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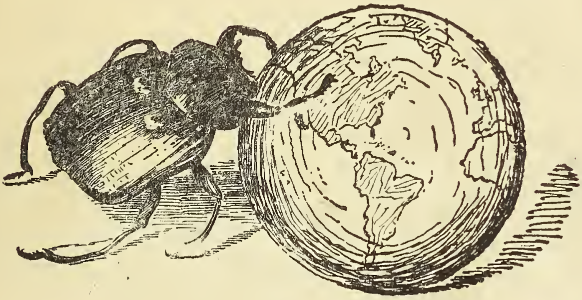

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A REVISION OF THE NEARTIC SILPHINI AND NICROPHORINI BASED UPON THE FEMALE GENITALIA (COLEOPTERA, SILPHIDÆ)

By Ross H. Arnett, Jr.

Ithaca, New York

The use of the female genitalia as a basis for identification of genera and species of Coleoptera has been greatly neglected. In some groups of beetles, however, the female genitalia apparently offer more diversity of form among species than do those of the male. Tanner in 1927 pointed out a growing necessity for a study of the genitalia of beetles for specific descriptions. The genitalia are naturally more constant within a species than other parts and they give the taxonomist a better concept of a species, and its subspecific forms and categories.

The purpose of this study is to present the comparative morphology of the female genitalia of the Neartic Silphini and Nicrophorini. It is hoped that the drawings, the key to the genitalia and the synopsis will be an aid to identification. No basic conclusions have been made as to relationships, although certain tendencies have been indicated.

Acknowledgments.—I wish to express my sincere appreciation and thanks to Professor J. C. Bradley of Cornell University, under whose direction this work was done, for his many suggestions and criticisms. I am also greatly indebted to Mr. V. S. L. Pate of Cornell University for help in preparing the paper itself and to Mr. J. G. Franclemont for aid in developing a technique for the study of the genitalia.

I am indebted to Professor M. H. Hatch of the University of Washington and to the United States National Museum for their generous loan of material for which I thank them sincerely.

Finally, I wish to thank Mr. E. D. McDonald, Jr. and Mr. Rudolph Schuster for their aid in making the drawings, and to my wife Mary both for aid in typing the paper and for her continual encouragement.

METHODS.—The methods used in this study are somewhat different from those used by Tanner. The beetle was first relaxed in hot water and the genitalia removed with a pair of forceps and boiled in caustic potash. They were then put in water and the mid-ventral membrane cut, the two lateral plates (the paraprocts) flattened out on each side of the dorsal plate (the proctiger) and the coxite bent out to the side of the valvifer so that the whole organ was flattened out. It was then mounted in balsam. This enables projection drawings to be made. It is essentially the same method as that used in studying the male genitalia of Lepidoptera.

SEXUAL DIFFERENCES.—In the female Silphini, the sutural angles of the elytra are very acute, whereas in the males they are generally but not always rounded. The hind femora are greatly enlarged in the males of *Silpha littoralis* L. and normal in size in the female sex. Little sexual differences is evident in *Thanatophilus truncata* Say.

In the Nicrophorini studied, the males have the eyes situated well forward on the head, the clypeus large and the fore tarsal pulvilli expanded, whereas in the females the eyes are placed well towards the back of the head, the clypeus is appreciably smaller and the fore tarsal pulvilli are simple.

SPECIES STUDIED

NEARTIC SPECIES.—A list of the species considered in this paper follows. Only a few forms of subspecific rank have been studied. Of those studied, however, some changes have had to be made in their ranking. Of the others, the opinion of other authors has been followed in considering their rank. In the case of *Nicrophorus pulsator* Gistel, and *Silpha tyrolensis* Leach, the evidence of their existence in the Neartic region is insufficient and they have not been included here.

NEARTIC SILPHINI AND NICROPHORINI

Silphini

- *Silpha* L.
  - *littoralis* L.
    - form *surinamensis* Fab.
    - ab. *bizonatus* Port.
  - *disciocollis* Brulle
    - *analis* Chev.
    - *æquinoctialis* Gistel
    - *braziliensis* Dej.
    - *cayennensis* Berg. (nec Sturm.)
    - var. *elongata* Port.
    - var. *discreta* Port.
- *Thanatophilus* Leach

- Subgenus *Oiceoptoma* Leach
  - *americana* L.
    - *peltata* Catesby
    - ab. *affinis* Kby.
    - *terminata* Kby.
    - *canadensis* Kby.
    - acc. *brunnipenis* Hatch
  - *noveboracensis* Forst.
    - *marginalis* Fab.
    - *marginata* Kby.
  - *quadripunctata* L.
    - *quadripunctulata* Muller
    - *quadrimaculata* Samouelle
    - var. *sexpunctata* Gerh.
    - ab. *bifasciata* Schulze.
  - *inæqualis* Fab.
    - subsp. *rugulosa* Port.
    - *subrugata* Cherv. nom. nud.
    - acc. *bicolorata* Hatch
  - *ramosa* Say
    - *cervaria* Mann.
    - *œnescens* Casey

- Subgenus *Thanatophilus* s. str.
  - *lapponica* Hbst.
    - *tuberculata* Germ.
    - subsp. *caudata* Say
    - *californica* Mann.
    - subsp. *granigera* Cherv.
  - *trituberculata* Kby.
    - *sagax* Mann.
  - *coloradensis* Wick.
    - *obalskii* Port.
  - *truncata* Say
    - *mexicana* Cherv. in litt.
- *Blitophaga* Reitt.
  - *opaca* L.
    - *hirta* Schaff.
    - *villosa* Naezen
    - *tomentosa* Villers
    - var. *samnitica* Fiori
    - var. *binotata* Port.
  - *bituberosa* Lec.

Nicrophorini

- *Nicrophorus* Fabricius

- Subgenus *Necrocharis* Portevin
  - *carolinus* Fab.
    - *mediatus* Fab.
    - ab. *mysticallis* Ang.
    - ab. *scapulatus* Port.
    - ab. *dolosus* Port.
    - ab. *floridæ* Hatch
    - ab. *krautwurini* Hatch
    - ab. *lunulatus* Hatch
    - ab. *nebraskæ* Hatch

- Subgenus *Nicrophorus* s. str.
  - *orbicollis* Say
    - *halli* Kby.
    - *quadrisignatus* Cast.

humator Fab.
  sulactus Fisch.
  paratype of *grandior* Angell
  var. *atricornis* Meier.
  ab. *maculosus* Meier.
  ab. *rubroplearalis* Delah.
  delahoni Schilsky i. litt.
  ab. *signiceps* Delah.
  subsp. *tenuipes* Lewis
sayi Cast.
  lumulatus Gistel
  lunatus Lec.
  luniger G. & H.
marginatus Fab.
  requiscator Gistel
  montezumæ Matt.
  ab. *cordiger* Port.
  ab. *sanjuanæ* Hatch
  ab. *engelhardti* Hatch
  ab. *leachi* Hatch
vespilloides Hbst.
  mortuorum Fab.
  fractus Port.
  ab. *andrewesi* Port.
  ab. *aurora* Motch.
  hebes Kby.
  pygmæus Kby.
  vespilloides Lec. (nec. Hbst.)
  defodiens Mann.
  disjunctus Wil.-Ellis
  ab. *humeralis* Hatch
  ab. *tristis* Port.
  ab. *steinfeldi* Smirnov.
  ab. *maculatus* Wil.-Ellis
  ab. *altumi* Westh.
  ab. *subfasciatus* Port.
  ab. *subinterruptus* Pic.
  var. *borealis* Port.
  var. *sylvaticus* Reitt
  ab. *sylvivagus* Reitt
  ab. *ruber* Hatch
  ab. *nearticus* Hatch
  ab. *nicolayi* Hatch
  ab. *oregonesis* Hatch
  subsp. *defodiens* Mann.
  nunemacheri Hatch (nec. Port.)
  ab. *binotoides* Hatch
  binotatus Hatch (nec. Port.)
  ab. *conversator* Walk.
  defodiens var. *b.* Mann.
  lateralis Port.
  pollinctor Lec. (nec. Mann.)
  ab. *pacificæ* Hatch
  ab. *walkeri* Hatch
  conversator Port. (nec. Walk.)
  ab. *gaigei* Hatch
  ab. *kadjakenis* Port.
  ab. *mannerheimi* Port.
  ab. *binotatus* Port.
  plagiatus Mots.
vespillo L.
  vulgaris Fab.
  cadaverinus Gravenh.
  curvipes Duftschm.
  ab. *faureli* Fauconnet
  ab. *varendorffi* Westh.
  ab. *bolsmanni* Westh.
  ab. *æthiops* Scheicher
  ab. *minor* Westh.
  ab. *germani* Hatch

- *americanus* Oliv.
  - *grandis* Fab.
  - *virginicus* Frol.
- *melsheimeri* Kby.
- *hybridus* Hatch & Angell
  - var. *minesotianus* Hatch
- *nigritus* Mann.
  - var. *ruficornis* Mots.
- *pustulatus* Hers.
  - *bicolor* Newn.
  - *tardus* Mann.
  - ab. *coloradensis* Hatch
  - ab. *noveboracensis* Hatch
  - ab. *fasciatus* Port.
  - ab. *unicolor* Port.
- *investigator* Zett.
  - *ruspator* Er.
  - *infodiens* Mann.
  - *confossor* Mots.
  - *microcephalus* Thoms.
  - *pustulatus* Horn. (nec. Hers.)
  - *labiatus* Mots.
  - *vestigator* Gyll. (nec. Hers.)
  - subsp. *investigator* Zett.
  - ab. *suturalis* Mots.
  - *infodiens* var. *b.* Mann.
  - ab. *funeror* Reitt.
  - ab. *funerator* Faur.
  - var. *variolosus* Port.
  - ab. *intermedius* Reitt.
  - ab. *jamezi* Hatch
  - ab. *lutescens* Port.
  - subsp. *maritimus* Guer.
  - *aleuticus* Guer.
  - *pollintor* Mann.
  - *sibiricus* Mots.
  - *infodiens* var. *c.* Mann.
  - ab. *martini* Hatch
  - ab. *clarencei* Hatch
  - ab. *sitkensis* Hatch
  - ab. *massetti* Hatch
  - ab. *grahami* Hatch
  - ab. *charlottei* Hatch
  - ab. *particeps* Fisch
  - ab. *japani* Hatch
- *tomentosus* Web.
  - *velutinus* Fab.
  - ab. *communis* Hatch
  - ab. *elongatus* Hatch
  - ab. *angustefasciatus* Port.
  - ab. *splendens* Hatch
  - ab. *brevis* Hatch
  - var. *aurigaster* Port.
- *germanicus* L.
  - *listerianus* Fourer
  - ab. *specious* Schultze
  - ab. *bimaculatus* Steph.
  - ab. *frontalis* Fisch.
  - ab. *fassifer* Reitt.
  - ab. *apicalis* Kraatz
  - var. *ruthenus* Mots.
  - *grandior* Ang.
- *guttula* Mots.
  - subsp. *guttula* Mots.
  - ab. *ruficornis* Mots.
  - ab. *sanfranciscæ* Hatch
  - ab. *punctatus* Hatch
  - ab. *shastæ* Hatch
  - ab. *hypomerus* Hatch
  - ab. *lajollæ* Hatch
  - ab. *vandykei* Ang.
  - ab. *quadriguttatus* Ang.
  - ab. *kuschei* Hatch

- *mexicanus* Matt.
- *hecate* Bland
  - ab. *wallisi* Hatch
  - ab. *californiæ* Hatch
  - ab. *intermedius* Hatch
  - ab. *disjunctus* Port.
  - ab. *woodgatei* Hatch
  - ab. *phoenix* Hatch
  - ab. *novamexicæ* Hatch
  - ab. *rubripennis* Port.
  - ab. *rubrissimus* Hatch
  - ab. *immaculosis* Hatch
- *obscurus* Kby.
  - *melsheimeri* Lec.
  - ab. *discontinus* Hatch
  - ab. *ruber* Hatch

EXOTIC FORMS AND THEIR RELATIONSHIP TO NEARTIC SPECIES.—The following list of species are exotic forms of which the female genitalia have been studied. The first name in each group is that of the type for the genus or subgenus, or it is a typical neartic species of that group. The next names are those studied with the generic or subgeneric name as used by other authors following it, if it differs from the names employed in this paper.

- *Silpha littoralis* L.
  - *Silpha cayennesis* Sturn.
  - *Silpha bigutatta* Phil.
    - *Necrodes bigutatta* Phil.
    - *Paranecrodes biguttata* Phil.
- *Thanatophilus* (*Oiceoptoma*) *americana* L.
  - *Thanatophilus thoracica* L.
    - *Silpha thoracica* L.
  - *Thanatophilus japonica* Mots.
    - *Silpha japonica* Mots.
  - *Thanatophilus obscura* L.
    - *Silpha obscura* L.
  - *Thanatophilus carinata* Hbst.
    - *Silpha carinata* Hbst.
  - *Thanatophilus lærigata* Fab.
    - *Silpha lærigata* Fab.
  - *Thanatophilus perforata* Gbl.
    - *Silpha perforata* Gbl.
  - *Thanatophilus atrata* L.
    - *Silpha atrata* L.
  - *Thanatophilus nigrita* Creutz
    - *Silpha nigrita* Creutz
  - *Thanatophilus granulata* Oliv.
    - *Silpha granulata* Oliv.
- *Thanatophilus* (*Thanatophilus*) *truncata* Say
  - *Thanatophilus sinuatus* Fab.
    - *Silpha sinuatus* Fab.
  - *Thanatophilus terminata* Hum.
    - *Silpha terminata* Hum.
  - *Thanatophilus rugosus* L.
    - *Silpha rugosus L.*
- *Blitophaga opaca* L.
  - *Blitophaga oblonga* Kust.
    - *Silpha oblonga* Kust.
  - *Blitophaga souverbiei* Fairm.

Silpha souveriei Fairm.
Blitophaga orientalis Brulle
Silpha orientalis Brulle
Nicrophorus (*Nicrophorus*) *vespillo* L.
Nicrophorus prædator Reitt.
Nicrophorus rotundicollis Port.
Nicrophorus didymus Brulle
Nicrophorus interruptus Steph.

SYNOPSIS OF THE NEARTIC SILPHINI AND NICROPHORINI.—The following synopsis is meant to serve as a means of correlating the external characters with those of the genitalia.

TRIBES

Antennæ apparently of ten segments, the second segment being very short and more or less hidden in the tip of the first; elytra short and not covering more than the basal five tergites .... *Nicrophorini*

Antennæ clearly of eleven segments, the second not shortened; elytra, if short, covering more than the basal five tergites .... *Silphini*

Genera *Silphini*

A. Occipital ridge prominent; eyes usually large and prominent; form usually elongate; labrum broadly emarginate; prothoracic spiracle sometimes exposed .... *Silpha* L.

AA. Occipital ridge usually not prominent; eyes not large and prominent; labrum broadly or narrowly emarginate; prothoracic spiracle rarely exposed.

  B. Eyes normal, protruding somewhat from the head; labrum broadly or somewhat narrowly emarginate, but never very narrowly emarginate unless the head is elongate; head normal or elongate, not short, round or compact .... *Thanatophilus* Leach

  BB. Eyes very small, not or only very slightly protruding from the head; head short, round, and compact; labrum very narrowly emarginate .... *Blitophaga* Reitt.

SILPHA

Pronotum oval, black; elytra usually with red apical spots forming a bar, sometimes with red basal markings or sometimes immaculate .... *littoralis* L.

Pronotum transverse, yellowish-brown with a black central area; elytra immaculate .... *discicollis* Brulle

THANATOPHILUS

Sub-genera

Labrum broadly or narrowly emarginate; pronotum rarely tomentose, if tomentose, then orange with a black central area; head and mouth parts often elongate .... *Oiceoptoma* Leach

Labrum always very broadly emarginate; pronotum usually tomentose, if not, then elytra without prominent costæ; head and mouth parts never elongate .... *Thanatophilus* s. str.

Sub-genus *Oiceoptoma*

- A. Pronotum orange or yellow with a black central area.
  - B. Elytra rugose .... *americana* L.
  - BB. Elytra smooth.
    - C. Costæ prominent .... *novaboracensis* Frost.
    - CC. Costæ obscure, elytra tan with four black spots and the scutellum black .... *quadripunctata* L.
- AA. Pronotum black.
  - D. Elytra smooth .... *inæqualis* Fab.
  - DD. Elytra rugose .... *ramosa* Say

Sub-genus *Thanatophilus*

- A. Pronotum tomentose; elytral costæ prominent.
  - B. Intervals of the elytral costæ tuberculate .... *lapponica* Hbst.
  - BB. Intervals of the elytral costæ flat.
    - C. Two inner elytral costæ subequal throughout. *trituberculata* Kby.
    - CC. Two inner elytral costæ nearly obsolete at the base. *coloradensis* Wick
- AA. Pronotum glabrous, costæ obscure .... *truncata* Say

BLITOPHAGA

Surface pubescent; form more elongate .... *opaca* L.
Surface sparsely pubescent; form more oval .... *bituberosa* Lec.

NICROPHORUS

- A. Pronotum oboval, without distinct sculpturing and very narrowly margined (subgenus *Necrocharis*) .... *carolinus* L.
- AA. Pronotum orbicular, transverse or cordate with distinct sculpturing and widely margined on the sides and back (subgenus *Nicrophorus* s. str.).
  - B. Pronotum orbicular, widely margined at the sides and the base. *orbicollis* Say
  - BB. Pronotum not orbicular.
    - C. Pronotum sinuate at the sides, base nearly as wide as the apex, sides and base widely margined, not cordate.
      - D. Metasternal epimeron tomentose.
        - E. Hind tibia curved.
          - F. Metatrochanter spine small and divergent; pronotum disc orange, margin black; front orange .... *americanus* Fab.
          - FF. Metatrochanter spine large and convergent; pronotum black; front black .... *sayi* Lap.

- EE. Hind tibia straight.
  - G. Spine of the metatrochanter obscure; elytra immaculate .... *nigritis* Mann.
  - GG. Spine of the metatrochanter prominent.
    - H. Spine divergent; elytra with orange fascæ .... *pustulatus* Hersch.
    - HH. Spine convergent; elytra immaculate. *humator* Fab.
- DD. Metasternal epimeron glabrous.
  - I. Elytra immaculate; hind tibiæ usually curved. *germanicus* L.
  - II. Elytra with orange fasciæ; hind tibia straight.
    - J. Three terminal segments of the antennæ black .... *vespilloides* Hbst.
    - JJ. Three terminal segments of the antennæ orange.
      - K. Metasternal pubescence brown; abdominal pubescence black. *mexicanus* Matth.
      - KK. Metasternal pubescence yellow; abdominal pubescence brown. *investigator* Zett.
- CC. Pronotum with base much narrower than the apex, sides strongly sinuate, cordate.
  - L. Metasternal epimeron glabrous .... *melsheimeri* Kby.
  - LL. Metasternal epimeron tomentose.
    - M. Thorax tomentose.
      - N. Thorax entirely tomentose. *tomentosus* Web.
      - NN. Thorax tomentose apically only. *vespillo* L.
    - MM. Thorax glabrous.
      - O. Basal segment of the antennal club black.
        - P. Hind tibia straight; disc of the pronotum punctate .... *guttula* Mots.
        - PP. Hind tibia arcuate; disc of the pronotum nearly smooth. *obscurus* Kby.
      - OO. Basal segment of the antennal club orange.
        - Q. Hind tibia arcuate .... *marginatus* Fab.
        - QQ. Hind tibia straight.
          - R. Ventral surface of the posterior tibia densely yellow tomentose .... *hecate* Bland.
          - RR. Ventral surface of the hind tibia sparsely black tomentose .... *hybridus* Hatch & Ang.

GENERAL MORPHOLOGY OF THE GENITALIA.—The same terminology as that adopted by Tanner, which seems to be a usable interpretation of the relationship of the parts, has been used here.

The dorsal plate or proctiger (Pl. I, Fig. 3, p.) forms the upper surface of the genitalia. It has a terminal process (Pl. II, Fig. 8, pro.) sometimes elongate and spatulate, and may be bent at various angles. Frequently it has terminal hairs. It apparently serves as the dorsal guide. The paraprocts (Pl. I, Fig. 3, pp.) are lateral plates forming the sides and bottom of the organ. They sometimes bear setæ. The paraproct bears the valvifer (Pl. I, Fig. 3, vf.) which in turn bears the coxite (Pl. I, Fig. 3, c.). The valvifer is sometimes modified into a lateral guide (Pl. II, Fig. 8, l.g.) appearing claw-like and lobed (Pl. II, Fig. 8, l.) or it may be unmodified and possess setæ. The coxite is a hollow process which supports the stylus (Pl. I, Fig. 3, sty.) either terminally or laterally on the margin. The stylus is of various sizes and length and in some species it is expanded at the apex.

The proctiger is interpreted as a part of the tenth abdominal tergite. The paraprocts are probably parts of the ninth tergite with the styli, coxites and valvifers as appendages of the ninth segment. In this study only the ninth and tenth segments have been considered. The eighth segment consists of two more or less unmodified plates, the tergite and sternite.

KEY TO THE NEARTIC SILPHINI AND NICROPHORINI BASED ON THE FEMALE GENITALIA

1. Valvifer at most only slightly lobed, not developed into a curved process; proctiger never extended and lobed, (*Silphini*) .... (2).
Valvifer with a well developed curved process and the proctiger usually extended and lobed. (*Nicrophorini* one genus *Nicrophorus* Fab.) (14).

2. Stylus apical or lateral; coxite without a lateral projection .... (3).
Stylus lateral; coxite with a lateral projection. (*Blitophaga* Reitt.) (12).

3. Stylus always apical, stout, the diameter nearly that of the coxite; coxite stout and more or less uniform throughout. (*Silpha* L.) ...... (4).
Stylus apical or lateral, if apical, then very small, much smaller than the coxite and the coxite is much wider at the base than at the apex. (*Thanatophilus* Leach.) .... (5).

SILPHA

4\. Coxite with two lateral connecting ridges; stylus broader at the apex. *littoralis* L.
Coxite without ridges; stylus more uniform throughout. *discicollis* Brulle

THANATOPHILUS

5\. Stylus apical or lateral, if lateral then the coxite beyond the stylus is not greatly flattened or lobed. Subgenus *Oiceoptoma* Leach .... (6).
Stylus always lateral; coxite beyond the stylus greatly flattened and slightly lobed. Subgenus *Thanatophilus* s. str. .... (10).
6\. Stylus apical .... *4-punctata* L.
Stylus lateral .... (7).
7\. Stylus long and angulate, nearly reaching the apical end of the coxite. *americana* L.
Stylus short and not angulate, and much shorter than the portion of the coxite beyond the insertion of the stylus .... (8).
8\. Apical portion of the coxite beyond the base of the stylus twice the length of the stylus or less .... (9).
Apical portion of the coxite beyond the base of the stylus much more than twice the length of the stylus .... *ramosa* Say
9\. Bridge (Pl. I, Fig. 3, br.) between the coxite and the valvifer wide; proctiger broadly rounded apically; stylus round at the apex. *novaboracensis* Forst.
Bridge between the coxite and the proctiger narrow; proctiger more angular apically; stylus angulate at the apex .... *inaequalis* Fab.
10\. Stylus greatly enlarged at the apex, more than twice the width of the basal portion .... *truncata* Say.
Stylus enlarged at the apex, but much less than twice the width of the basal portion .... (11).
11\. Coxite with a prominent basal spine below the insertion of the stylus. *coloradensis* Wick.
Coxite without a prominent basal spine below the insertion of the stylus .... (12).
12\. Stylus inserted on the ventral surface of the coxite so that there is apparently a lateral flap covering the base of the stylus. *lapponica* Hbst.
Stylus inserted on the lateral surface of the coxite......*trituberculata* Kby.

BLITOPHAGA

13\. Stylus as long as the lateral lobe of the coxite .... *bituberosa* Lec.
Stylus much shorter than the lateral lobe of the coxite .... *opaca* L.

NICROPHORUS

14\. Coxite with a terminal claw as long or longer than the stylus. (Subgenus *Neocrocharis* Port.) .... *carolinus* L.

Coxite without a terminal claw, or if apparently present, then always much less than the length of the stylus. (Subgenus *Nicrophorus* s. str.) .... (15).

15. Proctiger lobe short and broad .... (16).

Proctiger lobe long and narrow, without an apical spatula. *marginatus* Fab.

Proctiger lobe medium in length and width, with or without an apical spatula .... (18).

16. Proctiger lobe bifurcate .... *orbicollis* Say

Proctiger lobe not bifurcate .... (17).

17. Proctiger lobe truncate, without prominent apical ridge .... *humator* Oliv.

Proctiger lobe round, with prominent apical ridge. (Pl. II, Fig. 8, r.) .... *sayi* Lap.

18. Proctiger without an apical spatula .... *vespilloides* Hbst.

Proctiger with an apical spatula .... (19).

19. Coxite with a basal-lateral lobe; lobe of the claw of the valvifer longer than wide .... *vespillo* L.

Coxite without a basal-lateral lobe; lobe of the claw of the valvifer always broader than long .... (20).

20. Coxite emarginate on the inner lateral margin .... *americanus* L.

Coxite not emarginate .... (21).

21. Lobe of the proctiger sub-truncate .... (22).

Lobe of the proctiger round .... (24).

22. Lobe of the proctiger greatly curved dorsally-ventrally .... (23).

Lobe of the proctiger slightly curved dorsally-ventrally ...... *nigritus* Mann.

23. Spatula of the proctiger lobe broad .... *melsheimeri* Kby.

Spatula of the proctiger lobe narrow .... *hybridus* Hatch & Ang.

24. Lobe of the valvifer claw obscure .... (25).

Lobe of the valvifer claw prominent .... (27).

25. Coxite very narrow .... *hecate* Bland.

Coxite broad .... (26).

26. Proctiger lobe greatly curved dorsally-ventrally .... (28).

Proctiger lobe slightly curved dorsally-ventrally .... (29).

27. Lobe of the claw of the valvifer with setæ, spatula ridged. *germanicus* L.

Lobe of the claw of the valvifer without setæ, spatula not ridged. *pustulatus* Hers.

28. Apical margin of the base of the valvifer concave and nearly parallel with the basal margin .... *mexicanus* Matt.

Apical margin of the base of the valvifer nearly straight and not parallel with the basal margin .... *tomentosus* Web.

29. Spatula of the proctiger lobe oval .... *guttula* Mots.

Spatula of the proctiger lobe round .... (30).

30. Valvifer, exclusive of the lobe, square .... *obscurus* Kby.

Valvifer, exclusive of the lobe, trapizoidal .... *investigator* Zett.

DISCUSSION OF THE NEARTIC SILPHINI AND NICROPHORINI

GENERAL.—The tendencies pointed out here are based only on the species considered in this study and without comparison with other beetles.

On the basis of the female genitalia alone, the Silphini appear to be the more primitive of the two tribes and have been treated so here. But this conclusion is based on the assumption that simplicity of form, as seen in the Silphini, indicates primitiveness rather than reduction. The Nicrophorini are so closely linked together that it is difficult to tell anything about their phylogeny.

Silphini

The proctiger is simple, never lobed, usually with setæ; the paraproct is simple, essentially the same as that of the Nicrophorini, but with setæ. The valvifer at most is lobed only, usually with setæ; the coxite exhibits the greatest variation of the organ. It may have a basal lobe, or be uniform throughout. The stylus is attached to the coxite either terminally or laterally. The stylus is usually uniform in shape, but in some groups it is enlarged at the apex.

Silpha L.

Type: *Silpha littoralis* L., designated by Latreille 1810.

In this genus the stylus is terminal and stout, and is wider at the apex than at the base. The coxite is stout and uniform throughout. The proctiger, paraprocts and the valvifers are unmodified.

Silpha littoralis L.

This species is supposedly European, but the characters used to separate it from the Neartic *surinamensis* Fab. do not adequately separate the two. In the collection of the author there are specimens with immaculate elytra, and the genitalia of the two forms show no differences. Therefore *surinamensis* Fab. is a form of *littoralis* L. and not a distinct species. The genitalia of this species has a setigerous proctiger. The coxite is stout and with two ridges on the outer lateral surface which connect at the apex.

Silpha discicollis Brulle.

Proctiger with setæ; coxite without lateral ridges; stylus less enlarged at the apex.

Thanatophilus Leach

Type: *Silpha rugosa* L.

Coxite blade-like, flattened or uniformly triangular; stylus terminal or lateral, uniform throughout or enlarged at the apex.

Subgenus *Oiceoptoma* Leach

Type: *Silpha thoracica* L.

Coxite uniformly triangular with the stylus terminal, varying to coxite slightly flattened apically and the stylus lateral; stylus uniform throughout. Species as described in the key and synopsis.

Subgenus *Thanatophilus* s. str.

Coxite flattened at the apex, appearing blade-like and strongly curved on the outer side; stylus lateral and enlarged at the apex. The characters of the species are as presented in the key and synopsis.

Blitophaga Reitt.

Type: *Silpha opaca* L.

Coxite with basal lobe or tooth, terminal portion narrow and flattened; stylus small and lateral between the basal lobe and the apex of the coxite, never longer than the basal lobe. The characters of the species are as presented in the key and the synopsis.

Nicrophorini

The greatest difference between this tribe and the Silphini is in the modification of the proctiger. Here the proctiger is usually greatly extended and generally spatulate at the apex, nearly always with setæ. Also, the valvifer is quite different in appearance from that of the Silphini. It is greatly enlarged and extended, flattened and claw-shaped. The coxite is uniform, bearing the stylus terminally in all cases except *Nicrophorus carolinus* L. which has a lateral stylus. The paraproct is without setæ, but at times is ridged. The species of this genus are very closely related with the exception of *Nicrophorus carolinus*

L. which shows characters differing from the others and is placed in the subgenus *Necrocharis* Port.

Nicrophorus Fab.

Characters the same as those of the tribe. Type: *Nicrophorus vespillo* L., designated by Latreille, 1810.

Subgenus *Necrocharis* Port.

Type: *Nicrophorus carolina* L., one species only with characters as in the key and the synopsis.

Subgenus *Nicrophorus* s. str.

The species of the subgenus are all so closely related that they cannot be separated into species groups. The characters used in describing the species are inadequate. Color pattern has little or no value in separating the majority of the species. Their relationships depend entirely on what set of characters are used. Many aberrations have been described, but this is quite unnecessary and becomes extremely confusing, especially when they are not illustrated. Because of the great variation in the color pattern, almost any population can be described as a new aberration. Some changes have been made in the status of certain forms. Undoubtedly, when other forms are examined, more changes will be necessary. The following changes have been made on the basis of the characters presented in the key and synopsis:

Nicrophorus melsheimeri Kby. is a distinct species and not a synonym of *investigator* Zett.

Nicrophorus nigritus Mann. is a distinct species and not a subspecies of *investigator* Zett.

Nicrophorus hecate Bland. is a distinct species and not a subspecies of *guttula* Mots.

CONCLUSIONS

1. The female genitalia of Silphini and Nicrophorini present characters which serve to separate the species of the groups.
2. The two tribes have basically the same type of female genitalia, but they are two very distinct groups of genera.
3. Silphini tends to be more primitive than Nicrophorini.

4. The genera *Silpha, Thanatophilus, Blitophaga* and *Nicrophorus* are distinct groups of species.

5. The color patterns of *Nicrophorus* are not good specific characters and aberrations based on those characters are worthless.

6. The form and sculpturing of the elytra of *Silphini* do not show relationships between the species.

7. *Nicrophorus* offers no distinct species groups, and the species of the genus are very closely related.

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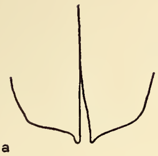
ABBREVIATIONS ON PLATES

p.	proctiger	spa.	spatula
pp.	paraprocts	l.	lobe
sty.	stylus	r.	ridge
c.	coxite	br.	bridge
vf.	valvifer	pro.	process
l.g.	lateral guide		

PLATE I

Figure 1a. *Silpha* L. Elytra of female.
Figure 1b. *Silpha* L. Elytra of male.
Figure 2a. *Nicrophorus* Fab. Head of male.
Figure 2b. *Nicrophorus* Fab. Head of female.
Figure 3. *Thanatophilus quadripunctata* L.
Figure 4. *Silpha littoralis* L.
Figure 5. *Silpha discicollis* Brulle.
Figure 6. *Thanatophilus americana* L.
Figure 7. *Thanatophilus novaboracensis* Forst.
Figure 8. *Thanatophilus inœqualis* Fab.
Figure 9. *Blitophaga bituberosa* Lec.
Figure 10. *Thanatophilus trituberculata* Kby.



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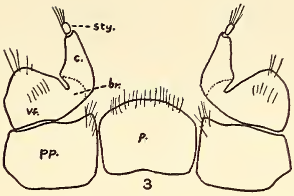

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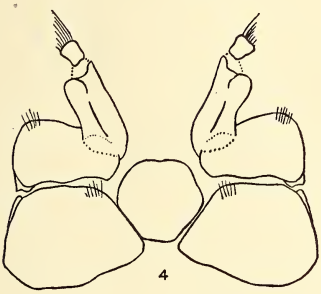

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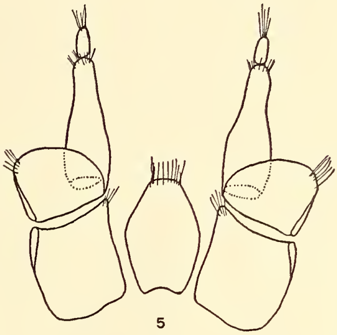

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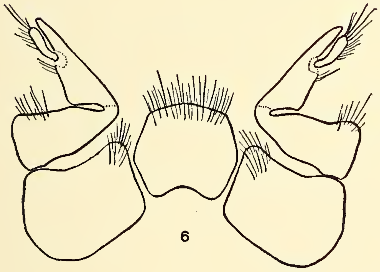

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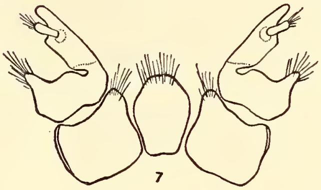

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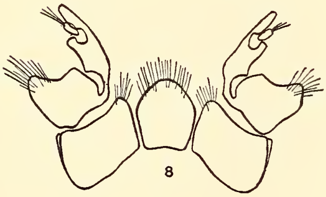

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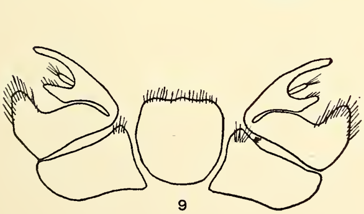

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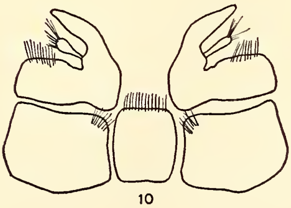

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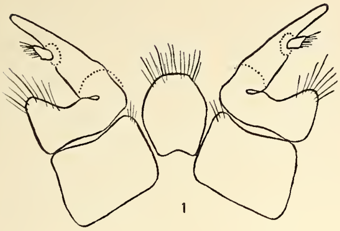
PLATE II

Figure 1. *Thanatophilus ramosa* Say.
Figure 2. *Thanatophilus lapponica* Hbst.
Figure 3. *Thanatophilus coloradensis* Wick.
Figure 4. *Thanatophilus truncata* Say.
Figure 5. *Blitophaga opaca* L.
Figure 6. *Thanatophilus thoracica* L.
Figure 7. *Thanatophilus rugosus* L.
Figure 8. *Nicrophorus carolinus* L.
Figure 9. *Nicrophorus orbicollis* Say.
Figure 10. *Nicrophorus vespilloides* Hbst.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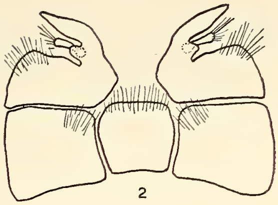
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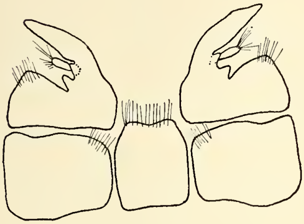
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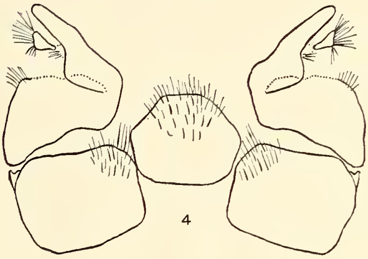
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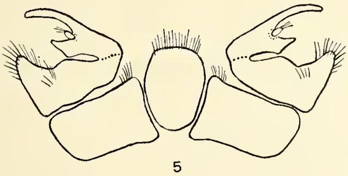
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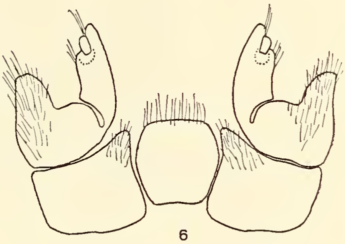
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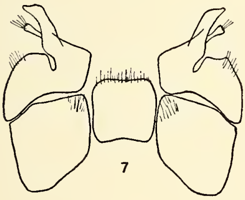
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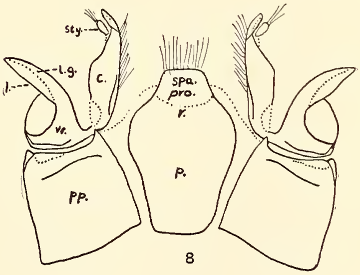

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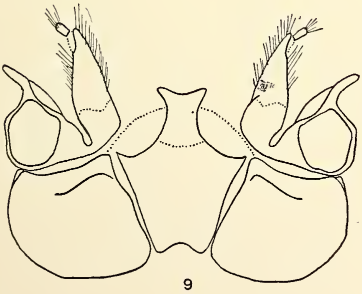
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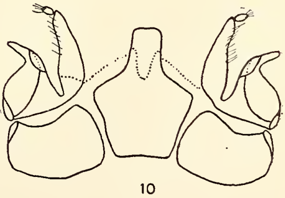
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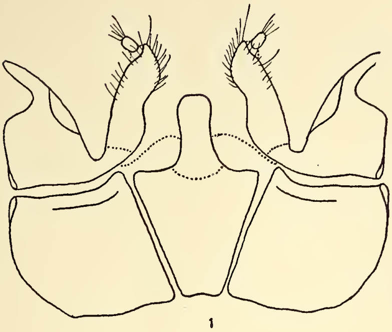
PLATE III

Figure 1. *Nicrophorus americana* Fab.
Figure 2. *Nicrophorus sayi* Fab.
Figure 3. *Nicrophorus nigritus* Mann.
Figure 4. *Nicrophorus pustulatus* Hersch.
Figure 5. *Nicrophorus humator* Fab.
Figure 6. *Nicrophorus germanicus* L.
Figure 7. *Nicrophorus mexicanus* Matth.
Figure 8. *Nicrophorus investigator* Zett.



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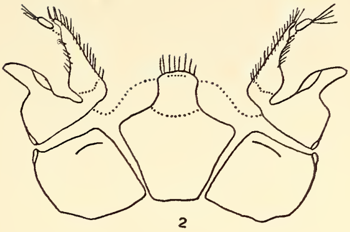

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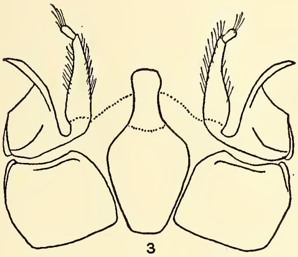

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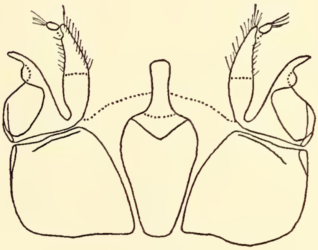

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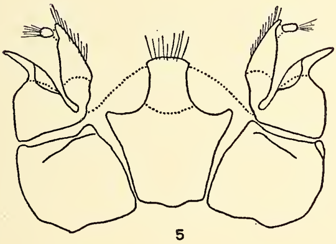

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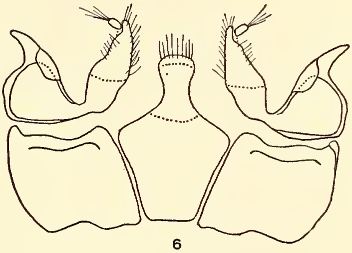

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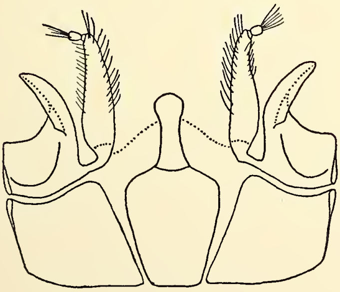

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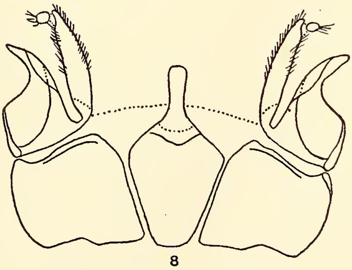

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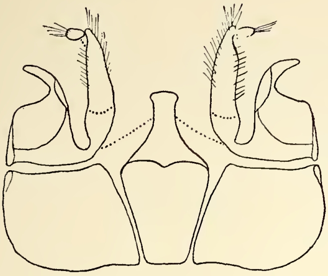
PLATE IV

Figure 1. *Nicrophorus melsheimeri* Kby.
Figure 2. *Nicrophorus tomentosus* Web.
Figure 3. *Nicrophorus vespillo* L.
Figure 4. *Nicrophorus guttula* Mots.
Figure 5. *Nicrophorus obscurus* Kby.
Figure 7. *Nicrophorus hecate* Bland.
Figure 6. *Nicrophorus marginatus* Fab.
Figure 8. *Nicrophorus hybridus* Hatch & Ang.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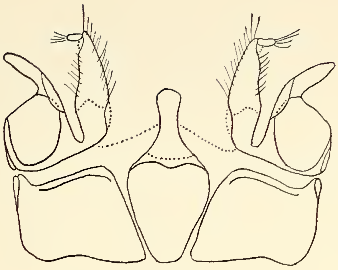
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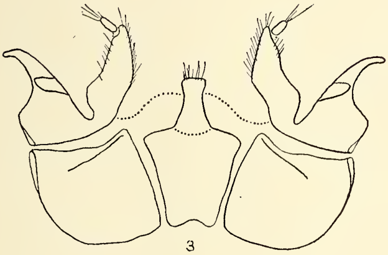
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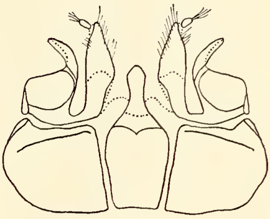
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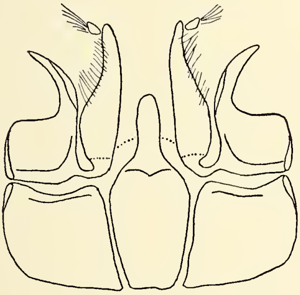
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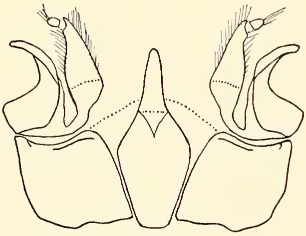
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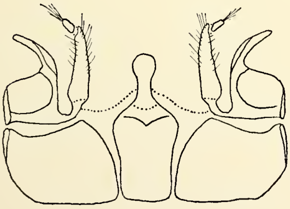
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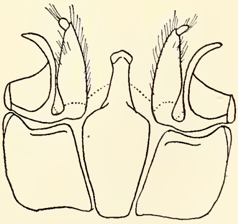
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GROUP MOTOR RESPONSES OF ADULT AND LARVAL FORMS OF INSECTS TO DIFFERENT WAVE-LENGTHS OF LIGHT

BY HARRY B. WEISS, E. E. MCCOY, JR., AND
WILLIAM M. BOYD

This, the fifth paper of a series, relating to the group behavior of insects to colors, is concerned with the responses of seven species of Coleoptera and of sixteen species of lepidopterous, hymenopterous and coleopterous larvæ to ten wave-length bands of light of equal physical intensities, in disarray, from 3650 Å to 7400Å. The tests were run in the sector type equipment described in the third and fourth papers of the series.[1] As outlined in these papers, the insects were placed in an introduction chamber, six feet away from the filter chambers, after the lamps were on and after all filter chambers were open. After the exposure period, the filter chambers, the central compartment, introduction chamber and dark chamber were closed, and counts were then made.

In all previous tests reported upon in the third and fourth papers the color filters were arranged in a sequence beginning with the shorter wave-lengths and extending successively to the longer wave-lengths, as follows: 3650 Å (ultra-violet); 4360 Å (violet-blue); 4640 Å (blue); 4920 Å (blue-blue-green); 5150 Å (blue-green); 5460 Å (yellow-green); 5750 Å (yellow-yellow-green); 6060 Å (yellow-orange); 6420 Å (orange-red); and 7200 Å (infra-red). Each filter chamber was separated from its neighbor by a black chamber.

All tests reported in the present paper, with adults and larvæ, were made with the filters in disarray, as follows: 3650 Å (ultra-violet); 6060 Å (yellow-orange); 4640 Å (blue); 7200 Å (infra-red); 5150 Å (blue-green); 6420 Å (orange-red); 5750 Å (yellow-yellow-green); 4360 Å (violet-blue); 5460 Å (yellow-green); and 4920 Å (blue-blue-green). The wave-length figures represent the peak transmissions of the filters.

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[1] JOUR. N. Y. ENT. SOC., 50(1): 1–35, 1942; 51(2): 117–131, 1943.

Owing to the deterioration that occurred in the lamps used in previous tests, new forty-watt, frosted, Westinghouse Mazda lamps and a new General Electric Mazda mercury lamp (type A–H4, 100 watts) were utilized for all tests. The same method, outlined in our first paper,[2] was used for determining the relative positions of the lamps and various filter combinations so that the physical intensities were approximately equal. A slight change in technique, designed to improve the equalization, was recently made and this resulted in a new set of distance settings, differing slightly from those given in the first paper. These new distance settings are shown on page 29.

RESULTS WITH ADULT INSECTS

Table I presents the results of exposing seven species of Coleoptera to ten wave-length bands of light of equal physical intensities, in disarray, in the sector type equipment. By consulting the percentage distribution of those reacting positively to the various wave-length bands and by an examination of the group behavior curves in Figures 1 and 2, it may be noted that the peak response for all species except *Popillia japonica* took place in the ultra-violet (3650–3663 Å) and that secondary peaks occurred either in the blue-blue-green (4920 Å) or in the blue-green (5150 Å). Smaller numbers, in general, appear to have gone to 4360 Å (violet-blue) and larger numbers to 6060 Å (yellow-orange) than in previous tests when the filters were not in disarray. Except for the somewhat reduced attractiveness of 4360 Å and the slightly increased attractiveness of 6060 Å, the behavior patterns, with the filters in disarray, did not differ materially from previous patterns obtained with the filters in orderly array.

Peterson and Haeussler[3] in their work with the Oriental fruit moth and colored lights found that when a less attractive colored light was placed at right angles to a more attractive colored one, more fruit moths went to the less attractive light than when the less attractive one was opposite the more attractive one. There is no doubt that the stimulating power of certain wave-lengths is influenced by their positions with respect to other wave-lengths. But the fact remains that except for the slight differences noted

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[2] JOUR. N. Y. ENT. SOC., 49(1): 1–20, 1941.

[3] Ann. Ent. Soc. Amer., 21(3): 353–379, 1928.

Distance Settings from 40-Watt Lamps to Filter Combinations to Obtain Equal Light Intensity
(115–116 volts)

Filter combinations	Centimeters from lamp tip to filter for various percentages of transmitted light									
	100%	90%	80%	70%	60%	50%	40%	30%	20%	10%
	cm.	*cm.*	*cm.*	*cm.*	*cm.*	*cm.*	*cm.*	*cm.*	*cm.*	*cm.*
244–397–555	22.6	24.3	26.1	28.3	30.8	34.8	39.8	47.0	59.6	....
243–978½	11.3	12.1	13.3	15.0	17.1	19.8	23.1	27.7	35.6	53.4
245–978	8.3	9.1	10.1	11.1	12.5	14.5	17.5	21.7	28.2	42.8
348–430	2.2	2.8	3.4	4.2	5.2	6.5	8.3	10.6	14.4	24.4
350–430–512	6.2	7.0	7.9	9.0	10.2	11.7	13.9	17.8	23.8	36.4
352–430–502	7.2	8.0	8.9	10.0	11.0	12.7	15.4	19.5	25.7	39.2
338–554	1.6	2.1	2.6	3.4	4.3	5.6	7.3	9.5	12.8	22.4
368–511½	1.2	1.6	2.2	2.8	3.6	4.8	6.4	8.7	11.7	20.8
038–611	0.9	1.3	1.8	2.4	3.2	4.3	5.9	8.0	11.1	19.6
Mercury lamp 738–586	52.0	58.0	62.5	68.0	78.0	86.0	98.0	114.0	....	....

TABLE I

Behavior of Seven Species of Coleoptera to Ten Wave-length Bands of Light, or Colors in Disarray

Name and date tested		No. tests	Total no. insects involved	Exposure minutes	Per cent in black chamber	Per cent in introduction chamber	Per cent in center	Per cent reacting to wave-lengths	Distribution of those reacting positively to wave-lengths*									
									3650 Å Per cent	4360 Å Per cent	4640 Å Per cent	4920 Å Per cent	5150 Å Per cent	5460 Å Per cent	5750 Å Per cent	6060 Å Per cent	6420 Å Per cent	7200 Å Per cent
Coleoptera																		
Chrysomelidæ																		
Leptinotarsa decemlineata Say,	5–26–43	3	422	45	1	20	48	31	53	4	0	16	9	9	2	6	1	0
Leptinotarsa decemlineata Say,	5–28–43	4	1,179	50	3	10	46	41	32	6	11	26	11	4	3	6	1	0
Leptinotarsa decemlineata Say,	6– 3–43	6	1,399	15	2	5	32	61	33	5	7	19	17	6	3	7	2	1
Leptinotarsa decemlineata Say,	6– 4–43	4	1,390	15	3	2	33	62	37	5	6	15	16	7	4	7	2	1
Leptinotarsa decemlineata Say,	6– 7–43	4	1,046	15	4	19	44	33	30	6	7	27	15	6	4	5	0	0
Leptinotarsa decemlineata Say,	6– 8–43	4	1,018	15	5	14	48	33	44	7	7	10	18	4	2	7	1	0
Chrysochus auratus Fab.,	7– 8–43	3	342	15	1	8	28	63	54	8	3	16	12	3	2	2	0	0
Cerambycidæ																		
Tetraopes tetraophthalmus Forst.,	6–21–43	5	579	30	7	15	53	25	34	5	6	26	10	6	3	6	4	0
Lampyridæ																		
Chauliognathus marginatus Fab.,	6–11–43	2	249	15	9	26	48	17	53	0	5	5	14	7	0	14	2	0
Photuris pennsylvanicus De.G.,	7–12–43	3	545	15	15	37	34	14	32	20	16	6	6	5	4	6	5	0
Scarabæidæ																		
Popillia japonica Newm.,	7– 7–43	3	805	20	7	20	36	37	16	7	6	16	22	12	7	7	6	1
Autoserica castanea Arrow,	7–15–43	3	1,187	30	28	18	25	29	82	2	2	2	5	1	0	4	1	1

* Peak intensities of bands.

above the group behavior patterns for the species tested remained materially unchanged with the filters in disarray. Regardless of the relative positions of the various wave-length bands, the insects made approximately the same selections time after time.

RESULTS WITH LARVAL FORMS

Most of the experimental work on the behavior of insects to colored light has been done with adult insects. Nevertheless there are a few references in the literature to the behavior of larval forms and mention will be made of the photopositive ones.

For example, Mayer and Soule found that the larvæ of *Danais archippus* are photopositive to ultra-violet. Gross,[4] in his study of the reactions of arthropods to monochromatic lights of equal intensities reported that the larvæ of *Zeuzera pyrina,* a lepidopterous wood-borer, and of a noctuid moth *Feltia subgothica,* are photopositive to colors, the order of the effectiveness of stimulation being blue (4200–4800 Å), green (4900–5500 Å), yellow (5700–622 Å), and red (6300–6500 Å). *Lymantria* larvæ, according to Hundertmark[5] appear to prefer blue when different colors are compared. Götz,[6] in his study of the perception of color and form in lepidopterous larvæ found that an appreciation of color occurs in the larvæ of *Vanessa* and *Pieris.* These are attracted by the green color of leaves or pieces of paper, regardless of the color of the surroundings, but more so on a white background than on a black one. Lammert[7] reports that caterpillars will go toward a source of light after a blacking of their eyes. And Suffert[8] states that many caterpillars colored like their surroundings and feeding in exposed situations, orient themselves so that the light always falls upon them from a particular angle. These last two instances indicate the possession of a dermal light sense.

Our tests as reported in the present paper involved the exposure of the larvæ of sixteen species of insects to ten wave-length bands of light, of equal physical intensities, from 3600 Å to 7200 Å. These bands were in disarray. From Table II and Figures

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[4] Jour. Exp. Zool., 14: 467–512, 1913.

[5] Z. vergl. Physiol., 24: 563–582, 1936.

[6] Z. vergl. Physiol., 23: 429–503, 1936.

[7] Z. vergl. Physiol., 3: 225–278, 1925.

[8] Z. Morph. Oekol. Tiere., 26: 147–316, 1932.

