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**KASVUJÄRK KUI PIIRANGUTE ALLIKAS  
PUTUKATE KEHASUURUSE DETERMINATSIOONIS**

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## **Eessõna**

Käesolev magistritöö koosneb kahest osast.

Esimene osa kujutab endast referatiivset ülevaadet putukate kehasuuruse evolutsiooni uurimise taustprobleemidest. Kõigepealt käsitletakse probleemi evolutsionilis-ökoloogilist aspekti ehk siis analüüsitarakse kehasuurust mõjutavaid valikufaktoreid. Selgitatakse, et putukate liigiomaseid kehasuuruse väärtsi pole just lihtne seletada optimaalsusparadigma raames ja seega võiks eeldada piirangute olulist rolli evolutsionifaktorina. Edasi antakse ülevaade kehasuuruse determinatsiooni füsioloogilistest mehhanismidest, mille iseärasustest võivad asjaomased piirangud tuleneda. Kahte aspekti sünteesides selgitatakse magistritöö empiirilises osas analüüsitarava probleemi aktuaalsust nii evolutsionilise ökoloogia kui ka füsioloogia seisukohalt. Referatiivse osa koostamise eesmärgiks oli koondada empiirilise uurimise seisukohalt vajalikku taustinfot, seda nii töö autori kui ka töö lugejate tarbeks ja huvides.

Magistritöö teine osa on originaalandmetel tuginev empiiriline üksikuurimus. Töö esimene eesmärk oli uurida liblikavastse kasvujärgu algkaalu ja lõppkaalu vahelise seose erinevust liigitati. Teiseks eesmärgiks oli võrrelda omavahel kõnealuse korrelatsiooni geneetilist ja keskkonnafaktoritest tulenevat komponenti. Urimus on vormistatud rahvusvahelise teaduspublikatsiooni formaati järgides.

# I

## **Kehasuuruse determinatsioon putukatel: evolutsionilised ja füsioloogilised aspektid**

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Referatiivne ülevaade probleemidest.

## Sissejuhatus

Kehasuurus on üks tähtsamaid elukäiguparameetreid, seda eeskätt tänu tihedale seosele organismi kohasusega (Roff 1992, Stearns 1992). Nii näiteks on sellised kohasuse komponendid nagu viljakus, kurna suurus, eluiga, paarumisedukus ja edukus kiskjate välimises nii või teisiti kehasuurusega seotud. Samuti on kehasuurus ilmselt kõige sagedamini kasutatavaks kohasuse praktiliseks mõõduks

Suurem on enamasti “parem” (“*bigger is better*”), üks üldisemaid põhjusi selleks on ektotermsetel loomadel valitsev tugev positiivne korrelatsioon kehasuuruse ja viljakuse vahel, näiteks vähilaadsetel (Ward 1988), ämblikulaadsetel (Vertainen jt 2000), putukatel (vt all), kaladel (Morita & Takashima 1998); ka endotermsete loomade emase kehasuurus korreleerub tavaliselt positiivselt järglaste kvaliteediga. Teiseks üldreegiks on suurte isaste eelis vahetus konkurentsis (*contest competition*) (nt Jivoff & Hines 1998). Seega on viljakuse eelis ja konkurentsivõime kaks peamist selektiivset faktorit, mis soositavad suurt kehamassi (Blanckenhorn 2000).

Suурte kehamõõtmetega/kehamassiga on aga paratamatult seotud teatud kulud, mis võib jagada kaheks rühmaks:

1) kehasuuruse saavutamisega seotud kulud - suure kaalu saavutamine nõuab kas:

- pikemat kasvuperiodi, mis suurendab riski mitte elada suguküpsetuseni, nt. kiskluse, ebasoodsate ilmastikutingimustele vms. tõttu – üldlevinud on arvamus, et isendi optimaalse suuruse määrab lõivsuhe suure kaalu kasuks toimiva valiku ja edasilükatud suguküpse saabumise hinna vahel (Stearns 1992);
- kõrgemat kasvukiirust, mis sageli eeldab riskantsemat toitumisviisi või füsioloogilist lisastressi (Gotthard 2000);

2) kulud, mis on seotud suure kaalu enesega:

suured isendid võivad olla kiskjate poolt hõlpsamini leitavad (nt Gunnarson 1998), piiratuma liikumisvõimega, suured isased võivad ka kohmakuse tõttu vahetus konkurentsis alla jäädva (nt Moczec & Emlen 2000). Blanckenhorn (2000) annab üksikasjaliku ülevaate suurte kehamõõtmetega seotud kuludest Kehasuurus kui kohasust mõjutav tunnus on seega nii loodusliku kui ka sugulise valiku objektiks. Valikusurve võib sooti erineda, mis viib sugulise dimorfismi tekkele. Suguline valik ja looduslik valik võivad mõjutada optimaalset kehasuurust ka vastandlikult (Fairbairn 1997).

## **Kehakaalu seos kohasusega putukatel**

Üldine seaduspärasus kehakaalu positiivse korrelatsioonist isendi kohasusega kehtib ka putukatel, viljakuse eelis ja isastele rakenduv suguline valik on ka putukatel kaks peamist jõudu, mis soosivad suurt kehakaalu (determineeritud kasvuga putukarühmadel on loodusliku valiku peamiseks objektiks kaal metamorfoosil).

### **Suurte kehamõõtmete eelised putukatel**

- Ektotermsete loomadele omane kehakaalu positiivne korrelatsioon viljakusega ja/või kurna suurusega on ehk kõige selgemalt väljendunud just putukatel, see on jälgitav nii vaegmoondega (nt McLain jt 1990), kuid eelkõige just täismoondega rühmadel (nt Kimura & Tsubaki 1986, Tammaru jt 2002). Kaalu seos viljakusega on tavaliselt lineaarne (Honěk 1993) ja on tugevam varusigijatel (*capital breeders*), st nendel putukatel, kes valmikuna ei toitu või vähemalt ei mõjuta neil valmikuelu jooksul kogutud ressursid oluliselt viljakust (nt kõik ühepäevikulised, ehmestiivalised, paljud liblikaliigid). Varusigijatele vastanduvad tulusigijad (*income breeders*), kel valmikuelu jooksul kogutud ressurss (toiduna või ka nn pulmakinkide kujul), mõjutab oluliselt viljakust (nt Fischer jt 1998).
- Suguline valik võib soosida suurt kehakaalu mõlemal sool, nt. valikulise paarumise puhul, kui mõlemad sugupooled eelistavad suurte mõõtmetega partnerit (Brown 1990). Siiski näib sugulise valiku mõju isaste kehamassile palju levinum ja mitmekesisem: suured isased kas võidavad vahetus konkurentsis emaste või territooriumide (Risa & Rosenberg 1991) pärast, ka leiavad nad emaseid kergemini (Hanks jt 1996) või on edukamat partneri suhtes selektiivsete emasete vastupanu murdmises (Teder 2005).
- Kehakaal korreleerub positiivsel vastupidavusega ebasoodsate keskkonnatingimuste suhtes: esiteks, suuremad isendid on reeglina parema kvaliteediga, teiseks, keha suurenemisega kaasneb pindala/ruumala suhte vähenemine ja seega kasvab vastupidavus keskkonna poolt tekitatud füsioloogilise stressile. Trend on jälgitav nii isendite (Ohgushi 1996) kui ka liikide vahelise võrdluse tasemel (Le Lagadec 1998).
- Veel üheks suure kehamassi potentsiaalseks eeliseks on nn suuruse

pelgupaiga (*size-refugium*) teke. Teisisõnu, suuremad kehamõõtmed muudavad isendi liiga suureks paljude looduslike vaenlaste jaoks; ämblikulaadsete puhul on selline efekt eksperimentaalset kinnitust leidnud (Higgins 2002), putukate kohta pole ma suutnud vastavaid töid leida.

### **Väikeste kehamõõtmete eelised**

Lisaks ülalkirjeldatud suure kehakaalu enesega või selle saavutamisega seotud riskide vähenemisele võib väike kehakaal olla soositud sugulise valiku mehhanismidega; erijuhtudel esineb ka kehamõõtmete ülemise piiri jäika kontrolli loodusliku valiku poolt.

- Tugev konkurents isaste vahel emaste pärast soosib isaste kasvuperioodi lühinemist, mis viib isaste koormisele enne emaseid ehk protandria tekkele; lühenedud kasvuperiodiga võib kaasneda ka vähenenud kehakaal (Singer 1982).
- Väiksemad isased võivad olla edukamat vahetus konkurentsis tänu paremale liikuvusele. Näiteks võib efemeersete substraatide kasutamise puhul osa isendeid olla sunnitud lõpetama oma kasvu madala kehakaalu juures, mis küll tähendab isaste madalamat kohasust vahetu jõukatsumise puhul, kuid väikesed kehamõõtmed annavad eelise, kui oluline on manööverdamisvõime (Moczec & Emlen 2000).
- Mõnikord looduslik soosib valik väkest kehakaalu ka seeläbi, et toiduobjekt võib toimida lõksuna suurematele isenditele: on kirjeldatud olukord, kus liiga suured mardikad ei suuda väljuda vastse toiduks olnud taimeseemne kestas olevast avast ja seeläbi hukkuvad (Ott & Lampo 1991).

### **Varieeruv kehakaal ja kohasus**

- Efemeersete toiduallikate/toitmiskohtade kasutamisel võib kasvuperioodi pikkus olla ettearvamatu – liiga lühike kasvuperiod viib väiksemale valmikukaalule ja madalamale kohasusele, pikk kasvuperiod on aga riskantne ressursside olemasolu lühiajalisuse tõttu. Sellistes tingimustes on vastse kasvuperiodi varieeruvus vaadeldav kindlustusstrateegiana (*bet-hedging*): ressursside kiirel amendumisel saavutavad kõrgema kohasuse lühikese kasvuperiodiga isendid, sobilike kasvutingimuste kestmisel seevastu

pikema kasvuperioodiga isendid. Sellist strateegiat on kirjeldatud kevikulitel (Schultheis jt 2002).

## **Putukate kehakaalu määrävad füsioloogilised mehhanismid**

### **Kasvujärgud kui võimalike piirangute allikas**

Putukatel nagu ka teistel lülialgsetel moodustavad kõvad väliskatted jäiga välistoese, mis pakub tuge siseelunditele, kinnituskoha skeletilihastele ja kaitset välismõjude eest. Putukate väliskatted koosnevad epidermisest ja selle poolt eritatud kutiikulist. Viimane on kolmekihiline (epi-, ekso- ja endokutiikul), kitinist moodustatud ja täiskasvanutel putukatel suures osas sklerotiseerunud.

Mitteveniv välisskelett tekitab arusaadavalt probleeme organismi kasvamisel, probleem on lülialgsetel lahendatud kestumisega ehk siis kehakatete perioodilise uuendamisega. Organismi kasv on seega diskreetne: kasvuperiood on jagatud teatud arvuks kasvujärkudeks, mis on teineteisest kestumisega eraldatud. Diskreetse kasvu tähtsaks omaduseks on selle suhteline mittepaindlikus: kasvuperiood ei saa peatuda suvalisel hetkel, vaid ainult kasvujärgu lõpus. Seega võib kasvu diskreetne iseloom võib kujutada endast olulist füsioloogilist piirangut optimaalse kaalu saavutamisel (Ebert 1994, Tammaru 1998).

