PLANT HOST SPECIFICITY AMONG FLOWER-FEEDING NEO-TROPICAL DROSOPHILA (DIPTERA: DROSOPHILIDAE)

> By SARAH BEDICHEK PIPKIN, RAFAEL L. RODRÍGUEZ, AND JORGE LEÓN

PLANT HOST SPECIFICITY AMONG FLOWER-FEEDING NEO-TROPICAL DROSOPHILA (DIPTERA: DROSOPHILIDAE)*

SARAH BEDICHEK PIPKIN, RAFAEL L. RODRÍGUEZ, AND TORGE LEÓN

Department of Biology, The Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md.; Department of Biology, The University of Costa Rica, San José, Costa Rica; Instituto Interamericano Ciencias Aericolas de La Organización de Los Estados Americanos, Lima, Peru-

INTRODUCTION

Certain neotropical drosophilids both feed and breed in living flowers and are rarely or never collected by net sweeping over fallen plant parts, over fungi, or in fruit baited traps. Twelve of these species have been described recently by Pipkin (1964). They are distinct from two other aggregations of neotropical Drosophilidae species, the fungus-feeders and the groundfeeders, which sometimes breed in flowers (Pipkin, 1965a). For the present work the major collecting area was in forest at 2,500 feet on the mountain Cerro Campana, about 35 miles northwest of Panamá City, Panamá. The collecting area covered about 4 acres, including half an acre of coffee trees on cleared land. Sixty-four collections were made here throughout the year from July, 1960 to August, 1964. Fewer collections were made in central Panamá at the Ft. Sherman Reservation and at Madden Forest, Canal Zone; in western Panamá at El Volcán, Cerro Punta, Soná, and Almirante: in eastern Panamá at El Real; at Rio Raposo, Colombia (near Buenaventura) on the Pacific coast; at Leticia, Colombia, on the headwaters of the Amazon River: and at Trinidad. West Indies. Fig. 1 is a map showing these collection areas.

Among flower-feeding Drosophila, several species have been found associated with a single plant host. Others use two plant species, and still others feed and breed in flowers of several species. The purpose of this study is to present the evidence for plant host specificity among these flower dependent Drosophila, absence of it in others, and the bearing of this information on the evolutionary history of both drosophilid and host, Herbarium specimens and colored photographs of plants have been deposited in The National Museum of Costa Rica, San José, Costa Rica, and The U. S. National Museum, Washington, D. C.

Adult flies were collected from flowers by aspiration and stored in vials containing moist laboratory culture medium. Flies were bred from flowers

*This work was supported by the Division of General Medical Sciences, The National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, Md., RG 06813 to The Gorgas Memorial Laboratory, Panamá, and RG 12018; also The National Science Foundation Grant 16028.



FIG. 1. Map showing collection areas.

broken off the plant. The drier flowers were put in quart mason jars; those with much sap, in flower pots with the drain hole plugged with cotton. When imagines hatched, cheese cloth covers replaced cotton stoppers of the containers. Vials containing culture medium were inserted into holes made in the covers. Hatching flies crawled into the collecting vials from time to time and were removed for examination.

RESULTS AND CONCLUSIONS

1. Monophagous Drosophila

Collections at the major study area at Cerro Campana proved that living flowers are used for larval and pupal development by both host specific and non-host specific flower-feeding Drosophila as well as by groundfeeding and fungus-feeding Drosophila. In this area a constant wet season occurs from May through December, intermittent rains falling to mid-January. Temperature varies from about 20 to 23 C throughout the year. The usual flowering periods of the plants occurring in sufficient numbers to support a Drosophila population are presented in Table 1. Here it is seen that four species, D. nigrasplendens, D. bansoni, D. xanthopallescens, and D. mcclintockae were bred each from flowers of a single plant species respectively; i.e., from Heliconia subulata, Heliconia vellerigera, Calathea insignis, and Aphelandra micans. Photographs of these plants which were growing side by side in thickets of the forested area appear in Fig. 2 (a-d). The four Drosophila species could be bred regularly from their respective hosts and never from the other plants listed in Table 1, even though two other species of Heliconia and two other species of Calathea were growing in the same plot intermingled with the plants supporting host specific

TABLE 1
Usual blossoming periods of forest plants at Cetro Campana, Panamá (2500 fts)
and Drosophilidae bred from their flowers.

Plant species	Usual period of blossoming	Flower-feeding Drosophila bred out	Ground-feeding Drosophilidae bred out	Fungus-feeding Drosophilidae bred out
Anthurium maximum	Jan., Feb.			
Impatiens sultani	Jan., Feb.			
Gevтьта объща	Jan., Feb.			
White hyacinth	Jan., Feb.		Clastopteromyia sp.	Zygothrica sp.
Cephaelis elata	Jan., Feb.			
Red mins	Jan. thru March			
Passiflora vitifolia	Feb., March			Zygothrica sp.
Crysopbila warscewiczii	March, April			
Coffea arabica	April			
Sipanına nicaraguensis	April			
Heliconia subulata	Feb, thru Sept,	D. nigrasplendens D. xiphiphora		
Heliconia vellerigera	March thru Nov.	D. hansoni D. xiphiphora	Clastopteromyia sp.	
Сесторіа техісана	March thru Sept,		D. medioparva Scaptomyza sp.	
Cal athea insignis	April thru Oct.	D. xanthopallescens		
Apkelandra mic ans	Aug. 20 to Dec. 15	D. mcclintockae flavopilosa sp. flavopilosa sp. D. busckii	D. fasciola D. repleta D. neomorpha D. medioparva tripunctata sp.	Zygothrica sp. Zygothrica sp.
Calathea allouia	Sept. thru Nov.	flavopilosa sp.	D. medioparva	Zygothrica sp.
Calathea sp.	Sept, thru Nov.			Zygothrica sp.
Gentropogon coccineus	Sept. thru April	D. busckii	D. medionotata D. blumelae D. medioparva tripunctata sp. D. mediocris cardini sp. Clastopteromyta sp.	Zygothrica sp. Zygothrica sp.
Erythrina berteroana `.	Oct.		D. medionotata D. bodemannae D. angustibucca D. fasciola guarani sp.	Zygothrica sp.
Aroid sp.	Oct.		D. neomorpha D. capricorni D. cardinoides D. fasciola peruviana sp.	
Myrosms guapilensis	Sept. thru Nov.	Undescribed Drosophila sp. (one occasion)		
Heliconia villosa	Sept., Oct.			
Heliconia sp.	Sept., Oct.		D. mediocris	
Solanum nihidim	Nov. thru I an.	flavopilosa sp.		



