

## **Geographic Variation in Host-Specificity and Parasitoid Pressure of an Herbivore (Geometridae) Associated with the Tropical Genus Piper (Piperaceae)**

Authors: Connahs, Heidi, Rodríguez-Castañeda, Genoveva, Walters, Toni, Walla, Thomas, and Dyer, Lee

Source: Journal of Insect Science, 9(28) : 1-11

Published By: Entomological Society of America

URL: <https://doi.org/10.1673/031.009.2801>

---

BioOne Complete ([complete.BioOne.org](https://complete.BioOne.org)) is a full-text database of 200 subscribed and open-access titles in the biological, ecological, and environmental sciences published by nonprofit societies, associations, museums, institutions, and presses.

Your use of this PDF, the BioOne Complete website, and all posted and associated content indicates your acceptance of BioOne's Terms of Use, available at [www.bioone.org/terms-of-use](https://www.bioone.org/terms-of-use).

Usage of BioOne Complete content is strictly limited to personal, educational, and non - commercial use. Commercial inquiries or rights and permissions requests should be directed to the individual publisher as copyright holder.

---

BioOne sees sustainable scholarly publishing as an inherently collaborative enterprise connecting authors, nonprofit publishers, academic institutions, research libraries, and research funders in the common goal of maximizing access to critical research.



## Geographic variation in host-specificity and parasitoid pressure of an herbivore (Geometridae) associated with the tropical genus *Piper* (Piperaceae)

Heidi Connahs<sup>1,a</sup>, Genoveva Rodríguez-Castañeda<sup>1,b</sup>, Toni Walters<sup>2,c</sup>, Thomas Walla<sup>2,d</sup> and Lee Dyer<sup>3,e</sup>

<sup>1</sup> 400 Boggs Ecology and Evolutionary biology, Tulane University, New Orleans, LA 70118

<sup>2</sup> Mesa state College, 1100 North Avenue, Grand Junction, Colorado 80501

<sup>3</sup> Biology Department, University of Nevada; Reno, Nevada

### Abstract

The extraordinary diversity of tropical herbivores may be linked to hostplant specialization driven in part by variation in pressure from natural enemies. We quantified levels of host-specificity and parasitoid attack for the specialist herbivore, *Eois* (Geometridae). The goals of this research were to examine: 1) whether *Eois* are specialized on the genus *Piper* (Piperaceae) and if hostplant specialization varies geographically; 2) whether *Eois* are equally vulnerable to parasitoid attack across different geographic regions and by the same parasitoid families; and 3) whether parasitism levels vary with precipitation and elevation. Based on over 15,000 rearings, we found *Eois* caterpillars feeding exclusively on *Piper*. However, we did not detect geographic differences in host-specificity; each *Eois* species fed on an average of two *Piper* species. Parasitism levels of *Eois* varied significantly with climate and topography; *Eois* were most vulnerable to parasitoid attack in moist versus dry and wet forests and at low versus high elevations. The diversity of parasitoid families reared from *Eois* was greater in Ecuador and Costa Rica than in Panama, where parasitoids were primarily in the family Braconidae. The quantitative evidence for host-specificity provides support for the hypothesis that *Eois* are specialized on *Piper*. Our results also reveal that *Eois* are exposed to a mosaic of potential selective pressures due to variation in parasitoid attack over a large spatial scale.

**Keywords:** *Eois*, caterpillars, diet breadth, parasitism, tropical forests, precipitation, elevation, Costa Rica, Panama, Ecuador

**Correspondence:** <sup>a</sup>hconnahs@tulane.edu, <sup>b</sup>grodri@tulane.edu, <sup>c</sup>toniwalter523@hotmail.com, <sup>d</sup>twalla@mesastate.edu, <sup>e</sup>ldyer@unr.edu

**Received:** 10 April 2008 | **Accepted:** 20 June 2008 | **Published:** 2 June 2009

**Associate Editor:** Jim Miller was editor of this paper

**Copyright:** This is an open access paper. We use the Creative Commons Attribution 3.0 license that permits unrestricted use, provided that the paper is properly attributed.

**ISSN:** 1536-2442 | Vol. 9, Number 28

#### Cite this paper as:

Connahs H, Rodríguez-Castañeda G, Walters T, Walla T, Dyer L. 2009. Geographic variation in host-specificity and parasitoid pressure of an herbivore (Geometridae) associated with the tropical genus *Piper* (Piperaceae). 11 pp. *Journal of Insect Science* 9:28, available online: [insectscience.org/9.28](http://insectscience.org/9.28)

## Introduction

A major goal of evolutionary ecology is to identify selective forces driving the evolution of specialization (Ehrlich and Raven 1964; Bernays and Graham 1988; Jaenike 1990). Most plant-feeding insects are relatively specialized, feeding on a few related plant genera or on plants belonging in a single family (Bernays and Graham 1988; Gratton and Welter 1999). Numerous hypotheses have been proposed to explain the advantages of specialization. In their seminal paper, Ehrlich and Raven (1964) postulated that herbivore specialization is an adaptation to specific host-plant secondary metabolites. An alternative view is that specialist herbivores benefit by escaping natural enemies or sequestering toxic plant compounds for their own defenses (Bernays and Graham 1988; Dyer 1995; Gratton and Welter 1999; Termonia et al. 2002; Vencl et al. 2005). Causal explanations of high herbivore specificity in the tropics are not well developed, but it is widely accepted that top-down and bottom-up forces can act in concert to influence herbivore populations and diet breadth (Price et al. 1980; Hunter and Price 1992; Forkner and Hunter 2000; Denno et al. 2005). One hypothesis to explain the putative high proportion of specialized insect herbivores focuses on tritrophic interactions and the concept that variation in plant defenses and pressure from natural enemies drive herbivores to specialize (Dyer 1995; Gratton and Welter 1999; Dyer and Coley 2002; Singer and Stireman 2005; Dyer et al. 2007). Empirical evidence suggests that pressure from natural enemies is more intense in the tropics (Jeanne 1979; Dyer and Coley 2002) and tropical plants are chemically ‘nastier’ due to a higher diversity of secondary compounds (Miller and Hanson 1989; Gauld and Gaston 1994; Coley and Barone 1996; Dyer and Coley 2002). Thompson (1988) proposed that geographic variation in trophic interactions could lead to locally adapted populations that follow unique and divergent evolutionary trajectories. Here, we argue that geographic variation in hostplant quality and natural enemy attack may provide a patchwork of selective pressures that promote herbivore specialization in tropical habitats.