Ontogeneesi käigus optimaalsete tingimuste juures kasvab putuka kehakaal peaegu eksponenttsiaalselt. Kasvujärkude arv putukatel varieerub suures ulatuses sõltuvalt taksonoomilisest rühmast, alatest 1 mõnedel parasitoididel (Jarjees & Merritt 2002) kuni 34 (Clifford jt 1978) kevikulitel Täismoondega putukatel on kasvujärkude arv üldiselt väike, mis on tingitud kutiikula omadustest. Kasvujärkude arv antud liigi sees pole sageli determineeritud ja võib varieeruda sõltuvalt keskkonnatingimustest, soost ja geneetilisest taustast (Esperk & Tammaru, ettevalmistamisel olev käsikiri).

## **Putukate kestumistsükli regulatsioonist**

Kestumistsükkel kujutab endast kindlasuunalist putuka kehakatetes toimuvate protsesside jada, mis viib kutiikuli perioodilise uuenemisele ja kasvule. Lihtsustatud kujul see välja näeb järgmiselt: 1) vana kutiikul eraldub seda vooderdavatest epidermise rakkudest (apolüüs); 2) epidermise rakud prolifereeruvad ja sünteesivad uue epi- ja eksokutiikul; 3) vana kutiikul heidetakse maha (toimub kestumine, *ecdysis*); 4) epidermise poolt sünteesitakse uus endokutiikul. Seega on kestumine kui niisugune vaid üks kestumistsükli osa. Alljärgnev ülevaade põhineb allikale Nijhout (1994).

Kestumistsükli regulatsioon on neurohumoraalne ja on põhimõtteliselt ühetaoline kõikidel putukarühmadel, selle eri järgud moodustavad selgroogsete hüotalamo-pituitaarsüsteemi meenutava hierarhilise ahela ehk peaaju-eesrindmikunäärmete telje:

- Peaaju neurosekretoorsed rakud toodavad protorakotroopset hormooni (PTTH), mis neurosekretoorsete neuronite kaudu saadetakse hormooni ladestuskohta e. neurohemaalsesse organisse: kas kardiaalkehadesse (enamus putukaid), või allataalkehade neurosekretoorse ossa (liblikalised). Teatud (suures osas siiski teadmata, vt allpool) välis- ja sisesignaalide toimel kesknärvisüsteemile PTTH eritub hemolümfis ja avaldab mõju oma märklaudelundile, protorakaalnäärmetele.
- Protorakaal- e eesrindmikunäärmmed on kestumishormoonide e. ekdüsteroidide eritumiskohtadeks. Valdaval enamusel putukatest (v.a. *Apterygota*) esinevad vaid vastsetel. PTTH toimel vallandub eesrindmikunäärmetes ekdüsteroidide süntees ja eritumine.
- Epidermise rakud on kestumiskaskaadi lõpulülik. Kestumishormoonide toimel algab apolüüs ja epidermise rakkude proliferatsioon.

## **Kestumisel osalevad hormoonid ja nenede tiitrid kestumistsükli välitel**

Protorakotroopsed hormoonid (PTTH) on peaaju neurosekretoorsete rakkude poolt eritatav polüpeptiidide rühm. Ainuke teadaolev PTTH funksioon on kestumishormoonide eritumise stimuleerimine eesrindmikunäärmates - iga kestumistsükkel, sõltumata putuka arengustaadiumist, algab PTTH sekretsionist. Vähemalt paljude putukafüsioloogiliste tööde objektiks olnud tubakasurul (*Manduca sexta*) on PTTH eritumine seotud valguspäeväritmiga

ning toimub kindla ööpäeva osa, nn fotoperiodilise akna (*photoperiodic gate*, Truman 1972) sees.

- Ekdüsteroidid e ekdüsoonid e kestumishormoonid ( $\alpha$ -ekdüsoon, 3-dehüdroekdüsoon jt) – eesrindmikulnäärmetes või nende analoogides sünteesitavad hüdroksüleeritud steroidid ja nende aktiivsed metaboliidid. Põhitoimeks on kestumisprotsessi regulatsioon epidermise rakkude tasemel ja kudede diferentseerimise kontroll. Ekdüsteroidide tiiter hakkab kasvama varsti pärast PTTH sekretsiooni algust, ning järgmisesse vastsejärku kestumisel kujutab endast sümmeetrilist tippu lõpuga vahetult enne kestumist.
- Juveniilhormoonid (JH) on allataalkehade sekretoorse osa poolt eritatavad hormoonid - farnesoaadist pärinevate terpenoidide rühm, viis struktuurselt sarnast rasvlahustuvat ühendit. Need ühendid toimivad isendi arengule läbi geeniekspressiooni regulatsiooni ühe või mitme geeni tasemel, seega on toimespektor väga lai: nad osalevad paljunemise, metamorfoosi, kasti determineerimise, värvuspolümorfismi, käitumise ja teiste protsesside regulatsioonis, põhjustades nii otseseid füsioloogilisi efekte kui ka ulatuslikke arengulisi muutusi. Ontogeneesi teatud kriitiliste perioodide välitel tagab kõrge JH tiiter käesoleva arengustaadiumi püsimist, vastasel juhul toimub geeniekspressiooni muutus ja arenguraja ümberlülitamine. Arenguraja muutumine JH toimel vajab tavaliselt kestumishormoonide juuresolekut, JH määratleb sellega kestumise iseloomu (vastne/vastne vs. vastne/nukk või nukk/valmik). Nii täis- kui vaegmoondega putukatel jääb JH tiiter kõrgeks viimase kasvujärgu alguseni, tagades juveniilse oleku kestmise. Otsesest füsioloogilistest efektidest on tähtis täismoondega putukatel esinev JH inhibeeriv toime PTTH eritumisele viimase kasvujärgu välitel (vt allpool).
- Peale PTTH, ekdüsteroidide ja juveniilhormooni (JH) osalevad kestumistsükli regulatsioonis ka mõned teised hormoonid, mis antud kontekstis siiski ei vääri pikemat arutelu.

## Kestumist vallandavad tegurid

Nagu eelnevalt näidatud, algab iga kestumistsükkel kesknärvisüsteemi aktivatsiooniga ja PTTH eritumisega. Proksimaalsed füsioloogilised mehanismid, mis kontrollivad PTTH sekretsiooni on siiski teada vaid mõnel lutikaliigil. Verd imevatel röövlutikalistel *Rhodnius prolixus* ja *Dipetalogaster maximus* on selleks tagakeha venitusretseptorite ärritus, mis tekib

vastusena kas ühekordse toduhulgale või kunstlikule venitamisele (Nijhout 1984).

Pikklutiklasel *Oncopeltus fasciatus* eritub PTTH samuti vastusena tagakeha venitusele, siin aga tekib signaali vallandumiseks vajalik venitusretseptorite ärritus mitte vahetult neelatud toidu mõjul, vaid nümfia kasvu tõttu kasvujärgu sees: igal kestumisel (k.a. metamorfoosel) toimub PTTH eritumine teatud kriitilise kehakaalu saavutamisel, mille juures venitusretseptorite ärritus ületab asjaomase läviväärtuse (Nijhout 1978).

Teistel putukatel on täpne PTTH eritumist vallandav mehanism teadmata. Vähemalt liblikatel toimub PTTH eritumine metamorfse kestumise eel kriitilise kaalu saavutamisel (vt allpool), ilmselt ei ole see aga seotud sooleseina venitusega (Nijhout 1981). Hiljutised tulemused (Greenlee & Harrison 2005) viitavad sellele, et kestumise alustamise ultimaatseks füsioloogiliseks põhjuseks võib olla kudede hapnikuvarustatuse langus kasvujärgu lõpus: stigmaavade ja trahheevalendike läbimõõt (nagu ka teiste skleroseerunud kehaosade mõõtmed) ei muudu kasvujärgu sees, hingamisteede juhtivus jäääb maha kasvava vastse hapnikuvajadusest, hapnikunälja tekkimine vallandab kestumiskaskaadi.

### **Viimase kasvujärgu füsioloogia iseärasused**

Determineeritud kasvuga putukatel lõpeb isendi kasvuperiood vastsestaadiumi viimase kasvujärguga. Tänu putuka kasvu eksponenttsiaalsele iseloomule saavutatakse enamus isendi lõppkaalust just viimase kasvujärgu väljal, väide kehtib kõige selgemalt just venivate kehakatetega täismoondega putukate vastesete puhul. Kehakaalu tugev seos kohasusega tingib kasvuperioodi lõppemist kontrollivate mehanismide erakordset tähtsust isendi kohasuse determinatsioonis.

Vaegmoondega putukatel on juveniilne staadium eraldatud valmikustaadiumist ühe metamorfoosse kestumisega. Viimase kasvujärgu füsioloogia ei erine oluliselt eelnevate kasvujärkude omast: selle peamiseks iseärasuseks on juveniilhormooni tiitri langus kasvujärgu alguses, mis tingib viimase kestumise metamorfoosse iseloomu. Viimases kasvujärgus on ekdüsteroidide tiiter mõnikord kahe ajalise tipuga: esimene neist tippudest vallandab epidermises valmikutunnuste tekke, teine tippudest on kõrgem ja vallandab vahetult metamorfoosse kestumise (Nijhout 1994).

Täismoondega putukatel on kaks metamorfoosset kestumist, esimesel neist (vastne/nukk) toimub imaginaalketaste eksternalisatsioon ehk keha pinnale viimine ja ettevalmistumisel teiseks (nukk/valmik) toimub valmikujärgu morfoloogia lõplik

väljaarenemine. Viimase kasvujärgu füsioloogia on suhteliselt keeruline ja kõige paremini uuritud liblikatel.

### **Metamorfoosi alguse determineerivad mehhanismid täismoondega putukatel**

F. Nijhout kaasautoritega näitas oma klassikalistes töödes (1975) tubakasurul, et enne viimasesse kasvujärku kestumist toimub rööviku organismis kaks tähtsat füsioloogilist muutust:

1. Kesknärvisüsteemi allatotroopne osa (osa, mis kontrollib juveniilhormooni produktsiooni allataalkehade poolt) muutub tundlikuks rööviku kehakaalu suhtes; see regulatoorne muutus viib allataalkehade väljalülitumisele teatud kaaluläve ehk *kriitilise kaalu* ületamisel viimase kasvujärgu välte. Kriitiline kaal *ei ole* siiski *absoluutne* väärthus, vaid sõltub ka rööviku varasematest kasvutingimustest (vt allpool). Tubakasurul on kriitiline kaal umbes 5 g.
2. PTTH eritumismehhanism muutub tundlikuks JH suhtes ja on inhibeeritud JH juuresolekul: *PTTH eritumine viimase kasvujärgu vältel toimub ainult pärast kriitilise kaalu saavutamist ja JH kadumist hemolümfist.*

Need kaks füsioloogilist mehhanismi käivituvad ainult juhul, kui viiendasse kasvujärku kestumisel on röövik saavutanud teatud kindla peakapsli laiuse, vastasel juhul teeb röövik läbi lisakasvujärgu. Vajalik peakapsli laius on *absoluutne* väärthus, see ei sõltu rööviku varasematest kasvutingimustest ja *M. sexta*'l on see 5.1-5.4 mm. Röövikud on seega võimelised eristama *viimast* kasvujärku *viimasele eelnevaist* mingi (senini tundmatu) füsioloogilise näitaja alusel, mis korreleerub peakapsli laiusega. Otsus selle kohta, kas kasvujärv on viimane (ehk siis kas selle lõpus kestutakse nukuks) tehakse hiljemalt viimase röövikukestumise ajal.

Seega, metamorfoosi algus on seotud kahe läve ületamisega: esimene nendest determineerib kasvujärgu, millal alustada metamorfoosi; teine lävi määrab metamorfoosiprotsessi alguse viimase kasvujärgu vältel.