FIG. 2. Photographs of plant hosts of monophagous drosophilids at Cerro Campana, Panamá, 2,500 fect. (a) Apbelandra micans; (b) Calathea insignis; (c) Heliconia subulata; (d) Heliconia vellerigera.

Drosophila. D. xiphiphora showed less specificity by using the flowers of two Heliconias, each also occupied by a monophagous drosophilid; i.e., theliconia vubulata and Heliconia vullerigera, respectively. Ten species of Drosophilidae shared Aphelandra micans with D. mcclintockae (see Table D), but the non-host specific flies were bred in far lower numbers than was D. mcclintockae from this plant. Of 1,614 flies bred from Aphelandra micans, 95.7% were D. mcclintockae. Similarly, of 156 flies bred from Heliconia vellerigera, 96.2% were D. honsoni: 3.7%, D. xiphiphora, Of 58 flies bred from Heliconia subulata, 94.9% were D. nigrasplendens; 4.0%, D. xiphiphora; and a single fly belonging to the flavopilosa species group was bred from this plant.

Eggs of D. hansoni, D. nigrasplendens, and D. mcclintockae were laid on tough, unopened flower buds scarified by the ovipositor of the female flies. Thus D. mcclintockae eggs were found predominantly on the upper half of the flower spike on the outside of the calyx lobes rather than at the base on open flowers. The larvae penetrated the buds and fed on pollen and other plant tissue. In these cases flies could not be bred from fruits or other parts of the respective host plants. By picking away the calyx lobes, D. mcclintockae larvae were usually seen feeding around the anthers in immature florets and could be found also in decaying portions of the thachis. Presence of D. mcclintockae larvae in a bud of Aphelandra micans could prevent blossoming of the floret involved; but even at the peak of population of the fly, there were more potential florets than flies bred from a flowering spike of the plant. The drosophilid infestation may have caused unopened buds of Heliconia vellerigera and of Heliconia subulata to drop prematurely. When collected from the ground, the respective host specific Drosophila could be bred from these buds. The plants in question suffered little since flowers to spare were produced.

All of the plant species serving host specific drosophilids possessed long flowering periods of from four to nine months, as Table 1 shows. Two of the plants supporting host specific Drosophila, i.e., Heliconia subulata and Heliconia vellerigera, with long flowering periods, began to blossom in the dry season and so supported their respective Drosophila species during a time of the year when certain ground-feeding drosophilids existed in very low numbers (Pipkin, 1965a).

The fluctuation in population size of a host specific drosophilid was correlated with the time of blossoming of its respective plant host. Each of the plant species supporting such Drosophila at Cerro Campana, i.e., Calathea insignis, Heliconia vellerigera, Heliconia subulata, and Aphelandra micans, began to blossom for one or two months before adult flies of the respective species could be collected. This indicates that another plant host was not being used. Fluctuations in population size of D. mcclintockae have been followed in most detail. The egg of this fly could be distinguished from that of all other species of Drosophila collected at Cerro Campana. Since the species could be cultured in the laboratory, it was possible to determine that eggs of D. mcclintockae are unsually long and

possess three filaments each more than twice the length of the egg (Pipkin, 1964). D. trifiloides, also occurring at Cerro Campana, has smaller eggs with three short egg filaments, yellow at the base. Other Drosophila species there have two, four, or no egg filaments. For this reason the association of D. mcclintockae with its host plant, Aphelandra micans, could be traced by observing eggs both before and after adult flies could be collected. Thus, on August 21, 1962, when Aphelandra micans was just beginning to flower, eight eggs of D. mcclintockae were found on two of 27 floral spikes examined. On September 19, one inflorescence bearing four eggs of D. mcclintockae was observed whereas 29 inflorescences carried no eggs, but five D. mcclintockae were bred out. On October 3, although no egg counts were made, still no adult D. mcclintockae were seen. A month later, on November 2, one or more of these large drosophilids was crawling on nearly every plant. Seven adults were counted on five spikes of the same plant in ten minutes. The numbers of D. mcclintockae adults bred out increased from 2,3 per floral spike collected October 3 to 10,4 flies per spike collected November 2, and dropped to 5.5 flies per spike collected November 13, Twelve, 33, and 35 floral spikes, respectively, were tested singly in half-pint jars for the three collections. It is estimated from counts, that 300 inflorescences of Aphelandra micans were present in the collecting area at the height of the flowering period of this plant. The plant was uncommon in other parts of Cerro Campana which were visited in the four years of collecting. Thus, the peak population size of D. mcclintockae in the collecting area was of the order of 3,400 individuals.

Aphelandra micans was no longer blossoming after mid-December. The fruiting spikes turned from bright red to brownish green, but some red color was left in the lower bracts. On January 15, 1963, many fruiting spikes of Aphelandra micans were seen. Those in the open area around the coffee finca were drying out and dropping off. At this time 77 eggs of D. mcclintockae were observed on 11 of 13 fruiting spikes, but only one adult female fly was bred from these. On February 7, 157 eggs of D. mcclintockae were counted on 15 of 23 fruiting spikes of Aphelandra plants growing in deep forest. Subsequently, no traces of larvae or pupae were seen in these spikes and no adult flies were bred from them. Seven fruiting spikes of Appleandra micans collected from forest on March 15, 1963 bore no eggs of D. mcclintockae, but three of four spikes collected on March 28, 1963 carried 11, 2, and 1 eggs, respectively. No adults were bred from these. No other fruiting spikes of Aphelandra micans were seen at this time. On April 18, the last two fruiting spikes of Aphelandra micans were located in deep forest. No eggs of D, mcclintockae were seen on them and no flies bred from them. During the four years of collecting in the forest at Cerro Campana, flowers of plants other than Aphelandra micans, listed in Table 1, were examined repeatedly without success for the presence of D. mcclintockae eggs. A catastrophic reduction in population numbers of D. mcclintockae must occur yearly at the end of the flowering period of

Apbelandra micans. This is shown by the large numbers of eggs laid in early January on fruiting stalks of the plant which yielded no further generations of D. mcclintockae. It must be concluded that a few adults of D. mcclintockae undergo diapause and survive the period when Apbelandra micans is not blossoming, from January to some time in August. This is borne out by the long period after Apbelandra micans began to flower each year before the population of the fly reached sufficient numbers for imagines to be collected.