TABLE II

Behavior of Sixteen Species of Larvæ to Ten Wave-length Bands of Light, or Colors, in Disarray

Name and date tested	No. tests	Total no. insects involved	Exposure minutes	Per cent in black chamber	Per cent in introduction chamber	Per cent in center	Per cent reacting to wave-lengths	Distribution of those reacting positively to wave-lengths*										Remarks
								3650 Å Per cent	4360 Å Per cent	4640 Å Per cent	4920 Å Per cent	5150 Å Per cent	5460 Å Per cent	5750 Å Per cent	6060 Å Per cent	6420 Å Per cent	7200 Å Per cent	
Coleoptera																		
Chrysomelidæ																		
Leptinotarsa decemlineata Say, 6–9–43	4	1,483	75	2	11	62	25	29	5	8	26	16	5	4	4	3	0	½ to ¾ grown
Hymenoptera																		
Tenthredinidæ																		
Lophyrus lecontei Fitch, 7–13–42	2	466	45	0	7	66	27	46	3	6	6	30	7	0	2	0	0	Full grown
Macremphytus sp., 8–10–43	3	725	40	0	2	30	68	53	1	5	6	21	7	1	6	0	0	Full grown, starved
Lepidoptera																		
Arctiidæ																		
Diacrisia virginica Fab., 6–24–43	3	323	45	5	23	43	29	7	5	3	23	32	9	9	7	4	1	Full grown
Ceratocampidæ																		
Dryocampa rubicunda Fab., 8–23–43	3	237	60	2	11	45	42	24	16	4	9	29	8	3	4	2	1	Full grown
Anisota senatoria A. & S., 9–21–43	4	1,108	30	1	1	33	65	16	8	5	29	16	15	4	4	3	0	½–¾ grown, starved
Anisota senatoria A. & S., 9–10–43	3	637	40	0	9	71	20	22	4	3	23	16	13	10	5	4	0	½–¾ grown
Hesperidæ																		
Eudamus tityrus Fab., 9–3–43	3	284	45	3	15	38	44	48	4	1	25	11	9	0	1	1	0	Full grown, starved

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* Peak intensities of bands.

TABLE II—(*Continued*)

Name and date tested	No. tests	Total no. insects involved	Exposure minutes	Per cent in black chamber	Per cent in introduction chamber	Per cent in center	Per cent reacting to wave-lengths	Distribution of those reacting positively to wave-lengths*										Remarks
								3650 Å Per cent	4360 Å Per cent	4640 Å Per cent	4920 Å Per cent	5150 Å Per cent	5460 Å Per cent	5750 Å Per cent	6060 Å Per cent	6420 Å Per cent	7200 Å Per cent	
Noctuidæ																		
Hadena turbulenta Hbn., 9–15–43	3	926	30	10	25	37	28	20	3	4	18	22	15	3	11	3	1	¾ grown
Notodontidæ																		
Datana integerrima G. & R., 7–28–43	3	589	45	0	27	41	32	84	0	2	10	1	0	0	3	0	0	¾ grown, starved
Datana integerrima G. & R., 7–30–43	2	402	35	1	1	30	68	56	3	1	11	10	5	3	8	2	1	¾ grown, starved
Datana ministra Dru., 7–13–43	3	699	15	5	7	45	43	63	5	6	4	6	2	1	12	1	0	¾–full grown
Melalopha inclusa Hbn., 9–7–43	2	183	30	32	5	25	38	26	10	4	30	24	3	3	0	0	0	Full grown
Hyparpax aurora A. & S., 9–10–43	3	433	40	3	5	29	63	54	4	3	12	10	7	2	6	1	1	Full grown
Saturnidæ																		
Actias luna Linn., 9–13–43	2	197	50	13	5	50	32	45	16	6	11	6	5	3	6	2	0	¾ grown
Telea polyphemus Cram., 9–13–43	2	215	25	0	3	31	66	22	14	12	13	23	6	2	6	2	0	¾–full grown
Telea polyphemus Cram., 9–14–43	4	165	30	1	3	14	82	29	10	7	12	13	7	7	12	2	1	Full grown, starved
Sphingidæ																		
Ceratomia catalpæ Bdv., 7–2–43	3	387	30	5	5	62	28	50	1	2	9	9	7	5	12	3	2	Full grown
Phlegethontius carolina Linn., 9–13–43	2	61	20	5	15	27	53	20	3	9	28	22	12	0	3	3	0	Full grown

* Peak intensities of bands.

3, 4 and 5 which record their group behavior in percentages and graphically, it is apparent that the peak response for most species took place in the ultra-violet (3650 Å). In nearly all instances a peak either equal to the one in ultra-violet or secondary to it occurred in the blue-blue-green (4900 Å), or in the blue-green (5150 Å). The minor peak at 6060 Å (yellow-orange) is attributed to the disarray of the filters which resulted in this wavelength being next to 3650 Å (ultra-violet).

The larvæ of *Diacrisia virginica* were the only ones which ultra-violet light (3650 Å) failed to stimulate appreciably. These larvæ are found crawling upon the ground or feeding upon low plants. As a whole the group behavior of the larvæ, in general, did not differ from that of numerous adult insects, previously tested, and their color discrimination, so called, was approximately the same as that exhibited by adult insects in spite of the fact that their visual organs are less complex than those of adult insects.

NOTES

Autoserica castanea. This beetle, being nocturnal, was tested at 10:30 P.M.

Hippodamia convergens Guer. The predaceous larvæ of this coccinellid failed to react at all under the conditions of our tests. When placed in the introduction chamber they climbed up the sides and remained there. Apparently their negative geotropic behavior predominated.

Hyphantria cunea Dru. The ½ to ¾ grown larvæ of this species, the fall webworm, made a web in the introduction chamber and stayed there, even though they had been previously deprived of food for twenty hours.

During the course of our work with larvæ it was found that, as a rule, they were more photopositive after having been deprived of food for a half-day or more previous to the tests. The gregariousness of some of the species, especially of the larvæ of *Hadena turbulenta* Hbn., and *Melalopha inclusa* Hbn., appeared to inhibit somewhat their sensitivity to light.

DISCUSSION

In view of the comparative simplicity of the lateral ocelli of larvæ, the similarity of the group behavior of larvæ to that of adult insects with compound eyes is of considerable interest. Although variable in structure, lateral ocelli in lepidopterous larvæ consist of a group, each ocellus having a structure not unlike the single ommatidium of a compound eye. In the larvæ of sawflies and of many Coleoptera, the ocellus, of which there is only one on each side, is a lens-like, transparent thickening of the cuticle with underlying epidermis, and retinulæ, each made up of two or three visual cells grouped around a rhabdom. These visual cells may be pigmented, or there may be separate pigment cells. Dethier in a recent study[9] of the corneal lens in caterpillars states that ''the cornea possesses a short focal distance, great depth of focus, and an extremely low f value permitting the admittance of much light.''

Although the king-crab, *Limulus polyphemus,* is not an insect, the work of Hartline and Graham on the nerve impulses and responses of single visual sense cells, to light, in the eye of this animal is of unusual interest and it is within the realm of possibility that a similar process of photoreception may operate in insects.

The lateral facetted eye of the king-crab contains about 300 large ommatidia and the optic nerve fibres come directly from the receptor cells with no intervening neurones. These authors[10] studied the nerve impulses and developed a technique by which was recorded the discharge from a single receptor unit, in the form of oscillograms, representing the potential changes between the cut end and an uninjured portion of the nerve, upon stimulation of the eye by light. The electrical activity in the optic nerve brought about by this stimulation was amplified by a vacuum tube and recorded by an oscillograph. Among other things the stimulation of a single ommatidium resulted in a small strand of the optic nerve showing a regular sequence of nerve impulses. ''The discharge in a single fiber begins after a short latent period at a high frequency, which has been found to be as high as 130 per second. The frequency falls rapidly at first, and finally approaches a steady value, which is maintained for the duration of illumination'' (Hartline and Graham).

[9] Jour. Cell. and Comp. Physiol., 19(3): 301–313, 1942.

[10] Jour. Cell. and Comp. Physiol., 1(2): 277–295, 1932.

In a later paper[11] these authors studied the responses of single visual sense cells to visible light of different wave-lengths. This was done by means of single fiber preparations from a *Limulus* eye. It was found that when the energy of the stimulating light of different wave-lengths was approximately equal, the response to green was stronger than the responses to either violet or red. When the energy was increased in the red and violet their level of response was raised and when the intensities for the different wave-lengths were adjusted so that the responses were equal, there was no effect of wave-length as such, indicating that single sense cells can gauge brightness but cannot distinguish wave-length. The relative energies of the various wave-lengths required to produce the same response after being adjusted in inverse ratio to the degree to which they are absorbed yielded a visibility curve, for a single visual sense cell, that had its maximum in the green near 5200 Å and that declined symmetrically on each side to low values in the violet near 4400 Å and in the red near 6400 Å. According to the interpretation of visibility curves by Hecht and Williams[12] the stimulation of a single visual sense cell by light depends upon the absorption spectrum of the primary photosensitive substance. The absorption of light by this substance varies with wave-length and the production of a given response needs a certain amount of photochemical change, which in turn requires the absorption of a constant amount of energy.

Hartline and Graham also found that in the same eye of *Limulus* there was a differential sensitivity among optic nerve fibers and their attached sensory cells for different regions of the visible spectrum and they believe that such specialization of the visual cells, coupled with integrated action may give rise to color vision.

In considering the tests with insects reported upon in this and in previous papers,[13] the following patterns of behavior prevailed over and over, when various species were exposed to ten wave-length bands of equal intensities from 3600 Å to 7200 Å. In the composite behavior[14] of 5,454 insects of various orders, mostly

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[11] Jour. Gen. Physiol., 18(6): 917–931, 1935.

[12] Jour. Gen. Physiol., 5: 1, 1922.

[13] JOUR. N. Y. ENT. SOC., 49: 1–20, 149–159, 1941; 50: 1–35, 1942; 51: 117–131, 1943.

[14] Ent. News, 54: 152–156, 1943.

coleopterous, the peak response took place at 3650 Å (ultraviolet). From here the response declined gradually to a low point at 4640 Å (blue); then it increased to a secondary peak at 4920 Å (blue-blue-green), and then declined gradually to a low point at 5750 Å (yellow-yellow-green) from which point it levelled off to 6420 Å (orange-red). In the cases of individual species there were deviations from this pattern. *Drosophila* and various species of Coleoptera in some tests responded almost entirely to 3650 Å alone, dropping to a low level at 4360 Å and levelling off at that wave-length. Sometimes the secondary peak occurred at 5150 Å instead of at 4920 Å. Although the peak responses took place at 3650 Å and 4920 Å, small percentages of the test animals went to other wave-lengths. In addition, it was found that when a second test, using the same insects, succeeded the first, the same group behavior pattern took place. The peak response occurred at 3650 Å, the secondary one at 4920 Å. However, the individuals that made up the peaks in the second test were not all the same as those making up the peaks in the first test. In other words, there was a shifting of the individuals that went to the different wave-length bands, but no difference in the final result.

Assuming that the light receptors of insects function in the same way as those of some other invertebrates and considering the results obtained from the single visual sense cells of *Limulus* as outlined by Hartline and Graham and mentioned above, it is possible to venture an explanation for the group behavior pattern of insect response to colors. Starting with the fact that the test insects responded in varying numbers to all wave-lengths from 3650 Å to about 6420 Å, it is apparent that the photosensitive substance of their visual sense cells will function at any of the wave-lengths between 3650 Å and 6420 Å, if the physical intensity of the wave-length is sufficient and constant.

When confronted by ten wave-length bands of equalized intensities which converged upon the insects in the introduction chamber of the apparatus, the primary photosensitive substance of the visual sense cells of a large number absorbed the energy at 3650 Å to a greater extent than the energy at other wave-lengths. This resulted in a photochemical reaction accompanied by physical changes in nerve fibers, one of which was a change in the electric potential of the point in the fiber that was actively responding measured with respect to a nearby, but as yet, inactive point. This electrical activity in the optic nerve fiber was transmitted to the muscles where changes in tension occurred resulting in the insects going to the ultra-violet (3650 Å) in larger numbers than to any other test wave-length. As the absorption of light by the primary photosensitive substance of the single sense cell varies with wave-length and as the production of a response requires a certain amount of photochemical change plus a constant amount of energy, it seems evident that the energy of the remaining test wave-lengths although equal, was not sufficient to result in a response that equalled that of the ultra-violet. Consequently smaller numbers of individuals responded to the test wave-lengths other than 3650 Å. The question then arises as to why all individuals did not respond to 3650 Å alone. In a group of 100 or more insects collected in the field, it is not expected that they would all be in the same physiological state at the same time. In fact, when tested, only some are photosensitive. Others remain in the introduction chamber, others get as far as the central compartment and others go to the black chamber, all exhibiting different degrees of behavior to light. Among those that are photopositive it is reasonable to assume that there exist some variations by individuals in the sensitivity of their visual receptors. These variations may be connected with different physiological states. They may be due to a depletion of the primary photosensitive substance in the visual sense cells through the action of light, resulting in individuals so affected responding in smaller numbers to wave-lengths other than ultra-violet. Until restorative processes take place in the visual sense cells of such individuals, their sensitivity to ultra-violet declines.

Frequently various species, when tested, responded almost exclusively to ultra-violet. But many others did not. In the case of *Drosophila* which was bred under controlled conditions and which were of uniform ages, the response to ultra-violet was unusually high.

It is realized that these deductions are based upon the behavior of single visual sense cells of the king-crab, to light of different wave-lengths and no consideration has been given to the fact that individual cellular units act collectively and not independently, nor to the fact that Graham and Hartline[15] found that although the visibility curves for single sense cells in the same eye are approximately identical, they differ by significant amounts. In addition they report that two sense cells were able to distinguish violet from red and taking all these facts into consideration they are of the opinion that such differential sensitivity ''may be considered a peripheral mechanism of color vision.''

Another reason for the deductions as outlined consists of the behavior of the Japanese beetle, *Popillia japonica,* which was made to respond to what were unattractive wave-lengths under equalized physical intensities, by increasing the intensities of such wave-lengths. In fact with other species as well it was possible to vary the behavior pattern by changing the intensities. And in general, from our work over the past several years, it appears that the behavior patterns of insects to equalized wave-lengths are not unlike the behavior pattern of a single sense cell, in *Limulus,* to equalized wave-lengths. Perhaps the behavior curves in this and in former papers[16] may be interpreted as rough approximations of the absorption spectrum of the photosensitive substance in the combined visual sense cells of many insects, as well as indications of their motor responses to equalized wave-lengths of light.

A word should be said about the comparatively large percentages of test insects which remain in the introduction chamber and central compartment of our testing equipment. We have always attributed this mainly to low illumination. At low illuminations only the most sensitive ommatidia function, there being different thresholds of response for different ommatidia.[17] By others, a falling off in intensity discrimination, due to low illumination is attributed to a nervous coupling of groups of ommatidia to form new units.[18]

[15] Jour. Gen. Physiol., 18: 917–931, 1935.

[16] JOUR. N. Y. ENT. SOC., 49: 1–20, 149–159, 1941; 50: 1–35, 1942; 51: 117–131, 1943.

[17] Hecht and Wald. Jour. Gen. Physiol., 17: 517–547, 1934.

[18] Buddenbrock and Shultz. Zool. Jahrb. Physiol., 52: 513–536, 1933.

The foregoing discussion is an attempt to explain the group behavior patterns, or motor responses of insects to various wavelengths of light of equal physical intensities on the basis of the results obtained by investigators who used single visual sense cells of other invertebrates. It is realized that the motor response to light of a complex organism such as an insect cannot be adequately and definitely explained on the basis of the behavior of single visual sense cells of other animals, nevertheless such work as has been done with single sense cells furnishes valuable clues to the phenomena of vision in insects. Until similar and additional investigations are made on the behavior of photoreceptor cells and optic nerve fibers of insects, singly and in integrated action, one has to be satisfied with implications.

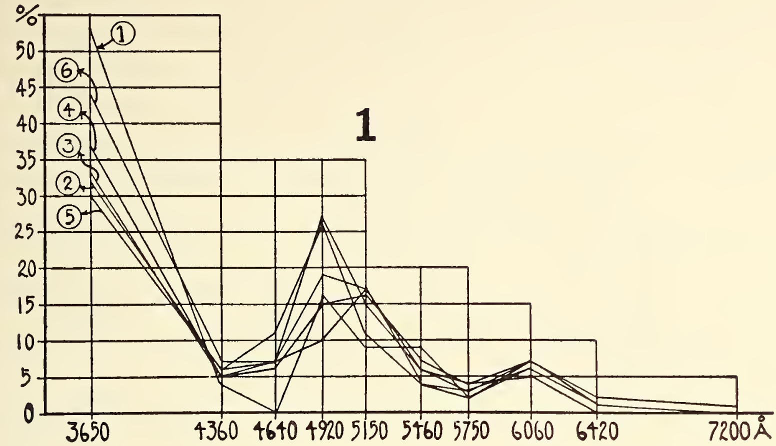
PLATE V

Figure 1. Behavior of six lots of *Leptinotarsa decemlineata* Say, to 10 wave-length bands, in disarray, from 3650 Å to 7200 Å. Physical intensities equalized.

1. 129 beetles. Three tests.
2. 478 beetles. Four tests.
3. 857 beetles. Six tests.
4. 857 beetles. Four tests.
5. 340 beetles. Four tests.
6. 338 beetles. Four tests.

Figure 2. Behavior of six species of Coleoptera to 10 wave-length bands, in disarray, from 3650Å to 7200 Å. Physical intensities equalized.

1. *Chrysochus auratus* Say. 217 adults. Three tests.
2. *Tetraopes tetraophthalmus* Forst. 144 adults. Five tests.
3. *Chauliognathus marginatus* Fabr. 42 adults. Two tests.
4. *Photinus pennsylvanica* DeG. 78 adults. Three tests.
5. *Popillia japonica* Newm. 295 adults. Three tests.
6. *Autoserica castanea* Arrow. 338 adults. Three tests.
   Tested after 10: 30 P.M.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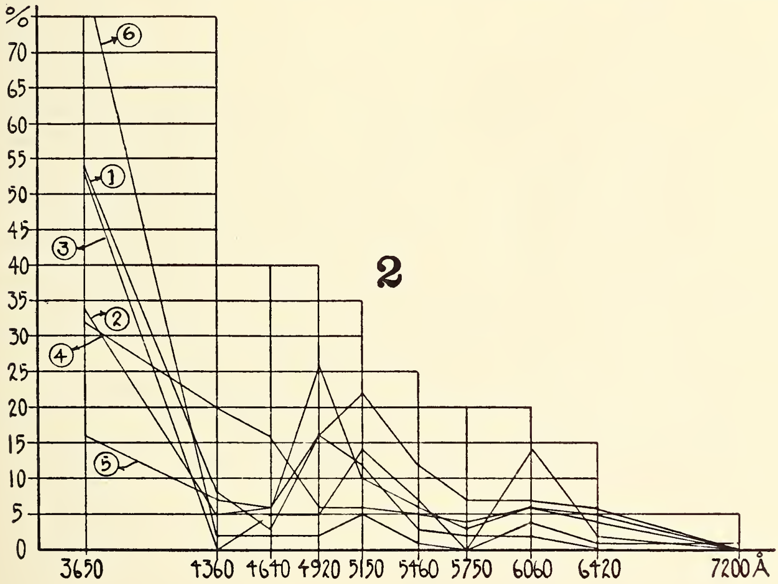
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PLATE VI

Figure 3. Behavior of coleopterous, hymenopterous and lepidopterous larvæ to 10 wave-length bands, in disarray, from 3650 Å to 7200 Å. Physical intensities equalized.

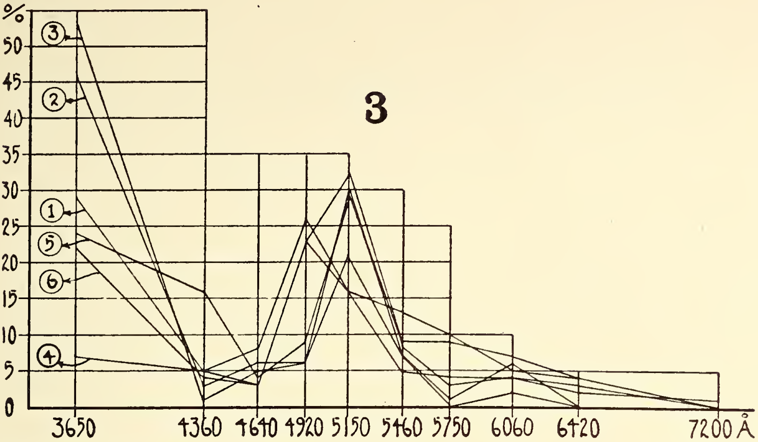
1. *Leptinotarsa decemlineata* Say (Col.). 372 larvæ, ½ to ¾ grown. Four tests.
2. *Lophyrus lecontei* Fitch (Hymen.). 124 larvæ, full grown. Two tests.
3. *Macremphytus* sp. (Hymen.). 491 larvæ, full grown. Three tests. Larvæ starved.
4. *Diacrisia virginica* Fab. (Lep.). 92 larvæ, full grown. Three tests.
5. *Dryocampa rubicunda* Fab. (Lep.). 100 larvæ, full grown. Three tests.
6. *Anisota senatoria* A & S (Lep.). 125 larvæ, ½ to ¾ grown. Three tests.

Figure 4. Behavior of lepidopterous larvæ to 10 wave-length bands, in disarray, from 3650 Å to 7200 Å. Physical intensities equalized.

1. *Eudamus tityrus* Fab. 125 larvæ, full grown, starved. Three tests.
2. *Hadena turbulenta* Hbn. 263 larvæ, ¾ grown. Three tests.
3. *Datana integerrima* G. & R. 188 larvæ, ¾ grown, starved. Two tests.
4. *Datana ministra* Dru. 303 larvæ, ¾ to full grown. Three tests.
5. *Melalopha inclusa* Hbn. 70 larvæ, full grown. Two tests.
6. *Hyparpax aurora* S. & A. 274 larvæ, full grown. Three tests.

Figure 5. Behavior of lepidopterous larvæ to 10 wave-length bands, in disarray, from 3650 Å to 7200 Å. Physical intensities equalized.

1. *Actias luna* Linn. 63 larvæ, ¾ grown. Two tests.
2. *Telea polyphemus* Cram. 141 larvae, ¾-full grown. Two tests.
3. *Telea polyphemus* Cram. 136 larvæ, full grown, starved. Four tests.
4. *Ceratomia catalpæ* Bdv. 110 larvæ, full grown. Three tests.
5. *Phlegethontius carolina* Linn. 32 larvæ, full grown. Two tests.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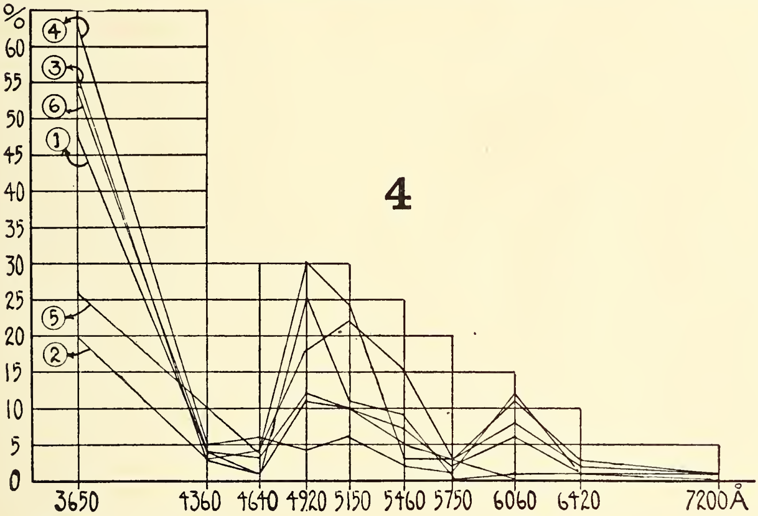
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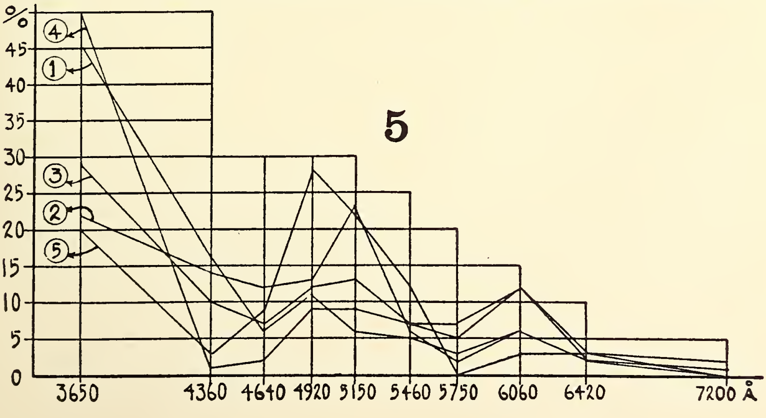
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RECORDS AND DESCRIPTIONS OF NEOTROPICAL CRANE-FLIES (TIPULIDÆ, DIPTERA), XVII

By Charles P. Alexander
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The previous instalment under this general title was published in September, 1943 (Journal of the New York Entomological Society, 51(3): 199–212). The materials here considered are all from Ecuador where they were taken by Mr. William Clarke-Macintyre, Mr. David B. Laddey, and Professor F. Martin Brown. Some of the most interesting of the new species were taken at the station "Zumbi," in the Province of Santiago-Zamora, southern Oriente, by Mr. Laddey. For a brief discussion of this station, the preceding instalment should be consulted. I am greatly indebted to the collectors for the privilege of retaining the types of the novelties in my collection of these flies.

Genus *Gnophomyia* Osten Sacken

Gnophomyia (Gnophomyia) argutula new species.

General coloration of mesonotal præscutum gray with three dark brown stripes, the lateral portions orange-yellow; thoracic pleura variegated dark brown and obscure yellow; knobs of halteres dark brown; femora yellow, the tips conspicuously blackened; wings yellowish gray, with three darker clouds or bands, the second at the level of cord; cell *1st* M_2 widened outwardly, nearly four times as wide at outer end as at base; cell *2nd A* broad; abdominal segments bicolored, the basal portions reddish yellow, the remainder dark brown; male hypopygium with the outer dististyle acute at tip; phallosome unusually broad and obtuse.

Male.—Length about 7 mm.; wing 7.5 mm.

Rostrum brown; palpi black. Antennæ brownish black; flagellar segments nearly cylindrical; verticils of outer segments much longer and more conspicuous than those of the basal segments. Anterior vertex dull orange, relatively narrow, the eyes correspondingly large and protuberant; posterior portion of head brownish gray, the anterior orbits obscure orange.

Pronotum obscure brownish yellow above, dark brown on sides; pretergites obscure yellow. Mesonotal præscutum with the ground color of interspaces gray, with three entire dark brown stripes, the median one more reddened at cephalic end; humeral and lateral portions of sclerite obscure orange yellow; posterior sclerites of notum dark brown, sparsely pruinose; scutellum paler, with a central, dark brown spot; dorsal pleurotergite obscure yellow. Pleura chiefly dark brown, sparsely pruinose, restrictedly but conspicuously variegated with obscure yellow, distributed as follows: Dorsal portion of sternopleurite; posterior border of pteropleurite, and meral region. Halteres short, stem yellow at base, the remainder dark brown. Legs with the coxæ brown, sparsely pruinose; trochanters obscure yellow; femora yellow, the tips rather broadly and conspicuously blackened; tibiæ and tarsi yellow, only the terminal segment weakly darkened. Wings with the ground color yellowish gray, the color greatly restricted by three more or less distinct, slightly darker clouds or bands, the most conspicuous at the cord and over outer end of cell *1st* M_2; slightly less distinct bands at proximal fourth of wing and as a nearly apical darkening in the cells beyond cord; stigma very long and narrow, dark brown; veins yellow in the ground areas, brown in the darkened fields. Venation: Sc_1 ending about opposite the short transverse R_2; Rs in longitudinal alignment with R_5, *r-m* at its fork; cell *1st* M_2 strongly widened outwardly, nearly four times as wide at outer end as at base; cell *1st* M_2 approximately as long as vein M_4 beyond it; cell *2nd A* noticeably shorter and broader than in *duplex.*

Basal abdominal segments bicolored, dark brown, the basal rings conspicuously reddish or reddish yellow, the subterminal segments more uniform dark brown; hypopygium and preceding segment more yellowish; sternal pattern generally like the tergal. Male hypopygium with the outer dististyle much less conspicuously flattened than in *laticincta,* its apex acute; base of style with only two elongate setæ. Inner dististyle about one-half as long as the outer style, provided with numerous setæ, including about three of unusual length. Phallosome unusually broad and obtuse.

Holotype, ♂, Zumbi, Rio Zamora, Santiago-Zamora, altitude 700 meters, November 1, 1941 (Laddey).

The nearest relatives are *Gnophomyia* (*Gnophomyia*) *duplex* Alexander and *G.* (*G.*) *laticincta* Alexander, which have the legs and wings somewhat similarly patterned. The former species is still known only from the female sex, differing from the present fly in the venation and in the details of coloration of body and wings. The latter species, *laticincta,* differs conspicuously in the structure of the male hypopygium, especially of the outer dististyle.

Gnophomyia (Gnophomyia) bulbibasis new species.

General coloration of mesonotum dark brown, very sparsely pruinose, on præscutum forming a discal shield; thoracic pleura striped longitudinally with dark brown and reddish; halteres darkened; legs pale brown; wings grayish subhyaline, stigma scarcely differentiated; male hypopygium with the outer dististyle conspicuously bulbous just beyond base; gonapophyses appearing as blackened spines.

MALE.—Length about 4.5–5.5 mm.; wing 5–6.2 mm.

FEMALE.—Length about 5 mm.; wing 5.5 mm.

Rostrum and palpi dark brown. Antennæ dark brown; basal flagellar segments subcylindrical, the outer ones shorter; verticils subequal in length to the segments. Head dark gray; eyes large; anterior vertex only a little wider than the diameter of scape.

Pronotum above yellow, darker on sides. Mesonotum almost uniformly dark brown, very sparsely pruinose, on præscutum forming a discal shield that leaves the humeral and lateral portions yellowish, in cases more obscure than in others. Pleura reddish, with a conspicuous dark brown dorsal stripe extending from the propleura to the postnotum, passing above the halteres; dorsopleural region yellow, confluent with the similarly colored lateral præscutal borders; immediately ventrad of the dark pleural stripe a more or less distinct paler longitudinal line extending from behind the fore coxæ to the base of abdomen. Halteres dusky, the knob still darker. Legs with coxæ obscure yellow to testaceous yellow; trochanters yellow; remainder of legs pale brown, the femoral bases clearer yellow; outer tarsal segments passing into darker brown. Wings grayish subhyaline, the extreme base yellow; stigmal area very restricted and pale, scarcely differentiated; veins pale brown, yellow in the prearcular field. Venation: *Sc* long, Sc_1 ending just before level of R_2, Sc_2 some distance from its tip, lying opposite or before the fork of *Rs*; *r-m* before or close to fork of *Rs*; *m-cu* about three-fourths its own length beyond the fork of *M*.

Abdominal tergites brownish black, the sternites a trifle more piceous; hypopygium yellowish brown. Ovipositor with cerci relatively short and stout, with setæ to the tips of the valves. Male hypopygium with the outer dististyle conspicuously expanded or bulbous just beyond base, thence narrowed to a long straight rod that terminates in an acute point. Inner dististyle much shorter, obtuse at tip; at base with about four powerful setæ, with other shorter setæ on distal half, chiefly near apex. Gonapophyses appearing as blackened spines.

Holotype, ♂, Zumbi, Rio Zamora, Santiago-Zamora, altitude 700 meters, November 4, 1941 (Laddey). Allotopotype, ♀, with the type. Paratopotypes, 2 ♂♂, 1 ♀, October 31–November 2, 1941 (Laddey).

Gnophomyia (*Gnophomyia*) *bulbibasis* has the structure of the male hypopygium, especially of the gonapophyses, somewhat as in *G.* (*G.*) *oxymera* Alexander, from which it differs in other hypopygial characters, as the bulbous basal enlargement of the outer dististyle.

Gnophomyia (Gnophomyia) fessa new species.

General coloration of mesonotum and the dorsal pleurites dark brown, ventral pleurites reddish brown; rostrum, antennæ and halteres black; femora obscure yellow, with a narrow subterminal darker ring; wings subhyaline, stigma reduced to a narrow seam; male hypopygium with the inner dististyle bulbous, the apex conspicuously wider than the base; gonapophyses incurved, appearing as separate blades, blackened and microscopically serrulate at bases.

MALE.—Length about 5 mm.; wing 5 mm.; antenna about 1.5 mm.

FEMALE.—Length about 6.5 mm.; wing 6 mm.

Rostrum and palpi brownish black. Antennæ black throughout; basal flagellar segments subcylindrical, the outer ones more elongate-oval, with verticils that exceed the segments in length. Head dark gray; eyes (male) relatively large, the anterior vertex correspondingly narrowed.

Pronotum brown, the pretergites conspicuously light yellow. Mesonotum almost uniform dark brown, the surface very sparsely pruinose, the central portion of præscutum and the scutal lobes slightly darker. Pleurotergite and dorsal pleura dark brown, contrasting abruptly with the reddish brown ventral pleurites, the surface sparsely pruinose. Halteres brownish black throughout. Legs with coxæ reddish; trochanters yellow; femora obscure yellow, more infuscated immediately before their tips to form a narrow, nearly terminal ring; tibiæ and basitarsi obscure yellow, the tips narrowly infuscated; outer tarsal segments passing into brownish black. Wings subhyaline, with a very faint darker tinge; stigma darker brown but reduced to a linear area adjoining veins R_1 and R_{1+2}, scarcely involving the surrounding membrane; prearcular and costal fields a trifle more yellowish; veins brown, somewhat more brightened in the basal areas. Venation: Sc_1 ending opposite R_2; Rs straight, oblique; basal section of R_5 lacking, *r-m* at fork of Rs; R_2 variable in position, before the fork of R_{2+3+4} or nearly its own length beyond this fork; cell *1st* M_2 narrow, subequal in length to vein M_4 beyond it; *m-cu* from one-third to two-thirds its length beyond the fork of M.

Abdominal tergites and hypopygium brownish black; sternites yellow. Ovipositor with cerci relatively small, only weakly sclerotized, with setæ virtually to their tips. Male hypopygium with the outer dististyle a simple, curved, relatively narrow, blackened rod, the tip subacute. Inner dististyle relatively short, bulbous, the apex almost twice as wide as the base, with several setæ, chiefly on the distal third. Phallosome with the gonapophyses incurved, appearing as separate blades, at apex blackened and microscopically roughened to serrulate; apex of phallosome narrow.

Holotype, ♂, Palmar, Rio Maizito, Manabi, altitude 200 meters, May 20, 1941 (Laddey). Allotopotype, ♀, pinned with type.

Gnophomyia (*Gnophomyia*) *fessa* is most similar to species such as *G.* (*G.*) *oxymera* Alexander and *G.* (*G.*) *nectarea* new species, differing in the details of coloration and, especially, the structure of the male hypopygium, as the inner dististyle and the phallosome.

Gnophomyia (Gnophomyia) nectarea new species.

Size small (wing, male, about 5 mm.); mesonotum and dorsal pleura opaque black, the ventral pleurites abruptly reddish; halteres dusky; legs brownish yellow; wings subhyaline, the stigma and an extensive cloud on proximal third of wing infuscated; vein R_2 very faint to nearly atrophied; cell *1st* M_2 long and narrow; cell *2nd A* relatively narrow; male hypopygium with the outer dististyle slender; inner dististyle with a conspicuous basal lobe that is microscopically corrugated or wrinkled.

MALE.—Length about 4–4.8 mm.; wing 4.5–5.5 mm.; antenna about 1.3–1.6 mm.

FEMALE.—Length about 5 mm.; wing 5 mm.

Rostrum dark brown; palpi black. Antennæ of moderate length, dark brown; flagellar segments subcylindrical; longest verticils subequal in length to the segments. Head brown, the orbits and posterior vertex light gray; anterior vertex relatively narrow, about one-third the diameter of scape; eyes (male) correspondingly large.

Pronotum dark brown; pretergites light yellow. Mesonotum chiefly blackened, the surface opaque by a sparse pruinosity; central portion of scutum and posterior border of scutellum slightly more reddened. Dorsal pleurites covered by a broad black longitudinal stripe, this area also involving the pleurotergite and surrounding the root of halteres; ventral pleurites reddish, very sparsely pruinose. Halteres dusky, base of stem restrictedly brightened. Legs with coxæ and trochanters yellow; remainder of legs brownish yellow, the outer tarsal segments more infuscated. Wings subhyaline, the extreme base restrictedly yellow; stigma oval, darker brown; a conspicuous dusky cloud or wash on basal third of wing in general vicinity of vein *Cu*, involving the bases of cells *Cu*, *1st A* and *2nd A*, together with much of *M*; veins brown, yellow in the flavous basal region. Venation: Vein R_2 very faint to nearly atrophied; *Rs* in direct longitudinal alignment with R_5; branches of *Rs* all extending generally parallel to one another; cell *1st* M_2 relatively long and narrow, its inner end pointed or strongly narrowed, the outer end more widened, the cell subequal in length to vein M_4; *m-cu* less than its own length beyond fork of *M*, at near one-fourth to one-fifth the length of the cell; cell *2nd A* relatively narrow.

Abdominal tergites and the hypopygium brownish black; basal sternites a trifle paler. Male hypopygium with the outer dististyle unusually slender throughout, narrowed at apex to a subacute point. Inner style with a conspicuous basal lobe or shoulder, its surface and adjoining margin of style microscopically wrinkled. Phallosome of moderate width, its tip blackened and slightly narrowed to an obtuse point, the surface microscopically wrinkled.

Holotype, ♂, Zumbi, Rio Zamora, Santiago-Zamora, altitude 700 meters, November 2, 1941 (Laddey). Allotopotype, ♀. Paratopotypes, 2 ♂♂, October 30–November 5, 1941 (Laddey).

Gnophomyia (*Gnophomyia*) *nectarea* is entirely distinct from other small-sized regional members of the genus. From all such, it differs conspicuously in the peculiar wing pattern and in the structure of the male hypopygium.

Gnophomyia (Gnophomyia) tuber new species.

General coloration of mesonotum medium brown, with poorly defined pattern; pleura with a broad, medium brown, longitudinal stripe over the dorsal sclerites; halteres yellow; wings with a buffy tinge, brighter in the basal portions; abdominal tergites reddish brown, weakly darkened laterally; male hypopygium with the basistyles short, on mesal face near base with a conspicuous darkened tubercle, this provided with about three conspicuous setæ; outer dististyle compressed-flattened, its apex obtuse; inner dististyle with the apex very obtuse to subtruncate.

MALE.—Length about 6–6.3 mm.; wing 6.8–7 mm.; antenna about 1.5–1.6 mm.

Rostrum testaceous brown; palpi brownish black. Antennæ with the scape and pedicel brownish yellow, flagellum brownish black; flagellar segments long-cylindrical, the terminal segments shorter; verticils considerably exceeding the segments in length. Head brownish gray; anterior vertex relatively narrow, eyes large.

Pronotum light yellow above, darker on sides; pretergites light yellow. Mesonotal præscutum medium brown, sparsely pruinose, the median area more darkened, behind forming more or less distinct stripes; scutal lobes similarly darkened, the posterior border obscure yellow; scutellum brown, with a yellow spot on either side of base; postnotum medium brown, more yellowish on suture between mediotergite and pleurotergite. Pleura with a broad but relatively inconspicuous, medium brown stripe, more intense in front, becoming diffuse behind; dorsopleural region yellow; ventral pleurites obscure yellow, paler yellow behind. Halteres yellow. Legs with the coxæ and trochanters yellow; femora obscure yellow, weakly darkened at or near tips; tibiæ and basitarsi yellow, the tips narrowly and inconspicuously infuscated; outer tarsal segments brownish black. Wings relatively broad, with a sandy or buffy tinge, the prearcular and costal fields clearer yellow; stigma very restricted in area, pale brown; veins brown, more brownish yellow in the brightened portions. Venation: Sc_1 ending about opposite the fork of R_{2+3+4}, Sc_2 nearly opposite the fork of Rs; R_{2+3} more than one-third R_{2+3+4}; Rs in direct longitudinal alignment with R_5; $r\text{-}m$ beyond fork of Rs; cell *1st* M_2 relatively long, subequal to vein M_4 beyond it; $m\text{-}cu$ about two-thirds its length beyond fork of M.

Abdominal tergites reddish brown, weakly darkened laterally; sternites clearer yellow; hypopygium yellowish brown. Male hypopygium with the basistyles short, on mesal face near base with a conspicuous darkened tubercle, this provided with about three conspicuous setæ. Outer dististyle darkened, conspicuously compressed-flattened, widest at near midlength, its apex obtuse. Inner dististyle extending about to midlength of the outer style, dark-colored, its apex very obtuse to subtruncate; rather numerous setæ, including a row of four or five larger ones along the lower or cephalic margin. Phallosome relatively broad, the apex obtuse.

Holotype, ♂, Playas de Montalvo, Los Rios, altitude 15 meters, March 5, 1938 (Macintyre). Paratopotypes, 1 ♂, 1 sex?, pinned with type.

In its general appearance and wing coloration, the present fly is most like *Gnophomyia* (*Gnophomyia*) *acricula* Alexander and *G.* (*G.*) *digitiformis* Alexander, but has a very different hypopygium. The tubercle on the basistyle is not found in any other species known to me.

Genus *Neognophomyia* Alexander

Neognophomyia spectralis new species.

General coloration of mesonotal præscutum reddish yellow, the posterior sclerites darker; vertex yellow, with a brown central area; thoracic pleura with a conspicuous dorsal black stripe; tips of femora, tibiæ and basitarsi broadly blackened; wings with a pale yellow tinge, patterned with brown, including a subbasal fascia; abdominal tergites conspicuously patterned with brownish black and yellow; male hypopygium with the tergal spines blackened, nearly straight; phallosome produced at apex into lateral horns.

MALE.—Length about 5–5.5 mm.; wing 6–7 mm.

Rostrum obscure yellow; palpi brown. Antennæ with scape and pedicel dark brown; basal flagellar segments pale brown, the outer ones paling to brownish yellow; flagellar segments passing from oval through long-oval; verticils conspicuous. Head yellow, the anterior vertex with a conspicuous brown area; anterior vertex moderately wide, a little more than twice the diameter of the scape.

Pronotum yellow medially, brownish black on sides. Mesonotal præscutum reddish yellow, more yellowish on lateral and humeral portions, in cases more darkened, especially near suture; scutum yellow, each lobe with two brown areas; scutellum black, more or less pruinose; postnotum brownish black, including both the mediotergite and pleurotergite. Pleura reddish yellow with a broad black longitudinal stripe beginning on sides of pronotum, involving the anepisternum, dorsal pteropleurite and the postnotum, as described. Halteres yellow. Legs with the coxæ yellow to reddish yellow; trochanters yellow; femora, tibiæ and basitarsi yellow, with broad and conspicuous black tips; remainder of tarsi black. Wings with a pale yellow tinge, patterned with brown, including a broad seam from stigma across anterior cord, and narrower seams on *m-cu* and outer end of cell *1st* M_2; a less conspicuous subbasal band from origin of *Rs* extending obliquely across cell *M* into cells *Cu, 1st A* and *2nd A*; extreme base of wing blackened; veins yellow to brownish yellow, darker brown in the patterned areas. Venation: R_2 at near midlength of petiole of cell R_3; cell *1st* M_2 strongly narrowed at proximal end; *m-cu* from about one-half to approximately its own length beyond the fork of *M*.

Abdominal tergites yellow, handsomely patterned with brownish black, the segments chiefly darkened with a large yellow area at posterior border of each segment, encroaching on the base of the succeeding segment, the outer segments more uniformly darkened, greatly restricting the yellow color; sternites yellow, the terminal segments more darkened; hypopygium chiefly obscure brownish yellow. Male hypopygium with the tergal spines appearing as long, nearly straight, blackened blades, a little expanded at base, thence gradually narrowed to the acute tips. Outer dististyle relatively slender; outer margin of distal third with five long setæ, additional to the single terminal bristle. Inner dististyle large and massive, terminating in a broad blackened beak, the apical border with about seven or eight strong setæ; basal tooth or flange of style strongly blackened, provided with four strong setæ. Phallosome relatively wide, at apex produced into a slender spinous point that is directed laterad, immediately cephalad of which is a broadly rounded emargination.

Holotype, ♂, Baños, Tungurahua, altitude 2,000 meters, July 14, 1939 (Macintyre). Paratopotypes, 7 ♂♂, altitude 1,700–2,000 meters, May 11–June 2, 1937; paratype, 2 ♂♂, Pititi, near Baños, altitude 1,900 meters, June 14, 1937 (Macintyre).

The only generally similar species is *Neognophomyia hirsuta* (Alexander) of eastern Brazil, which has the pattern of the body, legs and wings somewhat the same but with the male hypopygium entirely different. This latter species has the subbasal darkened wing band much wider and more continuous than in the present fly.

Neognophomyia interrupta new species.

Allied to *hostica;* general coloration yellow, the præscutum with the disk chiefly reddish yellow; wings grayish yellow, with a narrow brown seam along cord; abdomen pale, with tergites three, five and six conspicuously dark brown; male hypopygium with the outer dististyle strongly constricted at near midlength, the bulbous outer portion terminating in two subequal elongate setæ; tergal spines pale, angularly bent beyond midlength.

MALE.—Length about 4.5 mm.; wing 5 mm.

Rostrum pale yellow; palpi pale, the outer segments darkened. Antennæ with scape and pedicel light yellow; flagellum broken. Head obscure brownish yellow; eyes (male) relatively large.

Pronotum yellow. Mesonotal præscutum yellow, with three more or less confluent more reddish stripes that form a nearly continuous discal area;

scutal lobes brownish black, the remainder of scutum more brownish yellow; scutellum and mediotergite brownish yellow, the pleurotergite almost covered by an oval velvety black spot, as is common in the genus. Pleura reddish yellow the anepisternum a little infuscated. Halteres uniformly pale yellow. Legs with the coxæ and trochanters yellow; remainder of legs broken. Wings grayish yellow, the prearcular and costal fields somewhat brighter yellow; a narrow but conspicuous brown seam along cord, becoming indistinct or obliterated at fork of *M*; veins brownish yellow, darker in the infuscated areas. Venation: R_2 at about one-third the length of petiole of cell R_3; vein R_3 oblique; cell *1st* M_2 only slightly widened outwardly; *m-cu* at near one-third the length of the cell.

Abdomen conspicuously patterned; basal tergites brownish yellow, darkened laterally; tergites three, five and six conspicuously dark brown; tergites four, seven and eight pale; hypopygium and sternites more uniformly yellow. Male hypopygium with the outer dististyle strongly constricted at near midlength, the base widened, the apex bulbous, its extreme tip broadly obtuse with two subequal elongate setæ. In *hostica,* the style is unusually slender, gradually narrowed beyond the basal enlargement, the tip unusually slender and thus with only a single apical seta. Inner dististyle much as in *hostica,* more widened at near midlength, the setæ at this point slightly more numerous, longer and paler. Phallosome narrower. Tergal spines somewhat as in *hostica,* the basal section shorter.

Holotype, ♂, Zumbi, Rio Zamora, Santiago-Zamora, altitude 700 meters, November 5, 1941 (Laddey).

The most similar described species is *Neognophomyia hostica* Alexander, of Peru, which differs most evidently in the coloration of the abdomen and in the structure of the male hypopygium, as compared above.

Genus *Gonomyia* Meigen

Gonomyia (Progonomyia) acrissima new species.

General coloration gray, the præscutum with three conspicuous brown stripes; thoracic pleura dark gray with a broad yellow longitudinal stripe; legs dark brown, the tarsi black; wings with a weak grayish tinge, unpatterned except for the very pale brown and inconspicuous stigma; male hypopygium with the mesal face of basistyle before apex with a longitudinal group of acute spines, these exceeding 60 in number.

MALE.—Length 5.5–5.6 mm.; wing 6–6.2 mm.; antenna about 1–1.1 mm.

Rostrum black, sparsely pruinose; palpi brownish black. Antennæ with the scape dark brown, pedicel and flagellum black; flagellar segments subcylindrical to long-oval with verticels that are subequal in length to the segments. Head gray; vertex with a median brown line.

Pronotum blackened, pruinose, the lateral portions, together with the anterior pretergites, obscure yellow. Mesonotal præscutum gray, with three conspicuous brown stripes, the median one not reaching the suture, the laterals crossing the suture onto the scutal lobes; pseudosutural foveæ black, conspicuous; posterior sclerites of notum gray, the posterior border of scutellum more obscure yellow; postnotum gray, the dorsal portion of pleurotergite and adjoining portion of mediotergite obscure yellow. Pleura dark gray, with a broad and conspicuous yellow stripe extending from behind the fore coxæ across the dorsal sternopleurite, behind including the ventral pteropleurite, meron and metapleura. Halteres with stem yellowish brown, knob darker brown. Legs with coxæ light brown, sparsely pruinose; trochanters brownish yellow; remainder of legs dark brown, the tarsi passing into black. Wings with a weak grayish tinge, unpatterned except for the very pale brown stigma; extreme wing base paler; veins brown, brightened at base of wing. Venation: *Sc* relatively short, Sc_1 ending a distance beyond origin of *Rs* about equal to *m-cu*, Sc_2 a slightly shorter distance before origin; R_2 indicated by a very faint element at midlength of stigma; cell *2nd* M_2 nearly twice its petiole; *m-cu* from three-fifths to two-thirds its length before the fork of *M*.

Abdominal tergites dark grayish brown, sternites slightly paler; eighth and ninth segments somewhat paler brown, the styli darker. Male hypopygium with the apex of basistyle obtuse, unarmed; mesal face immediately back from tip with an extensive longitudinal area of acute spines, these totalling in excess of 60. Outer dististyle a semicylindrical blade, its apex narrowed into an acute black spine. Intermediate style a long darkened blade, about one-half longer than the outer style; at near one-third its length bearing a more slender branch or arm that is approximately one-half as long as the main apical branch; stem near the branch with numerous setæ, these becoming even longer and more conspicuous on base of lateral branch; main or axial branch glabrous, gradually narrowed to the subacute cultriform apex. Inner dististyle broad, obtuse at apex, near margin provided with several setæ, those at and near apex longest. Ædeagus relatively slender, narrowed outwardly, near apex with small and inconspicuous lateral shoulders.

Holotype, ♂, Baños, Tungurahua, altitude 1,450 meters, April 23, 1939 (Macintyre). Paratopotype, 1 ♂.

The present fly is readily distinguished from all other generally similar forms by the structure of the male hypopygium, especially the spinous area near apex of basistyle. Such armature is uncommon in the subgenus and in all other cases the number, arrangement and shape of the spines is different; in *Gonomyia* (*Progonomyia*) *compacta* Alexander there is a relatively large group of spiculose points; in *G.* (*P.*) *serena* Alexander, the spines of the general type of the present fly but very few in number; in *G.* (*P.*) *thiosema* Alexander, an even larger group of elongate spinous pegs on mesal face of basistyle but these with obtusely rounded tips. In all these species, the structure of the dististyles is likewise distinctive.

Gonomyia (Progonomyia) hyperplatys new species.

General coloration of notum grayish brown; antennæ black throughout; pleura blackened, sparsely pruinose, with a conspicuous yellow longitudinal stripe; knobs of halteres darkened; wings yellowish, restrictedly patterned with pale brown; Sc_1 ending shortly beyond origin of Rs; male hypopygium with the phallosome unusually wide, appearing as a broadly flattened plate, each outer lateral angle further produced.

MALE.—Length about 6 mm.; wing 6.6 mm.

Rostrum and palpi dark brown. Antennæ brownish black throughout; flagellar segments subcylindrical, passing into long-oval, with verticils that exceed the segments. Head brownish gray on anterior vertex, deepening in color behind the antennal bases, the broad posterior vertex clear gray.

Pronotum obscure yellow medially, dark brown sublaterally; pretergites yellow. Mesonotum dark grayish brown, the humeral and lateral portions light yellow; scutellum more reddish brown; mediotergite dark brown, with a conspicuous yellow area on either side of basal half; dorsal portion of pleurotergite similarly yellow. Pleura blackened, sparsely pruinose, with a conspicuous yellow longitudinal stripe extending from above the fore coxæ across the dorsal sternopleurite to the ventral pteropleurite and meral region. Halteres with stem yellow, knob weakly darkened. Legs with the coxæ basally dark brownish gray, the tips restrictedly yellow; trochanters brown; remainder of legs broken. Wings with a yellowish tinge, restrictedly patterned with rather pale brown, the areas chiefly restricted to the vicinity of the veins, distributed as follows: Origin of Rs; stigma; cord and base of cell *2nd* M_2; two small isolated spots in Anal cells, one near outer end of cell *1st A* adjoining vein *2nd A*, the other near center of cell *2nd A*; veins brown. Venation: Sc short, Sc_1 ending shortly beyond origin of Rs, Sc_2 about an equal distance before this origin, Rs relatively long, square and spurred at origin; R_2 about twice R_{3+4}; *m-cu* from about one-third to one-half its length before fork of M.

