

Chromosome numbers of some Indian moths

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Abstract

Cytological investigations in forty-five species of Indian moths belonging to ten families (Tinaeidae, Limacodidae, Thyrididae, Pyralididae, Lasiocampidae, Saturnidae, Sphingidae, Noctuidae, Lymantriidae, Hypsidae) of Lepidoptera revealed haploid chromosome numbers varying from 12 to 31, the latter number being predominant (in 26 species). Their haploid chromosome numbers at metaphase I and II are stated in a table.

Introduction

Chromosomal studies in Indian Lepidoptera have made very little headway although some attention has been paid to this branch in recent years (Gupta, 1964; Rishi, 1973, 1975; Nayak, 1975; Narang & Gupta, 1979a; Rao & Murty, 1976). The present work pertains to the male meiotic chromosomes of 45 species of moths belonging to ten different families.

Material and methods

Larvae of the different species of moths were collected from their respective host plants and were reared in cages under laboratory conditions. Testes of fifth-instar larvae and early pupae were dissected out in physiological saline, fixed in aceto-alcohol (1:3), squashed and stained with Heidenhains iron haematoxylin and were made permanent. The slides were examined under a Meopta binocular research microscope and good metaphase-I and -II stages were scored to determine the haploid chromosome number. Spermatogonial metaphase counts confirmed the diploid number.

Results

The 45 species investigated and their haploid chromosome numbers (n) as determined in spermatocytic division I and II are given in Table 1.

Table 1.

SUPERFAMILY, family and species	n (Division I & II)
TINAEOIDEA	
Tinaeidae	
<i>Nephantis serinopa</i> Meyr.	30
PSYCHOIDEA	
Limacodidae	
<i>Parasa lepida</i> Cram.	19
<i>Parasa gentilis</i> Suell.	24
PYRALIDOIDEA	
Thyrididae	
<i>Rhodoneura myrtaea</i> Drury	31
Pyralididae	
<i>Antigastra catalaunalis</i> Dup.	31
<i>Chilo traea infuscatellus</i> Sn.	29
(Sugarcane stem-borer)	
<i>Chilo suppressalis</i> Walk.	12
(Striped borer)	
<i>Cnaphalocrocis medinalis</i> Guen.	29
<i>Corcyra cephalonica</i> Staint.	27
(Rice moth)	

Table 1. (continued)

SUPERFAMILY, family and <i>species</i>	n (Division I & II)
<i>Crocidolomia binotalis</i> Zell.	31
<i>Dichocrocis nilusalis</i> Walk.	30
<i>Dichocrocis punctiferalis</i> Guen.	31
<i>Galleria mellonella</i> Linn. (Wax moth)	30
<i>Lamprosema indicata</i> Fabr.	31
<i>Lepyrodes neptis</i> Cram.	31
<i>Margorina indica</i> Saund. (Pumpkin caterpillar)	31
<i>Maruca testulalis</i> Gey.	31
<i>Orthaga exvinacea</i> Hmps. (Mango shoot-webber)	29
<i>Pyrausta sanguinalis</i> Linn.	31
<i>Tryporyza incertulas</i> Walk. (Rice stem-borer)	22
BOMBYCOIDEA	
Lasiocampidae	
<i>Crinocraspida torrida</i> Moore	26
<i>Dendrolinus hyrtaca</i> Cramer	31
Saturniidae	
<i>Antheraea mylitta</i> Dr.	31
<i>Antheraea paphia</i> Linn.	31
SPHINGOIDEA	
Sphingidae	
<i>Acherontia styx</i> Westw. (Deaths' head moth)	29
<i>Cephonodes hylas</i> Linn. (Humming bird hawk moth)	29
<i>Deilephila (Daphnis) nerii</i> (Dark olivegreen pink-moth)	29
<i>Macroglossum bombylans</i> Bois.	29
<i>Macroglossum gyrans</i> Walk. (Dark coloured humming bird hawk moth)	29
<i>Rhyncholaba acteus</i> Cram.	28
<i>Theretra oldenlandiae</i> Fabr.	29
NOCTUOIDEA	
Noctuidae	
<i>Achaea janata</i> Linn.	31
<i>Acontia intersepta</i> Guen.	31
<i>Anomis sabulifera</i> Guen. (Jute looper)	31
<i>Cosmophila erosa</i> Hubn. (Green semi-looping larva)	31
<i>Earias fabia</i> Stoll.	31
<i>Heliothis armigera</i> Hubn.	31
<i>Hyblaea puera</i> Cram.	31
<i>Plusia orichalcea</i> Fabr.	31
<i>Plusia signata</i> Fabr.	31
<i>Sesamia inferens</i> Walk. (Pink borers)	31
<i>Tarache tropica</i> Guen.	31
Lymantriidae	
<i>Euproctis virguncula</i>	31
Hypsidae	
<i>Hypsa alciphron</i> Cram.	31