If latitudinal gradients in diversity and specialization exist, then tropical forests are likely to be cradles of highly specialized interactions (McKenna and Farrell 2006). Within the tropics, geographic regions can include a variety of climatic conditions and are often composed of a mosaic of plant and animal assemblages, ranging from lowland dry and wet forests to montane tropical cloud forests. In the Neotropics, such topographic diversity and climatic variation can produce heterogeneous selective pressures across relatively short geographic distances. For example, plants in high rainfall forests are thought to be better defended against herbivores than plants in drier forests, due to greater leaf longevity, mechanical toughness and lower nutritional value (Coley and Aide 1991). It is also possible that natural enemies increase with

greater rainfall and reduced climate variability, causing lower herbivore density in wetter tropical forests (Coley and Barone 1996; Stireman et al. 2005; Dyer 2007). Changes in plant characteristics along rainfall or altitudinal gradients might have important effects on herbivore specialization and potential coevolutionary relationships with their hostplants and natural enemies.

It has been argued that the traditional approach for investigating the importance of top-down and bottom-up forces on herbivore populations has been unidimensional, with most studies focusing on a single site (Gripengberg and Roslin 2007). The goal of this study was to take a broad spatial approach to examine variation in measures of host specificity for larvae of the common and widely distributed genus *Eois* (Geometridae), an herbivore that utilizes the species rich plant genus *Piper* (Piperaceae). Further, we examined the incidence of parasitoid attack for *Eois* with changes in elevation and precipitation, as well as across geographic regions. Evidence for variation in parasitism and host specificity lends support to the hypothesis that specialization in the tropics is driven by spatial variation in tritrophic interactions.

To investigate spatial variation in host specificity and parasitism of *Eois*, we used data sets including more than 15,000 individual *Eois* caterpillars, reared either to adult or parasitoid, from forests in Costa Rica, Panama and Ecuador. Furthermore, we quantified hostplant specificity using two measures and compared levels of *Piper* specialization across geographic regions. Specifically, we addressed the following questions: 1) How specialized are *Eois* and does this specialization vary geographically? 2) Is there geographic variation in parasitism rates of *Eois*? 3) Do parasitism rates vary with elevation and precipitation; and 4) Are *Eois* vulnerable to attack from the same parasitoid families at different sites? Based on the known natural history of this system, as well as on theoretical considerations, we made the following predictions: 1) *Eois* are highly specialized on particular species within the genus *Piper*; 2) Herbivore specialization and parasitism rates vary geographically; 3) Parasitism is higher in wet forests due to greater plant defenses that prolong caterpillar development, thus increasing their exposure to parasitoids (Benrey and Denno 1997); 4) Parasitism will decrease with elevation due to the negative effects of cold temperatures on parasitoids (Mueller and Schmid-Hempel 1993); and 5) *Eois* will be attacked by the same parasitoid families at each site.

## Materials and Methods

### Study system

Piperaceae is one of the most diverse plant families in the Neotropics and includes *Piper*, which ranks among the top five species-rich genera in tropical rain forests (Gentry 1993; Greig 2004; Jaramillo 2006). *Piper* has a

Table 1. Descriptions of collecting sites.

Country	Site	Coordinates	Elevation (m)	Annual rainfall (mm)
Costa Rica	La Selva Biological Station	10°25'34.29"N, 84° 1'5.07"W	88.0	4000.0
Costa Rica	Tirimbina	10°23'56.26"N, 84° 8'6.23"W	180-220	3777.0
Panama	Parque Natural Metropolitano	9° 0'2.11"N, 79°33'5.60"W	78.0	1850.0
Panama	Altos de Campana, National Park	8° 43' 00.04"N, 79°52'00.62"W	1000.0	2500.0
Panama	Barro Colorado Island	9°10'N, 79°51'W	137.0	2600.0
Panama	Fort Sherman, Colon	9° 21' 50.5"N, 79°57'33.3"W	35.0	3600.0
Ecuador	Napo and Sucumbios	00°35.950S 077°54.364W	1000-2500	4500.0

pantropical distribution with nearly 2000 described species though its greatest diversity is found in Neotropical lowland forests (Jaramillo 2006, Quijano-Abril et al. 2006) particularly in the wet areas of the Andes (Greig 2004; Marquis 2004). Relatively few species of *Piper* are widely distributed and it has been suggested that their fragmented distribution patterns are related to historical tectonic events (Quijano-Abril et al. 2006). Plants in this genus exhibit a diverse range of growth forms, including vines, herbs, shrubs and small trees and occur in a wide range of habitats, from highly disturbed areas to the deep shade of the understory, most often in moist habitats (Jaramillo 2006; Tebbs 1989). *Piper* species contain a high diversity of phytochemicals; in the 112 species that have been investigated, researchers have identified 667 different secondary metabolites, many of which are deterrent to herbivores (Dyer et al. 2004a). Some of these compounds, such as imides and amides, are toxic to generalist herbivores (Dyer et al. 2003, 2004b); certain *Piper* species can produce up to 37 different imides/amides (Dyer et al. 2004a). The remarkable diversity of *Piper* compounds may thus exert strong pressure on herbivores to specialize (Dyer et al. 2003). *Piper* has been the focus of considerable research (reviewed by Dyer and Palmer 2004), and the arthropod communities associated with this genus show great potential as model study systems.

Caterpillars in the genus *Eois* are the most frequently encountered herbivores on *Piper*. *Eois* is one of the largest genera in the subfamily Larentiinae (Geometridae) and is noted for its species richness with 257 species reported worldwide (Scoble 1999; Brehm and Fiedler 2005) although many more likely await discovery. The associated distribution of *Eois* and *Piper* extends from Mexico to Chile and Argentina (Scoble 1999), where they occur in lowland and highland forests across a range of climatic conditions. *Eois* are generally considered to be weak dispersers (Brehm 2000) and caterpillars often occur at densities causing high levels of damage; sometimes completely defoliating young plants (all authors, pers. obs.). *Eois* caterpillars are relatively small, approximately 13–20 mm in their final instar and are mostly cryptic in coloration. Parasitoids are important agents of mortality for

insect larvae (Hawkins et al. 1997) and *Eois* are attacked by a suite of parasitoids including wasps primarily in the families, Braconidae and Ichneumonidae and flies in the family Tachinidae.

Study sites

Caterpillars were collected and reared from forests in Costa Rica, Panama and Ecuador that represent geographic regions that are separated by large distances and have a distinct evolutionary and geological history, including the rising of the Isthmus of Panama and the formation of the Ecuadorian Andes. These forests differed in elevation and climate, and were surveyed for different durations (see Table 1 for site details).