Abdomen brownish black; ninth segment abruptly yellow, the styli again blackened. Male hypopygium with the outer dististyle a short, slender, curved rod that narrows to the acute blackened tip, the outer margin with delicate microscopic setulæ. Intermediate style broadly flattened, entirely dark-colored, the inner margin at near midlength produced into a sharp spine, the surface basad of this with conspicuous setæ; apical portion of style appearing as a broad flattened basal flange that narrows into a long arm that is narrowly but deeply notched at apex. Inner dististyle a dusky lobe with strong spinous setæ along the entire inner face, the terminal one longest. Phallosome unusually wide for a member of this subgenus, appearing as a broadly flattened plate subtending the ædeagus, each outer lateral angle produced further into a flattened lobe or blade, with about seven setæ chiefly distributed along the outer margin near apex.

Holotype, ♂, Baños, Tungurahua, altitude 1,450 meters, April 23, 1939 (Macintyre).

The present fly is entirely different from other described species of the subgenus, differing especially in the structure of the male hypopygium and particularly of the phallosome. The most similar form is *Gonomyia* (*Progonomyia*) *velutina* Alexander, which differs in the wing pattern and in all details of structure of the male hypopygium.

Genus *Cryptolabis* Osten Sacken

Cryptolabis (Cryptolabis) alticola new species.

General coloration black, more or less pruinose; lateral pretergites abruptly yellowish white; legs black; wings with a strong brownish tinge, the prearcular and costal fields yellow; *Rs* very long; male hypopygium with the dististyle large and conspicuous, exserted, consisting of an outer flattened setuliferous blade and a bispinous inner body; tergal plate bearing conspicuous lateral arms that terminate in several strong setæ; ædeagus long and slender.

Male.—Length about 4.5 mm.; wing 5.2 mm.

Rostrum and palpi black. Antennæ brownish black; flagellar segments oval, with conspicuous verticils. Head black, presumably pruinose in fresh specimens.

Pronotum, mesonotum and pleura of the unique type dull black, the surface presumably more or less pruinose in fresh specimens; pretergites abruptly and conspicuously yellowish white. Halteres brown, the apex of knob brighter. Legs black, with relatively conspicuous suberect setæ. Wings with a strong brown tinge, the prearcular and costal fields yellow; axillary region restrictedly infuscated; veins and macrotrichia brown. Macrotrichia of cells relatively abundant, beyond the cord extending from outer end of cell R_2 to cell M_4, in the radial field involving all of the cells with the exception of the basal fourth to fifth. Venation: Sc relatively short, Sc_1 ending some distance before the end of Rs; Rs very long, exceeding in length vein R_3; R_{2+3+4} at origin nearly perpendicular to Rs, subequal in length to R_{2+3}; cell M_3 deep; *m-cu* at near midlength of M_{3+4}; vein *2nd A* gently sinuous.

Abdomen brownish black; hypopygium black. Male hypopygium with the dististyle large and conspicuous, exserted; consisting of an outer fleshy lobe or blade that may represent a separate style, and the main body of the style itself; outer blade flattened, densely covered with short setæ; inner portion of style with apex dilated into a truncated portion, the outer margin with two strong blackened spinous points, the more basal one erect, the outer spine more appressed. What appears to be the tergite appears as a transverse plate with the median portion strongly produced into a rounded lobe, the lateral arms appearing as strong cylindrical lobes that are directed strongly mesad and then caudad, the tips with about seven elongate setæ. Ædeagus unusually long and slender, blackened, transversely corrugated.

Holotype, ♂, Hacienda Talahua, Bolivar, altitude 3,100 meters, April 28, 1939 (Brown).

Cryptolabis (*Cryptolabis*) *alticola* is entirely different from the other described species of the genus. It is most similar to species such as *C.* (*C.*) *chilotanica* Alexander, of southern Chile, yet very distinct in the structure of the male hypopygium. For a discussion of the type locality, consult Brown (Ann. Ent. Soc. Amer., 34: 848; 1941).

TWO NEW SUBSPECIES OF *EVERES COMYNTAS* GODART (LEPIDOPTERA, LYCÆNIDÆ)

By HARRY K. CLENCH
CAMBRIDGE, MASS.

Two races of this wide-ranging species have recently come to my attention, one from South Dakota and one from Montana.

Everes comyntas valeriæ, new subspecies

UPPERSIDE:

Male. Both wings slightly purplish blue. *Fore wing* with a narrow dark border on the outer margin. Costa and costal veins pencilled with light blue. *Hind wing* with an internervural row of small spots on the outer margin. Costa dark bordered. Cu_2 with a short tail. *Fringe* of fore wing dark basally, white outwardly; of the hind wing white.

Female. Both wings brown. Base of each dark blue. Hind wing with a black spot in the Cu_1-Cu_2 interspace basally bordered by a shallow, rather dull orange lunule. A thin marginal pale bluish line borders the outer margin, interrupted at the veins, basal to which is a similar but scalloped and more obscure line. The two outline a series of internervural dark spots. Occasionally these lines are very faint, and the row of spots consequently almost indistinguishable.

UNDERSIDE:

Male. Ground color grayish tan. All spots arranged as in typical *comyntas,* but with the post-discal series usually rounder and darker—occasionally very heavy. The orange over the two spots in the M_3-Cu_1-Cu_2 interspaces of the hind wing is usually faint, although stronger in the latter than in the former. On this same wing, just basal to the marginal compound border, the ground color is white between the veins.

Female. Similar to the male.

Length of fore wing: Male, 11.5–13.5 mm.; Female, 10–12.5 mm.

Holotype, male, near Lead, South Dakota, June 22, 1939 (V. H. and A. C. Frederick).

Allotype, female, Terry Peak, South Dakota, el. 5200+ feet, June 24, 1939 (V. H. and A. C. Frederick).

Paratypes, 1 male, same data as holotype; 1 male and 2 females, same data as allotype; 1 female, Harney Peak, el. 5200+ feet, June 25, 1939 (A. C. Frederick); 31 males, 3 females, Spearfish Canyon and vicinity, el. 5200+ feet, as follows: 3 males, June 26, 27, and July 1, 1939, resp. (V. H. and A. C. Frederick); 15 males, 2 females, June 29, 1942 (A. C. Frederick); 13 males and 1 female, June 30, 1942 (A. C. Frederick); 17 males, Icebox Canyon, June 29, 1942 (A. C. Frederick). All localities in the Black Hills, South Dakota.

Holotype and allotype no. 25934 in the collection of the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy. Paratypes in the collection of Mr. Frederick and of the author.

Remarks. This subspecies appears to be most similar to the southwestern race *herrii* Grinnell[1] from which it differs in the following particulars: the black border on the wings above in the male is slightly thinner. This is most apparent on the hind wing, where the border in *herrii* is thick enough to include the internervural spots, while in *valeriæ* these spots are almost always free. There is no orange lunule on the hind wing above, an almost constant feature of *herrii,* and even more prominent in typical *comyntas,* but more variable in the latter. The ground color below in both sexes appears to be a little darker. The female of *valeriæ* is largely blackish brown above, with a rather dark basal blue shading, while in *herrii* both wings are rather extensively blue above. The orange lunules above are smaller in females of *valeriæ* than in those of *herrii.*

This subspecies appears to be quite variable. One male has a tiny orange lunule in the Cu_1–Cu_2 interspace above—the only indication of it in the whole type series. The same specimen and one or two others have the marginal border on both wings thickened, that on the hind wing including the submarginal spots. Below, the intensity of the spots varies considerably. One specimen has the submarginal series of lunules in the compound border enlarged and very dark, giving the insect a most peculiar appearance. The post-discal series of spots may be enlarged or reduced.

This subspecies is named for Mrs. A. C. Frederick, who materially assisted her husband in collecting the type series.

Everes comyntas albrighti, new subspecies

UPPERSIDE:

Male. Uniform violet-blue on both wings. *Fore wing* with a very narrow dark marginal border. *Hind wing* also with this border, and in addition,

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[1] Can. Ent., 33: 192, 1901.

an almost obsolete row of small dashes, the heaviest in the Cu_1-Cu_2 interspace.

Female. Uniform brown on both wings. Base of fore wing blue. On the hind wing, in the Cu_1-Cu_2 interspace, a faint orange lunule surmounts a tiny dark spot.

UNDERSIDE:

Male. *Fore wing* dirty white, with a broad costal border of dark grayish scaling. The marginal compound border is almost obsolete, save for a few dark scales. A post-discal row of black spots, large and distinct, runs from costa to inner margin, the costal ones usually obsolete. Cell closed by a dark dash. *Hind wing* with a brownish gray ground color, fading on the outer margin. The submarginal border is, as in the fore wing, almost completely absent. The post-discal series, the cell-end bar, and the basal spots are also nearly gone, but their positions are shown by whitened areas in the gray. In the Cu_1-Cu_2 interspace is a small black spot, obscurely scaled with metallic, and capped by a tiny orange crescent.

Female. The single female examined shows a very similar appearance. The post-discal series of spots on the fore wing is represented, however, only by spots from M_3 to the inner margin. The costal gray-brown on this wing extends down to M_3.

Length of fore wing: Male, 11–11.5 mm.; female, 11 mm.

Holotype, male, Kings Hill, Montana, July 9, 1939 (from C. C. Albright).

Allotype, female, same data.

Paratypes, two males, same data.

Holotype and allotype to be deposited in the collection of the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy. One paratype in the collection of Mr. C. F. dos Passos. One paratype in the collection of the author.

Remarks. This subspecies differs from all other North American *Everes* thus far known in the grayish costal shading on the fore wing below, and in the gray ground color of the hind wing below. This subspecies appears to be closer in appearance to northern specimens of *amyntula* Boisd.[2] since several of its characters correspond quite closely to that species, such as the narrow margin above, reduced maculation below (aside from the gray ground color) and reduced orange in both sexes.

This subspecies is named for Dr. C. C. Albright, of Great Falls, Montana, from whom the specimens were obtained.

[2] Ann. Soc. Ent. France, 10 (2): 294, 1852.

FRANK EUGENE LUTZ

FRANK EUGENE LUTZ

1879–1943

Frank E. Lutz, the son of Martin P. Lutz and Anna Amelia (Brockway) Lutz, was born in Bloomsburg, Pa., on September 15, 1879. His early education took place in the public schools and the Bloomsburg State Normal School. From Haverford College in 1900 he received his A.B. degree. During his first two years in college he specialized in mathematics, upon the advice of his father, who, being an insurance agent, was impressed by the large earnings of life insurance actuaries. However, after two years the boy decided to go into medicine and so mathematics was dropped for biology. With college over his biology teacher, H. S. Pratt, advised him to go into biometry in view of his training in both mathematics and biology. This he did by going to see Dr. C. B. Davenport of the University of Chicago, who had charge of a summer biological laboratory at Cold Spring Harbor. At this laboratory Frank E. Lutz waited on tables and counted the grooves on scallop shells, finally publishing his first paper, a very short one, entitled ''A Study in the Variations in the Number of Grooves upon the Shells of *Pecten irradiens* (Lam.)'' in Science in 1900. Although brief, this paper helped him to get a scholarship at the University of Chicago where he obtained his A.M. in 1902. While working, as biologist for the North Shore Improvement Association, in mosquito control on the north shore of Long Island, he earned enough money to go to London (Eng.) where he studied under Karl Pearson. From September 1902 to June 1903 he was a student in London and Berlin.

From 1904 to 1909 he was employed as resident investigator at the Station for Experimental Evolution (Carnegie Institution) at Cold Spring Harbor, N. Y., where he did research work on heredity. Within this period, or in 1907, he obtained his Ph.D. from the University of Chicago for his dissertation on ''The Variation and Correlation of Certain Taxonomic Characters of Gryllus,'' and at the beginning of this period, or on December 30, 1904, he married Martha Ellen Brobson, of Philadelphia, Pa.

Dr. Lutz then entered the employ of The American Museum of Natural History in 1909 as assistant curator in the department of invertebrate zoology. From 1917 to 1921 he served as associate curator and in 1921, when the department of entomology was created, he was appointed curator. For 22 years, or until his death at the age of 64 on the morning of November 27, 1943, at Harkness Pavilion, New York City, after an illness of several weeks, Dr. Lutz continued as chairman and curator of the department of insects and spiders.

After coming to the American Museum of Natural History his activity in biometrics declined and was replaced by an absorbing interest in insects, although he never had any college training in entomology and although several of his early museum papers dealt with the history of Antarctic explorations and with the string-figures of Patamana Indians. Under Dr. Lutz's leadership a large exhibition and study collection of insects was assembled, now numbering approximately 2,000,000 specimens. Many of these collections were made by Dr. Lutz during the course of 23 field expeditions to various parts of the United States and to South and Central America and the West Indies. These expeditions started in 1908 with a trip to Cuba and Mexico, and after he entered the employ of the Museum, 23 expeditions were made. The first took place in 1911 to the West Indies, British Guiana and Florida, and the last in 1941 to California. Between these dates, Dr. Lutz collected and made observations in Florida, Louisiana, Texas, California, Colorado, Wyoming, Utah, Idaho, Panama, Porto Rico, Cuba and British Guiana. In all five trips were made to the West Indies, five to Panama, five to Florida and eight to the western part of the United States. Some of these western trips were made in a special Museum truck-like automobile which Dr. Lutz had outfitted with equipment for collecting and living out-of-doors, making him independent of hotels and trains. In addition, he took an active part in Museum affairs and commttees and was chairman of publications and editor of the Museum's Bulletin and Memoirs from 1917 to 1929. From 1925 to 1928 he directed the Station for the Study of Insects at Tuxedo, N. Y., and was one of the nation's leading exponents for nature trails and museums.

During the summer of 1926 he began the first trailside museum of its kind at Bear Mountain, N. Y., and was called upon by many organizations for advice in establishing similar trails in parks and wild-life areas in various parts of the United States. I distinctly recall his enthusiasm upon this subject, when in company with Mr. E. L. Dickerson I paid him a visit at Tuxedo when the station there was half completed. Dr. Lutz was so anixous to get things finished that he would not go with us for lunch, preferring to dine quickly upon some pieces of bread over which he had broken a raw egg, a nutritious, if not appetizing mixture.

In planning the arrangement of the insect exhibits at the Museum, Dr. Lutz attempted not only to supply information about insects, but to interest the visitor in entomology as well. About 1915 the plan of the Hall of Insect Life involved exhibits, with continuity, covering ontogeny, anatomy, physiology, taxonomy, phylogeny, life-histories, insect associations, insect enemies and evolution. And in addition, there were exhibits on miscellaneous topics such as insect architecture, insects as food, medicine, social insects, etc., etc. Later as exhibit methods changed there were originated by Dr. Lutz various habitat groups. Dr. Lutz tells of the early days of his department in ''Natural History,'' May–June, 1924, under the title ''Amateur Entomologists and the Museum.'' During his administration the insect collection was increased by gifts, purchases and expeditions, well over a million specimens.

For many years Dr. Lutz took an active part in the affairs of the New York Entomological Society, serving as president in 1925 and 1926 and on the Publication Committee for 20 years. For a long period the meetings were held in Dr. Lutz's room on the third floor of the Museum and there, surrounded by preserved spiderwebs, Dr. Lutz's zoo of living insects and entomological books and paraphernalia, many interesting entomological discussions took place, in which he always participated.

A glance at Dr. Lutz's published writings indicates that from 1910 on, they were concerned exclusively with insects, and spiders, principally the former. In both his popular and scientific writings he covered such topics as geographic distribution, insect sounds, a study of ultraviolet in relation to flower-visiting habits of insects, wind and the direction of insect flight, insect life in thermal waters, and other subjects involving the biology and behavior of insects. He was not interested in economic entomology and he believed that more intensive work on the biology of insects was needed in view of the fact that comparatively little is known even about many of our most common species. Important contributions were made by Lutz in the field of insect behavior through his research work on insect reactions to ultraviolet, on the training of bees to come to certain ultraviolet wavelengths and patterns for food, on his recordings and sound motion pictures of insect sounds and insect behavior under various atmospheric pressures. Such work required not only a thoughtful and enquiring mind, an awareness of the pitfalls in conclusions, but ingenuity in inventing mechanical devices needed for the tests. These requirements Dr. Lutz possessed. In 1923 he was awarded the Morrison Prize for his essay on ''The Colors of Flowers and the Vision of Insects with Special Reference to Ultraviolet.'' In addition to his research work he did much to popularize entomology and nature study. Tens of thousands of persons use his ''Field Book of Insects.'' This was first published in 1918. A second edition was published in 1921 and a third in 1935. Its royalties put Dr. Lutz's four children through college.

In 1941 he wrote his last book entitled, ''A Lot of Insects.'' This embodies accounts of the insects that, for the most part, were the objects of Dr. Lutz's curiosity, experimentation, and entertainment over a period of many years, and includes his sound and humorous entomological philosophy—all expressed interestingly and in a lucid style. Dr. Lutz approached all his problems from a stiumulating and thought-provoking viewpoint and this makes for fascinating reading.

Dr. Lutz was a Fellow of the New York Academy of Sciences and the American Association for the Advancement of Science, a charter member of the Entomological Society of America and its president in 1927, a member of the American Society of Zoologists, the American Society of Naturalists, the Ecological Society of America, Sigma Xi, Phi Beta Kappa, New York Zoological Society, and the New York Entomological Society, his presidency of the latter society having already been noted. He was an advisor to the Buffalo Society of Natural Sciences and in 1937 a lecturer in Columbia University. He also served as chairman of the committee on Biological Relations Between Flowers and Insects of the National Research Council.

Dr. Lutz made his home in New Jersey and funeral services were held at his residence, 13 North Central Avenue, Ramsey, New Jersey, on November 29, 1943. He is survived by his widow, Mrs. Martha Ellen Brobson Lutz and four children, a son, Frank Brobson Lutz, and three daughters, Anna Lutz, Ensign Laura Lutz of the WAVES, and Mrs. Boyd Sherman.

These few paragraphs are but an inadequate summary of some of the things accomplished by Dr. Lutz during his lifetime. They fail to record many activites of which there are no records, except in the memories of his friends. They fail to record the happiness that Dr. Lutz's chosen life-work brought to him, and the pleasure that was his in creating problems and then solving them. And they fail to mention his amiable and quizzical philosophy of biological theories, flashes of which are apparent in his writings. In a review of Dr. Lutz's last book, and speaking of his ''Field Book of Insects'' as well, Dr. H. M. Parshley said: ''They mirror a rare and admirable personality, a man of genuine good will, a humorist, and one of a remarkable generation of American naturalists.''—HARRY B. WEISS.

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LEPIDOPTERA FROM WESTERN PERU AND ECUADOR

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The occasion of this note is a little lot of Lepidoptera collected by Mr. and Mrs. D. L. Frizzell in the arid northwest corner of Peru, and Puna Id., Ecuador. While not many, the striking character of the fauna is indicated by the presence of two new Citheroniidæ, and the region evidently is worth intensive collecting. Among the normal and widespread things, may be mentioned *Cœa acheronta, Herse convolvuli* from the Pariñas Valley, near Negritos, Peru; *Pholus labruscæ, Celerio annei, Utetheisa ornatrix* from the Pariñas Valley; *Hymenia fascialis, Eudioptis hyalinata* and *Conchylodes arcifera* from the Quebrada Mogollon.

The following are worthy of more specific mention. A female Monarch shows the dull color and heavy black of the Lima females. Single females of *Ascia monuste* from Negritos, Peru, and Puna Id., Ecuador, suggest but hardly prove a racial difference.

Lycæna ramon Dognin. Pariñas Valley, May 7, 1939. This species was described from near Loja, Ecuador, a high temperate and semiarid locality in the heart of the Andes[1] but is equally at home at sea level, where I took it commonly at Lima. It also occurs on the western slope of the Andes at Chosica and Matucana, and we have a specimen from Eten, a little north of Lima—so it doubtless covers the whole arid area of western Ecuador and at least northern Peru. We received the Eten specimen as *hanno,* and other material may be floating around under that name, but it is easily recognized by the ocelli on the hind wing below—two larger between M_3 and Cu_2, and two only a little smaller behind Cu_2. The following key to the American species of *Lycæna,* subgenus *Hemiargus* will place it more precisely.

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[1] Brown, Ann. Ent. Soc. Am., 34: 832.

1. Postmedial spots of fore wing below large and black, contrasting with the small and fuscous subterminal series .... *isola*
–. Pm. spots of fore wing similar to subterminal ones 2
2. Hind wing below with a large ocellus in cell M_3 (cell 3 of Herrich-Schaeffer system), similar to the one behind it 3
–. Hind wing with no ocellus in cell M_3 5
3. Inner half of hind wing below contrastingly darkened, nearly obliterating the usual marks, which are much enlarged in this area; four small ocelli .... *martha*
–. Hind wing with ground all one color, the fuscous spotting generally uniform 4
4. Two ocelli in anal area (behind Cu_2) about two-thirds as large as the ones in front of it and similar .... *ramon*
–. These ocelli small with a small silver spot only, or dull and similar to the anterior subterminal markings .... *zachaeina*
5. Anal area with a single large ocellus, similar to the one in front of Cu_2 ... 6
–. Anal area with two subequal and inconspicuous spots or ocelli, about as in *zachaeina,* or none 8
6. Gray-brown below with spots all small, subequal and grayish ... *bahamensis*
–. Pale gray below 7
7. Hind wing below, and above in female, with a very broad white submarginal band; all spots below small and similar .... *dominica*
–. Hind wing below with less conspicuous white submarginal band or none; three of the dark spots black and conspicuous ...... *ammon* (*catilina* auct.)
8. Largely gray above; hind wing with slight tail and anal lobe .... *bornoi*
–. Mostly blue above; hind wing evenly rounded .... *hanno* (*catilina*)

Goniurus jethira Butler. Easily recognized by the very large honey-yellow spots, which are even larger in this specimen than in the type. (Lep. Exot., p. 65, pl. 25, fig. 4). Pariñas Valley, May 7, 1939. The original locality was merely "Peru" but I did not take it either at Lima or in the Chanchamayo, and suspect it is a specialty of the arid Northwest.

Arsenura harrietæ, new species

Closely similar to *A. richardsoni* Druce in major features; the fuscous ground very lightly dotted with black, most definitely on posterior half of median area. Antemedial of two widely separated blackish lines, the inner nearly straight and outer much bowed out below cell, as in *richardsoni,* but with heavier blackish filling, and the lines themselves more contrasting; postmedial line much further out, nearer to subterminal than to discal lunule, blackish, more definite and more bowed out opposite lower angle of cell, the median area conspicuously whitish toward inner margin; the following line (subterminal in position, but probably morphologically the outer postmedian) black, defined outwardly by a clay colored line, which is much finer and more contrasting than the defining pale shade in *richardsoni;* course much as in *richardsoni,* but closer to margin, especially on costal third, and not nearly as much extended toward base on inner margin; subterminal area not pale as in *richardsoni,* but as dark as ground on fore wing and contrastingly blackish on hind wing, with much paler yellow-brown terminal area. Subapical black spot shorter than in *richardsoni,* not distinctly defined with white; the terminal area below it vaguely shading between dull and red brown, without the contrasting red-brown wedges of *richardsoni.* Discal lunule black and contrasting with central tawny lunule, as in *richardsoni,* but without the tawny bar extending from its outer side.

Hind wing generally similar to fore wing, but with only a faint darker antemedial shade in place of the double line and dark filling, this shade incorporating the faint discal bar (which is more distinct in *richardsoni*); postmedial band as on fore wing, much more conspicuous than in *richardsoni;* the outer pattern differing from the fore wing as noted. Wing form rounder than in *richardsoni,* the apex of fore wing and angle of hind wing less extended. Under side much less mottled than *richardsoni,* with three wavy outer bands, varying from obsolescent to rather conspicuous, the outer strongest and middle one weakest. Body plain brown as in *richardsoni.*

Expanse 92–110 mm., much smaller than *richardsoni.*

Puna Id., Ecuador; type and two paratypes in collection Cornell University.

This may possibly be a race of *richardsoni,* but the discontinuous distribution, different wing form and many differences in pattern suggest rather a good species. The following skeleton key will place it in the genus:

1. Antemedial line double, of an outwardly oblique inner and a strongly excurved outer element, the latter sometimes faint; st. space on posterior half of fore wing and hind wing much broader than terminal area 2
–. Am. line single, straight and outwardly oblique; both wings with a sharply defined even slender pale marginal stripe .... **romulus*
–. Am. line single, outcurved or angled, inwardly oblique to inner margin; st. space narrower, usually much narrower than terminal space, except sometimes for narrow extensions 4
2. Fore wing roundly falcate and deeply excavate below apex; hind wing with tooth large, 12 mm. long on anterior side; hind wing with inner st. line deeply sinuate, passing half way between margin and cell at M_1 .... **championi*
–. Wings less irregular; st. line of hind wing crossing M_1 two-thirds way out to margin 3
3. Discal spot of fore wing with a simple orange central lunule; margin of wings hardly irregular .... **harrietae*

–. Discal spot of fore wing with a short extension of middle of outer side of lunule, forming a Greek *e;* tail of hind wing 6 mm. long. **richardsoni*

4. Hind wing at least with a series of dark spots or lunules in terminal area, wholly distinct from the subterminal complex; fore wing with black markings conspicuous in cells M_1 and almost always M_2, the upper usually joining to the apical pattern but conspicuous, the lower usually free 5

–. Hind wing without this series of markings, though often with somewhat similar extensions of the st. area; black patches in cells M_1 and M_2 normally absent, sometimes mere dashes, or lost in general blackish shading 11

5. Generally smaller species (female alcmene expanding 140 mm.), head solid black, contrasting with the paler brown or fuscous thorax 6

–. Larger species (160 mm. and often more); head with at least a contrasting pale bar over bases of antennæ 8

6. Postmedial line not defined with pale; st. area expanded into a large patch, occupying two-thirds the area between st. line and margin in cells R_4 and R_5 .... *alcmene*

–. Pm. line conspicuously defined by a following dirty white shading; st. area below apex less extensive 7

7. Markings of fore wing corresponding to the admarginal lunules of hind wing taking the form of two similar large blotches in cells M_3 and Cu_1 (feet not seen) .... *pandora*

–. This element of pattern taking the form of a waved diffuse admarginal line; tarsi concolorous dark brown .... **angulata*

–. This element obsolete, except at anal angle, where it is not conspicuous; tarsi cream white, contrasting .... **xanthopus*

8. No black st. patch in cell M_2; pm. area of both wings heavily shaded with black; discal spot of fore wing lunulate; no admarginal spots on fore wing .... *sylla, hercules*

–. Cell M_2 heavily marked subterminally with black; discal spot a simple bar 9

9. No admarginal lunules on posterior part of fore wing; the black spot in M_2 fused with the blotch in cell M_1 .... *aspasia*

–. Spot in cell M_2 separate, conspicuous, and followed with dark shades in cells M_3 and Cu_1 similar to those on hind wing 10

10. Ground with strong yellowish tint; the two black patches in cells M_1 and M_2 similar, very large, separated by hardly more than the light vein, and scaled heavily with blue .... **meander*

—. Ground with olive tint; the second black patch narrow and ovate. **biundulata*

11. Inner subterminal line nearly even, and marked with contrasting whitish dots on veins or more irregular whitish patches; antemedial line when distinct formed of a straight or concave bar across cell and a very oblique lower portion from lower side of cell to basal angle 12

—. Inner st. line more irregular, normally with two large scallops between M_3 and Cu_2, with only limited and irregular white marks; am. line when distinct with lower portion less set off from portion crossing cell, frequently in the form of a single excurved band 14

12. Lower segment of am. line conspicuous, in line with and more or less continuing the black shade subterminally across cell M_1; a conspicuous pale st. patch just below it in cell M_2 .... *ponderosa*

—. Lower segment of am. line inconspicuous; no single pale st. patch 13

13. Outer margin strongly irregular; postmedial area contrasting bright chestnut brown .... *batesi*

—. Margins less irregular; ground rather even dull light brown. **crenulata*

—. Margins still less irregular; pm. area somewhat contrasting, but light brown .... *arcaei*

14. Discal spot lunulate, with contrasting pale center; dentations of inner and outer st. lines if present not closely corresponding 15

—. Discal spots simple; the inner and outer st. lines closely parallel over the dentations at cells M_3 and Cu_1 16

15. Inner st. with distinct and outer with very strong dentations, the white accompanying shade irregular .... **cymonia*

—. Inner st. line nearly straight, and with even accompanying white shade; outer st. obsolete .... *thomsoni*

16. Outer st. line with very strong, narrow black-filled dentations on both wings, three or four of them on fore wing similar .... *polyodonta*

—. Outer st. line closely fitted to inner, both without strong dentations, save for two in cells M_3 and Cu_1 of fore wing .... group **armida*

—. Intermediate; the two upper teeth on fore wing present, but only half as large as the two lower, and filled not with special black triangles but with extensions of the generally blackish contrasting pm. area; very large, expanding 175 mm. .... **archianassa*

In structural characters, the wing-form varies too widely in obviously closely related species to serve for major subdivision, but two groups are set apart by having pectinate antennæ, sylla and arcæi with their relatives—alternatives 5 and 12 of the key. The residue, so far as seen, and including *harrietæ,* have serrate and fasciculate antennæ.

Dysdæmonia species. There was badly broken material of a very striking undescribed Dysdæmonia, with scalloped wings. It will be described by Mr. Johnson, who has a better specimen from the same region.

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* Species represented in coll. Cornell University, many of them the gift of Mr. Frank Johnson.

Givira tristani Schaus. A rubbed specimen from Puna Id. is this species or very close.

Euclea copac Schaus. Puna Id. Agrees so far as can be seen, but not good enough for certainty. The species was described merely from "Peru."

Seirocastnia elaphebolia Druce. Looks to me like a good species. Described from Ecuador.

Monodes convexa, new species

Superficially similar to the North American *festivoides* group, but with relatively much smaller body and arched fore wings. Structures of the normal Monodes, without sex-scaling; male antennæ ciliate, legs unmodified, with a rough tuft beyond middle of mid tibiæ; vestiture normal for Monodes, as described by Hampson, but with the posterior thoracic tuft extended back, almost completely covering the basal abdominal tuft, and roundly truncate behind. Palpi with second joint upturned only a little beyond middle of front, as also in normal species of Monodes.

Body fuscous, thorax somewhat mottled, with darker lower half of collar, the upper half of front, vertex and lower half of collar contrasting blackish in dark specimens; palpi with first and second joints with paler apices, the outer sides contrasting blackish in dark specimens. Fore wing gray, varying extremely in tint, light specimens with the terminal third much darker, dark ones sometimes with the costal area rather darker. Costa with numerous dark bars in light specimens, dark, cut with the pale gray ante- and postmedial lines in dark specimens, and with about four small whitish bars between postmedial and the pale apical shade. Subbasal line of vague paler powdery scaling, toward costa, toward inner margin represented by an oblique blackish bar; antemedial obscure, except for the contrasting pale bar at costa; postmedial represented by dark spots on veins, followed by minute whitish ones, broadly and evenly excurved on costal two thirds, then oblique in to inner margin and slightly concave. Subterminal obscure, sometimes indicated as the irregular boundary between a grayer terminal and browner subterminal area; orbicular and reniform spots large, the orbicular outlined with black except above, usually heavily before and behind; reniform very large, only partly outlined; the area before orb. blackish, the filling between orb. and ren. blackish or shaded with dark, without the sharp boundaries of the festivoides group, the space between ren. and postmedial line usually somewhat darkened, but without a blackish spot. Claviform minute, whitish, usually contrasting, heavily outlined with black, especially before and beyond. Apical oblique shade varying from obsolete to conspicuous, cream white to ash gray, with the basal half shaded with buff in light specimens and slightly warmer brown in dark ones; starting from pm. line opposite cell, curving up and widening in a horn shape, and ending on outer tenth of costa; partly edged behind with black. Terminal blackish dots, obscure in dark specimens, preceded by whitish points, alternating with the pm. ones. Fringe powdery gray, the outer half rather smoother and less powdery. Hind wing dirty white, shading into fuscous on outer half; alula cream, clothed with large scales and conspicuous. Expanse 17–20 mm.

This species in normal specimens will run in Hampson's key to the *festivoides* group, from which it is distinguished by the total lack of warm coloring, much smaller body and arched fore wings, also in maculate forms by the less sharply defined blackish about the orbicular and reniform. It is probably close to *bogotana* Felder and *aphaidropa* Dyar (which are presumably merely color forms of each other) but is smaller, and none of our series are as pale as Felder's figure of *bogotana,* nor show the reddish shadings along costa of *aphaidropa.* It varies enormously, from specimens (males) with the basal two thirds luteous and only the outer third blackish, much like Felder's figure, to specimens (females) that are wholly suffused with smoky gray and coal black, with all the markings obsolescent. Such specimens will probably key out to *phœopera,* but differ from it and its relatives by the rather even dull gray, with the darker area between orbicular and reniform, and the paler apical area at least faintly visible.

The male genitalia of Monodes are extremely varied, and convexa resembles *nucicolora, grata* or *fusimacula* more closely than *festivoides,* having the valves slender, with a complicated basal chitinization composed of parts of sacculus, costa, and perhaps clasper, and sending a spike forward across the costa; weak clasper at a third way out, crossing costa; juxta slenderly extended as a complete anellus, and transtilla also bent into a round arch closely parallel to it. Ædœagus with two massive spines, formed of fused cornuti.

Holotype, male from Chosica, Peru, May 25, 1920. Numerous paratypes of both sexes, from Chosica and Lima, Peru, May 1920; a couple caught by Parish at Lima in 1915; and a pair from the Amotape Mts., N.W. Peru, collected by the Frizzells; all in collection Cornell University. I believe other specimens exist in collections, perhaps labelled bogotana, but the Lima fauna has been extraordinarily neglected, considering how many good collectors have passed through it or even used it for a base.

Cydosia phœdra Druce. Puna Id.

Cobubatha numa Druce. Amotape Mts.

Dichochroma, new genus

Similar to the Pyraustine genus Dichogama. Vestiture of large, smooth scaling; palpi upturned to middle of front, close-scaled, slightly flattened against the front; the segments well marked off, third segment larger than in Dichogama, two-thirds as long as second, continuing the direction of second; maxillary palpi rough-scaled, flattened against the face, as in Dichogama. Tongue strong. Legs very short for a Pyraustine, as in Dichogama, mid tibia about as long as femur without trochanter, and tarsus hardly longer. Fore wing presumably with the long Arctiid-like frenulum hook of Dichogama (male not seen); R_3 and R_4 stalked, R_5 stalked with M_1, well separated from R_4, M_2 and M_3 stalked, Cu_1 parallel to M_3, arising well before end of cell. Hind wing without fringe on Cu; M_2 and $_3$ strongly stalked, as in *D. fernaldi,* but unlike the other Dichogamas at hand.

Third A of fore wing is strong and makes a wide loop, but I cannot see if it runs back into 2d A.

This genus is clearly a development of Dichogama, differing from it, and from all Pyraustinæ known to me in the stalked R_5 and M_1 (veins 6 and 7) and from most in the stalking of M_2 and M_3 in both wings. It is also far smaller than any Dichogama yet known, and is found on the Mainland, while Dichogama is essentially Antillean, only *D. diffusalis* not yet being known from the Antilles. In Hampson's key (Proc. Zool. Soc., 1898, 594) it will run to Hymenia or Macarætera, according to how the third segment of the palpus is interpreted, but has no real kinship to either. The stalked veins will easily separate it.

By the way there is no reason for marking several species of Dichogama ''incertæ sedis'' as Klima does in Lep. Cat. 89, p. 122. We have *colotha, fernaldi* and *gudmanni* from Porto Rico and they are normal Dichogamas, save for the stalked instead of approximate M_2 and M_3 in *fernaldi;* and *amabilis* and *bergii* show patterns that would hardly occur elsewhere; but *smithii,* unquestioned by Klima, is the well known Noctuid, *Casandria abseuzalis,* which I found common in Porto Rico.

Dichochroma muralis, new species

Head and thorax mouse gray, dusted with whitish scale-tips; thorax immaculate; shaft of antennæ blackish; palpi with first segment whitish, second mouse gray, but whitish along the ventral inner keel; third segment blackish with contrasting dirty white tip. Under side cream white, the front side of the fore legs fuscous. Abdomen above mouse gray, immaculate, below nearly white.

Fore wing mouse gray, immaculate but with pale scale-tips especially toward base, and sparsely overlaid with narrow whitish strap-shaped scales; fringe whitish. Hind wing translucent white with narrow and broken fuscous terminal line. Expanse 16 mm.

Amotape Mts., N. W. Peru, H. & D. L. Frizzell; type one female in coll. Cornell University.

In sum this little fauna from the north end of the arid coastal strip of South America is a curious one. While the typical material of this strip is present (*e.g.*, *Celerio annei* and *Monodes convexa*) there is also a definite Central American element (notably the Arsenura, which is closest to *A. richardsoni*), and a few species which now appear to be endemic, such as the undescribed Dysdæmonia, *Euclea copac* and *Dichochroma murina.* Plainly many more interesting things are due to come out of the area.

DROSOPHILA MELANURA, A NEW SPECIES OF THE MELANICA GROUP

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During most of the summer of 1941 the author collected Drosophilas and related forms on the River Campus of the University of Rochester at Rochester, New York. One of the commonest types to be found in the fermented banana traps used in the collections was a form identified as *Drosophila melanica* Sturtevant (1916). From June 5 through August 25 there were gotten 1263 individuals of this species, 538 of which were females, 725 males. In a recent paper Patterson (1942) has indicated that *D. melanica* should be divided into two subspecies, *melanica* and *paramelanica,* differing in distribution, *melanica* having been found in the southeastern United States and in Mexico, *paramelanica* occurring in the northeastern part of this country. It is probable, on the basis of locality, that the *D. melanica* individuals collected at Rochester belonged to the subspecies *paramelanica.* Towards the end of the collecting period, from August 19 through August 25, there occurred in the traps some male Drosophilas that seemed to differ from the *D. melanica* males only in the unusually dark pigmentation of their genital region. Altogether there were 10 such males collected. Since it was suspected that these males represented a new form, a number of apparently *D. melanica* females collected at the time were isolated individually into culture bottles in the hope that some of them would have offspring, males of which would be of this new type. Unfortunately, none of the females so isolated bred. Since it seemed unlikely that the females would have any progeny if left to themselves, an attempt was made to mate them to some of the *melanica*-like males. Culture bottles that had contained one of the females with two such males yielded some offspring. The male progeny were all of the new type in that their genital

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* This study was begun while the author was holding a teaching assistantship at the University of Rochester, Rochester, New York.

region was darkly pigmented. These offspring proved to be fertile, and through allowing them to mate among themselves a strain was derived. Males of succeeding generations have all persisted in differing from *D. melanica* males in the dark pigmentation of the genital region. On the basis of this constant character of difference, as well as because of others noted below, the *melanica*-like form collected at Rochester is here designated a separate species, *Drosophila melanura*. A description of the new species is given next, with notes on comparison of the new form with *D. melanica* following just afterwards.

Description of the Species

Drosophila melanura, sp. nov.

EXTERNAL CHARACTERS OF IMAGINES.

♂ Arista with about 9 branches. Antennæ brownish, pollinose. Front blackish. Middle orbital length about $\frac{1}{3}$ that of posterior one. Second oral length about $\frac{1}{3}$ that of first. Carina broad below, sulcate. Face brownish. Cheeks pale brownish, about $\frac{1}{6}$ greatest diameter of eye at their greatest width. Eyes red, with black pile.

Acrostichal hairs in irregular rows; about six rows at the anterior dorsocentral bristles. Anterior scutellars convergent. Mesonotum dull brown, with four slightly paler longitudinal stripes, two extending forward from just inside anterior dorsocentral bristles, two lying just outside the lateral pairs of dorsocentral bristles. Pleuræ brownish. Sterno-index about 0.9. Legs pale brownish. Two apical bristles on first tibiæ, one on second; preapicals on all three.

Broad, brown bands on abdominal segments 2 through 6, with posteriorly narrowing median interruptions, with but little interruption near the lateral margins of the tergites. Genital region (genital arch, anal plates, claspers, penis apparatus) dark brown.

Wings clear, veins brown. Costal index about 2.9; 4th vein index about 1.4; 5x index about 0.9; 4c index about 0.6. Two bristles at apex of first costal section. Third costal section with bristles on its basal $\frac{1}{3}$.

Body length about 3.3 mm. (alive); wings 2.8 mm.

♀ Broad, brown bands on abdominal segments 2 through 6, with posteriorly narrowing median interruptions, often with wide lateral interruptions on the 6th segment.

Body length about 3.5 mm. (alive); wings 3.0 mm.

INTERNAL CHARACTERS OF IMAGINES.

Testis with about 3 inner coils (probably the seminal vesicle) and 3 outer ones, the coiled portion tending to be orange. Ejaculatory sac with 4 long diverticula, 2 anterior and 2 posterior.

Spermathecæ chitinized. Ventral receptacle with about 30 coils.

Additional notes.

EGG.—With 2 filaments, each about $\frac{2}{3}$ the length of the egg.

PUPARIUM.—Amber. About 9 branches in each anterior spiracle. Horn index (length of puparium/length of anterior spiracle horn) about 12.

CHROMOSOMES.—Female metaphase plate contains: one pair of large V's, two pairs of rods, one pair of medium V's, and one pair of small V's. Male metaphase plate has a J in place of one of the large V's.

KEY POSITION.—The following is to be taken as an expansion of the first line of couplet 50 of the Key to North American Species of Drosophila of Sturtevant (1942), to which point an attempt to classify a specimen of *D. melanura* should lead one.

50a. Male genital region dark brown .... *melanura*
Male genital region not dark brown .... *melanica*

DISTRIBUTION.—This species has been collected only in a small wood on the campus of the University of Rochester (River Campus), Rochester, New York.

Type specimens of *D. melanura* are deposited in the American Museum of Natural History, New York, N. Y.

Comparison with *D. melanica*

Drosophila melanura has been compared with individuals taken from *D. melanica* strains kept in this laboratory. These strains have been classified as to subspecies (*melanica* or *paramelanica*) by Prof. A. H. Sturtevant. The above description of *D. melanura,* as well as the notes which follow, is based largely on individuals of the single existing strain of this species, derived as indicated in the first paragraph.

The impression has been gotten that *D. melanura* is a larger form than *D. melanica.* This has been gotten not so much from wild individuals as from flies raised in the laboratory (the size measurements given in the above description were taken from "average" laboratory individuals). The difference in size may be partly due to the fact that the new species has not bred as vigorously in the laboratory as has *D. melanica* and has usually had the advantage of relatively uncrowded culture bottles.

D. melanura has also seemed to have a lighter body color than *D. melanica.* This difference is especially noticeable on the dorsal surface of the thorax, which may be described as medium brown in the new form, dark brown or very dark brown in *D. melanica.* Accompanying this difference is a greater prominence of the mesonotal stripes in *melanura* than in *D. melanica.* It is the impression of the author that the *D. melanica* subspecies tend to differ from each other in that *melanica* is somewhat darker than *paramelanica.* The thorax color difference between *melanura* and *D. melanica melanica* has been quite striking. Since a body color difference was not appreciated at the time the collections of *melanura* and *D. melanica* (probably *paramelanica*) were being made, the separation of wild females on the basis of color was not attempted. It remains to be seen how reliable a criterion this is for the identification of wild individuals in general.

The abdominal banding pattern of *D. melanura* males was found to be different from that of the *D. melanica* males examined. Whereas in *melanura* males the band on the 6th segment (as well as the others) was always found to be complete laterally, this was never seen to be the case in *D. melanica* males. In a *D. melanica* strain (*paramelanica*) from South Amherst, Massachusetts, the males' abdominal bands were all found to become indistinct near the lateral margins of the tergites. In a *D. melanica* strain (*melanica*) from Walnut Creek, Texas, while the bands on the 2nd through 5th abdominal segments generally extended all the way to the edges to the tergites, the band on the 6th segment was interrupted laterally.

Mention has already been made of the darkly pigmented genital region of males of the new species. This seems to be the best character whereby it may be recognized as different from *D. melanica.* In *D. melanura* males the genital arch, anal plates, and claspers become dark brown a few days after emergence. The plates of the penis apparatus also become dark. The result is that the genital region stands out conspicuously against the light ventral abdominal wall. In *D. melanica* the male genital region seems relatively inconspicuous.

In *D. melanura* and in *D. melanica* the penis apparatus apparently consists of two rather broad lateral plates as well as the structure probably homologous to the chitinous rod called the penis by some authors (for example, Nonidez, 1920, in *D. melanogaster*). The appearance of the lateral plates was found to differ between *melanura* and *D. melanica*. In *melanura* they were deeply incised at the anterior edge (Figure 1, C), whereas

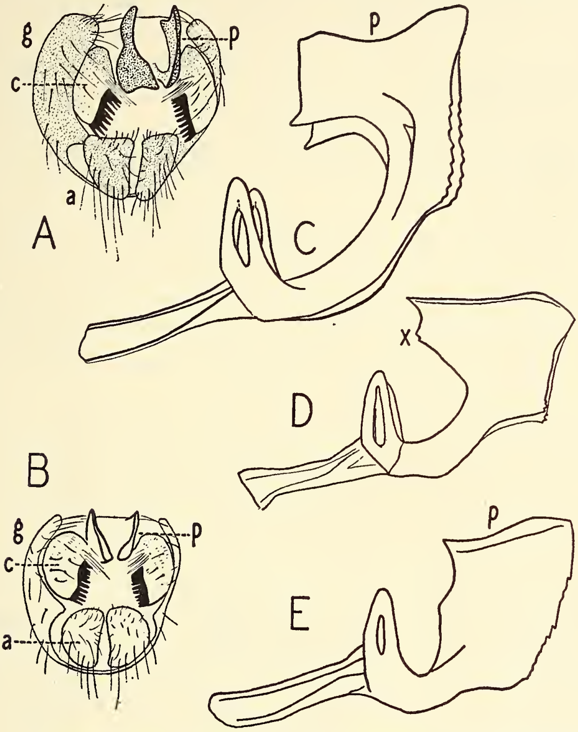

Fig. 1. A. Male genital region of *D. melanura.* B. Male genital region of *D. melanica paramelanica* (South Amherst, Mass.). The labels indicate: the anal plates (a), claspers (c), genital arch (g), and penis apparatus (p). These drawings were made from dead specimens, and the penis apparatus is shown farther forward than its usual position in living, etherized individuals. C. Penis apparatus of *D. melanura.* D. Penis apparatus of *D. melanica melanica* (Walnut Creek, Texas). E. Penis apparatus of *D. melanica paramelanica* (South Amherst). C, D, and E are side view drawings made on a somewhat larger scale than A and B. The edges labelled with a ''p'' in C and E correspond to the edges so labelled in A and B respectively. The point labelled with an ''x'' in D was found to vary somewhat in prominence.

in *D. melanica* they were not so much or scarcely at all so incised (Fig. 1, D & E). The structure of the plates in *D. melanica melanica* strains examined (Walnut Creek, Texas; Coffeeville, Kansas; Taneycomo, Missouri) seemed intermediate (Fig. 1, D) between that of *D. melanura* (Fig. 1, C) and that of *D. melanica paramelanica* strains (Madison, Wisconsin; South Amherst, Massachusetts) (Fig. 1, E). In *D. melanura* the impression was gotten that the penis apparatus is somewhat larger and more conspicuous relative to its surroundings than in *D. melanica* (Fig. 1, A & B).

The anterior spiracle horns of the puparium were found to be relatively shorter in *D. melanura* than in *D. melanica.* The horn index (length of puparium/length of horn) was determined to be about 12 in melanura, whereas *melanica* estimates were 9 for the South Amherst strain (*paramelanica*) and 7 for the one from Walnut Creek (*melanica*).

The chromosomes of *D. melanura* were investigated by means of acetic orcein smear preparations of larval ganglia and of ovaries and testes taken from pupæ and adults (using the 70 per cent acetic acid stain of LaCour, 1941). Examples of chromosome groups are given in Figure 2, A, B, and C. It may be seen that the smallest chromosome is not dot-shaped, as was reported in *D. melanica* by Metz (1916), but, rather, a small V. An investigation of *D. melanica* chromosomes, both *paramelanica* (South Amherst and Madison) and *melanica* (Walnut Creek), has confirmed Metz' report of dot-like chromosomes in this species (Figure 2, D, E, and F). Of interest here is the statement of Griffen (1942) that the *melanica* group species *D. nigromelanica* Patterson and Wheeler (1942) has rod-shaped microchromosomes rather than dots. The salivary gland chromosomes of *D. melanura* have not been studied.

As may be seen from the first paragraph of this paper *D. melanura* males were gotten in the summer, 1941, collections at Rochester in a much smaller number than were *D. melanica* males. Moreover, *D. melanura* was only collected past the middle of summer, late in August, while *D. melanica* occurred in the traps by early June. An ecological difference between the two species is suggested. *D. nigromelanica* was collected also and had an occurrence in the traps similar to that of *D. melanura;* from July 26 to August 25 there were gotten 26 individuals of this species, 11 of which were males. A record of the collections of these *melanica* group species is given in Table 1.

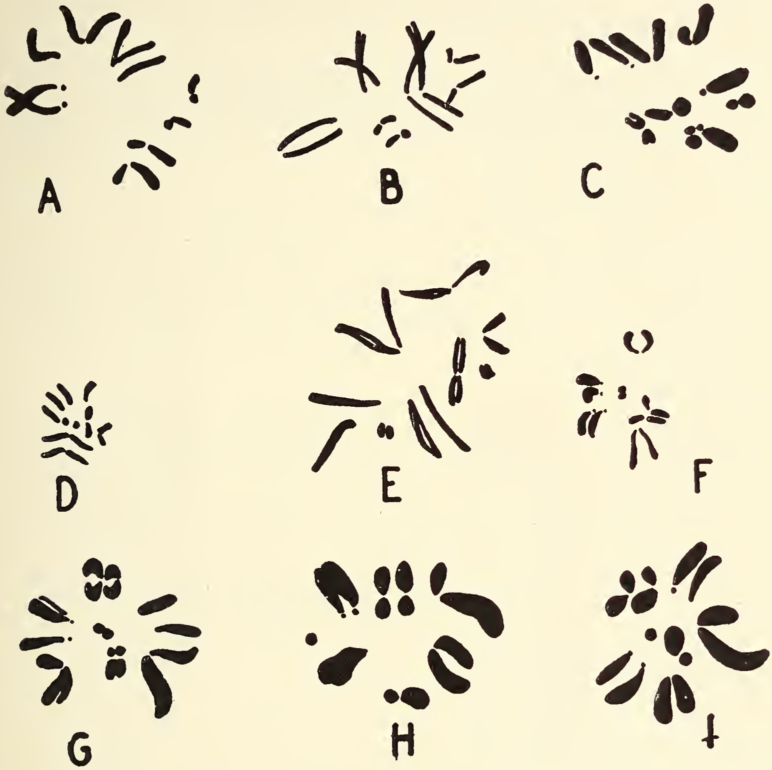

FIG. 2. A and B. *D. melanura* ovary metaphase figures. C. *D. melanura* testis metaphase. D and E. *D. melanica paramelanica* (South Amherst) ovary metaphases. In E some of the chromosomes, including the dot-like ones, are obviously split. F. *D. melanica melanica* (Walnut Creek) testis metaphase. The dots are close together. G, H, and I. Metaphase figures found in the testes of hybrids derived from *melanica* (Walnut Creek) females mated to *melanura* males.

D. melanura has been kept with some difficulty on the Drosophila culture media in use at this laboratory. The impression has been gotten that *D. melanica* has not been so difficult to maintain. In December, 1941, our corn meal-molasses-agar medium was changed in that agar was omitted from it and rolled oats were added (formula of Dr. R. H. MacKnight). The result has been a somewhat softer, wetter medium. From soon after the change was made until about the middle of May, 1942, the *D. melanura* strain refused to breed at all. Following this period there has been a gradual recovery of ease of culture.

Table 1. Week-by-week record of *melanica* group species collections at Rochester, New York, during the summer of 1941. The number of *D. melanura* females gotten is not recorded; these were most probably all classified as *D. melanica* females. Since the circumstances of collection (number of traps, number of collections, etc.) varied from week to week, the variation in absolute numbers should not be taken to reflect very well the changing state of the wild population.

		Collections for the week beginning:				
		June 1	June 8	June 15	June 22	June 29
melanica	♂♂	...	...	5	18	40
	♀♀	2	3	3	26	41
nigromelanica						
melanura						
		July 6	July 13	July 20	July 27	Aug. 3
melanica	♂♂	171	47	74	134	115
	♀♀	111	19	38	125	93
nigromelanica	♂	....	......	......	....	1
	♀♀	....	......	1	1	6
melanura						
		Aug. 10	Aug. 17	Aug. 24	Total	Total
melanica	♂♂	46	57	18	725	
	♀♀	26	35	16	538	1263
nigromelanica	♂♂	7	3	......	11	
	♀♀	5	......	2	15	26
melanura	♂♂	......	7	3	10	10

Hybrids with *D. melanica*

A few attempts were made to cross *D. melanica* females with *D. melanura* males, several individuals of a kind being used in each mating. Progeny have been gotten both from crosses of *melanica* (Walnut Creek) females by *melanura* males and from *paramelanica* (Madison) females by *melanura* males (Table 2).

A few matings were also made between *D. nigromelanica* females and *melanura* males, using a Harden County, Texas, strain furnished by Prof. J. T. Patterson, but no progeny were gotten (Table 2).

In general the interspecific cross progeny have been not very different from the maternal species. The penis apparatus of the

Table 2. Interspecific crosses involving *D. melanura*. The flies were put into fresh culture bottles on the dates listed under each mating. The numbers of progeny are placed opposite the dates appropriate to the bottles in which they occurred.