No D. mcclintockae imagines were bred from two other forest growing species of Aphelandra; i.e., Aphelandra sinclairiana from Madden Forest, Canal Zone, on April 4, 1963 (33 floral spikes tested) and Aphelandra tetragona, from forest in Uroseka (near El Real, Panamá) on November 24, 1962 (25 floral spikes tested). On the other hand, D. mcclintockae was bred from an undescribed Aphelandra species, very close to Aphelandra micans, collected at Yape, near El Real, Panamá, on November 23, 1962. The plant possessed yellow flowers and bright orange-red bracts in contrast with the red flowers and red bracts of Aphelandra micans. The inflorescence of the undescribed species was about 14 inches, longer than is usual in Aphelandra micans. In Almirante, Panamá, D. mcclintockae was bred from Aphelandra micans. The longer wet season at Almirante on the Caribbean side of the isthmus accounts for the blossoming of the host plant in April when the fly was collected.

There was no evidence of competition for larval food supply between the monophagous D. mcclintockae and 10 polyphagous species of Drosophila (see Table 1) undergoing synchronous development with D. mcclintockae in flowers of Aphelandra micans. Little fluctuation in numbers of the polyphagous species bred from Aphelandra micans accompanied the autumn population expansion of D. mcclintockae bred from this plant. The number of individuals of polyphagous Drosophila bred per inflorescence varied from 0.5 from the collection of September 19, 1962 (compared with 0.17 of D. mcclintockae), to 0.75, October 3 (compared with 2.3 individuals of D. mcclintockae); 0.61, November 2 (compared with 10.4 individuals of D. mcclintockae); 0.12, November 13 (compared with 5.5 individuals of D. mcclintockae). In 1961, the number of individuals of polyphagous Drosophila bred per inflorescence was 0.10 from the October 4 and October 11 collections (compared with 1.4 D. mcclintockae per inflorescence); 0.16 from the October 25 and October 28 collections when 1.6 individuals of D. mcclintockae, were bred out, and 0.50 on November 12 when D, mcclintockae reached 2.9 individuals bred per inflorescence. On November 16, 1963, when the D. mcclintockae population was expanded to 16.7 individuals per inflorescence of Aphelandra, still 0.15 individuals of polyphagous species of Drosophila were bred out. These data support the conclusion that larval food supply and "living space" for larval development afforded by Aphelandra micans is more than sufficient for both polyphagous and the monophagous flies using this plant.

Plants supporting monophagous Drosophila species in areas other than Cerro Campana, Panamá, ate listed in Table 2 with their respective drosophilids. In separate additional columns of Table 2 appear non-host specific Drosophila also bred from the plants and all Drosophila aspirated or netted from them.

The results of 26 field collections made in the forest of the Fort Sherman Reservation, Canal Zone, on the Caribbean side of the isthmus, showed three apparently monophagous Drosophila species (see Table 2). D. alexanderae is restricted to Heliconia elongata. Similarly, D. alani was bred only from flowers of Heliconia cutrispataba, and D. leukorhypa was bred only from flowers of Heliconia mariae. Flowers of the latter host plant from Madden Forest, Canal Zone, likewise yielded only D. leukorrhyna. However, both D. leukorrhyna and D. alani (or a subspecies or a closely related species) of D. alani) were netted from Heliconia mariae in El Real, Panamá, and both species (or subspecies or closely related species) were bred from a third host, Heliconia rostrata in Rio Raposo, Colombia. The three Heliconia hosts, H. mariae, H. curtispatha, and H. rostrata, are relatively closely related within the genus, displaying several important charactively closely related within the genus, displaying several important charactively closely related within the genus, displaying several important charactively closely related within the genus, displaying several important charactively closely related within the genus, displaying several important charactively closely related within the genus, displaying several important charactives.

TABLE 2

Plants supporting host specific Drosophila from areas other than Cerro Campana, Panama

Plant	Area	Host specific flower-feeder bred out	Non-host specific flower-feeder bred out	Flics aspirated or netted
Heliconia elongata	Almirante, Panama Ft. Sherman Res., Canal Zone	D. alexanderae D. alexanderae	flavopilosa sp.	
	El Real, Panama Trinidad, W. I.	D. al exanderae		D. alexanderae
Holiconia curtispatha	Almirante, Panama Ft. Sherman Res., Canal Zone El Real, Panama	D. alami sp. near D. alami sp. near D. alami	flavopilosa sp. D. busckii	sp. near D. alani D. othoni
Holiconia mariae	Ft. Sherman Res., Canal Zone	D. loukorebyna		D. Icukombyna D. othoni
	Madden Forest, Canal Zone	D. leukorrbyna	flavopilosa sp.	
	Yape near El Real, Panama	D. leukombyna		sp. neat D. alani, D. leukorrhyna
Heliconia 10 strata	Rio Raposo, Colombia	sp. near D. leukorrbyna sp. near D. alani		
Heliconia collinsiana	Rio Raposo, Colombia			D. bansonioides
Calathea lutea	Ft. Sherman Res., Canal Zone	D. aureopallescens	D. busckii	
	Almirante, Panama El Real, Panama Rio Raposo, Colombia	D. aureopallescens D. aureopallescens D. aureopallescens D. aureopallescens	D. otboni	
Cal athea in si gni s	El Volcán, Panama Río Raposo, Colombia	D. aureopallescens D. xanthopallescens		

ters in common, such as large size, large, pendulous inflorescence, distichous short crowded bracts of deep red color.

