IMPLICATIONS OF FOREST MANAGEMENT TECHNIQUES FOR BIODIVERSITY, SPECIES AND ECOSYSTEM DIVERSITY, AMONG LEPIDOPTERA IN PLANTED AND NATURALLY REGENERATED JACK PINE STANDS

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Submitted to the Faculty

of

Graduate Studies

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by

Brent Gordon Elliott

In Partial Fulfilment of the

Requirements for the Degree

of

Master of Science

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Ьy

BRENT GORDON ELLIOTT

A Thesis/Practicum submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies of The University

of Manitoba in partial fulfillment of the requirements of the degree

MASTER of SCIENCE

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Abstract

Elliott, B.G., M.Sc., The University of Manitoba, 1997.

Implications of Forest Management Techniques for Biodiversity, Species and Ecosystem

Diversity, Among Lepidoptera in Planted and Naturally Regenerated Jack Pine Stands.

Major Professor: N. J. Holliday

In 1993 and 1994, butterflies and moths were collected in planted and naturally regenerated stands of jack pine, *Pinus banksiana* Lamb., of four different age classes, 5, 15, 25 and 40 years after establishment. Butterflies were collected by netting while walking a prescribed transect through each site, and with a single bait trap at the centre of each site. Bait consisted of a fermenting mixture of beer, rotting fruit and molasses. Moths were collected using a single battery powered ultraviolet light trap at the centre of each site. Species diversity (α) was measured using the log series α index. Ecosystem diversity was measured using Sorenson's coefficient and Kendall's τ rank correlation coefficient. Ordination analysis was conducted on both groups of Lepidoptera, vegetation species and environmental data: light intensity, coefficient of variation of light intensity, air temperature, tree density and coefficient of variation of tree density. Principal Components Analysis and Canonical Correspondence Analysis (CCA) were used to analyse the vegetation data. Correspondence Analysis and CCA were used to analyse the butterfly and moth data.

Ordination analysis of vegetation species indicates that young stands were dominated by members of the Graminaceae including *Koeleria gracilis* Pers. and *Poa compressa* L. Intermediate aged stands retained some Graminaceae but are dominated by

the lichens Cladina mitis (Sandst.) Hale & Culb. and Cladina rangiferina (L.) Harm. The oldest stands were dominated by cool, dark adapted species including Maianthemum canadense Desf. and the moss Pleurozium schreberi (Brid.) Mitt.

Number of individuals for the butterflies was not significantly affected by any of stand age, regeneration type or the interaction of stand age with regeneration type in either 1993 or 1994. The number of species was significantly affected only by stand age in 1993. Species diversity of butterflies, as represented by the log series α index, were significantly affected by regeneration type and the interaction of regeneration type and stand age in one of the two years of the study. The same trend was observed in both years. Butterflies showed a preference for intermediate aged stands. Diversity was highest in the two intermediate age classes, but peaked in the 15 year age class for the planted stands, and in the 25 year age class, for the natural stands. This shift may be an effect of planting. Ordination analysis of the butterflies indicated that there was a shift from open-habitat preferring species, including *Cercyonis pegala* (Fabricius), to forest dwelling species, including *Enodia anthedon* (A. H. Clark), as degree of canopy closure increased. Butterflies are closely linked to their food plants and ordination analysis indicated that butterfly species were generally found near their hosts. Ordination analysis did not reveal any effects of planting on the assemblage of butterflies.

Measures of β diversity indicated that planted stands and naturally regenerated stands did not significantly differ for the butterflies. In one year the planted stands were significantly more similar, when determined using Kendall's τ rank correlation measure, but this pattern was not consistent.

Number of individuals for the moths was significantly affected by stand age in 1993 and by all of stand age, regeneration type and the interaction of stand age and regeneration type in 1994. The number of species was significantly affected by stand age in 1993 and by all of stand age, regeneration type and the interaction of stand age and regeneration type in 1994. Alpha diversity of moths was significantly affected by stand age in both years of the study. Neither regeneration type nor the interaction of regeneration type with stand age had a statistically significant effect on moth α diversity. The effect of stand age differed from that observed with the butterflies. For the moths, number of individuals, number of species, and α diversity increased with increasing stand age. The same trend was observed in both years and this may be an effect of the planting. Moths were not associated with patchy habitats as were the butterflies. Ordination analysis of the moths indicated that unlike the butterflies, moths were not generally found in association with their foodplants. There was no clear shift in dominant moth species indicated by ordination analysis. Ordination analysis did not reveal any effects of planting on the assemblage of moths.

Measures of β diversity indicated that planted stands and naturally regenerated stands did not significantly differ for the moths. When measured using Sørenson's coefficient, β diversity decreased with increasing stand age in both planted and naturally regenerated stands.

Table of Contents

Acknowledgements
Abstract iii
List of Tables ix
List of Figures
List of Appendices xvii
Introduction
REVIEW OF LITERATURE 4
Successional processes and disturbance
Diversity 5
Components of Diversity
Effects of Disturbances on Ecological Diversity
Boreal forest characteristics
Successional processes in the boreal forest
Diversity patterns in the boreal forest
Biology of Lepidoptera
Comparative biology of butterflies and moths
Sampling methods for Lepidoptera
Methods of community analysis
Diversity Measures
Measurement of species diversity
Alpha Diversity Indices
Beta Diversity Indices
Ordination Analysis
MATERIAL CAND METRODS
MATERIALS AND METHODS
General study area description
Experimental Design
Site description
Vegetation Sampling
Environmental measurement
Weather
Light Intensity

	vi	i
Sampling	of Lepidoptera	5
	tterflies	
	Transect sampling	
	Bait Traps	
M	oths	
TATO		
Data A sal	Light traps	
Data Anar	ysis	r
RESULTS	30)
Environme	ental and vegetational factors)
Te	mperature)
Lig	ght Intensity	!
•	getation	
	Principal Components Analysis of vegetation species	
	Canonical Correspondence Analysis - Vegetation species and	
	environmental variables	j
Butterflies		
	mber of butterfly species and individuals collected	
	tterfly α diversity	
	tterfly β diversity	
Of	dination analysis of butterfly species	
	Correspondence Analysis	,
	foodplants	
	Canonical Correspondence Analysis - Butterflies and environmental	
	variables	
Moths		
	mber of moth species and number of individuals collected 43	
	oth α diversity	
	oth β diversity	
Or	dination analysis of moth species	
	Correspondence analysis	į
	Canonical Correspondence Analysis - Moths with their	
	foodplants	í
	Canonical Correspondence Analysis - Moths and environmental	
	variables	ı
DISCUSSION		<u> </u>
	ips of regeneration type and stand age to physical habitat	1
	racteristics	,
		j
	ips of regeneration type and stand age to Lepidoptera species	
	nposition	
	tterflies	
Mo	oths	J

	viii
Controlling factors affecting Lepidoptera alpha and beta diversity	196
CONCLUSIONS	201
LITERATURE CITED	203

List of Tables

		Page
Table 1.	Site description, location, plantation size and soil series	50
Table 2.	Maximum, minimum, daytime and night time mean temperatures (°C).	51
Table 3.	Light intensity, tree density and dominant ground vegetation within the study sites	52
Table 4.	Dominant butterfly and skipper species for 1993	53
Table 5.	Dominant butterfly and skipper species for 1994	54
Table 6.	Butterfly and skipper species distribution by family within all sites (1993 and 1994)	55
Table 7.	Butterfly and skipper species distribution by feeding strategy within all sites (1993 and 1994)	56
Table 8.	Dominant moth species for 1993 and 1994	. 57
Table 9.	Moth species distribution by family within all sites (1993 and 1994)	58
Table 10.	Moth species distribution by feeding strategy within all sites (1993 and 1994)	. 59

List of Figures

	Page
Figure 1.	Location of the study sites in the Sandilands Provincial Forest, located in southeastern Manitoba. Sites are represented by (•). Code description for sites may be found in Table 1. (Map obtained from Surveys and Mapping Branch, Department of Energy, Mines and Resources, Ottawa, Canada)
Figure 2.	Schematic representation of light intensity sampling pattern within study plots in the Sandilands Provincial Forest. Each X represents the location within the site where a single measurement of light intensity was taken. The scales represent the dimensions of the one hectare plot and are in ten metre increments. Direction was measured from east to west and north to south
Figure 3.	Schematic diagram of a Luminoc® (Biocom, 1992) light trap used for collection of moths. (modified from Biocom, 1992)
Figure 4.	Monthly totals of precipitation (mm) in 1993 () and 1994 () at the Winnipeg International Airport for the months of April through September. Data obtained from Environment Canada monthly summaries
Figure 5.	Monthly totals of bright sunshine (hours) in 1993 (▲—) and 1994 (■—) at the Winnipeg International Airport for the months of April through September
Figure 6.	Monthly mean temperature (°C) in 1993 (▲—) and 1994 (■) at the Winnipeg International Airport for the months of April through September
Figure 7.	Mean daytime air temperatures at a height of one metre in 5 year old (●—), 15 year old (▲—), 25 year old (▼—) and 40 year old (■—) planted and naturally regenerated stands located in the Sandilands Provincial Forest. Time is expressed in weeks starting with "week 1", which corresponds to the week of April 25, 1995
Figure 8.	Mean 24 hour air temperature at a height of one metre in 5 year old (●—), 15 year old (♠—), 25 year old (♥—) and 40 year old (■—) planted and naturally regenerated stands located in the Sandilands Provincial Forest. Time is expressed in weeks starting with "week 1", which corresponds to the week of April 25, 1995

Figure 9.	Mean daytime air temperature at a height of one metre, in planted (\(\bigcap\)) and naturally regenerated (\(\bigcap\)) stands of the four age classes for stands located in the Sandilands Provincial Forest. Time is expressed in weeks starting with "week 1", which corresponds to the week of April 25, 1995
Figure 10.	Mean 24 hour air temperatures at a height of one metre, in planted (■—) and naturally regenerated (▲—) stands of the four age classes located in the Sandilands Provincial Forest. Time is expressed in weeks starting with "week 1", which corresponds to the week of April 25, 1995
Figure 11.	The effects of stand age on mean light intensity (lux) at a height of 2 m in planted (\(\bigcap_{} \)) and naturally regenerated (\(\bigcap_{} \)) stands in 1994 80
Figure 12.	The effects of stand age on the mean coefficient of variation of light intensity in planted () and naturally regenerated () stands in 1994
Figure 13.	The effects of stand age on mean tree density (trees per 100 m²) in planted (■—) and naturally regenerated (▲—) stands
Figure 14.	The effects of stand age on the coefficient of variation within sites of tree density in planted (■) and naturally regenerated (▲) stands
Figure 15.	The effects of stand age on the mean number of ground vegetation species sampled in planted (■) and naturally regenerated (▲) stands in 1993
Figure 16.	The effects of stand age on the mean number of ground vegetation species sampled in planted (18) and naturally regenerated (18) stands in 1994
Figure 17.	Ground vegetation data (1993). PCA ordination diagram with site scores (\spadesuit) and species scores (\spadesuit); first axis (horizontal) has an eigenvalue of 0.337 = 33.7 % and the second axis, (vertical) has an eigenvalue of 0.165 = 16.5%
Figure 18.	Ground vegetation data (1994). PCA ordination diagram with site scores (\spadesuit) and species scores (\spadesuit); first axis (horizontal) has an eigenvalue of $0.324 = 32.4\%$ and the second axis, (vertical) has an eigenvalue of $0.187 = 18.7\%$

Figure 19.	Ground vegetation and environmental data (1993). CCA ordination diagram with site scores (♠), species scores (♠) and environmental variables (arrows); first axis (horizontal) has an eigenvalue of 0.212 = 21.5% and the second axis (vertical) has an eigenvalue of 0.021 = 2.1%
Figure 20.	Ground vegetation and environmental data (1994). CCA ordination diagram with site scores (♠), species scores (♠) and environmental variables (arrows); first axis (horizontal) has an eigenvalue of 0.238 = 20.2% and the second axis (vertical) has an eigenvalue of 0.018 = 1.5%
Figure 21.	The effects of stand age on the mean number of butterflies and skippers collected per site in planted (■—) and naturally regenerated (▲—) stands in 1993
Figure 22.	The effects of stand age on the mean number of butterflies and skippers collected per site in planted (■) and naturally regenerated (▲) stands in 1994
Figure 23.	The effects of stand age on the mean number of butterfly and skippers species collected in planted (■—) and naturally regenerated (▲—) stands in 1993
Figure 24.	The effects of stand age on the mean number of butterfly and skippers species collected in planted (■) and naturally regenerated (▲) stands in 1994
Figure 25.	The effects of stand age on the Berger Parker index of dominance for butterflies and skippers collected in planted (11) and naturally regenerated (11) stands in 1993
Figure 26.	The effects of stand age on the Berger Parker index of dominance for butterflies and skippers collected in planted (and naturally regenerated (stands in 1994
Figure 27.	The effects of stand age on the log series α index for butterflies and skippers in planted (■) and naturally regenerated (▲—) stands in 1993
Figure 28.	The effects of stand age on the log series α index for butterflies and skippers in planted (■) and naturally regenerated (▲) stands in 1994

Figure 29.	The effects of stand age on Kendall's τ index of similarity for butterflies and skippers in planted (12) and naturally regenerated (12) stands in 1993
Figure 30.	The effects of stand age on Kendall's τ index of similarity for butterflies and skippers in planted (■—) and naturally regenerated (▲—) stands in 1994
Figure 31.	The effects of stand age on Sørenson's coefficient of similarity for butterflies and skippers in planted (12) and naturally regenerated (12) stands in 1993
Figure 32.	The effects of stand age on Sørenson's coefficient of similarity for butterflies and skippers in planted (■—) and naturally regenerated (▲—) stands in 1994
Figure 33.	Butterfly and skipper data (1993). CA ordination diagram with site scores (♠) and species scores (♠); first axis (horizontal) has an eigenvalue of 0.225 = 20.1% and the second axis, (vertical) has an eigenvalue of 0.179 = 15.9%
Figure 34.	Butterfly and skipper data with 5 year old sites removed (1993). CA ordination diagram with site scores (\spadesuit) and species scores (\spadesuit); first axis (horizontal) has an eigenvalue of $0.156 = 31.1\%$ and the second axis, (vertical) has an eigenvalue of $0.102 = 20.3\%$
Figure 35.	Butterfly and skipper data (1994). CA ordination diagram with site scores (♠) and species scores (♠); first axis (horizontal) has an eigenvalue of 0.268 = 27.6% and the second axis, (vertical) has an eigenvalue of 0.138 = 14.3%
Figure 36.	Butterfly and skipper data with 5 year old sites removed (1994). CA ordination diagram with site scores (\spadesuit) and species scores (\spadesuit); first axis (horizontal) has an eigenvalue of 0.186 = 38.2% and the second axis, (vertical) has an eigenvalue of 0.116 = 24.0%
Figure 37.	Butterfly, skipper and vegetation data (1993). CCA ordination diagram with site scores (♠), butterfly species scores (♠) and environmental variables (arrows); first axis (horizontal) has an eigenvalue of 0.189 = 35.6% and the second axis (vertical) has an eigenvalue of

Figure 38.	Butterfly, skipper and vegetation data (1994). CCA ordination diagram with site scores (♠), butterfly species scores (♠) and environmental variables (arrows); first axis (horizontal) has an eigenvalue of 0.189 = 35.6% and the second axis (vertical) has an eigenvalue of 0.083 = 15.6%
Figure 39.	Butterfly, skipper and environmental data (1993). CCA ordination diagram with site scores (\spadesuit), species scores (\spadesuit) and environmental variables (arrows); first axis (horizontal) has an eigenvalue of 0.083 = 16.5% and the second axis (vertical) has an eigenvalue of 0.068 = 13.5%
Figure 40.	Butterfly, skipper and environmental data (1994). CCA ordination diagram with site scores (\spadesuit) , species scores (\clubsuit) and environmental variables (arrows); first axis (horizontal) has an eigenvalue of $0.116 = 23.9\%$ and the second axis (vertical) has an eigenvalue of $0.033 = 6.8\%$
Figure 41.	The effects of stand age on mean number of moths collected per site in planted (■) and naturally regenerated (▲) stands in 1993
Figure 42.	The effects of stand age on mean number of moths collected per site in planted (■) and naturally regenerated (▲) stands in 1994
Figure 43.	The effects of stand age on mean number of moth species collected per site in planted (■) and naturally regenerated (▲—-) stands in 1993
Figure 44.	The effects of stand age on mean number of moth species collected per site in planted (■) and naturally regenerated (▲—) stands in 1994
Figure 45.	The effects of stand age on the Berger Parker index of dominance for moths collected in planted (■) and naturally regenerated (▲) stands in 1993 and 1994
Figure 46.	The effects of stand age on the log series α index for moths in planted (■) and naturally regenerated (▲) stands in 1993150
Figure 47.	The effects of stand age on the log series α index for moths in planted (■) and naturally regenerated (▲) stands in 1994152
Figure 48.	The effects of stand age on Kendall's τ index of similarity for moths in planted (■) and naturally regenerated (▲) stands in 1993

Figure 49.	The effects of stand age on Kendall's τ index of similarity for moths in planted (■—) and naturally regenerated (▲—) stands in 1994
Figure 50.	The effects of stand age on Sørenson's coefficient of similarity for moths in planted (■) and naturally regenerated (▲) stands in 1993
Figure 51.	The effects of stand age on Sørenson's coefficient of similarity for moths in planted (■) and naturally regenerated (▲) stands in 1994
Figure 52.	Moth data (1993). CA ordination diagram with site scores (♠) and species scores (♠); first axis (horizontal) has an eigenvalue of 0.286 = 14.4% and the second axis, (vertical) has an eigenvalue of 0.254 = 12.8%
Figure 53.	Moth data with 5 year old sites removed (1993). CA ordination diagram with site scores (\spadesuit) and species scores (\spadesuit); first axis (horizontal) has an eigenvalue of $0.158 = 42.7\%$ and the second axis, (vertical) has an eigenvalue of $0.067 = 17.9\%$
Figure 54.	Moth data (1994). CA ordination diagram with site scores (♠) and species scores (♠); first axis (horizontal) has an eigenvalue of 0.254 = 15.5% and the second axis, (vertical) has an eigenvalue of 0.187 = 11.3%
Figure 55.	Moth data with 5 year old sites removed (1994). CA ordination diagram with site scores (\spadesuit) and species scores (\spadesuit); first axis (horizontal) has an eigenvalue of $0.081 = 33.5\%$ and the second axis, (vertical) has an eigenvalue of $0.051 = 21.1\%$
Figure 56.	Moth and environmental data (1993). CCA ordination diagram with site scores (\spadesuit), species scores (\spadesuit) and environmental variables (arrows); first axis (horizontal) has an eigenvalue of $0.170 = 42.0\%$ and the second axis (vertical) has an eigenvalue of $0.056 = 24.0\%$
Figure 57.	Moth and vegetation data (1994). CCA ordination diagram with site scores (♠), moth species scores (♠) and environmental variables (arrows); first axis (horizontal) has an eigenvalue of 0.079 = 27.6% and the second axis (vertical) has an eigenvalue of 0.046 = 16.0%

Figure 58.	Moth and environmental data (1993). CCA ordination diagram with site scores (\spadesuit), moth species scores (\spadesuit) and environmental variables (arrows); first axis (horizontal) has an eigenvalue of $0.057 = 15.4\%$ and the second axis (vertical) has an eigenvalue of $0.023 = 6.3\%$
Figure 59.	Moth and environmental data (1994). CCA ordination diagram with site scores (\spadesuit), moth species scores (\spadesuit) and environmental variables (arrows); first axis (horizontal) has an eigenvalue of 0.044 = 18.0% and the second axis (vertical) has an eigenvalue of 0.017 = 6.8%

LIST OF APPENDICES

Assertin T		Page
Appendix I.	Percent cover of vegetation in the sites sampled in 1993 and 1994	212
Appendix II.	Species list of butterflies and skippers collected in 1993 and 1994	222
Appendix III.	Collection dates for butterflies and skippers collected in 1993 and 1994	229
Appendix IV.	Species list of butterflies and skippers collected in bait traps in 1993 and 1994	235
Appendix V.	Species list of moths collected in 1993 and 1994	238
Appendix VI.	Collection dates of moths collected in 1993 and 1994	261

Introduction

Diversity is an important component of ecology and measures of diversity are often used as indicators of the general health of an ecosystem (Magurran, 1988). Ecological diversity can be usefully defined as a measure that includes both the number of species present and the distribution of individuals within communities (Shafi and Yarranton, 1973). It expresses diversity in term of species, or α diversity, and ecosystem, or β diversity (Magurran, 1988). Species diversity indices make use of the number of species and their relative abundances in a given habitat (Pielou, 1975; Magurran, 1988). Ecosystem diversity indices compare the degree of difference in species assemblages between two or more habitats (Magurran, 1988).

Measurement of diversity may be used to gain insight into the forces responsible for shaping community structure and the effects of changes in the environment on the ecosystem (Kempton and Taylor, 1976). By studying the effects of disturbance on ecological diversity we may gain an understanding of how ecosystems react to different types and levels of disturbance (Frambs, 1990).

Although the effects of modern forestry on faunal diversity are poorly understood (Heliovara and Varsonen, 1984), the effects of anthropogenic disturbances on the forest fauna can be examined by comparing natural forest sites to sites that have been subject to human management (Chandler, 1991). The frequency of anthropogencic disturbance by human means, for example logging, is greater than the rate of disturbance by natural means, such as forest fires (Shafi and Yarranton, 1973). As a result of this increased rate of disturbance, there is the possibility that many of the species associated with a forest

climax regime are becoming or are in danger of becoming extinct in areas where forest disturbance is accelerated (Loucks, 1977). Another result of the increased rate of disturbance and subsequent planting of monocultural forest stands is the loss of structural diversity that is extremely important to the diversity of a forest (Orme et al., 1990). As a result of this loss of structural diversity, there may be a concordant loss in arthropod diversity associated with the forest stand (Lawton, 1983).

A group of organisms that is chosen as indicator species is selected on the basis of how their presence or absence and abundance reflects the changes in the environment in which they live (Holloway and Barlow, 1992). The Lepidoptera are useful indicator species of environmental change because they meet several of the criteria identified by Pearson (1995). Many are easy to identify; have well known natural histories; they are readily surveyed by a variety of trapping and collecting methods; higher taxa are broadly distributed geographically; the lower taxa are specialized and sensitive to habitat change; their patterns of biodiversity are reflected in other related and unrelated taxa, their host foodplants, for example; and several species are economically important as defoliators of commercial crops and trees (Gilbert and Singer, 1975; Dempster, 1983; Pearson, 1995). Most Lepidoptera are very closely linked to their foodplants and, in some instances, have coevolved with their larval hosts (Ehrlich and Raven, 1964). Lepidoptera have been used as indicators of biodiversity in Malaysia (Holloway and Barlow, 1992), the United States (Debinski and Brussard, 1994) and Madagascar (Kremen, 1994). These studies indicate that the Lepidoptera are good indicators of the diversity of an ecosystem.

Jack pine, Pinus banksiana Lamb, is a coniferous tree that prefers well drained

soils and requires fire to cause the serotinous cones to open and release their seeds (Ahlgren, 1959; Smith et al., 1960). Jack pine seedlings are often planted in areas where natural regeneration after harvesting is poor and in the last 40 years, planting has become increasingly important in jack pine regeneration in southeastern Manitoba (Lafrenière, 1994). This study is the second of two to examine the effect of different regeneration techniques on insect ecological diversity. The first examined their influences on carabid beetles (Lafrenière, 1994). This thesis examines patterns of ecological diversity of two groups of Lepidoptera, the butterflies and the moths.

The objectives of this thesis are:

- I) To determine whether the α diversity of Lepidoptera differs between planted and naturally regenerated jack pine stands of similar age and composition.
- ii) To determine whether differences in the α diversity of Lepidoptera associated with the type of regeneration increases or decreases with stand maturity.
- iii) To examine whether the β diversity of Lepidoptera assemblages in planted and naturally regenerated stands differ.
- iv) To investigate the relationship between Lepidoptera assemblage composition and the environmental characteristics of sites, to gain insight into the differences between lepidopteran assemblages in planted and naturally regenerated sites at different levels of maturity.
- v) To determine whether abiotic or biotic factors play a stronger role in determining the species assemblage of Lepidoptera in planted and naturally regenerated sites at different levels of maturity.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Successional processes and disturbance

The structure and composition of an ecosystem changes as one type of community replaces another in what has been termed succession. Succession represents the development towards an equilibrium between organisms and the environment (Clements, 1916). Succession may follow a relatively predictable seral sequence that begins with a pioneer stage, and proceeds through consolidation and subclimax stages, to a final climax stage (Dansereau, 1957).

Disturbances within a forest ecosystem lead to secondary succession (Rowe, 1983). Secondary succession is also caused by natural disturbances (wildfire, windstorms, insects, pathogens) or by anthropogenic disturbances (mechanical clearing, set fires, tree harvesting) (Harper, 1977; McLeod, 1980). Disturbance by man (eg. fire, agriculture) has long been important in determining forest composition in tropical forest ecosystems (McLeod, 1980).

The frequency of disturbance also plays a role in successional processes. A community, if not disturbed, may be reduced to a low diversity equilibrium through processes of competitive exclusion (Connell, 1978). A highly diverse community can be maintained if disturbance is on a moderate scale (McLeod, 1980). The more frequently a disturbance occurs, the less likely succession will reach the stage of a climax community (Petraitis *et al.*, 1989). Diversity often is low at either extreme of the time scale, peaking at moderate disturbance frequencies (McLeod, 1980). Similarly, diversity is expected to

be maximal for intermediate time since disturbance and intensity or amount of disturbance (McLeod, 1980). Colonizing organisms are associated with early stages in the succession and are species that are adapted to that type of habitat (Powers and Van Cleve, 1991). The pioneer communities are lower in diversity than later successional stages (McLeod, 1980). At maturity, diversity is declining and therefore diversity is highest in intermediate stages in the succession (Connell, 1978; McLeod, 1980; Petraitis *et al*, 1989). As the structure of the habitat changes so do the assemblages of organisms associated with that habitat. Habitat changes occur most rapidly early in the successional series and as the community matures, change occurs more slowly.

Diversity

Diversity may be thought of as a property of communities that includes both the number of species present, or species richness, and the distribution of individuals between them, or evenness Pielou, 1969). Species richness in its simplest form is simply the number of species in a given sample (Pielou, 1969). Evenness is the equitability of the species present in the communities (Pielou, 1969).

Components of Diversity

The diversity of a given ecosystem may serve as an indication of the ecological well being of that ecosystem (Magurran, 1988). Ecological diversity is composed of species diversity, or α diversity and ecosystem, or β diversity (Pielou, 1975; Wilson and Shmida, 1984; Magurran, 1988). When considered together, α and β diversity measure

the overall diversity of a given ecosystem (Wilson and Shmida, 1984).

The simplest way of expressing diversity is in terms of the number of species in a given area or species richness (Pianka, 1966; Pielou, 1975; Magurran, 1988). The number of species is affected by sample size, and this effect may mask differences or shifts in dominance or evenness. Therefore it is desirable to express diversity in terms of the number of species present and their relative abundances (Magurran, 1988). From this, species diversity is the number and relative abundance of species in a given habitat and is used to indicate the well being of that habitat (Pielou, 1975; Whittaker, 1972). It has been suggested that the two components of diversity, species richness and evenness, be treated separately (Pielou, 1969; Hurlbert; 1971).

Ecosystem diversity is a measure of the difference in species assemblages between two habitats (Pielou, 1975; Magurran, 1988). It is a measure of the change, or difference between different habitats (Southwood, 1979).

Effects of Disturbances on Ecological Diversity

Diversity is the result of a balance between the frequency of disturbances that provide opportunities for species to recolonize, and the rate of extinction due to competitive exclusion and other causes (Petraitis *et al.*, 1989). The measurement of biological variables gives a strong indication of the effects of a disturbance (Holloway and Stork, 1991). Disturbances affect the distribution and abundance of species that were present in an ecosystem prior to the disturbance (Frambs, 1990) and may also result in species that were not previously present becoming established (Kempton and Taylor,

1976). As a result, change in abundance may serve as an indication of the disturbance (Kempton and Taylor, 1974; Taylor et al., 1978; Kempton, 1979).

Boreal forest characteristics

The boreal zone is the largest ecological zone in Canada, occupying 2.6 x 10⁶ km² (Danks and Foottit, 1989). It is characterized by closed coniferous forests, with jack pine being prevalent in the central sections and in drier habitats (Danks and Footit, 1989). In terms of habitat on the scale of invertebrates, the boreal forest is considerably diverse (Danks and Footit, 1989).

Successional processes in the boreal forest

The boreal forest ecosystem is one in which the ecological processes are strongly controlled by disturbances, primarily fire (Rowe, 1961). Habitat heterogeneity of the boreal forest is maintained by recurring fires or other associated disturbances (eg. insect infestation) (Clark, 1990; Loope, 1991). Rowe (1956) stated that in the boreal forest, forest fires limit the age of stands of jack pine to less than 100 years. Fire has been a dominant influence in the history of forests both in recent times and in terms of geological time (Heinselman, 1973). Fires in jack pine forests are usually high-intensity crown fires which initiate secondary succession (Heinselman, 1981; Rowe, 1983). It is likely that all parts of the boreal forest have been burned within the last 140 years (Maclean and Bedell, 1955). In Manitoba, the period between fires in jack pine stands is frequently much shorter and these forests are considered to be successionally young compared to many

other areas within the boreal forest (Zoladeski et al., 1995).

Forest disturbances may occur at different spatial scales (van der Maarel, 1993). They may be categorized as either patch size or community size (van der Maarel, 1993). Community size disturbances are large scale disturbances, exemplified by forest fires, and will destroy an entire community which then regenerates as a whole (van der Maarel, 1993). Patch size disturbances occur on a much smaller scale and create gaps within a community, such as the death of a few trees within a forest (van der Maarel, 1993).

Forests develop slowly and alternative research strategies such as chronosequence and retrospective studies may be utilized to produce rapid results, but are limited by uncertainty about the history of a site under investigation (Powers and Van Cleve, 1991). Chronosequence studies substitute space for time by selecting particular stages of development which are selected along a time sequence beginning with initial disturbance and extending to an advanced stage of maturity (Powers and Van Cleve, 1991).

Diversity patterns in the boreal forest

Forest ecosystems are distinguished by their complexity and diversity (Powers and Van Cleve, 1991). The highest level of arthropod diversity in a boreal forest succession occurs just prior to canopy closure. At this time both open habitat and shade tolerant species are able to occupy suitable niche habitats, which were not present earlier in the case of shade tolerant species, and will not be present later for the open habitat species (Loucks, 1977; Petraitis et al., 1989).

A general association between plant and animal diversity is accepted (Southwood,

1979). The general successional patterns that are observed for plants also hold for some arthropods (Murdoch et al., 1972). Invasion of vegetation pioneer species and reestablishment of species present prior to disturbance occurs before canopy closure in forests (De Grandpré et al., 1993). Following canopy closure within the forest, there is no major change in vegetation species in the understorey, as the shade intolerant species disappear prior to canopy closure (Shafi and Yarranton, 1973). A high frequency of forest disturbance may favour tree species intermediate in tolerance of shade, since they can establish during one episode of canopy opening and persist in the understorey through one or more periods of canopy closure (Runkle and Yetter, 1987).

Biology of Lepidoptera

Comparative biology of butterflies and moths

Plant feeding insects that are host specific are thought to provide a precise profile of diversity (Holloway and Barlow, 1992). Many species of Lepidoptera are associated with forest ecosystems and these species are often very localized in distribution (Holloway and Stork, 1991). The Lepidoptera have characteristics that make them useful as indicator species. These characteristics include their relative ease of identification to the species level, the existence of standardized collection techniques, and a high level of association with larval host plants (Southwood, 1979; Dempster, 1983).

The Macrolepidoptera are divided into the Rhopalocera, the butterflies and skippers, and the Heterocera, the moths (Borror et al., 1989) based on differences in antennal structure. This division is somewhat arbitrary but the two groups differ in one

principal behavioural way. The majority of butterflies are diurnal, flying only during the day time, while the majority of the moths are nocturnal (Holland, 1903).

The butterflies are well accepted as indicators of the well being of ecosystems (Gilbert, 1974; Sutton and Collins, 1991). Butterfly species are generally confined to taxonomically and chemically related larval host plants and sometimes to a single species (Gilbert and Singer, 1975). Larvae generally have a greater range of host acceptance than oviposition preference indicates (Gilbert and Singer, 1975). The dependence of the larval stages of most species on a relatively narrow range of hosts combined with the actions of the adults as pollinators links them to the health of their habitat (Ehrlich and Raven, 1965; Ehrlich, 1984). The majority of butterfly species are much more restricted geographically in their distributions than are their potential host plants (Heslop, 1964; Svent-Ivany, 1971).

Several factors other than their dependence on food source influence the distribution of butterflies. These include light intensity, relative humidity and changes in temperature, all of which are affected by habitat disturbance (Ehrlich et al., 1972; Whittaker, 1972; Murphy et al., 1990; Sparrow et al., 1994). Adult butterflies are heliotherms and are able to fly only within a certain range of temperatures (Shapiro, 1970). Climactic factors may influence butterfly populations through effects on host quality (Gilbert and Singer, 1975). Cold weather slows development of insects and it has been observed to reduce butterfly fecundity (Gilbert and Singer, 1975). Similarly, Takata (1961) found that fecundity may be depressed by hot weather. Butterflies have different preferences for shade and sunlight (Peterson, 1954; Shapiro and Cardè, 1970). Many

prefer sunny habitats, although some have a preference for shaded habitats (Peterson, 1954; Warren, 1985).

Like the butterflies, the moths are phytophagous as larvae and are linked strongly to their habitat. Most moth species are nocturnal as adults and therefore are not strongly influenced by light intensity levels, but like the butterflies, they are sensitive to changes in temperature and relative humidity (Muirhead-Thomson, 1991). Moths as a group are less specific to host taxonomy than butterflies, and have partitioned the parts of plants much more finely (Gilbert and Singer, 1975).

Sampling methods for Lepidoptera

Traps for sampling insect populations play an important role in ecological studies (Vail et al., 1968; Muirhead-Thomson, 1991). Light traps used in the collection of night flying Lepidoptera have proven consistently successful in capturing large numbers of individuals of a large variety of species (Muirhead-Thomson, 1991). Different insects will react in different ways to different light sources (Muirhead-Thomson, 1991). Light traps yield biased samples; the number of any species caught depends not only on abundance but also on the degree of attraction to light (Kempton and Taylor, 1974). Moths do not fly directly to the light trap and are not necessarily collected on their first pass by the trap (Harstack et al., 1968). It has been observed that a large proportion of insects attracted to light traps appear to circle traps and frequently settle on surrounding vegetation (Muirhead-Thomson, 1991). The effective radius of a light trap is the maximum distance at which an insect responds to the light trap, and this is a physiological response which

varies between species and individuals (Bowden, 1982). The effective radius is also affected by the degree of vegetative cover which may obstruct the insects view of the light trap (Muirhead-Thomson, 1991). The most important factor in determining the range of insects a light will attract is the source of the light (Vaishampayan, 1985). Estimates of the relative efficiency of capture vary from as little as 8% to as high as 50 % of moths captured, depending on species (Harstack et al., 1968). Several factors affect the efficiency of light traps and these may include the period of illumination, temperature, wind velocity and wind direction (McGeachie, 1988, 1989). Seasonal distribution of catches of moths has been observed to vary between sites and years (Gregg et al., 1993).

With few exceptions, light trap catches are at their lowest around the period of the full moon (Williams, 1936; Nemec, 1971; Muirhead-Thomson, 1991). Hardwick (1972) observed that noctuid moths are less active on cool nights than on warm nights and that compared to this, the lunar cycle has no effect on light trap catches. The changes that are observed in light trap catches associated with differences in lunar illumination may be caused by changes in insect activity, changes in population, or by changes in the range of effectiveness of the light trap (Bowden and Church, 1973). Most light trap investigations indicate that trap catches are at their lowest around the period of the full moon and at their highest at periods of no moon (Williams, 1936; Muirhead-Thomson, 1991). Sheltered sites reduce the impact of winds which results in a decrease in the number of long range dispersing moths reaching the trap and an increase in the number of poor flying species that are able to reach the trap (Muirhead-Thomson, 1991). Light traps in wooded areas tend to catch only local fauna (Muirhead-Thomson, 1991). Height of the trap influences

the species composition of the trap catch (Taylor and French, 1974). Members of the Geometridae and Pyralidae are smaller bodied and have slow flapping flight and a greater proportion of the population flies closer to the ground than the heavier bodied Noctuidae and Sphingidae (Greenwalt, 1962; Taylor and Brown, 1972; Taylor et al., 1979). In general, the larger the species, the higher it flies, independent of family and morphological type (Taylor et al., 1979).

Bait traps have been used for the collection of different groups of insects including Diptera and Lepidoptera (Vogt, 1968; Owen, 1975). The general principles of attraction to bait traps and the factors affecting their efficiency may be similar for all insect groups. Baited traps are affected by environmental factors. An increase in wind speed results in a decrease in the efficiency of bait traps (Muirhead-Thomson, 1991). Similarly temperature affects trap efficiency. Above or below their optimal temperature range, insects will not fly to a trap and trap efficiency is consequently decreased (Vogt, 1986). Baits usually become more attractive with increasing time of exposure and it has been suggested that baits should be discarded regularly in case the increase in attraction could be wrongly interpreted as an increase in the population of the organism under study (Vogt et al., 1983). Height of trap may play a role in the efficiency of the trap (Vogt, 1986). Depending upon the insect group to be collected, an optimal height that is related to the characteristic flight height of the organism under study should be determined (Vogt, 1986). Trap siting also plays a role as traps placed in open sunlight may differ in efficiency from those placed in shaded sites (Welch, 1988).

Different species may be differentially attracted by bait or variably likely to escape

from the trap (Kremen, 1994). In general, only butterflies in the family Nymphalidae are attracted to fruit based baits (Kremen, 1994). However, Owen (1975) previously observed that members of the Satyridae are attracted to these baits in temperate regions. Butterfly species which feed on baits, dung, rotting fruit and sap, tend to be cryptic (Gilbert and Singer, 1975) and so are not conveniently recorded in visual samples (Kremen, 1994). Trapping complements hand netting and a sampling program involving both netting and trapping will provide a more complete representation of a butterfly assemblage than will either method by itself (Kremen, 1994).

Methods of community analysis

Diversity Measures

Diversity measures have two components: species richness and evenness (Magurran, 1988). Species diversity measures are usually divided into three categories: species richness indices, species abundance models and indices based on the proportional abundances of species (Magurran, 1988). These indices are affected by a variety of factors including sample size, commonness versus rarity of species, presence and absence of species, and relative abundance of species (Southwood, 1979; Magurran, 1988). An ideal measure of species diversity should have good discriminant ability, low sensitivity to sample size and should be easy to calculate (Magurran, 1988).

A problem in ecological studies is obtaining equal sample sizes for all locations (Magurran, 1988). A technique termed rarefaction was developed by Sanders (1968) for calculating the number of species expected in each sample if all samples were of a standard

size. The technique was modified by Hurlbert (1971) to produce an unbiased estimate. A problem with rarefaction is the loss of information because the number of species and their relative abundances, known before rarefaction, are lost and all that remains is the expected number of species per sample (Williamson, 1973). Further problems include the assumptions that the assemblages are random and that their is no interspecific interactions and that evenness is the same in the communities being compared, which is often not the case (May, 1975).

The frequency distribution of species abundances is often a more sensitive measure of environmental disturbance than species richness alone (Kempton, 1979). Fisher et al. (1943) noted that a characteristic pattern of species abundance occurs in which a few species are very abundant, some are of medium abundance, and most are represented by only a few individuals (Williams, 1964; Pielou, 1974; Southwood, 1978). Species abundance distributions utilize both the number of species and their relative abundance in a community and provides the most complete mathematical description of the data (Magurran, 1988). Diversity is usually examined in relation to four main models of the underlying species abundance distribution (Southwood, 1979): the log normal distribution (Preston, 1948), the geometric series (May, 1975), the logarithmic series (Fisher et al., 1943) and the broken stick model (MacArthur, 1957). Rank-abundance plots are one method of presenting species abundance data and can be used to determine the appropriate underlying distribution (May, 1975). Within each distribution, there is a progression ranging from the geometric series where a few species are dominant and the remainder fairly uncommon, through the log series and log normal distributions where species of

intermediate abundance are relatively more common and on to the broken stick model in which species are uniformly distributed with respect to resource apportioning (Pielou, 1975).

Indices based on the proportional abundances of species have been termed heterogeneity indices (Peet, 1974) because they take both evenness and species richness into account. May (1975) has referred to them as non-parametric indices because no assumptions are made about the shape of the underlying species abundance distributions. Magurran (1988) has divided these indices into two categories: information statistic indices that are derived from information theory including the Shannon-Weaver index (May, 1975) and dominance indices, including the Berger-Parker index d (Berger and Parker, 1970) and Simpson's index (Simpson, 1949). Information statistic indices are based on the rationale that the diversity in a natural system can be measured in a similar way to the information contained in a code. The Shannon index assumes that individuals are randomly sampled from an effectively infinite population and that the index also assumes that all species are represented in the sample (Pielou, 1975). Dominance measures are weighted towards the abundances of the commonest species rather than providing a measure of species richness (Southwood, 1979). The Berger-Parker index d is simple to calculate and expresses the proportion of the total catch that is due to the most dominant species (Southwood, 1979). It is independent of number of species but is influenced by sample size (Magurran, 1988).

It is desirable that diversity indices be able to discriminate between sites with only subtle differences (Magurran, 1988). They should also be independent of sample size and

sampling intensity (Magurran, 1988). Kempton and Taylor (1974) found the log series index α was relatively unaffected by either rare species or common ones.