Cross	Progeny		
	♀♀	♂♂	Totals
D. melanica melanica ♀♀ × *D. melanura* ♂♂			
Walnut Creek ♀♀ × Rochester ♂♂ (7 of each)			
8– 7–42			
8–10–42			
8–15–42			
Walnut Creek ♀♀ × Rochester ♂♂ (22 of each)			
8– 8–42			
8–11–42	15	18	
8–15–42	7	7	
	22	25	47
Walnut Creek ♀♀ × Rochester ♂♂ (15 of each)			
8–10–42			
8–15–42	20	15	
8–19–42	40	35	
8–24–42	7	6	
8–31–42	46	31	
9– 8–42	24	24	
	137	111	248
D. melanica paramelanica ♀♀ × *D. melanura* ♂♂			
Madison ♀♀ × Rochester ♂♂ (5 of each)			
8– 8–42			
8–11–42			
8–15–42			
Madison ♀♀ × Rochester ♂♂ (7 of each)			
8–10–42			
8–15–42			
8–19–42			

TABLE 2—(*Continued*)

Cross	Progeny		
	♀♀	♂♂	Totals
D. melanica paramelanica ♀♀ × *D. melanura* ♂♂ (cont.)			
Madison ♀♀ × Rochester ♂♂ (15 of each)			
8– 7–42			
8–10–42			
8–15–42	6	6	
8–24–42	18	16	
8–31–42	5	4	
9– 8–42	...	1	
	29	27	56
D. nigromelanica ♀♀ × *D. melanura* ♂♂			
Harden Co. ♀♀ × Rochester ♂♂ (8 of each)			
9– 8–42			
9–12–42			
Harden Co. ♀♀ × Rochester ♂♂ (4 of each)			
9–1–42			
9–4–42			
9–8–42			
Harden Co. ♀♀ × Rochester ♂♂ (13 of each)			
9– 4–42			
9– 8–42			
9–10–42			

hybrid males, for example, has been rather similar to that of males of the form to which the mother belonged. Both sexes have seemed quite viable, and the sex ratio has been about 1 to 1 (Table 2).

Metaphase plates found in the testes of hybrid males derived from both the kinds of crosses mentioned above contained one dot-like chromosome and one small V (Fig. 2, G, H, and I). This evidence may be offered as one form of proof of the hybrid nature of these offspring. The salivary gland chromosomes of several larvæ were looked at, and although a very careful study of these chromosomes was not made, it did seem likely that they were heterozygous for a number of chromosomal rearrangements, probably inversions.

TABLE 3. Backcrosses of hybrid females to *D. melanura* and to *D. melanica.*

Cross	Progeny		
	♀♀	♂♂	Totals
(*melanica* ♀♀ × *melanura*) ♀♀ × *D. melanura* ♂♂			
(W. C. ♀♀ × Roch.) ♀♀ × Rochester ♂♂ (13 of each)			
8–31–42			
9– 3–42			
9– 8–42			
(W. C. ♀♀ × Roch.) ♀♀ × Rochester ♂♂ (7 of each)			
9–1–42			
9–4–42			
9–8–42			
(*paramelanica* ♀♀ × *melanura*) ♀♀ × *D. melanura* ♂♂			
(Mad. ♀♀ × Roch.) ♀♀ × Rochester ♂♂ (2 of each)			
9– 4–42			
9– 8–42			
9–10–42			
(*melanica* ♀♀ × *melanura*) ♀♀ × *D. melanica melanica* ♂♂			
(W. C. ♀♀ × Roch.) ♀♀ × Walnut Creek ♂♂ (17 of each)			
9– 4–42			
9– 8–42			
9–10–42	45	30	
9–18–42	26	15	
9–25–42	31	20	
	102	65	167
(*paramelanica* ♀♀ × *melanura*) ♀♀ × *paramelanica* ♂♂			
(Mad. ♀♀ × Roch.) ♀♀ × Madison ♂♂ (9 of each)			
9–30–42			
10– 3–42			
10– 8–42			

No offspring have been gotten from hybrid males and females kept together. It seems likely that the males are sterile. Although hybrid testes were found to contain many sperms, no motility of these sperms in Ringers' solution was seen. Moreover, acetic orcein smears have shown these testes to contain a number of rather large, spindle-shaped, dully-staining bodies, but no regular sperm heads. It is probable that these elongate structures are the product of an abnormal spermiogenesis.

Attempts have been made to backcross hybrid females both to *D. melanura* and to *D. melanica* males, and offspring were gotten in the case of a group mating of hybrid females (Walnut Creek ♀♀ × Rochester ♂♂) to Walnut Creek males (*melanica*) (Table 3). A rather obvious excess of females over males may be seen in these progeny. Since no mutants were involved in the crosses that gave rise to them, little could be concluded about the genetic constitution of the back-cross individuals. Some of the males were dissected 10 or 11 days after emergence and their testes examined. Out of 20 such males 2 had testes containing small, pyknotic bodies of various shapes, but no normal sperm heads, while the others had normal appearing sperms. Several recently hatched males were dissected and their testes examined for chromosome groups. In one of the testes there were found rather clear figures showing the presence of a dot and small V together, and in this testis there were a number of quite normal appearing sperm heads.

SUMMARY

Drosophila melanura, a new species similar to *D. melanica* Sturt., is described here. Notes on comparison of the two forms are presented. These species differ cytologically in the appearance of the smallest chromosome in the metaphase plate, *D. melanura* having a small V where *D. melanica* has a dot. Hybrids have been obtained from crosses between *D. melanura* females and *D. melanica* males, and the female hybrids have proved to be fertile.

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NOTES ON MEXICAN BUTTERFLIES, II, PIERIDÆ

By F. Martin Brown

The collections made by Hoogstraal's parties and by Potts contained 33 of the 71 species of Pieridæ reported by Hoffmann. Those lacking are primarily the truly tropical species that enter Chiapas and the southern lowlands and some of the western Nearctic things that are found in Sonora and Baja California. I have added the data from a small collection made by H. D. Thomas in 1936.

Several localities not mentioned in the first paper on the Papilionidæ (*q.v.*)* are noted here:

Geographic Data

Acahuato, Michoacan, 19° 20′ N., 102° 20′ W., 3000 ft.

"On the edge of the plateau above Apatzingan. Open semi-desert with scattered trees below the town and open pine forest above it. Transitional between the tropics and temperate area." *Hoogstraal.*

Cumbres, Vera Cruz, 6000 ft., km. 295 on road to Vera Cruz from Mexico City.

"North and west of Orizaba, very definitely up and out of the tropical zone and rain belt, into a dry upland type of country even though still the bottom of the valley. A lot of straggling thorn bush, tremendous organ cactus, a lot of *Opuntia.* Short grass and rock slopes. Temp. at about 75 or less." *Potts.*

El Mante, San Luis Potosi.

"A strange conglomeration in this region of swampy country with tall palms and very tall thorn bush jungle next to bananas, corn fields and maguey. Cactus growing in mud! Temp. probably 95° F." *Potts.*

Hda. Potrero Viejo, nr. Paraje Nuevo, Vera Cruz.

"Cultivated country for centuries, yet plenty of original vegetation nearby. I collected only in a small meadow near the

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hacienda itself.'' *Potts.* Between Fortin and Orizaba on the Mexico City-Vera Cruz highway.

Hda. Santa Engracia, Tamaulipas.

I have no data on this station. *F.M.B.*

Monte Alban, Oaxaca, 16° 50′ N., 96° 20′ W., 6000 ft.

''Hills back of Oaxaca, the only moist country nearby!'' *Potts.*

Ojo de Agua, Sabinas Hidalgo, Nuevo Leon, 26° 40′ N., 100° 15′ W., 1000–1600 ft.

''Collections were made up to 1600 ft., low shrubs and cactus.'' *Hoogstraal.*

Orizaba, Vera Cruz, 18° 45′ N., 96° 50′ W., 2200 ft.

''About a kilometer SE. of the town. Just the top end of the tropics or at least the jungle tropics, along the valley slope. Impenetrable underbrush, lush, rains some 9 or 10 months of the year here.'' *Potts.*

Sta. Lucrecia.

A Thomas station which must be on the west coast, probably in Michoacan, from the material so labeled. *F.M.B.*

Rio Balsas, Guerrero, 18° ± S., 98°–102° W.

The great river basin of southern Mexico. ''The river itself is pretty dry. Collected up a side canyon to the south. Temp. 105–110, muggy. Thorn bush and rocks.'' *Potts.* The collection was made near Mexcala (18° 0′ S., 99° 30′ W., 2400 ft.).

Tuxpango, Vera Cruz, ? 1500 ft.

''Top of a big wide barranca SE. of Orizaba. County similar to 'Orizaba.' '' *Potts.*

Dismorphiinæ

I am surprised that these two collectors, Hoogstraal and Potts, were so unsuccessful in finding members of this sub-family. At least nine species are known from the areas they visited. Only Hoogstraal collected any and his material represents one species.

61. **Enantia jethys** Boisduval.

G. & S. (1), **2**: p. 182–183, 727, pl. 61, f. 56; pl. 74, f. 27, 28 (as *albania*).
R. (2), p. 100.
H. (3), p. 654–5.
Tancitaro, Michoacan, 6600 ft. 3 ♂♂ 2 ♀♀ vii.20–viii.14.40 (H.H.).

Hoffmann, p. 654–5, recognizes three species, *citronella* Felder (1861), *jethys* Bdv. (1836) and *mita* Reak (1866). I feel that these represent but one variable species. I have a long series of specimens from various tropical stations and among them are all intergrades from *jethys* to *citronella* to *mita*. Whether these are in turn only varieties of *melite* Linnæus or not I am not sure. The most heavily marked specimen should be referred to f. *jethys* Bdv., those without the dark bar along the inner margin of the forewing to f. *citronella* Felder, and those with further restriction of the dark apical markings to f. *mita*.

The specimens noted above are of f. *citronella*. I suspect that the degree to which the dark markings are developed is related to the season or moisture, the darkly marked individual being "wet season" the lightly marked, "dry season."

63. **Enantia marion,** Godman & Salvin.

G. & S., **2**: 184.
R., p. 100.
H., p. 655.
El Sabino, Uruapan, Michoacan, 1 ♂ vii.15–30.36 (H.D.T.).

Pierinæ

(Euchloini)

72. **Hesperocharis costaricensis** Bates.

G. & S., **2**: 126, pl. 60, f. 3, 4.
R., p. 79, pl. 23f.
H., p. 656.
Rio Blanco, Vera Cruz, 2200 ft., 1 ♂ v.10.41 (R.P.).
El Sabino, Uruapan, Michoacan, 1 ♀ vii.15–30.36 (H.D.T.).

Apparently this is the first record of the species from the east coast of Mexico. Hoffmann, p. 656, reports the species from the west coast of Guerrero, Michoacan, Jalisco and Colima.

(Rhodocerini)

74. **Colias eurytheme** Boisduval.
G. & S., **2**: 151 (as *chrysotheme*).
R., p. 93, pl. 27f.
H., p. 656.
Hda. Vista Hermosa, Villa Santiago, Nuevo Leon, 1500 ft., 2 ♀♀ vi.17.40 (H.H.).
Galeana, Nuevo Leon, 6500 ft., 1 ♂ vii.30.39 (H.H.).
Tancitaro, Michoacan, 6600 ft., 1 ♂ viii.11.40 (H.H.).

These few specimens do not indicate the abundance of the species in Mexico. It is probable that the species was ignored in most localities. The Nuevo Leon material is f. *amphidusa* Bdv., the other is typical of f. *eurytheme*.

77. **Zerene cæsonia** Stoll.
G. & S., **2**: 153, 727 (as *cesonia*).
R., p. 94, pl. 26f.
H., p. 656.
Hda. Vista Hermosa, Villa Santiago, Nuevo Leon, 1500 ft., 4 ♂♂ 1 ♀ vi.16–18.40 (H.H.).
Arroyo del Meco, Tamaulipas, 1320 ft., 1 ♂ iv.28.41 (R.P.).
Jacala, Hidalgo, 4500 ft., 7 ♂♂ 1 ♀ vi.25–vii.1.39 (H.H.).
El Bañito, Valles, San Luis Potosi, 200 ft., 1 ♂ vi. 28.40 (H.H.).
Tancitaro, Michoacan, 6600 ft., 1 ♀ vii.30.40 (H.H.).
Apatzingan, Michoacan, 1050 ft., 1 ♂ vii.5.40 (H.H.).
Rio Balsas, Guerrero, 2400 ft., 1 ♀ v.26.41 (R.P.).
Chilpancingo, Guerrero, 1 ♀ v.26.41 (R.P.).

The specimens are all in a condition indicating recent emergence.

78. **Anteos clorinde** Godart.
G. & S., **2**: 148, 726.
R., p. 89, pl. 24g.

H., p. 656.
Victoria, Tamaulipas, 1 ♂ vi.25.35 (H. A. Freeman).
El Pujal, San Luis Potosi, 100 ft., 16 ♂♂ vii.17.39 (H.H.).
Arroyo del Calabezas, San Luis Potosi, 250 ft., 2 ♂♂ iv.30.41 (R.P.).
Hda. Potrero Viejo, nr. Parare Nuevo, Vera Cruz., 1500 ft., 1 ♂ v.5.41 (R.P.).
Rio Blanco, Vera Cruz, 2200 ft., 1 ♂ v.10.41 (R.P.).
Jacala, Hidalgo, 4500 ft., 3 ♂♂ vi.24–vii.7.39 (H.H.).
Apatzingan, Michoacan, 1 ♀ viii.2.40 (H.H.).

The Apatzingan ♀ is badly rubbed, but appears to lack the usual large yellow area on the forewing.

79. **Anteos mærula** Fabricius.
G. & S., **2**: 149, 726.
R., p. 89, pl. 24g.
H., p. 656.
Hda. Vista Hermosa, Villa Santiago, Nuevo Leon, 1500 ft., 2 ♂♂ vi.17–18.40 (H.H.).
Victoria, Tamaulipas, 1 ♂ vi.25.35 (H. A. Freeman).
60 mi. S. of Victoria, Tamaulipas, 1 ♂ vii.6.36 (H.D.T.).
El Bañito, Valles, San Luis Potosi, 200 ft., 4 ♂♂ 2 ♀♀ vi.26.40 (H.H.).
El Pujal, San Luis Potosi, 100 ft., 12 ♂♂ vii.17.39 (H.H.).
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 150 ft., 1 ♂ 1 ♀ v.29.41 (R.P.).
Jacala, Hidalgo, 4500 ft., 3 ♂♂ vii.1–10.39 (H.H.).
Chichen Itza, Yucatan, 1 ♂ iv.7.36 (F.M.B.).

The females from El Bañito are f. *gueneeana* Bdv., the one from El Sol is the nymotypical form.

80. **Phoebis sennæ** Linnæus.
G. & S., **2**: 141 (as *eubule*).
R., p. 85.
H., p. 657.
Hda. Vista Hermosa, Villa Santiago, Nuevo Leon, 1500 ft., 3 ♂♂ 1 ♀ vi.16–21.40 (H.H.).

Hda. Santa Engracia, Tamaulipas, 2 ♂♂ vii.27.39 (H.H.).
El Bañito, Valles, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 2 ♂♂ 1 ♀ vi.26–28.40 (H.H.).
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 1 ♂ 1 ♀ v.29.41 (R.P.).
Jacala, Hidalgo, 4500 ft., 3 ♂♂ vi.29.39 (H.H.).
Chichen Itza, Yucatan, 1 ♀ iv.8.36 (F.M.B.); 1 ♀ viii.30.36 (H.D.T.).
Sta. Lucrecia, 1 ♂ ix.24.39 (H.D.T.).
Apatzingan, Michoacan, 1200 ft., 2 ♂♂ 1 ♀ viii.3–5.40 (H.H.).
El Sabino, Uruapan, Michoacan, 1 ♂ 1 ♀ vii.15–30.36 (H.D.T.).
Tancitaro, Michoacan, 4500 ft. 1 ♂ viii.11.41 (H.H.).

The males from Nuevo Leon are fairly typical of race *eubule* L. the others tend toward *marcellina* Cr., but none of them is as strongly marked as the typical males from tropical South America. It is a pity that no one bothers to collect this common species in sufficient numbers to settle the question of what race the Mexican material represents. I would designate all of the above males *eubule* f. *drya* Fabricius. I fully realize that elsewhere (*Amer. Mus. Nov.* 368, p. 7, 1929) I stated that Mexican material was referable to *marcellina* Cr. I also noted (p. 8) that the tropical race might well represent two races. The more material that I see from Mexico the more I feel that these statements need revising, but I have not the material to do so. It is quite probable that in Mexico the two races so intergrade that we have a continuous cline from *eubule* to *marcellina*.

The El Banito female is f. *pallida* Cockerell, the El Sol, *yamana* Reakirt. The Hda. Vista Hermosa female is a good *marcellina* Cr. The Apatzingan female is badly rubbed but is probably f. *yamana*. *F.M.B.'s* from Chichen Itza is *pallida* while *H.D.T.'s* is *marcellina*.

81. **Phoebis philea** Linnæus.
G. & S., **2**: 140, 726.
R., p. 86, pl. 25c.
H., p. 657.

El Pujal, San Luis Potosi, 100 ft., 2 ♂♂ vii.17.39 (H.H.). (H.H.).
Apatzingan, Michoacan, 1200 ft., 1 ♂ viii.5.40 (H.H.).

83. **Phoebis agarithe maxima** Neumoegen.
G. & S., **2**: 145, 726 (as *agarithe*).
R., p. 86 (as *argante agaritha*).
H., p .657.
Hda. Vista Hermosa, Nuevo Leon, 1500 ft., 6 ♂♂ 3 ♀♀ vi.16–21.40 (H.H.).
Sabinas Hidalgo, Nuevo Leon, 960 ft., 2 ♂♂ 2 ♀♀ vi.15–18.39 (H.H.).
Arroyo del Meco, Tamaulipas, 1320 ft., 2 ♂♂ iv.28.41 (R.P.).
Hda. Santa Engracia, Tamaulipas, 2 ♂♂ vii.25.39 (H.H.).
Victoria, Tamaulipas, 1 ♀ vi.28.35 (H. A. Freeman).
60 mi. S. Victoria, Tamaulipas, 1 ♀ vii.6.36 (H.D.T.).
El Pujal, San Luis Potosi, 100 ft., 3 ♂♂ vii.20–21.39 (H.H.).
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 1 ♂ v.29.41 (R.P.).
Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 500 ft., 1 ♂ vi.30.40 (H.H.).
Arroyo del Calabezas, San Luis Potosi, 250 ft., 1 ♂ iv.30.41 (R.P.).
El Bañito, San Luis Potosi, 200 ft., 3 ♂♂ 1 ♀ { vii.22.39 (H.H.). vi.26.40 (H.H.).
El Mante, San Luis Potosi, 1 ♂ iv.29.41 (R.P.).
Orizaba, Vera Cruz, 2000 ft., 1 ♂ v.6.41 (R.P.).

These are all good *maxima* except the El Sol male which approaches *agarithe.* The northern specimens are absolutely typical, those from the south show some of the brownish markings on the underside. All the females are f. *albarithe* Brown.

83c. **Phoebis agarithe agarithe** Boisduval.
Progresso, Yucatan, 1 ♀ viii.27.36 (H.D.T.).
Chichen Itza, Yucatan, 1 ♀ viii.30.36 (H.D.T.).

These two females are much more like typical South American *agarithe* than *maxima* and I have so designated them. They are not *antillia* Brown, which might be expected on the peninsula. The Progresso specimen is the yellow form, the Chichen Itza one the white form. Hoffmann has not included this race in his check-list.

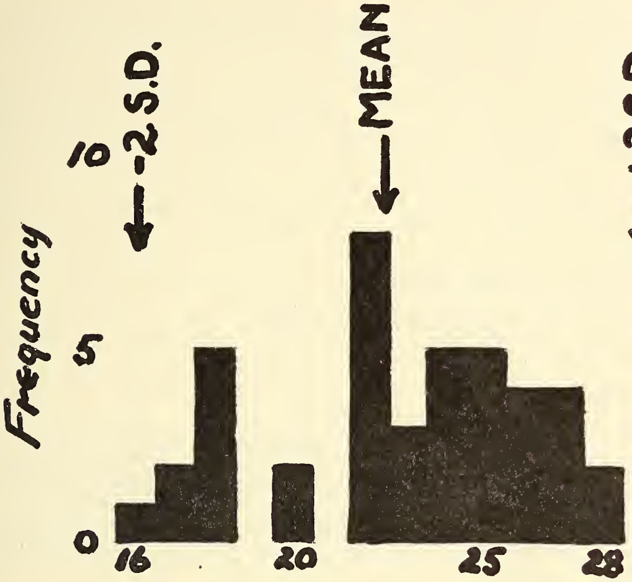
84. **Phoebis intermedia** Butler.
G. & S., **2**: 143, 726 (as *rurina*).
R., p. 86.
H., p. 657.
Tancitaro, Michoacan, 4500 ft., 1 ♂ vii.25.40 (H.H.).

86. **Aphrissa statira jada** Butler.
G. & S., **2**: 147 (as *statira*).
R., p. 87 (as *statira*).
H., p. 657.
El Bañito, Valles, San Luis Potosi, 200 ft., 1 ♀ vi.26.40 (H.H.).

This is a pale lemon yellow female like those of true *statira*.

87. **Kricogonia lyside** Godart.
G. & S., **2**: 150, 151, 726 (as *unicolor*).
R., p. 89.
H., p. 658.
Sabinas Hidalgo, Nuevo Leon, 900 ft., 9 ♂♂ 10 ♀♀ vi.15–18.39 (H.H.).
Ojo de Agua, Sabinas Hidalgo, N. L., 1000 ft., 2 ♂♂ vi.14.40 (H.H.).
Villa Santiago, Nuevo Leon, 1500 ft., 2 ♂♂ viii.8.39. (H.H.).
35 km. W. of Linares, Nuevo Leon, 1 ♀ viii.7.39. (H.H.).
Galeana, Nuevo Leon, 2 ♂♂ 2 ♀♀ vii.28–viii.4.39. (H.H.).
Hda. Sta. Engracia, Tamaulipas, 1 ♂ 1 ♀ vii.25–27.39 (H.H.).
El Bañito, Valles, San Luis Potosi, 1 ♀ vii.22.39 (H.H.).
nr. Apatzingan, Michoacan, 500 ft., 3 ♂♂ 3 ♀♀ viii.3.40 (H.H.).
Apatzingan, Michoacan, 1050 ft., 1 ♂ 2 ♀♀ viii.2–5.40 (H.H.).

El Sabino, Uruapan, Michoacan, 2 ♂♂ 1 ♀ vii.15–30.36 (H.D.T.).
Acahuato, Michoacan, 3000 ft., 1 ♀ viii.2.40 (H.H.).
Tancitaro, Michoacan, 6600 ft., 1 ♂ vii.20.40 (H.H.).



It is rather strange that Potts took no specimens of this common species. The above series contains examples of all of the named forms that occur in Mexico.

	typical	♂ *terrissa*	♀ *unicolor*	♀ *fantasia*
Nuevo Leon	21	5	4	1?
Tamaulipas	......	1	1	...
San Luis Potosi	1	...	...	...
Michoacan	7	3	1	4

The specimens noted as *fantasia* are not typical; they all lack the costal yellow streak and the ground color of the wings tends to be greenish rather than yellow. The size of the specimens varies greatly. This is best shown in the text figure, based upon the baso-apical radius of the forewings, and the following table of data.

	N.	Mean	S.D.	Critical limits	Range
Total series ...	45	21.37 ± 0.57 mm.	3.66 mm.	14.1 mm., 28.7 mm.	16–28 mm.
Sabinas Hidalgo	19	22.90 ± 0.34 mm.	3.27 mm.	16.5 mm., 29.4 mm.	16–28 mm.

88. **Eurema albula** Cramer.
G. & S., **2**: 166.
R., p. 84.
H. p. 658.
K. (4), p. 121.
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 11 ♂♂ iv.30, v.29.41 (R.P.).
Ojo de Agua, Vera Cruz, 1600 ft., 4 ♂♂ v.12.41 (R.P.).
El Sabino, Uruapan, Michoacan, 1 ♂ vii.15–30.36 (H.D.T.).

Two of the Ojo de Agua specimens are intermediate to *albula* and f. *tapeina* Bates.

89. **Eurema jucunda** Boisduval.
G. & S., **2**: 168, pl. 64, f. 9–12.
R., p. 83, pl. 24e.
H., p. 658.
K., p. 124.
nr. Acapulco, Guerrero, 100 ft., 1 ♀ v.26.41 (R.P.).
nr. Chilpancingo, Guerrero, 4 ♂♂ 3 ♀♀ v.26.41 (R.P.).
Rio Balsas, Guerrero, 2400 ft., 1 ♀ v.26.41 (R.P.).
El Sabino, Uruapan, Michoacan, 10 ♂♂ 9 ♀♀ vii.15–30.36 (H.D.T.).
Apatzingan, Michoacan, 3000 ft., 1 ♂ viii.2.40 (H.H.).
Tancitaro, Michoacan, 6600 ft., 1 ♂ 1 ♀ vii.25, viii.11.40 (H.H.).

All the males are of f. *sidonia* Felder. This is also true of the females except for two from Chilpancingo which tend toward the typical in respect to the margin of the hindwings. The general color of the females varies from white to pale yellow. One of the Chilpancingo specimens and the one from Rio Balsas have white forewings and yellow hindwings.

89a. **Eurema jucunda lydia** Felder.
G. & S., **2**: 170, pl. 63, f. 20–23.
R., p. 83 (as *delia lydia*).
H., p. 658.
K., p. 126 (as *palmyra lydia*).
Jacala, Hidalgo, 4500 ft., 3 ♂♂ 2 ♀♀ vi.25–vii.2.39 (H.H.).

El Pujal, San Luis Potosi, 100 ft., 5 ♂♂ 2 ♀♀ vii.17–21.39 (H.H.).
Tuxpango, Vera Cruz, 1500 ft., 1 ♂ 2 ♀♀ v.9.41 (R.P.).
Hda. Potrero Viejo, Vera Cruz, 1500 ft., 1 ♂ 1 ♀ v.5.41 (R.P.).
Orizaba, Vera Cruz, 2000 ft., 4 ♂♂ 1 ♀ v.6.41 (R.P.).
Rio Blanco, Vera Cruz, 2200 ft., 2 ♂♂ 1 ♀ v.10.41 (R.P.).

This series of "barred" *Euremas* from the east coast is quite variable. All have the pearly white under surfaces characteristic of *jucunda.* The females are fairly constant, having a reduced grey bar on the inner margin of the forewing and an incomplete black margin on the hindwing. One Jacala specimen is faintly flushed with yellow on the forewing and the Rio Blanco female bears this flush on the hindwing. The males are extremely varied but I hesitate to refer the specimen to anything other than *lydia.* The marginal band of black on the hindwings is broad and complete on two (Rio Blanco and Orizaba), narrower but complete on two (El Pujal) and interrupted on the rest. In no case is the margin reduced to an apical spot. The hindwings range from yellow (♂ Jacala) to white with many specimens just faintly tinged with yellow. Until a lot of life history work is done and enormous series taken over long periods of time for many localities we will not be able to unravel the puzzle of the "barred" *Euremas.*

91. **Eurema boisduvaliana** Felder.
G. &. S., **2**: 159, pl. 63, f. 1–4.
R., p. 81 (as *mexicana,* in part).
H., p. 658.
K., p. 133.
Galeana, Nuevo Leon, 6500 ft., 1 ♂ 10.29.41 (R.P.).
Jacala, Hidalgo, 4500 ft., 4 ♂♂ 1 ♀?, vi.29–vii.5.39 (H.H.).
El Pujal, San Luis Potosi, 100 ft., 11 ♂♂ vii.12–21.39 (H.H.).
Arroyo del Calabezas, San Luis Potosi, 1 ♂ iv.30.41 (R.P.).
El Bañito, Valles, San Luis Potosi, 1 ♂ 1 ♀ vi.26–27.40 (H.H.).

El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 2 ♂♂ v.29.41 (R.P.).
Fortin, Vera Cruz, 1600 ft., 2 ♂♂ v.4.41 (R.P.).
Orizaba, Vera Cruz, 2000 ft., 1 ♂ v.4.41 (R.P.).
Rio Blanco, Vera Cruz, 2200 ft., 8 ♂♂ v.10.41 (R.P.).
Chichen Itza, Yucatan, 1 ♂ viii.30.36 (H.D.T.).
El Sabino, Uruapan, Michoacan, 1 ♀?, vii.15–30.36 (H.D.T.).
Apatzingan, Michoacan, 3200 ft., 1 ♀ viii.2.40 (H.H.).

The questioned female from Jacala is aberrant. The apical patch on the hindwings is reduced to a few scales along the nervule. The same is true of the El Sabino female.

92. **Eurema xanthochlora** Kollar.
G. & S., **2**: 161, 727, pl. 63, f. 5–8.
R., p. 81, pl. 24b.
H., p. 658.
K., p. 134.
El Bañito, Valles, San Luis Potosi, 200 ft., 1 ♀ vi.28.40 (H.H.).
Tuxpango, Vera Cruz, 1500 ft., 1 ♂ v.9.41 (R.P.).

93. **Eurema mexicana mexicana** Boisduval.
G. & S., **2**: 157.
R., p. 81, pl. 24a.
H., p. 659.
K., p. 134.
Hda. Vista Hermosa, Villa Santiago, Nuevo Leon, 1500–3000 ft., 6 ♂♂ 1 ♀ vi.17–21.40 (H.H.).
Villa Santiago, Nuevo Leon, 1500 ft., 1 ♂ viii.8.39 (H.H.).
Jacala, Hidalgo, 4500 ft., 37 ♂♂ 1 ♀ vi.23–vii.2.39 (H.H.).
El Pujal, San Luis Potosi, 100 ft., 1 ♂ vii.17.39 (H.H.).
El Sol, Tamazunchale, 400 ft., 8 ♂♂ v.28–29.41 (R.P.); 1 ♀ iv.31.41 (R.P.).
Tuxpango, Vera Cruz, 1500 ft., 1 ♀ v.8.41 (R.P.).
Rio Blanco, Vera Cruz, 2200 ft., 5 ♂♂ v.10.41 (R.P.).
Cumbres (km. 295), Vera Cruz, 6000 ft., 1 ♂ v.7.41 (R.P.).

El Sabino, Uruapan, Michoacan, 3 ♂♂ vii.15–30.36 (H.D.T.).
Tancitaro, Michoacan, 6600 ft., 1 ♂ viii.14.40 (H.H.).
Cerro Tancitaro, Michoacan, 7000 ft., 2 ♂♂ vii.20.40 (H.H.).

All these specimens are typical *mexicana.* Hoffmann includes in his listing of the species both ab. *recta* Klots and ab. *biedermanni* Ehrmann with question marks. I have a distinct feeling that these two "aberrations" describe the material from the northern reaches of the race such as the mountains of Colorado and should be raised to racial status. Ehrmann's name is available for this. There is some variation in size among the specimens before me. A male from Villa Santiago measures only 15 mm. along the baso-apical radius of the forewing while the largest specimen from El Sol measures 27 mm. The black margin of the hindwing is variable; on some specimens it is a small patch anterior to M_2 while in others it extends to Cu_2. On these latter it is broadest at the M_2–M_3 interspaces and has a basad spur in M_3–Cu_1.

94. **Eurema salome** Felder.
G. & S., **2**: 160 (as *fabiola*).
R., p. 81.
H., p. 659.
K., p. 136.
Jacala, Hidalgo, 4500 ft., 16 ♂♂ vi.23–vii.2.39 (H.H.).
Fortin, Vera Cruz, 1600 ft., 1 ♂ v.3.41 (R.P.).

These are all f. *limoneus* Felder. I disagree with Hoffmann and agree with Klots on the status of this name. I feel that the species is splitting into two races and that the northern material from Mexico is sufficiently different from Ecuadorian *salome* to require a name in this genus.

95. **Pyristia gundlachia** Poey.
G. & S., **2**: 156.
R., p. 81, pl. 21a.
H., p. 659.
K., p. 137.
Hda. Vista Hermosa, Villa Santiago, Nuevo Leon, 1500 ft., 2 ♀♀ vi.17–22.40 (H.H.).

96. **Pyristia proterpia** Fabricius.

G. & S., **2**: 155.
R., p. 81, pl. 24a.
H., p. 659.
K., p. 137.
nr. Villagran, Tamaulipas, 1160 ft., 1 ♂ iv.28.41 (R.P.).
C. Victoria, Tamaulipas, 1 ♂ vi.19.39 (H.H.).
Hda. Sta. Engracia, Tamaulipas, 1 ♂ vii.27.39 (H.H.).
El Pujal, San Luis Potosi, 100 ft., 3 ♂♂ 1 ♀ vii.17–20.39 (H.H.).
Rio Blanco, Vera Cruz, 2200 ft., 2 ♂♂ v.10.41 (R.P.).
Chichen Itza, Yucatan, 1 ♂ viii.30.36 (H.D.T.).
Acapulco, Guerrero, 100 ft., 1 ♂ v.26.41 (R.P.).
Apatzingan, Michoacan, 1050 ft., 5 ♂♂ viii.2–5.40 (H.H.).
El Sabino, Uruapan, Michoacan, 10 ♂♂ 4 ♀♀ vii.15–30.36 (H.D.T.).
Tancitaro, Michoacan, 7000 ft., 1 ♂ 1 ♀ vi.25–30.40 (H.H.).

On the northernmost specimen (Villagran) the black markings are greatly reduced. The Chichen Itza specimen approaches *watsoni* from the similar arid area in Ecuador!

97. **Pyristia dina westwoodi** Boisduval.

G. & S., **2**: 163 (as *dina*).
R., p. 82, pl. 24b.
H., p. 659.
K., p. 139.
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 7 ♂♂ 4 ♀♀ iv.30–31, v.28–29.41 (R.P.).
Arroyo del Calabezas, San Luis Potosi, 250 ft., 1 ♂ iv.30.41 (R.P.).
Chichen Itza, Yucatan, 1 ♂ viii.30.36 (H.D.T.); 1 ♀ iv.7.36 (F.M.B.).
N. of Iguala, Guerrero, 1 ♂ v.22.41 (R.P.).

All the females are much lighter than the males and in many respects, other than size, compare favorably with f. ♀ *citrina* Poey from the West Indies. The West Coast male is the exact counterpart of race *parvumbra* Kaye from Jamaica!

98. **Pyristia lisa euterpe** Ménètries.
G. & S., **2**: 162.
R., p. 83.
H., p. 659.
K., p. 138.
Sabinas Hidalgo, Nuevo Leon, 960 ft., 1 ♂ vi.15.39 (H.H.).
nr. Villagran, Tamaulipas, 1150 ft., 3 ♂♂ iv.28.41 (R.P.).
60 mi. So. of Victoria, Tamaulipas, 2 ♂♂ vii.6.36 (H.D.T.).
Jacala, Hidalgo, 4500 ft., 1 ♂ vii.6.39 (H.H.).
El Pujal, San Luis Potosi, 100 ft., 1 ♀ vi.20.39 (H.H.).
Rio Blanco, Vera Cruz, 2200 ft., 1 ♂ v.10.41 (R.P.).

The female is f. *centralia* Herrick-Schaffer (*alba* Strecker).

99. **Pyristia nise perimede** Prittwitz.
G. & S., **2**: 165, 727 (as *tenella*).
R., p. 83, pl. 24d (as *nise*).
H., p. 659.
K., p. 140.
Sabinas Hidalgo, Nuevo Leon, 960 ft., 1 ♂ vi.31.39 (H.H.).
nr. Villagran, Tamaulipas, 1160 ft., 2 ♂♂ iv.28.41 (R.P.).
C. Victoria, Tamaulipas, 1 ♀ vi.19.39 (H.H.).
60 mi. So. of Victoria, Tamaulipas, 1 ♂ vii.6.36 (H.D.T.).
Hda. Sta. Engracia, Tamaulipas, 1 ♂ vii.25.39 (H.H.).
Jacala, Hidalgo, 4500 ft., 5 ♂♂ 2 ♀♀ vi.23–vii.2.39 (H.H.).
El Pujal, San Luis Potosi, 100 ft., 3 ♀♀ vii.18–21.39 (H.H.).
Arroyo del Calabezas, San Luis Potosi, 250 ft., 1 ♂ iv.30.41 (R.P.). z
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 1 ♂ 1 ♀ v.28–29.41 (R.P.).
El Bañito, Valles, San Luis Potosi, 150 ft., 5 ♂♂ 2 ♀♀ vi.26.40, vii.22.39 (H.H.); iv.30.41 (R.P.).
Hda. Potrero Viejo, Paraje Nuevo, Vera Cruz, 1500 ft., 3 ♂♂ v.5.41 (R.P.).

Orizaba, Vera Cruz, 2000 ft., 2 ♂♂ v.6.41 (R.P.).
Rio Blanco, Vera Cruz, 2200 ft., 8 ♂♂ v.10.41 (R.P.).
Ojo de Agua, Vera Cruz, 1600 ft., 1 ♀ v.12.41 (R.P.).
Acapulco, Guerrero, 100 ft., 1 ♂ v.23–25.41 (R.P.).
Sta. Lucrecia, 1 ♂ ix.24.39 (H.D.T.).
Apatzingan, Michoacan, 500 ft., 1 ♂ viii.3.40 (H.H.).
El Sabino, Uruapan, Michoacan, 5 ♂♂ 2 ♀♀ vii.15–30.36 (H.D.T.).

There is a great deal of variation in this series, none of it related to geographic distribution. The ground color varies from pale to deep lemon. The dark margin on the hindwings varies from complete to absent; on over half of the specimens it is represented by only a row of black dots on the nervules. There is some variation in the extent of the black marking on the forewing. On some the underside is boldly marked; on others it is almost immaculate.

100. **Abæis nicippe** Cramer.
G. & S., **2**: 155, 727.
R., p. 81, pl. 24a.
K., p. 132.
H., p. 659.
Sabinas Hidalgo, Nuevo Leon, 960 ft., 5 ♂♂ vi.15–16.39 (H.H.).
Ojo de Agua, Sabinas Hidalgo, Nuevo Leon, 1300 ft., 1 ♂ vi.14.40 (H.H.).
Hda. Vista Hermosa, Villa Santiago, Nuevo Leon, 1500 ft., 1 ♂ 2 ♀♀ vi.16–21.40 (H.H.).
Galeana, Nuevo Leon, 6500 ft., 2 ♂♂ vii.30–viii.3.39 (H.H.).
Jacala, Hidalgo, 4500 ft., 11 ♂♂ vi.23–vii.2.39 (H.H.).
El Pujal, San Luis Potosi, 100 ft., 1 ♂ n.d. (H.H.).
Hda. Potrero Viejo, nr. Paraje Nuevo, Vera Cruz, 1500 ft., 1 ♂ vi.5.41 (R.P.).
Monte Alban, Oaxaca, 6000 ft., 1 ♂ v.18.41 (R.P.).

The Monte Alban specimen is notable for the reduction of the dark apical markings on it.

101. **Nathalis iole** Boisduval.
G. & S., **2**: 172, pl. 64, ff. 15–18.

R., p. 95, pl. 27h (as *jole*).
H., p. 659.
bet. Adjuntas & Sabinas Hidalgo, Nuevo Leon, 3000 ft., 1 ♂ vi.21.40 (H.H.).
Sabinas Hidalgo, Nuevo Leon, 1500 ft., 1 ♂ 1 ♀ vi.17.40 (H.H.).
Ojo de Agua, Sabinas Hidalgo, Nuevo Leon, 1000 ft., 1 ♂ vi.15.40 (H.H.).
Galeana, Nuevo Leon, 6500 ft., 1 ♂ vii.30.39 (H.H.).
nr. Villagran, Tamaulipas, 1160 ft., 1 ♂ iv.28.41 (R.P.).
C. Victoria, Tamaulipas, 1 ♀ vi.19.39 (H.H.).
60 mi. So. of Victoria, Tamaulipas, 1 ♀ vii.6.36 (H.D.T.).
Jacala, Hidalgo, 4500 ft., 10 ♂♂ 1 ♀ vi.23–vii.1.39. (H.H.).
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 1 ♂ v.29.41 (R.P.).
El Bañito, Valles, San Luis Potosi, 150 ft., 2 ♂♂ iv.30.41 (R.P.).
El Pujal, San Luis Potosi, 100 ft., 1 ♂ 1 ♀ vii.17.39 (H.H.).
Tuxpango, Vera Cruz, 1500 ft., 2 ♂♂ v.9.41 (R.P.).
Orizaba, Vera Cruz, 2000 ft., 1 ♂ 1 ♀ v.6.41 (R.P.).
Cumbres (km. 295), Vera Cruz, 8000 ft., 3 ♂♂ v.7.41 (R.P.).
Monte Alban, Oaxaca, 6000 ft., 1 ♀ v.18.41 (R.P.).

The females from all localities other than Jacala and Monte Alban are f. *irene* Fitch. One of the Jalaca males has the fore-wing bar reduced to a submarginal spot.

(Pierini)

103. **Neophasia terlootii** Behr.
R., p. 55, pl. 18a.
H., p. 660.
Cerro Tancitaro, Michoacan, 5500 ft., 1 ♂ viii.17.40 (H.H.).

This capture of Hoogstraal's extends the range of this species over 300 miles southward. I suspect that it will be recovered still further south, possibly in Central America in the pine-oak forests of Guatemala and Honduras.

104. **Catasticta flisa** Herrick-Schaffer.
G. & S., **2**: 117.
R., p. 73, pl. 22e.
H., p. 660.
Jacala, Hidalgo, 4500 ft., 1 ♂ vi.29.39 (H.H.).

This extends the range of the species northward from Vera Cruz (see H., p. 660).

105. **Catasticta nimbice nimbice** Boisduval.
G. & S., **2**: 118.
R., p. 70, pl. 22b.
H., p. 660.
Jacala, Hidalgo, 4500 ft., 2 ♂♂ vi.24–28.39 (H.H.).
Tancitaro, Michoacan, 6600 ft., 1 ♀ vii.30.40 (H.H.).

The female is freshly emerged, the males are worn.

110. **Appius ilaire** Godart.
G. & S., **2**: 135 (as *margarita*).
R., p. 59, pl. 19c.
H., p. 661.
El Bañito, Valles, San Luis Potosi, 200 ft., 1 ♂ vi.28.40 (H.H.).

113. **Pieris protodice** Boisduval & Le Conte.
G. & S., **2**: 130, 724.
R., p. 59.
H., p. 661.
Sabinas Hidalgo, Nuevo Leon, 960 ft., 1 ♀ vi.15.39 (H.H.).
Hda. Vista Hermosa, nr. Villa Santiago, Nuevo Leon, 1600 ft., 1 ♂ 3 ♀♀ vi.16.40 (H.H.).
Galeana, Nuevo Leon, 6500 ft., 1 ♀ viii.1.39 (H.H.).
Monterrey, Nuevo Leon, 1600 ft., 1 ♀ iv.27.41 (R.P.).
nr. Villagran, Tamaulipas, 1160 ft., 1 ♂ 1 ♀ iv.28.41 (R.P.).
El Bañito, Valles, San Luis Potosi, 200 ft., 2 ♂♂ vi.28.40 (H.H.).

114. **Pieris rapæ** Linnæus.
R., p. 58, pl. 19b.
H., p. 661.
Galeana, Nuevo Leon, 6500 ft., 2 ♂♂ viii.4.39 (H.H.).

This species seems to have reached Mexico since the publication of the *Biologia* (since 1900?).

116. **Leptophobia aripa** Boisduval.
G. & S., **2**: 136, 726 (as *elodia*).
R., p. 60, pl. 19d.
H., p. 661.
nr. Villagran, Tamaulipas, 1160 ft., 1 ♀ iv.28.41 (R.P.).
Jacala, Hidalgo, 4500 ft., 2 ♂♂ vi.28.39 (H.H.).
Fortin, Vera Cruz, 1600 ft., 1 ♂ v.3.41 (R.P.).
Ojo de Agua, Vera Cruz, 1600 ft., 1 ♂ v.12.41 (R.P.).
Orizaba, Vera Cruz, 200 ft., 1 ♂ v.6.41 (R.P.).

117. **Itaballia demophile calydonia** Boisduval.
G. & S., **2**: 131.
R., p. 63.
H., p. 661.
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 1 ♂ v.29.41 (R.P.).

The subapical cross bar on the upper sides of the forewings is totally lacking, on the underside it is reduced to little more than a broad line. This specimen extends the range northward from southern Vera Cruz (see H., p. 661).

119. **Pieriballia viardi viardi** Boisduval.
G. & S., **2**: 133, 725, pl. 62, f. 1–4.
R., p. 62.
H., p. 661.
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 1 ♂ iv.31.41 (R.P.).
El Pujal, San Luis Potosi, 100 ft., 1 ♂ 1 ♀ vii.20–21.39 (H.H.).

121. **Ascia monuste cleomes** Boisduval.
G. & S., **2**: 132, 725 (as *monuste*).
R., p. 57.
H., p. 662.

Hda. Vista Hermosa, Villa Santiago, Nuevo Leon, 1600 ft., 1 ♀ vi.17.40 (H.H.).
Galeana, Nuevo Leon, 6500 ft., 1 ♀ iv.29.41 (R.P.).
nr. Villagran, Tamaulipas, 1160 ft., 1 ♀ iv.28.41 (R.P.).
Arroyo del Meco, Tamaulipas, 1 ♂ iv.28.41 (R.P.).
C. Victoria, Tamaulipas, 2 ♀♀ vi.27.35 (H. A. Freeman); 2 ♂♂ vi.19.39 (H.H.).
60 mi. So. of Victoria, Tamaulipas, 3 ♂♂ vii.6.36 (H.D.T.).
Jacala, Hidalgo, 5400 ft., 1 ♂ 1 ♀ vii.1.39 (H.H.).
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 2 ♂♂ v.29.41 (R.P.).
Arroyo del Calabezas, San Luis Potosi, 250 ft., 1 ♂ 10.30.41 (R.P.).
El Bañito, Valles, San Luis Potosi, 200 ft., 2 ♂♂ 2 ♀♀ vi.26.40, vii.19.39 (H.H.).
El Pujal, San Luis Potosi, 100 ft., 3 ♂♂ vii.17–19.39 (H.H.).
Tuxpango, Vera Cruz, 1500 ft., 1 ♂ v.9.41 (R.P.).
Hda. Potrero Viejo, Paraje Nuevo, Vera Cruz, 1500 ft., 1 ♀ v.5.41 (R.P.).
Rio Blanco, Vera Cruz, 2200 ft., 1 ♂ v.10.41 (R.P.).
Apatzingan, Michoacan, 1200 ft., 2 ♂♂ 1 ♀ viii.5.40 (H.H.).

The males are rather uniform throughout. The marginal dark spots on the hindwing are variable, being represented by either a few scales or a small triangular patch. This does not seem to be related to the origin of the specimens. One male from 60 miles South of Victoria is almost immaculate on both upper and lower surfaces. The females fall into two clearly defined groups. Those from Nuevo Leon, Tamaulipas and Michoacan have a pinkish iridescence on the upper surface and one (from Victoria) approaches *phileta* Fabricius. Those from San Luis Potosi, Hidalgo and Vera Cruz are a dull buff-yellow on the hindwings and the same with a slightly pinkish tone on the forewings.

123. **Melete isandra** Boisduval.
G. & S., **2**: 139, 726, pl. 61, ff. 13, 14.
R., p. 77, pl. 23b.

H., p. 662.

El Bañito, Valles, San Luis Potosi, 200 ft., 1 ♂ 1 ♀ vii.19.39 (H.H.).

El Pujal, San Luis Potosi, 100 ft., 3 ♂♂ vii.17–20.39 (H.H.).

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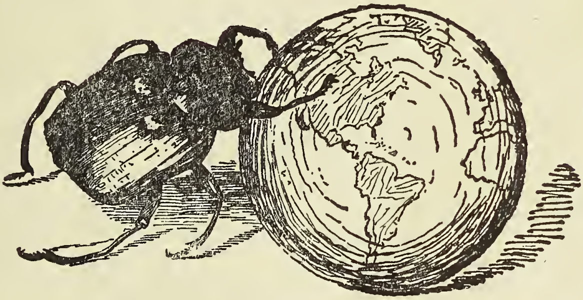

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A GENERIC REVIEW OF THE SUBFAMILY PHYLLOBÆNINÆ (OLIM HYDNOCERINÆ) (COL.)

BY A. B. WOLCOTT
DOWNERS GROVE, ILL.

It has become increasingly evident that the genera of this subfamily are in a very chaotic condition, and that they are neither clearly defined nor readily understood. This state of confused conditions has been produced by various causes, such as the inclusion within the group of extraneous elements, which should have been assigned elsewhere; the omission of certain genera; disregard of the rules of priority and nomenclature; the all too frequent totally inadequate diagnoses and the lack of an ample and accurate synonymy, all of which have been contributing factors tending to create the utmost disorder.

In the present paper the writer will endeavor to eliminate the alien elements, to tabulate the several genera which are components of this subfamily, to give where needful, or at all possible an amended diagnosis, to give an ample synonymy, to indicate the type of each genus and record their geographic range.

PHYLLOBÆNINÆ SUBFAMILY *nom. nov.*

Subfamily Characters

Cleridæ; maxillary palpi with terminal segment cylindrical, usually much shorter than that of the labial palpi, which are large, dilated and securiform. Head with the eyes included broader than the prothorax; antennæ short; eleven-segmented (with the exception of one or two genera), usually with a two-to five-segmented clava (rarely feebly developed). Thorax with the sides more or less dilated at, or before the middle. Elytra usually elongate, completely covering the abdomen, or more or less abbreviated, elytral sculpture variable. Terminal segments of abdomen, especially in the male, with sexual modifications. Legs long, slender, tarsi five-segmented, basal segment very small, atrophied or wanting, when present covered by the second segment, or elongate and distinct, not at all hidden from view from above.

The following key to the genera, studied in connection with the generic diagnosis which follow, will, it is believed, render possible a ready recognition of the several genera.

KEY TO THE GENERA

1. Antennæ ten-segmented, clava uni-segmented .... *Lasiocallimerus* Corp.
Antennæ eleven-segmented .... 2.
2. Antennal clava indistinct .... 18.
Antennal clava distinct; basal segment of hind tarsi small, atrophied or absent, usually covered by the second segment .... 3.
3. Clava two-segmented .... 4.
Clava three- to five-segmented .... 8.
4. Terminal segment of clava larger than the tenth .... *Parmius* Sharp.
Terminal segment of clava subequal in size to tenth, sometimes connate, causing the antennæ to appear ten-segmented .... *Neohydnus* Gorh.
Terminal segment of clava minute or very small .... 5.
5. Tarsal ungues with a broad basal tooth .... *Phyllobænus* Dej.
Tarsal ungues simple or at most only slightly thickened at base .... 6.
6. Prothorax much longer than broad; third segment of antennæ about twice as long as broad, cylindrical .... *Isohydnocera* Chpn.
Prothorax subequilateral .... 7.
7. Third segment of antennæ stout, only slightly longer than broad. *Emmepus* Motsch.
Third segment of antennæ as broad or broader than long, trapezoidal. *Wolcottia* Chpn.
8. Clava three-segmented; basal segment of hind tarsi short .... 9.
Clava three- to five-segmented; basal segment of hind tarsi long, not covered by the second segment .... 15.
9. Clava rather indistinct; prothorax one-half longer than broad. *Cephaloclerus* Kuw.
Clava distinct .... 10.
10. Body apterous; eyes coarsely granulate .... *Paupris* Sharp.
Body alate; eyes finely granulate .... 11.
11. Eyes flat or depressed .... *Abrosius* Fairm.
Eyes strongly convex .... 12.

12\. Eyes large, globular, entire .... *Isolemidia* Gorh.
Eyes smaller .... 13.
13\. Tarsi of hind legs nonlamellate .... *Metaxina* Broun.
Tarsi of hind legs with at least two segments lamellate .... 14.
14\. Clava lax, serrate .... *Eurycranium* Blanch.
Clava rather compact; eyes feebly emarginate .... *Lemidia* Spin.
15\. Very small (3 mm.), *Phyllobœnus*-like in form .... *Theano* Cast.
Much larger (5 mm. or more) .... 16.
16\. Form broad and compact; elytra never with scales; clava five-segmented .... sub. gen. *Brachycallimerus* Chpn.
Form elongate or oblong; adorned with white or yellow scales .... 17.
17\. Head, the eyes included, only slightly broader than the anterior part of the prothorax .... sub. gen. *Callimerus* Gorh.
Head, the eyes included, much broader than the anterior part of the prothorax; body depressed .... sub. gen. *Cucujocallimerus* Pic.
18\. Elytra depressed, much broader than the prothorax at base, elongate. *Evenus* Cast.
Elytra convex, elongate, only slightly broader than the prothorax at base .... *Allelidea* Waterh.