### **Täismoondega putukate viimase kasvujärgu füsioloogia**

Täismoondega putukate viimase kasvujärgu füsioloogilised põhisündmused tubakasuru (*M. sexta*) näitel on järgmised (Nijhout 1994):

- Kriitilise kaalu saavutamisel allataalkehad lülituvad välja, JH tiiter langeb kiiresti, muuhulgas tänu JH-esteraasi (üks peamisi JH lagundavaid ensüüme) aktiivsuse tõusule hemolümfis.
- JH kadumisel hemolümfist vabaneb PTTH eritumismehhanism JH inhibeeriva mõju alt ja PTTH eritub esimese “fotoperiodilise akna” ajal.
- PTTH ja seega ka kestumishormoonide eritumine toimub kahefaasiliselt (analoogiliselt vaegmoondega putukatega): esimene PTTH tõus on väike ja tubakasurul kujutab endast üksikute tippude rühma; selle poolt esile kutsutud väike ekdüsteroidide taseme tõus ei vii kestumisele, vaid programmeerib epidermise rakke produtseerima nuku tunnuseid. Esimene ekdüsteroidide tõus tekitab ka muutusi rööviku käitumises: *röövik lõpetab toitumise ja kasvu*, väljutab soolesisu, hakkab otsima nukkumiseks sobivat kohta ja kuduma võrgendit.
- Järgnev suur kestumishormoonide tõus toimub u 2 ööpäeva pärast esimest ja viib esimese metamorfoosse kestumise algusele; apolüüsi lõpetamisel toimub imaginaalketaste eversioon, röövik muutub väheliikuvaks eelnukuks.
- Samaaegselt teise ekdüsteroidide tõusuga kasvab uuesti JH tiiter, mis tagab imaginaalketaste nukuomase seisundi püsimise ehk siis takistab nende enneaegset diferentseerumist valmiku kudedeks.

## **Kriitilise kaalu omadused**

Kriitilise kaalu füsioloogiline tagamaa on siiamaani teadmata: ei ole selge, millise rööviku kehakaaluga korreleeruva parameetriga on tegemist; samuti pole selge, mis mehhanismiga viib see tundmatu parameeter regulatoorsele muutustele. Erinevalt lutikatest, kus kriitiline kaalu määrab on tagakeha venitusaste, pole tubakasuru kriitiline kaal kindlasti seotud soole seina venitusretseptorite ärritusega (Nijhout 1981).

### *1) Kriitiline kaal ja rööviku kasvutingimused*

Kriitiline kaal ei ole absoluutne väärthus, sellele avaldavad mõju kasvutingimused nii viimase kasvujärgu välitel kui ka varasema röövikuelu jooksul. Nii on tubakasuru kriitiline kaal *ca 5 g* vaid optimaalsete kasvutingimuste juures.

Varajaste (st enne viimast kasvujärku) kasvutingimuste mõju kriitilise kaalule on

vahendatud läbi viimase kasvujärgu algkaalu ja peakapsli laiuse viimasesse kasvujärku kestumisel. Kui peakapsli laius viimase kasvujärgu alguses on tavalisest suurem, siis võrdeliselt suureneb ka kriitilise kaalu värtus ja vastupidi. Kriitilise kaalu seos viimase kasvujärgu algkaaluga on lineaarne, mis tähendab, et kaalu jälgiv mehhanism on "kalibreeritud" kasvujärgu algkaaluga (Nijhout 1981).

Kasvutingimustest viimase kasvujärgu vältel mõjutab kriitilist kaalu toidukvaliteet: kehvade toitumistingimuste juures on kriitiline kaal madalam. Keskkonna temperatuur viimase kasvujärgu vältel (füsioloogiliselt vastuvõetavates piirides) ei avalda seevastu mõju kriitilisele kaalule (Davidowitz jt 2004).

## 2) Kriitilise kaalu seos tippkaaluga ja lõppkaaluga

Kriitilise kaalu saavutamisel muutub isendi arengukiirus sõltumatuks keskkonnatingimustest: sõltumata kasvukiirusest on *kasvu lõpetamise hetk on nüüd fikseeritud*: JH kadumisel hemolümfist toimub PTTH eritumine esimese "fotoperiodilise akna" sees; ekdüsteroidide esimese tipu saavutamisel lõpeb toitumine ja kasv. Saavutatav maksimaalne kaal sõltub nüüd kasvutingimustest ajavahemikul kriitilise kaalu saavutamisest kuni PTTH eritumise alguseni ehk siis PTTH viibimisaja vältel (*PTTH delay time*, Nijhout 1981, D'Amico jt 2001). Kehvade keskkonnatingimuste juures saavutatud tippkaal jääb kriitilise kaalu lähedusse, optimaalsetel tingimustel röövik võib kasvada oluliselt, nii näiteks on tubakasuru kriitiline kaal keskmiselt 55% tippkaalust (Davidowitz 2003).

Viimase kasvujärgu lõppkaalu (ja seega ka valmiku kaalu) määradavad tubakasurul viis muutujat (Nijhout 1981): (a) viimase kasvujärgu algkaal, (b) kasvukiirus viimase kasvujärgu vältel, (c) kriitiline kaal, (d) PTTH viibimisaeg ja (e) "fotoperiodilise akna" ajastatus. Peale tippkaalu saavutamist ja toitumise lõppemist, langeb kaal oluliselt kogu edasise nukkumiseelse perioodi jooksul. Kaalu langus on eelkõige tingitud rööviku keha veesisalduse languse poolt.

Tubakasurul leiti tugev fenotüübiline korrelatsioon kriitilise kaalu ja tippkaalu vahel:  $r^2=0.68$ ; kriitilise kaalu ja nukukaalu vaheline fenotüübiline ja ka geneetiline korrelatsioon olid samuti kõrged: vastavalt  $r^2=0.51$  ja  $r^2=0.43$  (Davidowitz jt 2003).

## **Kriitilise kaalu tähtsusest**

- Taismoondega putukatel toimub kuni 90% keha massi akumulatsioonist viimase kasvujärgu vältel, kriitiline kaal loob siin kindla mehhanismi, mis tagab metamorfoosi liigispetsiifilise suurusega valmikuks (Nijhout 1975).
- Kriitiline kaal kujutab endast minimaalset kaalu, mis on vajalik saavutada funktsionaalseks valmikuks moondumiseks: mõned üksikud valmikud, mis siiski arenevad röövikutest, mis ei saavutanud kriitilist kaalu, on selgelt alakohased (Nijhout 1975, Ochieng`Odero 1990).
- Kriitilise kaalu reaktsiooninorm on lõppkaalu fenotüübiline muutlikkuse üks komponente (Davidowitz jt 2003).
- Kriitilise kaalu muutus on kehasuuruse evolutsionilise muutumise üks mehhansime: valmiku kaalu pooleteisekordset suurenemist 30 aasta jooksul *M. sexta* laborikolooniast seletati muuhulgas ka kriitilise kaalu suurenemisega (D'Amico jt 2001).
- Kriitiline kaal võib olla piiranguks kehasuuruse plastilisuse evolutsioonis: vähemalt tubakasurul täheldati vaid vähest geneetilist muutlikkust kriitilise kaalu plastilisuses (Davidowitz jt 2003).

## **Üldistuste tegemise võimalikkus**

Täismoondega putukate metamorfoosi füsioloogia on kõige paremini uuritud liblikatel, kuid ka selles rühmas vaid väga väheste liikide näitel. Selline olukord on osaliselt tingitud vastavate uuringute keerulisuse ja kalliduse poolt. Praktilliselt kõik kasutada olevad andmed täismoondega putukate viimase kasvujärgu füsioloogia kohta põhinevad tubakasurul tehtud uuringutel: see on liblika jaoks tüüpilise ökoloogiaga, mugavalt suurte kehamõõtmetega ja ka majandusliku tähtsusega (tubakakasvatuse kahjur) laboritingimustes kergesti kasvatav liik. Siiski ei pruugi *M. sexta* füsioloogia ekstrapoleerimine teistele liikidele olla probleemivaba. Nii näiteks toimub teisel laboritingimustes kasvataval liigi, vahaleediku (*Galleria melonella*) metamorfoos 20 mg kaaluläve ületamisel; näljutamine enne selle kriitilise kaalu saavutamist põhjustab korduvat lisakestumist ilma moondeta (Allegret 1964). Selline plastiline reaktsioon erineb olukorrast tubakasurul, kus näljutamine enne kriitilise kaalu saavutamist viimase

kasvujärgu sees ei tekita lisakasvujärke. Peakapsli mõõtmete tähtsus metamorfoosi alguse määratlemises pole vahaledikul uuritud. Tuleb siiski meenutada, et vahalediku ökoloogia pole liblikale sugugi tüüpiline.

Erinevalt eelnimetatud liikidest on paljude liblikaliikide röövikute kasvujärkude arv fikseeritud, mispuhul ka näljutamine ei indutseeri lisakestumisi. Mähkurlasel *Cnephasia jactatana* moodustab kriitiline kaal 75% viimase kasvujärgu tippkaalust, röövik läbib alati viis kasvujärku, näljutamine enne kriitilise kaalu saavutamist ei vii lisakasvujärkude tekkele ega enneaegsele nukkumisele (Ochieng`Odero 1990). Nendest näidetest selgub, et kontroll metamorfoosi alguse üle on mõnevõrra erinev eri liblikaliikidel, mida võib seletada eellasmehhanismi evolutsioneerumisega eri suundadesse (Nijhout 1994).

Teiste seltside esindajate puhul on metamorfoosiks vajaliku lävikaalu olemasolu on kindlaks tehtud vaid mardikalistel: sitika *Onthophagus taurus* vastsed nukkuvad vaid 0.08 g (=58% tippkaalust) kaaluläve ületamisel viimase (kolmanda) kasvujärgu jooksul; kaaluläve ületanud vastsete näljutamine viib metamorfoosini kindla ajavahemiku pärast, sõltumata saavutatud kaalust (Shafiei jt 2001). Autorid ei arutle kõnealuste nähtuste füsioloogilise tausta üle. Võib aga oletada, et PTTH eritumine sitika vastsel pole fotoperiodiliselt kontrollitud, seega PTTH viibimisaeg võib olla konstantne.

## **Viimase kasvujärgu alg- ja lõppkaalu seose liikidevaheline sarnasus: kas adaptiivne või piiranguline seletus?**

Ülal esitatud faktidest selgub, et viimase kasvujärgu algkaal on nukukaaluga seotud kriitilise kaalu ja PTTH-viibimisaja vahendusel. Esimene nendest kujutab endast kindalat kaalulist läve, teine pakub ajalist limiiti maksimaalse võimaliku kehamassi saavutamiseks. Kirjeldatud mehhanismi piiravat mõju fenotüübile plastilisusele võib lugeda ilmseks, kuid ebaselege on, kuivõrd suurt evolutsionilist konservatiivsust võib oodata viimase kasvujärgu alg- ja lõppkaalu vahelisest seosest. Nagu eespool selgitatud, toimub täismoondega putukate vastsetel suurem osa massi akumulatsioonist just viimase kasvujärgu välitel. Arvestades kehakaalu erakordset tähtsust isendi kohasuse determinandina, samuti eri liikidel esinevaid erinevaid valikusurveid kehakaalule, peaks eeldama, et liikidevaheline sarnasus alg- ja

nukukaalu suhtes oleks nähtav eelkõige sugulasliikidel või sarnaseid nišše hõlmavatel liikidel. Seda eeldusel, et kõnealune suhe on vaba kiiresti evolutsioneeruma ehk teisisõnu, adaptiivseid muutusi ei takista olulised piirangud. Kui suurt arengulist piirangut kujutavad endast aga metamorfoosiks ettevalmistumisega seotud füsioloogilised protsessid?