Measurement of species diversity

Alpha Diversity Indices. Several indices of diversity have been developed to characterize habitats based on species diversity (Pielou, 1975; Southwood, 1978). Of these indices, a number of authors have singled out the log series α (Fisher *et al.*, 1943) as the superior measure of species diversity (Kempton and Taylor, 1974; Taylor *et al.*, 1976; Magurran, 1988; Thomas and Thomas, 1994). This index is considered superior because of its good discriminant ability, low sensitivity to sample size and ease of calculation (Magurran, 1988). The log series α is based on the number of species relative to the number of individuals present in a sample. The log series α is most influenced by the frequencies of the moderately abundant species rather than the extremely abundant or extremely rare species (Murdoch *et al.*, 1972; Kempton and Taylor, 1974; Magurran, 1988).

Beta Diversity Indices. A number of indices have been developed to measure ecosystem, or β, diversity (Huhta, 1979; Wilson and Shmida, 1984; Magurran, 1988). Most of these measures are based on presence-absence data and do not consider relative abundance. The original Sørenson index is one of the more widely used indices based on presence absence data (Bray and Curtis, 1957; Southwood, 1979; Magurran, 1988). Pairs of communities which share all their species will have a Sørenson index of 1, while

communities which have no species in common will have an index of 0 (Magurran, 1988). In a review of the discriminant ability of sixteen measures of similarity, Huhta (1979) found that Kendall's τ , a quantitative pairwise measure (Kendall, 1962), and the modified form of the Sørenson coefficient (Bray and Curtis, 1957) were the most consistent performers when comparing two stable communities.

Ordination Analysis

Ordination analysis is a multivariate technique developed to aid in the analysis of multidimensional data sets (Bray and Curtis, 1957; Gauch, 1982; ter Braak, 1985).

Ordination describes the pattern of relationships among a group of objects in a reduced number of dimensions that represent most of the variation in the original data set (Gauch, 1982; Pielou, 1984; Digby and Kempton, 1987; Jones and McCulloch, 1990). The objects are then displayed graphically in an ordination diagram in which the axes represent gradients of combinations of the attributes of the original data set (Jones and McCulloch, 1990). The data are plotted such that the distance between points indicates the degree of similarity between data points (Greenacre, 1984). The axes in an ordination diagram are arranged orthogonal to each other and each accounts for the maximum possible amount of variance remaining in the data, after the variation attributable to the previous axes has been removed. In most ordination procedures, the eigenvalue of each axis describes the relative importance of an axis (ter Braak, 1987-1992). In an ordination diagram, axis 1 has the largest eigenvalue and is associated with the largest proportion of the variance; axis 2 has the next largest eigenvalue and is associated with the next largest proportion of

variance (Green and Carroll, 1976). The positive and negative ends of each axis are arbitrarily assigned (ter Braak, 1986). The ordination axes may be considered as hypothetical environmental variables and are then interpreted on the basis of what is known about the species and the environment (ter Braak, 1987-1992). Species near the centre of the diagram may be ubiquitous and unrelated to the ordination axes (ter Braak and Prentice, 1988).

Principal components analysis (PCA) is a type of ordination analysis which is most appropriate for data that are continuous, such as percent cover (Greenacre, 1984). This technique can be applied to abundance data but cannot be applied to presence-absence data (ter Braak, 1985). PCA is a linear ordination technique that provides the least-squares estimates of the sites and the species scores (ter Braak and Prentice, 1988). This method differs from correspondence analysis (CA) by being a linear method (ter Braak and Prentice, 1988).

Weighted averages of species scores have been shown to give estimates of the species' optima and environmental values when the species' response curves are Gaussian (ter Braak and Prentice, 1988). Weighted averaging works well with presence-absence data, and if abundances are available, they provide the weights (ter Braak and Prentice, 1988). It has been suggested that linear combinations of site scores are the most appropriate scores to use in ordination diagrams (Palmer, 1993), however, weighted averaging methods may be applied over wide ranges of environments where species' abundances may not vary monotonically with variation in the environment (ter Braak and Prentice, 1988).

Correspondence analysis (CA) is a type of ordination analysis which is most appropriate for data consisting of counts and may be used for both abundance data and presence-absence data (ter Braak, 1985; Jones and McCulloch, 1990). CA is a non-linear method of ordination (ter Braak and Prentice, 1988). This type of ordination analysis expresses the associations between two sets of quantitative variables, for example species and sites (Greenacre, 1984). The ordination results in a diagram which is a biplot of species and sites (Benzécri, 1992). Generally, sites are placed close to the species that are most prominent in those sites (Greenacre, 1984).

Canonical correspondence analysis (CCA), differs from correspondence analysis.

Both methods produce species and site scores, but in CCA the site scores are constrained by the environmental variables which are included (ter Braak, 1986). The ordination diagram which is produced is very similar to that produced in CA, the only difference being the presence of the environmental variables, which are represented by vectors whose direction and length indicate their amount of influence and importance (ter Braak, 1986).

MATERIALS AND METHODS

General study area description

This study was conducted in the Sandilands Provincial Forest, which is located in southeastern Manitoba. The Sandilands Provincial Forest is located in the southern portion of the Boreal Forest in Manitoba (Zoladeski et al., 1995). The precise location of the sites is presented in Table 1. All sites were located in the Bedford Hills-Whitemouth Lake Plateau physiographic area of the Sandilands Provincial Forest (Smith et al., 1964). Fig. 1 shows the location of the sites in the Sandilands Provincial Forest.

The soils in the study sites have a high sand content and belong to the Sandilands series or the Woodridge series, or they are a mixture of both (Table 1). Jack pine, *Pinus banksiana* Lamb is the dominant tree species in the upland areas of the Sandilands Provincial Forest, while black spruce, *Picea mariana* [Mill.] B.S.P., is the dominant species in the wet lowland regions (Mueller-Dombois, 1964). All sites selected were in the upland areas.

Experimental Design

Two types of site were used, natural and planted stands of jack pine (Table 1). Natural stands were the result of regeneration following fire. Planted stands were not differentiated according to disturbance type (i.e. fire or harvest). Four age classes were selected: 5, 15, 25, and 40 years of age. For each site type, there were two replicates within each age class, with the exception of the 15 year old natural site. No suitable second replicate for this age class/regeneration type was available within the study area.

The dominant tree ages in the five year age class were four to seven years old; the 15 year age class included trees 12 to 17 years old; the 25 year age class included trees 22 to 32 years old; and the 40 year age class included trees 42 to 52 years old. Tree ages were estimated in 1991 by the use of core samples. Estimates of tree age have been adjusted to reflect tree age in 1996.

Site description

Site selection was accomplished in 1991 by Mr. Rhéal Lafrenière with the aid of fire maps and plantation records supplied by Manitoba Department of Natural Resources. Each site measured 100 m by 100 m, was within a stand of at least 2 ha, and was located at least 20 m from any discontinuity such as a roadway. The dominant tree species within each site was jack pine and tree composition within each site was greater than 75% jack pine.

All sites were given code names which indicate the regeneration type and age class of the site (Table 1). For example, the code name B5A indicates that this is the first replicate of a natural (Burned) site burned approximately five years ago. Similarly, P5B indicates the second replicate of a site Planted five years ago.

The five year old sites were open areas with no trees higher than 2 m. Planted and natural sites differed in two principal ways. First, a large proportion of the fallen dead trees, or slash, had been removed from the planted sites but remained in the natural sites. Second, the tree distribution in the natural sites was aggregated, while in the planted sites trees were regularly spaced. Between aggregations of trees there were patches of open

areas that were either bare or had some degree of herbaceous ground cover, predominantly grasses.

The 15 year old sites were generally open sites. The distance between branches of individual trees had decreased when compared to the five year old sites. The major difference between the planted and natural sites was the pattern of tree distribution, which was aggregated in the natural site and more uniform in the planted sites. Between aggregations of trees there were patches of open areas covered with various types of ground vegetation.

The 25 year old sites were composed of intermediate sized trees with a greater degree of canopy closure than was observed in the 15 year old sites. Natural sites had more glades than did the planted sites. Further, the natural sites exhibited a greater degree of canopy closure in tree aggregations than did the planted sites. Overall, canopy closure was more complete in the planted sites. The planted stands were partially replanted after the initial planting. The first replicate of the natural stands in this age class, B25A, was mechanically thinned at some time prior to the date of this study.

The 40 year old sites were nearing maturity and were characterized by almost complete canopy closure and were much darker than stands in the other age classes. Sites of each regeneration type were very similar in part due to the natural thinning (Ahlgren, 1974) of aggregated areas in relatively mature jack pine forests.

Vegetation Sampling

In both 1993 and 1994, ground vegetation was sampled. Within each site, 25 1 m

by 1 m quadrat samples were selected in a stratified random fashion. Each site was stratified into five 20 m by 100 m blocks and five quadrat samples were taken per block. The ground vegetation was identified and the percent cover of each species was estimated in the field. Ground vegetation was defined as herbaceous plants and woody plants < 30 cm tall. Sampling was conducted twice per year; late May - early June, representing early summer, and late July - early August, representing late summer. Tree sampling to determine tree age, dominant tree species and tree density were carried out in 1992, as was sampling of shrubs (Lafrenière, 1994).

Environmental measurement

Weather

Air temperature was recorded in 1995 using Hobo XT Temperature Loggers

(Onset Instruments Corp.*). Temperature loggers were operated from 25 April to 24

July. The temperature probe of each was taped 1 m above the ground on the north side of a tree located at the centre of each site. The probe was placed on the north side of the tree to reduce heating from direct sunlight. Temperature readings were logged once every 1.2 hours and subsequently down loaded to a computer. Monthly and daily mean temperatures for 1993 and 1994 were obtained from Environment Canada sampling records for Winnipeg International Airport. Winnipeg International Airport was the location closest to the Sandilands Provincial Forest (distance from sites to airport = 90 km) with complete meteorological records. Monthly and daily mean hours of bright sunshine and precipitation were also obtained from Environment Canada records for

Light Intensity

In 1994, under clear skies, light intensity measured in µEinsteins m⁻²s⁻¹ was recorded. Prior to taking readings in each site, a measurement was taken in the unshaded roadway to obtain a maximum light intensity value, to allow for standardization of readings from all sites. Light intensity readings from all sites were standardized to the maximum light intensity value obtained during sampling at all sites. Within each site, 25 readings were taken in a grid fashion (Fig. 2). Readings were taken at 2 m above the ground to avoid the influence of ground vegetation and were made using a Li-Cor 185 Quantum/Photometer with a photometer probe.

Sampling of Lepidoptera

Three methods of sampling for Lepidoptera were carried out. Transect sampling and bait trapping for butterflies, and light trapping of moths were carried out from 04 May to 21 September, 1993 and from 25 April to 19 September, 1994.

Butterflies

Transect sampling. Transect sampling of adult butterflies was done in each site every week during the sampling period unless conditions were unsuitable because of rain. A prescribed path of transects was walked through each site and the path ensured that each area of the site was inspected twice. Each transect was 100 m in length and a total of 10

transects were completed during each sampling period. Butterflies seen were captured with an insect net and placed in a cyanide jar, for later identification. Duration of sampling was 30 minutes per site.

Bait Traps. One funnel type bait trap (Martin, 1978) for the collection of adult butterflies was placed on a wooden stand, 1 m in height, located at the centre of each site. Each trap was constructed of either aluminum or fibreglass window screen with a wooden frame. Traps were 60 cm tall and 45 cm in diameter with a 9 cm by 9 cm screened lid on top. The internal cone was 30 cm tall with an opening of 4 cm diameter at the apex. The gap between the stand and the lower rim of the trap was 2.5 cm.

Each trap was baited with 100 ml of a mixture consisting of bananas, beer, brown sugar, fruit juice and molasses. A larger quantity of the mixture was prepared each week and was apportioned out for each trap. The mixture consisted of one bottle of beer (341 ml), one banana (large), 100 grams of brown sugar, 50 ml of molasses and 500 ml of fruit juice (McCain's® fruit punch). This mixture was selected based on the literature (Holland, 1951; Owen, 1975) and the suggestions of local collectors. The mixture was placed in a plastic dish located on the centre of the stand under the bait trap. The dish was 9.5 cm in diameter and 1.5 cm deep. Bait traps were emptied and the bait replenished once per week.

Moths

Light traps. Adult moths were collected using one Luminoc® battery powered light trap

at the centre of each site. Traps were placed at a height of 2 m. In the five year old sites, the trap was suspended from a tripod of aluminum poles. In the three other age classes, the traps were suspended from a tree branch. Each trap operated for 4 h per night beginning at dusk when the light was turned on by a photocell (Figure 3). The light source was an ultraviolet light tube operated in the normal intensity position, with an output of approximately 2.86 µW/cm² (Biocom, 1992). Traps were powered by a 6 V Alkaline Duracell® MN 6080 battery. Each trap was supplied with a trichlorvos impregnated resin strip (Vapona®) as a killing agent. From 04 May to 21 September, 1993 and from 25 April to 19 September, 1994, the traps were emptied on a weekly basis and specimens were brought to the laboratory for identification.

Data Analysis

The number of individuals collected and the number of species were used as general indicators of species occurrence and species richness, for both butterflies and moths.

The log series alpha of the equation:

$$S=\alpha \ln(1+N/\alpha) \tag{1}$$

was obtained for each site by a two step process. Firstly the logarithmic series parameter, x was estimated using least squares minimization in the NONLIN module of SYSTAT, (Wilkinson, 1988), for the equation:

$$S/N=[(1-x)/x][-ln(1-x)]$$
 (2)

Where N is the total number of individuals and S is the number of species.

The value of x is usually between 0.9 and 1.0 (Williams, 1964).

The log series α was derived from N and the estimate of x using:

$$\alpha = N(1-x)/x \tag{3}$$

Sørenson's coefficient, C_s and Kendall's τ rank correlation coefficient were used to measure moth and butterfly β diversity between site replicates. Sørenson's index was obtained from the equation:

$$C_s=2j/a+b \tag{4}$$

Where j is the number of species collected in both sites A and B, and a is the number of species present only in site A, and b is the number of species present only in site B (Southwood, 1978).

The Kendall's τ rank correlation coefficient (Kendall, 1962) index of ecosystem diversity was calculated using the CORR module of SYSTAT (Wilkinson, 1988). Species abundance data for the pair of replicates of each treatment-age combination were used in the rank correlation. Only species present in both replicates were used in the calculation.

Principal Components Analysis, Correspondence Analysis and Canonical

Correspondence Analysis ordinations were carried out using the default settings of the

CANOCO software (ter Braak, 1987-1992), with the exception of the following:

(1) To reduce the domination of abundant species, a square root
transformation was applied to the vegetation data and a logarithmic
transformation was used for the butterfly and moth data. Where the

- ordinations were performed on combined vegetation and Lepidoptera data, a square root transformation was used for both types of data.
- (2) The sample scores used in the canonical correspondence analysis ordination diagram were those determined by weighted averaging (ter Braak, 1987-1992).

The unrestricted Monte Carlo permutation test was used to assess the significance of the relationship between the environmental variables and the butterfly and moth assemblages (ter Braak, 1986). For each test performed, 99 environmental sample numbers were generated randomly and their trace eigenvalues were calculated and compared to the observed environmental trace eigenvalues. If these observed values were higher than 95 % of the randomly generated values, the species abundance was considered to be significantly related to the environmental variables (ter Braak, 1987).

RESULTS

Environmental and vegetational factors

Temperature

Seasonal patterns of mean monthly precipitation, hours of bright sunshine and temperature are shown in Figures 4, 5 and 6. In 1994 there were more hours of bright sunshine than in the same period in 1993. The amount of precipitation was higher in July and August of 1993 when compared to 1994.

Mean daytime and night time temperatures for each site type/age class replicate were obtained in 1995 using $Hobo^{\bullet}$ data loggers (Table 3). Mean daytime temperature is defined as the mean temperature from 06:00 h to 18:00 h. Mean night time temperature is defined as the mean temperature from 18:00 h to 06:00 h. A repeated measures analysis of variance indicated that both daytime ($F_{3,36} = 88.38$) and night time ($F_{3,36} = 35.96$) temperatures among the age classes in natural stands were significantly different (Figure 7, 8). Daytime temperature decreased with increasing stand age and night time temperatures increased with increasing stand age in the natural stands. Among the planted stands, analysis of variance indicated that both daytime ($F_{3,36} = 34.38$) and night time ($F_{3,36} = 29.03$) temperatures differed significantly among the four age classes (Figure 7, 8). Both daytime and night time temperatures increased with increasing stand age. Paired t-tests indicated that in the five year old stands, the planted site was significantly warmer during the daytime (t=3.01; d.f. = 12; P < 0.05), but the natural stand was warmer over a 24 h period (t=50.89; d.f. = 12; P < 0.05) than was the planted site (Figure 9, 10). In the 15 year old sites, the planted stand was significantly warmer during the daytime than the

natural stand (t = -10.86; d.f. = 12; P < 0.05) and over the 24 h period (t = -4.90; d.f. = 12; p = 0.26) (Figure 9, 10). The 25 year old planted stand was significantly warmer than the natural stand both during the daytime (t = -3.65; d.f. = 12; P < 0.05) and over the 24 h period (t = -7.96; d.f. = 12; P < 0.05) (Figure 9, 10). In the 40 year old stands, the natural stand was significantly warmer during both the daytime (t = 8.16; d.f. = 10; P < 0.05) and the nighttime (t = 2.61; d.f. = 10; P < 0.05) (Figure 9, 10).

Light Intensity

All light intensity measurements were standardized to allow for comparison of measurements between the sites. Light intensity readings were taken in the rodway adjacent to each site to obtain a maximum light intensity value. All readings from all sites were then standardized to the maximum reading obtained for all sites. Mean light intensity was much higher in the five year old stands than in any other age class, and in general mean light intensity decreased with an increase in stand age (table 2; Figure 11). An analysis of variance indicated that only stand age ($F_{3,7} = 16.67$; P < 0.001) had a significant effect on mean light intensity. The coefficient of variation of light intensity was calculated in an attempt to quantify the patchiness of the sites. The coefficient of variation of light intensity within sites was very low in the five year old stands and peaked in the 25 year old stands for both treatment types. Neither the type of regeneration ($F_{1,7} = 2.417$), stand age ($F_{3,7} = 4.066$) nor the interaction of treatment type with stand age ($F_{3,7} = 0.442$) had a significant effect on the coefficient of variation of light intensity (Table 2; Figure 12). Levene's test was used for the comparison of coefficient of variation values (Milliken and

Johnson, 1984).

Vegetation

Results of the vegetation sampling for both 1993 and 1994 are contained in Appendix I. The common ground vegetation types have been summarized in Table 1.

In natural stands, the trees are distributed irregularly and may be in clumps. In the planted stands the trees are regularly spaced. The mean tree density was higher in the younger sites than in the older sites and the difference may be attributed to tree mortality as the trees in a stand age. Mean tree density per site and the coefficient of variation of tree density have been summarized in Table 2. Tree density was generally higher in the natural stands, notably in the five and fifteen year old sites (Figure 13). An analysis of variance of mean tree density indicated that all of regeneration type ($F_{1,7} = 18.873$; P < 0.05), stand age ($F_{3,7} = 6.095$; P < 0.05) and the interaction of regeneration type and stand age ($F_{3,7} = 9.002$; P < 0.01) were significant. Tree distribution was more patchy in the five and the 25 year old natural stands, but was quite similar in the 40 year old planted and natural stands (Figure 14). Although the coefficient of variation of tree density was not significantly affected by treatment, age or their interaction, there was a tendency for the trees to be more clumped in the naturally regenerated stands than in the planted stands.

An analysis of variance of the number of ground vegetation species indicated that in 1993 neither regeneration type ($F_{1,7} = 0.234$), stand age ($F_{3,7} = 1.593$) nor the interaction of the two ($F_{3,7} = 3.35$) were significant. In 1994, all of regeneration type ($F_{1,7} = 11.065$; P < 0.05), stand age ($F_{3,7} = 7.021$; P < 0.05) and the interaction term ($F_{3,7} = 1.065$)

4.653; P < 0.05) were significant. The data show a similar trend and the lack of significance in 1993 may be attributed to higher intersite variation. The number of species recorded was higher in 1993 (Fig. 15) than in 1994 (Fig. 16). The number of ground vegetation species recorded did not differ between planted and naturally regenerated stands in both 1993 and 1994. In three of the 40 year old sites, the number of species was less than that observed in the three younger age classes. In 1994, the trend was similar to that observed in 1993. In general, the species sampled within each site remained constant from year to year.

In the five year old sites the dominant ground vegetation was Graminaceae such as Andropogon gerardi Vitman and Koeleria gracilis Pers. These stands resembled an open grassland more than a forest habitat. The 15 year old stands differed from the younger stands. The ground vegetation retained a high percentage of grasses, but species typical of open forest areas such as Cladina spp. and Vaccinium angustifolium Ait. were becoming dominant. The 25 year old stands retained some of the grass species but were dominated more by vegetation adapted to moister conditions such as the moss Pleurozium schreberi (Brid.) Spreng. Other species which prefer moist, cooler conditions were abundant, including Anemone nemorosa L. and Arctostaphylos uva-ursi (L.) Spreng. These sites also retained some of the species that prefer open drier habitat such as Andropogon gerardi. P. schreberi was the dominant species in three of the four 40 year old sites. These sites were dominated to an even greater extent than the 25 year old sites by vegetation species which prefer moister cooler conditions. These species include Maianthemum canadense Desf. and Oryzopsis asperifolia Michx.

Principal Components Analysis of vegetation species

Principal Components Analysis (PCA) of the most common vegetation species (percentage of each species sampled > 1% of the total ground cover sampled within the site). In the sites produced an ordination diagram in which the combined eigenvalue of the first two axes explained 50.2 % of the total variation (Fig. 17). The first axis separated the sites mainly on the basis of age. Axis 2 appears to separate sites of intermediate age. The five year old sites were separated from the remainder of the age classes and were placed at the positive end of axis 1. Moving toward the negative end of axis 1 the sites were then placed in order of increasing age from the 15 year old sites through the 40 year old sites. The eigenvector elements of some vegetation species which are characteristic of open dry habitats such as Poa compressa L., Carex rossii Boott and K. gracilis, have a strong positive correlation to axis 1 and were responsible for dictating the distribution of the five year old sites at the positive end of axis 1. The eigenvectors of dark, cool adapted vegetation species such as P schreberi, Dicranum polysetum Sw. and M. canadense were strongly negatively correlated with axis 1 and were responsible for placing the 40 year old sites at the negative end of axis 1. The second axis seemed to separate the sites on the basis of degree of openness of the sites. Amorpha canescens Pursh, Symporicarpos alba (L.) Blake and Monarda fistulosa L. played a strong role in placing the more closed sites at the positive end of axis 2, while Arctostaphylos uva-ursi (L.) Spreng. was instrumental in placing the more open sites at the negative end of axis 2.

In 1994, the ordination diagram was similar to that of the previous year. The first two axes explained 51.1 % of the total variation of the axes (Figure 18). As with 1993,

the separation along axis 1 was on the basis of stand age with the five year old sites strongly associated with the positive end of axis 1.

Canonical Correspondence Analysis - Vegetation species and environmental variables. Canonical Correspondence Analysis (CCA) of vegetation species with environmental variables produced an ordination with a high degree of covariability among the environmental variables. Forward selection was used to determine which of the environmental variables was most important in explaining the trends in the vegetation data. Monte Carlo testing of the environmental variables determined that only mean light intensity was significant. The use of only one environmental variable results in an ordination diagram in which all sites are aligned along axis 1. To increase the dimensionality, the second most important environmental variable as determined by forward selection, coefficient of variation of light intensity, was added.

In the CCA diagram of 1993 vegetation species and the two environmental variables, mean light intensity and coefficient of variation of light intensity, the first two axes accounted for 23.6% of the variation in the species data (Figure 19). In 1994, the first two axes accounted for 21.7% of the variance (Figure 20). The arrangement of the sites and vegetation species was very similar to the PCA ordination diagrams. The trend was for the young, open sites to be strongly correlated with the positive end of axis 1, while the more closed, older forest sites were placed at the negative end of axis 1. One exception was the placement of the site B25A, which was very strongly correlated with axis 2. The placement of this site may be attributed to the very high degree of variability

in light intensity within the site (Table 2).

Butterflies

Number of butterfly species and individuals collected

A total of 58 species were collected during the course of the study; 48 species were collected in 1993 and 55 species were collected in 1994 (Appendix II, III). Of the total numbers collected, the numbers collected in bait traps were: 321 individuals representing 15 species in 1993 and 660 individuals representing 17 species in 1994 (Appendix III). The numbers of individuals of each species and the date of collection has been recorded (Appendix IV).

The single dominant butterfly species for each flight period is given and the three dominant species of the entire collection period are given for each site for 1993 (Table 4) and 1994 (Table 5). The five year old sites were dominated by species such as *Boloria bellona* (Fabricius), *Speyeria aphrodite* (Fabricius) and *Cercyonis pegala* (Fabricius). The dominant species found in the 15 year old sites included species such as *C. pegala*, *S. aphrodite*, *Limenitis arthemis* (Drury) and *Colias interior* Scudder. In the 25 year old stands, species which prefer forested habitat such as *Enodia anthedon* (A. H. Clark) and *Nymphalis antiopa* (Linnaeus) were the most abundant species collected. The 40 year old stands are characterized by a decrease in the numbers of open habitat species and are dominated by forest inhabiting species such as *Enodia anthedon*, *Polygonia faunus* (W. H. Edwards) and *Celastrina argiolus* (Linnaeus). In 1994, *Oeneis macounii* (W. H.

In 1993, type of regeneration ($F_{1,7} = 0.968$), stand age ($F_{3,7} = 4.244$) and the interaction of the two ($F_{3,7} = 0.437$) had no significant effect on the mean number of butterflies per site. The number of butterflies collected peaked in the 25 year old sites for both planted and natural stands (Figure 21). Similarly, in 1994 none of type of regeneration ($F_{1,7} = 0.078$), stand age ($F_{3,7} = 3.188$) and the interaction of the two ($F_{3,7} = 0.308$) were found to be significant when tested by analysis of variance. As in 1993, the number of butterflies collected in 1994 peaked in the 25 year old age class (Figure 22).

Stand age $(F_{3,7} = 5.152; P < 0.05)$ was found to have a significant effect on the mean number of species per site in 1993. The number of species collected in 1993 peaked in the 15 year old sites for the planted stands and in the 25 year old stands for the natural sites but neither type of regeneration $(F_{1,7} = 0.222)$ nor its interaction with stand age $(F_{3,7} = 1.525)$ was significant (Figure 23). In 1994, neither the type of regeneration $(F_{1,7} = 0.840)$, stand age $(F_{3,7} = 3.706)$ nor the interaction of the two $(F_{3,7} = 0.855)$ had a significant effect on the mean number of species per site. The same trend was observed in 1994, with number of species peaking in the 15 year old stands for the planted sites, and later in the 25 year old stands for the natural sites (Figure 24).

Butterfly α diversity

Alpha diversity, as indicated by the log series alpha, peaked in the 15 year age class for the planted stands and peaked in the 25 year age class for the natural sites (Figure 27). The natural stands in the five year old age class had much higher values for the log series α

than did the planted stands. The 40 year old sites were quite similar in their values. An analysis of variance of the log series α index for butterflies in 1993 indicated that type of regeneration ($F_{1,7} = 6.533$; P < 0.05) and the interaction of treatment type and stand age ($F_{3,7} = 8.548$; P < 0.01) were statistically significant, but stand age ($F_{3,7} = 2.205$) was not. In 1994, none of type of regeneration ($F_{1,7} = 0.575$), stand age ($F_{3,7} = 1.691$) nor the interaction of the two ($F_{3,7} = 1.143$) were significant. As with 1993, the log series α index for butterflies collected in 1994 peaked in the 15 year age class for the planted sites and in the 25 year age class for the natural sites (Figure 28). Both the five year old sites and the 40 year old sites had quite similar values of α diversity. In both years the 15 and 25 year old replicates within each treatment type were quite variable.

In 1993, type of regeneration had a significant effect on the Berger Parker index of dominance in both the first ($F_{1,7} = 7.115$; P < 0.05) and second ($F_{1,7} = 5.824$; P < 0.05) flight periods. The degree of dominance peaked in the 15 year old natural stands and in the 25 year old planted stands. Planted stands exhibited a greater degree of variability between replicates. Butterflies from the second flight period exhibited a greater degree of dominance than did the butterflies from the first flight period (Figure 25). In 1994, none of treatment type ($F_{1,7} = 0.512$), stand age ($F_{3,7} = 0.492$) nor the interaction of treatment type and stand age ($F_{3,7} = 0.823$) were statistically significant. Similar to 1993, the butterflies from the second flight period exhibited a greater degree of dominance. The planted stands were more variable than the natural stands between replicates (Fig. 26).

Butterfly β diversity

In 1993, a paired t-test of Kendall's τ showed that planted stands and natural stands did not significantly differ (t = 1.363; d.f. = 2) in degree of similarity between replicates (Fig. 29). In 1994, planted stands had a greater degree of similarity between replicates (t = -5.057; d.f. = 2; P < 0.05) than did natural stands, and thus plantations were significantly lower in beta diversity than naturally regenerated stands (Fig. 30).

When natural and planted stand replicates were compared using Sørenson's coefficient of similarity, planted and natural stands did not significantly differ in either 1993 (t=1.362; d.f. = 2) (Fig. 31) or in 1994 (t=1.605; d.f. = 2) (Fig. 32).

Ordination analysis of butterfly species

Correspondence Analysis. In 1993, the Correspondence Analysis of the most common butterfly species in the sites produced an ordination diagram in which the combined eigenvalue of the first two axes was 0.404, which explained 36.0 % of the variation in the data set (Fig. 33). The five year old sites are separated from the remainder of the sites, and are strongly correlated with the positive end of axis 1. The eigenvector elements of open habitat butterfly species such as *Euchloe ausonides* (Lucas) and *C. pegala* have a strong positive correlation with axis 1 and were the main butterfly species responsible for dictating the distribution of the five year old sites at the positive end of the first axis. The 15 year old sites were separated from the remainder of the older sites, however the 25 and 40 year old sites were largely clustered together.

As a result of the clustering, the five year old sites were discarded and an

ordination was performed on the remaining age classes. Species used in this ordination were the more abundant species collected (number of each species collected > 1% of the total number of butterflies collected). The resulting ordination diagram was produced in which the combined eigenvalue of the first two axes was 0.258, which explained 51.4% of the total variation around the axes (Figure 34). Axis 1 separated the sites on the basis of stand age with the younger sites located on the positive end of axis 1 and the older sites associated with the negative end of axis 1. Axis 2 separated the sites also on the basis of stand age with the older sites at the negative end of axis 2 and the younger sites associated with the positive end. One exception is the placement of B15A, which is closely positioned to the 40 year old sites. This may be due to the high density of trees in the site, giving a stronger degree of canopy closure than the other 15 year old sites.

In 1994, an ordination diagram was produced in which the combined eigenvalue of the first two axes was 0.406, which explained 41.9 % of the total variation around the axes (Fig. 35). As with 1993, the five year old sites were again separated off from the rest of the age groups. The eigenvectors of some the butterfly species characteristic of open habitats such as Nymphalis milberti (Godart), Erynnis icelus (Scudder & Burgess) and C. pegala are associated strongly with the negative end of axis 1 and were the main butterfly species responsible for dictating the distribution of the 5 year old sites at the negative end of the first axis.

The five year old sites were discarded from the 1994 data set and an ordination was performed on the remaining age classes. In the resulting ordination diagram, the combined eigenvalue of the first two axes was 0.302, which explained 62.2% of the total

variation around the axes (Figure 36). Axis 1 separated the sites on the degree of light intensity. Strongly associated with the positive end of axis 1 were the darkest sites, P25A and B40A. These sites were associated with butterfly species which prefer darker habitats such as C. argiolus and E. anthedon. The younger, open sites were associated with the negative end of axis 1. Their placement at this end of the axis was dictated by butterfly species associated with more open habitats, such as C. pegala and C. interior.

Canonical Correspondence Analysis - Butterflies with their foodplants. Canonical correspondence analysis (CCA) was performed on a number of butterfly species and several vegetation species. The vegetation species were selected in a two step process. The first step involved using the forward selection procedure in CANOCO. The second process involved the production of several ordination diagrams of butterfly species with their respective food plants. From these processes, vegetation species were selected to produce a CCA diagram. Only the three older age classes were used. An ordination diagram was produced in which the combined eigenvalue of the first two ordination axes was 0.272 which explained 51.2% of the variance around the axes (Figure 37). Both butterfly species and vegetation species were responsible for site placement. At the positive end of axis 1 were the 15 year old sites. Species in CA ordinations that were associated with younger sites are again responsible for the placement of the younger sites. These species include *C. interior*, *C. pegala* and *P. batesii*. Similarly, the grass *O. pungens* is associated with the younger sites. At the negative end of axis 1 are the two 25 year old planted sites. The very high degree of dominance of a single species, *E.*

anthedon, is responsible for their location in the ordination diagram. The 40 year old sites and the 25 year old natural stands are intermediate along axis 1 as they were not strongly dominated by any of the species more common in the younger sites. In all the ordinations performed, certain butterfly species were associated with their food plants. For example, C. interior is associated with its foodplant, V. angustifolium. Other species, such as E. martialis was not usually strongly associated with its host plant, C. ovatus.

The data from 1994 produced an ordination diagram in which the combined eigenvalue of the first two ordination axes was 0.354 which explained 59.2% of the variance around the axes (Figure 38). The distribution of sites and species was similar to that observed in 1993 with the sites being separated on the basis of degree of openness. The species distribution pattern was much the same as that observed in 1993.

Canonical Correspondence Analysis of butterfly species with environmental variables produced an ordination with a high degree of covariability among the environmental variables. Forward selection was used to determine which of the environmental variables were most important in explaining the trends in the vegetation data. Monte Carlo testing of the environmental variables determined that only mean light intensity was significant.

Canonical Correspondence Analysis - Butterflies and environmental variables.

The use of only one environmental variable results in an ordination diagram in which all sites are aligned along axis 1. To increase the dimensionality, a second environmental variable, mean tree density (100 m²), was added.

In the CCA diagram of 1993 butterfly species and the two environmental variables,

mean light intensity and coefficient of variation of light intensity, the first two axes accounted for 30.0% of the variation in the species data (Figure 39). In 1994, the first two axes accounted for 30.7% of the variance (Figure 40). The arrangement of the sites and butterfly species was very similar to the CA ordination diagrams. The trend was for the young, open sites to be strongly associated with higher values of mean light intensity, while the more closed, older forest sites were associated with the opposite end of the axis. One exception was the placement of the site B15A, which was very strongly associated with mean tree density. The placement of this site may be attributed to the very high tree density within the site (Table 2).

Moths

Number of moth species and number of individuals collected

A total 233 species were collected during the course of the study;193 species were collected in 1993 and 206 species were collected in 1994 (Appendix V). All individuals collected were collected from the light traps. The numbers of individuals of each species and the date of collection has been recorded (Appendix VI).

The three dominant moth species of the entire collection period are given for each site for 1993 and 1994 (Table 8). The five year old sites were dominated by species such as Enargia decolor (Walker) and species in the genus Abagrotis. The dominant species in the 15 year old sites included Eulithis explanata (Walker), Itame occiduaria (Packard) and Nycteola frigidana (Walker). In the 25 year old sites the dominant species included those found in the 15 year old sites and Caripeta angustiorata Walker. In the 40 year old

age class, the most abundant species included those found in the 25 year age class, although N. frigidana was less prevalent. Species such as N. frigidana and members of the genus Itame are common to all age classes (Table 8).

In 1993, neither type of regeneration ($F_{1,7} = 0.282$) nor the interaction of regeneration type with stand age ($F_{3,7} = 0.722$) were significant, but stand age ($F_{3,7} = 7.521$; P < 0.05) had a significant effect on the mean number of moths collected per site. In general, the mean number of moths increased with an increase in stand age, peaking in the 40 year age class (Fig. 41). The same general trend was observed in 1994, except that the number of moths peaked in the 25 year old sites in the natural stands rather than the 40 year old sites as was the case in 1993. The number of moths collected in the planted stands peaked in the 40 year age class in 1994 as it did in 1993 (Fig. 42). All of regeneration type ($F_{1,7} = 8.756$; P < 0.05), stand age ($F_{3,7} = 19.544$; P < 0.001) and the interaction term ($F_{3,7} = 6.096$; P < 0.05) were significant for the mean number of moths collected in 1994.

The mean number of species of moths collected in 1993 and 1994 showed the same trends as were observed for the mean number of moth individuals. Planted stands peaked in the 40 year age class in both years, the natural stands peaked in the 40 year age class in 1993 and in the 25 year age class in 1994 (Figs. 43, 44). In 1993, only stand age ($F_{3,7} = 11.322$; P < 0.01) had a significant effect on mean number of moth species, and type of regeneration ($F_{1,7} = 0.040$) and the interaction term ($F_{3,7} = 0.215$) were not significant. In 1994, all of type of regeneration($F_{1,7} = 18.361$; P < 0.01), stand age ($F_{3,7} = 72.178$; P < 0.001) and the interaction term ($F_{3,7} = 10.948$; P < 0.01) had a significant

effect on the mean number of moth species.

Moth a diversity

An analysis of variance of the log series α for moths in 1993 indicated that stand age ($F_{3,7} = 4.736$; p < 0.05) was statistically significant, but neither regeneration type ($F_{1,7} = 0.243$) nor the interaction term ($F_{3,7} = 0.407$) were. Log series α values for natural stands peaked in the 25 year age class, while in the planted stands, log series α values peaked in the 40 year age class (Fig. 46). In general, there was an increase in α diversity with an increase in age in 1993. The replicates within each treatment type / age class were quite variable. In 1994, all of regeneration type ($F_{1,7} = 7.817$; P < 0.05), stand age ($F_{3,7} = 27.395$; P < 0.001) and the interaction term ($F_{3,7} = 6.367$; P < 0.05) were significant. Alpha diversity values for natural stands increased with increasing age (Fig. 47). The values for the natural stands were quite variable in the 25 year age class but were stable in the other age classes. The planted stands showed the same general trend, but the α values dropped in the 25 year age class before peaking in the 40 year age class. The planted stands were more variable than the natural stands in all but the 25 year age class.

In 1993, none of type of regeneration ($F_{1,7} = 5.047$), stand age ($F_{3,7} = 1.781$) nor the interaction of the two ($F_{3,7} = 2.711$) had a significant effect on the Berger Parker index of dominance. The planted stands exhibited a higher degree of dominance than was observed in the natural stands in all but the youngest age class. The degree of dominance was fairly uniform across all age classes (Figure 45). In 1994, only stand age ($F_{3,7} = 17.890$; P < 0.001) was statistically significant. Neither type of regeneration ($F_{1,7} = 0.968$)

nor the interaction of the two ($F_{3,7} = 1.035$) was significant. Both planted and naturally regenerated stands exhibited a similar degree of dominance. The level of dominance peaked in the five year old stands and decreased with increasing stand age (Figure 45).

Moth β diversity

In 1993, a paired t-test of Kendall's τ showed that there was no significant difference between planted and natural stands (t = 0.422; d.f. = 2) (Fig. 48). Planted and natural stands did not differ significantly in 1994 (t = -1.183; d.f. = 2), however, the 25 and 40 year old planted stands were much more similar than were the natural stands (Fig. 49).

When Sørenson's coefficient was used to determine the degree of similarity between replicates, no significant difference (t=0.688; d.f. = 2) was observed between planted and natural stands in 1993 and the amount of difference between planted and natural stands was less than that observed when Kendall's τ was used (Fig. 50). In 1994, again there was no significant difference between planted and natural stands (t=-0.375; d.f. = 2). As with 1993, the planted and natural stands differed less in degree of similarity than when calculated with Kendall's τ (Fig. 51).

Ordination analysis of moth species

Correspondence analysis. In 1993, the Correspondence Analysis of the most common moth species in the sites produced an ordination diagram in which the combined eigenvalue of the first two axes was 0.54 and thus explained 27.2 % of the variation

around the axes (Fig. 52). As with the ordination diagrams of the vegetation species and the butterflies, the five year old sites are separated from the rest of the age classes. The eigenvector elements of some of the moth species which prefer open habitats such as Leucania commoides, Apamaea commoda (Walker) and Rhyncagrotis anchocelioides (Guenée) have a strong positive correlation to axis 1 and were responsible for dictating the distribution of the 5 year old sites at the positive end of the first axis.

The five year old sites were removed and an ordination was performed on the most abundant moth species of the remaining age classes (number of each species collected > 1% of the total number of moths collected). An ordination diagram was produced in which the combined eigenvalues of the first two axes was 0.225 which explained 60.6% of the ordinates' variance around the axes (Figure 53). Axis 1 separated the sites on the basis of age. The younger sites are correlated with the positive end of axis 1 and the older sites are correlated with the negative end.

In 1994, the ordination diagram was similar to that of the previous year. The first two axes had a combined eigenvalue of 0.441 which explained 26.9 % of the ordinates' variation around the axes (Fig. 54). The five year old sites were again separated from the remaining age classes and the positive end of axis 1. The eigenvectors of open habitat moth species such as *Xylomyges dolosa* Grote, *Sicya macularia* (Harris), *Caenurgina crassiuscula* (Haworth), and *Amathes collaris* (Grote & Robinson) have a strong positive correlation to axis 1 and were the main moth species responsible for dictating the distribution of the 5 year old sites at the positive end of the first axis.

Again, the five year old sites were removed and an ordination was performed on

the remaining age classes. An ordination diagram was produced in which the combined eigenvalue of the first two axes was 0.164 which explained 54.6% of the ordinates' variance around the axes (Figure 55). Axis 1 separated the sites on the basis of age. The younger sites are correlated with the positive end of axis 1 and the older sites are correlated with the negative end.