Collection methods

Caterpillar collections were carried out in Costa Rica from 1995–2007, Ecuador from 2000–2007 and in Panama from 2003 to 2005. In Costa Rica and Ecuador, caterpillars were collected from *Piper* plants either haphazardly, or by intensive sampling within 10m diameter plots. Leaves from individual *Piper* plants were collected and surveyed for caterpillars or eggs of *Eois*. In Panama, sampling was conducted by examining *Piper* plants present at each site, using fresh leaf damage and frass as cues for locating *Eois* caterpillars. On Barro Colorado Island, extensive searches were conducted on *Piper aequale* Vahl. and *Piper schiedeannum* Steud., since *Eois* are abundant on these plants. Only third to fifth (final) instars were included in statistical analyses across study sites.

Caterpillars were reared in plastic bags or cups in ambient conditions and fed fresh leaves as needed until pupation. Each caterpillar collected was assigned a unique number and logged into a database; recorded information included hostplant species, larval stage, collection date, locale, and for Ecuador, the site and altitude of the plot. *Piper* plants and *Eois* caterpillars were identified either to species or to morphospecies. We created digital images of *Eois* caterpillars throughout their development and recorded changes in coloration between instars to assist in morphospecies identification. Voucher specimens of *Eois* adults are deposited at the Smithsonian Institute, while parasitoids are in the collections of J. Stireman

(Tachinidae; Wright State University), J. Whitfield (Braconidae: Microgasterinae; University of Illinois), and S. Shaw (Meteorinae and Ichneumonidae; University of Wyoming).

Statistical Analyses

SAS (9.1) statistical software was used for all analyses. Associations between incidence of parasitism and categorical abiotic variables were assessed using logit models and two-way contingency tables. Incidence of parasitism (a dichotomous variable) included only data for which either a parasitoid or a moth emerged from a collected caterpillar. Levels of parasitism were calculated as the percentage of parasitoids reared from the total number of results (emerged adults and parasitoids). For analyses of parasitoid diversity, parasitoid wasps were separated by family as they exhibit a range of differences in their feeding ecology (Harvey and Strand 2002).

Hostplant specificity of *Eois* caterpillars was quantified using several methods. The traditional measure is the average number of plant species on which each *Eois* morphospecies was collected. This measure was supplemented with a Chao2 estimate, (Colwell and Coddington 1994) to estimate the number of *Piper* host species expected for an *Eois* species. Chao2 provides good predictive power for presence–absence data with small sample sizes. We also use modifications of Whittaker’s index of  $\chi$ diversity as a proxy for measuring specialization (Dyer et al. 2007) across *Piper* species. Specialization at the level of plant family was compared between *Eois* and other Neotropical Lepidoptera larvae using modifications of Whittaker’s  $\chi$ diversity index.

Results

Our Neotropical rearing database, which includes over 50,000 individual plant-caterpillar collections representing 95 plant families and 29 families of Lepidoptera, has produced 15,034 records for *Eois* (see Table 2 for *Piper* species). The results reveal that *Eois* is associated exclusively with *Piper*, and furthermore, that each *Eois* species is restricted to an average of approximately 2 species of *Piper* (Figure 1). We have reared 72 *Eois* morphospecies from Ecuador, 23 from Costa Rica and 6 from Panama. These were collected on 72 species of *Piper* (42 known species and 30 morphospecies). When we compared *Eois* species turnover per *Piper* species across geographic regions we found that values of host specificity are marginally greater in Ecuador than in Panama and Costa Rica (Figure 2). We also contrasted *Eois* hostplant specificity at the family level with data collected for other Macrolepidoptera. We obtained  $\chi$ diversity values of 1 for *Eois* and 0.86–0.95 for the remaining Macrolepidoptera, where 1 represents the highest level of host specificity (association with a single family).

Table 2. List of *Piper* plants sampled that are known to species

Collection Site	<i>Piper</i> species
Costa Rica	<i>Piper aequale</i>
	<i>Piper arboreum</i>
Costa Rica	<i>Piper auritum</i>
Costa Rica	<i>Piper biolleyi</i>
Costa Rica	<i>Piper biseriatum</i>
Costa Rica	<i>Piper cenocladum</i>
Costa Rica	<i>Piper colonense</i>
Costa Rica	<i>Piper glabratum</i>
Costa Rica	<i>Piper hispidum</i>
Costa Rica	<i>Piper holdridgeanum</i>
Costa Rica	<i>Piper imperiale</i>
Costa Rica	<i>Piper multiplinervium</i>
Costa Rica	<i>Piper peltatum</i>
Costa Rica	<i>Piper pseudobumbratum</i>
Costa Rica	<i>Piper reticulatum</i>
Costa Rica	<i>Piper schiedeianum</i>
Costa Rica	<i>Piper trigonum</i>
Costa Rica	<i>Piper urostachyum</i>
Costa Rica	<i>Piper virgulatorum</i>
Costa Rica	<i>Piper peltata</i>
Costa Rica	<i>Piper sanctifelis</i>
Ecuador	<i>Piper aff urostachyum</i>
Ecuador	<i>Piper augustum</i>
Ecuador	<i>Piper baezanum</i>
Ecuador	<i>Piper crassinervium</i>
Ecuador	<i>Piper ecuadorensis</i>
Ecuador	<i>Piper hispidum</i>
Ecuador	<i>Piper inmutatum</i>
Ecuador	<i>Piper lanceifolium</i>
Ecuador	<i>Piper longicauda</i>
Ecuador	<i>Piper marsupiferum</i>
Ecuador	<i>Piper napo-pastazanum</i>
Ecuador	<i>Piper obtusilimbium</i>
Ecuador	<i>Piper reticulatum</i>
Ecuador	<i>Piper schuppianum</i>
Ecuador	<i>Piper scutillimbium</i>
Ecuador	<i>Piper silvianum</i>
Ecuador	<i>Piper stiliferum</i>
Panama	<i>Piper aequale</i>
Panama	<i>Piper colonense</i>
Panama	<i>Piper cordulatum</i>
Panama	<i>Piper culebrinum</i>
Panama	<i>Piper dilitatum</i>
Panama	<i>Piper hispidum</i>
Panama	<i>Piper marginatum</i>

Table 2 (con't.)