## **Senised tulemused**

Tammaru jt (2004) uurisid hariliku hallavaksiku (*Epirrita autumnata*) ja väike-kärbiiva (*Polygonia c-album*) kehasuuruse determinatsiooni reaktsiooninorme. Muuhulgas selgus, et mõlema liigi puhul on viimase kasvujärgu algkaal tugevasti seotud nukukaaluga. Huvitaval kombel ilmnas seejuures, et kaalude standardiseerimisel (mõlemad muutujad jagatud vastava valimi keskmistega) ei erinenu seos ka kvantitatiivselt ei liigisiseselt (sugude, kasvukeskkondade ja populatsionide vahel) ega ka liikide vahel. Lisaks sellele, hallavaksiku manipuleeritud viimase kasvujärgu algkaalu seos nukukaaluga ei erinenu üldsesosest millest võib järeldada, et manipulatsiooni efekt piirdus mõjuga viimase kasvujärgu algkaalule.

Kõnealuse kvantitatiivse sarnasuse interpreteerimine on problemaatiline. Soo, samuti toidu kvaliteedi mõju puudumine hallavaksiku viimase kasvujärgu alg- ja lõpukaalu vahelisele seosele võib viidata mingile füsioloogilisele piirangule viimase kasvujärgu lõpukaalu reguleerivates mehanismides. Väga raske on eeldada loodusliku valiku surve ühetaolisust nii geograafiliselt eraldatud populatsioonides (üks populatsioon oli lõuna-Soomest, teine Fennoskandia kõige põhjapoolsemast piirkonnast), nagu ka olulist populatsioonidevahelist migratsiooni, mis põhimõtteliselt samuti lubaks sellist sarnasust seletada.

Liikidevahelise erinevuse puudumine võib küll olla ka juhusest tingitud, kuid teisalt ka Nijhouti (1981) poolt kirjeldatud tubakasuru kriitilise kaalu seos viimase kasvujärgu algkaalu muutub standardiseerimisel kvantitatiivselt hämmastavalt sarnaseks viimase kasvujärgu algkaalu ja nukukaalu seosega hallavaksikul ja kärbiival. Kui Nijhouti poolt esitatud viimase kasvujärgu alg- ja kriitilise kaalu seose iseloom peegeldab õigesti ka seost viimase kasvujärgu alg- ja lõppkaalu vahel (ehk siis juhul, kui juhul kui kriitiline kaal on viimase kasvujärgu lõppkaaluga e. nukukaaluga võrdeline), siis on sellisele fülogeneetiliselt ja ökoloogiliselt kaugete liikide vahelise sarnasusele adaptatsionistliku seletuse leidmine keeruline.

## Piirangutele tuginevad seletused

Viimase kasvujärgu sees peab ilmselt eksisteerima mingi jäik füsioloogiline piirang, mis dikteerib vähemutliku seose kasvujärgu alg- ja lõppkaalu vahel. Võimaliku seletuse pakub Greenlee & Harrison (2005) töö tubakasuru hingamise füsioloogiast. Mainitud autorid näitasid, et iga kasvujärgu lõpus tekib rööviku organismis hapniku defitsiit: hingamissüsteemi juhtimisvõime jäab alla kasvava rööviku hapnikuvajadusele, sest sklerotiseerunud hingamisavade ja suurte trahheede läbimõodud jäävad muutumatuks kasvujärgu jooksul vaatamata rööviku keha olulisele kasvule. Kestumine toimubki oletatavasti hapnikudefisiidi läviväärtuse ületamisel. Kui viimase kasvujärgu saavutatav lõppkaal on määratletud sellise füsioloogilise piirangu poolt, võib oletada, et viimase kasvujärgu tippkaal, seega ka nukukaal, on maksimaalne võimalik kaal antud hingamisteede juhtivusvõime (kasvujärgu algkaaluga määratletud) ja keskkonnatingimuste juures. Sellise väitega on kooskõlas eelpool kirjeldatud kompensatoorse efekti piiratus hallavaksikul: eelviimases kasvujärgust ‘päritud’ normaalsetest väiksema mahtuvusega traheed ei võimalda suurt nukukaalu saavutada. Greenlee ja Harrisoni hüpoteesi kestumise otsetest füsioloogilistest põhjustest kinnitab kaudselt ka PTTH viibimisaja (e ajavahemiku kriitilise kaalu saavutamisest kuni PTTH eritumiseni) reaktsiooninorm keskkonnatemperatuuri suhtes: kõrgema temperatuuri juures on metabolismi kiirus kõrgem ja “hapniku künnis” peab saabuma kiiremini ja vastupidi. Nii lüheneb tubakasurul PTTH viibimisaeg temperatuuri tõustes ja pikeneb temperatuuri langedes muutumatu kriitilise kaalu juures, määrates suures osas nukukaalu reaktsiooninormi temperatuurile (Davidowitz jt 2004). Greenlee ja Harrison näitasid samas töös, et erinevalt varasematest kasvujärkudest, tõuseb tubakasurul metaboolne tase viimase kasvujärgu välitel ning hapniku defisiidi nähud ilmnevad kõrgema hapniku osarõhu juures. Autorid seletasid neid tähelepanekuid metamorfoosiks valmistuva putuka füsioloogia omapäraga.

Esitatud andmed ei luba siiski vastata küsimusele, kas kirjeldatud liikidevahelist sarnasust tekitav füsioloogiline piirang on seotud metamorfoosi reguleerivate protsessidega või kasvu diskreetsuse kui sellisega. Viimasel juhul on loomulik eeldada alg- ja lõppkaalu seose konstantsust ka varasemate kasvujärkude tasemel ja erinevate kasvujärkude vahel ontogeneesi käigus. Teisalt võib oletada, et varasematel kasvujärkudel respiratoorne piirang on vähem väljendunud tänu osalise gaasivahetusele läbi kehakatete, millega seletuks ka varasemate kasvujärkude füsioloogia erinevus viimase järgu omast.

Kasvujärgu alg- ja lõppkaalu vahelise seose piiranagulise iseloomu hüpoteesile räägivad vastu (või vähemalt viitavad piirangu suhtelisusele) teated kompensatoorse kasvu olemasolust mõnedel putukatel: lühiajalise näljutamise efekt vastse kaalule on jälgitav mõne kasvujärgu jooksul ja kaob seejärel (Bradshaw & Johnson 1995, Flanigin jt 2000). Lisaks sellele, hiljuti näidati, et viimase kasvujärgu alg- ja lõppkaalu suhe on võimeline kiireks evolutsioneeruimiseks: D'Amico jt (2001) uurisid tubakasuru laboripopulatsioonis 30 aasta välitel toimunud pooleteisekordse kehakaalu evolutsionilise tõusu mehhaniisme ja näitasid, et see muutus on seletatav nukukaalu tõusuga (kriitilise kaalu tõusu ja PTTH viibimisaja pikinemise arvel) viimase kasvujärgu muutumatu algkaalu juures. Viimane näide paistab eriti arusaamatu, sest väidetavasti kõige konservatiivsem elukäigu kasvujärk reageeris valikusurve muutustele kõige kiiremini ehk siis kõigest 220 põlvkonna välitel.

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# II

## **The relationship between initial and final weight of an instar: an invariant of insect growth schedules?**

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## **Abstract**

The relative roles of constraint and adaptation in the evolution of insect growth are still far from clear. A strong correlation between the initial, and the final weight of an instar has been known in various insects. A high degree of quantitative resemblance in this relationship in two unrelated lepidopteran species has been shown in a recent report. In the present study, the dependence of final weight of an instar on the initial weight was investigated by means of both correlative and manipulative approaches. In the first series of experiments, the relationship was studied correlatively in the last, and some earlier instars of 10 unrelated lepidopteran species. In the second experiment, performed on single moth species, the genetic and the environmental component of the relationship were estimated separately, and compared to the overall phenotypic relationship. The comparative study indicated a relative invariability of the initial/final weight relationship among the species in the last instar, and also among sexes and broods within each species, suggesting the presence of a constraint. The between-species differences were stronger in earlier instars. The manipulative experiment demonstrated a strong dependence of the final weight on the initial weight at the level of brood means, which indicates a considerable genetic component behind the relationship. The respective environmental correlation was, though statistically significant, considerably weaker. As an additional result, we found a significant compensation for manipulatively reduced initial weight of the last instar in terms of an increased relative growth rates. Despite the presence of a constraint, there is thus still a possibility for some plasticity in the initial/final weight relationship within the last instar.

## Introduction

Body size is one of the most important life history traits because of its close relation to organism's fitness (Roff 1992, Stearns 1992). Moreover, body size is perhaps the trait most frequently used in assessing individual fitness. Such fitness components as fecundity, offspring size and quality, longevity, success in male contest competition are typically positively correlated with body size in many groups. The most evident fitness consequences of large size are those related to the frequently size-dependent success in male contests (e.g. Risa et al. 1991, Del Castillo 1999, Juvoff & Hines 1998), and female fecundity advantage in ectotherms (e.g. Policansky 1983, Head 1995, Ebert 1994). Especially the latter aspect is of particular importance in insects, where fecundity often linearly increases with weight increasing (Honěk 1993).

Surprisingly enough, despite of the great influence of the trait on organism's fitness, there is lack of satisfactory explanations for mechanisms controlling the evolution of body size. The classical life-history theory (Stearns & Koella 1986, Stearns 1992, Roff 1992) regards optimal size at maturity as a result of a trade-off between selection for large body size, and costs of delayed maturation, such as increased predation risk, prolonged generation time, approaching end of growing season. Moreover, costs associated with large adult size *per se* – such as those related to decreased mobility – are frequently assumed. In his extensive review on potential costs of large body size, however, Blanckenhorn (2002) has to admit that, in comparison with the great number of studies confirming the advantages of large size, the evidence of counterbalancing costs is generally scarce and fragmentary.

Moreover, most life-history models are not explicit about intrinsic constraints, which can affect growth characters. Any demographically determined (i.e. being a consequence of a balance of size-dependent effects of fecundity and mortality) optimal reaction norm is assumed to be achievable (e.g. Stearns & Koella 1986). However, the situation can be complicated e.g. when life-history traits change discontinuously. In particular, this is the case in arthropods, where growth period is divided into a certain number of discrete instars, separated by molts. Data on crustaceans (Ebert 1994) and insects (Nijhout 1975, Tammaru 1998) show that the ability of individuals to plastically modify stepwise growth increments within an instar is much restricted: it is thus impossible to attain much extra weight without an increase in instar number. Such a change results in discontinuous changes both in age and size

at maturity. Therefore, the relative inflexibility of growth increments within an instar can lead to considerable overshoot (as compared to the optimum) both in age and size at maturity. Physiologically predetermined, the stepwise character of growth can thus represent a severe constraint on fine adjustment of both these traits to environmental conditions.

The possible instar-based constraint is complicated by the correlation between initial and final weight of an instar, which has been found in various insects (Nijhout 1975, 1978; Hutchinson et al. 1997, Tammaru 1998). Moreover, Tammaru et al. (2004) recently reported a high degree of quantitative similarity of this relationship in two unrelated lepidopteran species, and no significant between-population or sex-related differences within those species. Such similarity may be seen as an indication of a developmental constraint on ontogenetic body size determination in insects. This is because - if to take into account obvious dissimilarities in the ecology of the two studied species, the most likely sex-related differences in body size-fitness consequences (Tammaru et al. 1996, 2002) and doubtless differences of environmental pressure in geographically distant populations - it is most problematic to even propose an adaptive explanation for this phenomenon.

The aim of the present study is to examine the limits of quantitative similarity in the initial-final weight relationship of a larval instar. In a series of controlled rearing experiments, we monitored larval growth in a number of unrelated Lepidopteran species. Relationships between initial and final weights were compared across species, as well as for different larval instars and sexes within the species. Moreover, for one species, a manipulative experiment was performed to compare the genetic and the environmental component of covariation between the initial weight of last instar, and pupal weight.