Canonical Correspondence Analysis - Moths with their foodplants

An ordination was performed on a number of monophagous and polyphagous moth species and their respective foodplants. Only the three older age classes were used. An ordination diagram was produced in which the combined eigenvalue of the first two ordination axes was 0.226 which explained 56.0% of the ordinates' variance around the axes (Figure 56). Both moth species and vegetation species were responsible for site placement. Axis 1 separated the sites primarily on the basis of age, with the younger sites correlated with the positive end of the axis. Axis 2 separated the sites on the basis of degree of openness, the darker sites most strongly correlated with the positive end of the axis. As was the case with the butterflies, moth species tend to be placed in the same region as their foodplants in the ordination diagram. For example Clemensia albata Packard, which is more commonly found in forest sites of intermediate to older ages, is strongly associated with its foodplants, the lichens in the genus Cladina. From other ordinations, it was observed that this was not always the case for all moth species, as is exemplified by Euchlaena obtusaria (Hübner) which was not strongly associated with its food plant, Rosa acicularis Lindl..

An ordination diagram of the 1994 data, in which the combined eigenvalue of the first two axes was 0.125, which explained 43.6% of the variance around the axes (Figure 57). The distribution of sites and species was similar to that observed in 1993 with the sites being separated on the basis of degree of openness. The species distribution pattern was much the same as that observed in 1993.

Canonical Correspondence Analysis - Moths and environmental variables.

Canonical Correspondence Analysis (CCA) of moth species with environmental variables produced an ordination with a high degree of covariability among the environmental variables. Forward selection was used to determine which of the environmental variables was mot important in explaining the trends in the vegetation data. Monte Carlo testing of the environmental variables determined that only mean light intensity was significant. The use of only one environmental variable results in an ordination diagram in which all sites are aligned along axis 1. To increase the dimensionality, a second environmental variable, mean tree density, was added.

In the CCA diagram of 1993 moth species and the two environmental variables, mean light intensity and coefficient of variation of light intensity, the first two axes accounted for 21.7% of the variation in the species data (Figure 58). In 1994, the first two axes accounted for 24.8% of the variance (Figure 59). The arrangement of the sites and moth species was very similar to the CA ordination diagrams. The trend was for the more open sites to be strongly correlated with the positive end of axis 1, while the more closed, older forest sites were placed at the negative end of axis 1.

Table 1. Site description, location, plantation size and soil series.

Site	Type of Regeneration	Age Class (Years)	Section Township Range	Year of Fire or	Plantation Size (ha)	Soil Type* (series or complex)
BSA	Natural	5	NW 24-5-10E	1987	N/A	Sandilands-Woodridge
B5B	Natural	5	NW 15-5-10E	1987	N/A	Sandilands
P5A	Planted	5	SW 28-5-10E	1989	4	Sandilands
P5B	Planted	5	SW 16-5-10E	1989	6	Sandilands
B15A	Natural	15	SW 13-4-10E	1974	N/A	Sandilands-Woodridge
P15A	Planted	15	SE 24-6-10E	1978	11	Sandilands and shallow peat
P15B	Planted	15	NE 26-4-9E	1976	8	Sandilands-Woodridge
B25A	Natural	25	NE 23-4-10E	1964	N/A	Sandilands-Woodridge
B25B	Natural	25	SE 23-4-9E	1963	N/A	Woodridge
P25A	Planted	25	NE 3-5-9E	1965†	16	Woodridge
P25B	Planted	25	SW 36-4-9E	1964†	25	Sandilands
B40A	Natural	40	NE 22-3-12E	1946	N/A	Woodridge-Lonesand-Kerry
B40B	Natural	40	NW 13-4-10E	1952	N/A	Woodridge
P40A	Planted	40	SE 16-4-10E	1952	10	Sandilands
P40B	Planted	40	NW 32-4-11E	1952	8	Woodridge

[•] Soil descritions are from the Manitoba Soil Survey (Smith et al., 1964)

[†] Indicates sites were partially replanted at a later date.

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Maximum, minimum, daytime and night time mean temperatures* (°C). Table 2.

Site	Age Class (Years)	Type of Regeneration	Maximum Temperature	Minimum Temperature	Maximum Minimum Mean Daytime Temperature Temperature†	Mean Nighttime Temperature**
BSB	w	Natural	38.0	-9.7	17.0	11.6
PSB	w	Planted	36.3	-10.2	16.4	10.4
B15A	15	Natural	37.9	8.9-	17.4	11.7
P15B	15	Planted	38.8	-10.2	19.0	11.3
B25A	25	Natural	42.6	8.9-	17.6	11.6
P25B	25	Planted	39.2	-7.8	18.2	12.3
B40B	40	Natural	37.9	-5.9	19.4	12.7
P40A	40	Planted	38.3	-6.9	17.1	11.7

* Temperatures were recorded from 25 April to 23 July, 1995.
† Daytime is defined as the period from 06:00 h to 18:00 h.
**Night time is defined as the period from 18:00 h to 06:00 h.

Table 3. Light intensity, tree density and dominant ground vegetation within the study sites.

Site	Mean Light Intensity (Lux)	CV(x) Light Intensity**	Mean Tree Density (/100m²)	CV(x) Tree Density**	Dominant Ground Vegetation
B5A	196449	0.246	35.4	0.317	Andropogon gerardi Antennaria neodioica Koeleria gracilis
15B	114000	0.999	32.3	0.709	Andropogon gerardi Vaccinium anguntifolium Arctostapkylos uvo-ursi
?5 A	114000	9.999	12.8	0.463	Koeleria gracilis Andropogon gerardi Carex pensylvanica
5B	114000	0.000	24.4	0,507	Oryzopsis pungens Calamovilfa longifolia Andropogon gerardi
115A	45024	0.868	61.9	0,473	Vaccinium angustifolium Cladina spp. Oryzopsis pungens
15A	63567	9.607	14.2	0.271	Vaccinium angustifolium Cladina spp. Oryzopsis pungens
15B	86040	0.455	12.0	0.583	Andropogon gerardi Amorpha canescens Fragaria virginiana
25A	85440	2.547	29.0	0,444	Cladina spp. Vaccinium angustifolium Pleurozium schreberi
25B	53600	0.771	12.9	0.766	Arctostapkylos uva-ursi Andropogon gerardi Pleurozium schreberi
25A	20280	0.906	22.8	0.237	Vaccinium angustifolium Andropogon gerardi Anemone nemorosa
25 B	64120	0.674	12.2	0.390	Symphoricarpos albus Andropogon gerardi Arctostaphylos uva-ursi
40 A	31868	1.115	18.6	0.217	Pleurozium schreberi Oryzopsis asperifolia Pteridium aquilinum
40B	32960	0.972	14.3	0.289	Pleurozium schreberi Maianthemum canadense Vaccinium angustifolium
40 A	42560	0.804	17.0	0.344	Pleurozium schreberi Oryzopsis asperifolia Vaccinium angustifolium
40B	35606	0.730	11.9	0.420	Cladina spp. Pleurozium schreberi Maianthemum canadense

^{**} CV(x)=SD/Mean

Dominant Butterfly and Skipper Species for 1993. Table 4.

Site	Type of Regeneration	Dominant Butterfly Species First Plight Period®	Dominant Butterfly Species Second Plight Period†	Dominant Butterfly Species
B5A	Natural	Releriz bellenz	Spejeria aphrodia	Boloria bellona Spayeria aphrodite Cercyonia pegala
B5B	Natural	Boloriz bellone	Spoyeria aphrodite	Boloria bellona Speyeria aphrodite Cercyonis pegala
P5A	Planted	Ruchlos ausonides	Cercyonis po gale	Cercyonis pegala Euchloe ausonides Boloria bellona
P5 B	Planted	Boloria bellona	Cercyonis pegale	Cercyonis pegala Colias interior Boloria bellona
B15A	Natural	Boloria bellona	Collas interior	Colias interior Phyciodes batesii Boloria bellona
P15A	Planted	Boloria bellona	Colias interior	Colias interior Speyeria aphrodite Cercyonis pegala
P15B	Planted	Euchloe ausonides	Cercyonis pegale	Buchloe ausonides Cercyonis pegala Speyeria aphrodite
B25A	Natural	Callophrys polios	Colias interior	Colias interior Callophrys polios Boloria bellona
B25B	Natural	Callophrys polies	Colias interior	Colias interior Callophrys polios Bnodia anthedon
P25A	Planted	Celastrina argiolus	Enodia anthedon	Enodia anthedon Celastrina argiolus Satyrium liparops
P25B	Planted	Pounes hobomok	Enodia anthedon	Enodia anthedon Limenitis arthemis Poanes hobomok
B40A	Natural	Glaucopsyche lygdamus	Enedia anthedon	Enodia anthedon Limenitis arthemis Glaucopsyche lygdami
B40B	Natural	Poanes kobomok	Colias interior	Colias interior Poanes hobomok Callophrys polios
P40A	Planted	Amblyscirtes vialis	Enodia anthedon	Enodia anthedon Colias interior Amblyscirtes vialis
P40B	Planted	Glaucopsyche lygdamus	Enodia anthedon	Enodia anthedon Glaucopsyche lygdami Colias interior

[•] First flight period is from week one to week eleven as defined in Appendix III.
† Second flight period is from week twelve to week twenty-two as defined in Appendix III.

Table 5. Dominant Butterfly and Skipper Species for 1994.

Site	Type of Regeneration	Dominant Butterfly Species First Flight Period*	Dominant Butterfly Species Second Flight Period†	Dominant Butterfly Species
BSA	Natural	Boloria bellona	Spoyeria aphrodite	Speyerie aphrodite Colias interior Nymphalis milberti
B5B	Natural	Boloria bellona	Spoyeria aphrodite	Speyeria aphrodite Cercyonis pegals Colias interior
P5A	Planted.	Boloria bellona	Cercyonis pegale	Cercyonis pogala Pieris rapae Boloria bellona
P5B	Planted	Boloria bellona	Cercyonis pegala	Cercyonis pegala Boloria bellona Pieris rapae
B15A	Natural	Boloria bellona	Colies interior	Colias interior Speyeria aphrodite Boloria bellona
P15A	Planted	Oeneis macounii	Colies interior	Colias interior Oeneis macounii Callophrys polios
P15B	Planted	Boloria bellona	Limenitis arthemis	Limenitis arthemis Speyeria aphrodite Cercyonis pegala
B25A	Natural	Boloria bellona	Colias interior	Colias interior Boloria bellona Callophrys polios
B25B	Natural	Oeneis macounii	Limenitis arthemis	Limenitis arthemis Enodia enthedon Oeneis macounii
P25A	Planted	Celastrina argiolas	Enodia anthedon	Enodia anthedon Limenitis arthemis Celastrina argiolus
P25B	Planted	Boloria bellona	Enodia anthedon	Enodia enthedon Limenitis arthemis Speyeria cybele
B40A	Natural	Oensis maconnii	Bnodiz anthedon	Enodia enthedon Limenitis arthemis Oeneis macounii
B40B	Natural	Oeneis macounii	Enodia enthedon	Enodia anthedon Colias interior Oeneis macounii
P40A	Planted	Oeneis macounii	Enodia anthedon	Enodia anthedon Oeneis macounii Colias interior
P40B	Planted	Oeneis macounii	Colias interior	Oeneis macounii Colias interior Callophrys interior

^{*} First flight period is from week one to week eleven as defined in Appendix III.
† Second flight period is from week twelve to week twenty-two as defined in Appendix III.

Table 6. Butterfly and skipper species distribution by family within all sites (1993 and 1994).

Family	Year	B05A	B05B	P05A	P05B	B15A	P15A	P15B	B25A	B25B	P25A	P25B	B40A	B40B	P40A	P40B
Hesperiidae	1993	10.5	0	0	0	3.1	8.9	3.8	1.8	10.5	1.1	4,3	4.4	17.5	8,9	6.3
•	1994	6.6	0	4.4	0	2.6	6.7	0.5	3.5	5.2	1.5	5.7	8.5	2.7	6.4	1.9
Papilionidae	1993	0	0	0	0	1.6	0	1.3	0	0.8	0	0	2,2	2,5	0	6.3
-	1994	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1.8	0.6	0	0	0	0.7	0	0
Pieridae	1993	10.5	14.3	6.3	28.0	45.3	33.3	26.9	31.6	18.1	1.1	3.8	6.7	37.5	8.9	16.7
	1994	29.5	28.6	24.4	27.0	49.7	29.8	4.7	35.9	8.4	0	10.5	8.5	25.3	6.4	18.5
Lycaenidae	1993	10.5	28.6	0	4.0	9.4	15.6	11.5	31.6	22.6	9.8	8.1	20.0	20,0	6.4	33.3
	1994	11,5	0	0	8.1	9.2	16.3	4.2	12.2	9.4	1.5	6.7	5.0	7.8	8,8	14.8
Nymphalidae	1993	57.8	50.0	12.5	24.0	40.6	31.1	30.8	19.3	22.6	8,7	15.4	40.0	32.5	16.7	37.5
	1994	44.3	50.0	20.0	35.0	33.3	26.9	78.8	28.9	51.9	1,8	44.8	14.9	28.0	13.6	18.5
Satyridae	1993	10.5	7.1	81.3	36.0	1.6	11.1	17.9	8.8	10.5	79.3	68.8	22,2	7,5	58.9	18.8
	1994	6.6	21.4	51.1	27.0	3.9	15,4	11.4	18.4	22.4	95.2	31.4	62,4	34.9	64.8	42.6
Danaidae	1993	0	0	0	0	0	0	2.6	0	0	0	0.5	0	0	0	0
	1994	0	0	0	0	0	1.0	0.2	0	1.0	0	1.0	0	0	0	0

Butterfly and skipper species distribution by feeding strategy within all sites (1993 and 1994). Table 7.

Feeding Year Strategy	B05A	B05B	P05A	P05B	B15A	P15A	P15B	B25A	B25B	P25A	P25B	B40A	B40B	P40A	P40B
Generalist*1993	36.8	21,4	93.8	48.0	18,8	31.1	64.1	35.1	50,4	92.4	85.5	66.7	50.0	76.9	64.5
Specialist† 1993	63.2	78.6	6.2	52.0	81.2	68.9	35.9	64.9	49.6	7.6	14.5	33.3	50.0	23.1	35.5
Generalist*1994	37.7	46.4	77.8	48.6	17.0	39.4	66.0	39.5	78.2	98.1	57.6	93.6	50.7	84.0	64.8
Specialist† 1994	62,3	53.6	22.2	51.4	83.0	60.6	34.0	60.5	21.8	1.9	42.3	6.4	49.3	16.0	35.2

[•] Generalist species is one that feeds on a wide variety of host plants
† Specialist species is one that feeds on a limited range of closely related host plants (one or two species of host)

Table 8. Dominant Meth Species for 1993 and 1994.

lite	Type of Regeneration	Age Class (Years)	Dominant Moth Species 1993	Dominant Meth Species 1994
5A	Natural	5	Energia decolor	Energia decolor
			Abegrotis placida	Casnargina crastiuscula
			Abegratis alternata	Nycteola frigidana
5 B	Natural	5	Buxoe mimellonis	Energie decolor
			Energie decelor	Nycteola frigidana
			Abegratis elternata	lane occiduaria
5A	Planted	5	Energie decolor	Bnargia decolor
			Anaplectoides pressus	Imme occiduaria
			Nycteola frigidana	Holomeline ferruginese
5 B	Planted	5	Energie decolor	lame occidnaria
_	_		Nycteola frigidana	Enargia decolor
			liame occiduaria	Nycteola frigidana
15A	Natural	15	Itame occiduaria	Bulithis explanata
			Eulithis explanate	Itame occiduaria
			Nycteola frigidana	[iame brunneats
15A	Planted	15	Eulithis expleneta	Eulithis explanata
	-	-	liame occiduaria	[tame occiduaria
			Platysenta videns	Nycteola frigidana
15B	Planted	15	[tame occiduaria	Itame occiduaria
			lame anataria	Prochoerodes transversula
			Apodrepanulatriz liberaria	Eulithis explanata
25A	Natural	25	Eulithis explanata	Itame occiduaria
			Nycteola frigidana	Eulithis explanata
			Caripeta angustioreia	Isame brunnesis
25B	Natural	25	Nycteola frigidana	Herculia olinalis
			lame occiduaria	Caripeta angustiorata
			Caripeta angustierata	lame occiduaria
25A	Planted	25	Caripeta angustioreta	Eulithis explanata
~			Eulithis explanata	Caripeta angustiorata
			Nycteola frigidana	Anaplectoides pressus
25B	Planted	25	Apodrepanulatriz liberaria	l'ame occiduaria
			liame occiduaria	Rulithis explaneta
			Itame anataria	Apodrepanulatriz liberaria
40 A	Natural	40	Nycteola frigidana	Enlithis explanata
		••	Eulithis explanata	Cabera erythemeria
			Caripeta angustiorata	Itame brunneste
40B	Naturai	40	Eulithis explanam	Eulithis explanata
	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	••	Caripeta angustioreta	Isame brunneata
			Nycteola frigidana	Itame occiduaria
40A	Planted	40	Bulithis explanata	liame brunneeta
TVA	i iduvili	70	Esumis expansis Itame occiduaria	Rulithis explanate
			Caripeta angustiorata	Caripeta angustiorata
		40	Dulishia analongsa	Eulithis explanate
10 P	Wie otto-			
40B	Planted	40	Eulithis explenate Caripeta angustiorate	Saunn expanses l'iame brunneala

Table 9. Moth species distribution by family within all sites (1993 and 1994).

Family	Year	B05A	B05B	P05A	P05B	B15A	P15A	P15B	B25A	B25B	P25A	P25B	B40A	B40B	P40A	P40B
Oecophoridae	1993	0	0	0	0	1.7	0	0.6	2,5	1.0	0	1.3	0.3	1.3	0.5	8.0
-	1994	0	0	0	0	1.0	0	0.4	1.5	0.7	0	0	0	0.6	0	0.1
Tortricidae	1993	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.6	0	0	0	0.5	0	0	0.1	0
	1994	0	5.2	5.7	1.6	3.0	6.8	1.1	1.9	1,8	0	0	0	2.4	0	1.0
Pyralidae	1993	2.6	0	12.5	17.1	0.9	3.8	8.1	0	0.5	0	0,3	0,3	3,6	0.5	0.3
	1994	0	0	0.4	0	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.3	0	0	0.2	0.2	0
Thyatiridae	1993	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,5	0	0	0.3	0	0	0
	1994	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.1	0	0	0	0.4	0	0	0
Drepanidae	1993	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	.0	0.2	0
	1994	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.2	0	0	0
Geometridae	1993	7.7	15.6	2.5	18,3	63,5	52.9	54.4	55.5	49.1	56.6	52,6	52,3	55.9	72.5	62.5
	1994	8.1	6.9	18.4	47.6	70.8	48.9	48.7	67.7	39.6	59.3	76.1	87.0	67.5	64.3	56.7
Sphingidae	1993	2.6	0	1.3	1.2	1,3	1.9	0	6.3	0,5	2.0	. 0	2.3	8.0	1.4	4.0
	1994	0	0	0	0	0.4	0	0.7	0.8	1.5	0	0.3	0.8	0.5	0.3	. 1.5
Notodontidae	1993	0	0	1.3	0	0.4	0	0	0.4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,5
	1994	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.4	0,2	0.8	0	0	0.6	0.2	0	0.5
Arctiidae	1993	0	15.6	0	3.7	8.6	5.8	2.5	5,9	1.9	0	3,3	2.6	6.6	4.2	5.4
	1994	0	6.9	3.9	8,0	1.9	3.1	5.0	5.4	3.0	1.8	7.1	1.9	4.4	4.5	5.9
Lymantriidae	1993	0	0	0	. 0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	1994	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.2	0	0	0	0	0	0
Noctuidae	1993	87.2	68.8	82.5	59.8	23.9	35.6	33.8	29.4	46.7	41.4	42.1	41.8	31.9	20.6	26.5
	1994	91.9	84.5	71.5	49.6	22.6	40.6	43.4	22.0	51,8	38.6	16.5	9.3	24,3	30.6	34.1

Table 10. Moth species distribution by feeding strategy within all sites (1993 and 1994).

Feeding Year Strategy	B05A	B05B	P05A	P05B	B15A	P15A	P15B	B25A	B25B	P25A	P25B	B40A	B40B	P40A	P40B
Generalist*1993	84.6	90.6	67.5	81.7	73.4	63.5	69.4	51.7	74.5	73.7	67.2	70.9	70.9	43.0	55,8
Specialist† 1993	15.4	9.4	32.5	18.3	26.6	36.5	30.6	48.3	25.5	26.3	32,8	29.1	29,1	57.0	44.2
Generalist*1994	87.1	87.1	91.7	82.3	56.6	68.8	70.6	73.7	63.5	47.8	61.8	70.9	71.2	70.7	60.3
Specialist† 1994	12,9	12,9	8.3	17.7	43.4	31.2	29.4	26.3	36.5	52.2	38.2	29.1	28.8	29,3	39.7

[•] Generalist species is one that feeds on a wide variety of host plants
† Specialist species is one that feeds on a limited range of closely related host plants (one or two species of host)

Figure 1. Location of study sites in the Sandilands Provincial Forest, located in southeastern Manitoba. Sites are represented by (●). Code description for sites may be found in Table 1. (Map obtained from Surveys and Mapping Branch, Department of Energy, Mines and Resources, Ottawa, Canada).

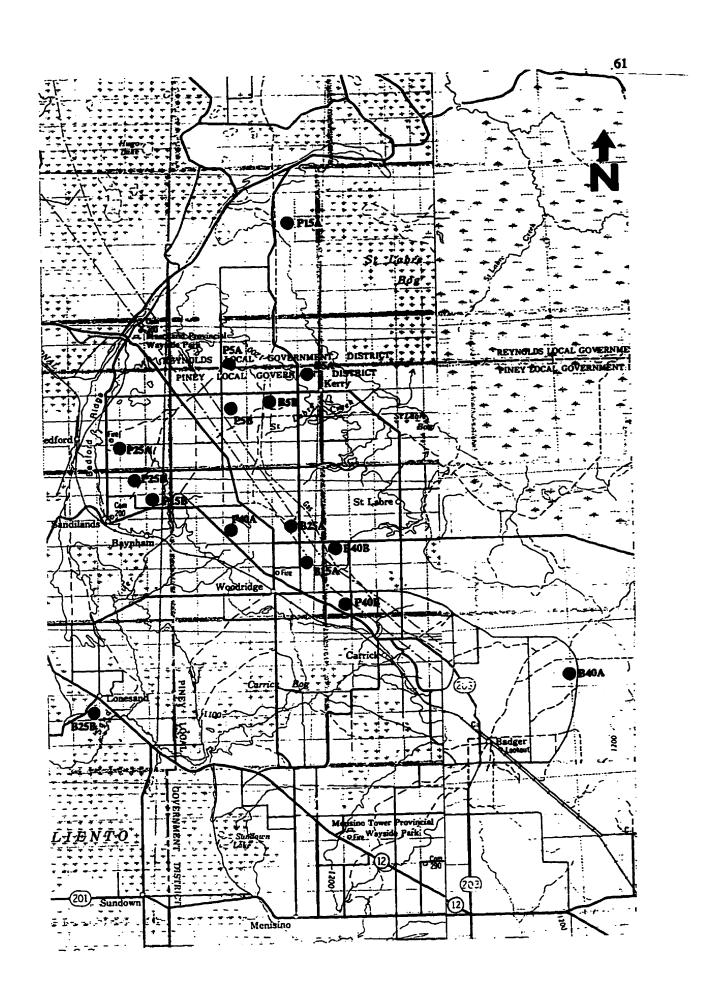


Figure 2. Schematic representation of light intensity sampling pattern within study plots in the Sandilands Provincial Forest. Each X represents the location within the site where a single measurement of light intensity was taken. The scales represent the dimensions of the one hectare plot and are in ten metre increments. Direction was measured from east to west and north to south.

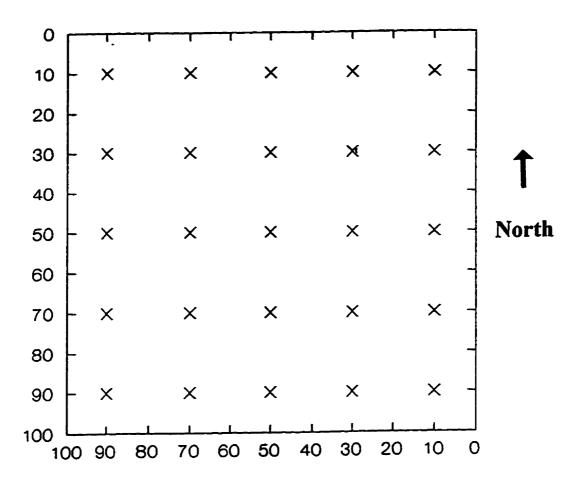


Figure 3. Schematic diagram of a Luminoc® (Biocom, 1992) light trap used for collection of moths. (Modified from Biocom, 1992)

Figure 4. Monthly totals of precipitation (mm) in 1993 () and 1994 () at the Winnipeg International Airport for the months of April through September. Data obtained from Environment Canada monthly summaries.

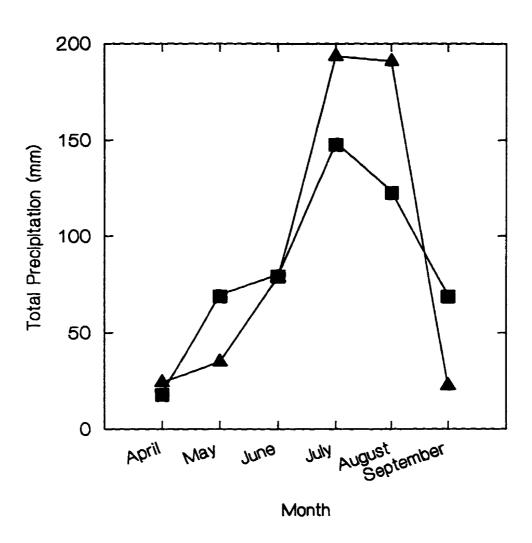


Figure 5. Monthly totals of bright sunshine (hours) in 1993 () and 1994 () at the Winnipeg International Airport for the months of April through September.

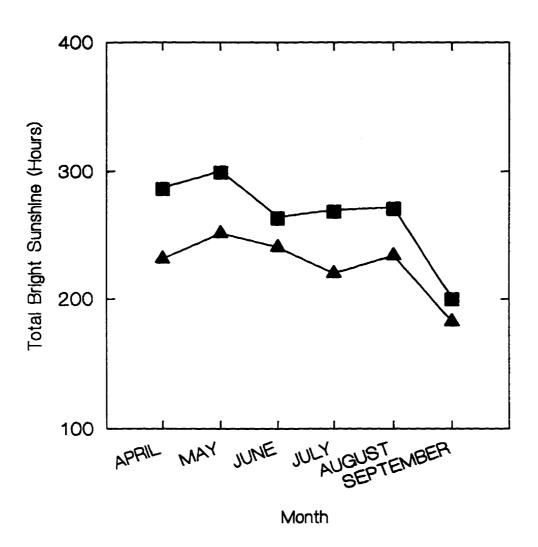
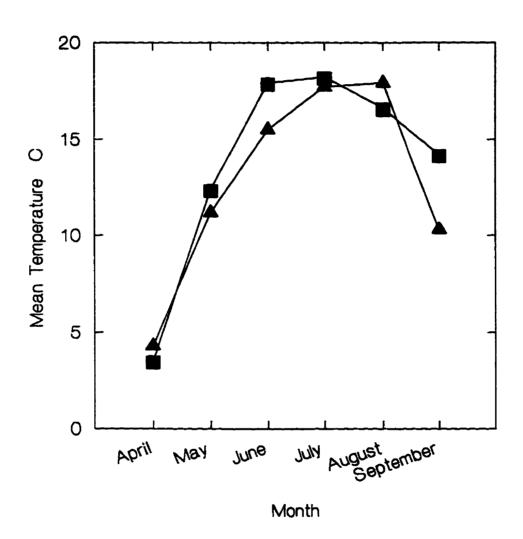
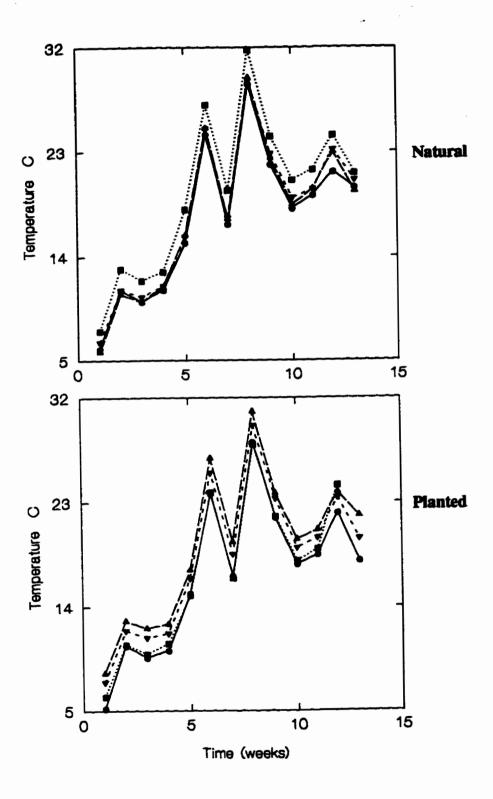


Figure 6. Monthly mean temperature (°C) in 1993 (A—) and 1994 (B---) at the Winnipeg International Airport for the months of April through September.



Mean daytime air temperatures at a height of one metre in 5 year old (♠—), 15 year old (♠—), 25 year old (♠—) and 40 year old (♣—) planted and naturally regenerated stands located in the Sandilands Provincial Forest. Time is expressed in weeks starting with "week 1", which corresponds to the week of April 25, 1995.



Mean night time air temperature at a height of one metre in 5 year old (♠—), 15 year old (♠—), 25 year old (₱—) and 40 year old (♣—) planted and naturally regenerated stands located in the Sandilands Provincial Forest. Time is expressed in weeks starting with "week 1", which corresponds to the week of April 25, 1995.

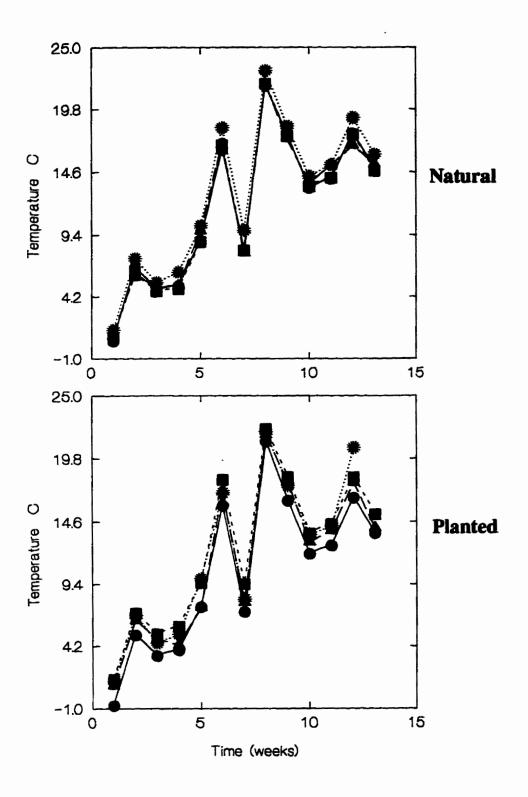


Figure 9. Mean daytime air temperature at a height of one metre, in planted (and naturally regenerated () stands of the four age classes for stands located in the Sandilands Provincial Forest. Time is expressed in weeks starting with "week 1", which corresponds to the week of April 25, 1995.

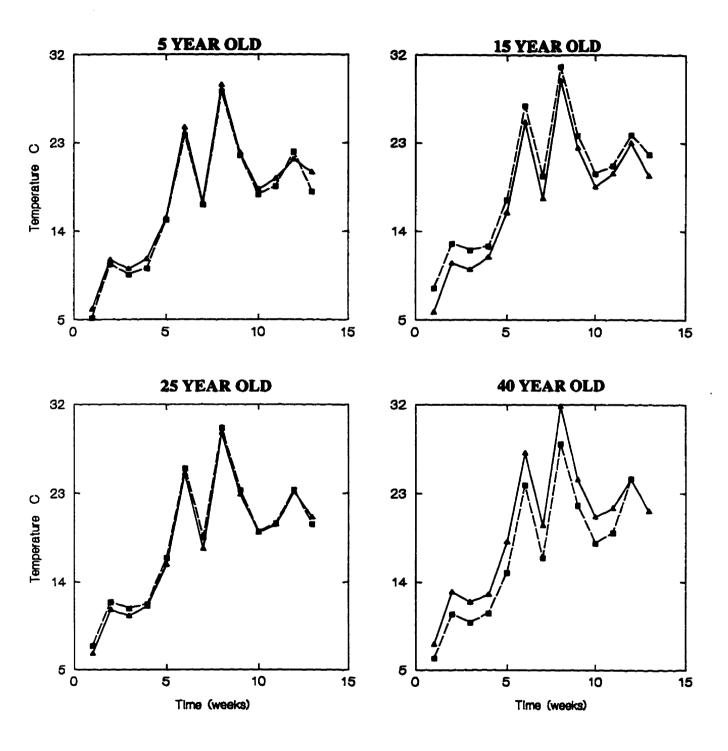


Figure 10. Mean night time air temperatures at a height of one metre, in planted (\(\mathbb{L}\)---) and naturally regenerated (\(\mathbb{L}\)---) stands of the four age classes located in the Sandilands Provincial Forest. Time is expressed in weeks starting with "week 1", which corresponds to the week of April 25, 1995.

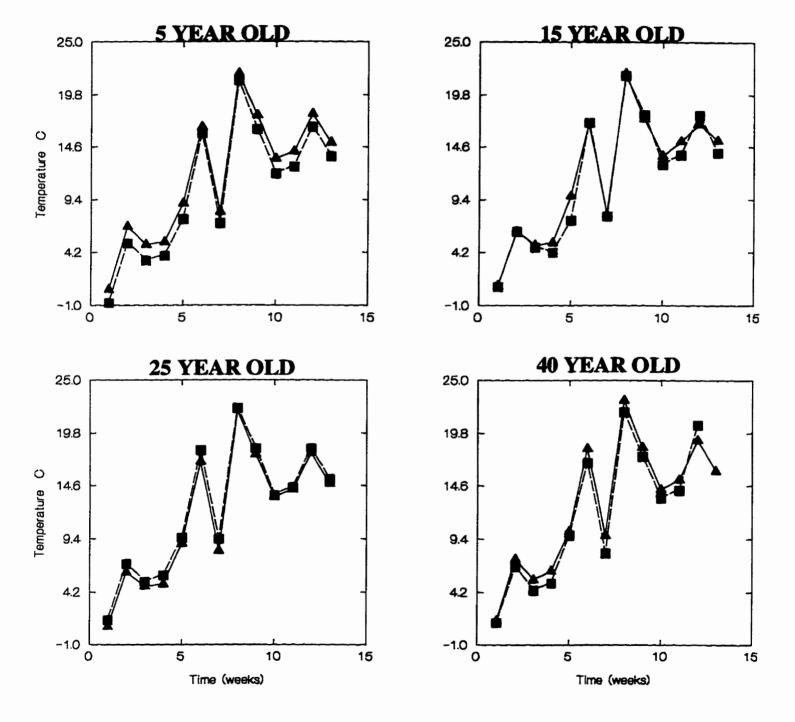


Figure 11. The effects of stand age on mean light intensity (lux) of each stand at a height of 2 m in planted () and naturally regenerated () stands in 1994. (Error bars represent standard error; no replication of 15 year old naturally regenerated stand.)

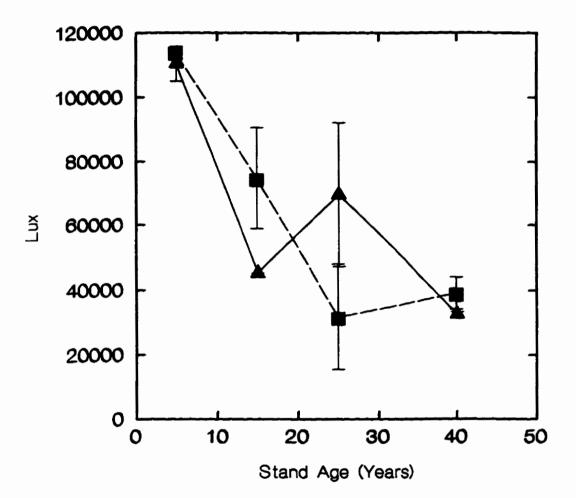


Figure 12. The effects of stand age on the mean coefficient of variation of light intensity in planted (and naturally regenerated (and stands in 1994.

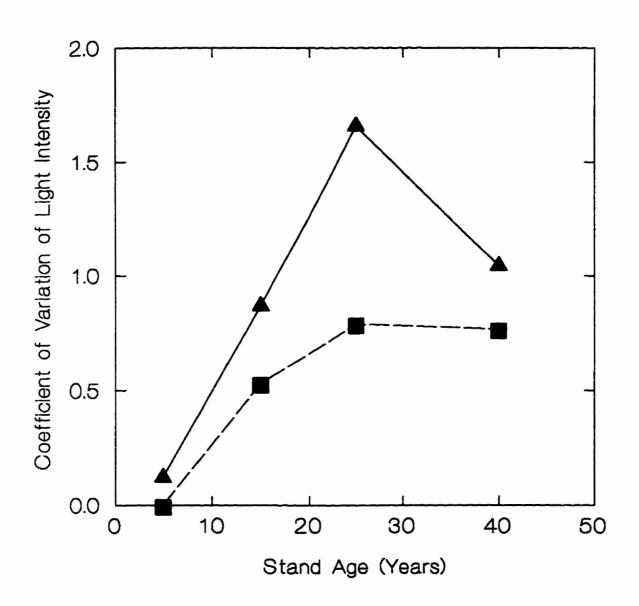


Figure 13. The effects of stand age on mean tree density (trees per 100 m²) in planted (——) and naturally regenerated (——) stands. (Error bars represent standard error; no replication of 15 year old naturally regenerated stand.)

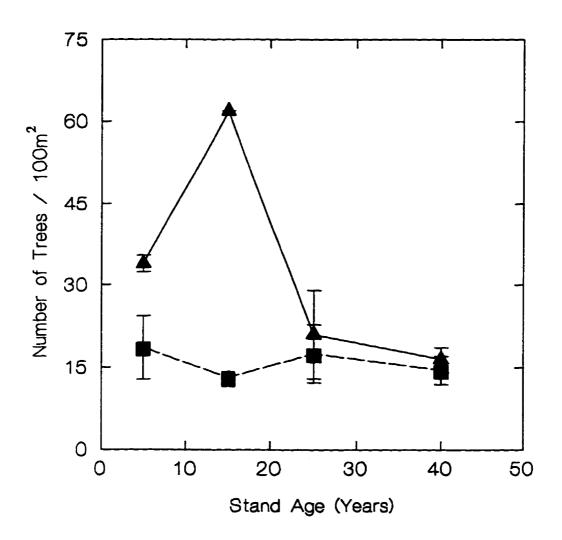


Figure 14. The effects of stand age on the coefficient of variation within sites of tree density in planted (\(\bigcup_{---} \)) and naturally regenerated (\(\bigcup_{---} \)) stands.

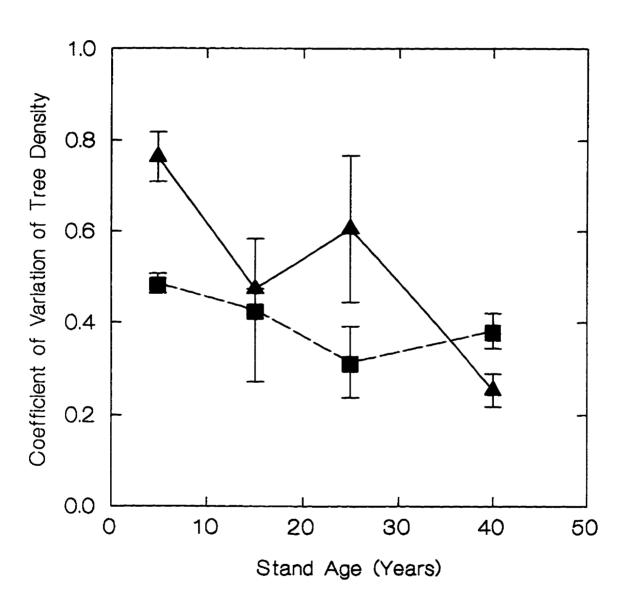
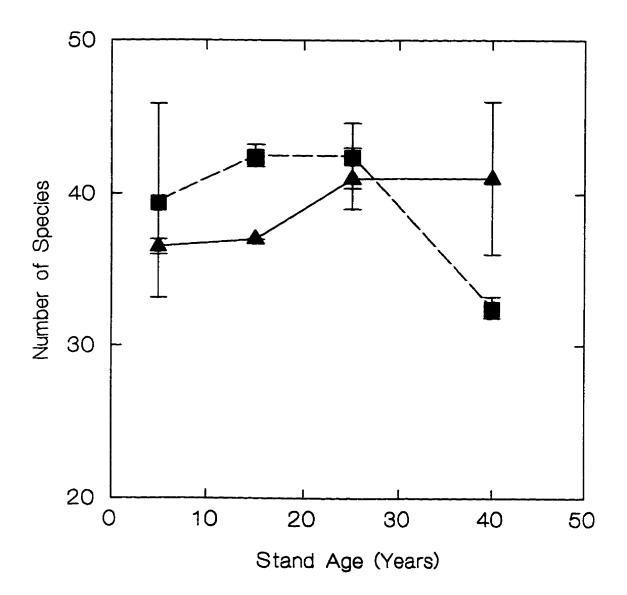


Figure 15. The effects of stand age on the mean number of ground vegetation species sampled in planted () and naturally regenerated () stands in 1993. (Error bars represent standard error; no replication of 15 year old naturally regenerated stand.)



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Figure 16. The effects of stand age on the mean number of ground vegetation species sampled in planted (\(\bigcar \)—) and naturally regenerated (\(\bigcar \)—) stands in 1994. (Error bars represent standard error; no replication of 15 year old naturally regenerated stand.)

