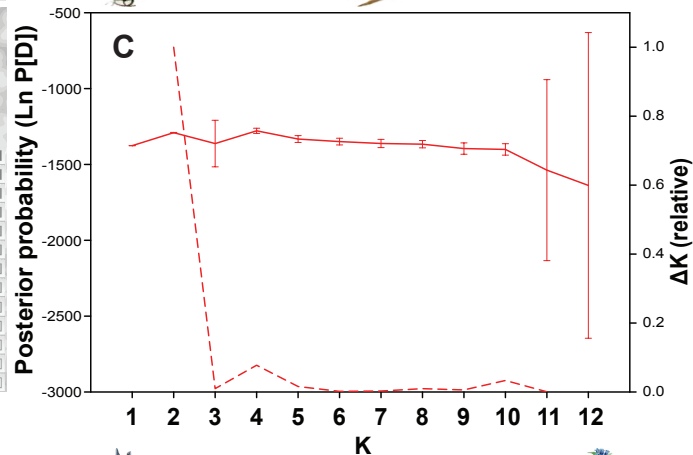
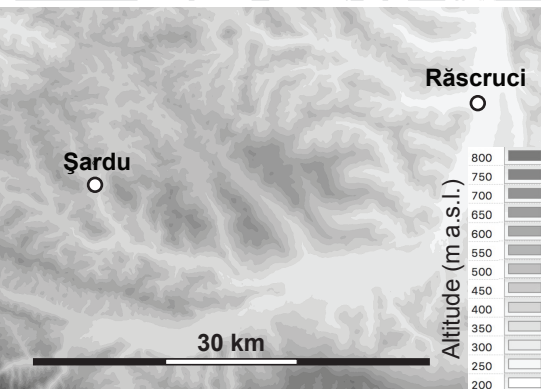


Figure 2 (on next page)

Ordination of samples based on principal coordinate analysis

Each symbol represents an individual, coloured according to its pre-defined population (blue = Răscruci wet, orange = Răscruci dry, purple = Şardu). Coloured lines are convex hulls enclosing all samples from each pre-defined population, while coloured regions are convex hulls enclosing samples collected from the same nest. The single individual (sample DB15) collected from a *My. scabrinodis* nest at Răscruci dry is shown with a larger symbol.

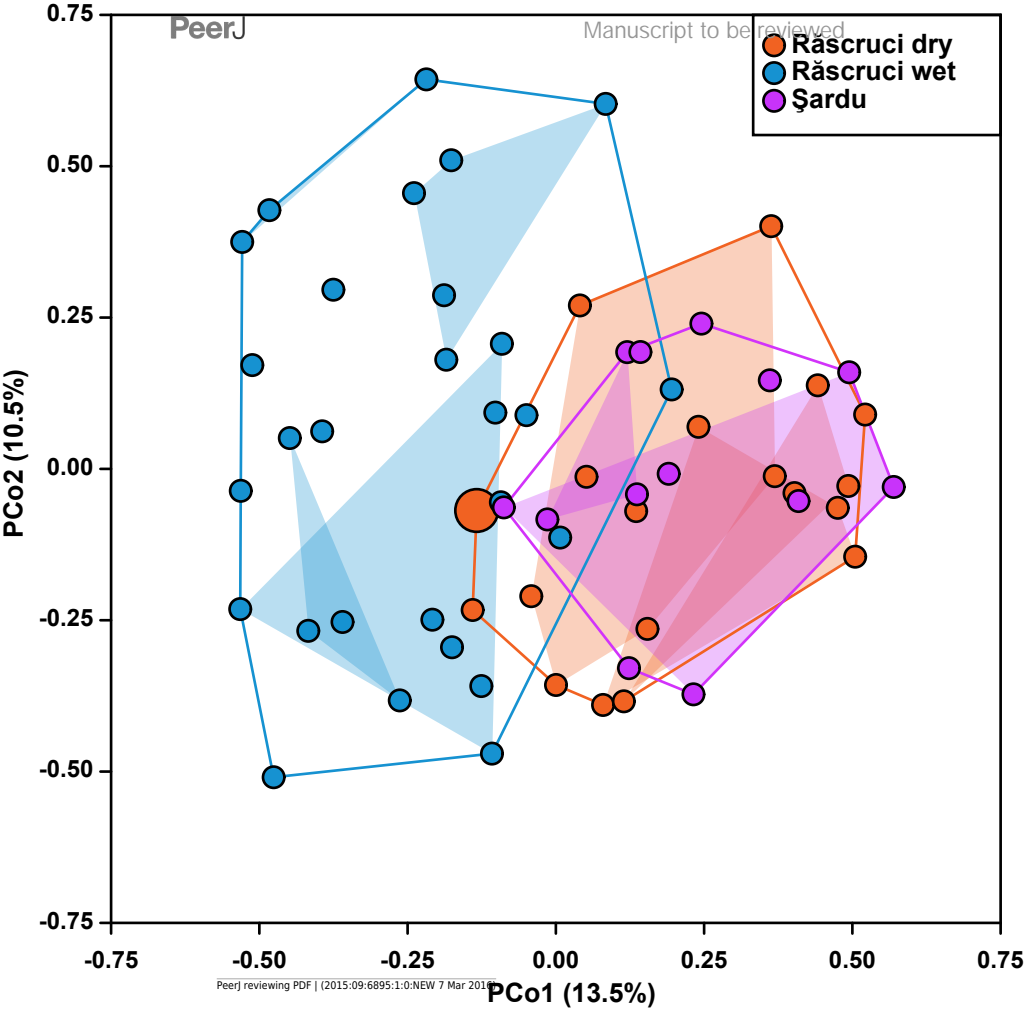


Figure 3(on next page)

Relatedness and parentage analysis of samples

The pairwise matrix show the estimated Queller & Goodnight (1989) relatedness of each pair of individuals (excluding those with negative relatedness) above the diagonal, and the probability that each pair are full siblings based on maximum likelihood estimates from Colony (Jones & Wang, 2010) below the diagonal. Comparisons between samples from the same pre-defined population are shaded according to the same colour scheme as Figure 2 (blue = Răscruci wet, orange = Răscruci dry, purple = Şardu). Individuals sharing the same ant nest are outlined with lines in these same colours, and those sharing the same *Myrmica* species as host are outlines with black lines. The area and shade of each data point is proportional to the relatedness or probability of being full siblings for that pair of individuals.