Discussion

An examination of the chromosome numbers in different species of Lepidoptera shows the most common haploid number to be $n = 31$ (Makino, 1951; Saitoh, 1959; Maeki, 1961; Suomalainen, 1969; Robinson, 1971; White, 1973; Rishi, 1973; Werner, 1974; Nayak, 1975; Ennis, 1976). The majority of species investigated here also have the standard lepidopteran karyotype. Out of 45 taxa studied, as many as twenty-six have 31 chromosomes in their haploid set; three have 30; nine have 29; one has 28; one has 27; one has 26; one has 24; one has 22; one has 19 and one has 12. On the whole the haploid chromosome number (n) varies between 12 to 31. White (1954) in his compilation 'Animal Cytology and Evolution' writes, 'In point of fact, 31 is the most frequent number . . . ; but 29, 30 and 31 are so nearly equally common that it does not seem legitimate to consider any one of them as the type number in preference to the others'. (see White, 1954 page 176). Beliajeff (1930), on the other hand, considered the haploid number 30 as the ancestral number common to both Lepidoptera and Trichoptera. We agree with White (1954, 1973) as well as with Suomalainen (1969) that the commonest haploid number (n) in Lepidoptera is 31 and that they show a marked mode at 29–31. Nevertheless it is difficult to establish an ancestral number. There are families or sub-families where almost all members have $n = 31$, as in Nymphalinae or $n = 30$ as in Limenitini and Papilionidae (White, 1973 page 413). In our study also all species of Noctuidae have the haploid number 31. Ennis (1976) reported the most encountered haploid numbers as 30 and 31 in the 53 species studied by him. Remarkable stability is thus noticed in the chromosome numbers of Lepidoptera, yet in many genera and groups variations occur, the lowest haploid number being 7 and the highest 223. The increase or decrease of chromosome numbers may either be due to chromosomal fission or fusion as pointed out by White (1973). Lepidopteran chromosomes are suitable for the operation of such a process due to their holocentric organization leaving all fragmented chromosomes viable. Further variation in chromosome counts may be noted even in the cells of the same species. This is either due to occurrence of supernumerary chromosomes in addition to the normal set, or to the presence of unpaired univalent chromosomes in the karyotypes of natural interspecific

hybrids. On no account can the variation in chromosome number be attributed to polyploidy as put forth by Lorkovic (1941), since the higher chromosome numbers established were no multiples of the chromosome numbers of any low-numbered species. Suomalainen (1969) has furnished evidence against this polyploidy hypothesis by comparing the DNA contents of nuclei of different *Cidaria* species determined by photometry. Moreover, the increase in chromosome number as observed in related species is accompanied by a decrease in chromosome size; had there been polyploidy, then the size would remain unaltered in spite of the numerical change. The diffuse nature of lepidopteran chromosomes favours fragmentation and fusion as the means of evolution of the chromosome number in Lepidoptera.

There are fewer species with higher than with lower numbers if 31 is taken as the ancestral number. Thus the trend of evolution is more towards the lower side of the scale than towards the higher number.

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