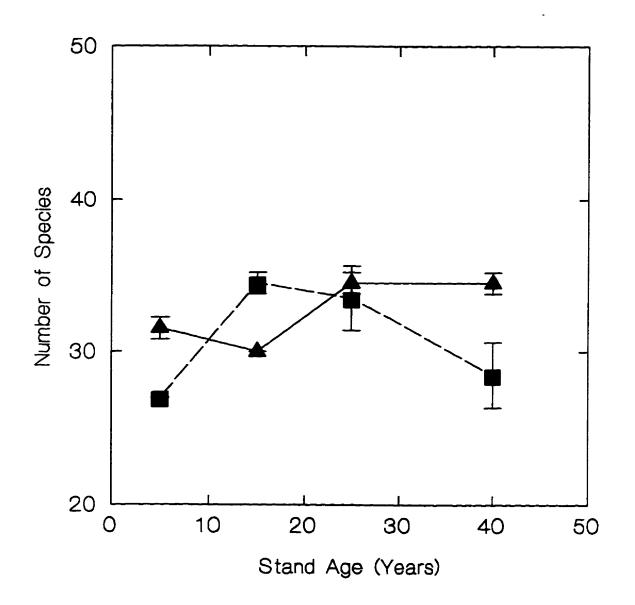


Figure 17. Ground vegetation data (1993). PCA ordination diagram with site scores (\spadesuit) and species scores (\spadesuit); first axis (horizontal) has an eigenvalue of 0.337 = 33.7 % and the second axis, (vertical) has an eigenvalue of 0.165 = 16.5%.

Key to vegetation species: amelanch = Amelanchier alnifolia, amorpha = Amorpha canescens, andropog = Andropogon gerardi, anempat = Anemone patens, apocynum = Apocynum androsaemifolium, arctost = Arctostaphylos uva-ursi, asterl = Aster laevis, carexpen = Carex pensylvanica, carexric = Carex richardsonii, carexros = Carex rossii, c.mitis = Cladina mitis, c.rangif = Cladina rangiferina, cladonia = Cladonia spp., cornus = Cornus canadensis, dicranum = Dicranum polysetum, epilobiu = epilobium angustifolium, equiset = Equisetum hyemale, firemoss = Ceratodon purpureus, fragaria = Fragaria virginiana, gaulther = Gaultheria procumbens, koeleria = Koeleria gracilis, maianth = Maianthemum canadense, monarda = Monarda fistulosa, o.asper = Oryzopsis asperifolia, o.pung = Oryzopsis pungens, pleuroz = Pleurozium schreberi, poa = Poa compressa, prunvirg = Prunus virginiana, pterid = Pteridium aquilinum, pyvirens = Pyrolia virens, thus = Rhus radicans, symphori = Syphoricarpos albus, vaccin = Vaccinium angustifolium, viola = Viola adunca.

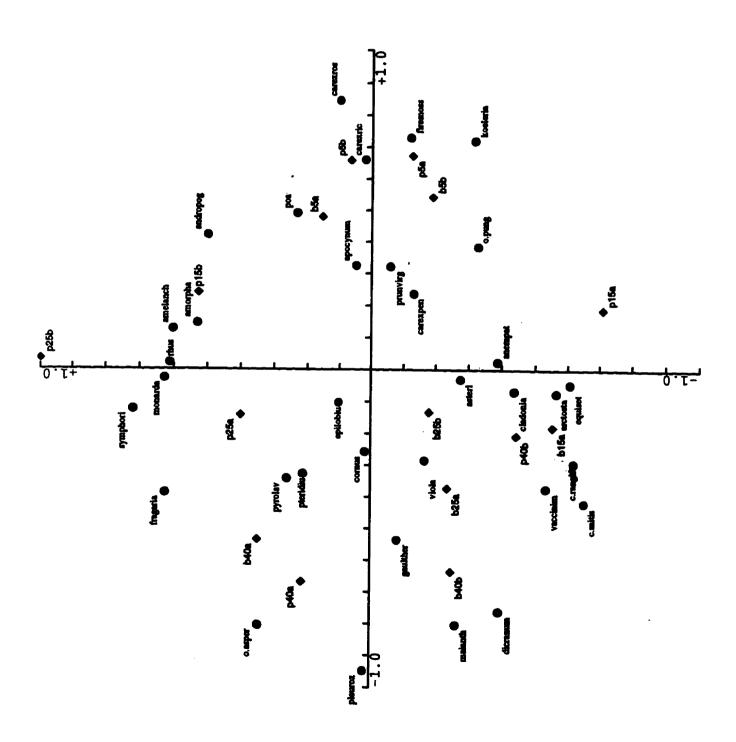


Figure 18. Ground vegetation data (1994). PCA ordination diagram with site scores (\spadesuit) and species scores (\spadesuit); first axis (horizontal) has an eigenvalue of 0.324 = 32.4% and the second axis, (vertical) has an eigenvalue of 0.187 = 18.7%.

Key to vegetation species: amelanch = Amelanchier alnifolia, amorpha = Amorpha canescens, andropog = Andropogon gerardi, arctost = Arctostaphylos uva-ursi, ceanoth = Ceanothus ovatus, carexpen = Carex pensylvanica, c.mitis = Cladina mitis, c.rangif = Cladina rangiferina, cornus = Cornus canadensis, corylus = Corylus cornuta, dicranum = Dicranum polysetum, equiset = Equisetum hyemale, erigeron = Erigeron acris, firemoss = Ceratodon purpureus, gaulther = Gaultheria procumbens, heuchera = Heuchera richardsonii, maianth = Maianthemum canadense, monarda = Monarda fistulosa, o.asper = Oryzopsis asperifolia, o.pung = Oryzopsis pungens, pleuroz = Pleurozium schreberi, poa = Poa compressa, polygona = Polygonatum canaliculatum, prunvirg = Prunus virginiana, pterid = Pteridium aquilinum, pyvirens = Pyrolia virens, rhus = Rhus radicans, rosa = Rosa acicularis, rubus = Rubus idaeus, spiraea = Spiraea alba, solidago = Solidago nemoralis, symphori = Syphoricarpos albus, vaccin = Vaccinium angustifolium, viola = Viola adunca.

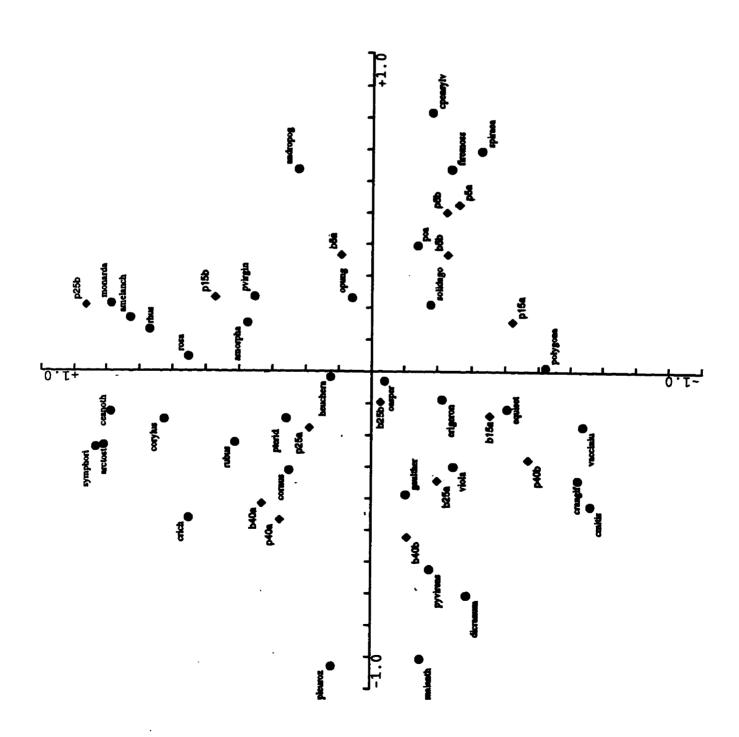


Figure 19. Ground vegetation and environmental data (1993). CCA ordination diagram with site scores (♠), species scores (♠) and environmental variables (arrows); first axis (horizontal) has an eigenvalue of 0.212 = 21.5% and the second axis (vertical) has an eigenvalue of 0.021 = 2.1%.

Key to vegetation species: amelanch = Amelanchier alnifolia, apocynum = Apocynum androsaemifolium, calamovi = Calamovilfa longifolia, cladonia = Cladonia spp., c.rangif = Cladina rangiferina, dicranum = Dicranum polysetum, monarda = Monarda fistulosa, pleuroz = Pleurozium schreberi, prunvirg = Prunus virginiana, solidago = Solidago nemoralis, thalictr = Thalictrum dasycarpum.

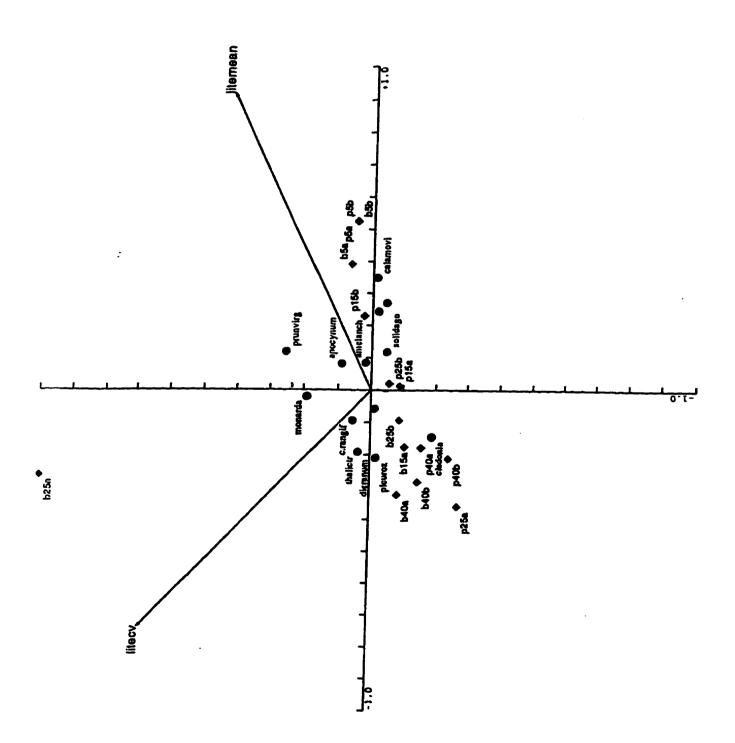


Figure 20. Ground vegetation and environmental data (1994). CCA ordination diagram with site scores (♠), species scores (♠) and environmental variables (arrows); first axis (horizontal) has an eigenvalue of 0.238 = 20.2% and the second axis (vertical) has an eigenvalue of 0.018 = 1.5%.

Key to vegetation species: apocynum = Apocynum androsaemifolium, campanul = Campanula rotundifolia, ceanoth = Ceanothus ovatus, c.mitis = Cladina mitis, polygona = Polygonatum canaliculatus, pleuroz = Pleurozium schreberi, selagine = Selaginella rupestris, solidago = Solidago nemoralis, thalictr = Thalictrum dasycarpum, zizia = Zizia aptera.

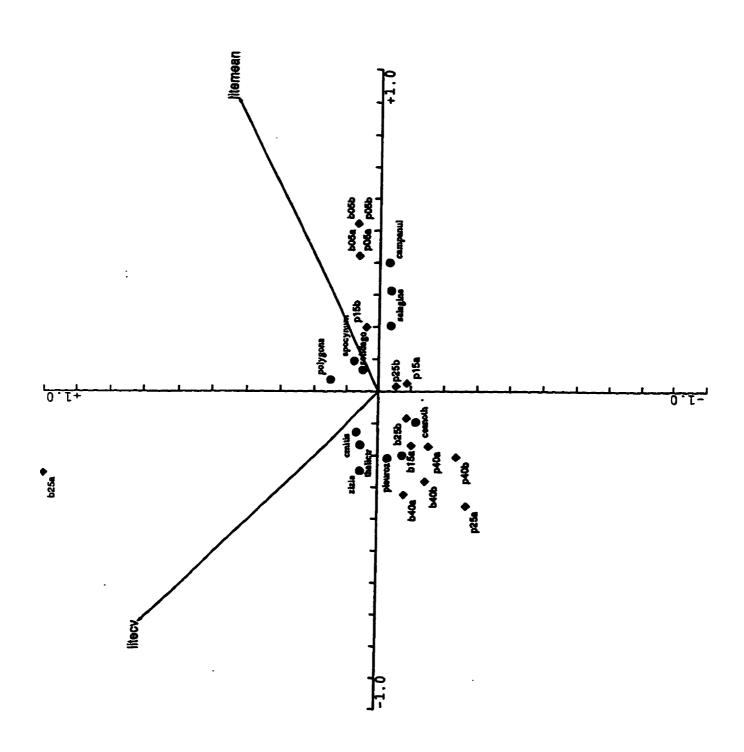


Figure 21. The effects of stand age on the mean number of butterflies collected per site in planted (——) and naturally regenerated (——) stands in 1993. (Error bars represent standard error; no replication of 15 year old naturally regenerated stand.)

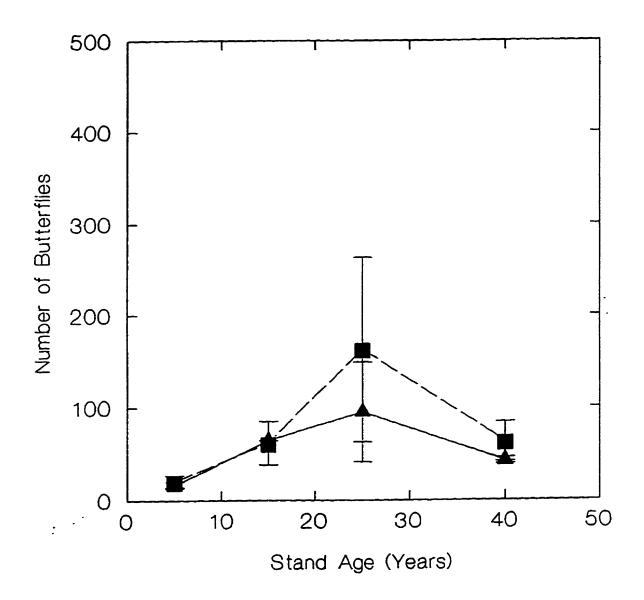


Figure 22. The effects of stand age on the mean number of butterflies and skippers collected per site in planted () and naturally regenerated () stands in 1994. (Error bars represent standard error; no replication of 15 year old naturally regenerated stand.)

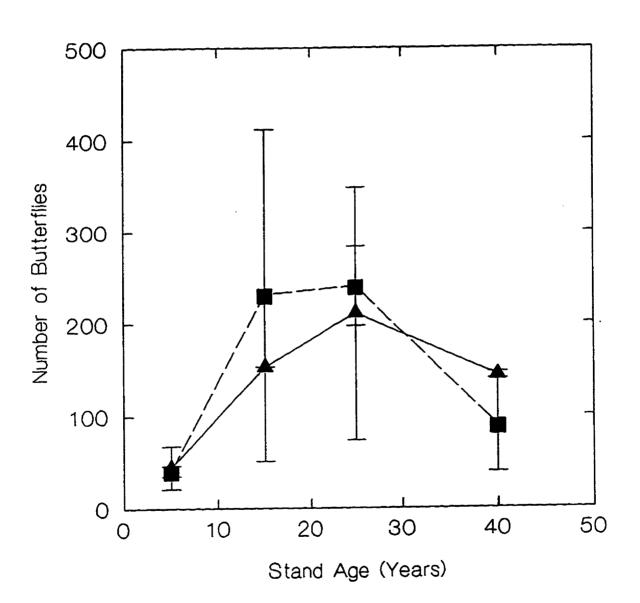


Figure 23. The effects of stand age on the mean number of butterfly and skippers species collected in planted () and naturally regenerated () stands in 1993. (Error bars represent standard error; no replication of 15 year old naturally regenerated stand.)

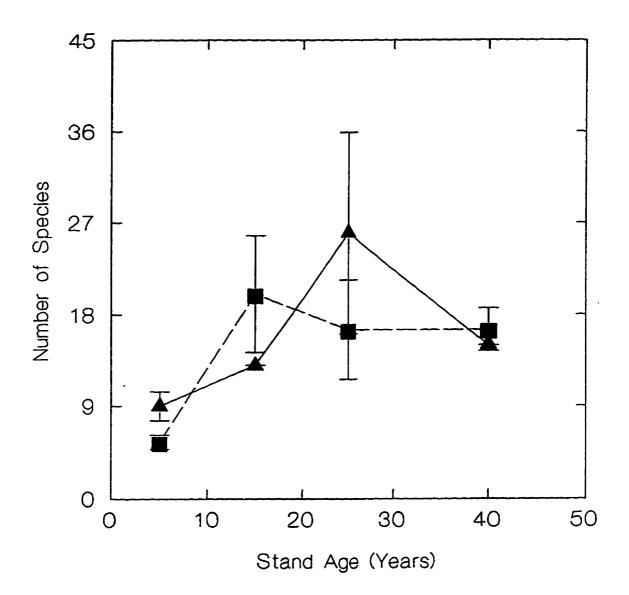


Figure 24. The effects of stand age on the mean number of butterfly and skippers species collected in planted (11---) and naturally regenerated (14---) stands in 1994. (Error bars represent standard error; no replication of 15 year old naturally regenerated stand.)

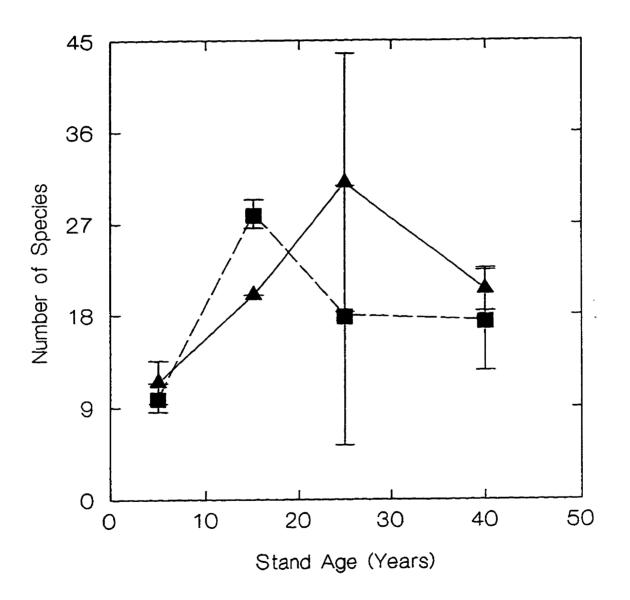
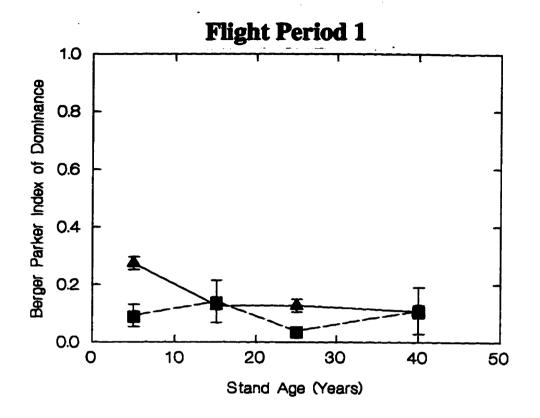


Figure 25. The effects of stand age on the Berger Parker index of dominance for butterflies and skippers collected in planted () and naturally regenerated () stands in 1993. (Error bars represent standard error; no replication of 15 year old naturally regenerated stand.)



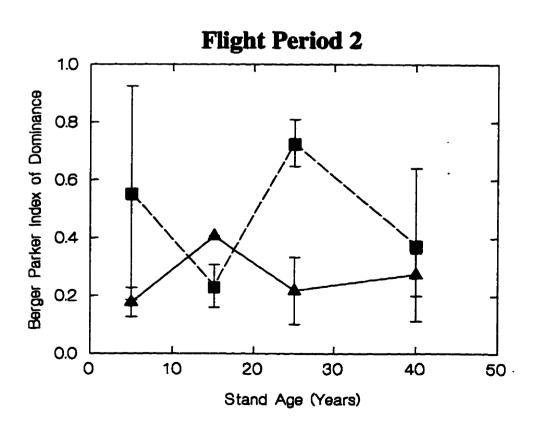
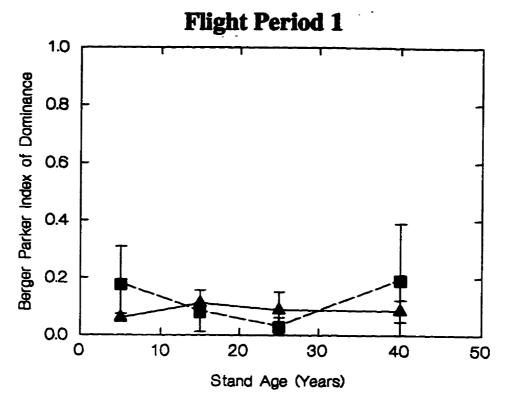


Figure 26. The effects of stand age on the Berger Parker index of dominance for butterflies and skippers collected in planted (11----) and naturally regenerated (12----) stands in 1994. (Error bars represent standard error; no replication of 15 year old naturally regenerated stand.)



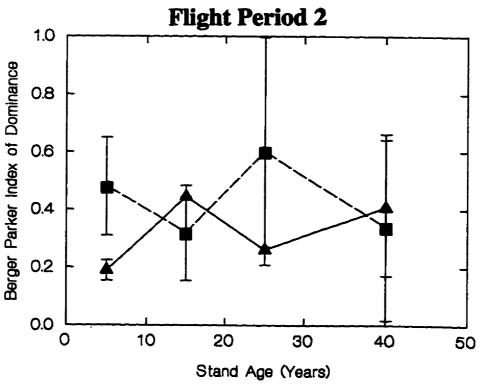


Figure 27. The effects of stand age on the log series α index for butterflies and skippers in planted () and naturally regenerated () stands in 1993. (Error bars represent standard error; no replication of 15 year old naturally regenerated stand.)

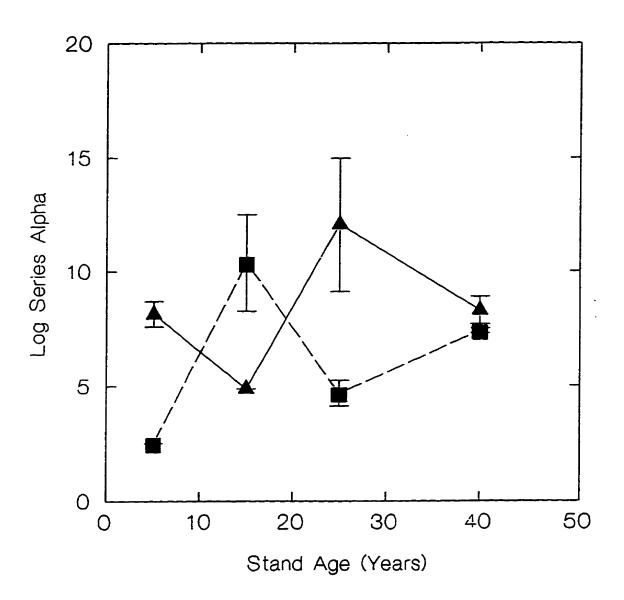


Figure 28. The effects of stand age on the log series α index for butterflies and skippers in planted () and naturally regenerated () stands in 1994. (Error bars represent standard error; no replication of 15 year old naturally regenerated stand.)

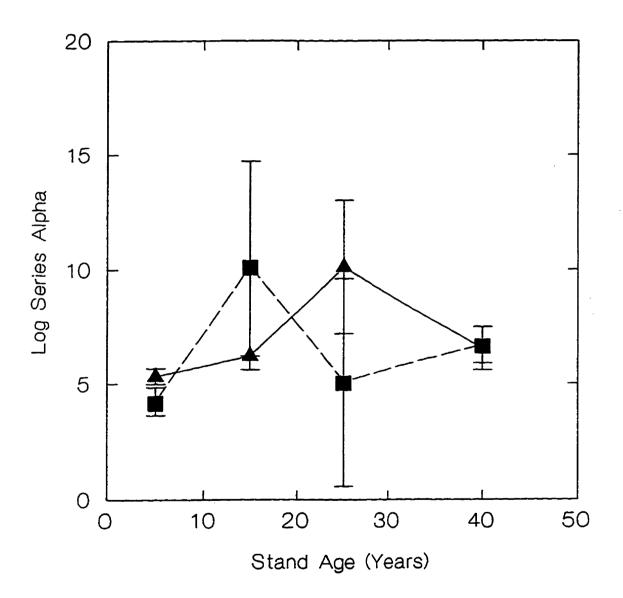


Figure 29. The effects of stand age on Kendall's τ index of similarity for butterflies and skippers in planted (——) and naturally regenerated (——) stands in 1993.

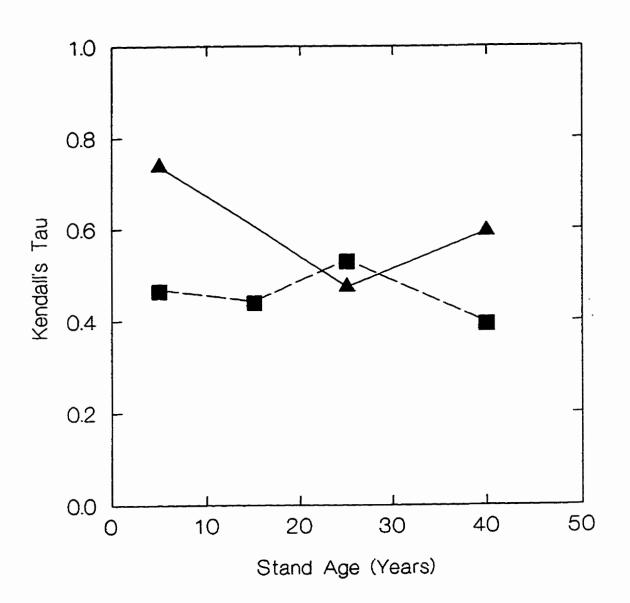


Figure 30. The effects of stand age on Kendall's τ index of similarity for butterflies and skippers in planted (\blacksquare —) and naturally regenerated (\blacktriangle —) stands in 1994.

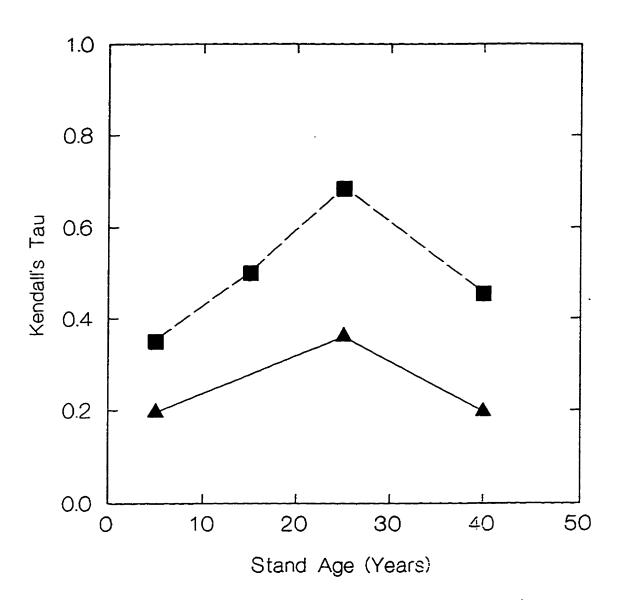


Figure 31. The effects of stand age on Sørenson's coefficient of similarity for butterflies and skippers in planted () and naturally regenerated () stands in 1993.

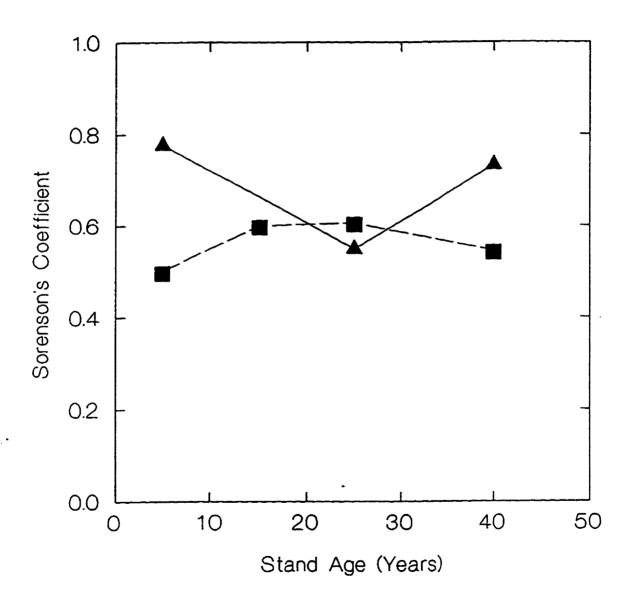


Figure 32. The effects of stand age on Sørenson's coefficient of similarity for butterflies and skippers in planted (18----) and naturally regenerated (18----) stands in 1994.

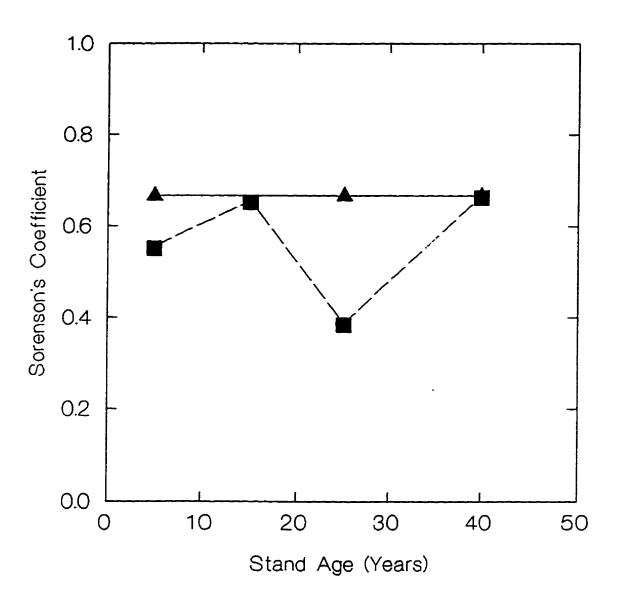


Figure 33. Butterfly and skipper data (1993). CA ordination diagram with site scores (\clubsuit) and species scores (\clubsuit) ; first axis (horizontal) has an eigenvalue of 0.225 = 20.1% and the second axis, (vertical) has an eigenvalue of 0.179 = 15.9%.

Key to Lepidoptera species are: ambvia = Amblyscirtes vialis, carpal = Carterocephalus palaemon, celarg = Celastrina argiolus, cerpeg = Cercyonis pegala, danple = Danaus plexippus, enoant = Enodia anthedon, eryice = Erynnis icelus, erymar = Erynnis martialis, eucaus = Euchloe ausonides, eveamy = Everes amyntula, hartit = Harkenclenus titus, limarc = Limenitis archippus, limart = Limenitis arthemis, nymant = Nymphalis antiopa, papgla = Papilio glaucus, phymor = Phyciodes morpheus, phytha = Phyciodes tharos, pienap = Pieris napi, pierap = Pieris rapae, poahob = Poanes hobomok, polpro = Polygonia progne, satlip = Satyrium liparops, speaph = Speyeria aphrodite.

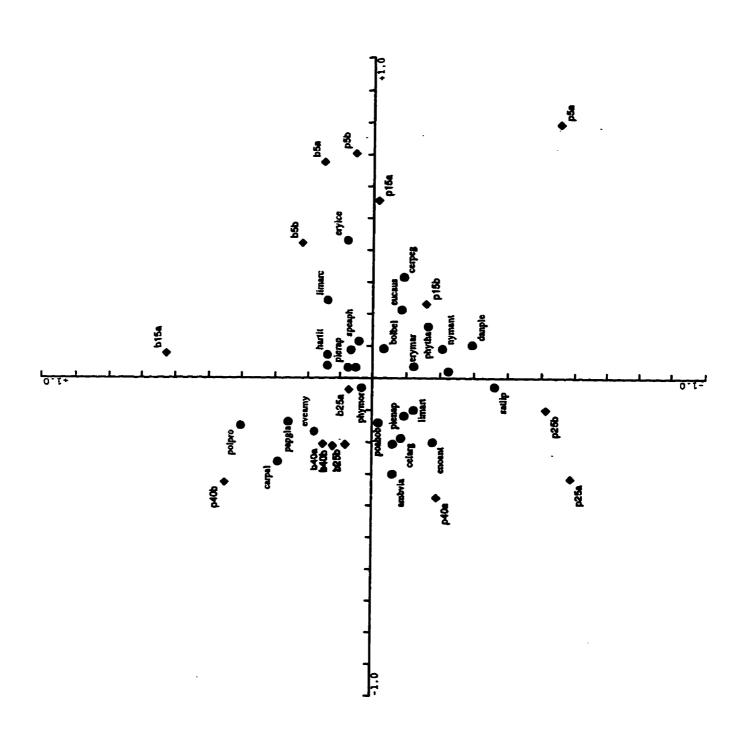


Figure 34. Butterfly and skipper data with 5 year old sites removed (1993). CA ordination diagram with site scores (\spadesuit) and species scores (\spadesuit); first axis (horizontal) has an eigenvalue of 0.156 = 31.1% and the second axis, (vertical) has an eigenvalue of 0.102 = 20.3%.

Key to Lepidoptera species are: celarg = Celastrina argiolus, cerpeg = Cercyonis pegala, colint = Colias interior, enoant = Enodia anthedon, glalyg = Glaucopsyche lygdamus, limart = Limenitis arthemis, nymant = Nymphalis antiopa, phybat = Phyciodes batesii, poahob = Poanes hobomok, satlip = Satyrium liparops, speatl = Speyeria atlantis, specyb = Speyeria cybele.

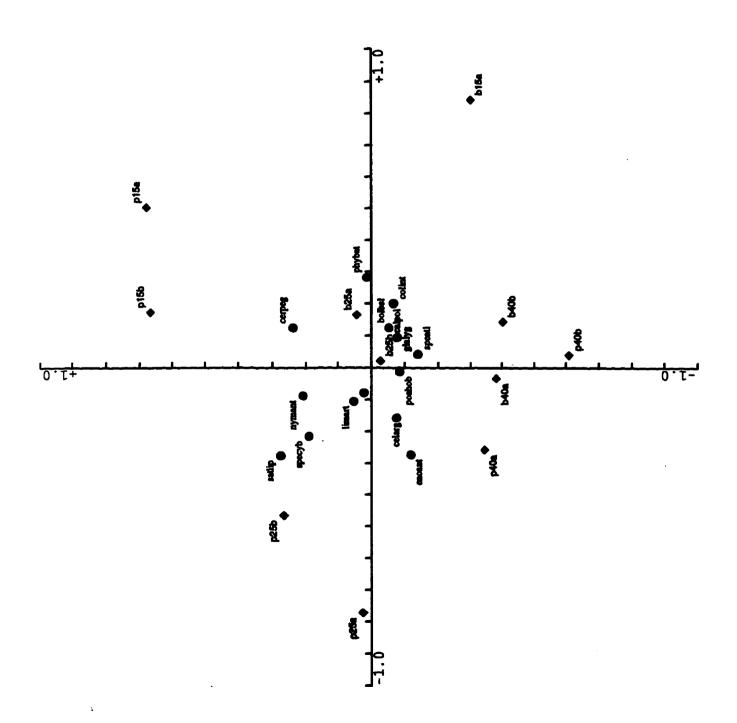


Figure 35. Butterfly and skipper data (1994). CA ordination diagram with site scores (♠) and species scores (♠); first axis (horizontal) has an eigenvalue of 0.268 = 27.6% and the second axis, (vertical) has an eigenvalue of 0.138 = 14.3%.

Key to Lepidoptera species are: ambvia = Amblyscirtes vialis, carpal = Carterocephalus palaemon, cerpeg = Cercyonis pegala, colphi = Colias philodice, enoant = Enodia anthedon, erybri = Erynnis brizo, eryice = Erynnis icelus, fentar= Feniseca tarquinus, hartit = Harkenclenus titus, nymant = Nymphalis antiopa, nymmil = Nymphalis milberti, oenmac = Oeneis macounii, phymor = Phyciodes morpheus, poahob = Poanes hobomok, polfau = Polygonia faunus, polpro = Polygonia progne, speaph = Speyeria aphrodite, vanata = Vanessa atalanta.

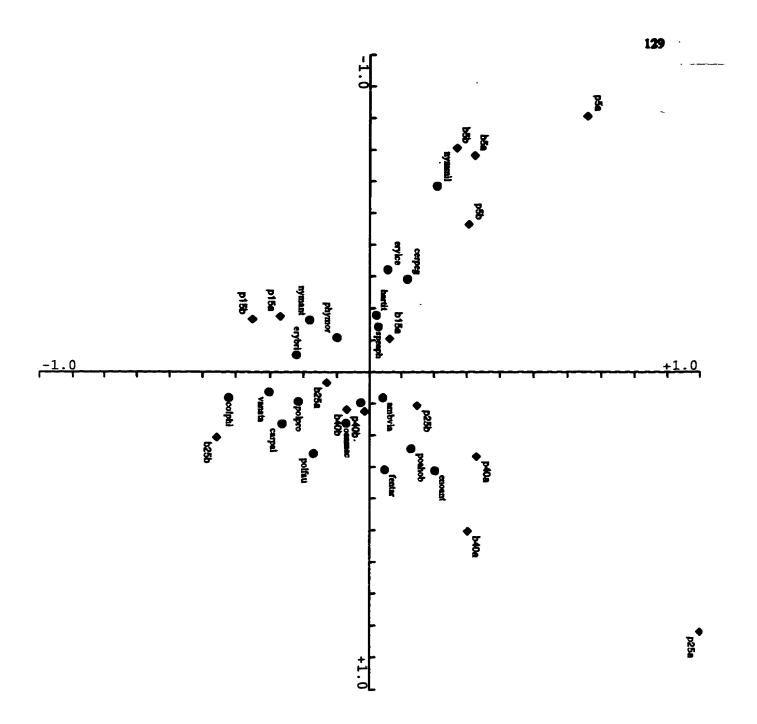


Figure 36. Butterfly and skipper data with 5 year old sites removed (1994). CA ordination diagram with site scores (\spadesuit) and species scores (\spadesuit); first axis (horizontal) has an eigenvalue of 0.186 = 38.2% and the second axis, (vertical) has an eigenvalue of 0.116 = 24.0%.

Key to Lepidoptera species are: celarg = Celastrina argiolus, cerpeg = Cercyonis pegala, colint = Colias interior, enoant = Enodia anthedon, glalyg = Glaucopsyche lygdamus, hartit = Harkenclenus titus, nymant = Nymphalis antiopa, pienap = Pieris napi, poahob = Poanes hobomok, speatl = Speyeria atlantis.

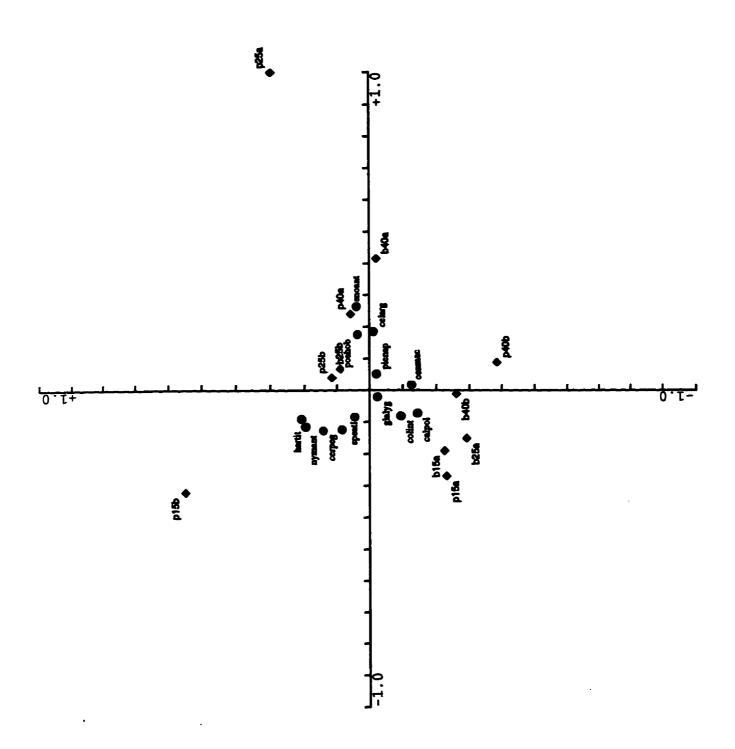


Figure 37. Butterfly, skipper and vegetation data (1993). CCA ordination diagram with site scores (♠), butterfly species scores (♠) and environmental variables (arrows); first axis (horizontal) has an eigenvalue of 0.189 = 35.6% and the second axis (vertical) has an eigenvalue of 0.083 = 15.6%

Key to Lepidoptera species are: bolbel = Boloria bellona, calpol = Callophrys polios, celarg = Celastrina argiolus, cerpeg = Cercyonis pegala, colint = Colias interior, enoant = Enodia anthedon, eucaus = Euchloe ausonides, limart = Limenitis arthemis, nymant = Nymphalis antiopa, phybat = Phyciodes batesii, pienap = Pieris napi, satlip = Satyrium liparops, speatl = Speyeria atlantis, specyb = Speyeria cybele.

The vegetation species are: ceanoth = Ceanothus ovatus, c.mitis = Cladina mitis, o.pung = Oryzopsis pungens, pleuroz = Pleurozium schreberi, vaccin = Vaccinium angustifolium.