Collection Site	Piper species
Panama	<i>Piper pseudofuligenium</i>
Panama	<i>Piper reticulatum</i>
Panama	<i>Piper schiedeianum</i>
Panama	<i>Piper tuberculatum</i>

In the lowlands (below 1,000m), *Eois* development from 1<sup>st</sup> instar until pupation takes 9–10 days, with an additional 12 days until adult eclosure. In the highlands (above 1,000m), *Eois* development from 1<sup>st</sup> instar until pupation takes approximately 29–30 days, with 23 days until adult eclosure. A total of 1,038 parasitoid individuals were reared from *Eois*, representing three wasp families, Braconidae (N=883), Eulophidae (N=12) and Ichneumonidae (N=81) as well as parasitoid flies in the family Tachinidae (N=76). Because we did not include 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> instars in our analyses, these results underestimate parasitism. Parasitoid wasps usually emerged from 3<sup>rd</sup> instar caterpillars, whereas tachinids most frequently emerged from pupae. Parasitoids were primarily solitary, with a single adult emerging from each caterpillar.

Across geographic regions, parasitism rates of *Eois* varied significantly, with the highest rates observed in Panama (43.48%), followed by Costa Rica (23.41%) and Ecuador (12.02%) (Figure 3) (DF = 2,  $\chi^2 = 472.05$ , P < 0.0001). Parasitism was significantly correlated with precipitation; higher rates were found in moist (52%) versus dry

(16.8%) and wet forests (13.7%) (Figure 4) (DF = 2,  $\chi^2 = 830.3$ , P < 0.0001). Parasitism was also significantly higher at low (<1000m; 35.23%) compared to higher elevations (10.5%; >1000–2500m+; DF = 1,  $\chi^2 = 539.6$ , P < 0.0001). The logit model revealed that precipitation was the best predictor of parasitism rate (Table 3).

Our analysis shows that *Eois* are generally attacked by the same parasitoid families across geographic regions, but there were significant differences in the proportion of parasitoid families reared from *Eois* (Figure 5) (DF = 4,  $\chi^2=401.9$ , P < 0.0001), with greater diversity occurring in Ecuador compared to Panama and Costa Rica, where parasitoids were primarily from the family Braconidae (Figure 5). Parasitoid family diversity was also significantly greater in wet versus dry forests (DF= 4,  $\chi^2= 320.1$ , P<0.0001) and at high versus low elevations (DF=1  $\chi^2 = 400.5$ , P < 0.0001). Furthermore, 64 of 76 tachinids and 74 of 81 ichneumonids were reared in the highlands, whereas 742 of 883 braconids were reared from the lowlands. Tachinids and ichneumonids were reared almost exclusively from wet forests, with the exception of 2 tachinids that were reared from a moist forest site (Panama). Braconids were reared from dry (N=58), moist (N=625) and wet forests (N=200).

Discussion

Our research is unique in that it is based on a large database documenting interactions within a single caterpillar genus, feeding on the same hostplant genus across a broad geographic range. We have demonstrated that *Eois*

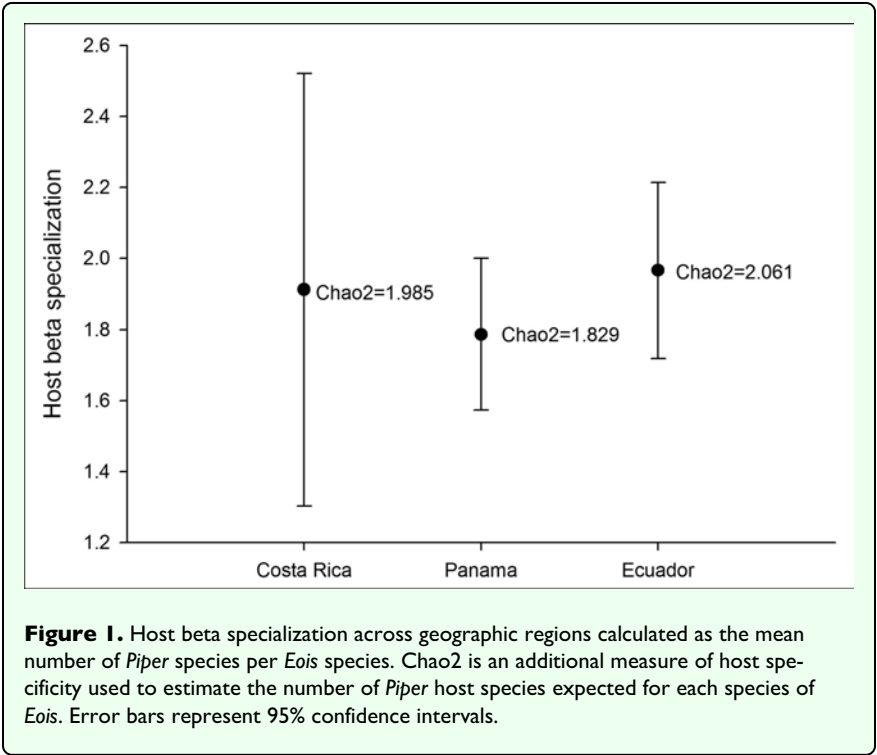
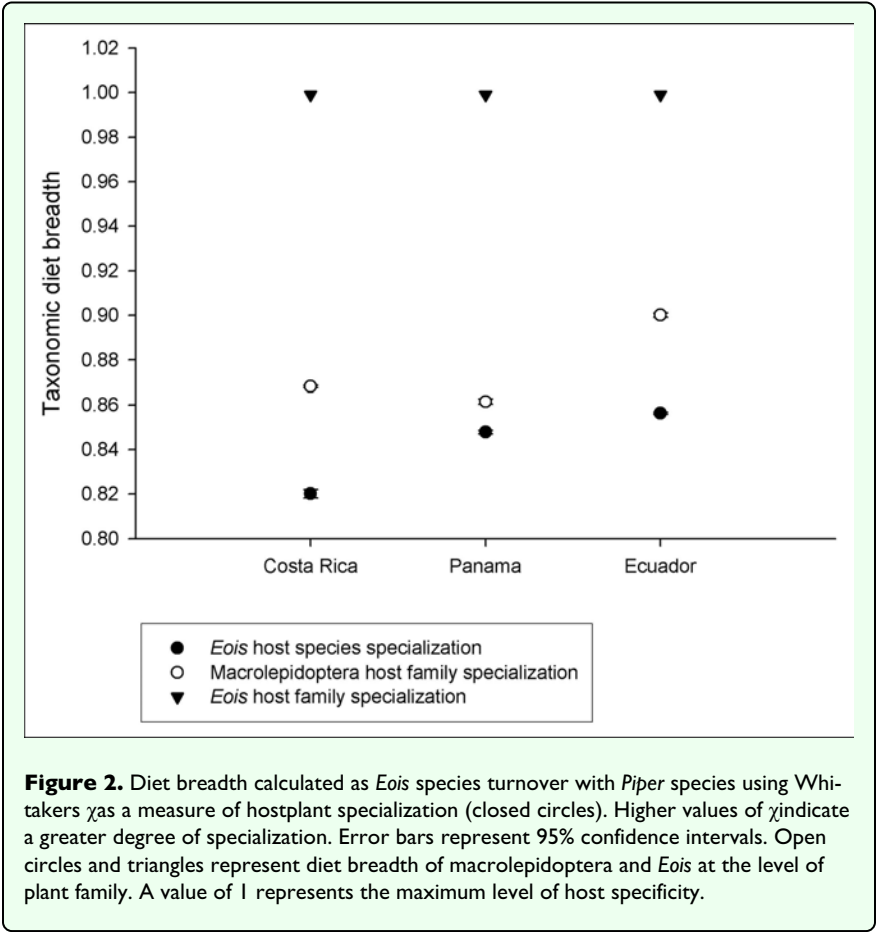
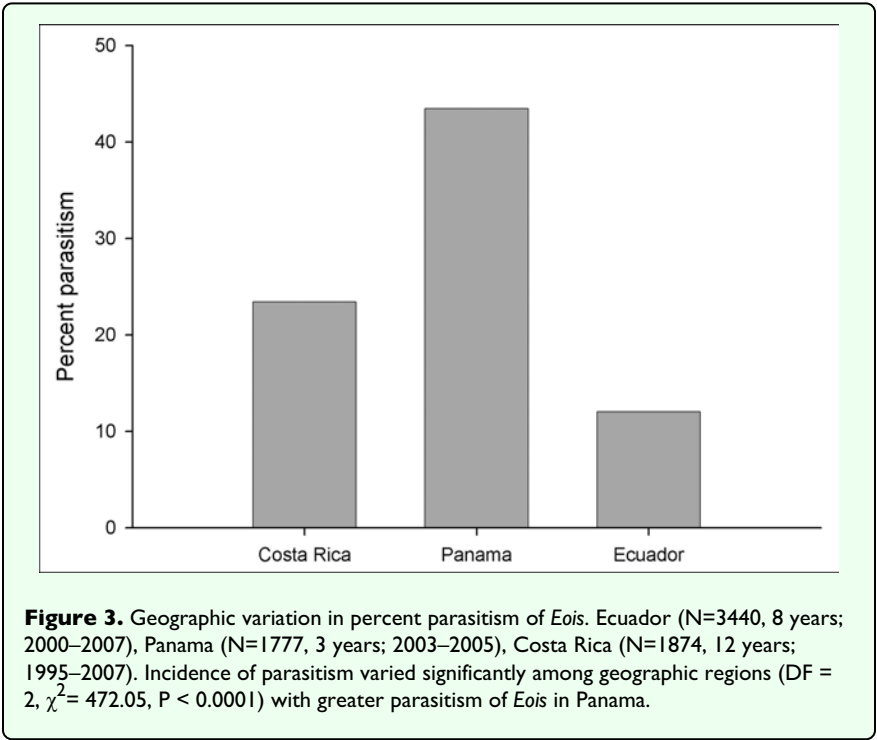