The closely related D. xanthopallescens and D. aureopallescens show a relative degree of host specificity. D. aureopallescens prefers Calathea latea from which it was bred regularly in collections from the Fort Sherman Reservation, but this fly was described from specimens hatching from what is now known to have been Calathea insignis, collected in El Volcán, Panamá. Calathea insignis is the characteristic host plant for D. xanthopallescens at Cerro Campana, where D. aureopallescens was never found. However, both these species were bred from the same specimen of Calathea lutea collected in Rio Raposo. Colombia

Table 2 shows that the same or very closely related Drosotbila species could be bred from the same plant host collected from several different geographical areas. D. alexanderae was bred from Heliconia elongata collected at Almirante, Fort Sherman Reservation, El Real, and aspirated from this plant at Trinidad. The male and female genitalia, and spermatheceae of D. alexanderae from all these areas are indistinguishable, but the body color of the Almirante specimens is darker than that of specimens from areas to the east. D. leukorrhyna, bred from Heliconia mariae appeared the same if collected in the Canal Zone or in Yape, Panamá (near El Real). The D. leukorrbyna specimens from Rio Raposo, Colombia, bred from Heliconia rostrata, possessed a vellowish rather than the characteristic whitish carina. Slides of male genitalia of D. leukorrhyna from central and eastern Panamá and Rio Raposo, Colombia, showed no differences. It is not known whether the difference in carina color represents a specific or subspecific difference. Three pairs of closely related but distinct species (according to breeding tests) of the tripunctata species group differ similarly in carina color but not in male genitalia. These include D, roebrae and D, unipunctata; D. metzii and D. pellewae; and D. medioparva, and an undescribed sibling species (Pipkin and Heed, 1964). A difference in body color but not in male genitalia was found in specimens of D. alani from Almirante in contrast with those of the Canal Zone and El Real, Panama. The Almirante specimens have lead colored pleura and greenish abdomens. The eastern specimens have tan pleura and brownish abdomens. Thus, in the case of D. alexanderae, D. alani, and D. bansoni, to be considered shortly, the western specimens are more darkly pigmented than the eastern specimens.

Specific differences involving both body color and genitalia distinguish D. bansoni of Cerro Campana and a closely related species, D. bansonioides (Pipkin, 1965b), of Rio Raposo, Colombia. The two species likewise differ in host plants. D. bansoni uses Heliconia vellerigera; the closely related drosophital, Heliconia collinsiana. These plants are only fairly closely related within the genus. Both possess pendant inflorescences, but whereas Heliconia vellerigera has a hairy inflorescence with wavy thachis, Heliconia collinsiana has a smooth inflorescence with more sinuous thachis. Both topographic as well as habitat isolation could be responsible for the differentiation of these closely related Prosophila species.

Drosophila nigrasplendens, regularly bred from Heliconia subulata (Fig. 2a) at Caro Campana, Pananá, was either bred or collected from three other closely related Heliconia species (Fig. 3e, f, h) over a wide range of distribution: Trinidad, W. I.; Fort Sherman Reservation, Canal Zone, on the Caribbean side of the isthmus; and Letticia, Colombia. The male genitalia of D. nigrasplendens specimens from these areas are indistinguishable. D. xibribbora which shares Heliconia subulata (Fig. 2a) with D. nigrasplendens).

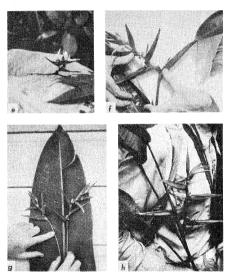


FIG. 3. Photographs of closely related Heliconia species from different geographical areas supporting cither D. nigrapfenders, D. siphiphore, or both, ice) Heliconia psitucorum (Triniada, W. 1.); (f) Heliconia ps. A (Fort Sherman Reservation, C. Z.); (g) Heliconia sp. B (El Real, Panamá); (h) Heliconia schneeana (Leticia. Colombia).

splendens at Cerro Campana, was bred from closely related Heliconia species at El Real, Panamá (Fig. 3g), and Leticia, Colombia (Fig. 3h). In Trinidad, W. I., the host plant of D. nigrasplendens is Heliconia psitacorum. Table 4 indicates the host plants for these two drosophilids in different geographical areas. The five closely related Heliconias are similar in the structure of the inflorescence, as may be seen from Fig. 2a and Fig. 3e-h, but they differ in plant height and flower color. Heliconia subtuata (Fig. 2a) has green bracts, pink flowers, and varies from 3 to 20 feet in height. Heliconia psittacorum (Fig. 3e) has orange and red tipped bracts, orange flowers, and is from 3 to 5 feet in height. Bracts of species A (Fig. 3f), from Fort Sheman Reservation are red; flowers, yellow tipped with green; and the plants about 20 feet high. Heliconia B, from El Real (Fig. 3g) has green bracts; flowers red tipped with buff; and grows about 6 feet high. Finally, Heliconia schweena (Fig. 3h) from Leticia, Colombia, has red bracts, green flowers, and varies from 6 to 8 feet in height.

2. Polyphagous flower-feeding Drosophila

Polyphagous flower-feeders use flowers of several plant species in one geographical area. At Cerro Campana these included D. buschii and two members of the flavopilosa species group. Twelve species of ground-feeders and several fungus-feeders were also bred from flowers serving polyphagous flower-feeders in this area as Table 1 shows. With the exception of Centropogon coccineus, these plants exhibited short flowering periods of from one to three months.