## **Materials and methods**

### **Relationship between initial and final weight of an instar: comparing species**

#### *Species studied and experimental design*

With the aim to detect possible invariants of larval growth schedules, we correlatively investigated the relationship between the initial and the final weight of an instar in a number of unrelated lepidopteran species. The data originated from a series of rearing experiments, which were designed to simultaneously address various questions about larval growth schedules on the basis of across-species comparative data. This multifunctionality of the design explains some “odd” additional elements of experimental design (e.g. the “rearing waves”, see below), which would not have been absolutely necessary for answering the questions addressed by the present study.

We used 10 species of butterflies and moths from 6 families, representing all the four major macrolepidopteran clades (i.e. the Papilionoid, Geometroid, Bombycoid and Noctuid clades; Minet 1991, Kristensen 1999) (Table 1). The species studied were not closely related phylogenetically (belonged to different subfamilies, with the exception of PC and LM, see Table 1 for abbreviations of species names), and covered a wide range of species-specific body sizes (Table 1). In all of the species, larvae are external feeders on plant leaves. The polyphagous tree-specialists among the moths were offered silver birch, species polyphagous on herbs were reared on white melilot, while the three oligophagous species (AL, LM and CF) were given their preferred hosts (Table 1). All larvae were reared individually in 50 ml plastic vials excepting PB and AL, which were kept in small groups during their early instars to provide the possibility for larval aggregations, inherent to young caterpillars of these species. All experimental insects represented offspring of field-caught females of Estonian origin. An aim of the experimental design was to rear the larvae of penultimate and last instars (*focal instars*, thereafter) strictly simultaneously under a spatially randomised arrangement. This allowed to compare the growth schedules of different instar larvae in identical conditions. To achieve this target, individuals from each brood (=offspring of one female) of each studied species (except LM, in which RGR was studied during the last

instar only) were randomly allocated to two equal groups, i.e. rearing waves, shifted relatively to each other in time. The necessary shift was achieved by allocating eggs or young larvae of one rearing wave to +4°C for a period of duration of one instar. Such treatment was applied as early as possible in larval life to minimize its direct effect on growth performance during the focal instars. Additional individual synchronisation within a wave was performed when necessary. During the focal instars, larvae were reared at 22°C, leaves of the host plant were renewed daily. Beyond the focal instars, the larvae were kept in uncontrolled conditions at room temperature (ca 22°C), with ad libitum food. Larvae of all species were weighted shortly before molting into the focal (penultimate and last) instars. Sizes of the insects permitting, larvae of some species were weighted before they entered the focal instars as well (Table 1, 2). In all cases, the pre-molt weight was treated as final weight of a given instar and as initial weight of the next one; pupal weight was treated as final weight of the last instar. All insects were sexed as pupae.

#### *Data analysis*

Regression of the final weight of an instar (*final weigh*, thereafter) on the initial weight of an instar (*initial weight*, thereafter) was performed for each studied instar of all the species. Larvae below 10 mg could not be reliably weighed, so the youngest instars had to be excluded from the analysis. The number of instars analysed was therefore higher in larger species (Table 1). The slope of these regressions was treated as measure of the dependence of the final weight on the initial weight. To make the results quantitatively comparable between different instars and species, both variables were standardised, i.e. divided by the mean values of the respective samples. The primary rationale of the analysis was to compare the slopes among species, as well as among different instars, different broods, and between the two sexes within each species.

First, it was tested for among-species differences separately by different larval instars, with the species\*initial weight interaction being the primary focus. Second, to test for the general consistency of the final/initial weight relationships, each instar of each species was treated as a separate “case”; the analysis then focussed on the case\*initial weight relationship.

The among-instar differences in the values of slope of the regression of the final weight on the initial weight were evaluated as the significance of *initial weight\*instar number* interaction, after including instar number as an additional factor into the analyses performed

at the level of separate species. This approach was used also when testing for between-sexes and between-broods differences in the initial/final weight relation: significance of the between-sexes and between-broods differences of values of slope was estimated by including sex and brood as additional factors into respective models (SAS PROC GLM with sex as fixed effect, PROC MIXED with brood as random effect) and testing for significance of initial weight\*sex, initial weight\*brood interactions.

## Comparing environmental and genetic covariances in a model species

### *Experimental design*

This experiment was performed to compare the genetic and the environmental component of the relationship between initial and final (i.e. pupal) weight of the last instar in one model species, the noctuid moth *Orthosia gothica*. The genetic correlation was approximated by the relationship at the level of brood means. The environmental correlation was studied by means of manipulation of the initial weight of the last instar, and studying the effect of the manipulation of final (pupal) weights. The study simultaneously allowed to test the conclusion of Tammaru et al (2004) about the limited ability of lepidopteran larvae to compensate for adverse effects, experienced early in larval life. These effects of “hard youth” had been supposed to be mediated through low initial weight of the last instar.

The larvae used in this experiment were offspring of 20 females light-trapped at Avinurme, Estonia, in May 2005. 25 neonate larvae from each brood (=offspring of an individual female, 500 larvae as a total) were placed into 50 ml individual vials and reared at room temperature (ca 22°C) and *ad libitum* diet of fresh birch foliage until they molted into their 5th (penultimate) instar. At the end of each of the instars the development of the larvae was synchronized by varying rearing temperature individually. As a consequence, all the experimental larvae moulted in their 5th instar simultaneously. In order to manipulate the initial weight of the last instar, the 5th (penultimate) instar larvae were reared under two different temperatures, +19°C and +22°C (lower temperatures result in higher weights as is typical for invertebrates, Atkinson 1994), termed as the 19-treatment, and the 22-treatment, hereafter. Additionally, two starvation periods were applied to the latter group during the 1st and 3d days of the penultimate instar, for 24h and 20h respectively. Such a combination of a

temperature treatment and a starvation treatment ensured that the larvae of both treatment groups molted into their final instar nearly simultaneously. Larvae molting into the last instar were weighted and allowed to moult into the last instar simultaneously. Larvae of both treatment groups were reared in identical 22°C conditions from the beginning of the last instar. Positions of rearing vials were randomized with respect of treatment and brood. To determine possible compensatory changes in relative growth rate, all the larvae were weighted on second and third days of the last instar with 24h intervals. Increment of the first day of the last instar was not used to exclude the possibility that the “plain” effect of filling the gut would be confused with true compensatory growth. During the period the larvae were weighted leaves of the host plant were renewed daily. Thereafter, the larvae were reared on ad libitum food until pupation, duration of the last instar was recorded. Pupae were weighted and sexed when their cuticulae were sclerotised.

#### *Data analysis*

The values of the slope of regressions of pupal weight on initial weight of the last instar were obtained in two different ways. First, the environmental component of the relationship was evaluated on the basis of a regression performed at the level of treatment means. Second, the regression slope was calculated for brood means of both the variables considered. The difference between the two slopes was tested by a purposefully designed extension of the respective general linear model (see Appendix ). Additionaly, difference of genetic component from the overall (i.e. phenotypic) relationship was tested in a an analogous way.

In order to test for possible compensation for past perturbations, between-treatment comparison of values of pupal weight, relative growth rate during the second day of the last instar (RGR2) and the last instar duration, were made by respective t-tests. RGR2 was calculated as  $\log(\text{weight on the 3}^{\text{rd}} \text{ day of the last instar}/\text{weight on the 2}^{\text{nd}} \text{ day})/\text{time(days)}$ . To exclude the possibility, that the effect of treatment on pupal weight was mediated purely by treatment effect on the initial weight, the latter was included as a continuous variable into the ANOVA model examining the effect of treatment on pupal weight. Thereafter, the values of RGR2 and the last instar duration were jointly included into the model to test for possible compensatory mechanisms.

Additionally, the data of this study allowed to evaluate some patterns emerging from the comparative analyses (see above) on the basis of a larger sample size of a single model

species. In particular, regressions of pupal weight on the initial weight of the last instar (hereafter *initial weight*) were performed for both treatment groups and sexes. Influence of sex, brood and treatment on pupal weight, also differences between sexes, broods and treatments in the initial/pupal weight relation were estimated according to the principles described in previous part.

## Results

### Comparing species

With a few exceptions, there was a strong relationship between the initial and final weight of an instar in all species, and all instars studied (Table 2), the standardized slopes showed a high degree of similarity. Nevertheless, when species were compared by particular instars, the among-species difference in initial/final weight relation was highly significant during the earliest instars. The significance was lower in intermediate instars. However, when final instars of the species were compared, no among-species difference could be proven (Table 4, Fig. 1). When all the instars of all studied species were treated as independent “cases”, there were highly significant between-cases differences in the relationship if focus (Table 5). Within-species comparisons between the penultimate, and the final instars revealed a significant difference in the value of the slope in SL, and a marginally significant difference in OG (Table 2). When all studied instars of each species were compared simultaneously, among instar difference in the initial/final weight relationship showed significance in four species (Table 3).

The relationship in focus appeared to be nearly invariable between the two sexes. Although the main effect of sex on the final weight was significant in all measured instars in AL, EV, PP, AR ( $p < 0.0001$ , in most instars of these species), SL and penultimate instar of CF, between-sexes difference in the initial/final weight relationship was detected only in the last instar of PP (Table 6). As a general pattern, among-brood differences in the final weight/initial weight relationship were relatively weak. The main effect of brood on final

weight was statistically confirmed in all measured instars in both geometrid species (LM:  $F_{2,71}=5.31$ ,  $p=0.0071$  for the last instar; PC:  $F_{3,84}=3.39$ ,  $p=0.021$  for penultimate and  $F_{3,93}=2.87$ ,  $p=0.040$  for the last instar) and in penultimate instar in two noctuids, AR and OG ( $F_{2,122}=8.47$ ,  $p=0.0003$  and  $F_{3,48}=9.62$ ,  $p<0.0001$  respectively), remaining non-significant in other cases. The effect of brood\*initial weight interaction attained significance in earlier instars of some species. However, in the last instar, the interaction was always clearly non-insignificant (Table 7). Unfortunately, when evaluating brood\*initial weight interactions, in most cases we had to treat ‘brood’ as a fixed effect because of inability of the program to estimate the interaction term for brood as a random factor.

### **Comparing components of covariance**

The treatments designed to manipulate the initial weight of the last instar were successful. Larvae reared at a higher temperature but exposed to starvation treatments moulted into the last instar at the average weights of 177 mg, as opposed to 203 mg in the larvae reared at low temperature during their penultimate instar.

The main effect of treatment on pupal weight was confirmed on both individual and brood means levels ( $F_{1,445}=4.77$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ,  $F_{1,36}=9.35$ ,  $p=0.0042$  for individual weights and brood mean weights respectively: two-way ANCOVA with initial weight as covariate), (Fig. 2). However, the regression of pupal weight on the initial weight on the level of brood mean weights had a considerably steeper slope (Fig. 2) as compared to the regression at the level of bivariate means of the treatment groups (the difference was statistically significant, Table 10). In other words, the genetic component of the relationship caused a considerably stronger dependence of pupal weight on the initial weight, than did the environmental component.

The regression line on the level of brood means was also steeper than the overall regression line describing the phenotypic correlation. However here the difference of values of slope showed only a marginal statistical significance (Table 10). Notably, the value of slope for the regression on the level of bivariate treatment means was notably lower, than the slope of overall regression. Consequently, in this species, the environmental component of the initial/pupal weight relation is clearly distinguishable from the overall relationship.