Figure 1. Host beta specialization across geographic regions calculated as the mean number of *Piper* species per *Eois* species. Chao2 is an additional measure of host specificity used to estimate the number of *Piper* host species expected for each species of *Eois*. Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals.

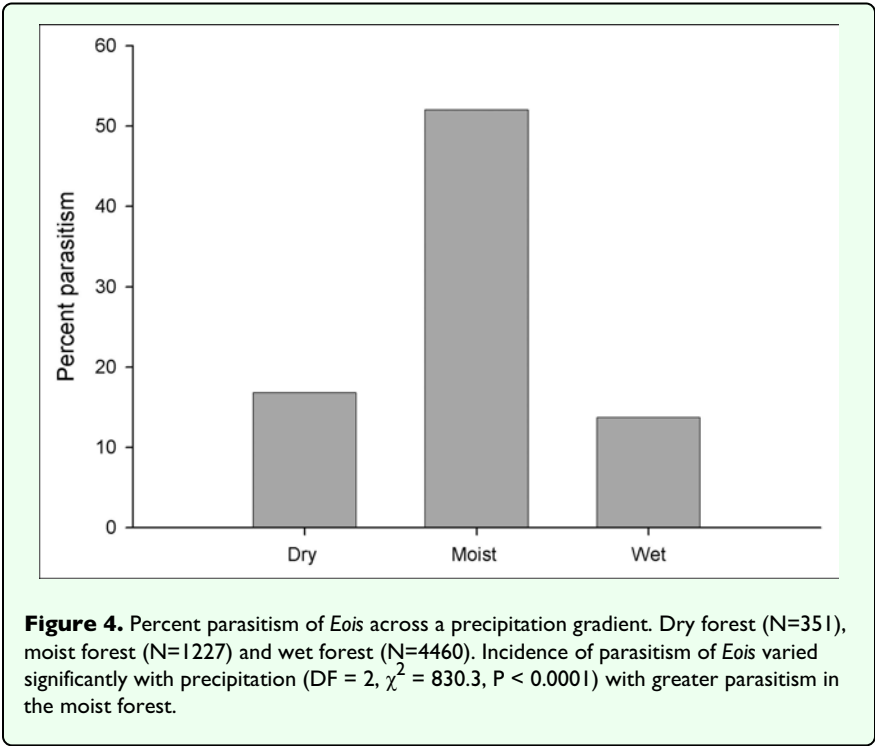




**Figure 2.** Diet breadth calculated as *Eois* species turnover with *Piper* species using Whittaker's  $\chi$  as a measure of hostplant specialization (closed circles). Higher values of  $\chi$  indicate a greater degree of specialization. Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals. Open circles and triangles represent diet breadth of macrolepidoptera and *Eois* at the level of plant family. A value of 1 represents the maximum level of host specificity.



**Figure 3.** Geographic variation in percent parasitism of *Eois*. Ecuador (N=3440, 8 years; 2000–2007), Panama (N=1777, 3 years; 2003–2005), Costa Rica (N=1874, 12 years; 1995–2007). Incidence of parasitism varied significantly among geographic regions (DF = 2,  $\chi^2 = 472.05$ ,  $P < 0.0001$ ) with greater parasitism of *Eois* in Panama.