Genus PHYLLOBÆNUS Dejean

A hundred and twenty years ago Thomas Say (Jour. Acad. Phila., III, 1823, p. 192), described an insect to which he gave the name *Clerus humeralis,* a year later E. F. Germar (Ins. Spec. Nov., I, 1824, p. 80) described the same insect (which had evidently come into his possession bearing a label with the name given to the species by Say), as he adopted for his species the name of *Clerus humeralis,* thus creating a synonym of Say's species. Several years later Count Dejean (Cat. des Col. de la coll., edition 3, 1837, p. 127) included under *Phyllobœnus* Dejean, *humeralis* Germ., which is the first and only valid species, contained in the list of ten names, nine of which are given with ''Dej.'' as author, but as he did not describe any of these species they are to be considered as *nomina nuda.* Dejean's citation of *humeralis* Germ., according to the International Code (*vide* Article 21 and Opinion 1, B) constitutes an indication, and gives validity to the genus *Phyllobœnus* Dejean, with *P.* (*Clerus*) *humeralis* Say as the genotype.

Edward Newman (1838: 379) erected the genus *Hydnocera* based on *serrata* Newm., which is a synonym of *pallipennis* Say (1825: 176). Newman two years later (1840: 362) described three more species of this genus, at which time he states that "The Count Dejean, in his 'Catalogue des Coleopteres' has given to the genus the provisional name of *Phyllobœnus:* this I learn by finding one of them so named by Dr. Harris." He also remarks "One of the species has been described by Germar, in his 'Insectorum Species,' under the name of *Clerus humeralis;* and the same insect has also been labeled as the *Tillus humeralis* of Say, but I have no reference whatever to any description by the American entomologist." Newman's statements show how deeply he was imbued with the antiquated and obsolete idea that a generic name unaccompanied by a characterization or diagnosis was of no significance. And upon this supposition some of these names have been freely and rashly employed as names to designate other genera. An instance of the kind just mentioned is that of *Phyllobœnus* Spinola (Clérites II, 1844, p. 1), of which he makes the following statements: "My *Phyllobènes* are not those of Mr. Dejean, the latter belong to the *G.*[enus] *Hydnocera* of Mr. Newman, a genus of which that author has published the characters and of which he is the true founder, the name that he has assigned to it has incontestably the right of priority. That of *Phyllobœnus* having become vacant, I like it better to take possession of it than rack one's brains in looking for a new name to apply to a species that Mr. Dejean has placed in the *G.*[enus] *Notoxus* and which cannot remain there." The action of the present writer in assigning *Phyllobœnus* to its proper nomenclatural status leaves *Phyllobœnus* Spinola vacant, and necessitates a new name in its stead, the name *Phlogistosternus* φλογιστός, crematus στέρνον, sternum, is here proposed.

c/ Genotype.—*Phyllobœnus dislocatus.*

The writer's thanks are due his good friend Dr. Edward A. Chapin, Curator Division of Insects, United States National Museum, who has assisted the author in many ways; also it was he who first called the author's attention to the fact that *Hydnocera* Newman is a synonym of *Phyllobœnus* Dejean.

Phyllobœnus Dejean, Cat. des Col., 3rd Edition, 1837, p. 127.

Hydnocera Newman, The Ent. Mag., Lond., V, 1837 (1838), p. 379.—Newman, Mag. Nat. Hist., (2) IV, 1840, p. 362.—Spinola, Rev. Zool., 1841, p. 75.—Klug, Clerii, 1842, p. 311.—Spinola, Mon.

Clérites, II, 1844, p. 39.—Leconte, Ann. Lyc. Nat. Hist. New York, V, 1849, p. 26.—Lacordaire, Gen. Col., IV, 1857, p. 471.—Chenu, Encycl. d'Hist. Nat. Col., II, 1860, p. 268.—Leconte, Classif. Col. N. Amer., I, 1861, p. 196.—Gorham, Trans. Ent. Soc. Lond., 1877, pt. 3, p. 260.—Gorham, Biol. Centr.-Amer., III, pt. 2, 1883, p. 168.—Leconte and Horn, Classif. Col. N. Amer., ed. II, 1883, p. 218.—Wickham, Can. Ent., XXVII, 1895, pp. 245 and 251.—Schenkling, Gen. Ins. (Wytsman) Cler., 1903, p. 92.—Schenkling, Col. Cat. (Junk) Cler., pt. 23, 1910, p. 102.—Gahan, Ann. Mag. Nat. Hist., (8) V, 1910, p. 65.—Wolcott, Bull. Ind. Dept. Geol. Nat. Res., I, 1910, p. 855.—Chapin, Bull. Brookl. Ent. Soc., XII, 1917, p. 83.—Chapin, Proc. Biol. Soc. Wash., XXXV, 1922, p. 55.—Bradley, Man. Gen. Beetles Amer. N. of Mex., 1930, p. 105.—Chagnon, Le Nat. Canad., LXII, 1935, pp. 174 and 175.

Theano Chevrolat, Ann. Soc. Ent. France, I (2), 1843, p. 33.

Diagnosis of *Phyllobœnus* Dejean

Head, with the eyes included, broader than the prothorax, mandibles feebly curved with a strong internal tooth before the apex. Head very short, front large, vertical, eyes rather large, prominent, oval, transverse, entire or the front margin with a feeble vestige of emargination. Antennæ very short, eleven-segmented, first segment thick, obconical, second very short, segments three to nine nearly cylindrical, the ninth segment as broad as long, tenth segment large, swollen, ovate, terminated by the scarcely discernible, minute eleventh segment. Maxillary palpi with terminal segment short, nearly cylindrical or attenuate, apex truncate, terminal segment of labial palpi large, transversely securiform. Prothorax usually longer than broad, sides more or less dilated before the middle. Elytra much broader than the prothorax at base, usually moderately elongate parallel or narrowed near the middle, often abbreviated at apex, sculpture variable. Legs long, posterior femora reaching slightly beyond the apex of the elytra, tarsi five-segmented, basal segment short, the three succeeding lamellate, the posterior tarsi with the lamella of basal segment long and compressed, lamellæ of second and third segments depressed, bifid. Ungues with a broad basal tooth.

Newman in his diagnosis of the genus *Hydnocera* states that the antennæ are 10-articulate, but it is evident that he failed to observe the very small and closely united true apical segment. This error was corrected by Lacordaire (1857: 471).

Genotype.—*Phyllobœnus* (*Clerus*) *humeralis* Say. Monobasic.

Geographical range, 118 species of North, Central and South America.

Genus LEMIDIA Spinola

Lemidia Spinola, Rev. Zool., 1841, p. 75.—Klug, Clerii., 1842, p. 311.—Spinola, Clérites, II, 1844, p. 32.—Lacordaire, Gen. Col., IV, 1857, p. 470.—Chenu, Encycl. d'Hist. Nat. Col., II, 1860, p. 267.—Gorham, Trans. Soc. Ent. Lond., 1877, p. 249.—Schenkling, Deutsch. Ent. Zeit., 1898, p. 169.—Schenkling, Gen. Ins., (Wytsman) Cler., 1903, p. 90.—Schenkling, Col. Cat., (Junk) Cler., 1910, p. 108.—Lea, Ann. Soc. Ent. Belg., LI, 1907, pp. 331 et 362.

Eumede Pascoe, Ann. Mag. Nat. Hist., (4) XVII, 1876, p. 50.—Broun, Man. New Zealand Col., I, 1880, p. 334.

Hydnocera Newman, The Entom., 1841, p. 36.—Newman, *idem,* 1842, p. 365.—White, Cat. Cleridæ Brit. Mus., IV, 1849, pp. 61 et 62.

Clerus Newman, Zoologist, 1843, p. 119 (sp. *hilaris*).

Hoploclerus White, *l.c.* p. 40.—Westwood, Proc. Zool. Soc. Lond., XX, 1852, p. 52.

Hydnocerus Westwood, *loc cit.,* 1852, p. 47.

Lemidius Westwood, *idem,* 1852, p. 47.

Laiomorphus Pic, Mél. Exot.-ent., L, 1937, p. 20.

Diagnosis of *Lemidia,* revised

Body small, rather elongate, parallel or posteriorly wider. Head short, with the eyes broader than the prothorax, front broad between the eyes, which are large, prominent, feebly, shallowly emarginate in front, finely granulated. Maxillary palpi with the terminal segment cylindrical, somewhat oval, acute at apex; that of the labial palpi much larger, depressed, securiform. Labrum prominent, emarginate. Antennæ very short, reaching the hind margin of the head, eleven-segmented, segment 1 thick and long, subcylindrical, not rising to the height of the front, segment 2 very short, swollen at middle and subglobular, segments

3 to 8 short, diminishing in length, without becoming sensibly narrower, segments 9 to 11 thick and depressed, equally dilated, forming a quite distinct clava of these three segments, the first two are equal, subtransverse, the last longest and oval. Prothorax longer than broad, narrower than the head, much narrower at base, anteriorly with at most a feeble transverse impressed line. Elytra oblong, surface depressed, entirely covering the abdomen, irregularly punctured, suture usually closed, spices conjointly rounded, rarely separately mucronate. Legs long and slender, the femora extending to or beyond apex of the elytra, tarsi five-segmented (four segments only visible from above), the first segment very small or rudimentary but usually perfectly visible from below, the first three lamellate, the second, third and fourth segments diminishing in length. Ungues small, simple or at most with an indistinct tooth at base.

Genotype.—*Lemidia* (*Hydnocera*) *nitens* Newman (Spinola). Monobasic.

Geographical range, sixty-two species of this genus are found in Australia, one in New Zealand, two in Tonkin, and seven in Tasmania.

Genus ISOHYDNOCERA Chapin

Isohydnocera Chapin, Bull. Brookl. Ent. Soc., XII, 1917, p. 83.—Bradley, Man. Gen. Beetles Amer. N. of Mex., 1930, p. 105.

Diagnosis of *Isohydnocera*

"Body very elongate; front vertical; eyes prominent, finely granulate, entire or minutely emarginate near antennal insertion; terminal segment of maxillary palpi cylindro-conical, that of labial palpi large, triangular; mandibles with a tooth near apex on the inside. Antennæ 11-segmented, first segment thick, moderately long and somewhat arcuate, second short, globose, third to ninth cylindrical, longer than broad, tenth very large, forming with the eleventh a compact club which is much thicker than the ninth segment. Prothorax distinctly longer than broad, nearly cylindrical, lateral dilation weak. Elytra broader than the thorax, shorter than the abdomen, attenuate or parallel and truncate, lateral margins and usually tips strongly serrate. Legs long and thin, tarsi with five segments, the first covered by the second from above, segments two, three and four bearing lamellae beneath, ungues long and thin, simple'' (Chapin).

''To this genus are to be assigned the following species: *I. curtipennis* Newman (*longicollis* Ziegl.), *tabida* Lec., *schusteri* Lec., *ornata* Wolc., *gerhardi* Wolc., *pusilla* Schaeff., *aegra* Newm., *brunnea* sp. nov. and *albocincta* Horn'' (Chapin).

Genotype.—*Isohydnocera* (*Hydnocera*) *curtipennis* Newman, designated by Chapin.

Geographical range, North, Central and South America.

Genus WOLCOTTIA Chapin

Wolcottia Chapin, Bull. Brookl. Ent. Soc., XII, 1917, p. 84.—Bradley, Man. Gen. Beetles Amer. N. of Mex., 1930, p. 105.

Diagnosis of *Wolcottia*

''Body elongate, slightly attenuate posteriorly. Head short, front flat, lateral margins slightly concave to accommodate eyes, which are not prominent, finely granulate and minutely emarginate as in *Isohydnocera.* Labrum broad, entire. Mandibles falciform, with a small internal tooth near apex. Terminal segment of maxillary palpi conical, as long, or slightly longer than the preceding, that of the labial palpi very large, triangular. Antennæ short and stout, 11-segmented; first segment slightly longer than broad, second nearly spherical, third to eighth as long as broad, trapezoidal, becoming progressively broader, ninth broader than long, nearly as wide as tenth, tenth and eleventh forming an oval mass nearly as long as the three preceding segments. Thorax slightly broader than long, sides feebly dilated, slightly narrower than the head with eyes. Elytra at humeri broader than the head across eyes, attenuate posteriorly, tips rounded separately and with irregular margins. Legs long and thin, hind femora reaching beyond the tips of the elytra, tarsi of five segments, the first covered by the second from above, second, third and fourth bearing lamellæ beneath. Ungues long and thin, simple or but slightly thickened'' (Chapin).

Genotype.—*W.* (*Hydnocera*) *pedalis* Leconte, designated by Chapin.

Geographical range, North America.

Dr. Chapin states that "The three species assigned to this genus, *W. pedalis* Lec., *sobrina* Fall, and *parviceps* Schaeffer, have antennæ which seem to be midway between the three-segmented club type of *Lemidia* Spinola and the two-segmented club type of *Hydnocera* Newman."

Genus PARMIUS Sharp

Parmius Sharp, Ent. Mo. Mag., XIII, 1877, p. 272.—Broun, Man. New Zealand Col., I, 1880, p. 331.—Schenkling, Gen. Ins., (Wytsman) Cler., 1903, p. 96.—Schenkling, Col. Cat., (Junk) Cleridae, pars 23, 1910, p. 112.

Diagnosis of *Parmius,* revised

Elongate, alate, slender. Head with the eyes as broad as the elytra, broader than the thorax. Terminal segment of the maxillary palpi small, that of the labial palpi very large and broad. Eyes very prominent, finely granulated, entire or with a more or less definite emargination, antennæ short and rather slender, 11-segmented, the two or three terminal segments forming a short, broad clava, the tenth being strongly transverse and the eleventh rather stouter than the tenth and hardly as long as broad. Thorax subcylindrical but a little dilated at the middle, about as long as broad, but narrower than the elytra, constricted in front and behind, very narrow and parallel, the humeri distinct and rectangular. Legs long, tarsi moderately long and broad, very distinctly five-segmented, the second segment inserted very near the tibia. Hind coxæ rather widely distant.

"The two species (*debilis* Shp., and *longipes* Shp.,) differ from *Paupris aptera* by their finely granulated eyes, by the presence of wings and the more normal form of the elytra" (Sharp).

Genotype.—*Parmius longipes* Sharp, by present designation.

Geographical range, four described species known, all from New Zealand.

Genus NEOHYDNUS Gorham

Neohydnus Gorham, Ann. Mus. Genova, (2) XII, 1892, p. 742.—Schenkling, Gen. Ins., (Wytsman) Cler., fasc. 13, 1903, p. 94.—Schenkling, Col. Cat., (Junk) Cleridae, pars 23, 1910, p. 107.—Chapin, Phil. Jour. Sci., XXV, No. 2, 1924, p. 180.

Emmepus Motchoulsky, Bull. Imp. Nat. Moscou, XXXIV, 1861, p. 127 (sp. *flavipes*).

Diagnosis of *Neohydnus,* revised

Head vertical. Labrum entire; mandibles stout, falcate, with a short internal tooth toward apex. Eyes large, finely granulated, pubescent, entire or minutely emarginate at base of antennæ; the head plane between the eyes (very much as in *Callimerus*). Terminal segment of maxillary palpi cylindro-acuminate, that of labial palpi dilated, elongate-triangular. Antennæ short 11-segmented (often apparently ten-segmented, the tenth and eleventh segments being anchylosed), first segment short and thick, slightly bent, second nearly spherical, third to ninth trapezoidal, becoming successively shorter to eighth or ninth, ninth sometimes longer than the eighth, tenth and eleventh together oval and flattened. Thorax with length and breadth subequal, not widened in front (as in *Phyllobœnus*), with a constricted line near the front, sides slightly dilated below this construction, lateral foveæ deep, oblique above dilations, usually two or three in number, no basal constriction but margined at base, anterior coxal cavities widely open behind. Elytra usually as long as body, confusedly punctate, no trace of striæ, suture slightly dehiscent toward apices, lateral margin and tips usually strongly serrate. Abdomen with six visible ventral segments. Sexual modifications of males usually conspicuous. Legs slender, femora somewhat swollen; tarsi short, of five segments, first segment short and ventral to second, ungues with a broad basal process.

Genotype.—*Neohydnus despectus* Gorham.

Geographical range, Indo-Malaysia.

Genus METAXINA Broun

Metaxina Broun, Ann. Mag. Nat. Hist., (8) III, 1909, p. 407.

Diagnosis of *Metaxina,* revised

Head (eyes included) nearly as large as the thorax, forehead limited between the antennæ by a slightly raised suture. Palpi stout, long, the terminal segment of maxillary palpi quite oblique at apices; that of the labial palpi subtriangular or securiform, truncate at apices. Eyes prominent, distinctly granulated, apparently rotundate, in reality transversely broadly oviform, entire. Antennæ eleven-segmented, inserted not in cavities, but on slight prominences, or articulations in front of the eyes; basal segment stout, pyriform, third segment slightly longer than second or fourth; segments four to eight nearly equal in breadth, each longer than broad, and narrowed at the base; segments nine and ten distinctly broader than the preceding, but little longer; eleventh rather larger and oviform; these organs therefore more nearly resemble those of *Paupris* and *Parmius* than of *Phymatophœa.* Prothorax somewhat cordiform, transverse, apex truncate, base rounded, the lateral margins fine and curved toward the base, but without forming posterior angles; scutellum elongate. Prosternum truncate in front. Coxæ with trochanters; the anterior prominent, separated only by the prosternal process; intermediate rather less prominent, almost contiguous; the posterior small, only moderately separated. Metasternum moderately elongate, its sides distinctly punctured. Elytra parallel-sided, broader than the thorax, with obtusely prominent humeri, the punctuation moderately coarse, not close and subseriate, surface subdepressed, apices not quite smooth, elongate. Tarsi five-segmented, basal segment abbreviated above, its lobes prolonged below; segments two to four of nearly equal length, their lobes also prolonged but without perceptible lamellæ underneath; fifth simple, nearly as long as the preceding four together; basal segments of the anterior tarsi furnished with long slender, brush-like setæ below. Abdomen composed of six segments, the basal segment rather larger than the others, segments two to five about equal; sixth short, deeply emarginate, with a supplementary conical segment protruding therefrom.

Genotype.—*Metaxina ornata* Broun, designated by Broun.

Geographical range, 1 species of New Zealand.

Broun remarks that "the type of this genus is quite unlike any Australian or New Zealand species known to me, and certainly an aberrant form, owing to the absence of tarsal lamellæ, the unnotched eyes, &c." This genus and its genotype has not been mentioned in the literature since the genus was created by

Broun. This is truly an anomalous genus, but this being an insular insect, and obviously a highly adaptive form, the singularity of its aspect need cause no great doubt as to the propriety of including this genus in the present subfamily.

Genus ABROSIUS Fairmaire

Abrosius Fairmaire, Bull. Mus. Hist. Nat., Paris, VIII, 1902, p. 315.—Schenkling, Gen. Ins., (Wytsman) Cler., 1903, p. 96.—Schenkling, Col. Cat., (Junk) Cler., 1910, p. 112.—Gahan, Ann. Mag. Nat. Hist., (8) V, 1910, p. 65.

Diagnosis of *Abrosius* translated from the original

"This new genus of Cleridæ approaches the Hydnocerides by the tarsi having the first segment indistinct, the eyes entire and the antennæ inserted near their lower border; but the eyes are rather depressed, the legs of ordinary length and the facies is very different from that of *Evenus,* recalling greatly that of *Aulicus.* The antennæ are slender, of eleven articles, the three terminal segments forming a small, rather narrow, lax mass; the front is rather large, but the eyes moderately convex. Prothorax scarcely longer than broad, base moderately narrow, sides rounded, scarcely sinuate at base. Elytra oblong, humeri rather angulate, surface with basal portion rather strongly seriate-punctate, posteriorly minutely and confusedly punctate. Legs slender, rather short, tarsi seen from above four-segmented, the first segment indistinct, the intermediate segments provided with rather long lamellæ."

Genotype.—*Abrosius cyaneorufus* Fairm., by sole inclusion.

Geographical range, 1 species of Madagascar.

The genus *Abrosius* is unfortunately unknown in nature to the writer, otherwise additional characters would be given to enable recognition of this very poorly characterized genus, the diagnosis of which fails to mention the chief characters usually employed for this purpose, such as the structure of palpi, and gives only a very ambiguous and contradictory account of the eyes and an inefficient description of the legs and the tarsi.

Genus CEPHALOCLERUS Kuwert

Cephaloclerus Kuwert, Ann. Soc. Ent. Belg., XXXVII, 1893, p. 486.—Kraatz, Deutsch. Ent. Zeit., 1899, p. 105.—Schenkling, Bull. Mus. d'Hist. Paris, VIII, 1902, p. 330 (in species).—Schenkling, Gen. Ins., (Wytsman) Cler., 1903, p. 90.—Hintz, Deutsche. Ent. Zeitschr., 1905, p. 312.—Schenkling, Deutsch. Ent. Zeit., 1906, heft 2, p. 300.—Gahan, Ann. Mag. Nat. Hist., Lond., (8) V, 1910, p. 65.—Schenkling, Col. Cat., (Junk) Cleridae, 1910, p. 111.

Hydnocera Boheman, Ins. Caffr., I, fasc. 2, 1851, p. 511.

Diagnosis of *Cephaloclerus,* revised

Head large, rather strongly rounded, with the eyes much broader than the thorax, clypeus strongly emarginate, labrum emarginate; terminal segment of maxillary palpi short, slender, cylindrical, acute at apex; that of labial palpi larger, bell-shaped. Antennæ very short, scarcely longer than the thorax, eleven-segmented, slender, segments four to ten very short, serrate, clava elongate, but little distinct, three-segmented, terminal segment rounded, its apex obtuse, within subacuminate, eyes large, ovate, entire, moderately convex, prominent. Thorax nearly one-half longer than broad, angles strongly rounded, margins acute, posteriorly bisinuate, apex truncate, narrower than the head, sides before the middle nearly straight then behind the middle abruptly narrowed, posteriorly narrower, basal margin truncate, thinly reflexed, near apex and near base a transverse impressed line, surface slightly convex, sides at apex and base narrowly constricted. Elytra oblong-quadrate, narrower than the head, nearly three times as long as the thorax and twice as broad as the thorax at base, base slightly broadened, obliquely truncate, humeri strongly rounded, not elevated, sides thinly margined, straight (sinuate in *C. basalis*), apex conjointly rounded, coarsely and deeply punctate. Legs slender, posterior tarsi viewed from above evidently four-segmented, segments one, two and three dilated, penultimate segments lamellate, ungues simple.

Genotype.—*Cephaloclerus corynetoides* Kuwert. Monobasic.

Geographical range, 23 species, all of Africa.

Genus EURYCRANIUM Blanchard

Eurycranium Blanchard, Hist. Ins., II, 1845, p. 87.—Chenu, Encycl. d'Hist. Nat. Col., II, 1860, p. 245.

Eurycranus Blanchard, Hist. Ins., II, 1845, p. 84.—Gemm. et Harold, Cat. Col., VI, 1869, p. 1745 (pars).—Gahan, Ann. Mag. Nat. Hist., (8) V, 1910, p. 64 and 65.

Eurymetopum Blanchard, Voy. d'Orb., 1844, p. 92.[1]—White, Nomenc. Col. Ins. Brit. Mus. Cler., IV, 1849, p. 42.—Chevrolat, Cat. des Cler., Rev. Mag. Zool., 1874, p. 275.

Epiclines Spinola, Gay Hist. Chile, Zool., IV, 1849, p. 386 (pars).—Lacordaire, Gen. Col., IV, 1857, p. 463 (pars).—Gemminger et Harold, Cat. Col., VI, 1869, p. 1745 (pars).—Gorham, Cist. Ent., II, 1876, p. 91 (*"nil ad rem"*).—Lohde, Ent. Zeit. Stett., IX, 1900, p. 71.—Schenkling, Gen. Ins., (Wytsman) Cler., 1903, p. 71 (pars).—Schenkling, Col. Cat., (Junk) Cler., 1910, p. 99 (pars).

Clerus Spinola, Mon. Clér., II, 1844, p. 158 (in species).

Thanasimus Spinola, Gay Hist. Chile, Zool., IV, 1849, p. 392 (pars).—Fairmaire et Germain, Col. Chilensia, Paris, II, 1861, p. 3.—Philippi, Stett. Ent. Zeit., XXV, 1864, p. 266 (pars).—Philippi, Ann. Univ. Chile, Santiago, XXVI, 1865, p. 656 (in species).

Dereutes Chevrolat, Mém. des Clerites, 1876, p. 29 (pars) (a group name only!).

Thereutes Harold, Col. Hefte, XVI, 1879, p. 248 (pars) (*inutilis emendat.*).

Diagnosis of *Eurycranium*, revised

Head short, very wide across the eyes, which are very prominent and nearly entire. The maxillary palpi are short, the terminal segment elongate, conico-cylindrical, that of the labial

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[1] *Eurymetopum* Blanchard is preoccupied by *Eurymetopon* Eschscholtz, Atlas, Zoologique du voyage du capitaine Kotzebue, fascicule 2, p. 8, pl. 18, figs. 1 and 2, to designate a genus of the family Tenebrionidæ. Later Schönherr (Genera et Species Curculionidum, Paris, VI, 1, 1840, p. 112) employed the name *Eurymetopus* to designate a genus of Tetramerous coleoptera, of the Brachypterous Curculionides. This author has described but one species (*E. fallax*) of the great number now known from South America. Chevrolat says (Mém. Cler., p. 30), "The three names represent the same root. That [of *Dereutes*] which I employ indicates the mode of life of the greater part of the true clerides. Not only do they live on insects in the larval state, but arriving at the perfect state they run on the bark of trees pouncing upon those that they meet devouring them with avidity."

palpi securiform, very large, the mandibles are rather small with a feeble tooth on internal side. Antennæ slender, long, eleven-segmented, nearly as long as head and thorax united, the funicle very long with the three last segments of antennæ forming a small ovate, serrate clava. Prothorax long, cylindrical and constituting nearly a third of the total length of the insect, sides of thorax more or less broadly dilated at middle, apical and basal constrictions and transverse impressions usually quite feeble, basal margin thinly reflexed. Elytra rather long, entirely covering the abdomen, flexible, suture closed, apex conjointly rounded, surface very uneven, puncturing imperceptible. Legs moderately long, slender, tarsi five-segmented, first segment very short and small, but still visible from above, the second longer than the first but still less stout, third slightly shorter than the second, fourth dilated.

Genotype.—*E. maculatum* Blanchard, by present designation.

Geographical range, South and Central America.

Genus PAUPRIS Sharp

Paupris Sharp, Ent. Monthly Mag., XIII, 1877, p. 271.—Gorham, Trans. Ent. Soc. Lond., 1877, p. 263.—Schenkling, Gen. Ins., (Wytsman) Cler., 1903, p. 95.—Broun, Man. New Zealand Col., I, 1880, p. 331.—Schenkling, Gen. Ins., (Wytsman) Cler., 1903, p. 95.—Gahan, Ann. Mag. Nat. Hist., (8) V, 1910, p. 65.—Schenkling, Col. Cat., (Junk) Cler., 1910, p. 112.

Diagnosis of *Paupris,* revised

Elongate, apterous. Head (the eyes included) rather broader than the thorax at its broadest part. Eyes rather small, moderately prominent, coarsely granulated, with a very small triangular excision. Maxillary palpi with terminal segment small and cylindrical, not at all dilated, while that of the labial palpi is very large, transversely broad, and dilated. Antennæ short and stout, inserted well before the eyes, eleven-segmented, segment two shorter than the third, segments of the funicle three to eight all subequal in length, segments nine to eleven each broader than long, about twice as broad as the preceding segments, the terminal segment as broad as long, its apex subacuminate, these segments forming a rather lax clava. Prothorax elongate and narrow, longer than broad, sides at middle somewhat dilated, but scarcely tuberculate. Elytra small and narrow, much abbreviated, usually nearly three dorsal segments shorter than the abdomen, base narrow, humeri absent, suture closed, elongate-obovate, very sparsely covered with short erect coarse hairs, apex conjointly rounded. Legs long and rather stout, tarsi moderately broad, five-segmented, first segment very small and short, nearly covered by the elongate second segment, segments three and four each shorter than the second, and strongly lamellate, ungues small, simple.

Genotype.—*Paupris aptera* Sharp. Monobasic.

Geographical range, one species of New Zealand.

Genus ISOLEMIDIA Gorham

Isolemidia Gorham, Trans. Ent. Soc. Lond., 1877, pp. 249, 257.—Gorham, Biol. Centr.-Amer., III, pt. 2, 1883, p. 177.—Schenkling, Gen. Ins., (Wytsman) Cler., 1903, p. 92.—Schenkling, Col. Cat., (Junk) Cler., 1910, p. 107.—Gahan, Ann. Mag. Nat. Hist., (8) V, 1910, p. 65.—Wolcott, Publ. Field Mus. Nat. Hist., Zool., VII, 1910, p. 376 (in species).—Chapin, Proc. Ent. Soc. Wash., XXII, 1920, pp. 51 and 52 (in species).

Diagnosis of *Isolemidia,* revised

Head with the eyes broader than the thorax, eyes very large, globular, entire or at most minutely emarginate, maxillary palpi subfiliform, terminal segment truncate at apex; that of the labial palpi securiform. Thorax subcylindrical, but often short and sometimes quadrate or broader than long, the sides broadly rounded or tuberculate at middle, strongly constricted near apex and base, the basal and apical transverse impressed lines very distinct. Antennæ very short, usually little longer than the head, as in *Lemidia,* eleven-segmented, those segments succeeding the basal segment a little longer than wide, the three last transverse, forming a small, short, rather connate, oblong, clava. Elytra elongate, usually much broader than the thorax, and broadest behind the middle, the apex conjointly rounded, usually covering the abdomen, roundly truncate (*pulchella* Gorh.), the humeri distinct, sometimes with a very small callus (*I. cariniceps* Wolc., the elytra are much abbreviated, the suture widely dehiscent, the apices separately obtusely rounded with a few well developed teeth). Legs long and slender, posterior femora moderately long, tarsi five-segmented, the basal segment as in *Lemidia,* atrophied, second segment covering the first, ungues simple.

Genotype.—*I. pulchella* Gorham, designated by Gorham.

Geographical range, thirteen species of South and Central America.

Genus EMMEPUS Motschoulsky

Emmepus Motschoulsky, Bull. Moscou., XVIII, 1845, p. 41 (sub Staphylin.).—Lacordaire, Gen. Col., IV, 1857, p. 494.—Chenu, Encycl. d'Hist. Nat. Col., II, 1860, pp. 82 and 266 (sub Staphylin.).—Gorham, Trans. Ent. Soc. Lond., 1877, p. 263.—Reitter, Verh. Nat. Ver. Brünn., XXXII, 1893 (1894), p. 39.—Reitter, Best. Tab., 1894, p. 6.—Reitter, Wien. Ent. Zeit., XV, 1896, p. 283.—Schenkling, Gen. Ins., (Wytsman) Cler., 1903, p. 96.—Gahan, Ann. Mag. Nat. Hist., (8) V, 1910, p. 65.—Schenkling, Col. Cat., (Junk) Cler., 1910, p. 112.

Brachyclerus Fairmaire, Compt. rend. Soc. Ent. Belg., XXVII, 1883, p. 157.—Bedel, Ann. Soc. Ent. Fr., (6) VII, 1887, p. 197.

Diagnosis of *Emmepus,* revised

Body slender, small. Head transversely quadrate, front broad, mandibles internally with a distinct tooth near apex. Maxillary palpi with the terminal segment small, nearly cylindrical, at apex much smaller; that of labial palpi large, securiform. Eyes large, prominent, finely granulated, ? entire. Antennæ very short, eleven-segmented, the two first segments large and thick, the succeeding segments much shorter and more slender, the two terminal segments forming a ball-like clava, first segment of clava (the tenth of the antennæ) much swollen, partly covering the very small apical segment. Prothorax as long as broad, the sides at middle broadly subangulately dilated. Elytra twice as long as broad, much larger than the thorax, much shorter than the abdomen, suture strongly dehiscent, scarcely covering the abdomen behind the middle. The wings long, extending well beyond the apex of the abdomen which it covers. Legs long and slender, tarsi rather long and slender, distinctly five-segmented, first segment longer than the second, segments three and four each successively shorter than the preceding segments, segments one to four with lamellæ beneath, segment five elongate-clavate, much longer than the two preceding segments united, ungues simple.

Genotype.—*Emmepus arundinis* Motsch. Monobasic.

Geographical range, three species known from Caucasus, Caspian Sea, South Algeria, Turkestan and Ceylon.

Genus THEANO Castelnau

Theano Castelnau, Silberm. Rev., IV, 1836, p. 51.—Lacordaire, Gen. Col., IV, 1857, p. 493.—Chenu, Encycl. d'Hist. Nat. Col., II, 1860, p. 268.—Gorham, Trans. Ent. Soc. Lond., 1877, p. 363.—Schenkling, Gen. Ins., (Wytsman) Cler., 1903, p. 97.—Gahan, Ann. Mag. Nat. Hist., (8) V, 1910, p. 65.—Schenkling, Col. Cat., (Junk) Cler., 1910, p. 113.

Diagnosis of *Theano,* revised

Body small, rather long. Head with the eyes broader than the thorax. Labrum entire, its front arcuate, mandibles with an internal tooth near apex. Terminal segment of labial palpi large, securiform, acuminate at apex. Eyes moderately large, prominent, entire. Antennæ short, slender, eleven-segmented, the first two segments equal, rather large, the third segment slender, the succeeding five segments rather slender, trianguler, the last three segments forming a swollen, ovate or somewhat globular clava. Thorax much narrower than the head, rounded at the sides. Elytra somewhat elongate, surface very coarsely punctate. Legs long and slender, posterior femora extending slightly beyond the apex of the abdomen, tarsi with the basal segment conical, the succeeding three segments short, dilated and bifid, provided with prolonged lamellæ beneath.

Genotype.—*Theano pusilla* Cast. Monobasic.

Geographical range, one species from South America (Colombia).

Subgenus CALLIMERUS Gorham

Callimerus Gorham, Cist. Ent., II, 1876 (1875–1882), p. 65.—Schenkling, Gen. Ins., (Wytsman) Cler., fasc. 13, 1903, p. 24.—

Gahan, Ann. Mag. Nat. Hist., (8) V, 1910, p. 65.—Schenkling, Col. Cat., (Junk) Cler., 1910, p. 26.—Chapin, Philipp. Jour. Sci., XXV, No. 2, 1924, pp. 180 and 191.—Pic, Exot.-Ent., fasc. 54, 1929, p. 17 (pars).

Xylobius White, Nomenc. Col. Brit. Mus., Cler., IV, 1849, p. 50 (in species).—Westwood, Proc. Zool. Soc. Lond., XX, 1852, p. 40 (in species).

Lemidia Thomson, Mus. Scient., II, 1860, p. 61 (in species).—Pascoe, Jour. Ent., I, 1860, p. 48.—Chevrolat, Rev. Mag. Zool., 1874, p. 321.—Kuwert, Ann. Soc. Ent. Belg., XXXVII, 1893, p. 484.

Calocierus Kuwert, Ann. Soc. Ent. Belg., XXXVII, 1893, p. 480.—Schenkling, Ann. Soc. Ent. Belg., VL, 1901, p. 105.

Diagnosis of *Callimerus*, revised

Form elongate, or oblong, head with eyes slightly broader than apex of thorax, eyes prominent, finely granulate, very slightly emarginate at base of antennæ. Labrum entire; mandibles stout, falcate, with internal tooth near apex; terminal segment of maxillary palpi twice as long as preceding segment, subulate; that of the labial palpi elongate-triangular. Antennæ rather short, slender, distinctly eleven-segmented, first segment stout, bent, at least twice the length of the second, which is from nearly as long as broad to equilateral and globular, segments three to eight much longer than broad, each segment shorter than the preceding, ninth to eleventh forming a lax, oval clava, the eleventh oval at apex. Thorax longer than broad, somewhat constricted before and behind, moderately to strongly dilated at or before the middle, anterior coxal cavities very widely open behind. Elytra entirely covering the abdomen, long, narrow, sides parallel or gradually becoming narrower posteriorly, adorned with white or yellow scales, these scales often forming a definite pattern, apex sometimes abbreviated and truncate or rarely each mucronate, surface variously punctate. Abdomen with six visible ventral segments; in the male the terminal segments are often profoundly modified; in the female the modification, if any, occurs on the penultimate segment. Legs rather long, posterior tibiæ with or without a notch with comb of hairs near its apex; tarsi moderately long, five-segmented, the basal segment the longest. Ungues nearly simple or with a broad plate-like tooth.

Subgenotype.—*Clerus* (*Xylobius*) *dulcis* Westw., designated by Gorham.

Geographical range, 102 species known from Indo-Malaysia.

Subgenus CUCUJOCALLIMERUS Pic

Cucujocallimerus s. g. Pic, Mél. Exot.-ent., fasc. LIV, 1929, pp. 17–18.

Callimerus auct. (pars).

Diagnosis of *Cucujocallimerus,* slightly revised

Prothorax less than, or little longer than broad, or sometimes very elongate, posterior margin less narrow, often rather broad, or sometimes indistinct, femora more or less slender or a little stouter, sometimes the posterior stouter than the others; the tarsi the most often slender and long. Form of the body oblongo-elongate or narrow. Antennæ less short. Head with the eyes much broader than the front part of the prothorax, this very impressive. Body wholly, as a matter of fact, depressed above.

''The sub-genus *Cucujocallimerus mihi* has the legs principally the posterior femora much longer than the others, whereas the greater portion of the species of the s. genus *Callimerus* has them little or moderately longer than the others'' (Pic).

Subgenotype.—*Cucujocallimerus* (*Callimerus*) *coomani* Pic., designated by Pic.

Geographical range, 1 species of Tonkin.

Subgenus BRACHYCALLIMERUS Chapin

Brachycallimerus Chapin, Philipp. Jour. Sci., XXV, No. 2, 1924, pp. 180 et 190.—Corporaal, Rev. Française d'Ent., IV, 1937, p. 60.

Callimerus auct. (pars), *loc. cit.,* p. 190.

Crassocallimerus Pic, Mél. Exot.-ent., LIV, 1929, pp. 17 et 18.

Diagnosis of *Brachycallimerus,* only slightly revised

Head broad, eyes very prominent, very slightly emarginate near antennal socket; labrum entire, mandibles broad and flat, falcate, with a sharp tooth internally near apex; antennæ short and compact, eleven-segmented, first segment short and stout, second nearly spherical, third to sixth longer than broad, seventh to eleventh broader than long, each broader than the preceding, together forming a compact obtriangular five-segmented clava. Thorax broader than long, polished, with a few distinct punctures. Elytra broader at base than the thorax, punctures numerous, not seriate. Entire dorsal surface of insect devoid of scales. Abdomen with six visible ventral segments, secondary sexual modifications conspicuous. Legs moderate in length, posterior tibiæ with subapical notch, tarsi rather long and slender, five-segmented, first segment longer than the second, distinct and not covered by the second, ungues broadly toothed at base.

Subgenotype.—*Callimerus latifrons* Gorh., designated by Chapin.

Geographical range, Indo-Malaysia.

Chapin states that "The insects which I include in this new genus have heretofore been classified with the species of *Callimerus* Gorh. They differ from those species in their broad and compact form, short and compact antennæ, and the total absence of scales from the upper surface. In addition to the genotype, I would include the following species: *latesignatus* Gorh., *rusticus* Gorh., *pectoralis* Schklg., and probably *trifasciatus* Schklg." Corporaal (1937: 60) includes the last named species without question and adds *pallidus* Gorh., and *doesburgi* Corp., n. sp., as members of this genus.

Genus EVENUS Castelnau

Evenus Castelnau, Silb. Rev., IV, 1836, p. 41.—Spinola, Rev. Zool., 1841, p. 75.—Klug, Abhandl. Berl. Akad. 1842, p. 315.—Spinola, Mon. Clérites, II, 1844, p. 28.—Lacordaire, Gen. Col., 1857, p. 469.—Chenu, Encycl. d'Hist. Nat. Col., II, 1860, p. 266.—Gorham, Trans. Ent. Soc. Lond., 1877, p. 249.—Schenkling, Gen. Ins., (Wytsman) Cler., 1903, p. 89.—Gahan, Ann. Mag. Nat. Hist., (8) V, 1910, p. 65.—Schenkling, Deutsche Ent. Zeitschr., 1906, p. 300.—Schenkling, Col. Cat., (Junk) Cler., 1910, p. 111.

Diagnosis of *Evenus*, revised

Body very narrow, filiform. Head large, constricted behind, front concave. Maxillary palpi small, terminal segment cylindrical, rounded at apex; labial palpi long, three times as long as the maxillary palpi, terminal segment elongate, securiform, slender at base. Eyes large, very prominent transversely oval, not visibly emarginate. Antennæ very short, inserted between the eyes and very near their extreme anterior margin, eleven-segmented, first segment rather stout, long, cylindrical, segments three to eight obconical, small but distinct, each progressively broader but without becoming longer, the ninth as broad as the eighth and forming with the two last segments a narrow, elongate clava, terminating in an acute point, a little flattened and at their articulations rather serrate rendering at least very doubtful the independent mobility of the tenth and eleventh segments. Thorax narrow and elongate, disk depressed and narrowed in front, sides feebly dilated, front and hind margins equal in width, anterior coxal cavities open behind. Elytra depressed, much broader than base of thorax, very elongate parallel, but not reaching to apex of the abdomen, suture closed, irregularly rounded at apex, surface rather smooth (in the typical species sometimes seriately punctate). Legs elongate, thin, the posterior pair twice as long as the others, their femora reaching beyond the apex of the elytra, tibiæ rather longer than the femora, straight and cylindrical, tarsi very long, five-segmented, equally visible, long and narrow, the posterior having the two first elongate conical, the first shorter than the second by about one-third, third and fourth short, bifid, lamellate beneath, the second longer than any of the others, subequal to segments three and four united, and somewhat similarly depressed, a little dilated and feebly emarginate at apex, the fifth segment shorter than either of the preceding two, terminated by two large and short simple ungues, all tarsi pubescent beneath.

Genotype.—*Evenus filiformis* Cast. Monobasic.

Geographical range, thirteen species all of Madagascar.

Genus LASIOCALLIMERUS Corporaal

Lasiocallimerus Corporaal, Tijds. v. Ent., 82, 1939, p. 194.

Diagnosis of *Lasiocallimerus* Corporaal

"*Tarsorum articulo primo longiore quam secundo. Statura generi Brachycallimero similis, sed antennæ 10-articulatæ, arti-*

culo robusto, articulo secundo œque crasso, paulo breviore, articulo tertio subelongato, articulis 4–9 transversis, articulo ultimo subelongato, ovato, ad apicem subacuminato. Corpus longe pilosum et, in thorace, dense squamuloso-villosum. Pedes quales in genere Brachycallimero, tibiis sine tuberculo, tarsis latis, unguiculis latis, ad apicem emarginatis.

"With the first tarsal segment longer than the second. Head broad; eyes [rather large] very prominent, [finely facetted, with long, erect, pale hairs] very slightly emarginate near antennal socket, labrum entire, mandibles broad and flat, falcate. Antennæ short and compact, ten-segmented; first segment short and stout, second of equal thickness, but shorter, third a little longer than broad, fourth to ninth broader than long, tenth longer than broad, ovate, a little acuminate. Prothorax of the same form as in *Brachycallimerus,* heavily punctate, under the longer pilosity closely covered with crisp, scale-like hairs. Elytra broader than prothorax, evenly punctured, but not in rows. Abdomen with six visible ventral segments. Legs of moderate length, tibiæ without notch, tarsi short and broad, claws broad, emarginate at tip" (Corporaal).

Genotype.—*Lasiocallimerus vestitus* Corp., designated by Corporaal.

Geographical range, one species of Java.

Genus ALLELIDEA Waterhouse

Allelidea Waterhouse, Trans. Ent. Soc. Lond., II, 1839, p. 193. —Lacordaire, Gen. Col., IV, 1857, p. 473.—Chenu, Encycl. d'Hist. Nat., Col., II, 1860, p. 266.—Gorham, Trans. Ent. Soc. Lond., 1877, p. 263.—Blackburn, Trans. Roy. Soc. South Austral., XIV, 1891, p. 302.—Schenkling, Gen. Ins., (Wytsman) Cler., 1903, p. 97.—Gahan, Ann. Mag. Nat. Hist., (8) V, 1910, p. 65.—Schenkling, Col. Cat., (Junk) Cler., 1910, p. 112.

Diagnosis of *Allelidea,* revised

Body elongate, cylindrical. Head with the eyes as broad or broader than the thorax, constricted posteriorly, front verticle, labrum transverse, emarginate. Terminal segment of maxillary palpi ?, that of labial palpi oblique, securiform. Mandibles internally with a small tooth before the apex. Eyes moderately prominent, entire. Antennæ very short, eleven-segmented, articulations very distinct, segments very small, gradually growing larger, the three last segments slightly larger than the others forming a very lax elongate-oblong clava. Thorax longer than broad, narrow and elongate, subcylindrical, sides a little before the middle roundly dilated, at bast strongly narrowed. Elytra not much broader than thorax at base, seriately punctured, elongate, gradually and very feebly broader posteriorly, apex serrate, as long as the abdomen (♂ ?), or much shorter (♀ ?). The three pairs of legs equal in length, long and slender, posterior femora slightly shorter than the abdomen, tarsi five-segmented, first segment not much longer than the succeeding segments together, segments two to four with bilobed membraneous appendices, fifth segment moderate. Ungues with membraneous appendices.

This is a small insect with the facies of *Phyllobœnus*.

Genotype.—*Allelidea ctenostomoides* Waterh., designated by Gorham.

Geographical range, seven species of Australia.

Remarks on genera more or less allied to the genera of the subfamily Phyllobæninæ, or transferable to that subfamily.

Genus BRACHYPTEVENUS Pic

Brachyptevenus Pic, Mél. Exot.-ent., LXXI, 1939, pp. 24–25.

Diagnosis of *Brachyptevenus,* revised

Head broader than the thorax, posteriorly long attenuate, not strangulate. Thorax elongate, sides sinuate, middle impressed posteriorly. Elytra but little reduced, anteriorly subattenuate, narrow and elongate, apex slightly broader. Legs slender, abdomen distinctly exceeding the elytral apex. This new genus is near *Evenus* Cast. It is clearly characterized by the form of the head and the elytra. It is established for the following new species *B. niger* Pic.

Genotype.—*Brachyptevenus niger* Pic. Monobasic.

Geographical range, 1 species of Madagascar.

The writer has been compelled by reason of the brief and unsatisfactory diagnosis of this genus to omit it from consideration in the body of this account.

Genus ACHLAMYS Waterhouse

Achlamys Waterhouse, Cist. Ent., II, 1875–1882 (1879), p. 530.—Schenkling, Gen. Ins., (Wytsman) Cler., 1903, p. 16.—Schenkling, Col. Cat., (Junk) Cler., 1910, p. 17.

Diagnosis of *Achlamys,* revised

Form cylindrical. Head (with the eyes) broader than the thorax, the eyes prominent, coarsely granulate, scarcely emarginate in front. Antennæ as long as the head and thorax taken together, the first segment thick, ovate, the second segment small, the third elongate, subcylindrical, the fourth, fifth and sixth becoming gradually stouter and shorter, the seventh as broad as long, the eighth, ninth, tenth and eleventh segments forming a distinct four-segmented clava. Apical segment of the maxillary palpi elongate, a little narrowed before the apex; apical segment of the labial palpi securiform. Prothorax very convex, one-third longer than broad, very slightly constricted before the front margin, strongly constricted before the base. Elytra parallel, a little broader than the thorax, each with seven lines of deep oblong punctures which do not extend quite to the apex, which is smooth and obtuse. Tarsi with five distinct segments, the ungues with a single tooth at the base.

''Closely allied to *Pallensis,* but with prominent eyes and distinct club to the antennæ'' (Waterhouse).

The writer believes *Achlamys* should be removed from Tillinæ to the Phyllobæninæ and there with *Paupris* Sharp, both genera having coarsely facetted eyes, a character exceptional in this subfamily, these two genera may be placed as a distinct group or tribe designated by the term Pauprini.

Gahan (1910: 65) has transferred the genus *Ellipotema* Spinola to the subfamily Corynetinæ, and the genera *Cleropiestus, Calendyma* Lac., and *Epiclines* Chevr., to the subfamily Clerinæ, he also briefly differentiates (*loc. cit.,* p. 64) the genus *Epiclines* and *Eurycranus* (= *Eurycranium* Blanch.) and calls attention to the long-standing and absolutely absurd erroneous synonymy which has been perpetuated ever since the issuance of Lacordaire's Genera des Coléoptères. Of the species in our Catalogues under *Epiclines* only a few, as far as can now be determined, really belong to that genus, those that should be so placed are as follows: *gayi* Chevr., (nec Spin.), *ænea* Phil., *basalis* Blanch., *puncticollis* Spin., *ruficollis* Phil., *similis* Schklg., *advena* Chevr., *viridis* Phil., and probably *tristis* Spinola. The rest of the listed species with scarcely an exception should go to the genus *Eurycranium* Blanchard.

Genotype of *Epiclines, E. gayi,* Chevrolat. Monobasic.

Geographical range, Chile.

The genera of this subfamily may be grouped according to natural characters as follows:

Group 1

Clava two-segmented; basal segment of hind tarsi short, covered above by the second segment, prothorax variously proportioned.

Phyllobænus Dejean, *Lemidia* Spinola, *Isohydnocera* Chapin.

Group 2

Clava indefinitely two- or three-segmented; basal segment of hind tarsi short, covered above by the second segment, prothorax with length and breadth subequal.

Wolcottia Chapin, *Parmius* Sharp, *Neohydnus* Gorham, *Metaxina* Broun.

Group 3

Clava three-segmented; basal segment of hind tarsi short, covered above by the second segment, prothorax with length usually greater than breadth.

Abrosius Fairmaire, *Cephaloclerus* Kuwert, *Eurycranium* Blanchard, *Paupris* Sharp, *Isolemidia* Gorham.

Group 4

Clava two-segmented; basal segment of hind tarsi long, not covered by the second segment, prothorax as long as broad.

Emmepus Motchoulsky.

Group 5

Clava three-segmented; basal segment of hind tarsi long, not covered by the second segment, prothorax at least as long as broad.

Theano Castelnau, sub. gen. *Callimerus* Gorham, sub. gen. *Cucujocallimerus* Pic.

Group 6

Clava five-segmented; basal segment of hind tarsi long, not covered by the second segment, prothorax broader than long.

Sub. gen. *Brachycallimerus* Chapin.

Group 7

Clava indistinctly four-segmented; basal segment of hind tarsi long, not covered by the second segment, prothorax longer than broad.

Evenus Castelnau.

Group 8

Clava one-segmented; basal segment of hind tarsi long, not covered by the second segment, prothorax broader than long.

Lasiocallimerus Corporaal.

Group 9

Clava indistinctly three-segmented; basal segment of hind tarsi long, prothorax longer than broad.

Allelidea Waterhouse.

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THE REPRODUCTIVE FUNCTIONS OF THE ARMY-ANT QUEEN AS PACE-MAKERS OF THE GROUP BEHAVIOR PATTERN

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Although they are among the commonest ants encountered in the tropical forests of the Old and New Worlds, the dorylines have long remained among the least known. In Africa and Asia the "driver ants" and in tropical America the "legionary" or "army" ants of this subfamily present many intriguing problems, especially in the predatory raids and nomadic life of their colonies and the biological status of their huge wingless fertile females, the dichthadiigynes. These last individuals are not very well known to science, since up to a relatively short time ago virtually no precise information was available concerning their relations to the colony. Actually we find, beyond propagative functions which differ rather strikingly in some respects from those of fertile females in other insects, the properties of the doryline queen make her a factor of critical importance in the general process of colony behavior.

This paper is directed toward accounting for the essential ontogenetic basis of the behavior pattern characteristic in the subgenus *Eciton s. str.*, an American branch of the subfamily Dorylinæ. Our study specifically concerns these terrestrial army ants, especially the type species of the subgenus, *E. hamatum*. The results may prove eventually to have relevance among the dorylines far beyond the conditions of the species on which this report is based.[2]

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The chief characteristics of the behavior pattern of *E. hamatum* involve the formation of bivouacs, raiding, and bivouac-change movements which in series may be termed migrations. In this species the temporary nest or bivouac of a given colony is a more or less cylindrical mass formed by the clustered bodies of ants alone, without foreign materials, usually depending from a log or vines, or hanging against a tree. From his studies in the rainy season the writer (1933; 1938) has described two distinctive conditions through which colonies of *E. hamatum* pass successively in alternation at such times: the *nomadic* and the *statary* activity phases. Roughly, each phase lasts close to 20 days before it is succeeded by the other. The principal characteristics of the nomadic phase are 1) highly developed daily raids and 2) a regular change of the bivouac site at the termination of each day. In rather sharp contrast, the statary phase is marked by 1) less developed raids and 2) occupancy of the same bivouac site throughout the interval. In addition there are other features which characterize each of these behavior phases. These are essentially intrinsic to the colony, yet as we shall find they are intimately involved in the entire system of events in Eciton behavior.

Our essential hypothesis is that a close relationship exists between behavior outside the bivouac (*i.e.,* raiding and bivouac-change processes) and conditions within the bivouac, and that this pattern of events basically depends upon the functions of the reproductive agent of the colony. Accordingly in this paper attention focusses upon the rôle of the mother queen, whose properties apparently are of key importance in the entire mechanism of the Eciton behavior pattern.