Table 3 lists plants supporting non-host specific Drosophilidae from regions other than Cerro Campana. Flower-feeding, ground-feeding, and fungus-feeding species appear in separate columns of the table. The cosmopolitan species, D. busckii was bred from flowers broken off plants of seven different species. Four of these also supported monophagous Drosophila (see Table 3). D. busckii was also bred from fruit of an unidentified torest tree near El Real, Panamá, but it never entered traps baited with cultivated fruits in the forest collecting stations of Panamá. In The Lebanon, Pipkin (1952), found D. busckii in small numbers in such traps. The cosmopolitan D. immigrams was bred from flowers of the introduce Plant Hedychium coronarium from a house yard in El Volcán, Panamá, collected by net sweeping over fallen blossoms in São Paulo, Brasil, by Professor C. Pavan, and trapped with fruit bait by Professor O. Frota-Pesson on the islands of Angra dos Reis. The drosophilid thus shows a wide adaptability in its food habits which is reflected in its wide range.

Seven as yet unidentified members of the [lauopilosa species group were collected and bred from 14 different plant species (see Table 3). Many of these plants belong to different families and most support several polyphagous drosophilids. In two collecting areas, two members of the [lauopilosa species group were bred from flowers of Hedychium coronarium. In both instances these were bred from the same floral specimen on the same day. Wheeler, Takada, and Branice (1962) found D. [lauopilosa breeding in the

TABLE 3

Plants supporting non-host specific Drosophilidae from areas other than

Plant	Area	Flower-feeder bred out	Ground-feeder bred out	Fungus-feeder bred out
Woody vine (legume)	Camaron, Panama	D. sticta flavopilosa sp. flavopilosa sp.	D. croctna D. mediostriata D. albirostris	
Heliconia luti sputha	Base of Cerro Campana, Panama	flavopilosa sp.	D. fasciola D. cardinoides	
Helianthus sp.	Base of Cerro Campana, Panama		D. medionotata Clastopteromyia sp.	
Hedychium coronarium		D. sticta flavopilosa sp. D. immigrans D. busckii	D. melanogaster	Zvyothrica sp.
	Panama City, Panama Cerro Campana; Panama 2200 ft.	flavopilosa sp. D. sticta flavopilosa sp. flavopilosa sp.	D. cardinoides D. melanogaster D. ananassae D. cardini	Zygoshrica sp.
	El Real, Panama Rio Raposo. Colombia	flavopilosa sp. flavopilosa sp. D. sticta	D. ananassae D. crocina	Zygothrica sp.
Dimerocostus uniflorus	Almirante, Panama Ft. Sherman Res., Canal Zone	flavopilosa sp. D. leoni flavopilosa sp.	C. opaca	Zygothrica sp. Zygothrica sp. Zygothrica sp. Zygothrica sp.
C	El Real, Panama Rio Raposo, Colombia			Zygotbrica sp.
Costus splendens	Almirante, Panama	D. leoni flavopilosa sp.		Zveothrica sp.
Costus villosissimus	Ft. Sherman Res., Canal Zone Summit Gardens. Canal Zone	D. tibialis flavopilosa sp. D. tibialis	D. medionotata D. albirostris	Zvgothrica sp. Zygothrica sp.
Ochroma limonensi s	Sona, Panama	flavopilosa sp.		
Musa sapientum	Almirante, Panama	flavopilosa sp.		
Malvaviscus arboreus	Cerro Punta, Panama	flavopilosa sp.		
Carludovica palmata	Madden Forest, Canal Zone		D. nebulosa willistoni sibling species	
Datura arborea	El Volcán, Panama	D. busckii	repleta sp.	
Unknown vine blossom	El Volcán, Panama	D. busckii		
Domestic lily	El Real, Panama	flavopilosa sp.	D. ananassae	Zygothrica sp.
Calathea violaceae	Campana, Panama	flavopilosa sp. flavopilosa sp.	D. cardinoides	Zygothrica sp.
	El Real, Panama		D. ananassae	Zygotbrica sp.

solanaceous plant Cestrum parqui in Chile. At Cerro Campana, one member of this group was bred from Solanum rubidum and also from Apbelandra micans, but flavopilosa group species were not bred from several plants supporting ground-feeding Drosopbila at Cerro Campana. Like D. buschii

TABLE 4.

Flower-feeding Drosophila bred or collected from Heliconia subulata,
Heliconia hittacorum, and three other closely related species.

Plant host	Drosophila species	Locality Cerro Campana, Panama	
Heliconia subulata	D. nigrasplendens D. xiphiphora (bred)		
Heliconia sp. A	D. nigrasplendens (bred)	Ft. Sherman Reservation Canal Zone	
Heliconia Sp. B	D. xiphiphora flavopilosa sp. flavopilosa sp. (bred)	El Real, Panama	
Heliconia schneeana	D. nigrasplendens D. xiphiphora (bred)	Leticia, Colombia	
Heliconia psittacorum	D. nigrasplendens (aspirated)	Trinidad, W. I.	

immeriga and

and D. flexipilosa, the polyphagous flower-feeders of the flavopilosa species group have a wide distribution.

Two distantly related Drosophila species, D. tibialis and D. leoni, were found to share flowers of Dimerocostus uniflorus and of several species of Costus in collections from western Panamá to Rio Raposo, Colombia. A degree of host specificity is indicated when an aggregation of Drosophila species uses several related plant species.

3. Adaptations in flower-feeding Drosophila to plant bosts

Structural adaptations in ovipositor, egg filaments, and color of imagines may indicate certain characteristics of the flowers of the plant host used. The tip of the ovipositor is acuminate in females of monophagous drosophilids ovipositing on tough fleshy flower buds, (e.g., D. nigrasplendens, D. alani, D. alexanderae, D. mcclintockae, and D. hansoni, Fig. 4j-n). The tip of the ovipositor is rounded in D. xanthopallescens, D. aureopallescens, D. flexipilosa, and D. leoni which deposit eggs on soft open flowers or in juices held by calvx buds (Fig. 50-r). The shape of the ovipositor does not always indicate whether soft or tough floral tissue is being used because ovipositors of members of the flavopilosa species group are uniformly acuminate. These flies deposit eggs on relatively tough as well as in soft flowers. For rasping floral tissue, the ovipositors of D. alani, D. alexanderae, D. mcclintockae, and D. bansoni possess medial as well as peripheral spines (Fig. 4k-n). The extreme elongation of the ovipositor in D. xiphiphora is an adaptation for placing a single egg within a small bud less than two inches long (Fig. 6t). Absent or rudimentary filaments were observed in eggs of D. xiphiphora (Fig. 6s), D. leoni (Fig. 7u, w) and D. nigrasplendens (Fig. 7x). Since the egg of the first species is inserted inside an unopened flower bud, no filament is needed. Newly laid eggs of D. leoni contain actively moving larvae which soon emerge. Egg filaments