**Table 3.** Analysis of Maximum Likelihood Estimates

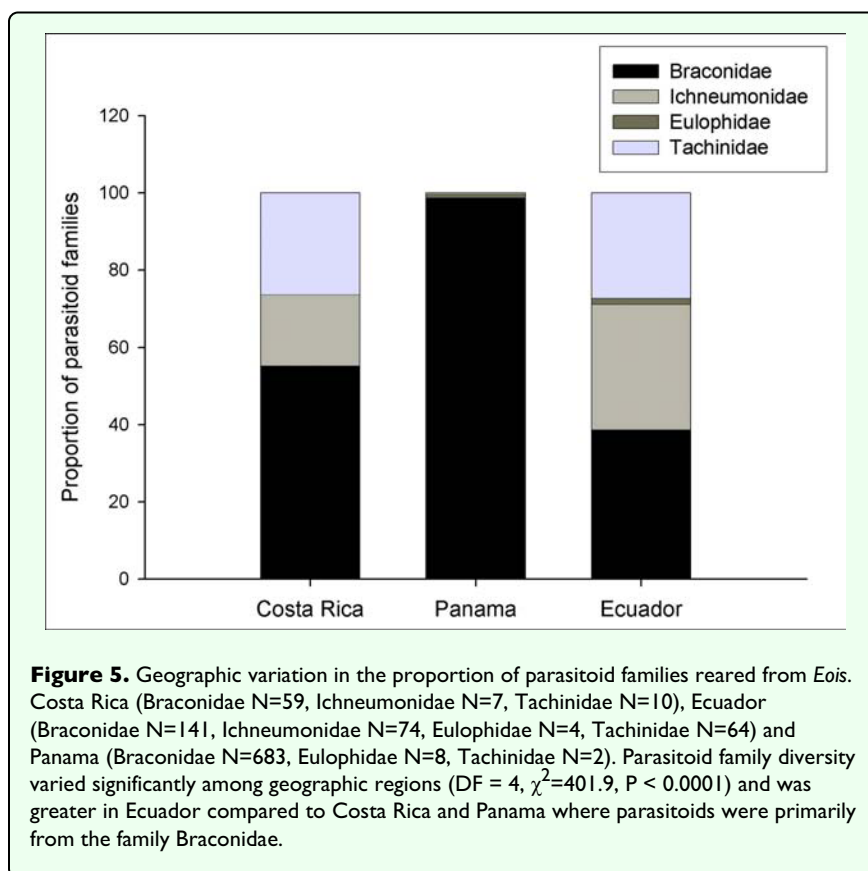
Paramater	Standardized Estimate	ChiSquare	Pr > ChiSq
precipitation*result	11.20	125.53	<.0001
	-1.23	1.51	0.22 <b>NS</b>
precipitation	-1.02	1.04	0.31 <b>NS</b>
	17.14	293.49	<.0001
elevation	-11.43	130.57	<.0001

larvae exhibit high levels of hostplant specialization (Figure 2). In terms of the relative degree of host specificity within *Piper*, our results did not support the hypothesis that host specificity varies geographically, as each species of *Eois* has a narrow diet breadth, usually including just one or two *Piper* species (Figure 1).

Despite the lack of variation in *Eois* diet breadth across our study sites, a mosaic of potential selective pressures from parasitism exists. First, we found support for our hypothesis that parasitism rates are higher at low elevations. Interestingly, parasitism rates of *Eois* were 3 times higher at low compared to high elevations, despite the fact that the caterpillars developed more rapidly in the lowlands (9–10 days to pupal stage versus 29–30 days at higher elevations). Our results do not provide support for the slow growth high mortality hypothesis (Clancy and Price 1987), since slow development was not associated with increased vulnerability to parasitoids. Second, *Eois* are exposed to striking differences in parasitism rates with

seasonal variation in rainfall and their susceptibility appears to be greatest in moist tropical forests (Figure 4). Thus, we did not find support for the hypothesis that parasitism is higher in wet forests. Whether these differences are related to interactions with parasitoids and plant chemistry, variation in plant quality on caterpillar development or climatic effects on parasitoids in dry and wet forests remains to be explored. There is evidence that young leaves are eaten more rapidly in the moist forest on BCI than in the drier Brazilian Cerrado or Mexican dry forest, and both young and mature leaves are eaten more rapidly on BCI than at the high rainfall Costa Rican forest, La Selva (Leigh et al. 2004). It appears that, along a gradient of increasing precipitation, there is a peak in the consumption rate of young leaves in transitional forests with dry seasons of intermediate length (Marquis et al. 2002). Therefore, seasonality may provide an important peak in caterpillar abundance for parasitoid foraging in moist versus dry forests where parasitoids may be more vulnerable to desiccation (Shapiro and





Pickering 2000). It is however currently unknown whether *Eois* are more abundant in moist versus dry and wet forests.

The comparison across geographic regions revealed that parasitism rates are significantly greater in Panama compared to Costa Rica and Ecuador (Figure 3). This pattern may be due to the lower diversity of parasitoid families observed in Panama (Figure 5). Similar to our study, Rodriguez and Hawkins (2000) also found higher rates of parasitism associated with lower parasitoid diversity. In Panama, caterpillars were primarily parasitized by braconids compared to Costa Rica and Ecuador where Tachinidae and Ichneumonidae were also reared from *Eois*. Why tachinids and ichneumonids were virtually absent from Panama is unclear. At least for tachinids, this pattern is not due to low abundance; equal proportions of parasitoid wasps and flies were reared from macrolepidopteran larvae in the same Panamanian forests from which *Eois* were also collected (dry forest, 53% versus 47%; wet forest, 51% versus 49% for wasps and flies respectively) (Connahs unpublished). There are likely to be a multitude of factors that vary across these sites, minimizing inferences that can be made about parasitoid foraging and behavior without further investigation.

Although we found significant variation in parasitism of *Eois*, measures of host specificity did not vary greatly across this broad geographic scale. While these results

may suggest that parasitoids do not influence *Eois* specialization, other records indicate that incidence of parasitism can vary significantly depending on the particular *Piper* host species (authors, unpublished data). Thus, it may be difficult to examine factors driving herbivore specialization on such a large spatial scale.

The radiation of *Piper* in the Neotropics appears to have been accompanied by high levels of *Eois* species diversity, particularly in the Andes (personal observations, all authors). *Piper* represents a dominant Neotropical plant genus (Gentry 1993); therefore this association may represent one of the most pervasive plant-herbivore interactions in tropical forests. We propose that the *Piper-Eois* system is an ideal model for addressing coevolutionary hypotheses for several reasons. First, we have demonstrated that *Eois* species are extremely host specific across a broad geographic scale. Second, *Piper* is known to contain metabolites toxic to generalist herbivores (Batista-Perieira et al. 2006, Fincher et al. 2008, Vanin et al. 2008), yet *Eois* appear to have overcome many of these toxins, and can completely defoliate particular species of *Piper*. Finally, many species of *Eois* are well camouflaged on *Piper* and exhibit specialized defensive behaviors such as regurgitation if disturbed. Regurgitation is an important defense for lepidopteran larvae (Gentry and Dyer 2002) and may contain toxic compounds repellent to parasitoids (Feltwell 1982). Preliminary data suggests that some *Eois* species sequester *Piper* compounds (Dyer et al.