Material for this study was gathered and most of the field observations were carried out on Barro Colorado Island in the Panama Canal Zone, in the rainy season months of 1936 and 1938 (May to September). In that locality the rainy period usually begins in April and ends in early December. Investigations of the Eciton problem have yet to be conducted in the dry season. This limitation is important, since it is very probable that rainy-season conditions are optimal for the appearance of relationships such as we shall describe. In an indirect manner the results of this study suggest that with extreme changes in prevalent atmospheric conditions important variations may occur in the described behavior pattern. In view of this, it is a fact of some importance that our evidence was gathered in a portion of the Caribbean lower rain-forest zone in which the rainy and dry seasons are differentiated rather sharply from year to year. What differences will be found under more variable meteorological conditions represent an interesting problem.

PROPERTIES OF THE ECITON QUEEN

From the time André (1885) captured the first dichthadiigyne from the subterranean bivouac of an *E.* (*Labidus*) *coecum* colony the list of captures has grown very slowly, and although fertile females are at present known from nearly 25 of the more than 100 recorded species of *Eciton* and all of the eight recorded species of *Eciton s. str.* (Bruch, 1934), they are still among the most highly prized collector's items. In view of the great difficulty of capturing them, it is scarcely surprising that these rare insects have been almost invariably clapped into alcohol when taken, under the influence of what Creighton has appropriately termed ''collector's itch.'' This practice of course has not precluded the accumulation of much valuable information concerning the external morphology and the taxonomic affinities of the specimens; yet it has unfortunately kept in the remote background several important questions which can find their answers only in study of the living queen.

Thus it is unfortunate that from the records of more than a score of collections very little can be learned about the behavior and biological properties of the living individual. With the exception of general observations carried out by Wheeler (1900) with captive colonies of *E. schmitti* in Texas, no special investigations have been attempted. The present study stems from a general investigation of army-ant behavior which has revealed the probability that the dichthadiigyne plays a crucial though indirect rôle in the phenomena of Eciton behavior (Schneirla, 1934; 1938).

Eciton queens may be found in either of two very different conditions, the ''normal'' or contracted condition and the physogastric or egg-producing condition (see Fig. 1). For the present study, the dichthadiigyne material comprised 13 queens of *E.*

hamatum and one of *E. burchelli* in the contracted condition, and one queen of *E. hamatum* in the physogastric condition. In each case, field notes on the colony from which a given queen was taken covered the general situation of the colony and its behavior (especially its raids and bivouac-change movements) over a period of days, the status of the brood or broods and the condition of the queen at the time of capture. Each queen was kept alive in the laboratory as long as possible after capture, for observation and test both alone and in relation to the workers of her colony.

There is a notable disparity in our material as to condition of the queen when captured. Why so many of the cases were in the contracted condition and only one case physogastric when taken will become clear as the general circumstances of Eciton life are disclosed.[3] For a number of reasons, physogastric army-ant queens are exceedingly difficult to capture. There is only one other case on record in which such an individual was observed during her short span of life in captivity, that of a physogastric queen of *E.* (*Labidus*) *coecum* taken by Weber (1941) in Trinidad. Fortunately we are not forced to depend upon direct evidence concerning the queen at all stages, since an abundance of other evidence coordinates nicely with results derived from work on the queen herself.[4]

A descriptive contrast of queens and workers.—The Eciton queen (Fig. 1) stands out as strikingly unique among fertile insect individuals and as a highly distinctive member of her colony. We may use the queen of *E. hamatum* as example.[5] Unlike the queens of virtually all other ants, she is wingless *throughout life.* In color she is almost uniformly ferrugineous mahogany, darker than the yellowish brown which characterizes the workers, and lacks the cephalic paleness of major workers. She differs strik-

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[3] It is a striking fact that among 16 captured queens representing ten *Eciton s. str.* species and sub-species, reported by various authors prior to 1942 (see *e.g.*, Wheeler, 1921; Bruch, 1934), *all* were in the contracted condition.

[4] In the present paper the supporting evidence is reported rather concisely. Further details and additional evidence will be incorporated in a monograph on this subject, now in preparation with the collaboration of Dr. Harold R. Hagan of the Department of Biology, City College of New York.

[5] The reader is referred to Wheeler's systematic descriptions of the first queens of *E. hamatum* (1925) and *E. burchelli* (1921) to be discovered.

ingly from the workers in gross size and in anatomical detail. The greater bulk of the queen is suggested by the fact that her over-all length (contracted) is close to 17.1 mm. (Av. 6 specimens), whereas the range of body length in the workers is 2.5 mm. (minor) to 9.5 mm. (major). The polymorphic worker types resemble the queen only very broadly, for example both queen and workers possess well-developed and dentate tarsal claws, near the inferior occipital corners of the queen's head there are small obtuse projections homologous to the acute spines of the worker major, and the queen possesses strikingly prominent pairs of epinotal and petiolar horns contrasting with two simple aligned nodes in the worker. Among many impressive morphological differences are the large lateral pseudo-ocelli (Werringloer, 1932) of the queen and the relatively tiny ones of workers, the great bulk of the queen's thorax and her well-developed legs as contrasted with corresponding slenderness in the worker's structures, and in particular the great size of the queen's abdomen contrasted with the much smaller gaster of the worker. Associated with an enormous expansion of reproductive functions in the queen and the probable absence of such functions in the worker, the hamatum queen's gaster even when contracted measures near 9.1 mm. in length and 5.5 mm. in its greatest width, whereas the gaster of the largest major worker measures only 2.6 mm. in length and 1.8 mm. in width. The queen's gaster terminates distinctively in a large triangular shelf, the hypogynium. Another striking characteristic of the queen is the marked development of her external respiratory orifices or stigmata, suggesting a high stage of development in the respiratory system generally.

This general morphological comparison may suffice to illustrate the extent to which the Eciton queen diverges from the workers, paralleling a functional specialization which correspondingly differs markedly from that of the workers. The nature and extent of the dichthadiigyne's specialization becomes clear when we consider some typical characteristics of her behavior and her place in the life economy of the colony.

Behavior and functional properties of the "normal" or contracted queen.—In *E. hamatum* and probably in *Eciton s. str.* generally the reproductive capacity of any given colony is centered in a single individual, a fecund dichthadiigyne. A selective mechanism of some kind evidently is involved which excludes additional queens, possibly at a time shortly before or after young queens are fertilized. Circumstances indicate that this one fecund individual must pass around nine-tenths of her days in the rainy season in the resting or contracted condition, which as a consequence may be termed her "normal" state. Ordinarily she does not leave the confines of the bivouac, except when she is drawn into a bivouac-change movement, an event that scarcely ever engages her before nightfall.

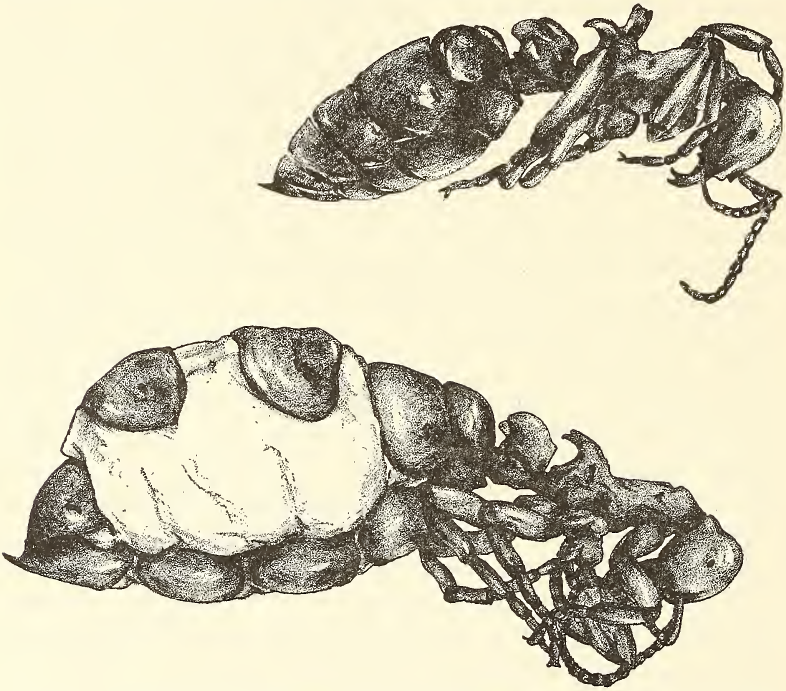

FIG. 1. Queens of *E. hamatum* in the contracted (upper) and the physogastric or gravid condition. (*Cf.* Fig. 2 and Table I.) Total length of the contracted queen, 17 mm. (Drawing by Miss Janet Roembild, from photographs by Dr. Virgil Argo, Dept. of Biology, City College of New York.)

Circumstances indicate that the sequestration of the queen may be due largely to the effect which light exerts upon her. In laboratory tests she reacts specifically to directionalized bright light by turning away from the source and moving energetically about until in darkness. Whenever she chances into the light, facing toward the source, the queen volte faces abruptly and runs off. (Among numerous observations, this test was repeated in one instance 12 times in 30 minutes with the same queen,—always with the described result.) When illumination is not intense the response is more variable, yet even then as a rule the queen settles down only when in a fairly dark part of the nest.

In contrast to the queen, the workers seem virtually incapable of specific orienting responses to light. They are aroused to activity by light after a period of darkness; thus colonies are regularly stimulated to begin their daily raiding after dawn (Schneirla, 1938; 1940). This however is a mere photokinetic effect (*i.e.*, a generalized excitation by light), and they appear incapable of orienting to directionalized illumination except in a very crude fashion as an outcome of restless movements over a considerable time. That the basis of this outstanding difference between queen and workers rests in different optoneural equipment is suggested by the fact that in *E. hamatum* the gross size of the queen's lateral pseudo-ocellus is more than twice that of the major worker's. We should expect to find correspondingly accentuated differences in the internal structure of the visual receptor, and in related mechanisms, underlying the queen's pronounced normal reactivity to light.[6]

This recalls the fact that the fertilized queens of ants in general are repelled by light. Whether the Eciton queen, like any others, is positive to light prior to fertilization cannot be said at present; however, the sharpness of the functional queen's avoidance response is clear. The basis of a highly adaptive circumstance is thereby provided—that the queen is cloistered in a well-protected situation except when the colony shifts its home site. The prevalence of this condition is attested by the fact that Eciton queens are never seen at other times, as during raids—its effectiveness is emphasized by the difficulties one experiences in capturing these queens.

[6] Although no queen material was available for Werringloer's (1932) valuable histological study of Eciton visual mechanisms, species differences were found in optic histology which appear to parallel typical behavior differences.

That the queen keeps to the bivouac in the daytime, during raids, is not attributable to any inability to follow the colony's trails. In the laboratory, captive hamatum queens may run for hours at a time in a column following a circular path established by workers or, when one is set down near a vacated trail of her own colony in the forest, she follows the route successfully once she hits upon it. Evidently it is her ''photophobic'' proclivities that mainly account for the queen's sequestration in the bivouac.

Although for a long time the idea has held sway that the army-ant queen is moved passively about by the workers when the colony shifts its site, in *Eciton s. str.* the facts are contrary to this supposition. In laboratory nests the queen readily makes her way about despite the usual added burden of several workers hitch-hiking and dragging from her legs or gaster. The physical characteristics of her well-developed legs give every indication of great strength, as does her robust frame in general—an impression borne out fully by her behavior. The test comes during the long bivouac-change march in the wild when the queen must make her way over a route generally much longer than 100 meters, passing along a narrow and tortuous trail full of hazards such as vine bridges and sharp turns although she is swarmed under at nearly every step by a frenzied crowd of workers.

On a number of occasions the hamatum queen's participation in the colony movement has been observed, always at night except in two instances when colonies were greatly oversize and the movements unduly extended. The bivouac-change usually gets under way before dusk and is completed during the night, with the queen coming along during the latter part and frequently near the very end of the trek. The explanation seems to be that she is normally stationed in the innermost recesses of the cluster, centered in the brood with a mass of workers minor around her, in a section of the bivouac which is likely to be almost the last to be drawn into the evacuation.

Just before the queen appears from the bivouac there is a very noticeable increase in excitement among the workers on the trail, agitated variable movement becomes common instead of the monotonous plodding seen previously, and the column begins to widen perceptibly from the 2–3 cm. which is characteristic. As the column becomes more crowded it broadens to as much as 15 cm. within a few minutes, then the queen appears in the thickest part. As the queen moves along she is not only surrounded by jostling workers of all sizes, but much of the time is literally covered with them, has them underfoot and hanging to her. The workers hamper her movements particularly when she slows in mounting steep grades or in rounding sharp corners; at such times they may crowd around so that she is actually stopped for a time. The remarkable fact is that amid this great excitement and arduous labor the queen is able to follow the trail in its devious windings and through its difficult sections.[7] Tests show that this ability depends upon a response to Eciton chemical. For example, if the queen is taken up and returned to the route when there are no workers upon it, she follows it readily. There can be little doubt about the fact that the queens of *Eciton s. str.* participate quite actively in the bivouac-change movements of their colonies and get to the new site under their own power.

The adaptive significance of the workers' behavior toward the queen during the lengthy migratory trek deserves mention. Since at all times a high pitch of excitement is maintained in the queen's section of the march, any intrusion is immediately responded to by large numbers of frenzied workers so aroused that they bite and sting with very little provocation. In the darkness of night, the feverish activity that prevails in the few meters of column near the queen contrasts strongly with the lethargic monotonous lock-step movement that prevails throughout the other sections of the movement. Only in the entourage of the queen are the workers aroused to a degree of excitement and responsiveness that resembles their daytime activity in raiding. The outcome is that the colony's reproductive specialist is well protected at the time when exposure is great.

The strength and vitality of the queen are shown impressively when the colony is etherized for capture. Because of the agility and speed with which she is capable of moving when disturbed, the queen generally is able to make her escape from the bivouac while the principal mass of workers succumbs to the anaesthetic.

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[7] Reichensperger (1934) observed similar occurrences in a bivouac-change movement of an *E. lucanoides* colony in Costa Rica from which he captured the queen.

Thus she is frequently discovered under a leaf or piece of bark near the outer edge of the sheet used to imprison the bivouac, still somewhat active although workers in numbers lie prone around her, and if the way is not blocked she may make good her escape along a raiding trail.

Wheeler (1921) has remarked upon the possibility that an extensive development in the respiratory system of the Eciton queen is an important adaptation to a sequestered bivouac life. The pronounced development of this system in general is indicated by the prominence of the spiracles, the external openings of the breathing tubes. With a highly efficient mechanism for gaseous exchange, it is possible for the queen, despite her huge bulk and relatively great oxygen needs, to remain for long times within the close air of the bivouac without any apparent detriment to health. Furthermore, the large size of the main tracheal vessels of the abdomen and the extensive ramifications of these vessels among the reproductive and other visceral organs indicates that the queen is well equipped in this respect to meet the crucial demands of a greatly increased metabolism during her brief gestational periods.

Although nothing is known concerning the Eciton queen's normal span of life with her colony, in all probability it is equal at least to one rainy season. However, the hamatum queen for some reason is particularly short-lived after removal from the midst of her colony. Three of our 13 contracted specimens lived only two days and only one lived longer than seven days in captivity after capture (see Table I). As a control, one queen (1938 B) was permitted to remain with her colony for more than two weeks in the laboratory, then was removed (without anæsthesis) in good condition, yet this queen died within four days after she was segregated with a small group of workers. Removal from the colony thus seems to introduce some change which makes inevitable the early death of captive Eciton queens. Although in this study various preliminary attempts were made to discover the nature of the lethal factor, the results were not sufficiently clear to warrant discussion here.[8] Whatever this factor may be,

[8] A possibility worth testing is that the Eciton queen when isolated from the mass of her colony is deprived of some essential food substance. For instance, Zahl (1939) has found that workers and queens of the tropical ponerine ant *Dinoponera grandis* sicken and die after a few weeks in captivity unless a larval brood is present in the colony.

it appears to be specific for queens and not for workers, since in all cases workers remained alive in captivity for weeks after their queens had died.

From the above description of workers' responses to the queen during the bivouac-change movement, it is apparent that she must exert a powerfully attractive stimulative effect upon them. The basis appears to be mainly chemical. Even to the human observer the queen is distinguished by a delicate, fragrant odor, quite unlike the heavy, somewhat fœtid odor characteristic of Eciton workers. Workers are especially attracted to pieces of cardboard formerly in use as floors for the queen's cell, and will collect in the one of two compartments in which a queen has rested for a time. In artificial nests they gather about her, and follow closely as she runs about. When she comes to rest they pile the brood around her, and spend much time licking her and stroking her with antennæ. Our queens, placed in small wire cells at the top of the large cylindrical nests in which their respective colonies were clustered, were visited by large numbers of minim workers which penetrated the fine screening and remained to cluster in the cell. Thus the queen may be considered a factor of some importance in normal trophallaxis (Wheeler, 1928), the stimulative interrelationship of individuals which provides the basis for social organization.[9]

Characteristics and behavior of the physogastric queen.—At the time this study began a number of queens of *Eciton s. str.* species had been captured in various parts of Central and South America: notably *E. burchelli* by Wheeler (1921) in British Guiana, *E. vagans* by Gaige in Colombia (Wheeler, 1921), *E. hamatum* by Wheeler (1925), and *E. lucanoides* and *E. mattogros-*

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[9] However, it is doubtful that the workers in general are widely sensitive to the actual presence or absence of the queen as Wheeler (1921) implies they were in the case of a colony of *E. burchelli* from which the queen was removed. ''I infer,'' he says, ''that this was the only remaining female in the colony, for after her removal a perceptible apathy or dejection seemed to fall on the whole body of ants'' (p. 298). Actually, this effect of ''apathy,'' specifically a rather abrupt drop in general activity, characteristically ensues after large numbers of the ants have been stirred up and then permitted to recluster. Once reclustered, they fall into a lethargic condition whether or not the queen has been removed, hence this behavior cannot be attributed to a removal of the queen.

sense by Reichensperger (1926, 1934) and *E. quadriglume* and *E. rogeri* in the Argentine by correspondents of Carlos Bruch (1934). Thus by 1934 the queens of nearly all of the species of *Eciton sensu stricto* had been taken. It is interesting to note that in all of these cases the queen's gaster was contracted, a circumstance which led various writers (*e.g.*, Bruch, 1934) to conclude that the queen in question was "young," or "virgin."

The experience of the present writer was similar in capturing *Eciton s. str.* queens in Panama for behavior studies. In 1933 two queens, *E. hamatum* and *E. burchelli,* were taken; in 1936 four queens, one of *E. lucanoides* and three of *E. hamatum,* and in 1938 nine more of the last species, all of them alike in the fully contracted condition (see Table I). From these and other facts it becomes apparent that few if any of the queens of *Eciton s. str.* reported in the literature could have been virgin when captured,[10] and that the dichthadiigyne must be capable of returning to the contracted state after having delivered eggs. This interpretation in fact was offered as one alternative by Wheeler (1925) in reporting the first capture of the queen of *E. hamatum.*

Early in the present investigation, evidence concerning periodic changes in colony behavior, together with the experience of capturing numerous queens singly from colonies with broods in all stages of development, strongly indicated that the queen must pass repeatedly from the contracted to the physogastric condition, remaining in the latter condition only briefly before returning to the contracted state. Finally it became clear circumstantially that the eggs of a given brood must be laid during a short period of a few days near the end of the first week of the statary phase in colony behavior, when the colony is non-migratory.

Following this conclusion, in 1938 an effort was made to capture a hamatum colony at the critical time, which on circumstantial grounds was placed about seven days after the beginning of the statary period. On July 21 a colony (record number *38 H*) was found which although nomadic at the time was evidently nearing the statary phase, judging from the fact that its larval

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[10] Probable exceptions are the two queens of *E. burchelli* taken by Wheeler and Emerson at Kartabo, British Guiana, in 1920 (Wheeler, 1921), in which circumstances point to the recent emergence of at least one and perhaps both of them from cocoons.

brood seemed very advanced and about ready to spin cocoons. After three further bivouac-change movements on successive days, when spinning appeared to be mainly finished in the brood, the colony settled down at a spot near station 4, Barbour trail.[11]

The statary bivouac was formed in a deep cranny near one end of a decayed fallen tree-trunk. The cluster formed a long elliptical curtain-mass filling the opening of the niche. On each of the following days, when the colony was revisited, the ants had only one raiding-system, a typical sign of the statary condition. The site was revisited on July 30, *i.e.,* one week after the beginning of the statary period, with materials for capturing the colony.

The colony had withdrawn about 30 cm. farther into the recess, very probably in response to frequent spattering by rain. Fortunately it was still fairly accessible. The bivouac was quiet, its forward wall sprinkled with ants holding cocoons in their mandibles. A dampened sheet was fastened securely across the opening to entrap the ants, then was sprinkled with ether. After four minutes, when the covering was removed, the major portion of the colony, a mingled heap of ants and cocoons on the floor of the cavity, was quickly scooped into a large jar. A few strands of ants still hanging, together with masses of eggs and clusters of small workers from the rear of the bivouac, were put into a second jar. In examining the material promptly after returning to the laboratory the first jar was found to contain the major part of the large enclosed pupal brood as well as most of the worker population. In the second jar, which contained workers and egg masses from the rear strands of the bivouac, a *physogastric queen* (Fig. 1) presently was brought to light in the part of the mass where workers minor and eggs were most numerous. Judging by relative positions in the jar, this queen must have occupied a position near the back of the cluster, probably among the hanging strands which contained most of the workers minor and most of the eggs. A careful inspection of the material revealed no other queens, no males, and two broods—a large enclosed pupal brood and an enormous clutch of recently delivered eggs.

Within the following twenty-four hours, which proved to be the

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[11] The queen was seen in the procession during the final bivouac-change movement, and was judged to be in the contracted condition at that time.

span of life remaining to the *38 H* dichthadiigyne, her behavior was studied as continuously as other duties permitted.—

A few minutes after she was removed from the jar (4: 30 P.M., one hour after capture) the queen appeared to be recovering from anæsthesis, as indicated by reflex twitchings of tarsi and antennæ, although most of the workers remained immobile. At 4: 45 P.M. she had recovered sufficiently to gain an upright posture and had laid 20 eggs. At 5: 10 P.M. she was running about the Petri dish in which she had been placed, despite the trammeling effects of her huge distended gaster which tilted to one side or the other as she moved. From rough measurements at that time, her gaster was 16.5 mm. in length.

Until 8: 15 P.M. the queen remained undisturbed in a darkened Petri dish, laying more than 300 eggs. Then for an hour she was exposed at intervals to brilliant photoflood light when motion pictures were taken. Despite evident disturbance from the light, marked by shock reactions when light was introduced and by turning from the source, there was a describable regularity about the queen's behavior during this interval. There were successive periods of a few minutes each in which the queen stood in place, observably engaged in egg-laying, with intermittent periods in which she ran about the dish more or less continuously, dragging or carrying numerous workers on her gaster and followed closely by others. At no time was she moved by the workers, although generally a number of them remained close to her whether or not she was in motion.

The following representative notes were taken during two of the quiescent intervals, the first lasting 5 minutes after 9: 37 P.M. and the second 2 minutes after 9: 44 P.M.:

The queen abruptly breaks pace and suddenly stops in place, headed away from the photoflood source. She stands firmly on all six legs, with the ventral surface of the gaster resting on the floor. In oviposition, the eggs emerge in a wide jet from the vaginal orifice, and spread out radially upon the hypogynium. The process is marked by slight laterad oscillations of the the gaster and a shivering of the body and legs, which cease when eggs no longer emerge.—Eggs were laid during both of these halts.

At 11: 30 P.M. the queen with 6 workers was placed in dim light for observation. During the next 90 minutes there were 11 quiescent periods, varying between 30 sec. and 11 min. in duration (6 of them lasting between 1 and 4 min.). The intervening periods of activity were shorter, most of them around 3 min. in duration. In each case, locomotion began rather abruptly. The quiescent periods likewise began abruptly, with the queen usually sprawling close to the floor at once. Generally she stopped in a position facing away from the light, which although dim was sufficient to orient her. In some of the shorter intervals no eggs were laid. In the course of one or two of the longest stops, the queen shifted position briefly or moved forward a short distance once during the interval. The workers remained close to her, frequently applying their mouth parts to her body at the vaginal orifice and at the surface of the hypogynium and licking these surfaces. After one of the stops a drop of viscous greenish-yellow fluid remained where the tip of the queen's gaster had rested. The workers soon found this drop and applied their mouth parts to it, evidently feeding.—Observations were discontinued at 1: 30 A.M., since no eggs had been laid during the preceding 30 minutes.—Between 5: 10 P.M. and 12: 00 A.M., 1245 eggs were laid.

In the morning, at 6: 30 A.M., only 358 eggs were found to have been laid during the night (*i.e.*, after 1: 30 A.M.). As before, alternating periods of quiescence and of activity were observed. Between 8: 15 and 9: 54 A.M. the queen was shielded by a ruby-glass filter and remained under observation. During this interval there were sixteen quiescent periods alternating with intervals of continuous locomotion, virtually all of the phases of quiescence and of activity falling between 1 and 4 min. in duration. In some of the stops between 20 and 30 eggs were laid, in others no eggs. The following notes typify egg-laying behavior:

8: 23 to 8: 26 A.M.—The queen stops abruptly, facing away from the weak light. Promptly there begins a shivering movement of the gaster, increasing at times to an oscillatory movement; then the oscillation becomes continuous, at times reaching 1 mm. in amplitude. These oscillations of the gaster begin locally and increase in amplitude, meanwhile spreading to include the entire body with the legs participating. Near the height of such spasms the eggs begin to appear. A jet of eggs between 12 and 15 units wide is forced slowly from the vagina directly backward over the hypogynium, with the eggs fanning radially to each side as they emerge. The eggs in small packets are either picked off by the workers or drop to the floor when the queen moves away.—Finally the queen breaks abruptly into motion, in an interval of locomotion which lasts 4 minutes in this case.

At 4: 15 P.M. the queen seemed less energetic than in the morning, and had laid only about 60 eggs since 10: 00 A.M. For about 20 minutes she was exposed to bright sunlight while photographs were taken, and although she was shaded between exposures the intense light appeared to exert a decidedly injurious effect upon her. At length she fell upon one side with flexed legs, unable to regain an upright position. At 6: 00 P.M. there were unmistakable signs of approaching death, which in the contracted queen is characterized by intermittent struggling and by local tarsal and antennal reflexes lasting a number of hours.—At 6: 30 P.M. she was chloroformed for fixation in Carnoy's solution and eventual preservation in 70% alcohol.

Notwithstanding the fact that disturbances incident to laboratory captivity must have disrupted the normal oviposition mechanism greatly, and although the factors which characteristically hasten death in captive Eciton queens must have been at work, certain inferences concerning the normal circumstances of physogastric function may be drawn from these observations. Concerning the queen herself, the regular occurrence of short intervals of action and of quiescence (and egg-laying) in alternation indicates that a rhythmic process underlies the delivery of eggs from the ovarioles. The abrupt onset of each quiescent period together with the oscillatory movements of the gaster and at times the entire body during oviposition speak for the operation of a fairly distinct egg-laying process arising at short intervals. Likewise, the abruptness with which the queen broke into motion after each quiescent period indicates the regular recurrence of a rhythmic change in this process, evidently a phase during which more eggs became viscerally available for delivery.

Under the conditions of these observations the queen was attended by only a few workers, and space permitted her to run about in the intervals between egg-laying stops. It is probable that under normal conditions in the bivouac, when she is surrounded by masses of workers, free locomotion is out of the question for the queen. In that situation her viscerally-stimulated overt activity must be reduced to stirring in place and to interstimulative relations with workers.

This queen died with a considerable portion of her eggs still undelivered, a fact which together with other circumstances indicates that in all probability lethal processes setting in with captivity impaired the egg-production rhythm seriously from the beginning. Under normal conditions in the bivouac this rhythm presumably functions smoothly and continuously throughout the period of approximately four days in which all of a given clutch of eggs is delivered. Then, as we shall see, circumstances are such that the queen, contracted once more but in an exhausted condition, may profit by a long interval of recuperation before the parturitive ordeal must be repeated.

Our results shed some light upon the behavioral relation of the physogastric queen to her colony. First of all, the fact that the queen is quite capable of locomotion during her time of physogastry effectively negates the hypothesis (Müller, 1886) that the colony must remain in place at such times because of an inability to drag along the heavy egg-laden queen. She moves readily, and even drags or carries workers about with her, hence there is reason to believe that she would be quite capable of joining a bivouac-change movement if one happened to get under way. She would have to make periodic (viscerally enforced) stops on the trail, but could make the trek even though it might well be fatal. We shall find that the sessile (*i.e.,* statary) status of the colony when the queen is laying her eggs is indeed related to the queen's oviposition cycle, but very indirectly, and very differently than the above hypothesis would suggest.

Our observations indicate that the normal stimulative attractiveness of the queen for the workers (*i.e.,* her trophallactic relationship with workers) is considerably increased during the time of oviposition. The intersegmental membranes of her enormously swollen gaster and the hypogynium and vaginal regions in particular are highly effective centers of attraction. The workers are constantly crawling upon her and licking these regions as well as the eggs when they appear (*cf.* Wheeler, 1900) and the (evidently much relished) small drops of fecal material which issue at times after egg-depositing episodes.[12]

There can be little question that this queen produced all of the eggs taken with the colony, a total of 17,062, which was estimated to be two or three thousand short of the actual number laid prior to capture. To this we may add 2,046 eggs laid while the queen was held captive, and 7,190 unlaid eggs taken from her gaster in post-mortem study. The total of 26,298 eggs approaches fairly close to the size of Eciton brood populations for which census studies have been made in other cases, offering further evidence that one individual dichthadiigyne is capable of delivering single broods of that size. In view of circumstances indicating that the eggs of each huge brood are laid within a short interval of probably no more than three or four days, the entire performance seems quite worthy of being termed a stupendous feat.

The great susceptibility to death of the Eciton queen in this condition is attested by the fact that our specimen survived only about 30 hours after capture. It is probable of course that her demise was hastened by the anæsthesis and by other shock-effects (*e.g.,* from intense light during photography), yet the fact that *contracted* queens similarly treated usually remain alive for as long as a week in captivity speaks for a specific physiological vulnerability to non-optimal conditions in the *gravid* Eciton

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[12] Emerson (1939) has reported a similar observation for queen-worker relationships during egg-laying in termites.

queen. It is a fact of great adaptive significance that during this biologically critical time the dichthadiigyne ordinarily is assured the essential optimal situation through the operation of intrinsic factors which render the colony sessile. No less remarkable is the fact that *the queen herself, through her peculiar reproductive properties, is indirectly the basic controller of this state of affairs.*

EVIDENCE FOR A FUNCTIONAL RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN BROOD AND COLONY

Significant periodic differences in colony behavior.—As the first step toward working out relationships between the queen and her colony, let us examine the general situation of the series of *E. hamatum* colonies from which queens were captured for this study (see Table I).

In their behavior twelve of the hamatum colonies (*i.e.*, colonies *33 A; 36 A, B, D,* and *G;* and *38 C, X, D, E, F, G,* and *I*) from which queens were taken conform to the pattern previously described as "nomadic" (Schneirla, 1938). On the other hand only three (*i.e.*, colonies *38 A, B,* and *H*) conform to the pattern described as "statary." Since all of these colonies were studied for at least three days prior to capture, and some of them for longer times, any important deviations should have become apparent; but in all cases there appeared very clearly the characteristics of one or the other of the described activity patterns.

In cases showing the *nomadic* pattern, all of the colonies were *migratory,* that is, they had all engaged in bivouac-change movements near the end of each day in the period preceding capture. Without exception among many observations, the raiding activities of a given day *were terminated* by a complete movement of the colony, generally during the evening and early night, so that the next day found the colony developing a new raid from a different site generally more than 100 meters removed from the last.

Although their bivouacs were situated in rather different topographical circumstances, the clusters of the "nomadic" colonies were not secluded as is typical of statary colonies. The former almost without exception established themselves beneath logs, under matted vines, or against the sides of trees between buttressed roots, seldom within cavities such as hollow logs or trees. As a rule the larger portion of the more or less cylindrical mass

TABLE I

DATA RELEVANT TO THE 15 QUEENS OF *E. hamatum* CAPTURED IN THE PRESENT STUDY, AND TO THE COLONIES FROM WHICH THESE QUEENS WERE TAKEN (*cf.* FIG. 2)

Colony	Date (when queen captured; brood sampled)	Condition of queen, and span of life in captivity	Brood or broods			Colony behavior
			Eggs*	Larvæ*	Pupæ	
1933A	6/16/33	Contracted		Early stage		Nomadic
1936A	9/14/36	Contracted (6 da.)		Early stage	(Callows)	Newly nomadic
B	8/ 8/36	Contracted (3 da.)		Early	(Callows)	Newly nomadic
D	9/ 8/36	Contracted (4 da.)		Nearly mature		Nomadic
G	9/12/36	Contracted (7 da.)		Advanced		Nomadic
1938A	6/11/38	Contracted (7 da.)		$R = 0.36–0.73$ mm. $M = 0.46$ mm.	Advanced	*Statary*
B	6/15/38	Contracted (3 da.)		$R = 0.40–0.66$ mm. $M = 0.51$ mm.	Advanced	*Statary*
C	6/19/38	Contracted (3 da.)		$R = 0.35–2.0$ mm. $M = 0.75$ mm.		Newly nomadic
D	6/22/38	Contracted (10 da.)		$R = 0.44–3.68$ mm. $M = 1.23$ mm.		Nomadic
E	6/28/38	Contracted (7 da.)		$R = 0.35–4.20$ mm. $M = 1.8$ mm.		Nomadic
F	6/30/38	Contracted (4 da.)		$R = 0.60–4.35$ mm. $M = 1.76$ mm.		Nomadic
G	7/12/38	Contracted (6 da.)		$R = 2.10–6.58$ mm. $M = 3.32$ mm.		Nomadic
X	6/28/38	Contracted (2 da.)		$R = 0.36–0.73$ mm. $M = 0.47$ mm.	Callows	Nomadic
H	7/30/38	*Physogastric* (30 hr.)	$R = 0.26–0.58$ mm. $M = 0.47$ mm.		Early pupal	*Statary*
J	8/ 8/38	Contracted (returned to colony after 12 hr.)		Very young larvæ		Nomadic

* The growth stage of the respective broods taken in 1938 is represented by data on the range (R) and the mean (M) of body lengths (samples ranged between 25 and 200 specimens from each colony). The writer wishes to express his thanks to Miss Ruth Greene, who generously contributed her time to gather these data.

The larvæ of various *Eciton* species have been described by G. C. Wheeler (1943) with a key for their identification.

of ants was fairly exposed to view. It is typical that the bivouacs of nomadic colonies are far more readily approached and observed than are those of statary colonies.

In their raiding, particularly, colonies in the two behavior conditions exhibited very different characteristics. In the nomadic condition the Ecitons always staged vigorous daily raids which began promptly with the first daylight and grew rapidly into the characteristic maximal raiding pattern of the species. In *E. hamatum* this is marked by the growth of two or three (generally three) principal raiding systems, each a tree-like pattern of trails with a single principal trail as its line of communication with the bivouac. Although of course the details of the trail systems vary considerably according to the situation of the bivouac and the general topography, invariably multiple trail-systems are found under nomadic conditions. At such times a maximal number of ants from the population is drawn into the daily foray, developing extensive and complexly branched trails on a widespread front of raiding. With the raid probing out along a number of principal lines, the usual result is that roughly three-fourths of the circular zone around the bivouac is invaded, with the consequence that relatively enormous quantities of booty (mainly the soft-bodied young of other insects) are gathered in. *While nomadic, a colony remains near its peak of vigor in raiding and in other activities.*

With those colonies in the statary condition when their queens were captured the case was quite different in all important respects concerning behavior. Colonies *38 A, B,* and *H* were all known to have remained in their same bivouacs at least three days prior to capture. Colony *H,* for example, after three observed daily bivouac-changes, clustered within a large crevice in the side of a massive log on July 22, 1938, and was found in the same place and in almost the same spot on July 30, when captured.

Other evidence has been offered (Schneirla, 1933, 1940) for the existence of the statary period as a distinctive ''sessile'' phase of Eciton life. Observations on particular colonies extending over considerable periods have shown that once a hamatum colony enters a statary phase, it remains bivouacked in the same place and exhibits other characteristic "statary" features of behavior during a period of approximately 19 days, before a major change occurs.

The fact will be recalled that of the fourteen colonies from which queens were captured in this study, only three were taken in the statary condition. This difference is scarcely a matter of accident, but is due to the relatively secluded locations taken by colonies of *Eciton s. str.* when they are statary. Colony *38 H*, clustered in a deep crevice on the outer wall of a huge log, was unusually accessible for a statary colony. The virtual impregnability of statary colonies is attributable to two facts in particular. First, they are commonly clustered within a cavity, generally in a hollow log or tree. Colony *38 A* had to be extracted from a hollow log, colony *38 B* from within the large hollow root of a standing tree, by drilling a circle of holes with brace and bit and breaking out an opening through which the ants could be removed by hand.[13] Then, too, if a statary colony happens to settle where it is somewhat exposed to the elements, disturbance from wind, rain or sunlight causes the ants to shift their position so that after a few days capturing them would require the assistance of a wrecking crew. The proneness of colonies to cluster in hollow logs or trees when entering the statary period stands as a highly adaptive circumstance for which no specific explanation can be advanced at the present time.

Without exception, each of our three statary colonies from which queens were obtained had a single raiding system when captured. This pattern is readily recognized by the presence of just one principal raiding trail leading from the bivouac, rather than two or three as in the nomadic phase. Distance reached from the bivouac in the raiding is not a secure criterion of its relative vigor, since in the statary phase the chemically-marked route of a previously used trail may be employed on more than one day so that such trails often become greatly extended beyond the distances ordinarily reached in nomadic-phase raiding. As more certain indications of reduced raiding, the number of principal systems is one rather than three, and there is a smaller

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[13] Dr. Neal Weber kindly assisted in this operation, which was completed in a torrential rain.

number of branch trails in that system than is characteristic of a raiding system in the nomadic phase. Thus, *in the statary phase, raiding activity falls much below the level of vigor and of numbers involved during the nomadic phase.*

Before considering the relationship of these periodic differences in Eciton behavior, it is desirable to examine correlated differences in the internal constitution of the colony.

Intrinsic conditions underlying colony behavior.—A consideration of the internal characteristics of the colonies (see Table I) shows that the external behavior differences were paralleled by others no less outstanding. The intrinsic differences may be represented by a comparison of the two groups of colonies in terms of their condition and the status of their brood or broods when the queens were captured.

First of all, it should be emphasized that the broods invariably were *worker broods,* and that no batch of larvæ or pupæ contained individuals departing sufficiently from the others in form or size to suggest the anlagen of fertile forms. This statement is of course not based upon our present facts alone, but finds its main support in an examination of hundreds of Eciton broods on Barro Colorado Island in *rainy months* between May 15 and September 20 in four different years which has disclosed none but worker forms in them.

Another fact of significance is that while each of the broods contained tens of thousands of individuals, all members of a given brood were *roughly at the same stage of development.* This condition held not only when a single brood in the larval stage was present, but also for cases in which there were two broods (*i.e.*, a pupal brood in addition to a brood in the very early larval condition). This statement, likewise, is based not only upon the present data but also upon the invariable finding that in *E. hamatum* the entire population of a given mature larval brood terminates that stage and spins cocoons within a very few days, and that pupal broods mature and are removed from their cocoons as callows within a similarly short period of three or four days.

All three of our statary colonies had two broods at well-separated points of development, a fact which we shall find characteristic of the *latter* part of this activity phase. Colony *38 H* contained a well-advanced pupal brood as well as a massive batch of newly laid eggs. Colony *38 A* contained a still more advanced pupal brood, and its younger brood had largely hatched and passed into the early larval period. The two broods of colony *38 B* corresponded in general to those of *38 A*. In the early days of the statary period only one brood (always a pupal brood) is present.

In contrast, the nomadic colonies each contained only a single brood, in every case *in the larval condition.* From the size data on these broods, represented in Table I by the averages and ranges of individual body lengths, it is apparent that the broods were at very different stages of development when the colonies were captured. If a greater magnitude of body length in the brood (as indicated by larger averages and greater ranges) may be taken as valid evidence for an advanced point in growth, the nomadic colonies captured in 1938 may be placed in the following sequence: *X, C, D, E, F* and *G*. It will be noticed that with the single exception of colony *X,* there is a correspondence between the chronological order of capture and the growth point attained by the respective broods. The possible significance of this fact will be considered in a later connection.

When we bring together our facts concerning the external and internal characteristics of the colony, a significant parallelism is evident between them for both the nomadic and the statary phases. In the statary phase 1) the colony does not migrate but remains in a given place, 2) by virtue of its secluded location it is well protected from the elements and from animals, 3) it raids minimally and is comparatively lethargic, and 4) it contains a pupal brood and in its latter part (*e.g.,* colonies *38 A, B,* and *H*) eggs or a young larval brood as well. *The most significant parallel circumstances are a low condition of colony activity and a brood* (*or broods*) *incapable of overt activity.*

In sharp contrast to the above situation, a colony in the nomadic phase 1) regularly moves to a new bivouacking site at the end of each raiding day, 2) generally bivouacs in fairly open places, 3) raids maximally and appears to be always (*i.e.,* in the daytime) near the peak of activity, and 4) contains a single brood in a more or less advanced larval phase. In this case, *the* *most significant parallel circumstances are a high point in colony activity and the presence of a larval brood which is capable of overt activity.*

Theoretical explanation of the parallelism between brood condition and colony behavior.—These facts suggest that a causal relationship exists between the condition of the brood and the circumstances of general activity in the colony. The conclusion appears justified that conditions arising from the capacity of the

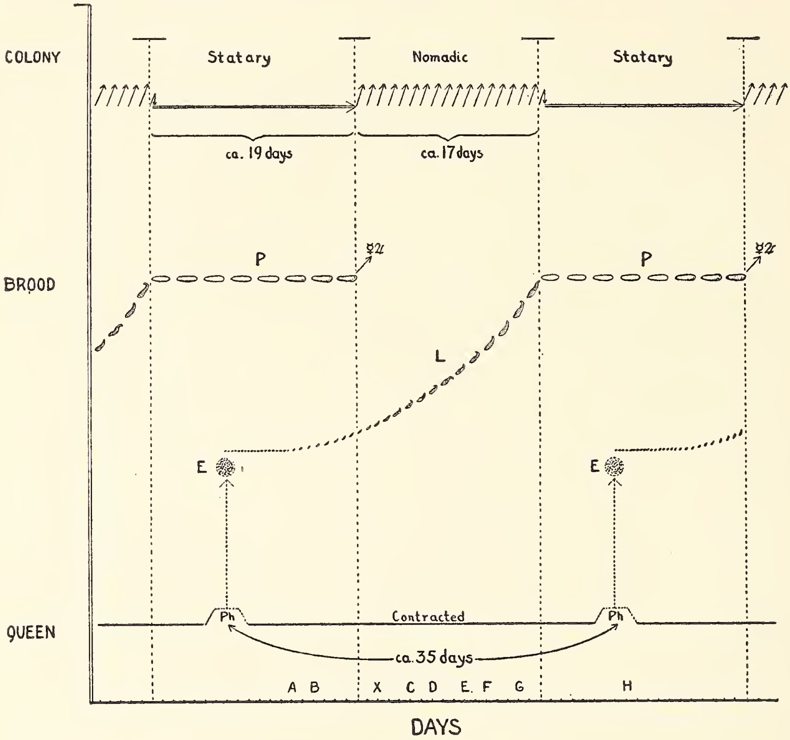

FIG. 2. Schema to represent concurrent events in *colony behavior* (top), *condition of the brood,* and *function of the queen* in *E. hamatum.* (The sequence of given events in the colony may be traced horizontally, the concurrence of events, vertically.) *A–H,* approximate situation of the respective colonies from which queens were captured in 1938; *Ph,* physogastric interval of the queen; *E,* egg mass delivered in given physogastric interval; *L,* larval stage of brood; *P,* pupal stage of brood; ☿ ♃, workers minor and major of a callow brood.

brood for overt activity somehow account for the critical difference which appears in general colony activity pattern when active broods rather than "passive" broods are present. This idea has been advanced in a previous connection (Schneirla, 1938) and will be carried further presently.

Evidence from field observation and special test supports this inference of a causal relationship dependent upon condition of the brood. Batches of eggs and very young larval broods (as in the statary colonies *38 A, B,* and *H*) are as a rule gathered into a single mass or a few masses which are covered and at times permeated by minim workers and are only very indirectly in contact with the adult population of the colony. On the other hand, when the larvæ have developed further (as in colonies *38 C, D, E, F, G,* and *X*) and their twisting movements become perceptible to the unaided eye, these masses are broken up and more or less distributed through the bivouac, so that larval activity and other stimulative effects may directly reach large numbers of adult workers. When the larvæ mature, and become enclosed in cocoons, it is apparent that in the ensuing pupal stage (as in colonies *38 A, B,* and *H*) they become passive contents of the bivouac. Heaped in interior pockets of the cluster and held by workers distributed through its wall, they are presumably neutral in importance or may actually exert a quieting effect upon the workers that clutch them in their mandibles, somewhat as the pressure of thumb-in-mouth pacifies an infant.

From laboratory observations we may say that through the presence of an active larval brood the workers are distinctly stimulated so that the amount and the vigor of their activity increases greatly. When Ecitons are divided into part-colonies of comparable size, it is the groups with larvæ that show the greater activity both within the confines of their artificial nest and in the frequency of visits to an adjoining food-place, as compared with groups that have no brood or have a pupal brood in cocoons. When we study the relationships of individuals within the nest, there are clear indications that this difference in activity level actually depends upon a stimulative effect from the larval brood. Typically the larval brood is spread over an area, usually around the queen if one is present. The workers move restlessly around, frequently touching the larvæ with mouth-parts or licking them, intermittently touching and stroking them with antennæ, often picking them up and shifting their position slightly or carrying them bodily from place to place. When pieces of food are carried into the innermost nest area, they are commonly deposited near the larvæ or actually laid upon them, so that in their almost incessant twisting movements the larvæ readily bring their mouth parts into contact with the food.[14] It is a common observation that stimulation from passing workers may arouse quiescent larvæ to squirming activity, or that chance stimulation from larvæ may bestir workers. It is manifest that the larvæ thus in a number of ways arouse the adults to increased activity, in the mutual stimulative relationship between adults and brood which Wheeler (1928) has termed "trophallaxis."[15]

On the other hand a group without any brood or with pupæ in cocoons is distinctly less lively than when larvæ are present. Even when exposed to light the workers seldom appear very excited, and most of the time they stand quietly over their heap of cocoons or near it, or move slowly about in the vicinity. Under these conditions Ecitons are chronically less feverish in their activity, indulge in many fewer excursions from the nest, and hence they carry in far less food than in the larva-containing situation. We may say that *the group or colony which contains active larvæ as in the nomadic period has a special source of colony "drive."* In contrast, in the statary period, this factor is greatly reduced when interindividual stimulation is limited to relationships among adult workers themselves.[16]

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[14] Gallardo (1920) has commented upon the great mobility of Eciton larvæ.

[15] The gastric anatomy of the larvæ of *E. burchelli* and the feeding behavior of these larvæ have been described by Wheeler and Bailey (1920). In this species the larva is fed at frequent intervals on boluses composed of the soft parts of insect prey, laid by the workers upon the ventrum of the larva or actually thrust into the larval gullet.

[16] From his observations on a colony of *E. burchelli,* Wm. Müller (1886) inferred that an increase or decrease in the raiding activities of a colony is attributable to the relative need of the brood for food.

> "Larven brauchen ja im allgemeinen, besonders kurze Zeit vor der Verpuppung, bedeutend mehr Nahrung als die fertigen Insekten, und so scheint nichts natürlicher, als dass das Nahrungsbedürfnis der

However, in a statary colony with advanced pupæ there is a marked change in the general level of activity when the nearly mature individuals begin to move within their cocoons. When a close approach to the end-point of pupal development is indicated by the appearance of a distinct pigmentation of eyes, mandibles, and anterior sections of the body, activities such as twitchings of the legs and slight turnings of the body become observable. Such movements of the pupæ may be increased by picking individuals up with tweezers or by lightly probing the body, just as they are perceptibly elicited when the cocoons are picked up by workers. The stirring of mature pupæ appears to excite the workers and evidently leads to the removal of the brood from cocoons; the envelopes readily tearing open as the workers manhandle them (Schneirla, 1934, pp. 320–321). That the opening of cocoons depends critically upon pupal movements is suggested by the fact that test groups did not open cocoons in which the advanced pupæ had been killed with a needle (*op. cit.*, 1938, p. 66).

There is a distinct increase of excitement in an Eciton colony as emergence of its brood gets under way. The excitement rises in crescendo until, a day or two later when the largest part of the brood is free and active as callow individuals, the colony shakes itself from the statary period by staging an exceptionally vigorous raid *ending in a bivouac-change movement.* Laboratory observations show that in the appearance of a new pupal brood and in the strong stimulative effects from callows during their first few days as ''free'' individuals in the colony, an Eciton worker population receives a great lift in internal ''drive.'' The conclusion seems in order that this internal change is responsible for setting a colony into the nomadic phase.

> Gesellschaft ein geringeres wird und die Tiere entsprechend weniger auf Beute ausgehen, nachdem alle Larven eingesponnen'' (p. 87).

While this point undoubtedly has relevance to the *phylogenetic* problem (concerning the evolution of the Eciton behavior pattern) and describes an important adaptive function of the pattern, it is teleological and misleading if applied to the *ontogenetic* problem (concerning the contemporary causation of the pattern in a given colony). As the present discussion shows, it is not the brood's food-consuming capacity as such, but the presence or absence of incidental tactuo-chemical stimulation from the brood which critically governs periodic changes in colony behavior.

Our theory thus accounts for the nomadic-statary (rainy-season) cycle of Eciton colony activity in terms of cyclical changes in the internal stimulative properties of different broods. In Figure 2 the relationship is represented schematically in terms of a diphasic diagram, on which are indicated the positions evidently attained by our colonies at the times their respective queens and broods were captured. The "trough" phase of the cycle signifies the statary period, in which the colony is held in position and is comparatively inactive and the brood or broods relatively passive in their social rôles. A colony enters this statary phase when the enclosure of its mature larval brood removes the major internal source of special social stimulation. The appearance of a new brood as eggs laid after about one-third of the period has elapsed does not materially change general colony behavior, since with this brood concentrated in masses, incapable of movement, it can exert only a relatively negligible stimulative effect upon the general population. As a matter of fact, the vigor of raiding seems to decrease somewhat toward the middle of the statary period, and hamatum colonies sometimes show raidless days then (also *E. burchelli,* as Müller (1886) noticed). With social stimulation low throughout the period, the workers are only weakly stimulated to leave the colony in raiding, with the result that statary-period raids are relatively feeble as compared with nomadic-period raids.

We may say that in the statary period a low summation of colony excitement directly expresses its limitations in the underdevelopment of raiding, which roughly is only about one-third as extensive as in the nomadic period. Such raids may be regarded as underdeveloped not only in their restricted numbers and scope but also in falling below the threshold of development at which a bivouac-change movement becomes inevitable.

To speak of a "threshold" of raiding essential for new behavior requires us to show why underdeveloped raids cannot lead into a colony movement. This has been done in special studies of the relationship between raiding and the bivouac-change movement (Schneirla, 1938, 1944) which bring out the reason why a colony can withdraw to its original bivouac from an underdeveloped statary-period raid but must move onward when a maximal nomadic-period raid has been staged. The actual behavior process, fairly complex, centers around the fact that in the statary period the colony is insufficiently rearoused (by regular post-meridional atmospheric changes) after the midday lull in activity, so that no exodus exists capable of blocking the principal trail to returning raiders. In the nomadic period, on the other hand, the afternoon rearousal produces a lasting afternoon exodus from the bivouac which forcibly reorients returning raiders outward in at least one trail system; then a movement from the bivouac persists on this route, eventually draining the entire colony to a new bivouacking site. Thus when extrinsic stimulation (from light in particular) drops away at dusk, a colony in the statary phase loses its principal source of arousal and gradually approaches quiescence; whereas a colony in the nomadic phase when raiding declines with dusk possesses an adequate and persistent internal ''drive'' facilitating the vigorous exodus already in progress. The key to the situation appears to be the radical difference in the intrinsic properties of colonies in these two conditions.

The break from the statary phase appears to be accomplished not through the influence of the new larval brood, which at that time seems insufficiently developed to be a social-stimulative factor of any account, but rather through activities centering around the maturation of the pupal brood and its appearance as an enormous horde of hyperactive, voracious callows. Invariably, hamatum colonies shift from their statary sites when the pupal brood has largely emerged; the deserted spot is littered with empty cocoons, and the first bivouac-change processions are distinguished by crowds of pale-colored callow workers. Circumstances indicate that the stimulative effect from tens of thousands of callows not only serves to bring the colony into nomadic life, but also persists for a few (apparently about five) days as a factor of similar influence and importance. Our colony *38 X* was taken at such a time. As a major source of stimulation, the presence of the callows appears to overlap the involvement of the new brood of larvæ, in that as the callows lose their early social-stimulative effect and merge into the adult worker population, the larvæ become increasingly functional in this respect. About five days after the nomadic period has begun, typically, the callows are almost indistinguishable from regular workers and (judging from laboratory observations) have dropped to the level of the ordinary workers in their trophallactic properties. Meanwhile, the larvæ have increased notably in size and activity, most of them are capable of feeding, and at this time they appear to constitute the new major source of social stimulation or intrinsic colony "drive." Our colony *38 C* was taken at such a time. When it was captured, the larval brood was distributed rather widely through the interior of the bivouac, and in the laboratory a pronounced activity was noted in all but the smallest size category.