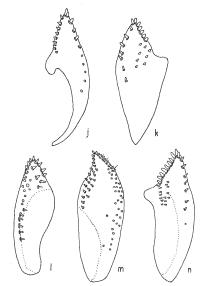


FIG. 4. Ovipositors of *Drosophila* laying eggs on tough unopened buds. (j) *D. nigrasplendens*; (k) *D. alani*; (l) *D. alexanderae*; (m) *D. mcclintockae*; (n) *D. bansoni*.

are not needed in a viviparous form. The long egg filaments of D. mcclintockae and the oar-shaped filaments of D. bansoni (Fig. 7v) provide a mechanism for attachment of the egg to the floral hairs of the respective plant hosts.

Imagines of D. mcclimtockae are adaptively colored to the extent that the collector's eyes often were deceived when the flies were resting on inflorescences of Aphelandra micans. The fly's eye color matches the red of the flower. The dark wings of the fly resemble a darkened decaying calyx lobe subtending a fully opened flower. On several occasions a small fly-

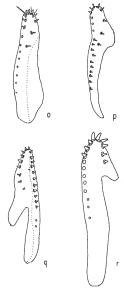


FIG. 5. Ovipositors of Drosophila laying eggs on soft open flowers or in juices held by calyx lobes. (o) D. xantbopallescens; (p) D. aureopallescens; (q) D. flexipilosa, (r) D. leoni.

catcher was observed feeding in a thicket of Aphelandra micans during a time of peak of population of D. mcclintockae, presumably catching the flies. Thus, the color pattern of the imagines may have been adaptive in deceiving the birds. The pale yellow color of D. xamthopallescens and the orange color of D. aureopallescens blend with the greenish yellow calyx lobes of Calathea insignis and the broaze calyx lobes of Calathea lutea, respectively.

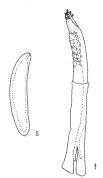


FIG. 6. Egg (s) and ovipositor (t) of D. xiphiphora,

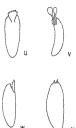


FIG. 7. Egg of D. leoni (u and w); D. nigrasplendens (x); and D. bansoni (v).

4. Cultivation of flower-feeding drosophilids in the laboratory

Seven members of the polyphagous flavopilosa species group and D. sticta are being successfully cultured on laboratory medium. Efforts to culture D. leoni and D. othoni failed. A few specimens of D. tibialis were

reared one generation on laboratory medium. The medium used contained 8 quarts of water, 3 cups com meal, 1½ cups dried Standard Brands yeast number 2019, 8 ounces of karo syrup, 2 tablespoons powdered agar; 12 cc furfural (10% solution in 95% alcohol). This soft, moist medium was inoculated with live yeast of the y-2 strain originally isolated from cactus by Wagner (1949). This yeast apparently competes with mold growth, thus necessitating only a minimum of mold inhibitor which is toxic also to the delicate tropical species.

Among host specific Drosophila species, D. alani, D. leukorthyna, D. alexanderae, and D. xanthopallesseens were never bred in large numbers are one time from their respective host plants and none could be cultured on the laboratory medium. Gravid females of D. bansoni collected in nature would deposit eggs on laboratory medium, but no development occurred. D. aureopallescens could be bred in large numbers from Calabbea lutea. When these drosophilids were held in crowded conditions and transferred to fresh, wer medium every other day, the females began to lay eggs after about 10 days. Larval development was slow, but proceeded to pupation when most of the flies died. Only three imagines ever emerged from numerous pupae obtained on different occasions and these did not produce another generation.

It has been possible to culture successfully for two years the monophagous D. mcclintockae. Flies were bred in large numbers from the host plant, held under crowded conditions for a week. At the end of this time eggs were laid, and when larvae were actively moving about, the crowded contents of three vials were transferred to a half-pint milk bottle with culture medium. Later the fly could be cultured entirely in half-pint milk bottles. It has now become adapted to the extent that oviposition does not seem to be excessively delayed. Nevertheless, bottles must be crowded with females for oviposition to occur and not all pupae eclose.

DISCUSSION

Among Drosophila species both feeding and breeding in living (not fallen) flowers of neotropical forest, varying degrees of plant host specificity are found. Ecological isolation in a single area is not complete for D. xanthopallescens and its sibling species, D. aureopallescens. The first species prefers Calathea insignis; the second, Calathea lutea; but each has been bred from both species of Calathea. Isolation of closely related species of Drosophila is further advanced in the case of D. leukorrhyna and D. alani, belonging to the same species group (Pipkin, 1964). In various parts of Panamá, D. leukorrbyna has been bred consistently from Heliconia mariae; and D. alani, from Heliconia curtispatha. However, both species of Drosophila were netted at the same time from Heliconia mariae in eastern Panamá. Kinsey (1936) likewise found closely related species of gall wasps (Cynipidae) on distinct but related hosts. Habitat isolation in a given locality is complete for drosophilids with a single plant host such as D. nigrasplendens, D. bansoni, and D. mcclintockae at Cerro Campana, Panamá.