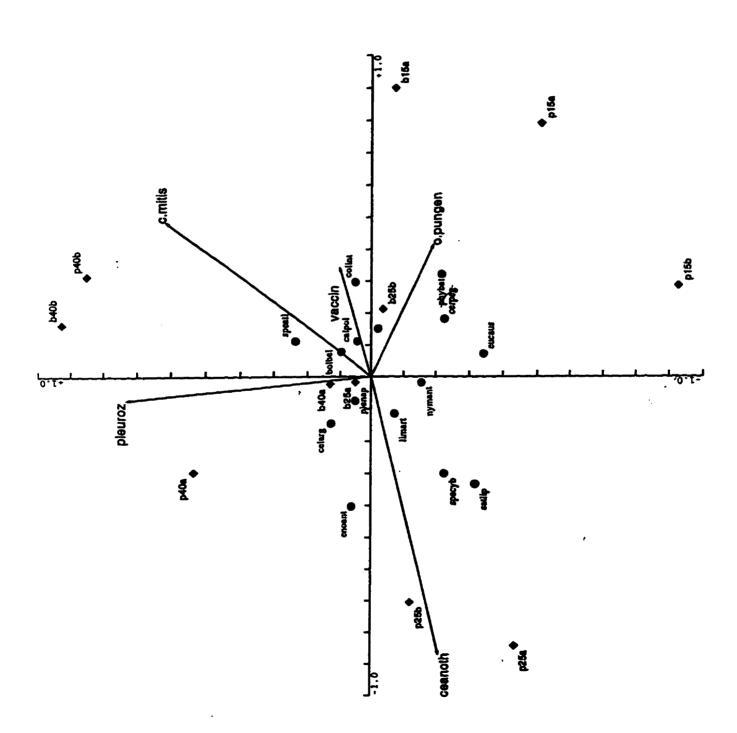


Figure 38. Butterfly, skipper and vegetation data (1994). CCA ordination diagram with site scores (♠), butterfly species scores (♠) and environmental variables (arrows); first axis (horizontal) has an eigenvalue of 0.189 = 35.6% and the second axis (vertical) has an eigenvalue of 0.083 = 15.6%

Key to Lepidoptera species are: bolbel = Boloria bellona, calpol = Callophrys polios, celarg = Celastrina argiolus, cerpeg = Cercyonis pegala, colint = Colias interior, enoant = Enodia anthedon, hartit = Harkenclenus titus, limart = Limenitis arthemis, nymant = Nymphalis antiopa, poahob = Poanes hobomok, speaph = Speyeria aphrodite, vanata = Vanessa atalanta.

Key to vegetation species are: c.mitis = Cladina mitis, pleuroz = Pleurozium schreberi, solidago = Solidago nemoralis, vaccin = Vaccinium angustifolium.

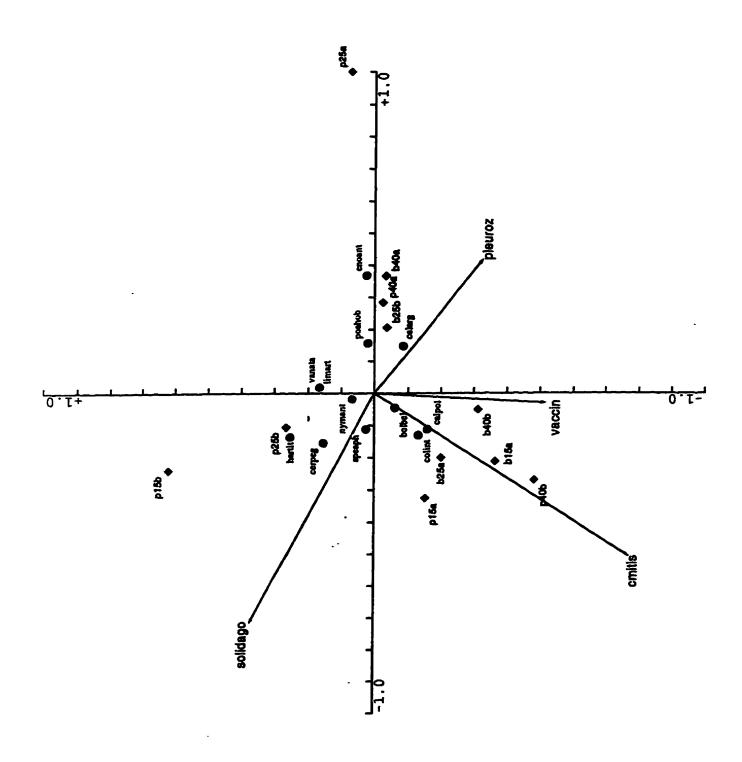


Figure 39. Butterfly, skipper and environmental data (1993). CCA ordination diagram with site scores (♠), species scores (♠) and environmental variables (arrows); first axis (horizontal) has an eigenvalue of 0.083 = 16.5% and the second axis (vertical) has an eigenvalue of 0.068 = 13.5%

Key to Lepidoptera species are: bolbel = Boloria bellona, celarg = Celastrina argiolus, colint = Colias interior, enoant = Enodia anthedon, glalyg = Glaucopsyche lygdamus, limart = Limenitis arthemis, nymant = Nymphalis antiopa, satlip = Satyrium liparops, speaph = Speyeria aphrodite.

The environmental variables are: litemean = mean light intensity, treemean = mean tree density per m^2 .

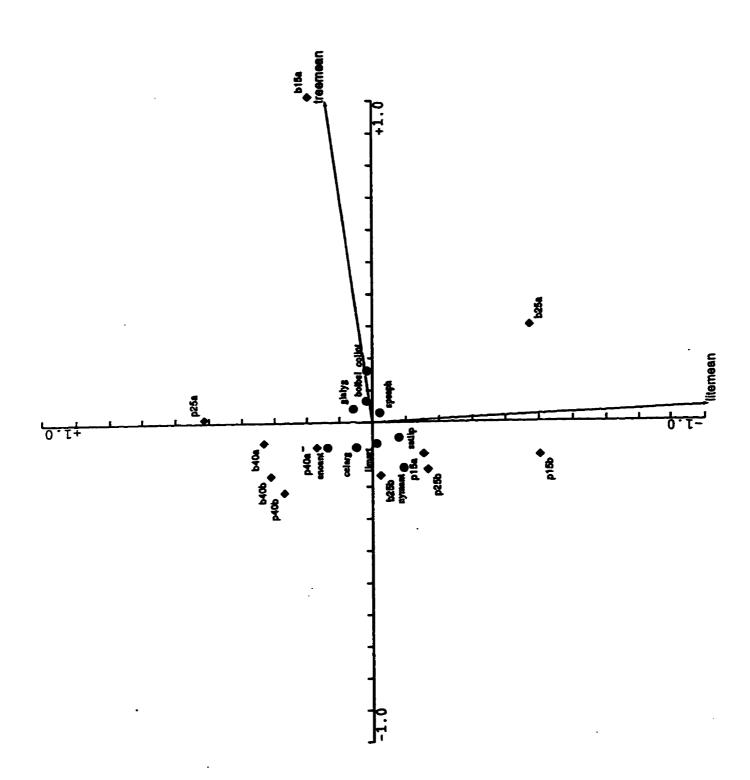


Figure 40. Butterfly, skipper and environmental data (1994). CCA ordination diagram with site scores (\spadesuit), species scores (\spadesuit) and environmental variables (arrows); first axis (horizontal) has an eigenvalue of 0.116 = 23.9% and the second axis (vertical) has an eigenvalue of 0.033 = 6.8%.

Key to Lepidoptera species are: celarg = Celastrina argiolus, colint = Colias interior, enoant = Enodia anthedon, hartit = Harkenclenus titus, limart = Limenitis arthemis, nymant = Nymphalis antiopa, nymmil = Nymphalis milberti, oenmac = Oeneis macounii, pierap = Pieris rapae, poahob = Poanes hobomok, specyb = Speyeria cybele.

The environmental variables are: litemean = mean light intensity, treemean = mean tree density per m^2 .

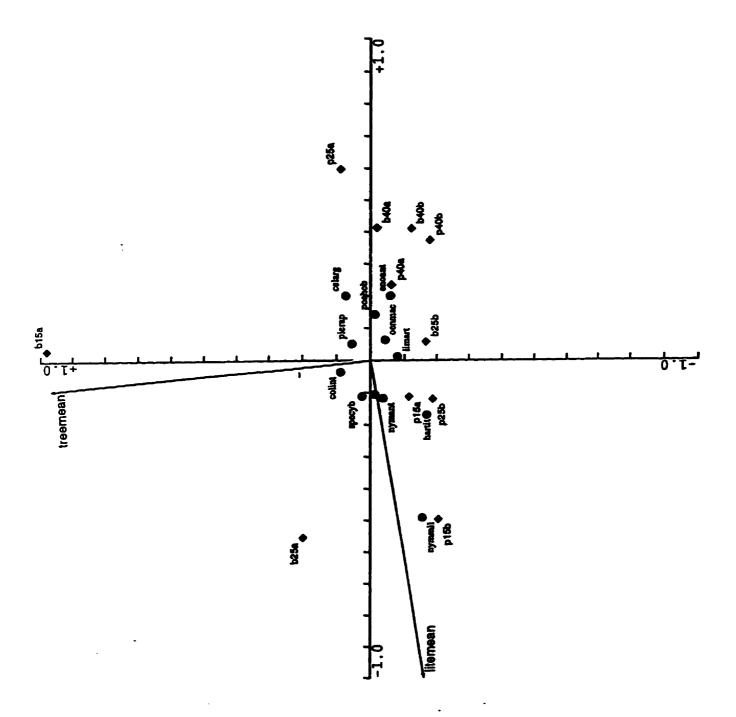


Figure 41. The effects of stand age on mean number of moths collected per site in planted (——) and naturally regenerated (A—) stands in 1993. (Error bars represent standard error; no replication of 15 year old naturally regenerated stand.)

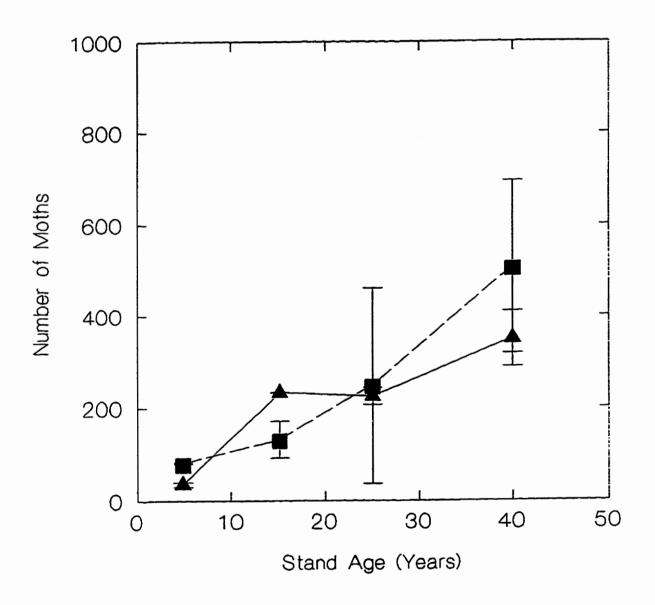


Figure 42. The effects of stand age on mean number of moths collected per site in planted (——) and naturally regenerated (——) stands in 1994. (Error bars represent standard error; no replication of 15 year old naturally regenerated stand.)

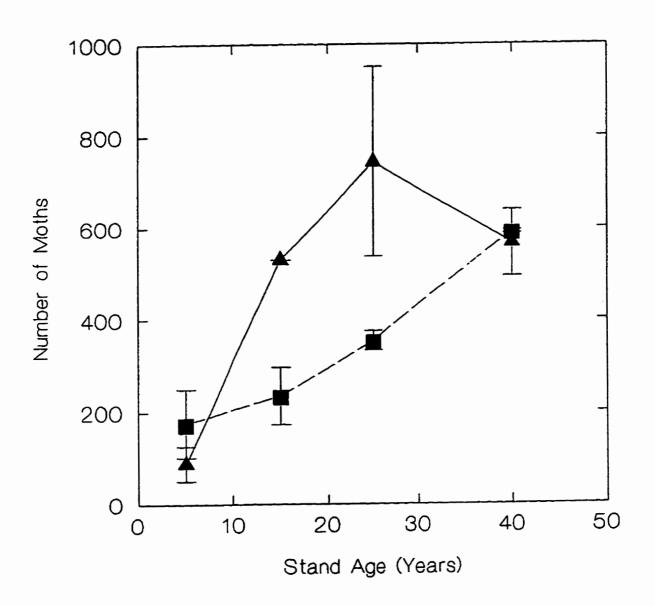


Figure 43. The effects of stand age on mean number of moth species collected per site in planted () and naturally regenerated () stands in 1993. (Error bars represent standard error; no replication of 15 year old naturally regenerated stand.)

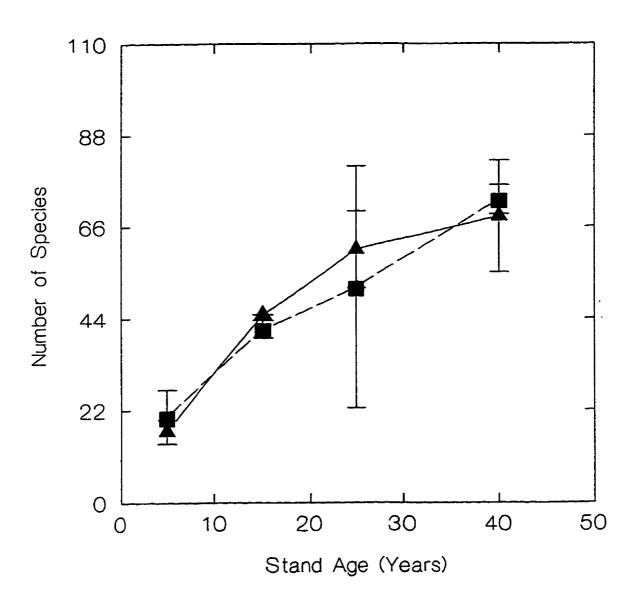


Figure 44. The effects of stand age on mean number of moth species collected per site in planted (12---) and naturally regenerated (12---) stands in 1994. (Error bars represent standard error; no replication of 15 year old naturally regenerated stand.)

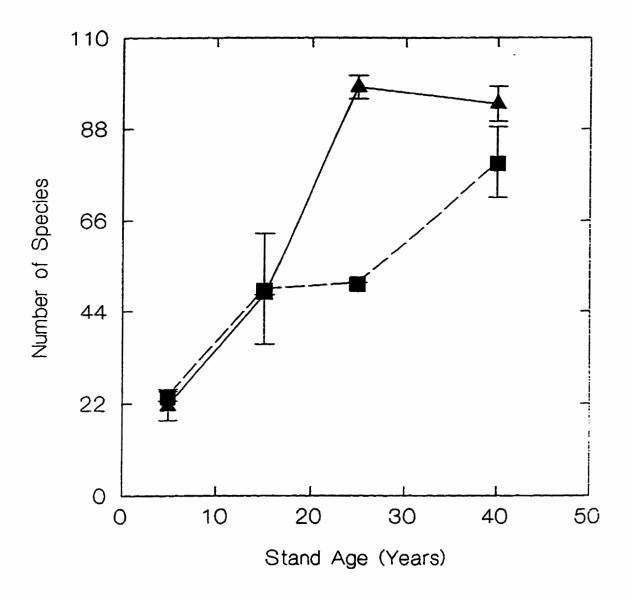
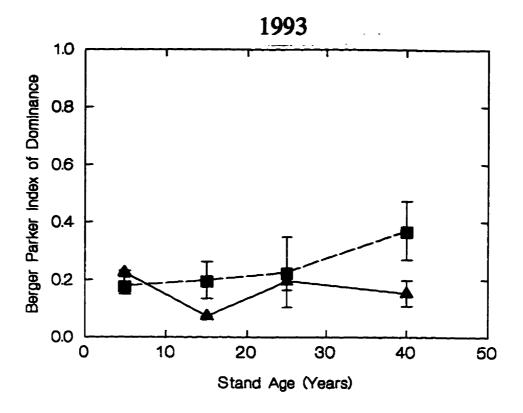


Figure 45. The effects of stand age on the Berger Parker index of dominance for moths collected in planted () and naturally regenerated () stands in 1993 and 1994. (Error bars represent standard error; no replication of 15 year old naturally regenerated stand.)



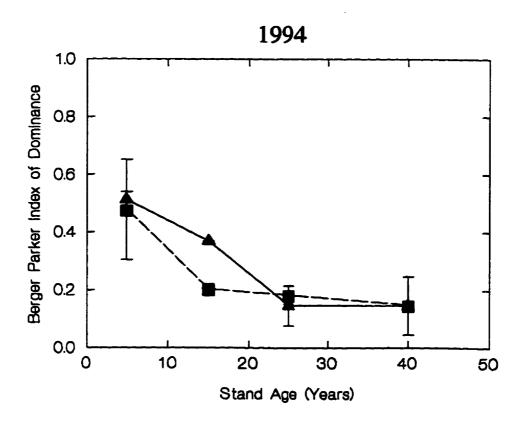


Figure 46. The effects of stand age on the log series α index for moths in planted () and naturally regenerated () stands in 1993. (Error bars represent standard error; no replication of 15 year old naturally regenerated stand.)

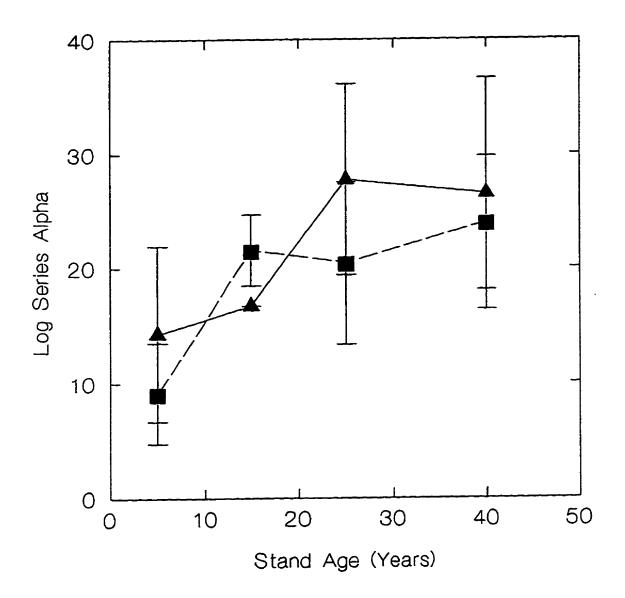


Figure 47. The effects of stand age on the log series α index for moths in planted (——) and naturally regenerated (——) stands in 1994. (Error bars represent standard error; no replication of 15 year old naturally regenerated stand.)

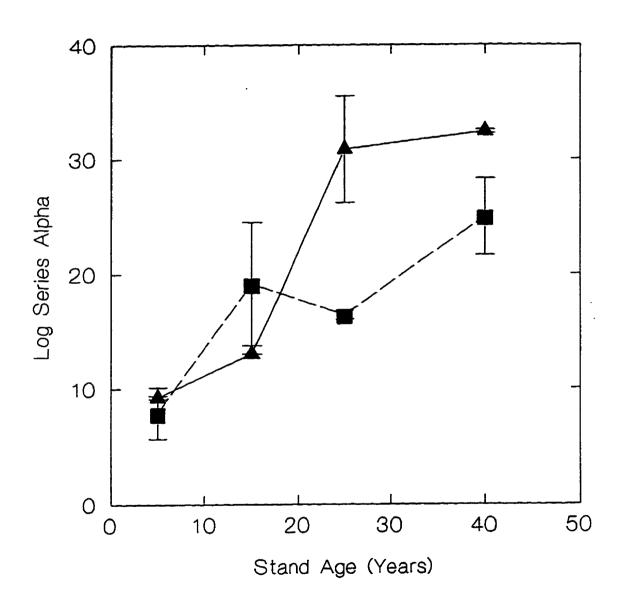


Figure 48. The effects of stand age on Kendall's τ index of similarity for moths in planted (11—) and naturally regenerated (14—) stands in 1993.

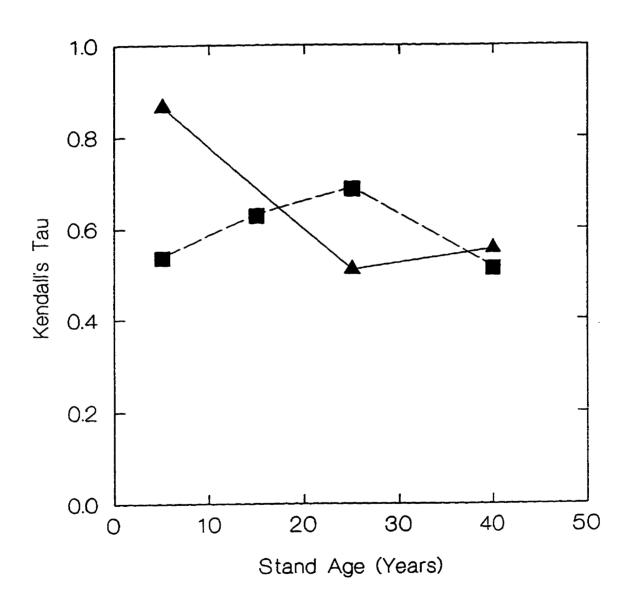


Figure 49. The effects of stand age on Kendall's τ index of similarity for moths in planted (12---) and naturally regenerated (12---) stands in 1994.

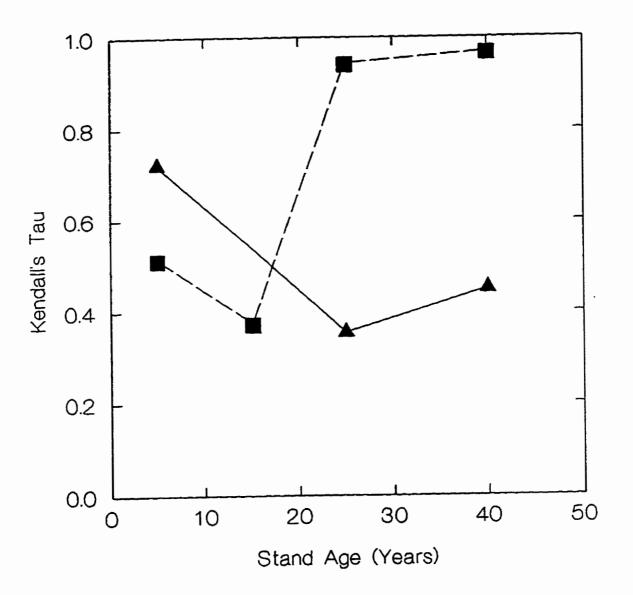


Figure 50. The effects of stand age on Sørenson's coefficient of similarity for moths in planted () and naturally regenerated () stands in 1993.

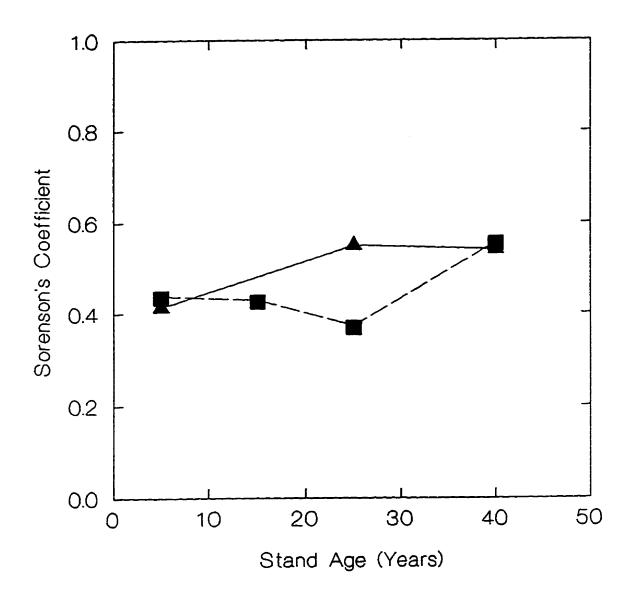


Figure 51. The effects of stand age on Sørenson's coefficient of similarity for moths in planted () and naturally regenerated () stands in 1994.

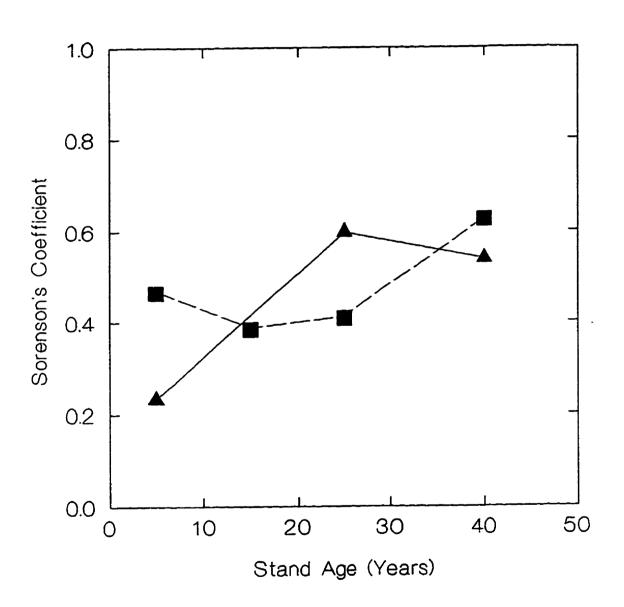


Figure 52. Moth data (1993). CA ordination diagram with site scores (♠) and species scores (♠); first axis (horizontal) has an eigenvalue of 0.286 = 14.4% and the second axis, (vertical) has an eigenvalue of 0.254 = 12.8%.

Key to moth species are: abaalt = Abagrotis alternata, abapla = Abagrotis placida, acrtri = Acronicta tritona, anapre = Anaplectoides pressus, apacom= Apamea commoda, aphpur = Apharetra purpurea, eucjoh = Echlaena johnsonaria, eucpam = Eucirrhodea pampina, holfer = Holomelina ferruginosa, laclor = Lacinipolia lorea, lamfis = Lambdina fiscellaria, leucom = Leucania commoides, lomsem = Lomographa semiclarata, polnim = Polia nimbosa, pyrsoc = Pyrausta socialis, rhyanc = Rhynchagrotis anchoceliodes, sicmac = Sicya macularia, synepi = Syngrapha epigaea, xylcur = Xylena curvimacula, xyldol = Xylomyges dolosa.

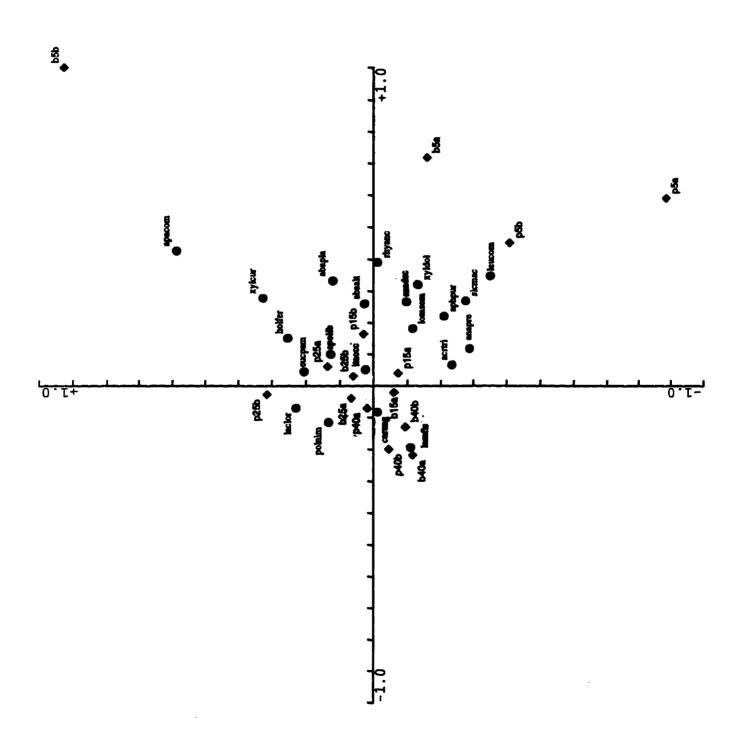


Figure 53. Moth data with 5 year old sites removed (1993). CA ordination diagram with site scores (\spadesuit) and species scores (\spadesuit); first axis (horizontal) has an eigenvalue of 0.158 = 42.7% and the second axis, (vertical) has an eigenvalue of 0.067 = 17.9%.

Key to moth species are: abaalt = Abagrotis alternata, amacol = Amathes collaris, carang = Caripeta angustiorata, eulexp = Eulithis explanata, itaocc = Itame occiduaria, lapbom = Lapara bombycoides, nepcan = Nepytia canosaria, nycfri = Nycteola frigidana, plavid = Platysenta videns, polpur = Polia purpurissata, protra = Prochoerodes transversuta, scoind = Scopula inductata.

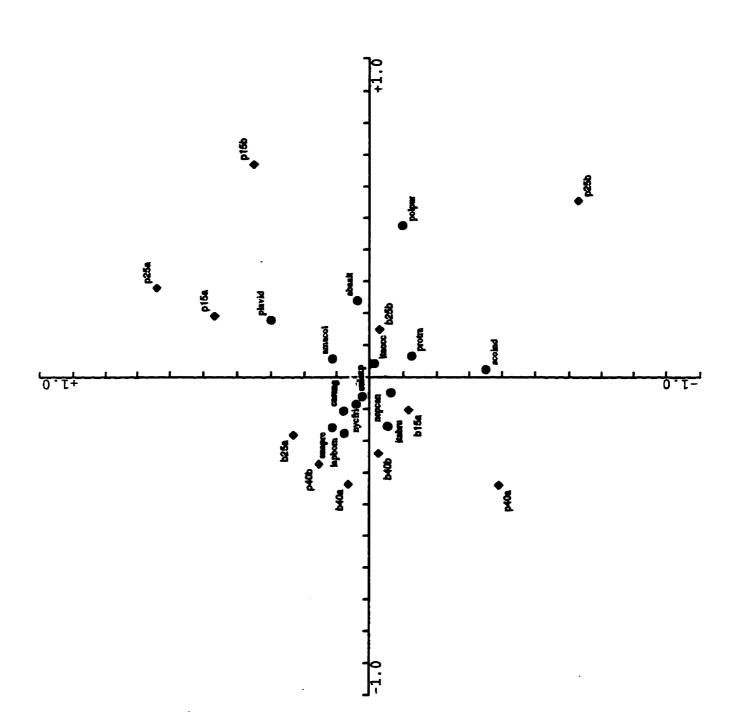
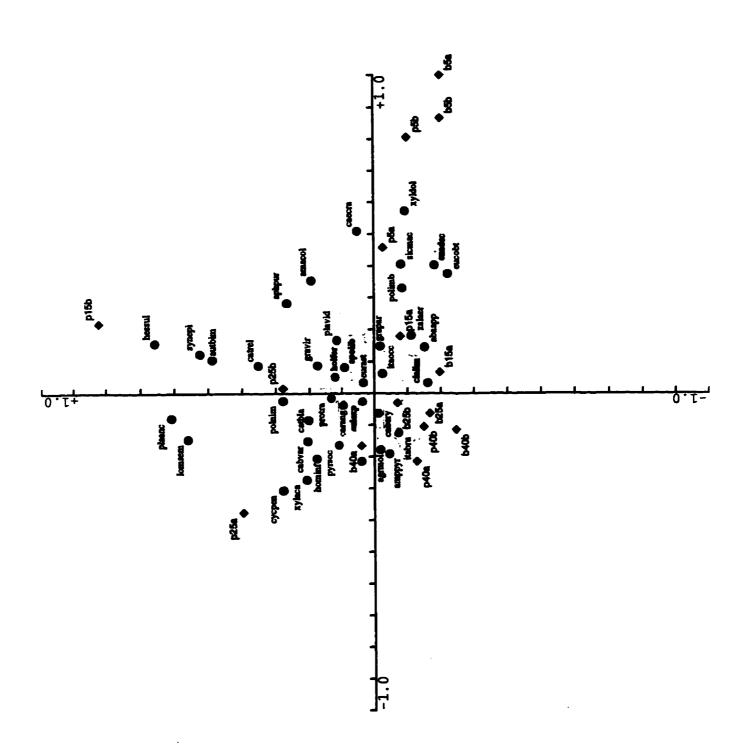


Figure 54. Moth data (1994). CA ordination diagram with site scores (\spadesuit) and species scores (\spadesuit); first axis (horizontal) has an eigenvalue of 0.254 = 15.5% and the second axis, (vertical) has an eigenvalue of 0.187 = 11.3%.

Key to moth species are: abaapp = Abagrotis apposita, agrmol = Agrotis mollis, amacol = Amathes collaris, amppyr = Amphipyra pyramidoides, aphpur = Apharetra purpurea, autbim = Autographa bimaculata, autmap = Autographa mappa, cabvar = Cabera variolara, catbla = Catocala blandula, catrel = Catocala relicta, clalim = Cladara limitaria, cycpen = Cyclophora pendulinaria, enadec = Enargia decolor, eucobt = Euchlaena obtusaria, eueatt = Eueretagrotis attenta, eulexp = Eulithis explanata, eurast = Eurois astricta, grapar = Grammia parthenice, gravir = Grammia virgo, hessul = Hesperumia sulphuraria, holfer = Holomelina ferruginosa, hominf = Homohadena infixa, lomsem = Lomographa semiclarata, plaanc = Platypolia anceps, plavid = Platysenta videns, polimb = Polia imbrifera, polnim = Polia nimbosa, protra = Prochoerodes transversuta, pyrsoc = Pyrausta socialis, sicmac = Sicya macularia, synepi = Syngrapha epigaea, xylaca = Xylotype acadia, xyldol = Xylomyges dolosa, zalaer = Zale aeruginosa.



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Figure 55. Moth data with 5 year old sites removed (1994). CA ordination diagram with site scores (\spadesuit) and species scores (\spadesuit); first axis (horizontal) has an eigenvalue of 0.081 = 33.5% and the second axis, (vertical) has an eigenvalue of 0.051 = 21.1%.

Key to moth species are: anapre = Anaplectoides pressus, apolib = Apodrepanulatrix liberaria, carang = Caripeta angustiorata, clealb = Clemensia albata, eilbic = Eilema bicolor, enadec = Enargia decolor, eulexp = Eulithis explanata, itaana = Itame anataria, itabru = Itame brunneata, itaocc = Itame occiduaria, lomves = Lomographa vestaliata, metfis = Metalepsis fishii, plavid = Platysenta videns, protra = Prochoerodes transversuta, scoind = Scopula inductata.

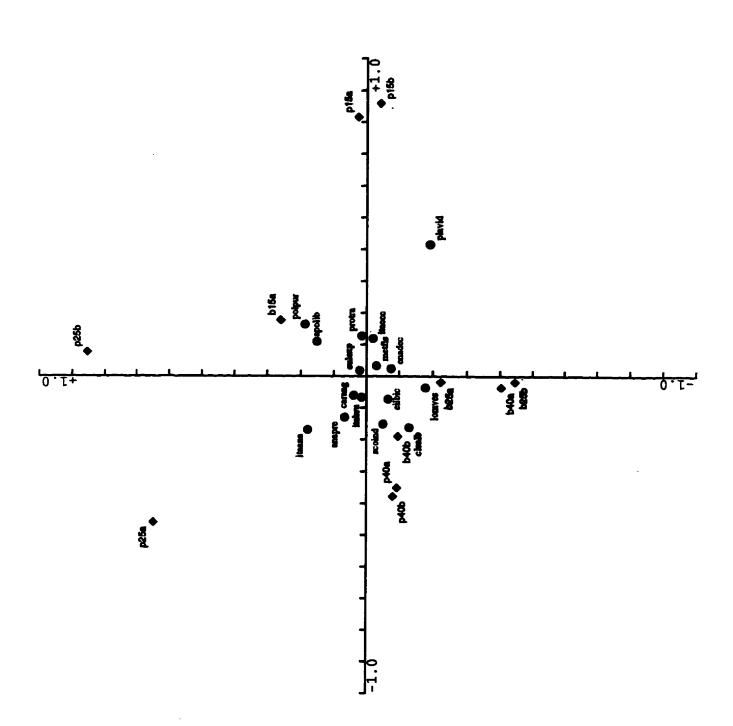


Figure 56. Moth and environmental data (1993). CCA ordination diagram with site scores (♠), species scores (♠) and environmental variables (arrows); first axis (horizontal) has an eigenvalue of 0.170 = 42.0% and the second axis (vertical) has an eigenvalue of 0.056 = 24.0%.

Key to moth species are:abaalt = Abagrotis alternata, amacol = Amathes collaris, anapre = Anaplectoides pressus, carang = Caripeta angustiorata, clealb = Clemensia albata, eurast = Eurois astricta, itaana = Itame anataria, itaocc = Itame occiduaria, lapbom = Lapara bombycoides, metfis = Metalepsis fishii, nepcan = Nepytia canosaria, plavid = Platysenta videns, protra = Prochoerodes transversuta, scoind = Scopula inductata.

Key to vegetation species are: ceanoth = Ceanothus ovatus, c.mitis = Cladina mitis, pleuroz = Pleurozium schreberi, vaccin = Vaccinium angustifolium.

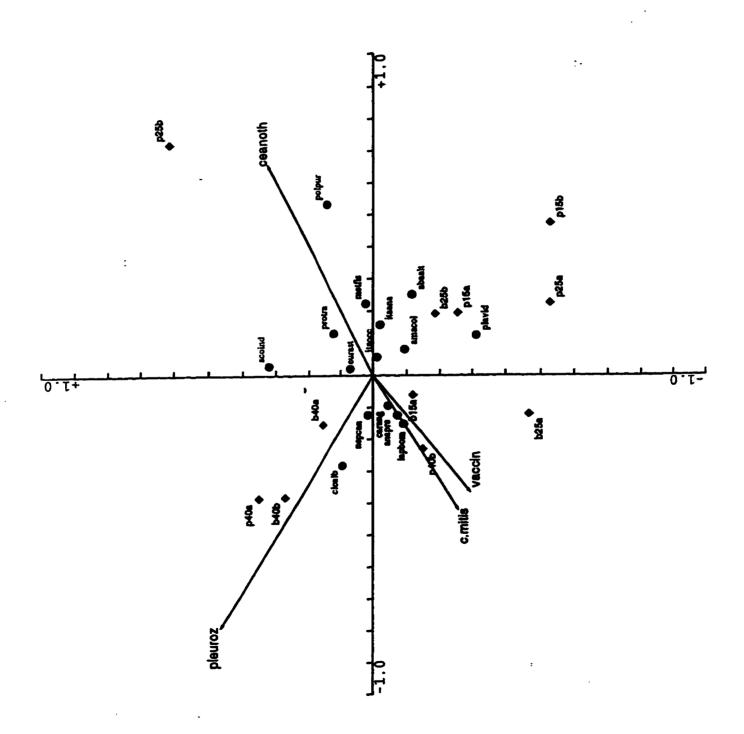


Figure 57. Moth and vegetation data (1994). CCA ordination diagram with site scores (\spadesuit), moth species scores (\spadesuit) and environmental variables (arrows); first axis (horizontal) has an eigenvalue of 0.079 = 27.6% and the second axis (vertical) has an eigenvalue of 0.046 = 16.0%.

Key to moth species are: anapre = Anaplectoides pressus, apolib = Apodrepanulatrix liberaria, cabery = Cabera erythemaria, carang = Caripeta angustiorata, clealb = Clemensia albata, enadec = Enargia decolor, eurast = Eurois astricta, itaocc = Itame occiduaria, plavid = Platysenta videns, polpur = Polia purpurissata, protra = Prochoerodes transversuta.

Key to vegetation species are: cmitis = Cladina mitis, opung = Oryzopsis pungens, pleuroz = Pleurozium schreberi, selagine = Selaginella rupestris, vaccin = Vaccinium angustifolium.

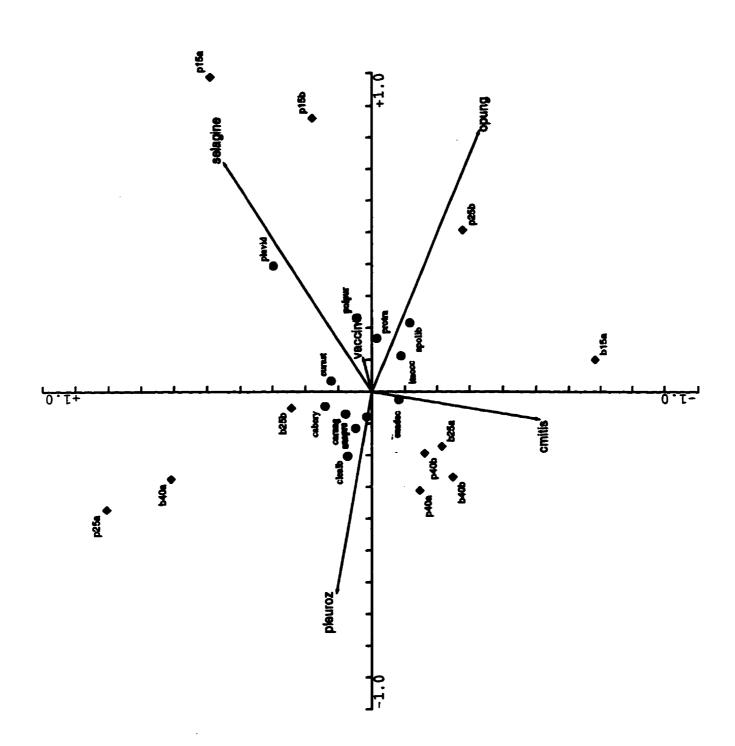


Figure 58. Moth and environmental data (1993). CCA ordination diagram with site scores (\spadesuit), moth species scores (\spadesuit) and environmental variables (arrows); first axis (horizontal) has an eigenvalue of 0.057 = 15.4% and the second axis (vertical) has an eigenvalue of 0.023 = 6.3%.

Key to moth species are: amacol = Amathes collaris, apolib =
Apodrepanulatrix liberaria, carang = Caripeta angustiorata, clealb =
Clemensia albata, eilbic = Eilema bicolor, itaana = Itame anataria, itaocc
= Itame occiduaria, lapbom = Lapara bombycoides, metfis = Metalepsis
fishii, plavid = Platysenta videns, polpur = Polia purpurissata.

The environmental variables are: litemean = mean light intensity, treemean = mean tree density (100 m^2) .