Colonies *38 C, D, E, F,* and *G* (taken in chronological sequence) may be placed at successive points in the nomadic period on the basis of the invariable fact that an increasing development of the larval brood parallels an advance through this phase of activity (see Fig. 2). Not only are the trophallactic properties of the brood instrumental in maintaining the nomadic pattern of behavior by supporting daily maximal raids, but as the larvæ develop further their influence appears to increase. The apparent augmentation of their social effect probably is due to increased chemo-stimulative properties as well as to greater general activity as they grow. This is suggested by laboratory observations and by the fact that in the bivouac more advanced broods tend to be widely distributed through the cluster, single larvæ held by individual workers much more frequently than with younger broods. Thus the intrinsic "drive" effect of the brood not only maintains the nomadic pattern in the colony, so that maximal raids and bivouac-change movements appear regularly in the daily routine, but this relationship appears to rise through a crescendo as brood development nears its climax. Hence, near the end of the nomadic period, raids are more extensive and more heavily populated, and colony movements tend to carry over longer distances than earlier in the period. In particular, this is revealed by studies of individual colonies throughout the nomadic period (*e.g.,* colony *1936 A,*—Schneirla, 1938; also *E. burchelli,* colony *38 I,*—Schneirla, 1944).

As we have pointed out, in addition to postulating an excitation to "maximal' raiding through the drive effect of active broods, the theory postulates a given threshold in raiding which is essential for the occurrence of a bivouac-change. As the relationship has been worked out in a previous paper (*op. cit.,* 1938), only in the nomadic period does raiding attain the pattern (*i.e.,* three trail systems in *hamatum*) and the degree of colony involvement that is required if it is to eventuate in a colony movement. That the essential "maximal" pattern of activity in the colony depends specifically upon a characteristic larval-brood influence is suggested strikingly by the regularity with which colonies lapse into the statary period on the very day most of the larvæ have spun their cocoons.

It seems clear that since a critical difference in the pattern of hamatum colony behavior depends upon the condition of the brood, the ultimate determination of such matters resides in the individual that produces the broods, *i.e.,* the queen.

THE ECITON QUEEN AS PACEMAKER FOR COLONY BEHAVIOR

It is characteristic of *E. hamatum, E. burchelli,* and other representatively terrestrial species of *Eciton s. str.* (if not Ecitons generally), that broods appearing in the rainy season are very large, and that all individuals in a given brood develop concurrently. That is, in each new *hamatum* brood the eggs are laid within a span of a few days, pass through the larval period essentially in step, enter the pupal stage within about four days, and appear as callow workers all within a very short period. Obviously this state of affairs depends essentially upon the reproductive properties of the Eciton queen.

Let us first consider some further facts about brood development that throw light indirectly upon the capacities of the queen. Population studies have been made with four broods captured on Barro Colorado Island, with these results: *E. hamatum*—a larval brood, 26,452 individuals (not complete), a pupal brood, 31,379 individuals (fairly complete); *E. burchelli*—one complete larval brood of 36,888 individuals, and a pupal brood of 31,298 individuals. Then too, the mass of eggs from physogastric queen *38 H* totalled more than 26,000, probably with a few thousand missing. Since many other broods inspected in the egg, larval, or pupal condition were comparable in bulk with these populations which were actually counted and sized, it seems that the rainy-season broods of *E. hamatum* (and of *Eciton s. str.* broadly) are typically very large. In all probability the broods in this season comprise more than 25,000 individuals as a rule. That a single queen is capable of delivering an egg mass of these proportions within a few days is an impressive fact.

Beyond the fact that in nearly twenty captures we have never found more than one queen in a colony, and the fact that the enormous clutch of eggs in colony *38 H* may be attributed safely to a single queen, our evidence on condition of the broods seems to exclude any possibility that more than one queen figures in producing a given brood. First of all, the range and central tendency of body size in young and advanced larval broods are rather constant for given stages (see Table I). The range of individual sizes is at first limited (*e.g.*, colonies *38 H, A, B,* and *X*) but increases with the general age of the brood (colonies *38 C, D, E, F, G,* and others). That there is a definite unimodality in the distribution of individual sizes within a given brood was indicated by study of the broods mentioned above, and has been verified in all four of the broods surveyed in toto. Furthermore, all brood distributions are skewed toward the worker-minor extreme. With the population classified into five body-size categories (in terms of body length), with No. 1 the smallest and No. 5 the largest, the mode falls in category No. 2 as a rule, well below the median value. For example, in a hamatum pupal brood (of 31,379 individuals in cocoons) which was surveyed, the following distribution was found through the five size categories, from smallest (ca. 5 mm. long) to largest (ca. 10.5 mm. long): 5,209, 16,860, 8,072, 870, and 368, respectively. The prevalence of the described distribution pattern in Eciton brood populations indicates the involvement of a single reproductive source in each case, a maternal source having definite and regular properties.

As further evidence we may repeat the fact that enclosure of the larval brood and the opening of cocoons when a pupal brood hatches are matters of mass change, both events accompanied by prominent changes in colony behavior. In view of these considerations together with our invariable discovery of but one queen to a colony in many captures, the conclusion seems justified that these large worker broods appearing in *hamatum* (and in *burchelli*) colonies are attributable to single queens in the respective cases.[17]

Furthermore, the time relations of successive broods in given colonies are sufficiently predictable to suggest the function of but one queen in each case. The results from colony *36 A* (*E. hamatum*), which was studied during a period of 42 days, from August 5 to September 15, 1936, bear directly on this point (Schneirla, 1938). During seven weeks of observation, this colony passed from a statary period into a nomadic period which lasted 17 days, then spent 19 days in a new statary period, after which it entered a further nomadic period. Three successive broods were observed, all of them relatively immense and entirely composed of worker forms. The first of these broods terminated its development and appeared as callow workers when the study began. The second brood was present as developing larvæ through the complete nomadic period, was enclosed in cocoons and entered the phase of pupation when the fully observed statary period began, passed through its pupal development and appeared as callows as a further nomadic period got under way. The eggs of the third brood were laid at some time between August 28 and September 6, and this brood was well started on its larval development when the colony was captured September 15. In the end the colony was anæsthetized and thoroughly examined. Only one queen (in the contracted condition) was found.

This evidence is brought together in the schematic representation of the hamatum behavior cycle in Figure 2. The condition of the brood or broods as indicated at times of major change in colony behavior corresponds to the facts for colony *36 A* and checks with many other cases, as does the representation of a developing larval brood through the nomadic period and a pupal brood through the statary period. Our records indicate that in the area of this study individual hamatum (and burchelli) colonies characteristically pass through the cycle of correlated behavior changes and worker-brood production a number of times

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[17] A possible alternative explanation is that the broods are the product of two or more queens with exactly synchronized visceral rhythms. This seems very doubtful, especially because no polygynous colonies have been discovered.

in regular succession during the first four or five months of the rainy season.

To describe the characteristic time relations of the principal changes in brood development for *hamatum,* it is necessary to ascertain the time at which the eggs are laid more exactly than is possible from the record of colony *36 A.* From general evidence, and from the facts concerning queen *38 H,* we have inferred that the process of egg-laying occurs during a short period following about one week after the beginning of the statary period. The conclusion that normally a new brood appears as eggs about ten days before the end of each given statary period is supported directly and indirectly by numerous facts. In particular, although eggs are never found in colonies examined during the first few days of the statary period, large masses of eggs are found during the last week of this period. Queen *38 H* evidently had just passed the peak of an egg-laying process when captured seven days after the beginning of a statary period. Since in *hamatum* oviposition appears to be of short duration, probably no more than three or four days from beginning to end, if we set 18–20 days as the usual length of the statary period in this species we may say that the new brood has roughly ten days of early development before the statary period ends.

On this basis we may estimate the developmental period of a given brood. To the first 10 days of embryonic and early larval growth when the colony is statary, and 17 days to complete larval development in the nomadic period, we may add 19 days (as a close approximation) in the pupal stage during the following statary period. That makes a total of 46 days for the complete development of a hamatum brood. Other facts plainly indicate that the interval between the appearance of successive broods in a given colony is the number of days from the end of one statary period (when one brood is delivered as callows) to the end of the next statary period (when the next brood is delivered), *i.e.,* about 35 days.[18]

[18] As may be seen in Figure 2, the difference of about 10 days in the above figures is attributable to the fact that the oviposition and early development of a given new brood overlaps the period in which the preceding brood is completing its pupal maturation.

On this basis we may arrive at an approximation of the interval between successive occurrences of the short but strenuous oviposition act of the queen. After having deposited a given clutch of eggs, the queen evidently lays no more until the early part of the next statary period. If the peak of one process is roughly placed at seven days after the beginning of a statary period and its end at nine days, for the ensuing resting phase there are ten days remaining in the same period, 17 days in the ensuing nomadic period, and perhaps five days in the following statary period,—32 days in all for the interval between successive intervals of actual egg-laying. This checks fairly well with the figure offered above for the interval between the appearance of successive broods of callows, as it obviously should.

To repeat, there is every reason to believe that in a given hamatum colony the broods appearing at intervals of about 35 days are the progeny of a single queen. Not only the facts concerning the capture of queens, but also the highly predictable time relations between successive broods, support this conclusion. The facts as sketched in Figure 2 indicate that the entire set of events is highly synchronized; particularly in the ability of the queen to deliver a new batch of eggs about 12 days before the previous brood joins the worker population of the colony. The evidence suggests that in our area of study a given hamatum queen is capable of repeating this process a number of times during the first months of the rainy season and perhaps even longer.

Thus in an indirect manner but nevertheless very effectively the queen is the pace-setter of the cyclic changes which have been described for the type species. This relationship appears to hold for other *Eciton s. str.* species as well (*e.g., E. burchelli, E. vagans*), and perhaps also in other *Eciton* subgenera.

To summarize, in *hamatum* we seem to have the master pattern, as it were: 1) the queen at regular intervals and in a strikingly precise manner furnishes a huge mass of eggs which begin their development almost simultaneously, 2) the given brood does not materially influence events until the emergence of the previous brood as callows dynamizes the population into nomadism, 3) then the new brood (as larvæ) takes over as principal source of the "social stimulation" which maintains the highly dynamic activity pattern of the colony for some time; 4) when the "drive" effect of the larval brood is removed as it enters the pupal condition the colony lapses into its minimal activity pattern, from which 5) the emergence of this brood as callow workers arouses it into a new dynamic phase—and so on.

The queen is the key of this entire process, but only in an indirect manner through her physiological properties as the producer of successive broods. After a given brood has appeared as eggs we may say hypothetically that the presence of the queen is essential neither for the next major change in colony behavior nor for the maintenance of this change (*i.e.,* for nomadism). In fact without the queen the next sessile phase of the colony-behavior cycle may also occur and the colony will even begin its next nomadic period (*cf.* Fig. 2). However, if no new brood is forthcoming we should expect the colony to lapse from its new nomadic phase into an aberrant and mainly sessile type of existence, *i.e.,* a protracted statary condition. Some evidence corroborating this prediction is in fact available from the study of colonies deprived of their broods.

To state the hypothesis in a different way, it is quite likely that in the dry season when Eciton broods are very small (either through metabolic insufficiency in the queen or through brood cannibalism in the workers, or both of these), the colonies lapse almost completely into statary life. But under optimal conditions in the rainy season, the adequate condition and regular labors of the queen periodically furnish the colony, in an incidental manner, with the changes in trophallaxis-based social stimulation which condition the drive (or lack of drive) underlying alternate changes in the general behavior cycle.

The exquisite synchronization of the set of relationships involved in the Eciton behavior pattern is emphasized in several ways when the queen is considered in her rôle of key individual. Through her capacity to deliver an entire batch of eggs within a few days, the queen indirectly contributes the precision with which the colony shifts from one mode of life to another. This in turn promotes a further characteristic of great adaptive value. Due to the spacing of her successive broods, the queen becomes physogastric and lays her eggs *only at times when the colony happens to be statary* (see Fig. 2), a combination of events which is most opportune for survival of colony and species. It is apparent from our discussion of the indirect relations existing between the cycles of queen and colony functions that a true *convergence* of events occurs in this case, which serves to guard the queen from injury at the one time she is most vulnerable. When she is gravid, having to make her way over a long bivouac-change trek undoubtedly would offer a serious risk for the queen, carrying the constant threat of dangers such as a tumble from elevated sections of the path on vines or tearing the tightly stretched intersegmental membranes on rough surfaces. Instead, thanks indirectly to her own visceral regularity, the queen is safely immured through this critical period, and moreover, there follows a further time of safety during which she may convalesce from the organic ordeal of large-scale oviposition. Not least among the factors fitting into the marked adaptivity of this synchronized pattern of events, the bivouac of the colony in its statary phase is characteristically more sequestered than at other times. Altogether, it would be difficult to find a more effectively adaptive mosaic of various biological events than this one, based upon the physiological properties of the Eciton queen.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The functions of the *Eciton hamatum* queen serve indirectly as a pace-making factor in the colony behavior pattern of the species.

The determining processes in a given colony center around the reproductive properties of the single functional queen. Except when colony bivouac-change movements occur the fertile queen is confined to the bivouac, evidently to a large extent because of her pronounced photonegativity. At regular intervals of approximately 35 days the dichthadiigyne becomes physogastric and within a few days releases a mass of more than 20,000 eggs. Between egg-delivery episodes she remains in the contracted or ''resting'' condition. The ability of the hamatum queen to mature and deliver an immense number of eggs within a very limited time means that all members of a given brood develop and mature roughly in synchronization. These facts hold important consequences for the colony behavior pattern.

In the rainy season of the Caribbean lower rain-forest zone of Panama, a colony of *E. hamatum* passes through statary (minimal raiding; absence of migration) and nomadic (maximal daily raiding; successive daily bivouac-changes) behavior phases at regular intervals, each period lasting nearly 20 days. Depending upon the properties of a fertile queen, the alternation of these behavioral phases is highly predictable.

Significantly different intracolony circumstances parallel the two phases of the colony behavior cycle. Colonies in the nomadic condition invariably contain a single brood passing through its larval stage, and the period ends precisely when this brood has become mature and is mainly enclosed in cocoons. In statary colonies a brood in the pupal stage is found, and the period ends when this brood has matured and has mainly emerged as callow workers. Approximately seven days after a given statary period has begun, a new brood of more than 20,000 eggs appears.

The intimate correspondence which exists between Eciton colony behavior and brood condition is explicable in terms of the Wheeler *trophallaxis* concept. Evidence is cited for the involvement of a special social-stimulative effect, a superadded "drive" factor, furnished by broods capable of extensive overt activity. Emanating from a newly emerged lot of callow workers, this effect arouses a previously sessile colony to the threshold of maximal raiding and daily bivouac-change, and thus is responsible for initiating a new nomadic period. Furthermore, due to a rather precise synchronization of successive broods, before the energizing function of a new callow brood runs its course it is overlapped and succeded by the similar function of a sufficiently developed larval brood. This larval effect maintains the nomadic condition over a considerable time, but the colony lapses promptly from nomadism when the larvæ mature and spin their cocoons. Thus the sessile and relatively inactive statary condition which ensues is attributable to the existence of an inadequate energization of the colony when the brood (eggs; pupæ) is incapable of functioning as an effective source of social stimulation.

Periodic changes characterizing Eciton colony behavior thus basically depend upon a highly regular reproductive cycle in the queen. By furnishing new broods at fixed intervals, the queen's function indirectly governs the presence or absence of the intracolony dynamizing factor critically responsible for the ebb and flow of events in the Eciton behavior pattern.

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[19] Redetermined as *E. burchelli.*

[20] Redetermined as *E. schmitti.*

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A RE–SURVEY OF PAPAIPEMA SM. (LEPIDOPTERA)

By Henry Bird
Rye, N. Y.

The intricacies of insect life are abysmal and any individual studies are bound to be incomplete and fragmentary. This is so axiomatic as to need no argument and may excuse the limited viewpoint of any single observer. However, as time goes on data and observable facts accumulate, given problems here and there gain enlightenment through various channels.

Retrospective deductions on the part of the writer based on "the sum of evidence" as this slowly evolves apparently offers some ground work for the serial arrangement of *Papaipema* species.

Conceived as an ontogenetic tree with its phylogenetic roots outcropping from supposedly more ancient genera, it is interesting to invade this vale of surmise.

To what extent these relationships can be shown in a list arrangement is unsatisfactory but should be undertaken. As building bricks there are the characters of the adults including of course the genitalia of both sexes, the gleaning from larval evidence backed by attending factors. Thus it becomes requisite to discourse somewhat at length taxonomically.

Also the final disposition of holotypes should be chronicled.

First, as to the generic basis whereupon Prof. J. B. Smith established *Papaipema* in 1899.[1]

He named no genotype and the gist of his characterizations featured moths with primaries rather broad and outwardly acute at apex; the thoracic tuftings decidedly upright and anteriorly usually broadened, in form like an "adze" behind the collar; the antennæ are simple; the frons smooth; the male genitalia mainly show a unique pattern "having the harpes more or less forked with triangular patch of spinulated surface at the tip. The clasper in almost all cases a long, stout, curved hook, but is unique in having the outer curve strongly toothed."

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[1] Revision of Hydroecia, Trans. Am. Ent. Soc., Vol. XXVI.

As now considered there are nearly fifty species in the genus with thirty-seven at least following this genitalic pattern closely. Smith's simple drawings of a portion of the male genitalia are misleading however since it is necessary to chronicle the following specific errors.

Harrisii and *pterisii* were considered by him as one species; *duovata, arctivorens* and *merriccata* at least were confused under "*rutila*"; *circumlucens, ochroptena* and form *humuli* were treated as *circumlucens;* he considered *cerussata* and *frigida* form *thalictri* under *cerussata* label; treated *purpurifascia* and *lysimachiæ* as one; misidentified *sciata* for "*limpida*"; *nepheleptena* for *appassionata,* while his reference to *necopina* had largely to do with *maritima.*

Criticism should not be levied unduly at these presumed mistakes since some of Guenee's types, notably *rutila* and *limpida,* British Museum uniques, have not been satisfactorily associated, and two of our names as used hereinafter will probably fall through this lack of perception.

In 1910 Sir George Hampson,[2] following his custom of citing genotypes, selected *cerina* as genotype of *Papaipema,* on First Species Rule because it headed Smith's enumeration of the genus. That was an unfortunate usage since the species does not measure fully to Smith's definition. Recognizing this discrepancy from a mere autopic glance, and though bound by the Rules he nevertheless uses the very proper species *harrisii* in illustrating venation and the bodily detail, quite representative of the genus.

Begging Sir George's pardon, this writer votes that *cerina* Grt. be superseded as genotype of *Papaipema* by *harrisii* Grt., if a more elastic rule be forthcoming some day.

The limitations of generic boundaries are subject to varying personal ideas but ideally their demarcation should suggest evolutionary trends in so far as that might be surmised.

Avoiding theory as much as possible but judging facts as they appear today, we can find much aid in turning to the larvæ in their earlier stages.

It is generally conceded that early stage larvæ reflect the primitive ancestral line at least phylogenetically. Leaning on this

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[2] Cat. Lep. Phal. Brit. Mus., Vol. IX, p. 80.

deduction, a personal familiarity with forty *Papaipema* species seems to help in some measure while details of color pattern aid specifically. As larvæ *Papaipema* species are unique.

Their early larval pellicle is distinctly colored whereas most mining larvæ are at all stages more or less translucent.

The great majority show a contrasting middle ring of dark purplish or pinkish brown, in livid hue, at the first four abdominal segments while elsewhere longitudinal white or yellowish lines drawn on the darker body color produce striking individuals.

This intensity continues through the instars up to the penultimate, while maturity usually exhibits a faded translucence.

Three pattern types follow; the dark middle girdle may show an abrupt termination of all lines; or the dorsal line may cross it in unbroken continuity; or both the dorsal and subdorsal may be entirely unbroken. These features of pattern aid much specifically.

They are constant with two exceptions—the Pacific Coast species *angelica* and *insulidens,* where one, or rarely both lines may be continuous. One is tempted to assume that a progenitor was not wholly an internal feeder but subsisted within some encircling tissues with both extremities exposed and maintaining there the linear markings. The above category applies to thirty-eight known individuals. Two other known species are decidedly different and, again assuming, feature as admirable connecting links with their *Apamea-Gortyna-Hyroecia* relatives possessing a world-wide, north temperate zone dispersal. Because of this dispersal as against restricted North American *Papaipema* it seems rational to consider the latter as a subsequent offshoot. Their very close relationship bespeaks a comparatively recent evolution wherein possibly marked choices of food plants, some of the latter also restricted to America, may have played a part in influencing specific origin.

The larvæ of the two alleged connecting species, *frigida* and *beeriana* have their markings as transverse segmental rings, features prevailing with *Apamea erepta ryensis, Hydrœcia immanis, H. micacea* and *H. stramentosa,* which is as far as familiarity goes.

The exotic *Xanthœcia flavago* larva is cross banded, while *Parapamea buffalœnsis* and *Embolœcia sauzalitœ* have larvæ which are longitudinally lined. This latter trio has the frons distinctly armed but these various genera may all figure as part of the "Gortynid series." This term has been used by the writer as a convenience, and in view of Grote's arguments,[3] *Gortyna,* genotype *micacea* Och., might properly find generic application somewhere therein.

As structural larval features, the heavy setigerous plates are noteworthy, with a peculiar development in many species that have an additional plate known as IVa, on joint ten. Since this plate bears no setal hair its transitory character may be adduced.

However it is one of the evidences aiding specific distinction.

The rugged genitalia become a prime structural feature with the adults. In the males such closeness to the conventional pattern prevails as to indicate the very near relationship of the species. Greatest modification exists with *furcata* and *eryngii,* while *frigida, unimoda* and *appassionata* make a decided break with the harpes greatly reduced. One might suggest a generic break here but full evidence points to connecting species.

With the female genitalia the genital plate at the ostium is of help specifically. It is a heavy, more or less shield-shaped process, differing in outline and scobinated characteristically. Dr. F. Heydemann in a praiseworthy treatment of the *nictitans* group of *Apamea*[4] notes the value of the genital plate and figures the character without other detail upon a single plate for specific comparison.

The close proximity of *Papaipema* species blend them together into a satisfactory whole. Indeed, in a number of instances they are so close that if no further evidence was at hand than a few flown specimens much doubt would arise as to their distinction.

Furthermore, variation is rife particularly in the feature wherein the ordinarily prominent white marked stigmata may be obsolescent or vice versa. This is productive of such an autopic difference that erroneously, two distinct species seem to be involved—vide Guenee's two alleged species, *nebris* and *nitela.*

That a varietal name be given to the lesser of such forms seems practical. This has been done in the more striking instances and

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[3] Historical Sketch of Gortyna, Proc. Am. Phil. Soc., Vol. XXXIX, No. 162.

[4] Die Arten der *Hydroecia nictitans.* Sond. Ento. Zeit., XXXXIX u. XXXXV.

the future holds possibilities with slighter stigmatal variance likely to be grasped by some. Some dimorphism is observable, the ubiquitous *cataphracta* with its extensive food habits shows this in its more northern range, while *imperspicua* represented by a unique type may well be in that category. Until rearing proves the fact its specific standing may remain.

Two formerly considered species must merge as one, *verona* and *astuta* with the latter name preserved as varietal. Smith's unique type of *verona,* from Winnipeg, Manitoba, is a dwarfed pale form of the species, while *astuta* was applied to a larger more colorful variant with the terminal space solidly purplish, easily suggestive of distinctness. Both can occur in the same locality and though *verona* is less numerous in the writer's experience; it has priority.

That *astuta* be retained as a distinct color, or dimorphic form points to future expediency.

As to the placement of *Papaipema* holotypes, the writer has prepared a detailed treatment of the genus under title "The Epic of Papaipema," a unique copy which is willed to the American Museum of Natural History, New York, N. Y.

With it will go his collection of the group. Hence the holotypes and paratypes, with the relevant literature will be at one place for future students. The collection embraces something over fifteen hundred specimens, mainly reared. The various types number ninety-eight examples. The aggregation brings together not only the adults, but larval and pupal stages, to some extent the parasites; the foodplant habitations are also shown. The genitalic slides are not considered in this summary.

The "Epic" consists of three volumes. It assembles the principal published literature thus dealing with the historic rise and subsequent departures in the genus, treats monographically, matters of taxonomic import, features of parasitism and the gleanings of several decades of field study. Interlarded between the published papers, the author's notes and criticisms bring such up to current review. Particularly some of his earlier papers were rather puerile and in need of revision. Volumes I and II total 1127 pages, inclusive of the relevant articles. Volume III is a portmanteu affair.

Seventy plates occupying seven containers, are unbound for easy comparison; four containers hold autographed letters from important workers in connection with the subject, many of whom have now passed on. The plates illustrate by line drawings the infested food plants in some instances, larval features and the genitalia of both sexes in so far as possible, while the adults are shown in color. There is also a booklet of remarks and index of plates.

By what manner a commingling of the species of *Papaipema* can be best portrayed with their ontogenetic proximity apparently shown, it is convenient to resort to a popular vegetative process and erect a fanciful "tree."[5] Then, as nonconventional genes seem to have effected the protoplasmic stream, branches or shoots may materialize, either ascending or paralleling the main trunk according to the line of thought. Admirable as a basis of ideas, but to transplant this fruitage to the linear order of list column spoils the conception entirely. The writer can only suggest the following summary.

List order for the species of the genus

PAPAIPEMA Smith.

(Asterisk denotes larva unknown, synonyms in italics)

- **frigida** Smith.
  - form thalictri Lyman.
    - *terminalis* Strand.
- **unimoda** Smith.*
- **beeriana** Bird.
  - form lacinariæ Bird.
- **appassionata** Harvey.
  - *horni* Strand.
- **purpurifascia** Grote & Robinson.
  - *luteipicta* Strand.
- **lysimachiæ** Bird.
  - nec purpurifascia Auct.
- **stenoscelis** Dyar.
- **speciosissima** G. & R.
  - form regalis Wyatt & Beer.
- **inquæsita** G. & R.
  - form wyatti Barnes & Benjamin.
- **pterisii** Bird.
  - *triorthia* Dyar.
- **anargyria** Dyar.*
- **ochroptena** Dyar.
  - form humuli Bird.
- **arctivorens** Hampson.
- **merriccata** Bird.
- **araliæ** Bird & Jones.
- **harrisii** Grote.
  - form mulieris Strand.
  - sub. sp. rubiginosa Bird.
- **verona** Smith.
  - form astuta Bird.

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[5] EPIC OF PAPAIPEMA, 1940, pp. 553–554, Vol. II.

rutila Guenee.*
depictata Benjamin.*
nepheleptena Dyar.
    moeseri Bird.
impecuniosa Grote.
circumlucens Smith.
    baptisiæ Bird.
    form ochroptenoides Benj.*
    sub. sp. vaha Benj.*
marginidens Guenee.
    birdi Dyar.
nephrasyntheta Dyar.*
furcata Smith.
rigida Grote.
pertincta Dyar.
limata Bird.*
insulidens Bird.
angelica Smith.
cataphracta Grote.
  form sulphurata Bird.
  race fluxa Bird.
imperspicua Bird.*
duovata Bird.
ærata Lyman.
placida Bird.*
cerina Grote.
dribi Benjamin.*
polymniæ Bird.
nebris Guenee.
  form nitela Guenee.
duplicata Bird.
    obsolescens Strand.
silphii Bird.
necopina Grote.
nelita Strecker.
  form linda Bird.
  form obicularis Strand.
errans Barnes & McDunnough.
engelhardti Bird.
sciata Bird.
limpida Guenee.*
cerussata Grote.
eryngii Bird.
maritima Bird.
eupatorii Lyman.

INSECT INTRODUCTIONS AND WAR

The recent press releases on the introduction of potential insect pests in packages sent home by members of the armed forces overseas has evidently stirred some interest. The Bureau of Plant Industry, New Jersey Department of Agriculture, was called to inspect and fumigate a reed stool received by a woman in Trenton, New Jersey from her son in India. This was found to be infested with numerous small bostrichid beetles which were identified by W. S. Fisher, Bureau of Entomology and Plant Quarantine at Washington, D. C., as *Dinoderus brevis* Horn. *D. brevis* was originally described from a single specimen taken in Louisiana, and was believed to be a native species. This species was later found to be Oriental, especially common in India, and has been carried, through commerce, to many parts of the world.—William M. Boyd.

CATALOGUE OF NORTH AMERICAN PSYCHODIDÆ

BY WILLIAM F. RAPP, JR.

In 1905 Aldrich[1] published the last catalogue of North American Diptera. In the family Psychodidæ he listed 34 species, which were distributed in four genera. Table I is a comparison of Aldrich's 1905 catalogue and this catalogue.

TABLE I

Genus	Aldrich 1905	Rapp 1943
Flebotomus	......	3
Pericoma	11	13
Psychoda	21	41
Sycorax	1	......
Trichomyia	1	2
No. of species	34	59

Since 1905 several workers have been attracted to this family with the result that many changes have arisen in nomenclature, plus the addition of new species. This catalogue has been compiled after a careful survey of the entomological literature. Synonymy is listed wherever it has appeared in the literature. It is interesting to note that of the 34 species listed by Aldrich only 6 have been reduced to synonymy. Of the 54 species described since 1905, 19 have proven to be synonyms.

The North American Psychodidæ, as a whole, are of little economic importance. Certain species of Flebotomus are known vectors of tropical diseases, but none of these occur in the North American region. *Psychoda alternata* Say is at times a pest around sewage filter plants.[2]

The area covered in this paper includes all of America north of Mexico, or the area considered as the nearctic region based upon zoogeographical division.

[1] Aldrich, John M. ''A Catalogue of North American Diptera,'' *Smithsonian Miscellaneous Collections,* Vol. 46 (1905), p. 1–680.

[2] Headlee, T. J., and Beckwith, C. S., ''Sprinkling Sewage Fly, *Psychoda alternata,*'' Jour. Econ. Ent., Vol. 11 (1918), p. 395–401.

FLEBOTOMUS* Rondani

Flebotomus diabolicus Hall.

Phlebotomus diabolicus Hall, Proc. Ent. Soc. Wash., Vol. 38 (1936), p. 28.

Texas.

Flebotomus texanus Dampf.

Phlebotomus texanus Dampf, Anales de la Escuela Nacional de Ciencias Biologicas, Vol. 1 (1938), pp. 119–122.

Texas.

Flebotomus vexator Coquillett.

F. vexator Coquillett, Ent. News, Vol. 18 (1907), p. 102.

Louisiana, Maryland., Calif.

PERICOMA Walker

Pericoma bipunctata Kincaid.

P. bipunctata Kincaid, Ent. News, Vol. 10 (1899), p. 34.

California, Washington.

Pericoma californica Kincaid.

P. californica Kincaid, Ent. News, Vol. 12 (1901), p. 195.

California.

Pericoma carolina Banks.

P. carolina Banks, Bul. Brooklyn Ent. Soc., Vol. 26 (1931), p. 228.

North Carolina.

Pericoma furcata Kincaid.

P. furcata Kincaid, Ent. News, Vol. 10 (1899), p. 34.

Washington.

Pericoma longiplata Haseman.

P. longiplata Haseman, Trans. Am. Ent. Soc., Vol. 33 (1907), p. 308.

Arizona.

Pericoma ocellaria var. **americana** Kincaid.

P. ocellaria var. *americana* Kincaid, Ent. News, Vol. 12 (1901), p. 194.

Maine.

Pericoma satellitia Dyar.

P. satellitia Dyar, Proc. Ent. Soc. Wash., Vol. 29 (1927), p. 163.

Maryland.

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* *Phlebotmus* of authors.

Pericoma scala Haseman.
P. scala Haseman, Trans. Am. Ent. Soc., Vol. 33 (1907), p. 307.
Arizona.

Pericoma sitchana Kincaid.
P. sitchana Kincaid, Ent. News, Vol. 10 (1899), p. 33.
Alaska, Oregon.

Pericoma trialbawhorla Haseman.
P. trialbawhorla Haseman, Trans. Am. Ent. Soc., Vol. 33 (1907), p. 306.
Missouri.

Pericoma triloba Kincaid.
P. triloba Kincaid, Ent. News, Vol. 10 (1899), p. 33.
Washington.

Pericoma truncata Kincaid.
P. truncata Kincaid, Ent. News, Vol. 10 (1899), p. 35.
California.

Pericoma variegata Kincaid.
P. variegata Kincaid, Ent. News, Vol. 10 (1899), p. 33.
Washington.

PSYCHODA Latreille

Psychoda alberta Curran.
P. alberta Curran, Can. Ent., Vol. 56 (1924), p. 219.
Alberta.

Psychoda albipunctata Williston.
P. albipunctata Williston, Ent. News, Vol. 5 (1893), p. 113.
Telmatoscopus meridionalis Eaton, Ent. Mo. Mag. (1894), p. 195.
P. snowii Haseman, Trans. Am. Ent. Soc., Vol. 33 (1907), p. 311–312.
P. erecta Curran, Cat. Ins. Jam. Dept. Agr., Jamaica Ent. Bul. No. 4, pt. 1 & 2 (1926), p. 102.
Florida, Louisiana, South Carolina, Texas.

Psychoda albitarsis Banks.
P. albitarsis Banks, Can. Ent., Vol. 27 (1895), p. 324.
Maryland, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, Virginia. Quebec.

Psychoda alternata Say.

P. alternata Say, Long's Exp. St. Peter's River, App. (1824), p. 358.

Tipula phalæmoides Scop., Ent. Carn., No. 864 (1763), p. 324.

Psychoda sexpunctata Curtis, Brit. Ent., Vol. 16 (1839), p. 745.

P. marginepunctata Roser., Corr. Wurt. landro, Ver. 1 (1840), p. 50.

P. schizura Kincaid, Ent. News, 10 (1899), p. 32.

P. floridica Haseman, Trans. Am. Ent. Soc., 33 (1907), p. 316.

P. nocturnala Haseman, Trans. Am. Ent. Soc., 33 (1907), p. 319.

P. bengalensis Brunetti, Rec. Ind. Mus., Vol. 11 (1908), p. 370.

P. albimaculata Welch, Ann. Ent. Soc. Amer., Vol. 5 (1912), p. 411.

P. dakotensis Dyar, Insec. Inscit. Menst., Vol. 14 (1926), pp. 107–110.

California, Connecticut, District of Columbia, Florida, Illinois, Kansas, Maryland, Missouri, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New Mexico, New York, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, South Dakota, Texas, Virginia, Washington.

Psychoda annulipes Johnson.

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Florida.

Psychoda aterrima Banks.

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New York.

Psychoda augusta Curran.

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Quebec.

Psychoda autumnalis Banks.

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California, District of Columbia, Maryland, Virginia.
Alaska.

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P. bicolor Banks, Can. Ent., Vol. 26 (1894), p. 33.
P. nigra (Banks) Dyar, Proc. Ent. Soc. Wash., Vol. 30 (1928), p. 87.
District of Columbia, Indiana, Maryland, New York.

Psychoda bishoppi Del Rosario.
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Maryland.

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Alberta.

Psychoda criddlei Curran.
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Maryland.

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Missouri.

Psychoda interdicta Dyar.
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Maryland, New York.

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Maryland.

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Maryland.

Psychoda megantica Curran.
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Psychoda minuta Banks.
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Connecticut, New Jersey, New Mexico, New York, Virginia.

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land, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, Virginia.
Ontario, Quebec.

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District of Columbia, New York.

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Washington.

Psychoda opposata Banks.
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District of Columbia, Maryland, New York.

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Alberta, British Columbia.
Alaska.

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Kansas, Maryland.

Psychoda quadripunctata Banks.
P. quadripunctata Banks, Ent. Soc. of Wash., Vol. 8 (1907), p. 149.
Virginia.

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Psychoda severini Tonnoir.
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California, District of Columbia, Maryland, Montana, New Mexico.

British Columbia.

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Washington.

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District of Columbia, Maine.

Psychoda slossoni Williston.

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Maine, New York.

Psychoda snowhilli Del Rosario.

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Maryland.

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District of Columbia, Maryland, Michigan, New Jersey, New York, Virginia.

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P. superba var. *conspicua* Del Rosario, Philippine Jour. Sci., Vol. 59 (1936), p. 125.

Maryland, Virginia.

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Missouri.

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Maryland.

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California, Washington.

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Arizona.

RECENT WORK BY THE INTERNATIONAL COMMISSION ON ZOOLOGICAL NOMENCLATURE

By Francis Hemming

Secretary to the International Commission on Zoological Nomenclature

The International Commission on Zoological Nomenclature are now engaged in the publication of decisions taken before the outbreak of war in 1939. These decisions have been embodied in *Opinions* 134–183 and *Declarations* 10–12. Of these, *Opinions* 134–155 and the 3 *Declarations* have already been published or are in the press. The remainder are ready for printing and will be published as soon as funds are available.

These *Opinions* are of particular interest to entomologists, since in addition to 9 *Opinions* relating to the interpretation of various aspects of the International Code, no less than 38 of these *Opinions* are directly concerned with entomological subjects.

The *Opinions* relating to the interpretation of the Code are: *Opinion* 138 (meaning of phrase "definite bibliographic reference" in Article 25); *Opinion* 141 (naming of families); *Opinion* 145 (status of names first published in invalid works); *Opinion* 147 (generic names of same origin and meaning as older generic names); *Opinion* 148 (status relating to names published as emendations of, or substitutes for, older names); *Opinion* 164 (position as regards types when two or more genera are united); *Opinion* 168 (supplementing *Opinion* 65 regarding genera based upon erroneously determined species); *Opinion* 172 (status of type—designations of genera in abstracts, etc.); and *Opinion* 183 (interpretation of Article 8 relating to form in which generic names should be published).

Of the *Opinions* specially concerned with entomological subjects, 6 deal with the status of particular works or with the dates of such works: *Opinion* 136 (Latreille, 1810) affects all Orders of insects; *Opinion* 135 ("Erlangen List," 1801) is of special interest to hymenopterists; *Opinions* 134 (Freyer, *Neue Beiträge*), 138 (Hübner, *Samml. exet. Schmett* 1807 and Fabricius *Mag.*

Insektenk. (Illiger) 1807) and 150 (Hübner, *Verz. bek. Schmett*) are concerned with Lepidoptera and *Opinion* 152 (Meigen, 1800) with Diptera. *Opinions* 140 and 143 deal with certain family names in insects.

The remaining 30 *Opinions* deal with particular generic names in various Orders of insects. These *Opinions* either fix the types of these genera or add the names to the *Official List of Generic Names in Zoology,* or do both. Three of these *Opinions* are concerned with Orthoptera; 13 with Hymenoptera and 14 with Lepidoptera.

Each *Opinion* is published separately but *Opinions* are consecutively paged to facilitate the publication of an index on the completion of the volume concerned.

The International Commission are most anxious to secure that *Opinions* are published as rapidly as possible but they are greatly hampered by lack of funds. The Commission therefore appeal to scientific institutions and individual scientific workers for donations to a special fund to be used for the issue of publications. Full particulars of this Appeal are given in Part 2 of the Commission's Official Organ, the *Bulletin of Zoological Nomenclature* published in 1943.

Contributions, however small, will be warmly welcomed and will be acknowledged in the *Bulletin.* Bankers' drafts, cheques, and money orders should be made payable to the "International Commission on Zoological Nomenclature" and sent to the Commission at their Publications Office, 41 Queen's Gate, London, S.W.7. All orders for the Commission's publications should be sent to the same address. Inquiries relating to the work of the Commission should be addressed to me at 83 Fellows Road (Garden Flat), London, N.W.3.

International Commission on
Zoological Nomenclature,
Publications Office,
41 Queen's Gate,
London, S.W.7.
24th April, 1944.

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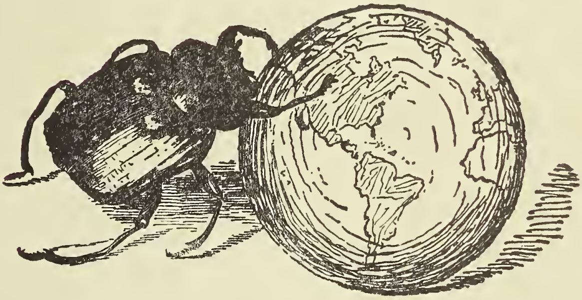

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THE REMARKABLE DISTRIBUTION OF AN AMERICAN CICADA; A NEW GENUS, AND OTHER CICADA NOTES[1]

By William T. Davis
Staten Island, N. Y.

QUESADA GIGAS, A REMARKABLE CICADA

(Plate VIII, Figs. 1, 2)

A number of species of North American cicadas occur from the Atlantic seaboard to about western Kansas, or to the one hundredth meridian, and northward from Florida and Southern Texas to Nova Scotia and the region of the Great Lakes. In Western North America, where there are a greater number of species than in the Eastern States and Canada, the species extend eastward to about the 100th meridian. Two species of *Okanagana,* namely *rimosa* and *canadensis,* in the northern part of their range, where they follow the belt of evergreen forest extending from Nova Scotia to the far west, have a greater east and west distribution than the cicadas occurring more to the south. In: "A Preliminary Review of the West Coast Cicadidæ," 1915, Mr. E. P. Van Duzee states regarding *rimosa:* "This species occurs across the whole continent from Vancouver Island to Quebec and as far south on the west coast as Fresno Co., California."

In Texas there are at least 40 species of cicadas and several additional named forms or varieties. The most famous species occurring in Texas, is *Quesada gigas* Olivier, remarkable on account of its distribution as well as its loud song, which has been

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[1] I am indebted to Howard Cleaves for photographing the specimens.

likened by many observers to the shrill whistle of a first-rate locomotive. In: "The Naturalist on the River Amazons," Bates states: "Added to these noises were the songs of strange cicadas, one large kind perched high on the trees around our little haven setting up a most piercing chirrup; it began with the usual harsh jarring tone of its tribe, but this gradually and rapidly became shriller, until it ended in a long and loud note resembling the steam-whistle of a locomotive engine. Half-a-dozen of these wonderful performers made a considerable item in the evening concert. I had heard the same species before at Pará, but it was there very uncommon."

The common name for *gigas* in some localities is the: "Locomotive Cicada," and it is also called the: "Soupbug," because it is at times attracted to light in its evening flights and lands on the supper table.

It is the only known American cicada that may be found in the mature or winged form every month in the year in some part of its extensive north and south distribution of about 4,000 miles, from southern Texas through Mexico, Central America, South America into Argentina.

In the writer's collection there are many specimens from southern Texas, where it has thus far been recorded from May to October; there are many records from Mexico; also from Central America, and in South America specimens from Colombia, Venezuela, Trinidad, Tobago Island recorded in February and March; British Guiana in September (Dr. Beebe and John Tee-Van); Ecuador; Brazil in September, December, January, May; Peru in March, June, September, October; Bolivia in February; Paraguay in December and January. Specimens from Argentina are dated November and December, and it doubtless occurs at other dates.

In his: "Synopsis of the Cicadidæ of Ecuador," 1925, Dr. Frederic W. Goding states regarding the Genus *Quesada* that: "One species has been recognized in Ecuador, which is greenish yellow, with a fuscous spot on the bases of the second and third apical cells of tegmina; it is one of our largest species."

Dr. Kenneth J. Haywood, Chief of the Department of Entomology, Tucuman, Argentina, has informed me that *Quesada* *gigas,* is, speaking generally, distributed over Argentina north of a line drawn between Buenos Aires and Mendoza. So far there are no available records for Chile or Uruguay. The Doctor states that this fine cicada is called: " 'Chichara grande' (chichara is a common name for the cicada here), 'Coyoyo,' or more commonly 'Coyuyo,' according to what part of this vast country you find yourself in."

Considering the extended distribution of the species, the specimens from the various parts of its wide range are surprisingly alike, but sometimes differ individually in color. Those from Brazil, Argentina, etc., are often quite large, with abdomen noticeably broad in the males, but Texas specimens may also differ considerably in size.

There is a colored figure of the insect under the name of *Tympanoterpes gigas* in "Biologia Centrali-Americana," 1881, with an interesting account of its song and habits. In: "Insect Singers, A Natural History of the Cicadas," Dr. J. G. Myers devotes considerable space to an account of this remarkable species, its song and habits.

In his: "Catalogue of the Cicadidæ," 1906, Mr. Distant cites a number of specific names that have been bestowed upon *Quesada gigas,* and when more specimens have been collected from the different parts of its remarkable range, and additional field studies have been made, including time of appearance, it may be discovered that there are some definite geographic races or even an additional species involved.

In his: "Preliminary Survey of the Cicadidæ of the United States, Antilles and Mexico," 1892, Uhler stated concerning *gigas:* "I have examined specimens from various parts of Mexico, and from Guatemala, Guiana, and Matto Grosso, Brazil. Specimens from Tamaulipas, Mexico, differ in no respect from others living further South, although the species is a very variable one especially in the amount and form of black marking on the upper surface of the body. The region of the Rio Grande of Texas is the most northern limit of this species, while the northern part of the Argentine Republic seems to be its most southern habitat."

In: "Notes Del Museo de la Plata," Tomo V, Buenos Aires, 1940, Prof. Belindo Adolfo Torres described and figured a dark-colored female of *gigas,* but as he could find no structural difference he considered the variety unworthy of a name.

In Texas *Quesada gigas* has been recorded from Starr, Hidalgo, Cameron and Bexar counties by Mr. F. F. Bibby, and no doubt it will be discovered over a wider range. There are specimens from Kingsville, Kleberg County, in the collection of Cornell University.

Mr. H. B. Parks, Director of the State Agricultural Research Laboratory near San Antonio, Bexar County records *gigas* as a yearly visitor observed since 1934. The ''Popcorn Whistlers'' occur in the live-oaks about the Laboratory, usually in July and August, and he heard them singing in the evening and sometimes in the early morning in 1941. He has found dead specimens beneath the trees. He also reports their abundance in the coastal city of Corpus Christi, Nueces County, in August, 1940. The little boys in town found great sport in climbing trees and catching the cicadas. They had also been observed and collected in 1938 at Corpus Christi, and I received specimens from both Mr. Parks and Mr. Emmett S. Claunch, Jr., who reported that they: ''whistle instead of buzz—that is they sound as though they whistle.''

Many collectors have found *gigas* about Brownsville, Cameron County, and Dr. James A. G. Rehn, of the Philadelphia Academy, likened its song to the shrill tin whistle of a peanut roaster.

Dr. Raymond H. Beamer and associates from the University of Kansas collected in Bee County and Hidalgo County in July, 1928, and in sending specimens the Doctor wrote that they had 70 more if I cared to see them. This, as well as some of the other facts are mentioned to show what a highly successful species *gigas* really is, both in numbers as well as in wide distribution, for in some part of its range from north to south, a male *gigas* is in song every month in the year.

Mr. Paul C. Avery of Mission, Hidalgo County, near the Rio Grande, has sent me a great many *gigas,* which sometimes occurs very plentifully along the river where the soil is more or less damp. He has found them often on Mesquite, and describes the song as: ''Very loud, continuous and shrill. The loudest of any species found,'' at Mission. He collected many in 1935, and in

1936 sent me as a sample 400 specimens—247 males and 153 females—collected in July of that year. He observed the first *gigas* on June 13, and in his letter of July 5, 1936, stated that they sang both early and late, and often were heard singing after dark. He heard the last one on September 21 in 1936. Mr. Avery has also observed the Cicada killer, *Sphecius,* with a *gigas,* which: ''sure was crying loud and mournfully.'' This species like many other cicadas, is subject to a fungus disease, and a number of specimens have been received with the terminal segments of the abdomen missing, as often happens when the Seventeen-year Cicada is attacked by fungus.

It will be seen from the foregoing, that in *Quesada gigas* the United States includes in its fauna one of the most remarkable of the known cicadas, which species is sure to attract more and more attention in the years to come.

Cornuplura, new genus.

In the Journal of the New York Entomological Society for June, 1936, *Tibicen curvispinosa* was described and figured as a remarkable cicada from western Mexico. The two conspicuous upturned spines in the male protruding backward from segment IX, were described and figured, and it was stated that: ''the uncus in *curvispinosa* is deeply cleft with the resulting two claw-like extremities long and curved inward.'' These characters are also noted by Smith and Grossbeck in: ''Studies in Certain Cicada Species,'' Entomological News, April, 1907, and shown in their figures 7 and 8 on plate 3.

Tibicen nigroalbata was also described in the 1936 paper, and its resemblance to *curvispinosa* noted. Only a single female *nigroalbata* taken by Prof. E. D. Ball in Arizona was available in 1936.

In the Journal of the New York Entomological Society for June, 1942, these remarkable cicadas are again considered in the light of additional specimens from Nayarit, Mexico, and Santa Cruz County, Arizona, and it was suggested that *nigroalbata* might be a northern race of the southern *curvispinosa.*

The general form of the body except for the curved spines in the males of both *curvispinosa* and *nigroalbata,* including the position of the cross-veins in the fore wings, and the terminal central spine on the last dorsal segment in the males, is as in the genus *Tibicen,* but the deeply cleft and curved uncus is not as found in the other species of that genus native to North America, nor as in *plebeja* Scopli, of Europe, the type of the genus. It is suggestive of the uncus in some species of *Diceroprocta,* but in that genus the dorsal segment in the male terminates in two lateral lobes and the venation is different.

It would appear from the above that a new genus should be erected for these remarkable insects with *curvispinosa* as a type, to be placed between *Tibicen* and *Diceroprocta,* for which the name *Cornuplura* is here proposed. The genus may also include *rudis* Walker, from Mexico, as a closely related species.

The student is referred to several of the structural characters illustrated in the above-mentioned three papers, as characteristic of the Genus *Cornuplura.*

OKANAGANA SYNODICA (SAY), ITS HABITS, DISTRIBUTION, AND A NEW COLOR FORM

In 1825 Thomas Say described his *Cicada synodica,* and stated that: "Dr. James and Mr. Peale observed this species in great numbers in one locality at the base of the Rocky Mountains but it did not occur elsewhere." He described the body as black above, and also enumerated the extensive testaceous colored lines and spots that generally give a number of the insects when seen together a yellow-brown appearance. Say states: "Scutel [mesonotum] with a lateral marginal line the elevated X and two dorsal dilated lines testaceous; the dorsal lines are merely emarginate on the inner side, and do not form the W; at the tip of each anterior line of the X is a conspicuous, black impressed puncture, and behind the X the posterior edge of the scutel [metanotum] is visible and testaceous: beneath very pale testaceous. . . . Length to the tip of the hemelytra less than one inch."

In the Kansas University Science Bulletin, March, 1920, p. 345, Dr. P. B. Lawson, in: "The Cicadidæ of Kansas," records *synodica* from the western part of the state only, and describes it as: "A small black and honey-yellow species," with length of body 15 to 18.5 millimeters, and expanse of fore-wings 38 to 44 mm.

Mr. Joseph Duncan Putnam in his: "Remarks on the Habits of Several Western Cicadæ," Pro. Davenport Academy of Natural Sciences, March, 1881, records that: "*Cicada synodica* Say, was quite common on the grassy plains near Denver and Boulder, in Colorado, in June, 1872. The male makes a tolerably loud rattling noise." In June, 1920, the late Dr. Lutz, of the American Museum of Natural History, collected four male *synodica* at Medicine Bow, Wyoming, about 6,600 feet, and recorded that: "The small brown cicada in grass has a continuous note, but sometimes continues for only a short time."

In June and July of 1935 a brood of this species appeared in Colfax County, New Mexico. In the writer's collection there are 135 specimens representing this brood, and they are all of the typical brownish-colored form.

In his account of: "Characteristics of Certain Western Cicadas," Jour. N. Y. Ento. Soc., June, 1940, Dr. John W. Sugden records that: "A large brood of *Okanagana synodica* was observed in Emery County, Utah (June 7, 1928). At first, the sound was mistaken for the humming of the carburetor of the car. In the field, so many were buzzing that it was impossible to locate the position of any individuals. After examining the low, sage-like bushes, thousands of the insects were found. Fifteen or twenty could be easily collected on a bush not over a foot high. The note similar to the typical *Okanagana* song, was not very loud, but shrill and long continued and what the individual lacked in volume was made up for by the large numbers. Very few would fly if disturbed, but would remain on the bushes and could be collected by hand. Others would become quiet when disturbed and fall to the ground, where their color closely resembled the buff-colored soil. Many were mating. The exuvia were on the ground or attached to the stems."

The known range of *synodica* has been greatly extended in recent years, and specimens have been examined from Alberta, Montana, North and South Dakota, Wyoming, Nebraska, western Kansas, Colorado, Utah, western Texas, New Mexico and Arizona. It should also be found in Oklahoma as some of the known localities are close to the state line. About 600 specimens have been examined, and it has been observed as the specimens accumulated that the broods appearing in Arizona and New Mexico were sometimes composed of darker-colored individuals than the broods occurring in Colorado and other more eastern localities.

On May 26, 1941, Mr. Frank H. Parker collected a great many almost entirely black-bodied individuals at Holbrook, Navajo County, eastern Arizona, and wrote as follows concerning them: "The Holbrook series was taken on a large, slightly rolling mesa covered chiefly with bunch grass, *Gutierrezia*, and a low (1 foot or less) shrub somewhat resembling Fairies Feather Duster, among which was to be found an occasional diminutive *Opuntia*.

The capacity of my cyanide jars, and time, were the only factors preventing the capture of many thousands of this species.'' Mr. Parker sent 67 males and 33 females from this brood.