The same plant host may be used by a monophagous drosophilid (or its subspecies or closely related species) from widely separated geographical areas. For example, D. alexanderae from western Panamá uses Heliconia elongata. Its lighter subspecies (or closely related species) depends on the same host plant from central Panama to Trinidad, W. I. On the other hand, changes in plant hosts may occur where there is a history of long geographic isolation. Thus, D. bansoni at Cerro Campana, uses Heliconia vellerigera; but the closely related species, D. bansonioides, depends on Heliconia collinsiana in Rio Raposo, Colombia. South America was separated by an oceanic barrier from parts of Central America during most of the Tertiary. Heliconia vellerigera and Heliconia collinsiana are fairly closely related. Similarly, D. leukorrhyna and D. alani in Panamá have been bred only from Heliconia mariae and Heliconia curtispatha, respectively, but both species (or subspecies or closely related species) have been bred from Heliconia rostrata at Rio Raposo, Colombia. Geographical isolation has led to slight body color differences in strains of each of these Drosophila species and also to an evolution in the direction of monophagy in Panamá. This sort of evolution was predicted by Dethier (1954).

A recent change in host plant preference appears to have taken place for members of the polyphagous /lavopilosa species group. Females of these species have acuminate tipped ovipositors armed with prominent peripheral spines similar to those found on monophagous drosophilds ovipositing on tough, unopened flower buds. Flavopilosa group species develop both in tough flower buds of various plant species as well as in plant species with soft buds and large open flowers, among them, Hedychium coronarium, an introduced plant.

In the case of the widely distributed D, nigrasplendens, the species splitting of the host plant appears to have progressed more rapidly than that of the drosophilid. In different geographical areas the fly uses flowers of the closely related Heliconia subulata, Heliconia psittacorum, Heliconia schneeana, and an undescribed species as hosts. Morphologically D. nigrasplendens is similar in the different areas, but it is not possible to make breeding tests to ascertain the extent of cryptic genetic divergence. The host plants are structurally quite similar, but there are differences in the color of flowers, bracts, and fruits. The association of the distantly related D. xiphiphora and D. nigrasplendens in three of these Heliconia species strengthens the suggestion that the host dependence of the two Drosophila species antedates the species splitting of the ancestral Heli-Fossil Heliconia have been reported from the Middle Miocene of Venezuela, Cuba, and Trinidad (Berry, 1921, 1939, 1925) and the Pliocene of Colombia and Bolovia (Berry, 1922). This author states that tertiary plant genera of Acre, Brasil, recognized as fossils of late Pliocene (Berry, 1937) and those of the same date of Colombia (Berry, 1945) are all represented in present flora of these regions by closely related similar species. Since the ancestor of Heliconia psittacorum has differentiated into five

closely related species, it is possible to believe that the association of D. nierasplendens and D. xiphiphora dates back to the Pliocene at least.

Host preference of monophagous leaf-eating insects depends chiefly on attractant and repellant compounds in the leaves rather than on compounds necessary as food substances for normal larval development according to Dethier (1954), Franchel (1953), and Painter (1953). The preference of D. meclintockee for Aphelandra micans fits this hypothesis. This fly oviposits both on the flowering and on the fruiting spike of the host plant in spite of the fact that larval development is possible only on the flowering spikes (the larvae are pollen feeders). When oviposition of D. meclintockae is artificially induced by holding the females under crowded conditions, development is sufficiently normal for cultures of the fly species to be maintained. D. aureophallescens can be forced by crowding to oviposit on laboratory medium. The prolonged larval period and failure to eclose may depend upon differences in relative humidity between laboratory bottle and the semi-liquid contents of the calve pockers of the host plant.

The occurrence of monophagous flower-feeding Drosophila species in the neotropical forest where highly successful multispecific aggregations of polyphagous species of Drosophila exist is due to the advantage of exploiting an additional niche. Although a single-host drosophilid comprises about 95% of the insect output of its host plant, still as great a variety of polyphagous species of Drosophila (eight species) also may be bred during the wet season from such a plant as from another plant in the same plot supporting only polyphagous drosophilids. A limit of three to four monophagous species of Drosophila per locality appears to depend upon the presence in each locality of only three or four plant species with long flowering periods and occurring in sufficient numbers to support a Drosophila population.

In discussing the ecological regulation of species diversity, Connell and Orias (1964) argue that owing to a great stability of the physical environment in the tropics, "less energy is required for regulatory activities; that is, those that counter the challenges offered by the environment." Thus more energy remains for growth and reproduction resulting in large populations which are rather sedentary and become semi-isolated in the favorable environment. With the formation of species interrelationships, new niches are formed, promoting the splitting of species, according to these authors. Connell and Orias (1964) question the conclusion of Fischer (1960) that the increased diversity of species in the tropics over what is found in temperate areas depends simply on the longer period of undisturbed evolution in the tropics. On the other hand, the greater stability of modern neotropical environment compared with that in temperate areas is certainly only relative. Much of present-day neotropical forest, although enjoying a rather constant temperature throughout the year, possesses a distinct wet and dry season (Bennett, 1963) with pronounced effects on the seasonal fluctuations of various aggregations of Drosophila species (Pipkin, 1965a; Pipkin, 1953). In Panamá, only two ground-feeders, D. emarginata and D. fulvimacula, were present in fairly constant numbers throughout the year. Other species showed pronounced fluctuations either in the wet or in the dry season, depending on their food habits. According to Connell and Orias, (1964), the productive stable communities are supposed to produce larger populations which later become differentiated into a larger number of species. Nowadays the ground-feeding Drosophila in Panamá with the largest populations are the fleshy fruit breeders, but the number of species in this aggregation is only about 3/4 the number in the aggregation which breeds in small drier fallen fruits and blossoms (Pipkin, 1965 a).

The present study on neotropical flower-feeding Drosophila bears out the emphasis Connell and Orias (1964) have placed upon the promotion of niche diversity by interspecies relationships. Many examples of such relationships exist between species of Drosophila in the neotropical forest. For example, immature developmental stages of flower-feeders are passed entirely in living flowers which only augment the sites in which larval and pupal development of fungus and ground-feeders takes place. Only small numbers of individuals of polyphagous flower-feeders use the host plant of a monophagous drosophilid. Distantly related Drosophila species such as D. tibialis and D. leoni (or D. nigrasplendens and D. xiphiphora) consistently share a host plant species or a wide geographic area.