## **Compensation for past perturbations**

In contrast to the results with *Epirlita autumnata* (Tammaru et al. 2004), the effect of adverse environmental influence (experienced in the penultimate instar), on pupal weight was not mediated purely by initial weight of the final instar. In particular, the effect of the manipulation did not lose its significance after the initial weight was included into respective ANOVA model as a covariate ( $F_{1,446}=48.88$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ). The starvation + high temperature treatment significantly affected RGR2, last instar duration and pupal weight (Table 11). However, when tested separately by sexes, there were no significant treatment effect on pupal weight in females, i.e. complete compensation took place here during the last instar (Table 11). To reveal possible mechanisms of compensation, RGR2 and the last instar duration were included, along with the effect of treatment, as covariates in the ANCOVA model for pupal weight. All the effects were significant, yet duration of the last instar lost its significance, after the initial weight of the instar was included into the model. The interpretation is that small larvae had longer instar duration with no respect of treatment. When interactions were included in the joint ANCOVA model, initial weight\*treatment, but also initial weight\*RGR2 and initial weight\*RGR2\*treatment interactions attained significance (Table 12), indicating that larvae with the same initial weight demonstrated different RGR2, depending on treatment. Noteworthy, when this approach was used separately by sexes, none of the multiple-factor interactions was significant in males. In contrast, females appeared to be able to considerably increase their RGR2 to compensate for small initial weight (Table 12).

## **The initial/final weight relationship in the last instar: influence of treatment, sex and brood**

As a by-product of the analysis, the large-scale experiment with *O. gothica* allowed to obtain data completing the picture obtained as a result of the correlative study, reported above. In particular, there were no significant between-treatment differences in initial/final weight relation during the last instar (Table 8). Sex attained significance in pupal weight determination in the 19-treatment group and was highly significant in the 22-treatment group ( $F_{1,220}=5.20$ ,  $p=0.023$ , and  $F_{1,221}=28.94$ ,  $p<0.0001$ , respectively: two-way ANCOVA with initial weight as covariate). Initial weight\*sex interaction was significant in the 22-treatment

(Table 9), nevertheless, a joint analysis showed a clear non-significance of initial weight\*sex\*treatment interaction for the last instar ( $F_{1,441}=1.10$ ,  $p=0.29$ ).

The main effect of brood on the pupal weight was statistically confirmed in both treatment groups:  $F_{19,184}=1.96$ ,  $p=0.012$ ,  $F_{19,185}=2.20$ ,  $p=0.0039$  for 19- and 22-treatments respectively, two-way ANCOVA with initial weight as continuous variable. The initial weight\*brood interaction was clearly non-significant in determination of pupal weight in both treatments.

## Discussion

### **The degree of similarity in the final weight/ initial weight relationship**

In the absolute majority of cases, initial weight of an instar was a strong determinant of final weight. This result is concordant with earlier reports on lepidopterans and other insects (Nijhout 1975, 1978; Hutchinson et al. 1997; Tammaru 1998, Tammaru et al 2004). The absence of significant between-sexes (with one exception) and between-species difference in the initial/final weight relationship during the last instar confirms the suggestion by Tammaru et al. 2004 – the relationship between initial and final weight of an instar, is, indeed, remarkably similar across species even at the quantitative level, and hence evolutionarily conservative. It is not easy to propose adaptionistic explanations to the high degree of similarity because, most likely, there are considerable differences in selection pressures on growth schedules in species occupying separate niches, and possessing different life history traits. In other words, even if we do not know why exactly a certain relationship between final and initial weight might be adaptive, it is highly unlikely that the optimum is the same for all species. Additionally, the effect of size on fitness is certainly different in different sexes within a species (Tammaru et al. 1996, 2002; Fairbairn 1997). Such a high degree of resemblance between unrelated species, and sexes within species, could thus indicate evolutionary conservativeness of certain developmental mechanisms, and hence a constraint inherent to insect development. Moreover, limited among-brood differences in this

relationship suggest a low evolvability of this trait which is consistent with the constraint hypothesis. Such a pervasive constraint cannot be ignored when trying to understand insect body sizes within the adaptationistic explanatory framework (Stearns & Koella 1986; Roff 1992; Stearns 1992).

Notably, the among-species invariability was most pronounced in the final larval instar. This may indicate that the process of metamorphosis is the most conservative element of insect development. Particularly, reports on physiology of metamorphosis show no principal differences between different insect orders (Nijhout 1994). Still, if the explanations of the pattern lay solely in preparation for pupation, one would expect the between-species resemblance to emerge abruptly in the last instar. However, our results show, the between-species differences abate steadily from instar to instar.

Such a pattern of gradual change suggests that the supposed constraint is enhanced during the ontogenesis, and is not causally related to metamorphosis per se. We see a likely candidate for a physiological basis for such an assumption. Even if the ultimate causes of larval molting are not definitively resolved (e.g. Esperk & Tammaru 2004), in their study on *M. sexta*, Greenlee & Harrison (2005) proposed, that the main and the ultimate reason for molting is preventing respiratory stress, caused by inability of spiracles and large tracheae (their diameter remains constant within an instar) to ensure sufficient ventilation of growing larva. If this is the case in all lepidopterans, it appears likely to explain the observed similarity as a result of anatomical and physiological invariability of in the respiratory system within the order. The hypothesis of the respiratory constraint is consistent with our data, because such a restriction should be less prominent in earlier (i.e. smaller) instars. This is because some gas exchange may occur by means of diffusion through the body walls in the smallest insects.

On the other hand, there is much evidence of the non-absolute character of the proposed constraint in initial/pupal weight relationship, including the results of the present study. Sex-related differences in this relationship are still possible (females of PP and 22-treatment group of OG); and quick evolutionary changes have also been reported (D'Amico et al. 2001). Moreover, the relationship can change to compensate for manipulated initial weight of a given instar (Bradshaw et al 1995; Flanagin et al 2000; see below).

## **Genetic and environmental components of the initial/pupal weight relationship**

The genetic component of the relationship, approximated by the regression at the level of brood mean weights, demonstrated a high degree of dependence of pupal weight on the initial weight that potentially indicates a presence of certain constraint in the initial/pupal weight relationship. Surprisingly enough, the environmental component of the relationship showed a quite dissimilar pattern: regression line at the level of bivariate means of treatment groups had a much shallower slope, reflecting a prominent compensatory growth undertaken by the larvae of the 22-treatment group. The result is particularly striking if compared with results on *Epirrita autumnata* from an earlier study (Tammari et al. 2004), in which no indication of a difference between the genetical and the environmental component was found. The presence of compensatory growth in *Orthosia* is, however, consistent with reports on ability to compensate for past perturbations in some other insects (Bradshaw et al. 1995; Flanigin et al. 2000), with effect of perturbation ('developmental inertia') abating during the consequent instars. The relative weakness of compensatory response in *Epirrita* could be ascribed to severe time constraints inherent to the developmental schedule of this typical spring-feeder: it could be better to attain a smaller pupal weight, than to fail to meet time constraint. However this assumption contradicts to the fact that caterpillars of this species were able to compensate almost completely for perturbations applied during the last instar both by increasing RGR and instar prolongation.

Additionally, in *Orthosia*, in contrast with *Epirrita*, there was a significant between-sexes difference in the degree of the compensatory growth. Unlike the males, the females demonstrated a complete compensation by increasing their RGR2 as one mechanism involved. Between-sexes differences in the degree of the compensation may indicate different size-associated fitness consequences in this species, i.e. selection pressure for large body size can be stronger in females, than in males. On the other hand, the 22-treatment group females demonstrated a higher (although not significantly so) value of slope of regression line of the final weight on the initial weight (Table 9), as compared to that of the 19-treatment group. This increase of the value of the slope, in addition to complete compensation is, probably, explained by the ability of larger females to perform a better compensatory response, and to have more absolute weight gain during the last instar than the smaller ones. If this is true, such compensatory growth in *Orthosia* must form an additional source of phenotypic variance in female body size.

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## Tables and figures

Table 1. Species used and details of the experiment. Taxonomy and nomenclature of lepidopterans follows Karsholt & Razowski (1997)

Species	Family	Abbreviation	Host plant used	Pupal weight (mg)	No of instars	Instars studied	sample size	
							broods	individuals
<i>Araschnia levana</i> L.	Nymphalidae	AL	<i>Urtica dioica</i> L.	103	5	4. 5.	3	147
<i>Lomaspilis marginata</i> L.	Geometridae	LM	<i>Salix caprea</i> L.	44	5	5.	3	77
<i>Paradarisa consonaria</i> Hbn.	Geometridae	PC	<i>Betula pendula</i> Roth	114	5	4. 5.	4	103
<i>Endromis versicolora</i> L.	Endromidae	EV	<i>B. pendula</i>	1439	5	2.- 5.	2	67
<i>Poecilocampa populi</i> L.	Lasiocampidae	PP	<i>B. pendula</i>	532	5	2.- 5.	1	61
<i>Spilosoma lubricipeda</i> L.	Arctiidae	SL	<i>Melilotus albus</i> Medik	297	6	4.- 6.	2	142
<i>Phalera bucephala</i> L.	Notodontidae	PB	<i>B. pendula</i>	910	5	3.- 5.	1	36
<i>Acronicta rumicis</i> L.	Noctuidae	AR	<i>M. albus</i>	274	6	4.- 6.	3	133
<i>Catocala fraxini</i> L.	Noctuidae	CF	<i>Populus tremula</i> L.	1469	6	3.- 6.	4	29
<i>Orthosia gothica</i> L.	Noctuidae	OG	<i>B. pendula</i>	236	6	4.- 6.	4	112

Table2. Between-instar comparison of the values of the slope for the regression of standardised final weight on standardised initial weight of an instar; the significance of standardised initial weight of an instar\*instar number interaction is given.

Species	Penultimate instar		Last instar		df*	F	p
	b ± SE	R <sup>2</sup>	b ± SE	R <sup>2</sup>			
<i>A. levana</i>	0.433±0.047	41.1%	0.474±0.060	29.8%	117	0.09	0.762
<i>L. marginata</i>	-	-	0.607±0.127	23.2%	-	-	-
<i>P. consonaria</i>	0.658±0.080	42.6%	0.416±0.052	38.6%	89	3.00	0.086
<i>E. versicolora</i>	0.731±0.105	42.3%	0.535±0.111	26.2%	62	0.04	0.835
<i>P. populi</i>	0.357±0.111	23.7%	0.747±0.223	18.5%	32	3.43	0.073
<i>S. lubricipeda</i>	0.611±0.060	42.1%	0.283±0.083	7.5%	139	7.11	0.0086
<i>P. bucephala</i>	0.880±0.158	47.6%	0.415±0.214	9.9%	33	3.14	0.085
<i>A. rumicis</i>	0.572±0.068	35.6%	0.526±0.080	24.6%	125	0.02	0.884
<i>C. fraxini</i>	0.483±0.11	41.4%	-0.042±0.276	0.1%	14	1.69	0.214
<i>O. gothica</i>	0.558±0.066	38.7%	0.462±0.086	20.4%	109	3.89	0.051

\*Den DF; Num DF=1 in all the cases.

Table3. Between-instar comparison of the values of the slope for the regression of standardised final weight on standardised initial weight of an instar; the significance of standardised initial weight of an instar\*instar number interaction is given; all studied instars included. The values of the slope and R-Squares for the last and penultimate instars are shown in table 2.