2004a, Connahs unpublished), which could be used for defense. We suggest that reciprocal coevolution may be occurring between *Piper* and *Eois*, and is potentially mediated by variation in parasitoid pressure.

In order to adequately address questions regarding the relative importance of top down forces on the evolution of *Eois* diet breadth, more data are required on the phylogenetic relationships between *Piper*, *Eois* and their parasitoids. As Bernays and Graham (1988) pointed out, plant-insect interactions are ecologically dynamic and current associations do not represent the end-point of co-evolutionary processes that have occurred over millions of years. *Piper* is an ancient genus (Jaramillo 2006,) thus, uncovering the age of *Eois*' association with *Piper* would open up exciting opportunities for testing hypotheses on evolutionary mechanisms driving plant and insect diversity in tropical forests. The tropics are home to an extraordinary array of specialized relationships between plants and animals and as the natural history of these systems becomes better resolved, more interesting specialization stories are likely to emerge.

## Acknowledgments

Funding for part of this research was provided by a Short Term Fellowship by the Smithsonian Tropical Research Institute, Panama to H. Connahs. Major portions of the database were generated via funding from NSF (DEB0717173), National Geographic and Earthwatch Institute. We thank the following institutions and individuals for field work, logistics, or financial support: D. Windsor, S. Van Bael, A. Aiello, La Selva Biological Station, Yanayacu Biological Station and Center for Creative Studies, H. Greeney, A. Townsend, M. Gualinga, R. Granizo, W. Simbaña, H. Garcia, G. Vega, A. Smilanich, J. Simbaña, P. Van Zandt, W. Brackin and numerous Earthwatch volunteers. We also thank two anonymous reviewers whose comments greatly improved the manuscript.

## Editor's note

Paper copies of this article will be deposited in the following libraries. Senckenberg Library, Frankfurt Germany; National Museum of Natural History, Paris, France; Field Museum of Natural History, Chicago, Illinois USA; the University of Wisconsin, Madison, USA; the University of Arizona, Tucson, Arizona USA; Smithsonian Institution Libraries, Washington D.C. USA; The Linnean Society, London, England.

## References

- Batista-Pereira LG, Castral TC, da Silva MTM, Amaral BR, Fernandes JB, Vieira PC, da Silva MFGF, Correa AG. 2006. Insecticidal activity of synthetic amides on Spodoptera. *Zeitschrift für Naturforschung. C, A Journal of Biosciences* 61(3-4): 196-202.
- Benrey B, Denno RF. 1997. The Slow-Growth High-Mortality Hypothesis: A Test Using the Cabbage Butterfly. *Ecology* 78(4): 987-999.
- Bernays EA, Graham M. 1988. On the evolution of host specificity in phytophagous arthropods. *Ecology* 69: 886-892.
- Brehm G. 2000. Diversity of geometrids in a montane rain forest in Ecuador. *Dissertation zur Erlangung des Doktorgrades an der Fakultät Biologie/Chemie/Geowissenschaften der Universität Bayreuth*
- Brehm G, Fiedler K. 2005. Diversity and community structure of geometrid moths of disturbed habitat in a montane area in the Ecuadorian Andes. *Journal of Research on the Lepidoptera* 38: 1-14.
- Clancy KM, Price PW. 1987. Rapid herbivore growth enhances enemy attack: sublethal plant defenses remain a paradox. *Ecology* 68 : 3733-737.
- Coley PD, Aide TM. 1991. Comparison of herbivory and plant defenses in temperate and tropical broad-leaved forests. In: Price PW, Lewinsohn TM, Fernandes GW, Benson WW, editors. *Plant-Animal Interactions Evolutionary Ecology in Tropical and Temperate Regions*, pp. 25-49. John Wiley and Sons Inc.
- Coley PD, Barone JA. 1996. Herbivory and plant defenses in tropical forests. *Annual Review of Ecology and Systematics* 27: 305-335.
- Colwell RK, Coddington JA. 1994. Estimating terrestrial biodiversity through extrapolation. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London Series B* 345: 101-118.
- Denno RF, Lewis D, Gratton C. 2005. Spatial variation in the relative strength of top-down and bottom-up forces: causes and consequences for phytophagous insect populations. *Annales Zoologici Fennici* 42: 295-311.
- Dyer LA. 1995. Tasty generalists and nasty specialists - antipredator mechanisms in tropical lepidopteran larvae. *Ecology* 76: 1483-1496.
- Dyer LA, Coley PD. 2002. Latitudinal gradients in tritrophic interactions. In: Tschamtk T, Hawkins BA, editors. *Multitrophic level interactions*, pp. 67-80. Cambridge University Press.
- Dyer LA, Dodson CD, Stireman JO, Tobler MA, Smilanich AM, Fincher RM, Letourneau DK. 2003. Synergistic effects of three *Piper* amides on generalist and specialist herbivores. *Journal of Chemical Ecology* 29: 2499-2514.
- Dyer LA, Richards J, Dodson CD. 2004a. Isolation, synthesis and evolutionary ecology of *Piper* amides. In: Dyer LA, Palmer A, editors. *Piper: A model genus for studies of phytochemistry, ecology, and evolution*, pp. 117-134. Kluwer Academic/Plenum Publishers, NY Kluwer Academic/Plenum Publishers, NY
- Dyer LA, Letourneau DK, Dodson CD, Tobler MA, Stireman JO, Hsu A. 2004b. Ecological causes and consequences of variation in defensive chemistry of a Neotropical shrub. *Ecology* 85: 2795-2803.