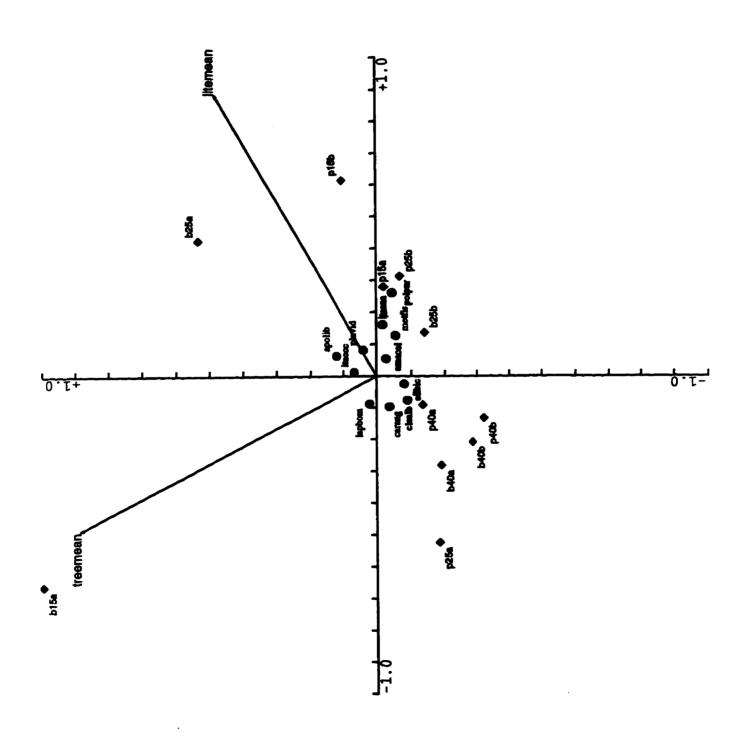
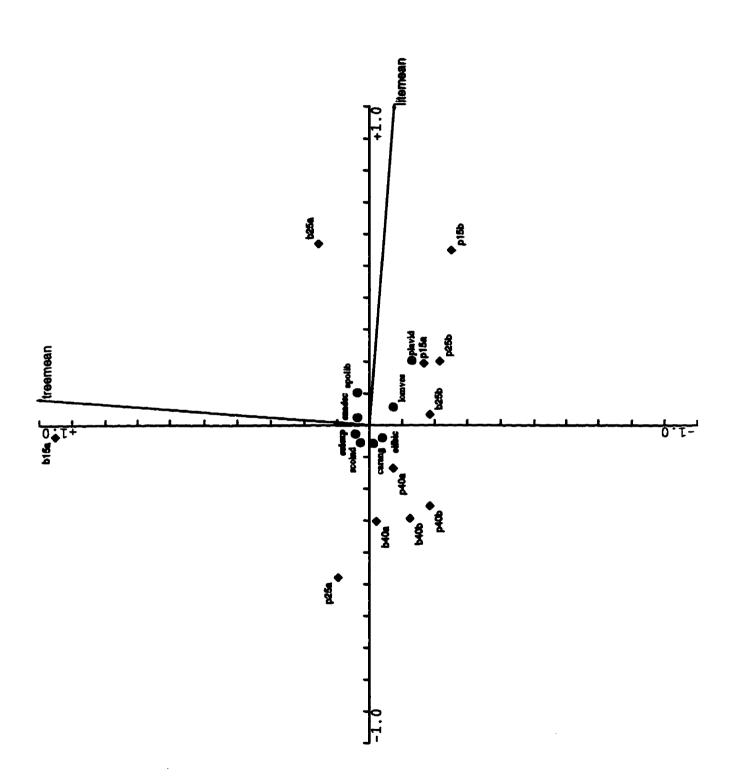


Figure 59. Moth and environmental data (1994). CCA ordination diagram with site scores (\spadesuit), moth species scores (\spadesuit) and environmental variables (arrows); first axis (horizontal) has an eigenvalue of 0.044 = 18.0% and the second axis (vertical) has an eigenvalue of 0.017 = 6.8%.

Key to moth species are: apolib = Apodrepanulatrix liberaria, carang = Caripeta angustiorata, eilbic = Eilema bicolor, enadec = Enargia decolor, eulexp = Eulithis explanata, lomves = Lomographa vestaliata, plavid = Platysenta videns, scoind = Scopula inductata.

The environmental variables are: litemean = mean light intensity, treemean = mean tree density (100 m^2) .



DISCUSSION

Relationships of regeneration type and stand age to physical habitat characteristics

The two years encompassed by this study differed climatically. There were differences in monthly precipitation, hours of bright sunshine and mean monthly temperatures. July and August were considerably wetter in 1993 than 1994 (Figure 4) and 1993 was significantly cloudier than 1994, with less hours of bright sunshine in all months from April through September (Figure 5). Mean monthly temperatures were generally lower in 1993 than in 1994 (Figure 6). When combined, these factors indicate that 1993 was a less favourable year in terms of climate for a number of the Lepidoptera collected, resulting in the numbers of species and individuals being lower in 1993 than in 1994 (Appendices II - VI). Gilbert and Singer (1975) suggested that climatic factors may have a direct influence on populations of Lepidoptera.

The five year old sites were very similar in light intensity, with three of the four sites having maximum averages for mean light intensity (Table 2). The remaining site was a naturally regenerating site in which light intensity was marginally lower due to the presence of young *Populus tremuloides* Michx., illustrating a difference between the two treatment types. Planted sites are scarified before planting, which may remove young poplar trees, that are early colonizers following fire (Heliovara and Varsonen, 1984; Zoladeski *et al.*, 1995). Within this age class, the natural stands were warmer during both daytime and over a 24 hour period (Table 3; Figure 9, 10). The differences between the two treatment types may be attributed to the greater amount of slash present in the natural stands. The slash may aid in retaining heat at night time by reducing the outgoing radiation and by reducing the quantity of energy consumed

in evaporation by blocking the transport of vapour out of the soil (Rosenberg et al., 1983). In terms of measurable differences, the five year old stands did not differ in terms of vegetation composition. Perceptually, the natural stands had more exposed areas of bare sand than did the planted stands. The planted stands had a higher proportion of grasses than did the natural stands (Appendix I). In general, the replicates within each treatment type were quite similar.

Tree density in the natural stand at 15 years of age was very high and resulted in a site much darker than the replicates of the planted stands (Table 2; Figure 11, 13). As a result of crowding within an area, there is a resultant increase in tree mortality as a stand ages (Zoladeski et al., 1995; Johnson et al., 1995). The 15 year old natural stand was still quite young and, as such, little tree mortality had occurred. The very strong stand regeneration in the natural site was interspersed with open patches. Trees in the planted stands in this age class are very evenly spaced as is the case in plantations, resulting in a more uniformly open site at this stage of development (Figure 11, 13). Perceptually, the planted replicates were quite similar to each other in terms of stand development and vegetation composition.

The natural replicates in the 25 year old age class were quite similar to each other, although one replicate had been manually thinned (B25A). The replicates of the planted stands were quite different from each other. The first replicate (P25A), had undergone a much stronger regeneration with little tree mortality resulting in a very uniformly dark site. The second replicate had some areas with very strong regeneration, but retained some open glades and may be more similar to the natural stands in terms of light intensity and tree density (Table 2). There was no significant difference in terms of mean light intensity or variability. One factor which does not show up in the results but was visually evident was the surrounding

forest area of one site. B25B was dominated by jack pine within the site. Within two hundred metres to the south was a large stand of *Populus* spp. The remaining 25 year old stands were in areas of almost exclusively jack pine.

The natural stands in the 40 year age class were significantly warmer than the planted stands during both the daytime and night time (Figure 9, 10). The replicates of the natural stands were quite similar in terms of mean light intensity (Table 2) but they differed in other factors. The first replicate (B40A) had no open glades, a large amount of bracken fern (P. aquilinum) was present and there was strong shrub undergrowth, particularly Corylus cornuta. The other natural replicate (B40B) had several open glades, little bracken fern and very little shrub undergrowth. Like the natural stands, the planted stands differed from each other. The first replicate (P40A) was quite mature, and was dominated by vegetation associated with this age class, particularly P. schreberi. The site had two small open glades, but was otherwise closed. The second replicate differed from the first in a number of ways. The site was much more open in the understorey as evidenced by the tree density (Table 2). The vegetation of the second replicate was also quite different. The dominant vegetation, Cladina spp., is typically found in jack pine stands of intermediate age. The expected dominant moss, P. schreberi, was found only in small amounts and there was little in the way of shrub growth. In terms of vegetation composition, this replicate was more similar to the 15 year old stands than to its replicate.

The abiotic environmental factors influence the biota within the sites and changes in these abiotic factors were most strongly associated with differences in stand age. Vegetation species showed distinct associations with particular age groups and therefore with a particular

combination of abiotic factors. The five year old stands were dominated by the Graminaceae, the majority of species in this group preferring open, drier habitats. The intermediate sites were dominated by a mixture of plants including grasses, ericaceous species and lichens. Mosses were the dominant vegetation in the 40 year old sites, with the above mentioned exception. This successional trend in vegetation species is associated with the maturation of the stand (Oksonen, 1986). Rowe (1956) observed that the trend in vegetation species as a stand matures is towards plants that prefer cooler, moister habitats.

Light intensity decreases with an increase in stand age (Table 2; Figure 12). This is expected as the stands mature the amount of light penetrating the canopy will decrease as the canopy closes.

The concepts of radiation balance play an important role in discussing the thermal differences between different age classes. For a complete review of these ideas, the reader is referred to Rosenberg *et al.* (1983). A portion of the solar radiation that reaches the earth's surface is reflected and the degree of reflection is a function of wavelength within this region (Rosenberg *et al.*, 1983). The quality of surfaces that results in reflection is termed albedo (Rosenberg *et al.*, 1983). Coniferous forests have albedo values in the range of 16-18%, dry sandy soils have values in the range of 20 - 40% (Rosenberg *et al.*, 1983). We would therefore expect older forest stands to absorb more radiation and retain it longer than a young site with patches of bare ground. This can be seen in Figure 10, the older stands are warmer at night as they have absorbed more radiation and release it more slowly. The younger sites are warmer during the day, but do not retain the heat (Figure 9).

Relationships of regeneration type and stand age to Lepidoptera species composition Butterflies

The five year old sites were generally lower in number of butterflies (N) collected and in number of species (S) than the other age classes (Figure 21 - 24). The two treatment types did not differ much in terms of N and S. Butterflies are creatures which tend to prefer patchy habitats. (Peterson, 1954; Warren, 1985). It is not surprising that the five year old sites, being open and providing little cover, are not the preferred habitat for the majority of butterfly species collected during this study. The butterfly species that were collected in the natural stands were predominantly specialists with a limited number of host plants (Table 7). The dominant species in the natural stands, B. bellona, was ubiquitous in stands of all ages. Conversely, the butterflies collected in the planted stands were predominantly generalists (Table 7), C. pegala being the dominant species in the planted stands. Cercyonis pegala was generally abundant in all of the five year old stands (Table 4, 5) but was more abundant in the planted stands (Appendix II) Cercyonis pegala exhibited a greater degree of dominance in the planted sites than did the dominant species in the burned sites, B. bellona. The most likely reason for this is a greater abundance of its food plants, the Graminaceae (Appendix I). The planted stands undergo a pre-planting process which renders them fairly uniform. This may result in a more uniform habitat and allow for the higher degree of dominance by the grasses. The natural stands in this age class did not have as much grass and C. pegala did not show the same degree of dominance in those sites. Nymphalis milberti was abundant in one of the natural stands, B5A. Typically this species is found in moist areas (Klassen et al., 1989) but this does not describe the area in which they were collected. It is likely that this species has a

larger range of habitats that are acceptable. Nymphalis milberti feeds on Ceanothus spp.

(Tietz, 1972), which was not present in vegetation samples, nor was it noted in the vicinity of the site, where they were collected but does grow in that type of habitat. A possible explanation is that the food plant was present in a nearby area but located outside the study site. The adults collected were likely searching for a nectar source or for suitable oviposition sites.

The planted stands in the 15 year age class were structurally different from the natural stand as discussed earlier. The number of individuals collected in this age class was higher in 1994 and this may be attributed to the differences in climate. The second year of the study was more favourable for butterflies than was 1993. The planted stands in this age class provided the most favourable habitat for butterflies of all the planted stands. With the greatest variety of microhabitats available the number of species was highest in this age class for the planted stands in both years. No butterfly species was consistently dominant for this age class for all sites. The degree of dominance was low in the first flight period for all sites in the 15 year age class (Figure 25, 26). In the second flight period, C. interior was very abundant in the natural stand, accounting for 40% of the butterflies collected in the stand in both years. Colias interior was abundant in the natural stand and the first planted replicate, but was not so abundant in the other planted replicate. The food plant of this species is Vaccinium spp. (Tietz, 1972) which is abundant throughout the study sites (Appendix I). The butterfly is most commonly collected in the intermediate age classes (Appendix II) indicating that its distribution is driven both by presence of food plant and preference for a particular habitat, characterized by patchy sites. The Pieridae were most abundantly collected in the 15 year age class (Table 6). This is due the

preference of two species for this age class, C. interior as mentioned earlier, and Euchloe ausonides (Lucas). Euchloe ausonides feeds on a variety of crucifers (Tietz, 1972), although they were not noted in the vegetation sample as being particularly abundant, the species was collected in quite high numbers in P15B (Appendix II). A third pierid that was abundant in 1994 was Pieris rapae (Linnaeus). This species also feeds on crucifers (Tietz, 1972) but the species was ubiquitous in stands of all ages. One species was collected only in site P15A, Boloria selene (Dennis & Schiffermüller). This species prefers wet, boggy habitat, which while common in the Sandilands area, was not common in the immediate area of the study sites. The exception was P15A which was fringed by a boggy poplar stand. Several species were collected in the second replicate of the planted stands (P15B) that were not nearly so abundant in the other sites in this age class; these included a number of species that are attracted to the bait traps (Appendix IV). For reasons which are unclear, the bait trap within P15B collected a much higher number of butterflies than were collected in the other sites in this age class. The area immediately surrounding the bait traps in all three sites appeared quite similar in vegetation and other characteristics. One complex of species that was frequently collected in the bait traps belongs to the genus Speyeria (Appendix III). I observed these butterflies use the nectar of Monarda fistulosa L., which was particularly abundant in P15B. Monarda fistulosa was also quite abundant in P25B where Speyeria spp. was also abundant. Monarda fistulosa is very aromatic by human standards and attractive to species of Speyeria, and this may be the reason for the latter's pattern of abundance. The ordination analysis (Figure 33, 35) places the 15 year old sites around the centre of the ordination diagram. The butterfly species of these sites are a combination of species which prefer open sites, closed sites and the majority of

species, that prefer sites intermediate between open and closed. In the natural stand and P15A, the majority of the species were specialists with respect to their feeding patterns (Table 7). The majority of the butterflies collected in P15B were generalists (Table 7). A trend seems be that generalists prefer planted stands while the specialists are preferring the natural stands. In three of the four planted stands discussed to this point, the generalists are dominant. The exception is P15A, the site located near the boggy poplar stand. This may explain the increase in the number of specialist species collected in P15A. The stand uniformity of P15B may account for the high number of generalists collected for the same reasons as were discussed for the five year old stands.

In the 25 year old planted stands, the dominant species was clearly *E. anthedon* (Table 4, 5), a generalist feeder with grasses as host plants (Tietz, 1972). In the natural stands, the dominant species were similar to those that were dominant in the 15 year age class, including *C. interior*, and *Limenitis arthemis* (Table 4, 5). This helps illustrate a difference between the two treatment types. The planted stands at this age have more complete canopy closure and the butterfly species which prefer these stands are those which are found in the older age class as well. The literature classifies the preferred habitat of *E. anthedon* as along forest margins and forest roads (Klassen *et al.*, 1989). Indeed it is true that they can be collected in this location. However, the majority of collectors learn quite early that the majority of butterflies are heliotherms (Shapiro, 1970) and prefer to fly in open glades. It is also easier for the collector to give chase in an open area than in dense forest. *Enodia anthedon* appears to have a very strong preference for strongly shaded sites and may be collected in even greater numbers within dense forest than along forest margins.

In the 25 year old stands there was a high degree of variability in number of species within treatments and between treatments. Typically B25B had the highest number of species while P25A had the lowest. There was a high degree of variability between the two study years as well and this can be attributed to the differences in weather between the two years. Number of species peaked in this age class for the natural stands. This is probably because natural sites in this age class offered the greatest number of available microhabitats for the butterflies. The 15 year old natural stand was quite a bit darker and more closed, resulting a lower degree of site variability and a lower number of butterfly species.

The planted stands in this age class had a much higher degree of dominance than did the natural stands (Fig. 25, 26). In 1993, the planted stands were dominated by *E. anthedon*, which accounted for almost 75% of the butterflies collected in those sites (Fig. 25). By comparison, the dominant species accounted for only about 20-30% of the species collected in the natural stands (Figure 25). In 1994, P25A had a higher degree of dominance, about 97%, but P25B was similar to the natural stands at approximately 25% (Figure 26). The second replicate of the planted stands was structurally similar to the natural stands with a number of open patches. This site did differ from the natural stands by having a much stronger understorey growth of vegetation, that led to what was perceived to be a higher level of humidity in the site. In 1993, this led to the site being a more preferable and suitable habitat for *E. anthedon*. In 1994, it was warmer and sunnier and the perceived levels of humidity seemed to decrease within the site making it a less favourable location for *E. anthedon*. The change in conditions was not as drastic in the other planted replicate due to the much higher degree of canopy closure and the conditions remained favourable.

In general, the 40 year old stands were similar. The degree of dominance by butterfly species was similar in both treatment types, although it was more variable in the planted stands (Figure 25, 26). Typically, the sites in this age class were dominated by *E. anthedon* (Table 4, 5). Exceptions occurred in both years. In 1993, the second replicate of the natural stands was dominated by *C. interior*, a species that prefers more open sites and is typically dominant in the intermediate age classes. Its abundance can be explained by the greater openness of this site combined with an abundance of *Vaccinium*, the food plant of this species. The second exception occurs in 1994 in the second replicate of the planted stands. In this stand *C. interior* is the dominant species. This is explained by the same reasons as mentioned above. In both years this species was abundant in both sites. This leads to the conclusion that the species is influenced not only by the presence and relative abundance of its food plant (which is comparatively abundant in the other stands of this age class) but also by the habitat in which its larval food resource is found.

Both the number of individuals and the number of species collected in the two treatments of this age class are quite similar (Figure 21-24). The number of species collected remained constant in both years (Figure 23, 24) but the number of individuals increased in 1994 (Figure 21, 22). This may be attributed to differences in climatic factors between the two years with 1994 being the more favourable for butterfly flight.

There is an apparent shift in the dominant species with an increase in stand age. In the youngest sites, species such as B. bellona, and C. pegala dominate. The next two age classes are dominated by a complex of species which depends on the degree of openness of the site. In generally more open sites, C. interior, L. arthemis and B. bellona dominate. In the

intermediate sites that have a more closed canopy and a higher degree of shade, E. anthedon dominates. The 40 year old stands are dominated by shade preferring species, especially E. anthedon. A second species which shows a preference for increased shade is Pieris napi (L.). The numbers of this species increase in the older, darker sites (Appendix II). Peterson (1954) observed that the shade-loving species P. napi and the sun-loving species P. rapae feed on similar host plants. He suggested that they evolved different habitat preferences to avoid competition. Peterson (1954) also observed that there were thermal and host plant differences between the two habitat types and these may be the factors that account for the differences rather than competition. Courtney and Chew (1987) observed that habitat type determines the amount of host plant variance that will be experienced and that the Pierinae evolve to become adapted to the food plants available in their habitats. Shapiro and Cardé (1970) suggested that an evolved habitat preference among two species of Satyridae may be the result of interspecific competition. This may be the case for the two abundant species of Satyridae collected in this study. Both feed on members of the Graminaceae, however, one species E. anthedon has a strong preference for dark forested sites, while the other species C. pegala, is only found in open areas and is abundant in the very young sites. These species that are considered polyphagous, have probably developed preferences for specific species of Graminaceae associated with their habitat preferences.

Ordination analysis indicates that there is an association between some monophagous butterfly species, such as C. interior and E. martialis, and their food plants.

Larvae have a greater range of host acceptance than would be indicated by oviposition preference exhibited by the adult females (Gilbert and Singer, 1975). Adult butterflies are not

as specific about food resources and are more opportunistic in feeding than are their larvae. Where adult butterflies are collected likely has more to do with habitat preference than with locality of suitable oviposition material. Butterflies are highly mobile as adults. As such, they are able to search fairly large areas for suitable oviposition sites. Adult butterflies seem to be more strongly influenced by abiotic factors such as light intensity and patchiness in their habitat than by biotic factors such as the presence or absence of suitable oviposition material. If their food plants for oviposition occur in the same habitat, they will be strongly associated with those habitats.

Moths

Like that of the butterflies, the moth species composition in planted and naturally regenerated stands was quite similar. The moths, unlike the butterflies, are mostly nocturnal. With the moths the strongest influencing factor would appear to be the amount of vegetation cover associated with a site. As the stands increase in age, there is a concurrent increase in the structural and architectural diversity in above ground plant parts which serve as food sources and refugia for the moths (Lawton, 1983). The moths seem to respond to the level of cover and its structural diversity. Both the number of individuals and the number of species collected increased with increasing stand age.

The five year old sites were much more open than the other age classes and there was little protection from the wind in these sites. It would be expected that stronger flying moths would dominate the light trap catch in these sites (Muirhead-Thomson, 1991). The dominant species in this age class were members of the Noctuidae, which are a group of strong flying

moths. Several species were restricted almost exclusively to this age class, including Leucania commoides Guenée, which feeds on grasses (Tietz, 1972) and Oncocnemis piffardi (Walker), whose host plant is not known (Appendix V). Enargia decolor was the dominant species in this age class (Table 6, 9). The degree of dominance in this age class was similar in both treatment types and was the highest of all age classes in 1994 (Figure 45). This may be attributable to the weather conditions and reasons similar to those influencing the butterflies. The climatic conditions were better for the Lepidoptera in general and the dominant species became even more dominant under preferable conditions and this effect was more pronounced in the open sites. Other species that were dominant in this age class included I. occiduaria, which was abundant in all age classes. Itame occiduaria feeds on a variety of host plants including Ribes spp., Amelanchier spp. and a variety of tree species (Tietz, 1972) and its ubiquitous presence is not surprising. The other dominant species in this age class is N. frigidana, another ubiquitous species, whose host plants include Populus spp. and Salix spp. (Tietz, 1972). Both of these trees are found in the study area, especially Populus.

The 15 year old stands were dominated by species including *I. occiduaria* and *E. explanata* (Table 9). Eulithis explanata feeds on blueberry, Vaccinium spp., as its host plant.

One species which was most abundantly collected in this age class was Platysenta videns

(Guenée) (Appendix V). The larval host plants of this species, asters and goldenrods, were most abundant in this age class (Appendix I). This may indicate a high level of dependence on the larval food resource. These plants are located in other age classes but the moth was not as frequently collected. The total number of individuals collected in this age class was similar between the two treatments in 1993 (Figure 41). In 1994, the number of moths collected in the

natural site was much higher than in the planted sites (Figure 42). There may be several reasons for this. In the 15 year old stands, tree density was much higher in the natural site and there is an increase in the amount of above ground plant parts in this site resulting in increased structural diversity. There may also be a greater degree of protection from the elements (eg. wind) that allowed for a greater number of moths to reach the light trap (Muirhead-Thomson, 1991). The dominant family of moths in B15A was the Geometridae. In almost all sites where the geometrids were dominant, their numbers were lower in 1993 (Table 9). The weather conditions of 1993 may not be favourable for geometrid flight or they may have been more affected by the weather conditions more than the other dominant family, the Noctuidae. The more favourable conditions experienced in 1994 may have allowed for an increase in moth numbers especially in the weaker flying Geometridae. The number of Geometridae collected in the natural site, B15A, was much higher than in the planted stands (Appendix V). The number of species was similar between treatments and between years (Figure 43, 44). This lends further support to the idea that an increase in vegetative material leads to an increase in numbers. The differences in numbers of individuals would then be attributed to the increased level of cover due to the clumping of the trees in the area of the light trap, giving more protection from the elements and allowing more of the weaker flying moths to reach the traps. This trend is true for this study (Appendix V; Table 9). It is difficult or impossible to quantitatively measure structural diversity. The level of dominance in this age class was similar between treatments (Figure 45). The degree of dominance remained constant for the planted stands in both years. The level of dominance in the natural stand increased quite substantially in 1994. As discussed earlier, this may be due to the more favourable weather conditions

occurring in that year. The dominant species in the natural site in 1994, *E. explanata*, was also prevalent in 1993. The improved weather conditions may have allowed for the increase in numbers. Conversely, in the 40 year old stands, where *E. explanata* was also abundant, there was not a concurrent increase in the number of individuals of this species collected. It may simply be natural variation in the population levels of this insect that accounts for the difference in abundance.

In 1993, the number of moths collected in the 25 year old age class was quite similar, although it was considerably more variable in the planted sites (Figure 41). There may have been a malfunction in the light trap in one of the planted sites (P25A), as the numbers for these sites were quite similar in 1994 (Figure 42). Numbers increased in 1994, particularly for the natural sites, although they were more variable (Figure 42). The number of species were quite similar in 1993 (Figure 43) and more variable in the planted stands, likely for the same reasons as the number of individuals. in 1994, within treatments the number of species were quite similar (Figure 44). The natural stands had a considerably higher number of species than did the planted stands. The planted and natural stands did not differ substantially in herbaceous vegetation composition. The key difference may be attributed to the area surrounding the sites. The planted stands are within large, relatively homogeneous areas of forest, while the natural stands tend to be in heterogeneous forest areas. As mentioned earlier, the second natural replicate has a large stand of *Populus* spp. within 200 m. The area near the other planted replicate was also of mixed forest. A large number of species may have been dispersing/migrating in the area. A large number of the species not collected in the planted stands that were collected in the natural stands feed on Populus spp. and may have been

moving through the natural stands, accounting for the differences in the number of species collected in the different treatment types. The degree of dominance in the 25 year old stands was quite similar within treatments and between treatments as well as between study years (Figure 46). Dominant species in the 25 year old age class were the most variable of all age classes and included *C. angustiorata*, *E. explanata* and *I. occiduaria* (Table 8). The latter two species are ubiquitous in the three older age classes. *Caripeta angustiorata* feeds on various species of pines (Tietz, 1972) and its increased abundance in this age class may indicate that it has a preference for older trees. A species that was abundant in the natural sites is *Lomographa vestaliata* (Guenée). Its host plant is *A. uva-ursi*, or snowberry (Tietz, 1972). From Appendix I, it is observed that snowberry is more abundant in the natural stands than in the planted stands. Snowberry is most frequently found in open woods in dry habitats (Johnson *et al.*, 1995). The natural sites were on average more open (Fig. 11) than were the planted sites.

In both years of the study, the number of moths collected peaked for the planted stands in the 40 year age class (Figure 41, 42). The natural stands had the highest number of moths collected in 1993 but not in 1994. The numbers collected in 1994 were lower than those of the 25 year old natural stands but were higher than any of the other age classes (Figure 41, 42). The high numbers collected in these sites is similar to those of the previous age class. An increase in the amount of available food resources as a result of increased vegetative growth may account for the increase in number of moths collected (Lawton, 1983). These sites also offer considerable protection from the wind, allowing for an increase in the number of poorly flying species able to reach the light trap. The geometrid moths, which are considered weak

fliers (Holloway and Stork, 1991), and were more frequently collected in sites which afford them more protection from the wind (Table 9). As such, the number of geometrid species collected is highest in the oldest sites. The number of species in general collected also peaked in this age class for the moths (Figure 43, 44) and were comparable between the treatments. As stand age increases there is an increase in the number of types of food plants available and the degree of cover also increases, allowing more of the poorer flying species, such as the geometrids, to reach the light traps. The dominant species in this age class were members of the Geometridae (Tables 6, 9; Appendix V). Eulithis explanata was the dominant species overall in both years. Its food plant, Vaccinium spp., is abundant in these sites. The degree of dominance remained consistent in the natural stands (Figure 45) in both years. The planted stands were quite similar to the natural stands in dominance in 1994, but had a higher level of dominance in 1993. Examination of the data did not reveal any explanation for this. The dominant species, E. explanata, showed an increase in numbers and dominance in the 15 year old natural site from 1993 to 1994, so a change in weather does not serve as an explanation for the concurrent decrease in dominance in the 40 year old stands over the same time period. It is likely that the decrease in dominance may be attributed to a natural decrease in numbers occurring over a long term cycle of the moth numbers within those sites.

In general there is an increase in both number of individuals and number of species collected with an increase in stand age. This is due to the increase in both the structural and architectural diversity that occurs with increasing stand age (Southwood et al., 1979; Lawton, 1983). There is a shift in the composition of the dominant species at the familial level. The young sites are dominated by strong flying Noctuidae (Table 9; Appendix V). As stand age

increases there is an increase in the number of poor flying species resulting in an increase in the number of Geometridae that are collected by the light traps. Similarly, a poor flying species of the family Ethmiidae, *Ethmia monticola* (Walsingham) increased in numbers collected as stand age increases (Appendix V). The Noctuidae and Geometridae were clearly the dominant families of moths accounting for greater than 70 percent of the moths collected in all sites (Table 9).

The height of the trap may also play a role in species composition. The traps in this study were at a height of two metres. In the open sites this may have been too high for the weak flying species to reach. Had the traps been placed closer to the ground, more weak flying species may have been collected in the open sites. The trap height may have also affected the number of very strong flying species collected. Sphingidae are quite abundant in the Sandilands Provincial Forest region (B. Elliott, pers. obs.) and more species and individuals were expected in the collections. The Sphingidae fly quite high (Taylor et al., 1979) and as such, the trap height may have been too low to attract many of these species. The trap opening is also quite small, and some members of the Sphingidae are quite large. They may have reached the trap, but with wings outspread, were unable to enter the trap.

In terms of feeding strategy among the moths, generalist species dominated the fauna that was collected (Table 10). This may provide an explanation for the low eigenvalues obtained during ordination analysis of the moth species. Since the majority of species collected are polyphagous, it is unlikely that they would be strongly linked to a particular habitat by host plant requirements (Lawton, 1983). There was a slight increase in the number of specialist species as stand age increased (Table 10). This is the opposite of the trend observed in the

butterflies as the number of specialists decreased with an increase in stand age. It may be that the monophagous moth species are poorer flying species that need the increased protection from the elements that is afforded to them by the older, more closed sites.

Controlling factors affecting Lepidoptera alpha and beta diversity

The butterflies and moths exhibited patterns of species diversity that differed from each other. In the five year old stands, both butterflies and moths exhibited low values of α compared to stands in other age classes (Figure 27, 28; 46, 47). The youngest sites were expected to have the lowest species diversity values. In general, sites that are architecturally simple in terms of vegetation structure are expected to have less diverse faunas associated with them than are sites which are architecturally diverse (Southwood, 1979; Lawton, 1983). Components of architectural diversity include the size and growth form of the vegetation, which may be thought of as spatial diversity, and architecture which describes the variety of above ground parts (Lawton, 1983). Sites with an abundance of herbaceous vegetation combined with a well developed shrub layer and a high number of trees have a high degree of structural architecture (Lawton, 1983). By comparison, an architecturally simple site would be one in which there is little vegetation cover and no shrubs or trees (Lawton, 1983). The five year old sites had little in the way of shrub cover and the trees are still quite small and hence architecturally simple at this age. The butterflies present in this age class are typically generalists that are found in other age classes. One exception is C. pegala, which seems to have a distinct preference for the open sites and may fall into the category that Holloway and Barlow (1992) refer to as gap phase specialists; species which specialize in colonizing the early

stages of a succession. This species was not abundant in the natural stands. The reason for this may have been the higher abundance of grasses, the food plant for this species (Tietz, 1972), in the planted stands. The moths collected in this age class were mostly generalists although several species which may be gap phase specialists were collected. The species include *L. commoides*, and *O. piffardi*, both of which are members of the Noctuidae. Holloway and Barlow (1992) observed that members of the Noctuidae and Arctiidae comprise a high proportion of the open habitat specialists in the tropics. This seems to be true in this study for some species of the Noctuidae, but the Arctiidae collected in this study would have to be considered as generalists, as they showed no particular preference for any habitat type nor any particular age class (Appendix V; Table 9).

Both groups of Lepidoptera increased in α diversity in the 15 year age class (Figure 27, 28; 46, 47). Diversity was higher in the planted stands in both groups. The butterflies' diversity was likely lower in the natural stands due to the high density of the trees which created a comparatively dark habitat. Butterflies prefer a patchy habitat and this was more available in the planted stands and the resultant diversities were higher in those stands. The moth diversity may be due to the increased architectural diversity in the planted stands. Although the natural stand was more dense in terms of trees, the trees in the planted stands were more robust in development with abundant foliage on all branches. In the natural stand the trees were comparatively bare and there was abundant needle die-off on lower branches. In the areas around the planted stands were stands of *Populus*, a host plant for a large number of the moth generalist species.

Relative to that in the 15 year age class, a diversity of both butterflies and moths

increased in the natural stands for the 25 year age class and decreased for the planted stands (Figure 27, 28; 46, 47). The increase in diversity in the natural stands can be attributed to several factors. The area surrounding the natural sites was more heterogeneous than those around the planted stands. There was likely a higher number of lepidopteran species that were travelling through the sites as they were searching for oviposition sites, searching for mates or in the process of migration. The planted stands were more closed compared to the natural stands and as has been stated earlier the butterflies have a preference for patchy habitats. The trees in the natural stands were comparatively more robust and healthy with fully developed foliage. There was also a stronger shrub layer in the natural stands compared to the planted stands. The planted stands were dominated by a single species to a much greater extent than were the natural stands. This species, *E. anthedon*, is predominant in the next age class and is associated with the more mature, closed sites (Table 5, 6).

The patterns of α diversity differed for the two groups of Lepidoptera in the 40 year old stands. Relative to the 25 year age class, diversity decreased in this age class for the butterflies (Figure 27, 28) and increased for the moths (Figure 46, 47). The general theory that insect diversity increases with increasing architectural diversity holds true for the moths. The 40 year old stands had the most structurally diverse architecture of all the age classes. The trees were most well developed in terms of height and foliage development. The shrub layer was the most well developed in these sites and the herb layer was comparable in number of species and architecture with the younger species (Figure 15, 16). The majority of butterflies, as has been mentioned earlier have a preference for patchy habitats in which they can easily obtain access to sunlit areas, an obvious requirement for heliotherms. As such, many find the habitat of a 40

year old stand unsuitable. Some species do show a preference for the shaded areas of this age class and include E. anthedon and P. napi. The patterns of α diversity follow the expected pattern according to diversity theories put forth by Southwood (1979) and Lawton (1983).

In general, neither planted nor naturally regenerated stands exhibited a greater degree of β diversity than the other treatment, for either butterflies or moths. Only in 1994 were planted stands significantly more similar in terms of values for Kendall's Tau for the butterflies. The butterflies showed no clear pattern in terms of β diversity with respect to age class. The moths showed a decrease in β diversity with an increase in stand age when Sørenson's coefficient was used. This may be due to canopy closure as stands age, resulting in a more uniform habitat. The same trend was noted in the moths with respect to α diversity, number of individuals and number of species. The same patterns were not noted in the butterflies. The butterflies prefer patchy habitats (Gilbert and Singer, 1975) and do not respond to an increase in vegetative cover in the same manner as the moths.

CONCLUSIONS

Butterflies prefer patchy habitats (Gilbert and Singer, 1975) and in this study the five year old stands were too open while the 40 year old stands were too closed: butterfly abundance and diversity were greatest in the 15 or 25 year old stands. Overall, planting did not significantly reduce butterfly α diversity between planted and naturally regenerated jack pine stands of similar age and composition. However, in both years diversity peaked in 15 year old planted stands and at 25 years in the natural stands. This effect was statistically significant in one year only. However, statistical analysis is a conservative process with the goal of excluding effects of random variation. Thus, the consistent pattern and the statistically significant result in one year suggest that the advancing of the age of maximum α diversity is a real effect of planting.

Moth α diversity increased with increasing stand age. The moths seem to respond strongly to the increased structural and architectural diversity that accompanies an increase in stand age (Lawton, 1983). Overall, planting did not significantly reduce moth α diversity between planted and naturally regenerated jack pine stands of similar stand age and composition. However, α diversity of moths increased with stand age more rapidly in natural stands than in planted stands. This trend occurred in both years, although it was only statistically significant in one of the years. It is likely therefore that planting reduces the rate of increase of α diversity of moths. There is a need to determine if this trend extends beyond the 40 year age class: the differences between treatments increased as stand age increased and so studies on older stands should be performed.

Planted and naturally regenerated stands do not differ significantly in terms of β diversity

for either butterflies or moths. No discernable trend in β diversity was observed for the butterflies. For the moths, there was a decrease in habitat heterogeneity with increasing stand age. This study was limited in its ability to assess β diversity. There were few replicates for comparison and only one replicate of the 15 year old natural stand. A study with a greater number of replicates would give a better indication of trends in β diversity. However, more replicates would include more work in an already labour intensive study.

The majority of Lepidoptera are phytophagous and coevolution with their host plants is well established (Ehrlich and Raven, 1964). Ordination analysis illustrated that there is a strong degree of association between certain butterfly species and their host plants. In this study there was no relationship between a moths and their food plants that could be established using ordination analysis. For the most part there appeared to be a lack of association between the majority of species and their host plants in the ordinations. The degree of host plant association for both butterflies and moths was unaffected by regeneration type. Ordination analysis did not reveal any effects of planting on the assemblages of Lepidoptera.

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Appendix I. Summary of vegetation transect sampling in all sites in 1993 & 1994 (percent cover).

			5 y	S year old		15	15 year old			25 year old	pjo			40 year old	r old	
		Ž	Natural	Planted	3	Natural		Planted	Ž	Natural	Planted	2	Natural	7	Plented	3
	YEAR	BOSA	B05B	POSA	Posts	BISA	P15A	PISB	B25A	B25B	P25A	P25B	Me	3	7	7403
Ophiogiossaceae																
Botychium mutifidum (Gwel.) Rupr.	1993	2.50										79 .				
Polypodiaceae																
Peridian equilinan (L.) Kubn	1993											131	. 9			4 .
Equisetaceae																
<i>Rquisetum hyemale</i> L.	1993	2 . 5.	÷ ; ;		. .	9 .	1.91		i. 8 .		4 4		₹.	5 F	5 5	: 8
Lycopodiaceae																
Lycopodium annotinum L.	1993	S .	₹.		5 .		¥ .	97 .			.	₹.		. ₹		
Selaginellaceae																
Seleginelle rupestris (L.) Spring	595		35	z .	. 2		শ্ব শ	.15	: .				. 4			
Graminese																
Agrostis scabra Wild.	1993			.13	.12			.	6 .			4 .				
Andropogon generali Vieman	1993	16.31	7.95 10.79	7.56	6.08	4.14	.10 10.78	21.66 22.56	5.60	6.39	8.54 12.75	8.26 7.56	¥ 3	2,63	3.39	5.04 5.38
Celemovilfe longifolie (Hook.) Scribn.	1993		z	1.59				6 .		4 .		8 .				

Appendix I (continued)														- 40		
			5 ,	ear old		13	5 year ol	đ		25 year	r old			40 yes	er old	
		Na	tural	Pla	ated	Natura	al Pi	anted	N	itur ai	Plan	ted	Nat	ural	Pian	ted
	YEAR	B05A	BesB	P05A	P05B	B15A	P15A	P15B	B25A	B25B	P25A	P25B	B40A	B44B	P40A	P46B
Elymus canadensis L.	1993 1994	•	•	•	•	:	•	•	•	:	:	•	.02	:	•	•
Koeleria gracilis Pers.	1993 1994	1.22 5,89	3. 92 5.77	17. 00 21.92	3.01 8.41	.42	8.77 4.41	.02 2.49	.02 .07	•	•	3.45	•	•	.86	•
Oryzopsis asperifolia Michx.	1993 1994	.11	•	8.68	•	.10	1.94	.22	4.47	2.64 .40	3.55 .97	5.57 ·	14.92 4.71	3.45 .47	15.34 ,13	.67 ,45
Oryzopsis pungens (Torr.) Hitchc.	1993 1994	1.71 4.13	4.33 5.43	.12 .43	.22 15.93	3.58 8.84	2.86 8.66	.20 8.96	.19 5.19	5,45	,50 5.53	1.29 9.53	1.71	.59 4.22	3,95	.43 4.56
Poa compressa L.	1993 1994	•	. 92 ·	2.09	2,38 ,88	•	. 02 ·	•	.02	:	•	1.90		. 09	•	.22
Sti pe comete Trin. & Rupr.	1993 1994	•	•	.10 ·	•	•		•	.57	. 02 ·	•	•	•	. 09	•	•
Cyperaceae																
Carex pensylvanica Lam.	1993 1994	i.18	1. 80	5.17 4.66	2.07		•	.23		.24	•	:	•	.89	•	•
Carex rich ard senii R. Br.	1993 1994	3.79 3.09	.40 .35	4.87	5,13 ,09	.29 2.17	. 08 2.66	.36 2,60	,38 3,51	.49 ·	.60 5.02	.36 4.94	.28 3.95	1.12 3.54	7.26	,55 •
Carex rossii Boott	1993 1994	1.57 .63	1.59	.74 ·	2.16 .53	.12	.02 ·	.10 ·	:	.20	•	.30 ·	.02	•	•	•
Liliaceae																
Maianthemum canadense Desf.	1993 1994	.14 .09	.10 .44	.14 .01	.18 ·	1.68 1.11	.04 .18	.02 .02	2.40 5.28	1.02 ,69	1.43 5.83	.04	4.40 3,60	8.40 8,52	2.89 8.00	7. 08 6.24
Polygonatum canliculatum (Muhl.) Pursh	1993 1994	•	.08 .18	.42 .38	.61 .14	.37 .91	•	.02	.08 .91	.61	•	•	.02	.40	•	.98 .12

Appendix I (continued)			5	S year old		15	15 year old	_		25 year old	Plo			40 year old	r 94	
		Ž	Natural	Planted	iled	Natural		Planted	Ž	Natural	Planted	7	Natura	Ē	Planted	3
	YEAR	BOSA	B05B	POSA	POSB	BISA	P15A	P15B	B25A	B25B	P2SA	P25B	M		746A	74
Betulaceae																
Corpus cornuía Marab.	1993											.₹	#4			
Polygonaceae																
Polygenum convolvulus L.	1993			%; c	₹.											
Chenopodium album L.	1993			2 . ·												
Chenopodium loptophyllum Nutt.	1993	₹.			5 .						a .					
Caryophyllaceae																
Arenario lateriflore L.	1993			1.17	.											
Ranunculaceae																
Anomone canadensis L.	1993	s s				. 2.			. 22	S R		ξ .				1.76
Anemone cylindrica A. Gray	1993	₹.				 6			\$.	₹.		27 .				¥ .
Aremone remorosa L.	1993	9 .				1.25	.5. 80.	2.00	1.46	1.25	4.02	4 %	2.98 3.56	11.39	4.13	¥ .
Anemone patens 1.	1993	. = .		4. 7.	1.23	2.91 1.54		6. 6. 2. 8	4. 6.	.67	₹.			źś		.7.