Species	L-3*		L-2**		df Num(Den)	F	p
	b ± SE	R <sup>2</sup>	b ± SE	R <sup>2</sup>			
<i>E. versicolora</i>	0.321±0.129	12.2%	0.743±0.099	50.4%	3(161)	4.79	0.0032
<i>P. populi</i>	0.166±0.097	5.6%	0.542±0.148	25.5%	3(107)	3.49	0.018
<i>S. lubricipeda</i>	-	-	0.603±0.066	45.0%	2(240)	6.33	0.0021
<i>P. bucephala</i>	-	-	0.706±0.115	53.3%	2(66)	2.08	0.13
<i>A. rumicis</i>	-	-	0.466±0.047	45.1%	2(243)	2.35	0.097
<i>C. fraxini</i>	0.991±0.174	64.3%	0.955±0.105	78.7%	3(52)	6.50	0.0008
<i>O. gothica</i>	-	-	0.523±0.043	61.0%	2(201)	1.25	0.28

\*3rd instar before the last instar; \*\*2nd instar before the last instar

Table 4. ANOVA results for instar-specific final weight : between-species comparison.

Instar studied /Number of species	R <sup>2</sup>	df	MS	F	p
<b>L-3* (3 species)</b>					
standardised initial weight	25.5%	1	0.247	39.27	<.0001
species	10.2%	2	0.049	7.84	0.0007
species*standardised initial weight	10.6%	2	0.051	8.21	0.0005
error	71.5%	110	0.006		
<b>L-2** (7 species)</b>					
standardised initial weight	30.2%	1	1.740	286.94	<.0001
species	1.9%	6	0.018	2.98	0.072
species*standardised initial weight	1.6%	6	0.019	3.10	0.0054
error	48.4%	459	0.006		
<b>L-1*** (9 species)</b>					
standardised initial weight	23.5%	1	2.043	294.87	<.0001
species	1.5%	8	0.016	2.35	0.016
species*standardised initial weight	1.6%	8	0.017	2.48	0.011
error	58.2%	729	0.007		
<b>Last (10 species)</b>					
standardised initial weight	9.7%	1	1.042	103.42	<.0001
species	1.4%	9	0.016	1.65	0.096
species*standardised initial weight	1.4%	9	0.016	1.68	0.090
error	81.1%	863	0.010		

\*3rd instar before the last instar; \*\*2nd instar before the last instar; \*\*\* penultimate instar

Table 5. ANOVA results for standardised final weight of an instar. A “case” is a combination of species and instar.

Effect	R <sup>2</sup>	df	MS	F	p
case	2.5%	28	0.023	2.93	<.0001
standardised initial weight	17.9%	1	4.679	586.95	<.0001
case*standardised initial weight	2.5%	28	0.024	3.01	<.0001
error	65.9%	2161	0.0079		

Table 6. Between-sexes comparison of the values of the slope for the regression of standardised final on standardised initial weight of an instar; the significance of standardised initial weight of an instar\*sex interaction is given. L-3, L-2 and L-1 designate 3rd, 2nd, and 1st instars before the last instar respectively.

Species	Instar	b ± SE		R <sup>2</sup>		df**	F	p
		♀	♂					
<i>A. levana</i>	L-1	0.435±0.067	40.3%	0.430±0.068	42.0%	116	0.02	0.88
	Last	0.430±0.079	30.6%	0.521±0.091	29.7%	143	0.26	0.61
<i>L. marginata</i>	Last	0.559±0.166	25.4%	0.643±0.189	22.3%	73	0.08	0.77
<i>P. consonaria</i>	L-1	0.669±0.129	36.7%	0.649±0.099	50.9%	87	0.01	0.94
	Last	0.492±0.087	39.0%	0.333±0.057	42.4%	95	1.94	0.16
<i>E. versicolora</i>	L-3	0.242±0.221	6.6%	0.422±0.161	21.5%	42	0.40	0.53
	L-2	0.836±0.164	51.7%	0.653±0.120	50.4%	53	1.74	0.19
	L-1	0.602±0.155	33.9%	0.929±0.143	55.2%	63	1.13	0.29
	Last	0.516±0.153	28.0%	0.554±0.165	24.7%	63	0.02	0.89
<i>P. populi</i>	L-3	0.275±0.164	9.7%	0.048±0.097	1.2%	46	1.37	0.24
	L-2	0.487±0.182	24.5%	0.799±0.308	30.9%	37	0.31	0.58
	L-1	0.292±0.147	17.8%	0.429±0.176	31.3%	31	0.31	0.57
	Last	1.228±0.262	45.6%	0.012±0.351	0.01%	47	8.49	0.0055
<i>S. lubricipeda</i>	L-2	0.609±0.097	41.4%	0.598±0.090	49.9%	99	0.03	0.87
	L-1	0.599±0.073	47.0%	0.628±0.100	37.6%	138	0.01	0.93
	Last	0.127±0.129	1.3%	0.426±0.105	20.4%	137	3.21	0.075
<i>Ph. bucephala</i>	L-2	0.674±0.203	38.0%	0.736±0.119	74.3%	31	0.03	0.85
	L-1	0.822±0.180	53.5%	0.957±0.292	43.3%	32	0.13	0.72
	Last	0.361±0.329	6.2%	0.458±0.298	14.4%	32	0.02	0.87
<i>A. rumicis</i>	L-2	0.488±0.062	50.0%	0.444±0.072	40.8%	116	0.22	0.64
	L-1	0.553±0.110	27.3%	0.590±0.082	47.3%	124	0.03	0.85
	Last	0.495±0.125	17.9%	0.570±0.088	41.5%	129	0.15	0.70
<i>C. fraxini</i>	L-3	1.097±0.287	67.5%	0.954±0.207	70.1%	16	0.08	0.78
	L-2	0.852±0.162	75.3%	1.085±0.162	81.6%	20	1.76	0.19
	L-1	0.613±0.164	60.7%	0.323±0.174	18.7%	25	1.49	0.23
	Last	-0.247±0.457	5.5%	0.149±0.382	1.8%	25	0.45	0.51
<i>O. gothica</i>	L-2	0.513±0.062	59.4%	0.536±0.061	62.9%	90	0.03	0.85
	L-1	0.562±0.093	42.2%	0.554±0.096	36.1%	52	1.76	0.19
	Last	0.511±0.143	20.5%	0.426±0.108	20.7%	108	0.30	0.58

\*\* Den DF; Num DF =1 in all the cases

Table 7. Significance of initial weight of an instar\*brood interaction in an ANOVA model for final weight of an instar with brood as an additional factor . L-3, L-2 and L-1 designate 3rd, 2nd., and 1st. instars before the last instar respectively.

Species	Instar	Number of broods	R <sup>2</sup>	df Num(Den)	F	p
<i>A. levana</i>	L-1	3	0.06%	2(114)	0.07	0.93
	Last	3	3.12%	2(141)	0.72 (Z)**	0.47**
<i>L. marginata</i>	Last	3	0.17%	2(71)	0.10	0.90
<i>P. consonaria</i>	L-1	4	2.44%	3(84)	1.55	0.20
	Last	4	0.79%	3(93)	0.46	0.71
<i>E. versicolora</i>	L-3	2	5.45%	1(42)	3.95	0.053
	L-2	2	0.23%	1(53)	0.27	0.60
	L-1	2	0.00%	1(63)	0.00	0.99
	Last	2	0.25%	1(63)	0.56	0.45
<i>S. lubricipeda</i>	L-2	2	0.42%	1(99)	0.79	0.37
	L-1	2	3.47%	1(138)	9.76	0.0022
	Last	2	0.71%	1(138)	1.13	0.28
<i>A. rumicis</i>	L-2	3	3.63%	2(114)	5.17	0.0071
	L-1	3	1.74%	2(122)	2.59	0.079
	Last	3	1.70%	2(127)	2.05	0.13
<i>C. fraxini</i>	L-3	4	1.72%	3(12)	0.39	0.76
	L-2	4	3.07%	3(16)	0.98	0.42
	L-1	4	13.00%	3(20)	1.96	0.15
	Last	4	24.03%	3(9)	1.85	0.20
<i>O. gothica</i>	L-2	4	1.18%	3(86)	0.94	0.42
	L-1	4	5.05%	3(48)	3.08	0.036
	Last	4	3.23%	3(104)	1.52	0.21

\*\*PROC MIXED, brood as random effect; R-Square calculated using type III sum of squares.

Table 8. Between-treatment comparison of the slope of the regression of standardised pupal weight on standardised initial weight of the last instar at the levels of individual weights and brood mean weights; significance of standardised initial weight\*treatment interaction in determination of standardised pupal weight (two-way ANCOVA with standardised initial weight as covariate).

Level	19°C-trea		22°C-trea		df Num(Den)	R <sup>2</sup>	F	p
	b ± SE	R <sup>2</sup>	b ± SE	R <sup>2</sup>				
individual weights	0.473±0.044	33.7%	0.559±0.035	53.1%	1(445)	0.28%	2.33	0.12
brood mean weights	0.414±0.138	33.3%	0.572±0.091	68.6%	1(36)	1.10%	0.94	0.33

Table 9. Between-sexes comparison of the regression of standardised pupal weight on standardised initial weight of the last instar; significance of standardised initial weight\*sex interaction is given (two-way ANCOVA with the initial weight as continuous variable).

Treatment	$b \pm SE$		$R^2$		df Num(Den)	$R^2$	F	p
	♀	♂						
19°C	0.487±0.062	33.7%	0.457±0.074	27.0%	1(220)	0.026%	0.09	0.76
22°C	0.551±0.048	53.5%	0.420±0.040	49.2%	1(221)	0.86%	4.67	0.031

Table 10. Summarized relationship between standardised initial and final weights of the last instar on the levels of individual weights, mean brood weights and bivariate means of the treatment groups.

Level	$b \pm SE$	$R^2$	df	t	p
Bivariate means of the treatment groups	0.161	-			
Brood means	0.529±0.107	57.4%	26.6*	3.05*	0.0052*
Individual weights	0.412±0.024	38.3%	27.4**	-2.03**	0.0526**

\*for difference estimate between levels of bivariate means of the treatment groups and brood means.

\*\*for difference estimate between levels of brood means and individual weights.

Table 11. The effect of treatment on the initial weight of the last instar, pupal weight, last instar duration and RGR during the second day of the last instar (PROC TTEST): in general and separately by sexes.

Variable	Overall			♀			♂		
	df	t	p	df	t	p	df	t	p
initial weight	444	13.87	<.0001	228	9.68	<.0001	213	10.25	<.0001
pupal weight	447	2.85	0.0046	228	0.79	0.43	206	3.38	0.0009
last instar duration	436	-3.72	0.0002	229	-3.11	0.0021	199	-2.31	0.022
RGR2	445	-3.32	0.0010	228	-2.45	0.0148	206	-2.20	0.029

Table 12. ANCOVA results for pupal weight, with the initial weight of the last instar, RGR during the second day of the last instar, and the last instar duration as covariates: for the total sample separately by sexes.