SUMMARY

A study has been made of plant host specificity of flower-feeding Drosophila collected in western, central, and eastern Panamá, the west coast of Colombia, Trinidad, W. I., and Leticia, Colombia, on the headwaters of the Amazon River. Three and four species of single host flower-feeding Drosophila species were found in each of two collecting areas, respectively, in central Panama. These flies were bred only from flowers of their special hosts and never from other plants in the vicinity. A fluctuation of population numbers of the drosophilid is correlated with the period of blossoming of the plant species. Monophagous flower-feeding Drosophila occupy plants with long blossoming periods of four to nine months. Other adaptations of monophagous drosophilids to the host plant concern body color and structural details of the ovipositor and egg filaments. About 5% of flies bred from flowers of plants serving monophagous Drosophila are polyphagous drosophilids; i.e., flower-feeders, ground-feeders, or fungus feeders. No evidence was found of larval competition between a monophagous Drosophila species and a polyphagous drosophilid sharing the same plant. Polyphagous flower-feeding drosophilids use a variety of host plants which generally have a short blossoming period of one to three months. These more versatile species have a wide range of distribution and include the cosmopolitan Drosophila busckii. Preferences for one plant host but tolerance for another have been found in the case of two sibling species of Drosophila using, respectively, two different members of the genus Calathea as primary hosts and each having as secondary host the primary host of its sibling Drosophila species. In addition, two monophagous flower-feeders

belonging to the same species group use two different Heliconia species in the same area. In different geographical areas, a monophagous Drosophila species depends either on the same plant host or on plant species very closely related within the genus. An association of the same two distantly related host specific drosophilids in different geographical areas is presumed to have been established in the Pliocene at least, antedating the differentiation of the ancestral Heliconia into five closely related plant species.

A number of polyphagous flower-feeding Drosophila species can be cultured on laboratory medium. With one exception monophagous flowerfeeders on this medium either (1) refuse to oviposit, or (2) undergo a prolonged larval and pupal state and fail to eclose. It has been possible to adapt one host specific Drosophila species to laboratory culture medium.

ACKNOWL EDGMENTS

For providing collection facilities, appreciation is expressed to Dr. Carlos Sanmartín-Barberi, Director, The Rockefeller Foundation Field Laboratory, Rio Raposo, Colombia; to Dr. Thomas H. G. Aitken, Director, The Trinidad Regional Virus Laboratory, Trinidad, W. I.; to Sr. Pablo Ondón, El Real, Panamá; to the late Dr. Gus Engler, Director of The United Fruit Company Hospital, Almirante, Panamá; and to Mr. Pablo Brackney, El Volcán, Panamá. Thanks are given Dr. Alan C. Pipkin, Sr., and Mr. Alan C. Pipkin, Jr., for making colored photographs of the plants; to Messrs. Alan C. Pipkin, Jr., and Lemuel M. Powers for help in collections, and to Mr. O. Ortiz for technical assistance. The authors are indebted to Dr. Clay Huff, Head, Department of Parasitology, The Naval Medical Research Institute, Bethesda, Md. and to Dr. W. P. Woodring, The U. S. National Museum, Washington, D. C., for discussions.

LITERATURE CITED

- Bennett, Charles F., Jr. 1963. A phytophysiognomic reconnaissance of Batro Colorado Island, Canal Zone. Smithsonian Misc. Collect. 145:1-8. (Publication 4527)
- Berry, E. W. 1921. Tertiary fossil plants from Venezuela. Proc. U.S. Nat. Mus. 59:533-579.
- 1925. The tertiary flora of the island of Trinidad, B.W.I. Studies in Geology No. 6:71-161. The Johns Hopkins Univ. Press, Baltimore, Md.
- ——. 1939. A Miocene flora from the gorge of the Yumuri River, Matanzas, Cuba. Studies in Geology No. 13:95-135. The Johns Hopkins Univ. Press. Baltimore. Md.

- 1945. Late tertiary fossil plants from eastern Colombia. Studies in Geology No. 14:171-194. The Johns Hopkins Univ. Press, Baltimore, Md.
- Connell, J. H., and E. Orias. 1964. The ecological regulation of species diversity. Amer. Natur. 98:399-414.
- Dethier, V. G. 1954. Evolution of feeding preferences in phytophagous insects. Evolution 8:33-54.
- Fischer, A. G. 1960. Latitudinal variations in organic diversity. Evolution 14:64-81.
- Fraenkel, G. 1953. The nutritional value of green plants for insects. Transcript of IX Int. Congr. Entomol., Amsterdam (1951) 2:90-100.
- Kinsey, A. C. 1936. The origin of higher categories in Cynips. Ind. Univ.
- Publ. (Science Service) 4:1-334.
 Painter, R. H. 1953. The role of nutritional factors in bost plant selection.
- Transcript of IX Int. Congr. Entomol., Amsterdam (1951) 2:101-105.
 Pipkin, S. B. 1952. Seasonal fluctuations in *Drosophila* populations at different altitudes in the Lebanon Mountains. Z. Induktive Abstammungs Vererbungslehre 84:270-305.
- . 1953. Fluctuations in Drosophila populations in a tropical area. Amer. Natur. 87:317-322.
- . 1964. New flower breeding species of Drosophila (Diptera, Drosophilidae). Proc. Entomol. Soc. Wash. 66:217-245.
- . 1965a. The influence of adult and larval food habits on population size of neotropical ground-feeding Drosophila. Amer. Midl. Natur. 74:1-27.
- 1965b. A new flower-feeding drosophilid. Proc. Entomol. Soc. Wash. (In press).
- Pipkin, S. B., and W. B. Heed. 1964. Nine new members of the Drosophila tripunctata species group (Diptora, Drosophilidae). Pacific Insects 6:256-273.
- Wagner, R. P. 1949. Nutritional differences in the mulleri group. Univ. Texas Publ. No. 4920:39-41.
- Wheeler, M. R., H. Takada, and D. Bmcic. 1962. The flavopilosa species group of Drosophila. Univ. Texas Publ. No. 6205:395-413.