Appendix I (continued)				:							100					
			Ô	o year old		c	15 year old	_		72 year old	턴			A year old		
		Ž	itural	Planted	þ	Natura		Planted	Ž	Natural	Planted	Z	Natural	7	Planted	2
	YEAR	BesA	Besb	Pesa	Posb	B15A	P15A	P15B	B25A	B25B	P25A	P25B	B40A	3463	7	748
Thalletrum dasyearpum Fisch. & Lall.	55 25		.03			.21			24.0.	. 2	.21	99'1	2.5	. 15 15	8 7 .	
Cruciferae																
Arabis drummondii A. Gray	1993	. ·	4 .	21 .			¥ .		. .	5 .						
Saxifragaceae																
Heuchera richardsonii R. Br.	1993	₽.				. 27					į.		₹.	3.5	3. ti	
Ribos glandulosum Graver	1993		. • •								5 .					
Rosaceae																
Amelauchier alaifolla Nutt.	1993	₹.		.76	4 .	š .		1.64	3 .	3 =	.83	£ 5	.		2 4.	• •
Fragaria virgitulana Dene.	1993	32	₽.		2. S.	4 &	6 .	3.03	.53 1.37	3, 2,	2.2	1.64 5.23	1.35 53	1.19	¥ 1	*4
Potentille tridentate Ak.	1993	₹.	5			6 .		• •		25.	4 .					
Prunus pensylvanica L.	1993	.=	. 8.			• •		.8		SS .	. 2	.=				
Pranus pumila L.	1993	₹.	1.50	2. 88 .71	2.12 1.15	.16 .25	% &	2.32	.50 .50	1.20	£. 2.	2 . ₹	& 5	£ %	3 .	1.31
Pranus virginiana (L.) Kuhn	1993	ë ë	ŹŻ	==	5; 5 ;	. \$	2	4. e.	2 ź	ž zi	18.	1.17		.17	٤.	. a

Appendix I (continued)																
			5)	ear old		15	year old	đ		25 year	r old			40 ye	er old	
		Na	tural	Pin	ated	Natura	u Pi	anted	Na	itural	Plan	ted	Nat	ural	Plan	ited
	YEAR	B05A	B05B	P05A	P05B	B15A	P15A	P15B	B25A	B25B	P25A	P25B	B40A	B40B	P40A	P40B
Rosa acicularis Lindi.	1993 1994	1.38 2,48	.39 2.28	.46 .02	2.18 1.06	.60 1.81	.10 3.21	.4 0 3.71	.27 2.95	.09 .24	.77 .32	2.77 2.66	2.67 4.88	,65 ,34	.45 1.05	.26 .99
Rubus idaeus Regel & Tiling	1993 1994		•		•	•	.02	.30		•	•	.08	1.43 ,59	•	•	:
Spirace alba Du Roi	1993 1994	•	1.53 3.22	1.63 1.54	2.20 5.34	•	1.49 .46	. 02 ·		•	•	•	•	•	.02	.12
Leguminosae																
Amerpha canescens Pursh	1993 1994		•	•	•	•	•	7.62 10,34	•	•	•	1.09 ,20	•	•	•	•
Lathyrus ochroleucus Hook.	1993 1994	1.67 .96	.72 1.06	•	•	•	.08	.53 1.90	1.14 .97	.16 2.69	1.26 ,99	.95 4.44	.54 .71	.01	2.04 .60	.35
Vicia americana Muhl.	1993 1994	.18	•	•	•	•	,09	•	•	,69 ,10	.02	•	.04	•	.11	•
Anacardiaceae																
Rhus radicans L.	1993 1994			•	•	•	•	.15	.09	.48		4.80 7.09	•	•	•	•
Rhamnaceae																
Ceanothus ovatus Desf.	1993 1994	.20 .18	•	•	.01 ·	•	•		1.04	.02	5.45 .80	5.57 5.94	.51	.32	.90 .50	•
Cistaceae																
Hudsonia tomentosa Nutt.	1993 1994	:	.54 ,99	•	•	•	•			•		•		•	•	•

Appendix I (continued)			7	Mo Tee		91	16 year old			28 was old	7			Ale sees Al	Pic		ı
			Ď			2		_			3				2		
		Ž	Natural	Planted	peg	Natura		Planted	Ž	Natural	Planted	72	Natural	ī	Manted	8	
	YEAR	BOSA	B65B	POSA	PesB	BISA	PISA	P15B	B25A	B25B	P25A	P25B	4	146	4		
Violaceae																	1
Viole adunce J.E. Smith	19 53 19 54	35	.31	.83	.\$.	1.25	.51 25	2.00	9 <u>9</u> 11	1.25	2.85	7. 2.	2, 6,	.12 35	\$;	39	
Onagraceae																	
Bpilobium angustifolium L.	2661 2661		6 . '					• •		ā .			1.58				
Oenothera Hennis L.	1993		4 .	: 8	2 1.												
Araliaceae																	
Aretie nudiceutis L.	1993							% .	SS .			1.43	2.47				
Umbelliferae																	
Zizia aptera (Gray) Pern.	1993		₹.		.	6 8			22				3.	22	2 .		
Cornaceae																	
Cornus canadonsis L.	1963		• •				s .						3.18				
Pyrolaceae																	
Pyrolla asartfolla Michx.	1993										. =		₹.				
Pyrolia virans Schweigg.	1994								3.95		2.4		3 .	5.41		3.32	

Appendix I (continued)																	
			S)	S year old		22	15 year old			25 year old	P(o			40 year old	r old		
		Z	Natural	K	Planted	Natural		Planted	Z	Natural	Planted	7	Natura	7	Planted	3	
	YEAR	YEAR BOSA	B65B	PSA	Pesb	B15A	PISA	P15B	B25A	B25B	P25A	P25B	P40 V	3	740V	2	
Ericaceae																	
Arctostaphylos uva-ursi (L.) Spreng.	1993	2.79	11.35 18.	36°E .	3 .	11.85	8.75 24	3,94	9.08 .75	28.59 .58	3,11	2.79	<u> </u>	19.02	2,13	. 5.96	
Gaultheria procumbens L.	1993	S .	.		₹.	₹.			2.2		F .		₹.	1,5 1,5	š .	7 1.	
Vaccinaceae																	
Vaccinium angusdfolium Ak.	55	E¥.	7.3 2.3	3.16 4.50	3.45	19.54 11.35	14.21	1.15	9.71 5.69	11	13.75	2,43	4.13	45	51.15 57.8	7.46	
Primulaceae																	
Trientells bornells Raf.	5 4												\$.				
Apocynaceae																	
Apocynum androsaemifoliam1993 L.	1993 1994	. \$. 8	46	5 5	.	6. 6.	2 ¢	# FF	. 8	3 7	.⊀	.1.	. =			
Labiatae																	
Monarda fisiulosa L.	1993							8; 1;	£.	8 .	2.5	1.53					
Scrophularaceae																	
Melampyrum lineare Dest,	1993			8 .	6 . '	Z .	8	. 27		.	3 .	. 8	ş	*	59.	53	

Appendix I (continued)																	
			•	year old			year old			25 year				•	ar old		
		Na	tural	Pla	nted	Natura	i Pi	anted	No	itur al	Plan	ted	Nat	ural	Plan	ited	
	YEAR	B05A	B05B	P05A	P05B	B15A	P15A	P15B	B25A	B25B	P25A	P25B	B40A	B44B	P40A	P44B	
Rubiaceae							-	•									
Galium boreale L.	1993 1994	.45 .75	•	.65 .73	.10 ·	.81 .96	1.69 1.49	3.33 2.43	1.32 1.03	3.20 1.89	1.29 1.69	1.86 2.12	1.16 .94	1.91 1.20	.27 .85	•	
<i>Galium triflorum</i> Michx.	1993 1994	•	•	:	•	:	•	:	:	•	:	.25	. 02	•	.34	•	
Caprifoliaceae																	
Linnasa borsalis L.	1993 1994	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	,52 ·	•	1,20	•	•	•	
Lonicera dioica L.	1993 1994	:	.26	.12	.79 1.32	:	•	.10 ·	•	•	•	2.08	.34 .12	•	.22	•	
Symphoricarpes albus (L.) Blake	1993 1994	.02 .18	. 0 2	. 82 ·	.73 ·	.91 .45	.29 ,25	6,65 2,55	.80 .75	.29 .58	4.54 1.58	13.7 9 10.21	1, 95 ,59	2,31 1.34	,43 2.13	.53 ·	
Campanulaceae																	
Campanula retundifelia L.	1993 1994	•	•••	.10 .09	. 04 . 02	.08 ·	.14	•	.01	.11 ·	.04	. 0 2	. 0 2	. 02	.02 .03	•	
Compositae																	
Crepis sectorum L.	1993 1994	•	. 0 2	.34	.06	•	•		•		•	•	:	•		:	
Sonchus arvensis L.	1993 1994	:	•	•	•		•		•	•	.02	•	. 02	•	•	•	
Tragopogon pratensis L.	1993 1994		.04	•	.39	:	.02 ·	•	:	:	:	:	. 09	. 63 ·	.01	.02 .10	

Appendix I (continued)			S	S year old		15	15 year old			25 vear old	Plo			40 veer old	r old	
		,	•					ı			1				<u> </u>	
		Ž	Natural	Planted) Fed	Natural		Planted	Ž	Natural	Planted	3	Natura	Ī	Planted	3
	YEAR	BOSA	BesB	POSA	PosB	B15A	PISA	P15B	B25A	B25B	P25A	P25B	F	3463	P46A	
Achilles millefollum L.	1993									.02						
Antennaria neodioica Greene	1993	9.22	.52 11.	% 6	6 .	1.75	2. 2.	: 3	1.25	6.76	3,38	8 7.	3	.77 3.13	= 5	5.31
Artemesia campestris L.	1993					• •	ž .					\$ 5				
Aster ciliolatus Lindi.	1993		6 .			7 .	17 .			16 .	2 .	₹.				
Aster Levis L.	1993	.75 2.35	4.8	₹.	¥ £:	3.55	.52 1.52	3,46	3.71	.69 2.562	.21 1.28	77.	15	# E	£ 7.	55 1.4
Cirsium arrense (L.) Scop.	1993						÷.						. 5			
Brigeron acris L.	1993			5 .		2, 3.	. 8 =		źź		S .		4 4
Brigoron canadensis L.	1993		6 .	8 .	. .											
<i>Erigeron glabellus</i> Nutt.	1993			.5.												¥ .
Lietris ilgulistiis (A. Nels.) K. Schum.	1993	5 ঙ্			
Petatites pelmetus (Alt.) A. Gray	1993										6 .		3 .			
Solidago nomoralis Ak.	261	1.08	2.28	2 6	.12 1.06	1.10	3.21	3.64	2.95	. 7	32.52	.02	\$.	44	. S ;	.24 1.35

Appendix I (continued)			5 y	ear old		15	year old	i		25 year	r old			40 yes	er old	-	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
		Na	tural	Plat	ited	Natura	i Pi	inted	Na	tural	Pian	ted	Nat	ural	Pten	ted	
	YEAR	B05A	B05B	P05A	P05B	B15A	P15A	P15B	B25A	B25B	P25A	P25B	B40A	B44B	P40A	P40B	
Cladoniaceae	-																
Cladonia mitis (Sandst.) Hustich	1993 1994	•		.42 .62	:	2.91 7.14	1.50 6.23	.40 .30	3,61 8,43	4.14 2.11	.16	.02	. 09 . 0 2	5.53 4.90	. 02 ·	9.14 9.18	
Cladina rengiferina (L.) Nyl.	1993 1994	•	•	•	.02 . 09	6.86 5.36	11.70 9.67	2.55 .91	10.75 7.74	.67 1.55	•	. 02 •	.22	2.19 2.92	.20	2,92 5,88	
Cladenia spp.	1993 1994	•	•	•	•	6.06	. 08 3.13	.67	4.43	.53	.24		•	.78	•	.45 .71	
Dicranaceae																	
Dicranum polysetum Sw.	1993 1994	. 0 2	.aa	•	. 64	.27 .26	.14 ,86	•	.42 .91	.15 .42	1.02	.02	.98 .16	1.70 2.09	.27 1.59	.84 ,57	
Ceratodon purpureus (Hedw.) Brid.	1993 1994	1.97 4.93	1.89 2.28	.16 .29	.44 2.12	.69	,37 ,26	.04 .08	•	•	•	•	•	.16	•	•	
Hylocomiaceae																	
Pleurozium schreberi (Brid.) Mitt.	1993 1994	•	•	. 02	. 0 2	2.85 3.80	. 08 ,25	.22 1.21	8.16 7.86	5.51 7.74	2.11 4.68	1.94 .43	19.13 28.78	17.72 20.86	24.96 30.40	7.59 7.60	
Dead Vegetation/ Bare Ground	1993 1994	53.25 26.67	53.67 37.69	42.66 35.07	43,88 38.45	27.01 17.81	38.80 17.58	32.83 9.64	27.86 11.80	27.70 23.45	37.30 20,00	31.73 16,66	31. 89 26.17	13.01 11.57	18.49 10.56	39,34 32.89	
∑ Number of Species	1993 1994	36 31	36 32	35 27	44 27	39 30	42 34	43 35	43 34	39 35	41 32	44 35	46 35	36 36	32 30	33 27	SUM 91 69

Appendix II. Summary of butterfly and skipper collection data for all sites using both collection techniques, bait trapping and transect sampling (1993 & 1994).

			5 y	S year old		15	15 year old			25 year old	탕			40 year old	몽		
		Z	Natural	Planted	ited	Natura		Planted	Ž	Natural	Planted	8	Natural	Ē	Planted	Z	
	YEAR	BOSA	B05B	Pesa Pesa	PosB	B15A	PISA	P15B	B25A B25B		P25A	P25B	B40A B40E	246	P40A P40B	4	SUM
Hesperiidae Pyrginae																	
Thorybes pylades Scudder	1993	••	••	••	••	• •	• -		7 7	- 6	• ~	• 4	. 4	• ~	•-	N •	s ±
Brynnis icelus (Scudder and Burgen)	1993	~	••	•	• •	• -	e -	• •	••	• ~	••	••		••	••	••	• •
Eryanis brize (Bolsduval and Leconte)	1993	••	••	••	••	••	9 11	• •	••	••	••	••	••	••	••	•-	• •
Eryanis javenalis (Pabrictus)	5 5 5 7 5 7	••	••	••	••	••	• •	••	••	••	•-	••	••	••	••	••	• =
Brynis marstelis (Soudder)	5 5	• =	••	••	• •	•-	~ •	~ •	••	n n	es ==	• 11	• =	••	••	••	50 60
Heteropterinae																	
Carterocophalus palaemon (Pallas)	1993	••	• •	••	••	••	• •	••	••	~ 7	••	••	••	• ~	••	~•	
Hesperia comma (Scudder)	1593	••	••	••	••	••	••	••	••	40	••	••	••	••	••	••	~
Poanes hobomok (Harris)	1993	••	••	••	• •	7 -	• -		••	••	•-	=,		.	w w	••	82
Euphyes ruricola (Bolduval)	1993	••	••	••	• •	• •	o =	• •	••	0-	••	••	••	••	••	••	• 4
Amblyscirtes vialis (W.H. Edwards)	1993	••	• •	•-	• •	•-	0 =	• =	9 0	44	• •	• -	• vs	•=	44	• •	• 12

			5,	S year old		15	15 year old			25 year old	몽			40 year old	용		
		Ž	Natura	Pleated	je Po	Natural		Planted	Z	Natural	Pleated	72	Natural	Ē	Planted	I	
	YEAR	BOSA	199	Posa Posa	POSB	B15A	PISA PISB	P15B	B25A B25B		P25A P25B		B40 B40		746	P40A P40B	BUM
Papilionidae Papilionnae																	
Papillo glancus Lianacus	1993	••	••	••	••	~ •	••		• -	- ~	••	••			••	m •	• •
Pieridae Pierinae																	
Pioris napi (Linnsons)	1993	••	• •	••	••	• ~	••	7 =	•	~~	••		- 6	~-		•-	==
Pieris rapas (Linnseus)	1993		9 11	••	• 49	~	•	n 0	••	• •	••		= 1	• •	• =	• •	3 52
Anthocharinae																	
Buchloe ausonides (Lucas)	1993				m •	• =	46	15	= 6	4 ~		6-	• ~	• ~	••		8 2
Coliadinae																	
Colias philodice Godart	1993	••	••	••	••	• •	••	•=	•	• •	••	••	••	••	••	••	• •
Collas encytheme Bolsduval	£ 56	• •	• =	• =	••	• •	o =	• •	• •	• •	••		• •	••	••	••	• ₪
Collas interior Scudder	1993	-=	~ 50	• =	4 %	58 68	13	N 10	23	22	••	7 2		13	••	~ •	111

Appendix II. (Continued)

B40A B40B P40A P40B SUM Planted 40 year old YEAR BOSA BOSB POSA POSB BISA PISA PISB B25A B25B P25A P25B Planted 25 year old Natural Natural Planted Manted 5 year old Natura 1993 1993 1993 1993 Callophrys augustus (W. Kirby) Cellophrys hearici (Grote & Robinson) Feniseca tarquinius (Fabricius) Harkenclenus titus (Fabrickus) Callophrys polios (Cook & Watson) Sayrium Uparops (W.H. Edwards) Callophrys niphon (Hübber) Lycaenidae Liphyrinae Eumaeinae

Appendix II. (Continued)

Appendix II. (Continued)

			5 1	ear old		15	year old	đ		25 year	r old			40 ye	ur old		
		Na	tural	Pla	nted	Natura	u Pi	nnted	N	itural	Plan	ited	Nat	urai	Plan	ited	
	YEAR	B05A	B05B	PO5A	P65B	B15A	P15A	P15B	B25A	B25B	P25A	P25B	B40A	B44B	P40A	P403	SUM
Polyommatinae E <i>veres amyntula</i> Bolsduval)	1993 1994	•	•	•	•	•	•	0	2 3	3 3	•	•	•	•	•	1 •	6
Celastrina argiolus Linnacus)	1993 1994	•	•	•	•	6 5	•	1 0	2	4 6	3	4 5	6 2	2 1	2 5	3 2	21 29
ilaucopsyche lygdamus Doubleday)	1993 1994	1 2	1	•	• 1	3 1	• 2	3	4 2	6 5	2 •	1 1	5 1	1 3	1 4	\$ 1	36 26
Yymphalidae Yymphalinae																	
Polygonia interrogationis Fabrichus)	1993 1994	•	•	•	•	•	•	, 0	0	• 1	•	•	¢	•	•	•	• 1
'elygenia comma Harris)	1993 1994	•	•	•	•	•	•	0	0	1	•	•	•	•	•	•	1
^v olygonia satyrus W.H. Edwards)	1993 1994	•	•	•	•	•	•	0	0	1	•	•	•	•	•	•	1
<i>Polygonia faunus</i> W.H. Edwards)	1993 1994	•	•	•	•	•	•	0	0	1 3	•	•	2 1	1	1	1	6 5
Polygonia gracilis Grote & Robinson)	1993 1994	•	•	•	•	•	•	0	0	1	•	•	•	•	•	•	1 2
Polygonia progne Cramer)	1993 1994	•	•	•	•	2 •	• 1	0 1	0	6	•	•	•	•	1	2 2	6 11
Vymphalis van-album Dennis & Schiffermüller)	1993 1994	0	0	•	•	•	6	0	0	1	•	0	1	0	•	•	2

YEAR BOSA BOSB POSA POSB B15A P15A P15B B25A B25B P25A P25B B40A B40B P40A P40B SUM Natural Planted Natural Planted 25 year old Planted Natural Planted 15 year old S year old Natural 5 5 1993 22 1593 1993 1993 1994 1993 1994 1593 1994 1993 1993 Vanessa ringiniensis (Drury) Nymphalis milberti (Godart) Nymphalis antiopa (Linnacus) Euptoiete claudia (Cramer) Speyeria aphrodite (Fabricius) Vanessa atalanta (Linnacus) Speyeria callippe (Bolsduval) Speyeria atlantis (W.H. Edwards) Vanesse cardui (Linnaeus) Speyeria electa (W.H. Edwards) Speyeria cybele (Fabrickus) Argynninae

Appendix II. (Continued)

Appendix II. (Continued)

		•	5)	ear old		1.5	year old	d		25 yea	r old			40 ye	r old		
		Na	itural	Pla	nted	Natura	u Pi	nnted	Na	tural	Plan	ted	Nat	m Laj	Plan	ted	
	YEAR	B05A	Be5B	P65A	P05B	B15A	P15A	P15B	B25A	B25B	P25A	P25B	B40A	B44B	P40A	P40B	SUM
Boloria selene	1993 1994	•	•	•	•	•	1	0	•	•	0	•	•	•	•	•	1
Dennis & Schiffermüller)	1774	•	•	•	•	•	1	v	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	1
Beleria bellena Fabricius)	1993 1994	5 3	4 2	4	3 16	8 17	4	3 12	4 15	2 15	1 2	8 11	4	4	3 6	3 5	56 119
Melitaeinae																	
Phyciodes thares Drury)	1993 1994	•	•	•	•	1	2 1	3 1	•	1	•	2 •	•	•	•	•	8
'hyclodes batesil Reakirt)	1993 1994	•	•	•	•	10 1	1	2 1	2 1	1 2	1	•	2 1	•	•	•	19 6
'hyciodes morpheus Fabricius)	1993 1994	• 1	•	•	•	•	• 1	1 2	1	2 1	•	6 3	•	•	•	•	4
imenitidinae																	
.imenitis arthemis Drury)	1993 1994	•	• 1	•	• 1	0 2	1 3	5 156	3	10 82	3	13 23	7 16	2	2 2	6 3	46 293
Limenitis archippus Cramer)	1993 1994	1 ●	•	•	•	0	0	0	•	1	•	•	•	•	•	•	2 1
Satyridae Elymniinae																	
Bnodia anthedon A.H. Clark)	1993 1994	•	0	1 0	0	0	0	6 3	3 7	11 37	73 258	157 53	10 81	2 35	44 71	9	30£ 549
d <i>egisto cymela</i> Cramer)	1993 1994	•	0	0	0	0	•	0	•	0	0	1	•	•	•	•	1

Appendix II. (Continued)

			5 y	S year old		15	15 year old			25 year old	plo			40 year old	old		
		Ž	Natural	Planted	jed D	Natura		Planted	Z	Natural	Planted	72	Natural	2	Planted	2	
	YEAR	YEAR BOSA	8058	P65A P05B	POSB	BISA	BISA PISA PISB		B25A	B25A B25B	P25A P25B		P40	B40A B40B P40A P40B	7		MOS
Coenonymphs tullis (Muller)	1993	••	• •	••		•	•	0 0	••		••	••	••	••	••		
Cercyonis pegala (Fabricius)	1993	4	- •	12	. 2	60	10 71	36 14	N T	7 =	••	m u	••		~~	• -	3 5
Oeneis maceunii (W.H. Edwards)	1993	• •	••	••	••	9 7	• Z	9 71	. =	3 0	••	• 40	• •	- =	• -	-=	113
Danaidae Danainae																	
Daneus plenippus (Linascus)	1993	• •	••	••	••	••	• =	7 -	••	• •	••	- 4	••	••	••	••	6 6
Number of Species	1993	22	 =	s ==	• •	29 13	3 62	7. 1.	2 2	8 4	6 6	22	15	15	2 2	15	\$
E Number of Individuals	1993	22	22	16	37	64 153	104	78 359	57	133 3 68	92	234	45	÷ ž	78	3 2	9 06 2151

Total Number of Species Collected, Both Years: 58

Appendix III. Summary of butterfly and skipper collection dates for all sites using both collection techniques, balt trapping and transect sampling (1993 & 1994).

MONTH		AP	RIL			M	AY			JU	NE				JUI	LY		AU	GUST	r		SE	PTEM	IDER
WEEK'	YEAR	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	SUM
Hesperiidae Pyrginae			<u> </u>																					
F <i>horybes pylades</i> Scudder	1993 1994	•	•	0	•	0	•	0	1 5	3	1 2	0	0	•	•	0	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	5 14
Erynnis icelus (Scudder and Burgess)	1993 1994	•	•	•	•	0	3 1	0 2	2 •	1	0	0	0	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	6
Brynnis brize (Boisduval and Leconte)	1993 1994	•	•	•	•	•	•	0	0	0	0	0	0	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	9 3
Brynnis juvenalis (Pabricius)	1993 1994	•	•	•	•	•	•	0	0 1	0	0	0	•	•	0	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•
Errynis martialis (Scudder)	1993 1994	•	•	•	•	1	1	6 3	1 4	1	1	•	•	•	•	•	•	1	•	•	•	•	•	5
Heteropterinae																								
Carterocephalus palaemon (Pailas)	1993 1994	•	•	•	•	•	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	•	0	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	2 4
Hesperia comma (Scudder)	1993 1994	•	•	•	•	•	•	0	•	0	•	0	1	•	•	•	•	•	•	1	•	•	•	2 •
Poanes kobomok (Harris)	1993 1994	•	•	•	•	0	0	0	6	13 9	8 3	2	1 2	0	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	30 22
Euphyes ruricola (Bolduval)	1993 1994	•	•	•	•	•	•	0	0	0	0	•	0	0	0	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	• 2

 $^{^{-1}}$ first sampling date of 1993 = 20.IV.93; first sampling date of 1994 = 19.IV.94

Appendix III. (Continued)

Colles interior Scudder	Collas enziñeme Bolsduvai	Colladinae Collas philodice Godart	Buchles ausenides (Lucae)	Anthocharinae	Pleris rapae (Linnaeus)	Pieris nepi (Linnaeus)	Pieridae Pierinae	Papilio glaucus Linnaeus	Papilionidae Papilionnae	Amblysciries viells (W.H. Edwards)	WEEK	MONTH
1993	1993	1993	1993		1993 1994	1993		1993		1993 1994	YEAR	
••	• •	••	••		••	••		••			_	≥
00	• •	• •	••		••	••		••			N	APRIL
• •	• •	••	••		• •			••			w	
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90	• •	••	-		••			••			5	МАК
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•	• •	• •	° =		• •	••				= 2	-	
• •	- 0	••	- 4		••	••		- 6		20 20	•	JUNE
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w •	• •	••	•		• •	••		• •		00	=	
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52	••	••	••			ω •		••			13	
5 •	••	••	••		••	6		••			=	JULY
22	••	••	••		••	- 22		••			15	¥
5 5	••	N •	••		••			••			5	
• 2	••	••	••		••	• •		••			17	2
# 2	••	••	••		2 •	••		••			17 18 19 20	AUGUST
• •	••	••	••		4 •	••		••			5	
••		••	••		• w	••		••		0 0 0 6	2	
••	• •		••		• =	••		••			21	SE
••	••	••	••		••	••		••		••	22	SEFTEMBER
111		••	5 33		75	¥=		••		5	21 22 SUM	JER

1993 1993 1993 1993 MONTH Callophrys heartel (Grote & Robinson) Celastrine ergiolus (Linnacus) Callophrys engustus (W. Kirby) Polyommatinae Feniseca tangulalus (Fabricius) Callophrys polios (Cook & Watson) WEEK Harkonclonus litus (Fabrictus) Satyrium Uparops (W.H. Edwards) Callophrys niphon (Hübber) Lycaenidae Liphyrinae Eumaeinae

Appendix III. (Continued)

MONTH		AP	APRIL			MAY	~			JONE	€ 1			وت	JOLY		₹	AUGUST	7		3		SEPTEMBER	
WEEK	YEAR	-	~	6	•	40	•	_	•	•	2	=======================================	12 1	13 1	14 15		16 17	17 18	=	2	21	22	SUM	3
Glaucepsyche lygdamus (Doubleday)	1993	••	••	••	so -	~ •	- •	22	22 %	++	70					-	-	-		••			28	
Nymphalidae Nymphalinae																								
Polygonia interrogationis (Fabricius)	1993	••	••	••	••	• •	• •	• •	• •	• •	••				••	• •	• •	••	••	• -	••	••	• =	
Polygonia comma (Harrb)	56 56 56 57	••	••	••	••	• •	• •	••	••	00	••	00	••	-	••	••	• •	••	• ~	••		••		
Polygonia satyrus (W.H. Edwards)	1993	••	••	••	••	••	••	••	• •	• •	••		••	-	••	• =		••	••	••	••	••		
Polyzonie fannus (W.H. Edwards)	86 84 84	••	••	••	-•	••	• •	• •	••	••	••		••	••	• =	• •	~ •	e =	••		••	••		
Polygonie gracilis (Grote & Robinson)	1983 1983	••	••	••	••	••	• •	••	••	-	••		••		••	••	••	••	• ¬	• ~	••	••	- 4	
Polygonia progna (Cramer)	2661		••	••	••	• •	••	. ~	• •	• •	••				••	• "	••	- 7	• -		e =	••	•=	
Nymphelis ven-elbum (Denais & Schiffermiller)	1993	••	••	••	••	• •	••	• •	• •		••			••	• •	~ •	••	~ •	••	••	••	••	~	
Nymphalis andopa (Linnseus)	26.	••	••	••	••	• •		• •	• •	•	••		96	- 7	8 =	6.4	~ 7	≖ €	••		• -	••	= 2	
Nymphalis milberti (Godart)	2661	••	• •	••	• •	• •	• •	••	••	• •	••		40	• •		• "	•	• •	-	••	••	••	13	
Vanessa virginlensis (Drury)	1993	••	• •	••	•	• •	o 4	• m	••	• •	••				•	• =	• •	••	••	••	••	••	• •	

Appendix III. (Continued)

																					-			
MONTH		AP	RIL			MA	Y			JUN	NE				JUI	LY		AU	GUS1	ľ		SE	PTEM	BER
WEEK	YEAR	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	SUM
Vanessa cardui (Linnaeus)	1993 1994	0	•	•	0	1	0	•	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	•	0	•	•	•	•	•	1
Vanessa atalanta Linnacus)	1993 1994	•	•	•	•	•	0	•	•	0	0 2	0	•	•	•	0 12	0 3	•	5	•	•	•	•	• 27
Argynninae																								
Euptoieta claudia Cramer)	1993 1994	•	•	•	0	0	•	•	•	0	0	0	•	•	0	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	1
S <i>peyeria cybele</i> Fabricius)	1993 1994	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	0	0	0	• 3	6 5	1 14	•	3 5	4 25	• 7	1 10	•	•	•	•	9 79
S <i>peyeria aphrodite</i> Fabricius)	1993 1994	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	0 2	1 2	0	2 15	2 22	2 11	10 13	7 41	16 15	7 18	6 5	1 2	• 1	•	54 147
S <i>peyeria callippe</i> Bolsduval)	1993 1994	•	•	•	0	0	•	•	0	•	•	0	0	1 3	•	• 3	0	•	•	•	•	•	•	17
S <i>peyeria atlantis</i> W.H. Edwards)	1993 1994	•	•	•	0	0	•	0	•	0	1	0	2	11 4	2 5	2 7	2 5	2 16	11	1	1	•	•	24 52
Speyeria electa (W.H. Edwards)	1993 1994	•	•	•	0	•	0	0	0	•	•	0	•	•	•	1	0	1	•	•	•	•	•	2
Boloria selene (Dennis & Schiffermüller)	1993 1994	•	•	•	0	0	0	0	•	0	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	1	1	•	•	•	•	1
Beleria bellona (Fabricius)	1993 1994	•	•	0	0	0	0 15	1 16	8 18	11	8 5	0	•	•	6	1	6 18	7 5	9 10	5	•	•	•	56 119
Melitaeinae																								
Phyciodes thares (Drury)	1993 1994	•	0	•	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1 3	2	3	1	0	1	•	•	•	•	•	8

9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 SUM AUGUST 22 23 22 23 22 23 1993 1994 1593 1594 555 1993 Phyciodes morpheus (Fabrickes) MONTH Limenisis archippus (Cramer) Limentiis arthemis (Drury) WEEK Phyciodes batesti (Reakirt) Enodia antholon (A.H. Clark) Oeneis macounii (W.H. Edwards) Limenitidinae Megiste cymela (Cramer) Satyridae Elymniinae

Appendix III. (Continued)

SEPTEMBER

Appendix IV. Summary of butterfly and skipper collection data for all sites using only balt traps (1993 & 1994).

			S	5 year old		115	15 year old			25 year old	Plo			40 year old	rold		
		Ž	Natural	Planted	Ē	Natural		Planted	Ž	Natural	Planted	72	Netural	Ę	Planted	3	
	YEAR	BOSA	B05B	Pesa Pesa	Pesb	BISA	BISA PISA PISB	P15B	B25A	B25A B25B P25A P25B	P25A	P25B	M48	B40A B40B P40A P40B	P40A	*	BUM
Hesperiidae Heteropterinae																	
Poanes hobomok (Harris)	1993	• •	••	••	••	••	••	• •	• •	• •	••	••	••	••	••	••	••
Lycaenidae Eumaeinae																	
Harkenclenus titus (Fabrickus)	1993	• •	••	••	•	••	• •	0 W	• •	• •	••	••	••	••	••	••	• ••
Nymphalidae Nymphalinae											-						
Polygonia comma (Harris)	1993	••	••	••	••	••	• •	• •	••	~ =	••	••	••	••	••	••	
Polygonia satyrus (W.H. Edwards)	2 2	••	••	••	••	• •	••	• •	• •		• •	••	••	••	••	••	
Polygonia faunus (W.H. Edwards)	2 2	••	••	••	• •	••	••	••	••	77	••	••	~	••	~•		10 M
Polygonie gracilis (Grote & Robinson)	2 2	••	••	• •	••	••	••	•-	••		••	••	••	••	••	••	- 4
Polygonia progne (Cramer)	1933 1943	••	••	0 •	••	40	• •	••	• •	-6	••	••	••	••	••	n •	w 69
Nymphelis andope (Linnacus)	1993	• •	••	~ 0	••	••	••	••	• •	3	••	n •	••	••	••	••	•=

Appendix IV. (Continued)

			5)	ear old		15	year ol	4		25 year	r old			40 ye	er old		
		Na	itural	Ptar	nted	Natura	u Pi	nated	Na	tural	Plan	ted	Nat	ural	Plan	ted	
	YEAR	B05A	B05B	P05A	P05B	B15A	P15A	P15B	B25A	B25B	P25A	P25B	B40A	B40B	P40A	P40B	SUM
lymphalis milberti	1993	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	0	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•
Godart)	1994	•	•	0	0	•	•	1	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	1
Vanessa cardui	1993	•	•	•	0	•	•	0	•	1	•	•	•	•	•	•	1
Linnaeus)	1994	•	•	•	0	0	•	0	0	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•
Vanessa atalanta	1993	•	•	•	•	0	•	0	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•
Linnaeus)	1994	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	12	•	•	•	•	•	•	21
Argynninae																	
Speyeria cybele	1993	•	•	•	•	•	0	• .	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•
Fabricius)	1994	•	•	•	0	•	•	18	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	18
Speyeria aphrodite	1993	•	•	•	•	•	1	0	•	2	•	1	•	•	•	•	4
(Fabricius)	1994	•	0	•	0	1	0	32	•	1	•	•	1	•	•	•	35
Speyeria atlantis	1993	•	•	•	0	•	•	0	0	•	•	1	•	•	•	•	1
(W.H. Edwards)	1994	•	•	•	•	•	•	5	0	•	•	6	•	•	•	•	11
Beleria bellena	1993	•	•	•	•	0	•	0	0	•	•	4	•	•	•	•	4
(Fabricius)	1994	•	•	•	•	•	•	3	0	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	3
Limenitidinae																	
Limenitis arthemis	1993	•	•	•	•	•	•	2	•	9	7	12	5	•	•	•	35
(Drury)	1994	•	•	•	0	0	•	156	0	70	•	10	4	1	•	•	241
Satyridae Elymniinae																	
Enodia anthedon	1993	•	•	•	0	٥	•	0	•	9	66	138	,	•	11	6	239
(A.H. Clark)	1994	i	ě	ě	ŏ	Ŏ	Ŏ	3	4	37	107	36	30	26	38	2	283

Appendix IV. (Continued)

			5 y	ear old		15	year ol	d		25 year	r old			40 ye	er old		
		Na	tur ei	Plan	nted	Natura	u Pi	anted	N	itur al	Plan	ted	Nat	urai	Plan	ted	
	YEAR	B05A	Be5B	P05A	P05B	B15A	P15A	P15B	B25A	B25B	P25A	P25B	B40A	B40B	P40A	P40B	SUM
legisto cymela	1993	•	•	•	•	0	0	0	6	0	•	1	•	•	•	•	1
Cramer)	1994	•	•	•	0	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	1	•	1
ercyonis pegala	1993	•	•	6	•	•	•	0	0	1	•	2	•	•	•	•	•
Pabricius)	1994	•	•	•	•	•	•	0 10	0	2	•	•	•	•	•	•	10
eneis macounii	1993	•	•	•	•	•	0	6 1	•	6 1	•	•	•	•	•	•	•
W.H. Edwards)	1994	•	•	•	•	•	•	1	•	1	•	•	•	•	•	•	2
Number of Species	1993	•	•	,		1	1	2		11	2	•	3	•	2	3	15
" tremes of pheries	1994	i	•	ē	•	1	1	2 13	1	11 11	2 1	3	4	1	2	i	15 17
Number of Individuals	1993	•	•	7	•	2	1	1	•	30	73	170	16	•	12	•	321
-	1994		•			1	•	250	4	142	107	52	36	27	39	2	660

Appendix V. Summary of moth collection data for all sites using light traps (1993 & 1994).

			57	5 year old		15	15 year old			25 year old	몽			40 year old	r old		
		Z.	Netural	Planted	ried	Natural		Planted	Z	Natural	Planted	2	Natural	Ę	Planted	ped	
	YEAR	YEAR BOSA	BeSB	POSA	PosB	B15A	PISA PISB	P15B	B25A B25B		P25A	P25B	M46A	B46A B40B	P40A	4	SUM
Oecophoridae Ethmiinae																	
Ethmie monticola (Walsingbam)	1993	• •	••	••	••	44	••	==	13	-6	••	v o •		w 4	en •	~	22
Ethnie longimecullela (Watsingham)	1993	• •	• •	••	• •	• =	• •	• •	• •		••	••	••	••	••	••	- 4
Antocotriche leucillane Zeller	1993	••	••	••	••	• •	••	• •	• •	• •	••	••	••	••	••	-•	
Tortricidae Tortricinae																	
Archips censsiverans (Filch)	1993	• •	• ~	• •	• •	• •	• •	••	• =	• •	••	• •	••	••	••	••	• 11
Sparganethis sulfareana (Clemens)	1993	••	• 40	. 22	9 71	- 2	. 53	 €	17	•=	• •	~•	••	• 5		• •	+=
Pyralidae Pyraustinae																	
Ostrinia nubilalis (Hübner)	1993	-0	.	=-	=.		e =	20	9 71	• ~	••	••	• •	3 -	σ.	••	% ~
Perispusa caeculalis Zeller	1993	• •	••	• •	• •	0-	••	• -	o =	••	••	• •	••	••	• ~	••	• •
Pyrausta subsegnalis (Guenée)	1993	• •	• •	•	• •	• •	••	••	o ~	••	••	••	-•	••	••	~•	~ =

YEAR BOSA BOSB POSA POSB BISA PISA PISB B25A B25B P25A P25B B40A B40B P40A P40B SUM 22 Planted 40 year old Natural Natural Planted Natural Planted 15 year old Planted Natural 1993 1993 1974 55 1993 1994 15 53 15 54 15 54 1993 1993 1994 1993 Diestictis ventralis (Grote & Robinson) Crambus pascuellus (Linnaeus) Habrosyne scripte (Gosse) Desmia funoralis (Hübner) Euthyatire padens (Guenée) Pyrauste scurralis (Hulst) Pyrausia socialis (Grote) Herculia elinalis (Guenée) Thyatiridae Thyatirinae Crambinae Pyralinae

Appendix V. (Continued).

YEAR BOSA BOSB POSA POSB BISA PISA PISB B25A B25B P25A P25B B40A B40B P40A P40B SUM 40 year old Planted 25 year old Natural Natural Planted 15 year old Planted 5 year old Natural 1993 1993 1993 1993 1993 3 5 1993 1994 1993 1994 Enmacaria latiforragaia (Walker) Hesperamia sulphuraria Packard Semiothise semulateria (Walker) Semiothiss bicolorais (Pabrickus) Dropane bilineale (Packard) Itams occiduaria (Packard) liame branneals (Thunberg) Dropene arcuela Walker Drepanidae Drepaniinae Geometridae Itams eneteria (Swett) Ennominae

Appendix V. (Continued).