- Dyer LA, Palmer A. 2004. *Piper: A model genus for studies of phytochemistry, ecology, and evolution*. Kluwer academic/Plenum publishers.
- Dyer LA, Singer MS, Lill JT, Stireman JO, Gentry GL, Marquis RJ, Ricklefs RE, Greeney HF, Wagner DL, Morais HC, Diniz IR, Kursar TA, Coley PD. 2007. Host specificity of Lepidoptera in tropical and temperate forests. *Nature* 448: 696-700.
- Dyer LA. In: Carson WP, Schnitzer SA, editors. 2007. Tropical tri-trophic interactions: Nasty hosts and ubiquitous cascades. *Tropical Forest Community Ecology*. Blackwell Science.
- Ehrlich PR, Raven PH. 1964. Butterflies and plants: a study in coevolution. *Evolution* 18: 586-608.
- Feltwell J. 1982. *Large white butterfly*. Dr W. Junk Publishers.
- Fincher RM, Dyer LA, Dodson CD, Richards JL, Tobler MA, Searcy J, Mather JE, Reid AJ, Rolig JS, Pidcock W. 2008. Inter- and Intraspecific Comparisons of Antiherbivore Defenses in Three Species of Rainforest Understory Shrubs. *Journal of Chemical Ecology* 34: 558-574.
- Forkner RE, Hunter MD. 2000. What goes up must come down? Nutrient addition and predation pressure on oak herbivores. *Ecology* 81: 1588-600.
- Gauld ID, Gaston KJ. 1994. The taste of enemy-free space: parasitoids and nasty hosts. In: Hawkins BA, Sheehan W, editors. *Parasitoid community ecology*, pp. 279-299. Oxford University Press.
- Gentry AH. 1990. Four Neotropical Rainforests. Yale University Press.
- Gentry AH. 1993. *A Field Guide to the Woody Plants of Northwest South America (Colombia, Ecuador, Perú), with Supplementary Notes on Herbaceous Taxa*. Washington, DC. Conservation International 895
- Gentry GL, Dyer LA. 2002. On the conditional nature of neotropical caterpillar defenses against their natural enemies. *Ecology* 83: 3108-3119.
- Gratton G, Welter SC. 1999. Does “enemy-free space” exist? Experimental host shifts of an herbivorous fly. *Ecology* 80(3): 773-785.
- Greig N. 2004. Introduction. In: Dyer LA, Palmer A, editors. *Piper: A model genus for studies of phytochemistry, ecology, and evolution*, pp. 1-4. Kluwer academic/Plenum publishers.
- Gripenberg S, Roslin T. 2005. Host plants as islands: Resource quality and spatial setting as determinants of insect distribution. *Annales Zoologici Fennici* 42: 335-345.
- Harvey JA, Strand MR. 2002. The developmental strategies of endoparasitoid wasps vary with host feeding. *Ecology* 83(9): 2439-2451.
- Hawkins BA, Cornell HV, Hochberg ME. 1997. Predators, parasitoids and pathogens as mortality agents in phytophagous insect populations. *Ecology* 78(7): 2145-2152.
- Hunter MD, Price PW. 1992. Playing chutes and ladders: heterogeneity and the relative roles of bottom-up and top-down forces in natural communities. *Ecology* 73: 724-32.
- Jaenike J. 1990. Host specialization in phytophagous insects. *Annual Review of Ecology and Systematics* 21: 243-273.
- Jaramillo MA. 2006. Using *Piper* species diversity to identify conservation priorities in the Choco region of Colombia. *Biodiversity and Conservation* 15: 1695-1712.
- Jeanne RL. 1979. A latitudinal gradient in rates of ant predation. *Ecology* 60: 1211-1224.
- Leigh EG, Davidar P, Dick CW, Puyravaud JP, Terborgh J, Steege HT, Wright SJ. 2004. Why do some tropical forests have so many species of trees? *Biotropica* 36(4): 447-473.
- Marquis RJ, Morais HC, Diniz IR. 2002. Interactions among Cerrado plants and their herbivores: Unique or typical? In: Oliveira PS, Marquis RJ, editors. *The Cerrados of Brazil*, pp. 306-328. Columbia University Press.
- Marquis RJ. 2004. Biogeography of Neotropical *Piper*. In: Dyer LA, Palmer A, editors. *Piper: A model genus for studies of phytochemistry, ecology, and evolution*, pp. 78-94. Kluwer academic/Plenum publishers.
- McKenna DD, Farrell BD. 2006. Tropical forests are both evolutionary cradles and museums of leaf beetle diversity. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America* 103: 10947-10951.
- Miller JC, Hanson PE. 1989. Laboratory feeding tests on the development of gypsy moth larvae with reference to plant taxa and allelochemicals. *Bulletin of the Agricultural Experimental Station, Oregon State University* 674: 1-63.
- Mueller CB, Schmid-Hempel P. 1993. Exploitation of cold temperature as defense against parasitoids in bumblebees. *Nature* 363: 65-67.
- Price PW, Bouton CE, Gross P, McPherson BA, Thompson JN, Weis AE. 1980. Interactions among three trophic levels: influence of plants on interactions between insect herbivores and natural enemies. *Annual Review of Ecology and Systematics* 11: 41-65.
- Quijano-Abril MA, Callejas-Posada R, Miranda-Esquivel DR. 2006. Areas of endemism and distribution patterns for Neotropical *Piper* species (Piperaceae). *Journal of Biogeography* 33: 1266-1278.
- Rodríguez MÁ, Hawkins BA. 2000. Diversity, function and stability in parasitoid communities. *Ecology Letters* 3 : 135-40.
- Scoble MJ. 1999. Geometrid moths of the world: A catalogue. *CSIRO*
- Shapiro BA, Pickering J. 2000. Rainfall and parasitic wasp (Hymenoptera: Ichneumonidae) activity in successional forest stages at Barro Colorado Nature Monument, Panama and La Selva Biological station Costa Rica. *Agricultural and Forest Entomology* 2: 39-47.
- Singer MS, Stireman JO. 2005. The tri-trophic niche concept and adaptive radiation of phytophagous insects. *Ecology Letters* 8: 1247-1255.
- Stireman JO, Dyer LA, Janzen DH, Singer MS, Lill JT, Marquis RJ, Ricklefs RE, Gentry GL, Hallwachs W, Coley PD, Barone JA, Greeney HF, Connahs H, Barbosa P, Morais HC, Diniz IR. 2005. Climatic unpredictability and parasitism of caterpillars: Implications of global warming. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America* 102: 17384-17387.

- Tebbs MC. 1989. Revision of *Piper* (Piperaceae) in the New World. 1. Review of characters and taxonomy of *Piper* section *Macrostachys*. *Bulletin of the Natural History Museum of London* 19: 117-158.
- Termonia A, Pasteels JM, Windsor DM, Milinkovitch MC. 2002. Dual chemical sequestration: a key mechanism in transitions among ecological specialization. *Proceedings of the Royal Society of London, B* 269: 1-6.
- Thompson JN. 1988. Coevolution and alternative hypotheses on insect/plant interactions. *Ecology* 69(4): 893-895.
- Vanin SA, Ramos CS, Guimarães EF, Kato MJ. 2008. Insect feeding preferences on Piperaceae species observed in São Paulo city, Brazil. *Revista Brasileira de Entomologia* 52(1): 72-77.
- Vencl FV, Nogueira-de-Sa' F, Allen BJ, Windsor DM, Futuyma DJ. 2005. Dietary specialization influences the efficacy of larval tortoise beetle shield defenses. *Oecologia* 145: 404-414.