Effect	R <sup>2</sup>	MS	F	p
Overall				
initial weight	41.65%	85800	367.72	<.0001
treatment	0.14%	288	1.24	0.26
initial weight*treatment	0.44%	906	3.88	0.049
RGR2	0.00%	14	0.06	0.80
initial weight*RGR2	0.04%	87	0.38	0.54
RGR2*treatment	0.63%	1299	5.57	0.018
initial weight*RGR2*treatment	0.72%	1485	6.37	0.012
♀				
initial weight	38.70%	41898	182.26	<.0001
treatment	0.62%	678	2.95	0.087
initial weight*treatment	1.26%	1364	5.93	0.015
RGR2	0.24%	263	1.14	0.28
initial weight*RGR2	0.02%	23	0.10	0.75
RGR2*treatment	1.83%	1977	8.60	0.0037
initial weight*RGR2*treatment	1.82%	1976	8.60	0.0037
♂				
initial weight	35.91%	27336	136.39	<.0001
treatment	0.00%	0	0.00	0.99
initial weight*treatment	0.03%	25	0.13	0.72
RGR2	0.00%	3	0.02	0.89
initial weight*RGR2	0.10%	82	0.41	0.52
RGR2*treatment	0.18%	136	0.68	0.41
initial weight*RGR2*treatment	0.26%	199	1.00	0.31
♂*				
initial weight	38.70%	29447	147.78	<.0001
treatment	2.21%	1682	8.44	0.0041
RGR2	4.30%	3279	16.46	<.0001
RGR2*treatment	0.19%	146	0.74	0.39

\*after backward elimination, no interaction was significant

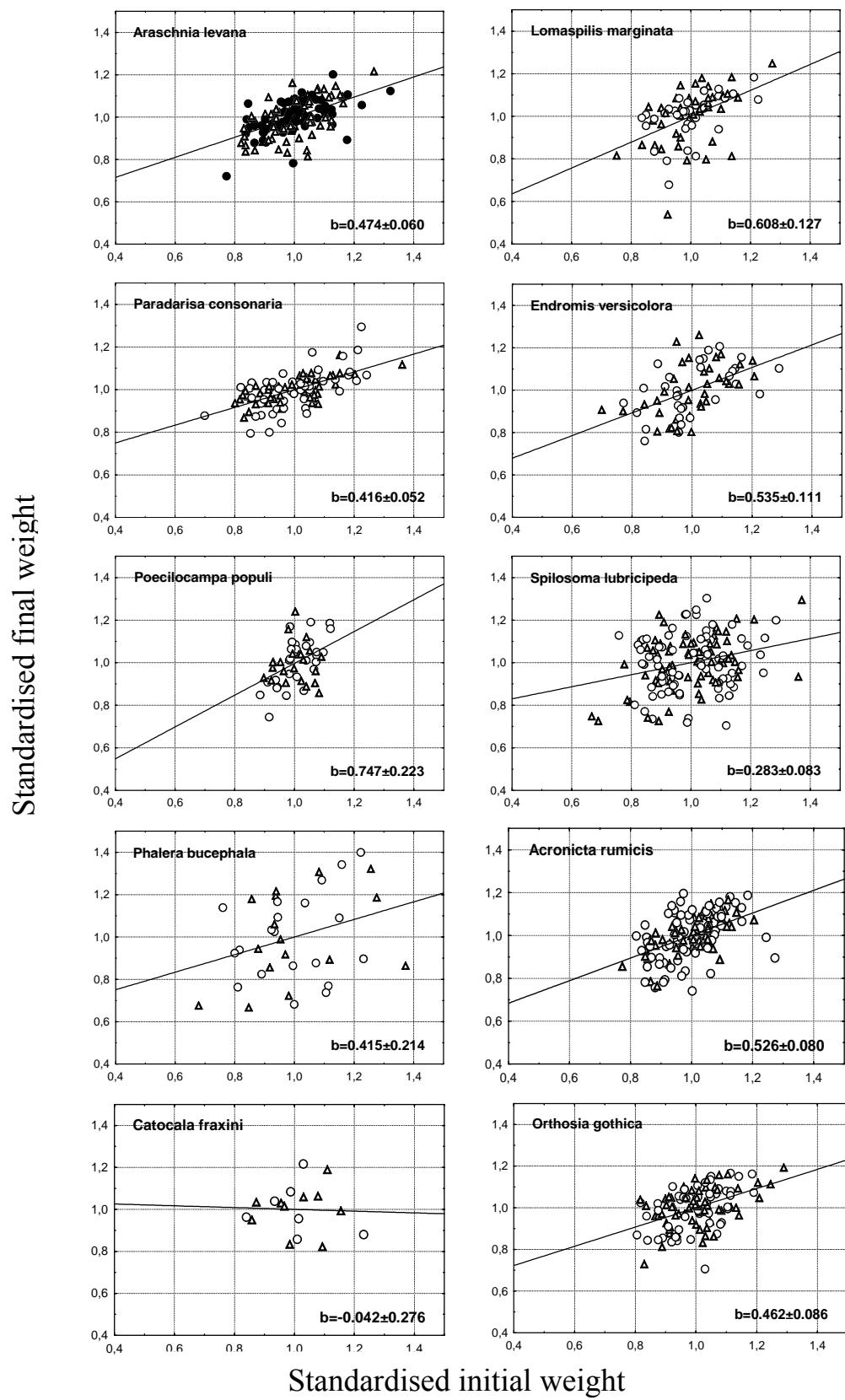


Fig. 1. Relationships between initial weight of the last instar and pupal weight in different species, both variables being divided by the mean values of respective samples. Triangles stand for males, circles for females, values of slope ( $\pm SE$ ) are indicated.

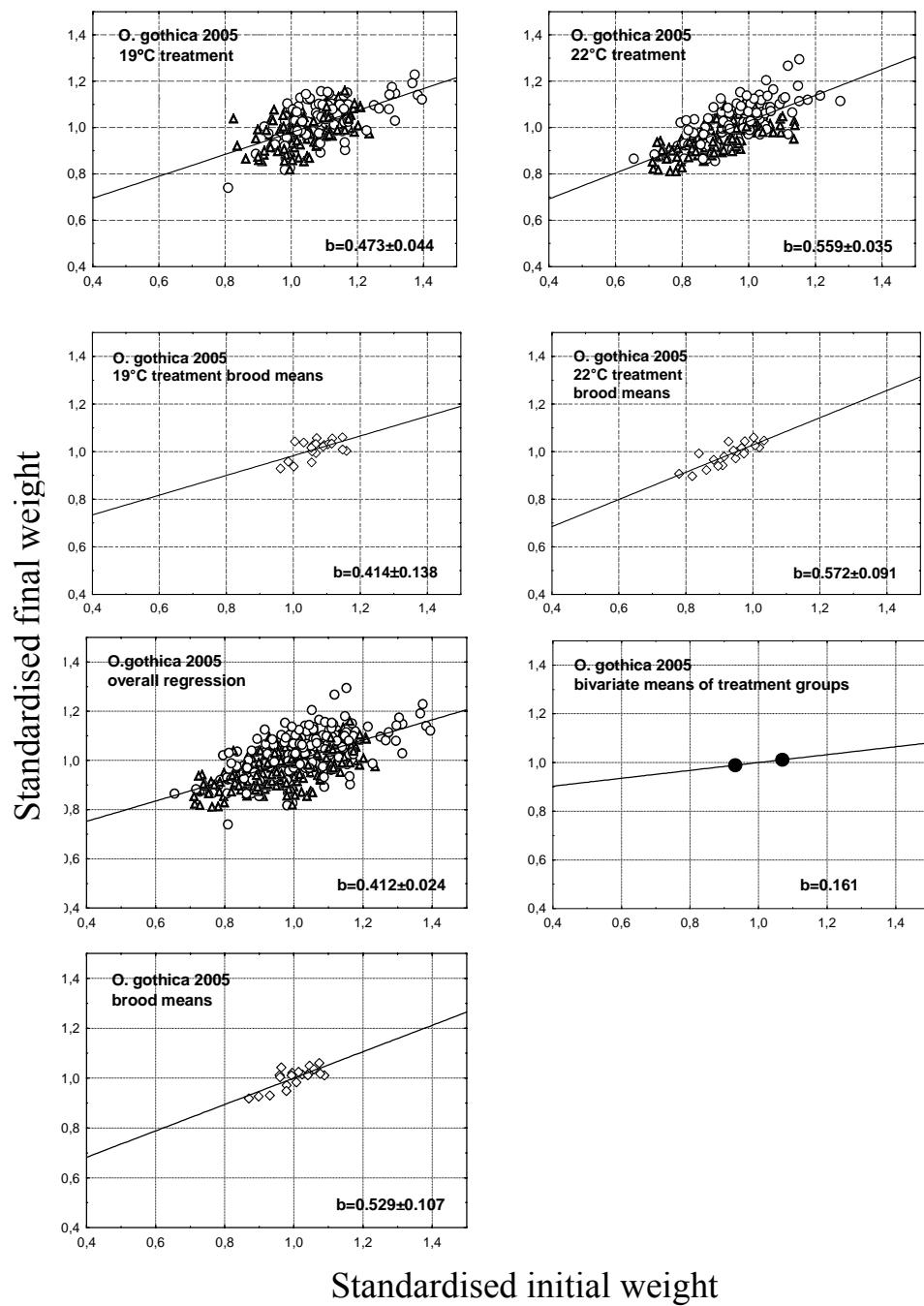


Fig. 2. Relationship between initial weight of the last instar and pupal weight in *O. gothica* 2005 experiment on the levels of individual weights, brood mean weights and bivariate means of treatment groups. Both variables are divided by the mean values of respective samples. Triangles stand for males, circles for females, values of slopes ( $\pm$ SE) are indicated.

## **Appendix.**

To compare the genetic and the environmental component of the correlation between initial and final weight of an instar, the following SAS program was run:

```
proc mixed;
  class br;
  model pupwei=t56 b56/ solution ddfm=kenwardroger;
  random intercept/ type=un subject=br;
  estimate 'difference' t56 -1 b56 1;
run;
```

in which br stands for brood (class variable with 20 levels);  
pupwei is the actual pupal weight of every individual insect;  
t56 is the mean initial weight (i.e. weight at the boundary of the 5th and 6th instar) and in the two treatments (all larvae were assigned the mean value of the treatment they belonged to);  
b56 is mean pupal weight of each particular brood.

The difference of the genetic correlation (i.e. the correlation at the level of brood means) from the overall one (correlation at the level of individual values) was tested analogously:

```
proc mixed;
  class br;
  model pupwei=t56 wei56/ solution ddfm=kenwardroger;
  random intercept/ type=un subject=br;
  estimate 'difference' t56 -1 wei56 1;
run;
```

in which wei56 stands for the actual individual-level value of initial weight,

## **Kokkuvõte**

Putukatel on valmiku kehakaal reeglina tugevas positiivses seoses organismi kohasusega. Kasvu diskreetne iseloom, st selle jaotatus kasvujärkudeks, võib toimida piiranguna optimaalse kehakaalu saavutamisel läbi tugeva seose kasvujärgu alg- ja lõppkaalu vahel. Töö referatiivses osas on analüüsitud kehakaalule toimivaid valikusurveid ja kehakaalu determinatsiooni füsioloogilisi mehhaneeme.

Käesoleva töö originaalosas uuriti seost kasvujärgu lõpp- ja algkaalu vahel korrelatiivselt 10 liblikaliigil. Seost väljendati kvantitatiivselt vastava regressioonsirge tõusuna. Lisaks sellele uuriti ühel mudelliigil kõnealust seost ka manipulaatiivselt. Eesmärgiks oli, eristada seose geneetilist komponenti (regressioon pesakondade keskmiste kaalude tasemel) keskkonnast tulenevast (seos manipilatsioonide keskmiste tasemel).

Kasvujärgu alg- ja lõppkaalu vaheline seos oli eri liikidel ja eri kasvujärkudes üldjoontes sarnane. Liikidevahelised erinevused olid olulised varajastes kasvujärkudes, kuid kadusid viimases kasvujärgus. Liigi piires ei erinenud viimase kasvujärgu alg- ja lõppkaalu vaheline seos reeglina oluliselt eri sugude ja pesakondade vahel. Manipulatiivne uuring näitas, et viimases kasvujärgus kaaludevahelise seose geneetiline komponent on tugevam kui keskkonnamõjudest tulenev komponent. Töö tulemused lubavad eeldada mingi füsioloogilise piirangu olemasolu viimase kasvujärgu sees, mis võib olla seotud kasvu diskreetsuse kui niisugusega või metamorfoosi reguleerivatega mehhanismidega.

## **Tänuavaldused**

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