1993 1994

Lomographa glomanaria (Grote) 1993

Cabera erythemaria Guende

Cabere variolare Guenée

YEAR BOSA BOSB POSA POSB BISA PISA PISB B25A B25B P25A P25B B46A B40B P40A P40B SUM Planted Natural Planted Natural Natural Planted Planted Netwre 1993 1994 15 to 1993 1994 1993 1594 1594 1995 1993 1994 555 1593 1594 Ectropis crepuscularia (Dennia & Schiffermüller) Anacampiodes ephyraria (Walker) Protoboarmia porcelaria (Guende) Lomographa semiclarata (Walker) Melanolophia signataria (Walker) Lonographa restallata (Guente) Bufidonia notataria (Walker) Iridopsis larvaria (Guenée) Bisson betwherin (Linnaeus)

Appendix V. (Continued).

40 year old

25 year old

15 year old

5 year old

BUM B40A B40B P40A P40B 40 year old Natural POSA POSB BISA PISA PISB B25A B25B P25A P25B Planted 25 year old Natura Natural Planted 15 year old Planted S year old YEAR BOSA BOSB Natural 1993 5 5 2 55 1993 1994 2 2 2 1993 1993 1993 1994 Apodrepanularite liberaria (Walker) Enchlasna irraria (Barnes & McDunnough) Buchleens johnsonarie (Flich) Metanema determinata Walker Buchlasne obtusarie (Hubber) Sciente kenteria (Grote & Robinson) Petrophora divisata Erestrie cruentaria Hübber Xenthetype sespeta (Drury) Campasa perlata (Guende) Pero honestaria

Appendix V. (Continued).

YEAR BOSA BOSB POSA POSB BISA PISA PISB B25A B25B P25A P25B B40A B40B P40A P40B SUM Natural Natural Natural Planted Planted Natural 1993 1993 1993 55 75 1993 1993 1993 2 2 3 1993 1993 Metarranthis hypocharia (Herrich-Schäffer) Caripsia angustionala Walker Lambdina fiscellaria (Guenée) Metarranthis duaria (Guenée) Anagoga occiduaria (Walker) Plagodis alcoolaria (Guende) Probote amicaria (Herrich-Schäffer) Caripon divistata Walker Nepytia canosaria (Walker) Probole altenare (Walker) Caripeta piniata (Packard)

Appendix V. (Continued).

YEAR BOSA BOSB POSA POSB BISA PISA PISB B25A B25B P25A P25B B40A B40B P40A P40B SUM Planted 40 year old Natura Natural Planted 25 year old Natural Planted 15 year old Planted Natura 1953 1993 1994 1993 1993 1993 1991 1993 1994 1993 1994 1933 1993 Prochosrodes transversula (Druty) Cyclophors pendulinaria (Guenbe) Nemorie rubrifronarie (Peckard) Nematecampa limbata (Haworth) Butrapele clemataris (J.E. Smith) Scopula limboundata (Haworth) Eusares confusarie Hübber Terracis cacheziata Guende Scopula inductata (Guenée) Skya macularia (Harris) Geometrinae Sterrhinae

Appendix V. (Continued).

YEAR BOSA BOSB POSA POSB BISA PISA PISB B25A B25B P25A P25B B40A B40B P40A P40B SUM 40 year old 25 year old Natura Natural Planted 15 year old Planted 5 year old 1993 1993 5 5 5 7 1993 1993 1994 19 53 19 54 19 54 1993 1994 1994 13 E 1993 Hydriomena transfigurata Swett Rhoumaptera subhastata (Linnsaus) Bulithis diversilineats (Hübner) Kantherhoe ferrugata (Clerck) Mesolence ruficillata (Guente) Xanthorhos algidasa (Möschler) Dystrome hersiliata (Guenée) Hydria pruniverala (Ferguson) Coryphisto moadii (Packard) Eulihis explanate (Walker) Anticles vesiliets Guenée Larentiinae

Appendix V. (Continued).

YEAR BOSA BOSB POSA POSB BISA PISA PISB B25A B25B P25A P25B B40A B40B P40A P40B SUM Planted 40 year old Netera Planted 25 year old Natural Natural Planted 15 year old Planted 5 year old 1993 1993 1993 2 2 15 ES 5661 1933 1993 Orthonama centrostrigaria (Wollaston) Supithecia prendetrugata Lobophora nivigerate Walker Epirrhoe alternata (Muller) Certionia undulosa (Walker) Horisme intestinate (Gwenbe) Eubaphe mendica (Walker) Sphinx cenadensis Boloduval Claders limitaria (Walker) Euplibecie spp. Curtis Sphingidae Sphinginae

Appendix V. (Continued).

YEAR BOSA BOSB POSA POSB BISA PISA PISB B2SA B2SB P2SA P2SB B40A B40B P40A P40B SUM 40 year old Natura Natural Planted 25 year old E . Natural Planted Planted S year old Natural 252 1993 1994 1993 1593 5 2 2 55 1993 1994 2 2 1993 1993 1994 Lapara bombycoides Walker Pachysphinz modesia (Harrib) Amphion floridensis B.P. Clark Clesters albosigmes Fitch Macroglossinae Odoniosia elegens (Strecker) Smerinthus cerityi Kirby Notodontidae Darapsa pholus (Cramer) Nadate gibbose (J.E. Smith) Paonies myops (J.E. Smith) Pheosia rimosa Packard

Appendix V. (Continued).

Appendix V. (Continued).

	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,		5 3	ear old		15	year old	1		25 year	r old			40 yes	r old		•
		Na	itural	Pta	nted	Natura	ı Pi	anted	Na	itural	Plan	ted	Nati	ntej	Pian	ted	
	YEAR	B05A	B05B	P05A	P05B	B15A	P15A	P15B	B25A	B25B	P25A	P25B	B40A	B40B	P49A	P40B	SUM
<i>Gluphisia avimacula</i> Hudson	1993 1994	0	•	1	0	•	0	0	1 2	0	0	6	0	•	0	1 3	3 6
Arctiidae Lithosiinae																	
ile ma b iceler Grote)	1993 1994	0	•	0	0	1 2	4 3	1 0	2 16	3 23	• 1	1 7	5 19	21 21	13 14	10 23	61 129
lypoprepia fucosa lübner	1993 1994	0	•	0	0	•	0	0	0	1 3	•	•	1	2 1	1	1	6
Clemensia albata Packard	1993 1994	0	•	0	0	•	•	0	5 4	0 30	6 3	•	9 3	•	19 7	3 19	44 75
Arctiinae																	
H <i>olomelina lasta</i> Gùerin-Méneville)	1993 1994	•	•	•	0	2	0	0	•	0 3	•	•	•	2 4	2 3	3	9 13
<i>Telemeline eurentieca</i> Hübner)	1993 1994	0	1	• 1	1	13 9	3	3	5 33	2	•	11 5	2 ●	18 21	19 17	7 13	85 1 0 6
Tolomelina ferruginosa Walker)	1993 1994	0	2 ●	• 7	0 1	•	•	0 7	4	6 7	• 2	1 7	•	•	6 7	• 14	13 52
Spilosoma congrua Walker	1993 1994	•	•	0	0	2 0	0	1	2 1	•	0	•	•	4	•	1	10 2
S <i>pilosoma virginica</i> Pabricius)	1993 1994	0	•	•	0	•	0	0	0	•	0	•	3 2	•	•	.	11 2
P <i>hragmatobia assimilans</i> Walker	1993 1994	0	•	0	0	0	0	0	0 2	•	•	0	3	1	•	1	5 4

YEAR BOSA BOSB POSA POSB BISA PISA PISB B25A B25B P25A P25B B40A B40B P40A P40B SUM Plented 40 year old Natura Planted 25 year old Natural Natural Planted 15 year old Planted 5 year old Natural 1993 1993 1993 1993 1994 5 5 5 2 2 1993 1994 Dasychira dorsipennata (Barnes & McDunnough) Grammia parthenice (Kirby) Renia flavipunctalis (Geyer) Platentia parthenos (Harris) Cycula oregonemis (Stretch) Cienuche virginica (Esper) Lymantriidae Noctuidae Hermininae Grammle virgo (Linnacus) Idia americalis (Guenée) Ctenuchinae Cycule tenens (Habaer) Orgyinne

Appendix V. (Continued).

YEAR BOSA BOSB POSA POSB BISA PISA PISB BZSA BZSB PZSA PZSB B40A B40B P40A P40B SUM 40 year old Natural Planted Natural Planted Natural Planted 15 year old S year old Natural 1993 1994 1993 1994 1993 1994 1993 13 S 5 5 5 1993 5 5 5 Bomoloche abelienelis (Walker) Synedoide grandirena (Haworth) Synedoida adumbrata (Grote) Palthis angulalis (Hubner) Zale aeruginose (Guende) Catocalinae Hypeninae Zale lunete (Drury)

Appendix V. (Continued).

YEAR BOSA BOSB POSA POSB BISA PISA PISB B25A B25B P25A P25B B40A B40B P40A P40B SUM Planted 40 year old Natural Planted 25 year old Natura Natural Planted 15 year old Planted S year old Natura 1993 1993 1993 1994 55 1993 1993 1994 1593 1594 Caenurgina crassiuscula (Haworth) Catocala concumbens Walker Argrestratis enilis (Drucy) Catecala manitoba Beutenmüller Catecale ultrenia (Hübber) Enclidia cuspides (Hübber) Catecale blandula Allagraphe acres (Hubber) Catocala unijuge Walker Catocala briseis Edwards Catecale relicie

Appendix V. (Continued).

			5,	S year old		15	15 year old			25 year old	plo			40 year old	용			
		Ž	Natural	Planted	ited	Natural		Planted	Ž	Natural	Planted	72	Natural	Ē	Planted	3		
	YEAR	BOSA	Besb	PSA	Pesb	B15A	PISA PISB	P15B	B25A B25B	B25B	P25A P25B	P25B	B40A B40B	848	7 46 4	P46A P46B	WOS	
Seudera purpurizea Walker)	1993	• •	• •	••	••	••	• •	• •	0-	••	••	44		•	••	••	**	
Thrysanympha formosa Grote)	1993	••	••	••	••	••	••	00	• •	••		- •	• 11			- 4	**	
Lutographa bimaculata Stephens)	1993	• •	••	••	••	••	••	• •	••	• •	••		••	• =	••	••		
Lutegraphe mappe Grote & Robinson)	1993	• •	••	••	• -	••	••	• =	••		~•	••		••	••	• "	m =	
Inagrapha falcifera Kirby)	1993	••	• =	••	••	••	••	••	••	••	••	••	••	••	••	••	•	
Syngrapha altera Ottolengul)	266	••	••	••	••	••	••	• •	••	• •	••	••	••	••		• ~		
Syngrapha opiguos (Grote)	1993	••	••	••	~•	••	••	• •	• =	••	••	€ =		••	••	••	s =	
Syngrapha viridisigma (Grote)	1993	• -	••	••	••	• ~	••	• ~	•=	9 11	••	~	••	••		••	m •	
Plusia aeroides Grote	1993	• •	••	••	••	••		• =	••	• •	••		••	••	• -	••	ed 60	
Sarrothripinae																		
Nycteole frigidans Walker	1993	4 60	. :	15	• 2	2 2	.=	**	22	75 51	~ 4	- 22	E 6	4 8	7.2	15	246 195	

Appendix V. (Continued).

YEAR BOSA BOSB POSA POSB BISA PISA PISB B25A B25B P25A P25B B40A B40B P40A P40B SUM 46 year old Natural Planted 25 year old Natural Planted Natural Planted 15 year old 5 year old 1993 1994 1983 5953 1994 1993 1994 263 1993 Panthos acronycioides (Walker) Acronicis americans Harris Lithacodia carneola (Guente) Acronicis quadraia (Grote) Acrenicia superans Guenée Acresicis innotats Guende Acresicts tritons (Hübber) Acronicia furcifere Guenée Acronicia grisea Walker Acronictinae Acremicia hasta Guenée Acontiinae Pantheinae

Appendix V. (Continued).

YEAR BOSA BESB POSA POSB BISA PISA PISB BISA BISB PISA PISB B40A B40B P40A P40B SUM Planted 40 year old Natural Planted 25 year old Natural Natural Planted 15 year old Planted 5 year old Natural 1993 1993 1993 1994 1993 1993 1994 55 1993 565 1993 1994 1993 1994 Amphipoca interocosnica (Smith) Agriopedes teratophora (Herrich-Schäffer) Bromobina claudens (Walker) Amphyipyrinae Apentos emputetrix (Fitch) Agreparine cogitate (Smith) Acronicie fragilis (Guenée) Acrenicia retardata (Walker) Apames commods (Walker) Apamos nigrior (Smith) Oligia mactata (Guente) Oligia illecata (Walker)

Appendix V. (Continued).

YEAR BOSA BOSB POSA POSB BISA PISA PISB B25A B25B P25A P25B B40A B40B P40A P40B SUM Manted 40 year old Natura Planted 25 year old Natural Natural Planted 15 year old Planted 5 year old Zatara 1993 1994 555 555 1993 1993 1994 1993 1993 1994 555 Amphipyra pyramidoides Guenée Conscruts anodonia (Guenée) Buplexia benesimilis McDunnough Xylena curvimecula (Morrisob) Dypterygia rezmani Berto Papaipeme pierisii Bird Playsente videns (Guente) Hyppa xylinoides (Guenée) Phlogophora iris Guenée Enargie decolor (Walker) Xylena napera (Lininer) Cucullinge

Appendix V. (Continued).

			ñ	s year old		2	15 year old			25 year old				48 year old	r old			
		Z	Natura	Planted	ğ	Natural		Planted	Z	Natural	Planted	7	Natural	Į	Planted	ı		
	YEAR	YEAR BOSA	B65B	PSA	POSB	BISA	BISA PISA PISB	P15B	B25A B25B		P25A	P25B	B46 A48		P40A	7	RUM	
Xylena cineritia (Grote)	1993	• •	••	- 7	••	0 -	•-	• •	• •	• •	• •			• ~			- •	
Lithomois solideginis (Habner)	1993	••	••		••	••	v 1	• ~	••	••	• •	••	•-	••	••		- 0	
Lithophane unimode (Lintner)	1993	••	••	••	••	••	• •		• •	• •	• =	••	••	••	••	••		
Rucirroedie pempine (Guende)	1993	••	••	••	••	••	• •	==	• =	• **	• •	~-	••	••	••	••	m v	
Platypolia anceps (Stephens)	9 6 3	••	••	••	••	••	••	• •	• •	• •	••	••	••	••	••	••	- 2	
Xyletype acadia Barnes & Benjamin	1993	••	••	••	••	••	••	••	• =	••	= 6	••	••	••	••	••	~ ~	
Brachionyche borealis (Smith)	1993	••	••	••	••	••	• •	• •	• •	• •	••	••	••		••	••	~ •	
Apharetra purpures McDunnough	1993	••	••	• =	w 4	••	~ 0	•=	• =	m •	•	n n	40	••	m -	• =	**	
Homohadena infixa (Walker)	1993	••	••	• •	••	••	• •	• •	• •	•	- v	9 71	••	•	•-	••		
Oncocnemis piffardi (Walket)	1993	••	• •	N •	0 4	••	••	• •	••	• •	••	• •	• •	••	••	••	4 6	
Sympistis funesta (Paykuli)	1993	••	••	••	• •	• •	• •	• •	• •	• •	••	• •	• •	• •	•-	•	• •	

Appendix V. (Continued).

Appendix V. (Continued).

	•		5 ;	year old		15	5 year old	đ		25 yea	r old			40 ye	ur old		
		N	tural	Plat	nted	Natura	d Pi	anted	N	atural	Plan	ited	Nat	urai	Plan	ited	
	YEAR	B05A	B05B	P05A	PesB	B15A	P15A	P15B	B25A	B25B	P25A	P25B	B40A	B44B	P46A	P44B	SUM
Hadeninae							<u> </u>								· · · · · ·		
ideridis maryx	1993	•	•	•	•	0	•	•	0	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•
Guenée)	1994	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	0	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	2
Polia nimbosa	1993	•	•	•	•	•	•	0	•	•	•	1	•	•	•	1	2
Guenée)	1994	•	•	•	•	•	3	3	•	•	2	•	4	•	•	•	12
Polia imbrifera	1993	•	•	4	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	2	2	•	2	•	10
Guenée)	1994	1	2	•	•	0	0	•	•	1	•	•	4	•	•	•	8
olia purpurissata	1993	• .	•	•	•	•	1	5	•	1	2	46	•	•	•	•	55
Grote)	1994	•	1	•	2	1	8	5	•	•	6	6	•	4	•	1	43
Polia adjuncia	1993	1	•	•	•	•	0	0	•	0	•	1	1	•	•	•	3
Boisduvai)	1994	•	•	•	•	•	•	0	•	•	•	•	•	•	1	•	1
Polia grandis	1993	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	1	2	•	•	•	3
Boisduval)	1994	•	•	•	•		1	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	1
Polia lutra	1993	•	•	•	•	0	•	•	•	0	•	1	•	•	•	•	1
Guenée)	1994	•	•	•	•	0	0	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•
Polia segregata	1993	•	•	•	1	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	1
Smith)	1994	•	•	•	•	0	•	0	•	0	•	•	•	•	•	•	•
acinipolia lustralis	1993	•	•	•	1	2	0	3	0	•	•	•	•	•	1	•	7
Grote)	1994	•	•	0	•	0	0	0	6	0	•	4	•	•	•	•	10
acinipolia lorea	1993	0	•	•	•	•	•	0	0	•	•	8	•	•	•	•	•
Guenée)	1994	0	0	•	•	0	0	0	4	•	4	•	1	1	1	3	14
acinipolia olivacea	1993	•	•	•	0	0	0	•	2	0	•	8	0	•	•	•	10
Morrison)	1994	0	•	2	•	0	0	•	•	4	•	Ō	3	•	Ď	•	18

YEAR BOSA BOSB POSA POSB BISA PISA PISB B25A B25B P25A P25B B40A B40B P40A P40B SUM 40 year old Natural Planted 25 year old Natural Natural Planted 15 year old Planted S year old Natural 595 1993 1994 1993 333 1393 1993 555 15 55 15 55 15 55 1993 1993 Leucania commoides Guente Speciotis clandestina (Harris) Amathes collaris (Grote & Robinson) Euxoa mimallonir (Grote) Orthodos crenulaia (Butler) Morrisonia ericta (Grote) Orthesia revicta (Morrison) Fettle jacutifere (Guenée) *Rurols astricta* Morrison Agretis patula Walker Agrotis mollis Walker Noctuinae

Appendix V. (Continued).

YEAR BOSA BOSB POSA POSB BISA PISA PISB B25A B25B P25A P25B B40A B40B P40A P44B SUM Planted 40 year old Natural Planted 25 year old Natural Natural Planted 15 year old Planted 5 year old Natura 15 to 2 2 5 5 2 55.5 15 55 55 5 5 5 1993 1993 Heptagrotts phyllophera (Grote) Aneplectoides presina (Schiffermäller) Anaplecioldes pressus (Grote) Cryptocale acadiensis (Bethune) Engraphe opacifrons (Grote) Eusragratis ettente (Grote) Paradiamia lineralis (Packard) Aplectoides condita (Guente) Abagretis appesita (Grote) Abagrotis etternata (Grote) Abagnetis placida (Grote) Matalepsis fishii (Grote)

Appendix V. (Continued).

Appendix V. (Continued).

			5,	S year old		13	15 year old			25 year old	몽			40 year old	r old		
		Ž	atural	Planted	per	Natural		Planted	Z	Natural	Planted	8	Natural	ir de	Planted	3	
	YEAR	YEAR BOSA	BOSB	Pesa	PeSB	B15A	PISA PISB	PISB	B25A	B25B	P25A	P25B	¥•¥	B46B	740V	746	SUM
Rhynchagrotts anchecalioides 1993 1	1993		••	••	• •	••	••	• •	•	• •		••	••	••	••	••	n •
2 Number of Species	1993	2 5	22	23	25	2.4	**	55	3 %	2 .	31	72 51	22	2.2	22	27	193
S Number of Individuals	565	8 3	32	3 22	24	23 50 50	125	160 279	23 891	212	2 R	36.36	306 515	392	35	373	3383

Appendix VI. Summary of moth collection dates for all sites using light traps (1993 & 1994).

MONTH		APRIL				MAY			_	JUNE				=	JOLY		M	AUGUST	<u></u>		SE	SEPTEMBER	BER	
WEEK	YEAR	-	7		•	2	9	7 8		9 1	10 11	1 12	13	14	15	12	17	==	2	79	71	77	BUM	
Oecophoridae Ethmünae																								
Bihmis monticols (Walsingham)	1993	••	••	••	~•	e =	4 14	~ •		. 2	~ •	••	••	••	••	••	••	••	••	••	••	••	22	
Bihmie longimacullela (Wakingham)	933	••	••	• •	••	• •	• =			9 •	•	••	••	••	••	• •	••	••	••	••	••	••	- 7	
Antaeotriche leucillana Zeller	223	••	••	••	••	••	•	••	•		••	••	••	••	••	••	••	••	••	••	••	••		
Tortricidae Tortricinae																								
Archips consiverana (Fitch)	55 75	••	••	• •	••	••	• •	• •		••	••	••	••	••	••	••	••	• "	••	••	••	••	• ~	
Spargenothis sulfurena (Clemens)	256	••	••	••	••	••	• •	• •	•	-	••	• •	• •	- 22	. S	- 8	- 22	•-	••	••	••	••	→ Ξ	
Pyralidae Pyraustinae																								
Ostrinia mubilalis (Hübner)	1933	••	••	••	••	• •	• •	• •				••	• •	• •	• ~	7 m	33	15	••	••	••	••	% ~	
Perispesia caeculalis Zeller	1993	••	••	••	••	• •	•				9.0	• •	• ~	• •	• •	•	••	••	••	••	••	••	• •	
Pyransta subsequalls (Guen ée)	1993	• •	••	• •	• •	• •	40	0 =	••	00		••	••	••	• •	• •	••	••	•	••	••	••	~ -	

9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 SUM SEPTEMBER AUGUST 1993 1994 19 E 22 1932 MONTH Crembus pescuellas (Linnaeus) Diesticits ventralis (Grote & Robinson) WEEK Pyrausta scurralis (Huist) Desmis funeralis (Hubner) Habresyne scripta (Goste) Pyrausta socialis (Grote) Herculia olinalis (Guenbe) Thyatiridae Thyatirinae Crambinae Pyralinae

Appendix VI. (Continued).

Appendix VI. (Continued).

-																								
MONTH		AP	RIL			M	V			JU	NE				JUL	Y		AU	cust	1		SE	PTEM	DER
WEEK	YEAR	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		•	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	24	21	22	SUM
Drepanidae Drepaniinae		·																						
Drepana arcuata Walker	1993 1994	•	•	0	•	0	0	0	•	0	1	0	0	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	0	•	1
Drepana bilineata (Packard)	1993 1994	•	•	•	•	0	0	•	0	6	•	0	0	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	• 1
Geometridae Ennominae																								
Buma <i>caria latiferrugata</i> (Walker)	1993 1994	•	0	•	0	•	0	•	0	0 7	3 10	3	1 1	1 2	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	8 28
iteme occiduaria (Packard)	1993 1994	•	•	•	•	•	0	•	0	•	0	0 2	6 7	2 76	33 231	30 85	137 224		49 16	18	1	•	•	330 664
Itame brunneata (Thunberg)	1993 1994	•	•	•	•	0	0	•	•	0	0	2 83	4 321	6 L 76	25 12	12 •	3 2	6	•	•	•	•	•	58 494
Itame anataria (Swett)	1993 1994	•	•	•	0	0	0	0	•	•	•	0	0	• 12	2 31	• 3	5 1	20 4	31 •	12	2	•	•	70 51
Semiothisa aemulataria (Walker)	1993 1994	•	•	•	•	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	1 2
Semiothisa bicolorata (Fabricius)	1993 1994	•	•	•	•	0	0	0	•	0	•	0	4	6	3	3	1	•	•	•	•	•	•	17 1
Hesperumia sulphuraria Packard	1993 1994	•	•	•	•	6	0	0	•	0	•	0	6	•	0 1	1 2	•	0	•	•	•	•	•	1 5

1993 1993 1993 1994 1993 1993 Anacampiodes ephyraria (Walker) WEEK Protoboarmia porcelaria (Guenée) Melanolophia signataria (Walker) MONTH Iridopsis lerrarie (Guenée)

Appendix VI. (Continued).

1993 1994 1993 1994 1993 1994 Apodrepanulatrix liberaria (Walker) Euchlaene imaria (Barnes & McDunnough) Euchlaene johnsoneria (Fitch) Metanema determinata Walker MONTH Metanema inatomaria Guenée Euchlaena obinsaria (Hubner) Xanthotype sospeta (Drury) WEEK Selenia kentaria (Grote & Robinson) Brastria cruentaria Hubber P*etrophora divisata* Hübber Campasa perlata (Guenés) Pero honestaria (Walker)

Appendix VI. (Continued).

1993 5 S 1993 2 5 1993 Metarramikis hypocharia (Herrkh-Schiffer) MONTH WEEK Metarranikis duaria (Guenée) Plagedis phiogesaria (Guende) Anagoga occiduaria (Walker) Probole amicaria (Herrich-Schäffer) Plagodis alcoolaris (Guenbe) Probole nepiasaria (Walker)

Appendix VI. (Continued).

MONTH		AP	APRIL			MAY	>			JUNE	얼				JULY	<u></u>	•	AUGUST	UST			SEPTEMBER	EW	4
WEEK	YEAR	-	~	60	•	40	•	7	••	•	2	=	12	13	=	15	2	11	=	2	2	21 2	77	SUM
Sicya macularia (Harris)	1993	00	• •	• •	••	• •	••	00	00	0 0	00	00	00	• •	• 4	9.0		•	0.0					5
Busarca confusaria Hubber	1993	• •	• •	• •	• •	• •	••	• •	• •	• •	• •	• •	• •	• -	• •	• •		• •		• •	• •		-	•
Terracis cachentata Guende	1993	••	• •	• •	• •	• •	••	• •	2	**	**	4 ₩	-0	• •	• •	• •		9.4	••	••	••	-		==
Entrapela clemataria (J.E. Smith)	1993	• •	••	••	• •	••	••	••	0 4	9 11		• •	•	••	••	••		•	••	••	••			
Prochecrodes transversusa (Drury)	1993	••	• •	••	• •	• •	••	• •	• •	• •	• •	00	• •	• •	••	••	. =	• લ	s =	22	22			22
Nematocampa limbata (Haworth)	1993	••	• •	••	••	• •	••	• •	• •	• •	00	• •	• •	• •	• •	• 4	m e	~		• =	••			_ 2
Geometrinae																								
Nemoria rubrifronaria (Packard)	1993	• •	•	• •	••	e •	• •	• •	• =	m	- 7	• •	00	• •	•	••	• •	• •	••	• •	• •			
Sterrhinge																						•		
Cyclophora pendulinaria (Guenée)	1993	• •	• •	••	• •	• •	• •	9 M	00	• •	• •	• •	00	• •	• =	• •	• •	• •	••	••	• •	••	•	
Scopule limboundaia (Haworth)	1993	• •	00	• •	• •	00	••	• •	00	• •	••	9 71	•	• 12	M 4	• 41	• 11	• •	••	••	• •	••		33
Scopula inductata (Guente)	1993	• •	• •	• •	• •	• •	••	00	••	••	• •	3	~ €	21	₩ 4	••	9 11	• •	••	••	••	••		% 8

Appendix VI. (Continued).

1993 1993 1993 Hydriomena iransfiguraia Swett Eulihis diversilineata (Hubner) MONTH Mesoleuca rustelllata (Guente) Eulishis explanata (Walker) Hydria prunivoraia (Ferguson) WEEK Dystroma herziliata (Guenée) Coryphista maadii (Packard) Larentiinae

Appendix VI. (Continued).

12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 8UM SEPTEMBER AUGUST 1993 Orthonama centrostrigaria (Wollaston) Bupithecia pseudotsugata MacKay MONTH Xanthorhos sospeta (Drury) WEEK Bubaphe mendica (Walker) Horisme intestinata (Guenbe) Epirhos alternata (Müller) Enplishecie app. Curtis

Appendix VI. (Continued),

SEPTEMBER 1993 56 S 15 95 15 95 19 53 19 94 1993 1933 1993 Pachysphinx modesia (Harris) Lapara bombycoides Walker MONTH Closters albosigma Fitch Amphion floridensis B.P. Clark Gluphisia avimacula Hudson Smerinthus cerisyi Kirby Pheosia rimosa Packard WEEK Macroglossinae Darapse pholus (Cramer) Notodontidae Nadate gibbose (J.E. Smith) Paonias myops (J.E. Smith)

Appendix VI. (Continued).

Appendix VI. (Continued).

MONTH		A	\PRIL			MAY			-	JUNE				=	JULY		V	AUGUST	E		SE	SEPTEMBER	BER
WEEK	YEAR	-	7	•	•	w	•	7	•	~ •	100	11 12	13	=	15	*	17	=	2	8	71	22	SUM
Arctiidae Lithosiinae																							
Bilema bicelor (Grote)	1993	••	••	• •	• •	• •	• •	• •	00	• •	• •	13	228	6.5	• •	71	2 2	- ~	• •	••	••	••	2 23
Hypopropia fucosa Hubner	1993	••	••	• •	• •	• •	• •	• •	••	• •	• •	• •	• •	••	••	• •	• -	w 4	m •	••	• •	••	••
Clemensia albaia Packard	1993	••	••	••	• •	• •	• •	• •	••	• 11	• •	9 40	3.0	+ 2	••	Ξ,	• •	••	••	••	••	••	1 5
Arctinae																							
Holomelins lacts (Güerin-Méneville)	1993	••	••	• •	• •	• •	• •	• •		••	• •	• ~	9 4		₩ ₩	44	• •		••	••	••	••	• 2
Holomelina aurantiaca (Hübber)	1993	••	••	••	••	• •	• •	••	••	••	• •	• 1	• ‡	8 %	2 6	25	• 60	~	••	••	• •	••	2 Z
Holomelina forruginosa (Walker)	1993	••	••	••	• •	• •	• •	90	00	••	• •	• =	- 4	• =	~ •0	- •	• 4	••	••	••	••	• •	5 5
Spilosoma congrua Walker	1993 1994	••	••	• •	••	• •	• •			44	40	m 0	- •	••	••	• •	••	••	••	••	• •	••	= ~
Spilosome virginica (Rabricius)	1993	••	••	••	••	• •	• •	••	• •	~ •	~	••	00	• •	••	• •	• •	••	••	• •	••	••	= "
Phragmato Na assimilans Walker	1993	••	••	••	• •	m 0	~	• ··	9 9	• •	• •	• •	• •	• •	• •	• •	••	••	• •	• •	• •	• •	20 4
Platarciia perthenos (Harris)	1993	••	••	••	• •	• •	••		9.6	0 -	• •	• •	• •	• •	• •	••	••	••	• •	• •	••	••	• •

Appendix VI. (Continued).

																						_		
MONTH		AP	RIL			M	۸Y			JU	NE				JUI	LY		ΑÜ	GUS	r		SE	PTEN	BER
WEEK	YEAR	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	SUM
Grammia parthenice (Kirby)	1993 1994	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	•	4	7	1 0	1	1	•	14 22
Grammia virgo (Linnaeus)	1993 1994	•	•	•	0	0	0	•	0	0	0	0	0	0 2	6 13	2	1	0 1	•	•	•	•	•	2 17
Cycnia tenera (Hübner)	1993 1994	•	•	•	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	1
Cycnia oregonensis (Stretch)	1993 1994	•	•	0	0	0	0	•	•	0	0	0	0	0	0	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•
Ctenuchinae																								
Ctenucha virginica Esper)	1993 1994	•	•	•	•	0	0	0	0	0	•	0	• 2	0	1	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	1 3
Lymantriidae Orgyiinae																								
Dasychira dorsipennata (Barnes & McDunnough)	1993 1994	•	•	•	•	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	• 1
Noctuidae Herminiinae																								
Idia americalis (Guenée)	1993 1994	•	•	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	6	3 7	2	3	• 2	•	0	•	•	•	•	14 15
Renia flavipuncsalis Geyer)	1993 1994	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0 1	0	•	0 3	5 1	0	•	•	•	•	5 6
<i>Palthis angulalis</i> (Hübner)	1993 1994	•	0	•	0	0	0	0	0 1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	•	0	0	0	•	•	2 1

MONTH		API	APRIL			MAY	-			JUNE				5	JULY		*	AUGUST	75		3	SEPTEMBER	MBE	
WEEK	YEAR	-	~	•	•	*	•	7	••	•	=	11 1	12 1	13 1/	7	15 1	16 17	7 18	2	28		1 22	28	MUS
Hypeninae													İ						İ			1	İ	
Bomolocha abalienalis (Walket)	1993	• •	• •	0 0	• •	• •	• •	• •	• •	••	0	9 9		• •	• •	• •	• •	••	••	• •	••	••	• •	
Catocalinae																								
Scotlopteryx libatrix (Linnaeus)	1993 1994	••	00	• •	0 0	00	• •	9 0		••			-	• •	• -	→ ₩	- m	••	••	• •	••	• •	20 F	
Synedolde adumbrata (Grote)	1993	• •	••	••	• •	• •	• •	• •	••				• •	•	• •	• •	••	••	••	••	••	• •		
Synedoide grandirena (Haworth)	1993	••	••	••	••	• •	•	• -	• •	••		••	••	• •	••	••	• •	••	••	• •	••	• •	• -	
Zale lunata (Drury)	1993	••	••	••	••	••	••	• •	• -	70			••	• •	• •	••	••	••	• •	••	••	••	4 =	
Zale meruginosa (Guende)	1993	••	••	••	m o	40	~=		• 4	• #	-		•	• •	• •	• •	••	••	• •	• •	• •	••	==	
Zaie duplicata (Betbuve)	1993	• •	• •	••	••	• •	• •	en en	Z •	~ ~			•	• •	• •	• •	••	••	• •	••	••	••	22	
Zale helata (Smith)	1993	• •	••	••	• •	00	0 7	• •	60 4	9.5			• •	• •	• •	••	••	• •	• •	• •	••	••	~ 2	
Zalo korrida Hübner	1993	••	• •	••	• •	• •	00	• •	• •	••				• •	9 0	••	••	••	••	••	••	••	•	
Bucildia cuspidea (Habber)	1993	••	• •	• •	• •	• •	• •	• •	• •	• =		00		• •	• •	• •	• •	• •	• •	••	• •	• •	4	
Caenurzina crassiuscula (Haworth)	1993	• •	• •	• •	• •	••	• •		• •	••				0 4	6 M	• •	• •	•	••	• •	• •	• •	• •	

Appendix VI. (Continued).

1993 1994 1983 1984 1593 1594 1993 1994 Catocale concumbens Walker MONTH Catocala manitoba Beutenmüller Argyrostrotis anilis (Drury) Catocala blandula Huist Catecals utrenia (Hubber) Allagrapha aerea (Hübber) Catocala unijuga Walker WEEK Casocale brisels Edwards Catocala relicta Walker Plusinae

Appendix VI. (Continued).

21 22 SUM SEPTEMBER 22 AUGUST JULY 1993 1993 1994 1993 19 50 19 50 19 50 19 50 1993 1994 1993 1994 Panthos acronyctoldes (Walker) Autographa bimaculata (Stepbens) Syngraphe viridisigma (Grote) MONTH Anagrapha falcifera (Kirby) Lithacodia carneola (Guente) Autographe mappa (Grote & Robinson) Syngrapha altera (Ottolengul) Syngraphe epigees (Grote) Sarrothripinae WEEK Nycteola frigidana Walker Plusia aeroides Grote Acontiinae Pantheinae

Appendix VI. (Continued).

MONTH		AP	APRIL			MAY	>			JUNE	(-)			7	JULY		<	AUGUST	E		S	ME	SEPTEMBER	
WEEK	YEAR	-	~	(*)	•	40	•	1	•	•	2	=	2	13 1	7	15 1	16 17	== -	2	25	21	77	SUM	5
Acronictinae								1														1		
Acronicia americana Harris	1993	• •	• •	••	• •	•	• •	• •	• •	• •	00	00	••	• •		00	9 9	• •	•	• •	••	• •		
Acronicia innotata Guenée	1993	••	• •	••	••	• •	• •	• •	• •	• •	0		••			•	9 •	••	••	••	••	••	-•	
Acronicia tritona (Hübner)	1993 1994	• •	• •	• •	••	••	• •	• •	00	0 0	• •					40	00	••	••	• •	••	••	• =	
Acronicia grissa Walker	1993	••	• •	••	••	• •	• •	00	••	~ =	N 10	9 M	-	-			••	••	••	• •,	••	••	7 0	
Acronicia quedrata (Grote)	1993	••	• •	••	••	•	• •	00	• •	• •	••	~ •	• •	••			• •	• •	• •	••	••	••		
Acronicia superans Guende	1993	• •	••	••	• •	• •	• •	00	• •	• •	• •	•		-			00	••	••	•	••	••	- 7	
Acronicia furcifera Guenke	1993	• •	••	••	••	••	• •	• •	• •	• •	• •	9 =		-			60	••	••	••	• •	••	• =	
Acronicia hassa Guen ée	1993	• •	• •	••	••	••	• •	• •	o =	0	- 0	N 0		98	•-	-	• •	••	••	• •	••	••	e e	
Acronicia fragilis (Guenbe)	1993	• •	••	••	••	••	• •	04	• •	m •	4	22	F 80	26			• •	••	••	••	••	• •	##	
Acronicia retardata (Walker)	1993	• •	• •	••	••	• •	• •	• •	••	• •	40			••			00	••	••	••	••	••	▼●	
A griopedes teratophora (Herrich-Schäffer)	1993	• •	• •	• •	• •	• •	• •	• •	• •	• •	• -	0 =	• •	• •			00	• •	• •	• •	• •	••	• "	

Appendix VI. (Continued).

Appendix VI. (Continued).

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MONTH		AP	RIL			M	ΛY			JU	NE				JUI	.Y		ΑU	GUST	r		SE	PTEM	BER
WEEK	YEAR	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	SUM
Amphyipyrinae	,						•																	
Apamea nigrior (Smith)	1993 1994	•	0	•	•	0	•	0	0	0	•	0	0	0	•	•	•	•	•	•	0	•	•	• 1
Apamea amputetrix (Fitch)	1993 1994	•	•	•	•	0	0	0	0	6 1	0	0	0	0	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	• 2
A <i>pamea commoda</i> (Walker)	1993 1994	•	•	•	•	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	•	•	•	6 3	• 3	2	2 1	1	• 2	5 10
Agroperina cogitata (Smith)	1993 1994	•	0	•	•	0	0	0	0	•	•	•	0	0	•	•	•	•	•	1	•	•	•	1
Eremobina claudens (Walker)	1993 1994	•	•	0	•	0	0	0	0	0	•	0	0	0	•	•	•	•	• 2	0 2	•	•	•	•
Oligia mactata (Guenée)	1993 1994	•	•	•	•	0	•	0	0	•	0	•	0	0	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	• 2	• 2
Oligia illocata (Walker)	1993 1994	•	0	•	•	0	•	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	6	•	•	•	•	6 2	3 1	3	•	6
Amphipoca interoceanica (Smltb)	1993 1994	•	•	•	•	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	6	0	•	•	0	•	•	•	•	•	•
Papaipema pterisil Bird	1993 1994	•	•	0	•	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	•	•	•	•	•	• 20	2 3	2 23
Euplexia benesimilis McDunnough	1993 1994	•	0	0	•	0	0	0	0	0	0	•	0	0	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•
Phlogophora iris Guente	1993 1994	0	0	0	•	0	0	0	0	2	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	•	•	•	•	•	•	6

88 88 1993 1994 19 53 19 53 1993 MONTH Dypterygia rozmani Berto Hyppa xylinoides (Guente) WEEK Enargia decolor (Walker) Xylena cinaritia (Grote) Xylene nupera (Lintper)

Appendix VI. (Continued).

SEPTEMBER 1993 1994 1993 1994 1993 1994 1993 1994 1993 1994 1993 1993 1993 Brachionycha borealis (Smith) Bucirroedia pampina (Guente) Oncocnemis piffardi (Walker) MONTH Xylotyps acedia Barnes & Benjamin Apharetra purpurea McDunnough Homohadena inflica (Walker) Platypolia anceps (Stephens) Sympistis funesta (Paykuli) WEEK Sideridis maryx (Guenée) Polia imbrifera (Guente) Polia nimbosa (Guenée) Hadeninae

Appendix VI. (Continued).

1993 1994 1993 1993 13 to 5 5 5 1993 1994 Lactuipolia lustralis (Grote) MONTH Polla purpurissasa (Grote) Polia segregata (Smith) *Orthosia revicta* (Morrison) Polla latra (Guenée)

Appendix VI. (Continued).

1993 55 55 1993 1993 1993 MONTH Amethes collaris (Grote & Robinson) Eugraphe opacifrons (Grote) Paradiarsia listoralis (Packard) WEEK Fottia jaculifora (Guenée) M*etalapsis fishii* (Grote) Agrotis mollis Walker Noctuinae Agrotis patula Walker Eurois asiricia Morrison

Appendix VI. (Continued).

SEPTEMBER 55 22 25 323 352 AUGUST 282 301 554 724 1060 394 743 374 2 2 35 # 3 = × 22 73 165 25 1993 1994 1993 3 3 1993 1994 Rhynchagreds anchocelloides (Guence) 2 Number of Individuals Heptagrotis phyllophora (Grote) Cryptocale acadiensis (Bethune) Anaplectoides prusina (Schiffermüller) Anaplectoides pressus (Grote) Number of Species MONTH Euerstagrotis attenta (Grote) Absgratis attemats (Grote) Abegratis placide (Grote) Abegratis apposita (Grote) WEEK

Appendix VI. (Continued).