In the writer's collection there are also two females of the dark form collected at Holbrook, May 22, 1934, and a male and female of the same form from the White Mountains, Arizona, July, 1935. Broods of both the light and dark forms occur in New Mexico, and both dark and light colored specimens have been received from Utah, collected by Dr. Sugden, June 7, 1928, in Emery County.

It will be noted that broods of the dark, or almost wholly black individuals, generally occur in the area drained by the Colorado, while those of the lighter-colored form described by Say, are on the more eastern watershed, or streams tributary to the Rio Grande, Missouri, etc.

Okanagana synodica (Say) variety **nigra**, new variety (Plate VIII, fig. 3). Type male and allotype female from Holbrook, Arizona, May 26, 1941 (Frank H. Parker). Davis collection.

In this dark or melanistic form of *synodica*, the testaceous markings as described by Say are absent or very much reduced. The head is entirely black save for two pale spots one above each antenna, and the ruby-colored ocelli. The pronotum is narrowly edged all around with orange, and has a short, median pale line extending to the anterior margin. The mesonotum has a very small orange spot at the base of each fore wing; the posterior margin, including the X, pale, and the two torch-shaped orange marks, extending forward from the anterior limbs of the X generally lack the often conspicuous tooth-like mark or sinuation on the inner side found in typical *synodica*. The metanotum is pale and the abdominal segments are black or very narrowly margined posteriorly with orange. In the female the segments at the end of the body are more broadly margined with orange. The upper surface of the uncus of the male is black, and the valve pale. The venation is darker than in typical *synodica*.

OKANAGANA PALLIDULA DAVIS; ADDITIONAL NOTES AND OBSERVATIONS

(Plate VIII, Fig. 4)

In the Journal of the New York Entomological Society for September, 1938, there is an account of this species, its distribution and color forms, and the variety *nigra* is described and recorded from Yolo and Kern counties, California. *Pallidula* can be confused with some of the forms of *Okanagana vanduzeei* which, however, are usually conspicuously hairy on the head, and often on the pronotum, as well as on the under side of the abdomen. Also *pallidula* is duller and does not present the shining appearance usual in *vanduzeei* and its forms. While there are dark specimens of *pallidula* there are also green ones, which apparently do not occur in *vanduzeei* and its varieties *consobrina,* etc.

Okanagana pallidula has thus far been examined from the great Central Valley of California, and from the following counties: Sutter, Yuba, Yolo, Sacramento, Contra Costa, Merced, Madera, Fresno, Tulare, Kings, Kern and San Luis Obisbo. In some years it occurs in great numbers.

As reported on page 308 of the September, 1938, paper referred to above, this small cicada may be found singing from its hole in the ground. In June, 1941, Mr. and Mrs. J. N. Knull of the Ohio State University, while in the Santa Maria River Valley, California also found specimens of *pallidula* singing from their burrows where it was believed they had undergone their last transformation. If the males ultimately found mates, they probably in due time left the burrows, or perhaps the females flew to them as has been observed in other species. This is a matter for future observation and record. Dr. Charles D. Michener of the American Museum of Natural History, while looking over my collection of cicadas in 1942, assured me that he had discovered males of *pallidula* singing from their one-time burrows, thus adding to the observations made by others.

PLATE VIII

Figure 1. *Quesada gigas* (Olivier). Male from Texas.
Figure 2. *Quesada gigas* (Olivier). Female from Argentina.
Figure 3. *Okanagana synodica* (Say) variety *nigra.* Type.
Figure 4. *Okanagana pallidula* Davis.


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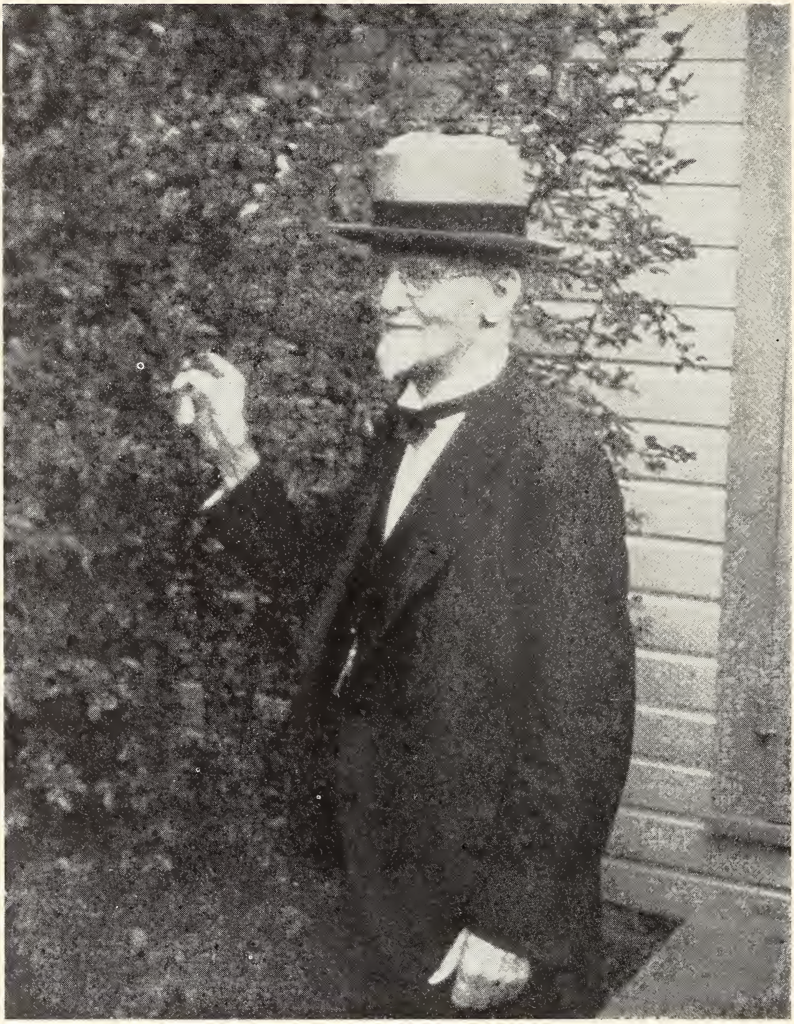

EPHRAIM PORTER FELT

EPHRAIM PORTER FELT—1868–1943

The New York Entomological Society as well as the entire scientific world has lost one of its most respected and outstanding members in the passing of Dr. E. Porter Felt. He was a leader in the field of entomology and was recognized as such internationally. He was widely known as a scientist, writer and lecturer. As State Entomologist of New York for thirty years his valuable publications were looked upon as standard for this type of work. As Director of the Bartlett Tree Research Laboratories from 1928 until his death, he became a world authority on the care of shade trees. Real leaders are few in any walk of life. Dr. Felt was one of the few but his influence was valued by many.

Ephraim Porter Felt was born at Salem, Massachusetts, January 7, 1868, a son of Charles Wilson Felt and Martha Seeth (Ropes) Felt. His background was like one of many similar old New England families. As a youth he had decided upon the ministry as a career but became interested in insect problems while attending college and this became the basis of his life work. He received the degree of B.Sc. from the Massachusetts Agricultural College in 1891 and also a degree of B.Sc. from Boston University the same year. The degree of D.Sc. was bestowed upon him by Cornell University in 1894. After teaching Natural Science at The Clinton Liberal Institute, Fort Plain, New York, from 1893–1895, he became Assistant to the State Entomologist at Albany. Upon Dr. Lintner's death, he became State Entomologist of New York, which post he held for thirty years, until 1928 when he came to the Bartlett Tree Research Laboratories as Director and Chief Entomologist.

In the field of insect taxonomy he achieved international fame for his careful and extensive studies on the gall midges—the Cecidomyidæ or Itonididæ as he preferred to call them. In 1913 he gave the annual public address on Gall Insects before the Entomological Society of America at Atlanta, Georgia. In 1914 he was elected a member of the American National Committee on Nomenclature of the Second International Congress. I have learned from Professor C. P. Alexander of Massachusetts State

College that Dr. Felt had reported to him in 1942 that he had described 1,060 new species of gall midges and plant mites. With the late D. B. Young, his assistant at Albany, he had described a number of mosquitoes which are indicated in the literature under the joint authorship of Felt and Young.

Dr. Felt became a corresponding member of the New York Entomological Society on October 20, 1900, and an active member on February 5, 1907. After coming to Stamford in 1928 he frequently presented papers at the New York Entomological Society meetings which included subjects of a varied nature from gall midges to poetry concerning insects, as well as numerous valuable contributions on shade tree insects.

Dr. Felt's first entomological work was in Massachusetts in the early days of the gypsy moth invasion. His experience with this destructive forest and shade tree pest led him in 1924 in his work for the New York State Conservation Commission to propose a barrier zone two hundred miles in length to stem the spread of the gypsy moth into New York State from New England.

Dr. Felt was a pioneer in airplane collection of insects and made extensive studies on windborne insects. He made studies on the wind drift of insects on the top of the State Education Building, Albany, N. Y., the Empire State Building in New York City, as well as on other tall city buildings and his work on windborne insects has been very important in ascertaining the direction of spread of the Dutch elm disease which is carried to a large extent by the European elm bark beetle.

In the late 90's and early 1900's, Dr. Felt studied the spread of many diseases by the common house fly and by mosquitoes and made important contributions to this phase of entomology. In the February, 1944, issue of the National Geographic there was an article "Saboteur Mosquitoes" by Mr. Stage, Senior Entomologist of the United States Bureau of Entomology and Plant Quarantine, in which is recorded some of the work done on mosquitoes years ago under the direction of Dr. Felt.

Dr. Felt was very much interested in and very capable of doing editorial work and was editor of the Journal of Economic Entomology since its start in 1908. At one time he was editor of the National Shade Tree Conference Reports.

While State Entomologist of New York he published 25 official reports covering the activities of that office and many bulletins, which were published by the New York State Museum, as well as more than 700 timely papers and articles which included a wide variety of entomological work comprising general entomology as well as popular articles of an informative nature for the general public. He was a frequent contributor to entomological journals and scientific publications, as well as magazines and newspapers. He found time to give numerous addresses, to publish several popular books and to speak over the radio on different phases of entomological and shade tree activities. His published reports and bulletins were models of systematic arrangement and clarity of expression.

During his long and useful career, Dr. Felt had been a collaborator of the United States Bureau of Entomology, the entomological editor of the Country Gentleman from 1898 to 1911 and a member of the Supervisory Board of the American Year Book. He was a past president of the American Association of Economic Entomologists, a past president of the National Shade Tree Conference, a fellow of the Entomological Society of America, a life member of the American Entomological Society, a member of the New York and Washington Entomological Societies and of Sigma Xi and Phi Kappa Phi. Among the honors accorded him were a gold, and three silver medals at the Pan-American Exposition, Buffalo, N. Y., in 1901. He was a member of the Fraternity of Alpha Sigma Phi.

For the last twelve years, he was the author of a weekly syndicated newspaper article entitled ''Talks on Trees'' which was used by nearly three hundred newspapers throughout the country. He was the author of a number of well-known books on insects and trees, his two-volume work ''Insects Affecting Park and Woodland Trees'' appearing in 1906 and ''Manual of Tree and Shrub Insects'' in 1923. He was co-author with Dr. W. H. Rankin of ''Insects and Diseases of Ornamental Trees and Shrubs'' published in 1932. His ''Plant Galls and Gall Makers'' appeared in 1940.

Three outstanding books on shade trees were published more recently—''Our Shade Trees,'' in 1938, a second edition of which appeared in 1942; ''Pruning Trees and Shrubs,'' in 1941, and ''Shelter Trees in War and Peace,'' in 1943.

On December 8, 1943, Dr. Felt attended the national meetings of the American Association of Economic Entomologists held in Columbus, Ohio. On his way back he stopped at Utica, N. Y., to visit his son. He was back at his office on Monday, December 13. He seemed none the worse for the rigorous trip and was in excellent spirits. On Tuesday morning, December 14, he told his secretary that the night before he doubted whether he would be in that day. He said he felt as though he was coming down with the flu the night before but felt all right that morning. With a twinkle in his eye, he said that he had had such symptoms before and that nothing came of them. ''You see,'' he said, ''I am still pretty tough.'' These were the last words that Miss Burns, his secretary, heard him speak. I talked with him a few minutes later when he was going out to the Ferguson Library to look up some references and he seemed to be all right then. Later he came back to the building and died very suddenly of a heart attack.

Surviving him, in his immediate family, are three daughters and a son, a sister and two brothers, and thirteen grandchildren.

A few days after Dr. Felt had passed away, I received a letter from Dr. Peairs, present editor of the Journal of Economic Entomology, recounting his conversation with Dr. Felt during the Columbus meetings. I would like to quote that part of Dr. Peair's letter.

''I cannot refrain from telling you a little episode in Columbus; I had a chat with Dr. Felt and he brought up a discussion of some of the members who had recently died; I casually mentioned the fact that four ex-presidents had died in the last few months. Dr. Felt, with his faint smile, remarked, not seriously at all, 'I am hereby resigning my position as an ex-president of the Association, effective at once.' I am sure he thought of it as nothing but a little joke, as I did. But somehow, I almost wish the subject had not come up.''

Dr. Felt was a great scientist, a splendid gentleman and an invaluable friend. Honest, sincere and upright, he moved through life with a tranquil demeanor and faith in his fellow men. Trivialities neither upset him nor deterred him from any worthy purpose or goal.

His prime thoughts were for the younger, newer men. All were stimulated by his great personality. He aided their efforts with cheer and lent a helping hand no matter how adverse the difficulty or how uncertain the going.

I first met Dr. Felt in 1920. I have known him as a friend, as a counsellor, as a superior and as a leader. Since 1929, it was my privilege and honor to work with him side by side on important research and I have never ceased to marvel at his deft ability to size up and conquer a problem and at his unruffled composure in the face of trying obstacles.

Of him I can use no greater expression than to say that he was an all around great American. His flexibility of outlook was manifested by the ability to direct itself in a flash from the deep abstruse contemplation of science to the broad generalities of national life. He was intensely interested in the world about him. His human ties were broad and comprehensive. His love for children was apparent to many.

He was an avid reader, and enjoyed the radio from the political speeches of the great to the humor of Charlie McCarthy. He had a deep and abiding sense of humor and was quick and accurate at repartee. A remark was once made on his winged collar, so characteristic of his dress. Dr. Felt immediately replied ''What could be more fitting to my profession?'' pointing to the two-winged insects he was studying.

He was faithful to the minute to his commitments. Many were the occasions when he accepted an invitation to talk at some humble, out-of-the-way garden club or other meeting. If he said he would be there, he was always present. This custom alone stamped him as a man of his word in the eyes of many of his great circle of friends.

His appearance as well as his character was left unchanged by the surging tide of years and he was until the last the same steadfast, striking figure. His carefully trimmed, white hair and Van Dyke beard, his calm, upright bearing, his impeccable dress, his gentle but firm voice, all reflected the imprint of his great character.

How frequently and forcefully the realization has come to me during the past two months that we will never again experience together the exhilaration of solving an important problem, or of unravelling one of nature's intricacies again; that no more will we talk over together the problems of the present or the plans of the future; that no more will I have his steadfast character upon which to lean or his guiding hand to point the way!

While his passing has been such a personal loss to me, how much greater has been the loss to the profession of entomology and to the entire world of science. His contributions will loom in importance during the passing years even as the memory of his personality may dim and fade.

The accompanying bibliography, transcribed from the card index by his secretary, Miss Beatrice Burns, gives his publications in chronological order. It is an inescapable conclusion that such a bibliography cannot be complete. Dr. Felt was accredited with having written more than seven hundred important and timely papers and articles which include a wide variety of entomological works.

The following may be considered his outstanding writings:

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STANLEY W. BROMLEY.

NOTES ON MEXICAN BUTTERFLIES, III, DANAIDÆ

By F. Martin Brown

Danainæ

124. **Anosia berenice** Cramer.

G. & S. (1), **1**: 3; **2**: 638.
Ha. (2), p. 114, pl. 31a.
Ho. (5), p. 662.
Hda. Vista Hermosa, Villa Santiago, Nuevo Leon, 1500 ft., 4 ♂♂ 1 ♀ vi. 16–18. 40 (H.H.).
Galeana, Nuevo Leon, 6500 ft., 2 ♂♂ 2 ♀♀ vii.29–viii.-1.39 (H.H.).
nr. Villagran, Tamaulipas, 1160 ft., 1♀ iv.28.41 (R.P.).
Hda. Sta. Engracia, Tamaulipas, 1 ♀ vii.27.39 (H.H.).
60 mi. So. of Victoria, Tamaulipas, 1 ♂ vii.5.36 (H.D.T.).
Jacala, Hidalgo, 4500 ft., 4 ♂♂ 6 ♀♀ vi.25–vii.3.39 (H.H.).
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 2 ♀♀ v.28–29.41 (R.P.).
El Pujal, San Luis Potosi, 100 ft., 1 ♂ vii.20.39 (H.H.).
nr. Chilpancingo, Guerrero, 1 ♀ vi.26.41 (R.P.).
El Sabino, nr. Uruapan, Michoacan, 5 ♂♂ 1 ♀ vii.16–30.36 (H.D.T.).
Chichen Itza, Yucatan, 1 ♂ viii.30.36 (H.D.T.).

All this material is probably referable to race *strigosa* Bates. A few of the specimens (Villagran, Galeana, Jacala) have the greyish scales along the nervules of the upper side of the hind wings so reduced in number as to be difficult to see. There is some difference in ground color which I am inclined to believe is related to the freshness of the specimens. Those that are freshly emerged are brighter fulvous than those that have flown for some time which are rather dull dilute reddish brown. There is considerable variation in the development of the white spots in the dark margin of the hind wings. In two cases (a Jacala ♀ and an El Sol ♀) these spots are absent, in all of the others the outer row is at least indicated and in some the second row is almost complete. The baso-apical radius of the fore wing varies from 31 to 47 mm. in the males and from 29 to 44 mm. among the females. There may be a tendency for the more northern specimens to be brighter and larger, and more clearly *strigosa.*

125. **Anosia cleothera** Godart.

G. & S., **1**: 3; **2**: 638.
Ha., p. 114, pl. 31b.
Ho., p. 663.
Galeana, Nuevo Leon, 6500 ft., 1 ♂ viii.1.39 (H.H.).
60 mi. So. of Victoria, Tamaulipas, 1 ♂ vii.6.36 (H.D.T.).
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 1 ♀ v.29.41 (R.P.).
Orizaba, Vera Cruz, 2000 ft., 1 ♀ v.6.41 (R.P.).
Rio Blanco, Vera Cruz, 2200 ft., 1 ♂ v.10.41 (R.P.).

The Galeana record is rather far north for this species; however, it has been taken in Texas. In McDunnough's check list it is termed *eresimus* Cramer. I am not sure that *cleothera* is really valid for the Central American material, it was described from "Timor" (!) and the original description does not apply too well to our material. Cramer's species from the Guianas fits it no better so until a specialist settles the question it is best to let *cleothera* stand.

126. **Danaus plexippus** Linnæus.

G. & S., **1**: 1; **2**: 638.
Ha., p. 113 (as *archippus* F.), Vol. 1, pl. 28c.
Ho., p. 663 (as *curassavicæ* F.).
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft.. 1 ♀ v.29.41 (R.P.).
Tancitaro, Michoacan, 6600 ft., 1 ♂ 2 ♀♀ vii.30–viii.11.40 (H.H.).

The El Sol specimen and one of the Tancitaro females are f. *fumosa* Hulst. Hoffmann lists this species as *Diogas curassavicæ* Fabricius. Apparently he overlooked Riley's paper (Tr. Ent. Soc. Lond., **76**: 451. 1929) which definitely linked the Linnean name with our "Monarch."

Ithomiinæ

My specimens of this subfamily were determined by R. M. Fox, of the Reading Public Museum. These represent six species of which Fox says, "All are common members of the Mexican tropical fauna." All of them were collected by Robert Potts. Of these six species five are among the twenty-eight Ithomiinæ in Hoffmann's list. The other has probably been confused by Hoffmann with *Ithomia patilla* Hewitson. I am following Hoffmann's order in this listing.

139. **Dircenna klugii** Hübner.
G. & S., **1**: 28; **2**: 644.
Ha., p. 138, pl. 36e.
Ho., p. 664.
Tuxpango, Vera Cruz, 1500 ft., 1 ♂ v.8.41.
Fortin, Vera Cruz, 1600 ft., 1 ♀ v.3–4.41.
Orizaba, Vera Cruz, 2000 ft., 1 ♀ v.6.41.

141A. **Ithomia hippocrenis** Bates.
G. & S., **1**: 51, pl. 5, f. 5.
Ha., p. 142.
Ho., p. 665 (*I. patilla* in part).
Ojo de Agua, Vera Cruz, 1600 ft., 3 ♂♂ 3 ♀♀ v.12.41.

A pair of these are deposited at the Reading Public Museum. This species is not listed by Hoffmann.

145. **Oleria paula** Weymer.
G. & S., **2**: 645 (*L. victoria* **1**: 38 in part).
Ha., p. 150.
Ho., p. 665.
Ojo de Agua, Vera Cruz, 1600 ft., 1 ♂ 1 ♀ v.12.41.

Hoffmann *et al.* use the genus *Leucothryis* for this species.

149. **Pteronymia cotytto** Guérin.
G. & S., **1**: 44; **2**: 647.
Ha., p. 155, pl. 40c.
Ho., p. 665.
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 3 ♀♀ v.28–29.41.

Tuxpango, Vera Cruz, 1500 ft., 1 ♀ v.8.41.
Ojo de Agua, Vera Cruz, 1600 ft., 1 ♂ 2 ♀♀ v.12.41.

A female from El Sol and one from Ojo de Agua are deposited at the Reading Public Museum.

153. **Greta oto,** Hewitson.

G. & S., **1**: 56; **2**: 648.
Ha., p. 164, pl. 41e.
Ho., p. 666.
Ojo de Agua, Vera Cruz, 1600 ft., 2 ♂♂ 3 ♀♀ v.12.41.

Hoffmann *et al.* place this and the following species in *Hymenitis.* A pair of *oto* is deposited at the Reading Public Museum.

154. **Greta nero** Hewitson.

G. & S., **1**: 57; **2**: 648.
Ha., p. 163, pl. 41e.
Ho., p. 666.
Fortin, Vera Cruz, 1600 ft., 1 ♂ v.3.41.

SATYRIDÆ

As is so frequent with collections made by inexperienced collectors in the tropics the catch of Satyridæ brought back by both Hoogstraal and Potts is small in comparison with what it might have been. The bulk of the specimens taken are *Euptychia.* Most of the jungle-loving species were not captured.

159. **Tisiphone maculata** Hopffer.

G. & S., **1**: 72, 651.
W. (3), p. 184, pl. 44b.
Ho., p. 666.
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 2 ♂♂ 1 ♀ v.28–29.41 (R.P.).
El Bañito, Valles, San Luis Potosi, 200 ft., 2 ♀♀ vi.26–28.40 (H.H.).

The El Sol female is fresh; all of the other specimens are worn.

163. **Taygetis virgilia** Cramer.

G. & S., **1**: 97, 659.
W., p. 187, pl. 45a.

Ho., p. 666.
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 2 ♂♂ v.28–29.41 (R.P.).

167. **Taygetis inconspicua** Draudt.
Ho., p. 667.
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 7 ♂♂ iv.30, vi.28–29.41 (R.P.).
El Bañito, Valles, San Luis Potosi, 200 ft., 1 ♂ vi.28.40 (H.H.).
El Pujal, San Luis Potosi, 100 ft., 2 ♂♂ vi.17–18.39 (H.H.).

The El Bañito male and several of the May specimens from El Sol are worn; the others are reasonably fresh. I suspect that this is nothing more than a form of *virgilia.* The genus will be treated in monographic form as a member of my series of papers devoted to Ecuadorian butterflies.

172. **Neonympha gemma** Hübner.
G. & S., **1**: 92, 657, pl. 8, f. 12.
W., p. 223 (as *cornelius* F.), pl. 49f.
Ho., p. 667.
Hda. Vista Hermosa, Villa Santiago, Nuevo Leon, 1500 ft., 2 ♂♂ 1 ♀ vi.18–20.40 (H.H.).
60 mi. So. of Victoria, Tamaulipas, 2 ♂♂ vii.6.36 (H.D.T.).
Jacala, Hidalgo, 4500 ft., 3 ♂♂ vi.24–29.39 (H.H.).
Fortin, Vera Cruz, 1600 ft., 1 ♂ v.4.41 (R.P.).

179. **Megisto hesione** Sulzer.
G. & S., **1**: 75, 651 (as *ocirrhoe*).
W., p. 194, pl. 46d.
Ho., p. 667.
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 7 ♂♂ iv.30–31, v.28–29.41 (R.P.).
Ojo de Agua, Vera Cruz, 1600 ft., 2 ♀♀ v.12.41 (R.P.).

181. **Megisto mollina** Hewitson.
G. & S., **1**: 76, 652, pl. 8, ff. 13, 14 (fig. as *westwoodi*).

W., p. 195, pl. 46e.
Ho., p. 668.
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 5 ♂♂ v.28–29.41 (R.P.).
Ojo de Agua, Vera Cruz, 1600 ft., 3 ♂♂ 3 ♀♀ v.12.41 (R.P.).

The females and one male from Ojo de Agua are f. *westwoodi* Butler.

182. **Megisto fetna** Butler.

G. & S., **1**: 77, 652, pl. 8, ff. 15, 16.
W., p. 195.
Ho., p. 668.
Chilpancingo, Guerrero, 1 ♂ vi.26.41 (R.P.).

184. **Megisto terrestris** Butler.

G. & S., **1**: 79.
W., p. 200.
Ho., p. 668.
Hda. Vista Hermosa, Villa Santiago, Nuevo Leon, 1500 ft., 1 ♂ vi.19.40 (H.H.).

This specimen is probably not true *terrestris* which hails from eastern South America but may be the same form regarded as *terrestris* by Hoffmann. It is far north of Hoffmann's record "Selva virgen de Campeche (Tierra caliente)." It compares well with Weymer's figure noted above.

188. **Megisto rubricata** Edwards.

G. & S., **1**: 82, 655, pl. 8, f. 5.
W., p. 202.
Ho., p. 668.
Ojo de Agua, Sabinas Hidalgo, Nuevo Leon, 1000 ft., 1 ♂ vi.14.40 (H.H.).
Hda. Vista Hermosa, Villa Santiago, Nuevo Leon, 1600 ft., 1 ♂ vi.19.40 (H.H.).
Jacala, Hidalgo, 4500–5100 ft., 3 ♂♂ 2 ♀♀ vi.24.39 (H.H.).

190. **Megisto renata disaffecta** Butler.

G. & S., **1**: 82, 655, pl. 8, f. 5 (as *renata*).
W., p. 204, pl. 47d.
Ho., p. 668.
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 1 ♂ 1 ♀ iv.30–31.41 (R.P.).
Fortin, Vera Cruz, 1600 ft., 1 ♂ v.3.41 (R.P.).
Tuxpango, Vera Cruz, 1500 ft., 1 ♂ v.9.41 (R.P.).
Ojo de Agua, Vera Cruz, 1600 ft., 3 ♂♂ v.12.41 (R.P.).
El Sabino, nr. Uruapan, Michoacan, 1 ♂ 1 ♀ vii.15–30.36 (H.D.T.).
Chichen Itza, Yucatan, 2 ♂♂ viii.30.36 (H.D.T.).

Determination tentative.

191. **Megisto hermes** Fabricius.

G. & S., **1**: 86, 656, pl. 8, ff. 6, 7 (as *camerta*).
W., p. 207, pl. 48a.
Ho., p. 668.
Hda. Vista Hermosa, Villa Santiago, Nuevo Leon, 1600 ft., 3 ♂♂ vi.17–18.40 (H.H.).
Monterrey, Nuevo Leon, 1800 ft., 2 ♂♂ 1 ♀ iv.27.41 (R.P.).
nr. Villagran, Tamaulipas, 1160 ft., 1 ♂ iv.28.41 (R.P.).
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 2 ♂♂ 2 ♀♀ v.28–29.41 (R.P.).
El Bañito, Valles, San Luis Potosi, 200 ft., 3 ♂♂ vi.27.41 (H.H.); 1 ♂ iv.30.41 (R.P.).
El Pujal, San Luis Potosi, 100 ft., 2 ♂♂ 5 ♀♀ vii.17–21.39 (H.H.).
Hda. Potrero Viejo, Vera Cruz, 1500 ft., 1 ♀ v.5.41 (R.P.).
Tuxpango, Vera Cruz, 1500 ft., 1 ♀ v.9.41 (R.P.).
Fortin, Vera Cruz, 1600 ft., 2 ♀♀ v.4.41 (R.P.).
Ojo de Agua, Vera Cruz, 2000 ft., 2 ♂♂ 1 ♀ v.12.41 (R.P.).
Orizaba, Vera Cruz, 2000 ft., 4 ♂♂ 2 ♀♀ v.6.41 (R.P.).
60 mi. So. of Victoria, Tamaulipas, 1 ♂ 1 ♀ vii.6.36 (H.D.T.).

El Sabino, nr. Uruapan, Michoacan, 5 ♂♂ 4 ♀♀ vii.15–30.36 (H.D.T.).
Chichen Itza, Yucatan, 2 ♀♀ viii.30.36 (H.D.T.).

An extremely varied series. The species "*hermes*" may be composite.

197. **Megisto libye** Linnæus.

G. & S., **1**: 83, 655.
W., p. 212, pl. 48e.
Ho., p. 669.
Ojo de Agua, Vera Cruz, 1600 ft., 1 ♀ v.12.41 (R.P.).

198. **Megisto glaucina** Bates.

G. & S., **1**: 90, pl. 8, ff. 18, 19.
W., p. 216, pl. 49b.
Ho., p. 669.
Ojo de Agua, Vera Cruz, 1600 ft., 1 ♂ 1 ♀ v.12.41 (R.P.).

Megisto sp.

Fortin, Vera Cruz, 1600 ft., 1 ♂ v.4.41 (R.P.).
Ojo de Agua, Vera Cruz, 2000 ft., 1 ♂ v.6.41 (R.P.).

A species near *nebulosa* Butler. Differing from that South American species in having five ocelli on the under side of the fore wing.

200. **Pindis squamistriga** Felder.

G. & S., **1**: 80, 654, pl. 8, f. 24 (fig. as *zabdi*).
W., p. 224, pl. 50a.
Ho., p. 669.
Jacala, Hidalgo, 4500 ft., 2 ♂♂ vi.23–29.39 (H.H.).
El Sabino, nr. Uruapan, Michoacan, 1 ♂ vii.15–30.36 (H.D.T.).
Sta. Lucretia, 2 ♂♂ ix.4.39 (H.D.T.).

The two Jacala specimens are badly battered; fortunately one entire fore wing is intact on one specimen, sufficient to recognize the genus and species. This is the first record of the species from so far northeast in Mexico.

202. **Paramecera xicaque** Reakirt.

G. & S., **1**: 101, 660.
W., p. 225, pl. 50a.
Ho., p. 669.
Tancitaro, Michoacan, 6600 ft., 1 ♂ vii.25.40 (H.H.).

A battered specimen.

BRASSOLIDÆ

216. **Opsiphanes cassina fabricii** Boisduval.

G. & S., **1**: 127, 664 (as *cassiæ*).
F. (4), p. 302, pl. 51d.
Ho., p. 671.
El Bañito, Valles, San Luis Potosi, 200 ft., 3 ♂♂ 1 ♀ vi.28.40 (H.H.).

Hoffmann reports this species from both coasts as far north as Sinaloa and Tamaulipas in contrast to Fruhstorfer's report of it only as far north as Tepic, Nayarit on the west coast and no mention of it in eastern Mexico.

218. **Eryphanis æsacus æsacus** Herrick-Schaffer.

G. & S., **1**: 137, 666.
F., p. 313, pl. 64b.
Ho., p. 671.
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 2 ♂♂ 1 ♀ v.28–29.41 (R.P.).
El Bañito, Valles, San Luis Potosi, 200 ft., 1 ♂ v.28.40 (H.H.).
El Pujal, San Luis Potosi, 100 ft., 2 ♂♂ vi.18.39 (H.H.).

These records extend the range of the species a little further north than that given by Hoffmann. Fruhstorfer says of the species, "Everywhere rare."

MORPHIDÆ

225. **Morpho peleides montezuma** Guenee

G. & S., **1**: 119, 663 (as *peleides*).
F., p. 344.
Ho., p. 672.

El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 5 ♂♂ v.29.41 (R.P.).

El Bañito, Valles, San Luis Potosi, 200 ft., 2 ♂♂ vii.22.39, vi.26.40 (H.H.).

Ojo de Agua, Vera Cruz, 1600 ft., 3 ♂♂ 1 ♀ v.12.41 (R.P.).

The Ojo de Agua material is in very poor condition, especially the female. The other specimens are in good condition. The records for San Luis Potosi extend the range of the species a little to the north.

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OUTDOOR PROTECTION FROM MOSQUITOES*

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Even in areas where mosquito control work has been systematically conducted for many years it has not been possible, with our present means and methods, completely to eradicate the mosquito. Under conditions favorable for its rapid development, such as during summers of abundant rainfall, it becomes at times a serious interference with human comfort.

When a female mosquito bites or pierces the skin to suck our blood she injects into the wound a small amount of a poisonous substance, the chemical composition of which has not been definitely established. The effect of this injected material varies with different species of mosquitoes as well as with the susceptibility of the bitten individual. While a small number of people appear to possess a certain degree of immunity, either natural or acquired, against this poison, the great majority of us, especially children, suffer from its effects. Immediately following the bite, an itching sensation is felt which may be followed by considerable swelling. The scratching induced by the irritation may cause a secondary blood infection, especially among children, leading to serious results. The irritation may be relieved by washing the swelling with any one of the following solutions: soft soap, alcohol, glycerin, iodine or borax.

Complete elimination of mosquitoes indoors can be readily accomplished by proper screening, spraying, or fumigating. On the other hand, protection from mosquito annoyance outdoors constitutes a difficult problem, the solution of which cannot always be successfully attained.

Mosquito repellents.—Various chemicals, possessing repelling properties against mosquitoes, have been recommended and commercialized. They are applied in form of lotions, ointments or powders to the exposed parts of the body. The duration of the

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* Journal Series paper of the New Jersey Agricultural Experiment Station, Rutgers University, Department of Entomology.

protection may vary from a short time to several hours, depending on the inherent repellent properties of the chemical, thoroughness of application, species and density of the mosquito population, degree of attractiveness possessed by the individual, and atmospheric factors.

Citronella is one of the oldest mosquito repellents used either in its natural liquid state or in combination with various other compounds. One of the early formulas recommended by Dr. L. O. Howard (1923) contains the following ingredients: oil of citronella 2 ounces, spirits of camphor 2 ounces, and oil of cedar 1 ounce. This preparation can also be made in form of a salve, if desired, by mixing in enough petrolatum or similar semisolids. One thorough application may remain effective for 1 or 2 hours. Dr. Herms (1939) finds the following formula successful: citronella 3 parts, kerosene 2 parts, and coconut oil 4 parts. To this mixture is added 1 per cent carbolic acid. Within the last few years longer lasting and more efficient repellents have been synthesized, as a result of research conducted at the Federal Bureau of Entomology in Washington and at Rutgers University (Granett 1940), in cooperation with various commercial concerns. Three of these are at present widely used, namely, dimethyl phthalate, Indalone, and formula No. 612.

Though mosquito repellents are contributing a great deal toward relief from mosquito annoyance to individuals, such as night watchmen, military pickets, mosquito workers and fishermen, compelled to remain exposed for considerable lengths of time in mosquito-infested areas, their frequent application encounters many drawbacks. First, not all the repellent mixtures thus far developed repel mosquitoes from a distance. In virtually every case the mosquito has to alight, or at least come very close to the treated surface, before the chemical acts on it. Complete and thorough coverage is, therefore, necessary, otherwise untreated spots may be bitten. Second, virtually all of the repellents cause sharp smarting on delicate parts of the skin such as eyelids, face and forehead. This irritation is apt to become rather pungent and often unbearable to many sensitive individuals under warm, humid atmospheres and other conditions when copious perspiration occurs. Third, because of the solvent properties of the repellents, a treated individual must avoid coming in contact with varnished and painted surfaces. Either paint or varnish will be partially removed, resulting in staining of clothes or any other objects incidentally touched. Fourth, the repellent does not protect a group, much less a large outdoor audience, unless each individual is treated. Fifth, continuous feel of a greasy, somewhat irritating solvent all over one's skin becomes rather unpleasant. Unless compelled by military duty or night work, few individuals will willingly submit themselves to this treatment night after night. Instead they would rather stay indoors or in a well-screened porch.

Mosquito sprays.—In view of these objectionable features, the writer became interested in developing a mosquito spray which should, with no injury to man, animals, and plants, completely free an area from adult mosquitoes where groups of people could spend a summer evening with no mosquito annoyance and with perfect body comfort. This effort coincided with another problem, that of developing a mosquito larvicide which should kill mosquito larvæ and pupæ with no injury to fish, water fowl, and aquatic plants, offering at the same time no fire hazard. Such a product was called for in residential sections, ornamental ponds, game conservation parks, and similar places where mosquito oil was objectionable. By 1931 the New Jersey Pyrethrum Mosquito Larvicide was developed and came into wide use as a substitute for oil wherever the latter meets with objections, Ginsburg (1930). The larvicide is essentially an emulsion consisting of 66 per cent kerosene, 0.5 per cent sodium lauryl sulfate as emulsifier, 0.07 per cent pyrethrins, and about 34 per cent water. The concentrated stock emulsion is mixed just before spraying with about 10 parts of clear water, which may be taken directly from the area to be sprayed.

Preliminary tests conducted during 1934 (Ginsburg 1935) indicated that spraying with this diluted larvicide might also prove effective in ridding a given area from adult mosquitoes. Further extensive experiments carried out during 1935–36 (Ginsburg 1936, 1937) by the writer in cooperation with the various County Mosquito Commissions in New Jersey have substantiated this assumption and have established a definite method of procedure for spraying.

The experiments during these three years have given us some fundamental knowledge as well as authentic information concerning the possibility and practicability of eliminating mosquito annoyance from outdoor public gatherings without in any way interfering with human comfort and activities. We have learned how to accomplish this relief without appreciable injury to plant life. These results have also thrown some light on the physical and chemical mechanism involved as well as the rôle that each ingredient of the larvicide plays in this process. From the experience thus far gained the following principles may be evolved as guides in this work.

In order successfully to eliminate adult mosquitoes from a given area outdoors, two objectives must be attained. First, all female mosquitoes resting in the grass, shrubs, and throughout the area to be treated must be killed. This is accomplished by thoroughly spraying the entire grounds before the audience gathers. Second, the influx of mosquitoes from the surroundings into the protected area must be prevented. For this purpose the spray is directed upward, as high as the pressure permits, so as to saturate the atmosphere with a fine mist of larvicide. This air-fogging may have to be repeated two or three times during the affair, depending on the species and density of mosquitoes, the flight intensity, the direction and velocity of wind, and other atmospheric factors. It should be emphasized that, for complete protection, it is just as important to kill or incapacitate all the female mosquitoes hiding in vegetation as it is to bar those in the surroundings from flying in. The spray should be applied in highly dispersed form, as a fog or mist. The finer the liquid particles, the less will be the danger of injury to plants and the longer will it remain floating in the air. The diluted larvicide must be kept thoroughly mixed during spraying.

The mechanism involved in this process is twofold, repellency and contact killing. The female mosquito when in contact with the larvicide is either killed or paralyzed to such a degree that, for an indefinite period, she can neither fly nor bite. These symptoms are brought about primarily by the pyrethrins incorporated in the larvicide. The petroleum oil acts as a carrier for the pyrethrum. It should be mentioned here that neither an aqueous spray of pyrethrum extract nor a kerosene emulsion when applied separately gave satisfactory protection. Evidently the combination of both ingredients is necessary for adequate protection. The water in the larvicide merely serves as the outer phase in which the two toxic ingredients are dispersed by the aid of the emulsifier.

The question has been asked: What happens to the mosquitoes in the sprayed area? The following observations may offer an explanation. When tents were sprayed inside with the larvicide, some mosquitoes were found on the ground apparently dead while others remained on the canvas in a quiescent condition. When disturbed they attempted to fly but soon again attached themselves to the canvas. They remained for some time in this partly paralyzed condition and finally either dropped to the ground or flew away. These symptoms closely resemble those observed in other insects treated with pyrethrum insecticides and can, therefore, be attributed directly to the pyrethrins incorporated in the larvicide. Again, while checking the mosquito density the writer observed on several occasions that when mosquitoes reach the treated area they abruptly change their course of flight, turning back or at a right angle. This behavior suggests repellency. Evidently mosquitoes find the oil, the pyrethrum, or both combined so disagreeable that they keep away from the treated area.

DIRECTIONS FOR SPRAYING

The concentrated larvicide is first well shaken or stirred. It is then mixed with 12 parts of water (1 quart to 3 gallons) in the sprayer. This diluted mixture is ready for spraying. During the spraying operation it should be frequently shaken or stirred in order to insure uniform distribution of the larvicide.

Procedure.—Before the affair starts, the entire area, including grass, shrubs, bleachers, sheds, benches, or any other place where mosquitoes may rest during the day, is thoroughly sprayed with the diluted larvicide. This should kill all mosquitoes as well as many other insects hiding in the grass, shrubs, and other places. The next object is to prevent mosquitoes from the surroundings from coming into the protected area. For this purpose the spray is directed upward so as to saturate the atmosphere with a fine mist or fog of the larvicide. If the spray is applied against the wind the fine mist or fog will drift with the wind throughout the area. This entire operation should be finished before the gathering takes place. Just about dusk or when the mosquitoes from the outside begin to fly in, another fogging is necessary. For this purpose the spray is applied as high as the sprayer permits and primarily on the side from which the wind is blowing. This mist in the air wards off mosquitoes from outside the treated area. If no noticeable wind prevails it may be necessary to fog all around the area, directing the spray upward so as to keep the inflying mosquitoes away. A thorough fogging about the time when the mosquitoes start coming in should be sufficient for the rest of the evening. Under very heavy infestations, where the mosquitoes are coming in large numbers, a second fogging about 9:30 may be necessary.

Apparatus Required.—(1) on small areas, such as backyards, porches, and private lawns, a garden sprayer, knapsack sprayer, bucket pump, or electric sprayer capable of producing a fine spray, about 10 or 15 feet high, may be used with success.

(2) For spraying large areas, such as picnic grounds, stadiums, and open air theaters, a power sprayer capable of developing a pressure of 200 pounds or more per square inch and equipped with a spray gun is necessary. The larvicide has been found most efficient in protecting outdoor audiences on comparatively large areas where power sprayers can be used.

Precautions.—Before attempting to treat an area, one should make a thorough survey in order to ascertain the following points: sources of mosquitoes; possible mosquito resting places; direction of wind; type of vegetation present; water supply for mixing the larvicide; kind of spraying outfit necessary; nature of gatherings; and any difficulties that may be anticipated during the spraying operation. This information should enable the operator to plan his method of procedure.

PRESENT STATUS OF THE NEW JERSEY PYRETHRUM MOSQUITO LARVICIDE

Since this spray was introduced, numerous outdoor evening concerts, carnivals, church parties, community gatherings, and lawn parties have been fully protected from mosquitoes either directly by the County Mosquito Commissions at a nominal cost, or indirectly through their assistance, guidance, and advice. The number of persons present on these occasions varied from small groups to many thousands. Records show that in several instances some 20,000* persons in one gathering have enjoyed an open air evening concert with no mosquito discomfort as a result of spraying the stadium where the affair was held. When the larvicide was sprayed as directed, no injury has resulted to grass, shrubs, trees, ornamental plants or aquatic plants. Up to and including 1942, its use increased with each successive season.

Prior to 1934 most of the pyrethrum used in this country came from Japan, and small amounts from Dalmatia and the Kenya Colony in British East Africa. By 1939 the picture was reversed; most of our pyrethrum was imported from Kenya and very little from Japan. When World War II broke out, cultivation of pyrethrum in the British possessions, for various reasons, decreased. Shipping shortage and submarine losses still further curtailed the flow of pyrethrum flowers to this country. After Pearl Harbor, practically all the available and potential supplies of pyrethrum were taken over by the United States Government for army use. At present the War Production Board does not allow the use of pyrethrum for preparing the larvicide. Thus, the excellent record of this newly developed method for temporary relief from biting female mosquitoes has been suddenly terminated for the duration or until enough pyrethrum becomes available to supply a surplus, above the amount necessary for our armed forces.

Intensive testing is now being conducted with various other chemicals as possible substitutes for pyrethrum. At this date, however, none has proved equal to pyrethrum from the standpoints of effectiveness against the mosquito and of safety to man, animals, and plants.

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* Essex County Symphony Society, at the Newark School Stadium.

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NEW NEOTROPICAL THECLINÆ (LEPIDOPTERA, LYCÆNIDÆ)

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The following new Theclinæ have come to my attention recently, two of them during the arranging of the Neotropical Lycænidæ in the collection of the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy (M.C.Z.) and one in a loan of study material from the American Museum of Natural History.

Thecla caramba, new species

Eyes ringed with pale green. *Frons* metallic green. *Collar* above obscure, laterally brown. *Palpi* rusty gray, terminal sediment dark. *Antennæ* black above, white annulate below. *Thorax* above black-brown (scaled with metallic blue?), covered anteriorly, laterally and posteriorly with long, back-directed hairs, bluish in color; below with moderately long, red-brown hair. *Abdomen* above metallic blue, becoming gray towards the anal extremity; below pale yellow, or rich cream. *Legs* largely black, ringed narrowly and infrequently by white.

UPPERSIDE:

Male. Both wings dark, lustrous blue, with a purple luster. *Fore wing* with a narrow outer marginal border, thickening slightly at the apex. *Hind wing* with costa gray-brown, and inner margin gray. Outer margin very narrowly black. Anal lobe rusty. Outer margin *very slightly* produced at the vein-ends from M_1 to the anal angle, but no indication of any tails is present. *Fringe* of both wings brown, on hind wing paler outwardly between the veins.

UNDERSIDE:

Male. Both wings bright pea-green. *Fore wing* with a gray area from Cu_2 to the inner margin. The green along this gray area is bluish, basad. On the outer margin the green extends down to 2A. *Hind wing* with a white spot on the costa, near outer angle, basally edged with dark red. A similar, but post-discal, spot in M_2–M_3 and one in Cu_1–Cu_2. In Cu_2–2A is a white dash, basally edged with red, and in 2A-inner margin is a similar, but heavier dash. Anal lobe red, extending on outer margin to Cu_2. In Cu_1–Cu_2 is a submarginal red dash. *Fringe* of both wings rusty-red, outwardly paler on the hind wing between the veins.

Length of fore wing: Male, 15 mm.

Holotype, male, Massaranduba-Blumenau, Brasil (ex coll. E. I. Huntington (no. 1009)); in the American Museum of Natural History.

Remarks. Evidently closely allied to *amyntor* Cramer,[1] of which, unfortunately, no males have been examined. The holotype of *caramba* was compared with a female (in M.C.Z., no data, ex coll. A. G. Weeks) of *amyntor,* the description and figure of Draudt (1919, *in* Seitz, Macrolep. World, 5, p. 762, pl. 153 i), and Cramer's descriptions and figures of *amyntor* (*loc. cit.*) and *menalcas* (1782, Pap. Exot., 3, p. 117, pl. 259, figs. A and B).

Above, *caramba* differs from *amyntor* (of Draudt) in the narrower, better defined marginal border. Below, from the female at hand, the present species seems to have more of an anal lobe and less prominent white markings. The absence of a tail is probably very significant, and would seem to connect *amyntor* to the *acaste* group, particularly to those members of that group with a green frons. It certainly destroys Draudt's character for splitting the "*amyntor*-group" into two sections (*i.e.,* the tailed section, comprising the true *amyntor* group, to which *caramba* obviously belongs, and the tailless section, more aptly called the *acaste* group, and to which *caramba* bears little (relative) resemblance.

Thecla punona, new species

Eyes ringed with white. *Frons* with moderately profuse, long, erect pale gray hairs. *Collar* above with brown and gray hairs intermingled; on the sides, white. *Antennæ* largely white below, black above, but with thin annulations of each extending into the other; club black. *Thorax* black above, with sparsely strewn bronzy-brown hairs; below with pallid gray hair, quite profuse. *Abdomen* gray-tan above, gray below.

UPPERSIDE:

Female?. Both wings slightly lustrous brown. *Hind wing* with outer margin from M_3 to the anal angle scalloped, and with a narrow whitish marginal thread-line from Cu_2 to 2A. *Fringe* of both wings dirty white, basally darker; that of hind wing obscurely dark at the vein-ends.

UNDERSIDE:

Female?. *Fore wing* tan. A post-discal, slightly curved, dark brown line, outwardly white, proceeds from costa to Cu_2. Immediately without this line at the apex is a hoary area, extending from costa roughly to M_3. A sub-

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[1] 1779, Pap. Exot., etc., 1, p. 76, pl. 48, fig. E.

marginal, frequently indefinite line crosses faintly through this, increasing in visibility below it until its disappearance at 2A. *Hind wing* hoary gray, darker on the outer margin. A submarginal row of faint yellowish or pallid-fulvous lunules parallels entirely the outer margin. A curved, irregular, discal, brown line, tan within and white without, crosses from costa to inner margin, and a post-basal, similar one also, though necessarily shorter. The two close off an area, slightly darker than the surrounding ground, which is just basad of the center. Occasionally the ground color is so disposed as to give the appearance of a row of pale gray lunules capping the yellowish ones on the outer margin. *Fringe* similar to the upperside but rather darker.

Length of fore wing: Female?, 9.5–11 mm.

Holotype, female(?), Puno, Peru, 12,500 feet, Nov. 1, 1898 (Wm. J. Gerhard).

Paratypes, two females(?), same data as holotype.

Holotype and one paratype, no. 26258 in the M.C.Z. One paratype in the collection of the author.

Remarks. Rather closely allied to *oribata* Weymer[2] and possibly only subspecifically distinct from it. The principal differencse are: the less apically produced fore wing and less anally produced hind wing (if Weymer's figure is correct); the less distinct outer row of spots on the fore wing below, and the less apparent submarginal line on the hind wing below; the more prominent basal dashes; the less distinctly black-checked fringe, particularly on the hind wing. A single specimen from Chulumani, Bolivia (Nov. 28, 1898, W. J. Gerhard), not made part of the type series, approaches *oribata* in several of these respects.

Weymer's figure shows the lines on the underside to be quite dark, almost black, while in *punona* they are brown. It is probable, however, that the figure errs somewhat in this respect.

Draudt (1919, *in* Seitz, Macrolep. World, 5, p. 760, pl. 153 h) described a new species under the name of *anosma,* which he later (Seitz, add. and corr., p. 823) synonymized to *oribata.* In his description he mentioned ''incoherent dark lunular spots'' and ''longer small tail on the lower median vein'' neither of which is particularly clear. The latter particularly would seem to exclude it entirely from the *culminicola*-group. It is presumed that by ''median'' he meant ''cubital.''

[2] 1890, Lepidopteren gesammelt . . . von A. Stübel (Rhopalocera by Weymer), p. 123, pl. 4, fig. 8.

Thecla kalikimaka, new species

Thecla hemon: Hoffman, 1940, Anales Inst. Biol. Mex., 11, p. 704 (no. 586) (*nec* hemon Hübner). – Clench is referring to mavors Hübner

Eye ringed obscurely with white. *Frons* brown. *Collar* brown. *Antennæ* black-brown, club dull fulvous; below, white annulate, club brighter fulvous. *Palpi* brown, slightly hoary within. *Thorax* metallic green-blue above, slightly hairy; below, covered with uniform gray-brown hair. *Abdomen* above green-blue, below brown. *Legs* brown-black, tarsal segments white annulate.

UPPERSIDE:

Male. Both wings somewhat bronzy green. *Fore wing* with a compound scent-pad consisting of a dark dash across the cell-end and a rectangular brown patch just beyond. Outer margin moderately heavily edged with brown, thickening considerably towards the apex. The basal limit of this brown is very tenuous and indefinite. *Hind wing* with a small anal area of brown, and two tails, one each at Cu_1 and Cu_2, the latter longer and emitted tangentially. Anal lobe deeply incised, as is usual in this group.

UNDERSIDE:

Both wings brown. *Fore wing* with a faint, dull, metallic green iridescence. Paler on inner margin. A discal dark brown line crosses from costa to Cu_2, quite straight. *Hind wing* with a straight discal line from Rs opposite the outer angle to just beyond Cu_2 in the center of the wing. From there it becomes metallic green, and proceeds to 2A, where it angles sharply basad and terminates at the inner margin. A submarginal line starts at about M_2 and proceeds parallel to the outer margin, reaching just beyond Cu_2 where it angles basad, to terminate at the inner margin, edged inwardly from Cu_2 with a few metallic scales. A pale, hardly noticeable marginal line runs from outer angle to apex, becoming very obscurely greenish from Cu_1 on. Anal region restrictedly irrorated with pale scales. A faint line, post-basal, starts on costa and proceeds to lower cell-end. *Fringe* of both wings brown.

Length of fore wing: Male, 16 mm.

Holotype, male, Jalapa, Mexico, date and collector unknown, ex coll. A. G. Weeks, Jr.

Paratype, male, same locality, Sept. 8, 1884 ("Morrison"), ex coll. F. A. Eddy.

Holotype, M.C.Z. 26257. Paratype in the author's collection.

Remarks. Apparently most closely allied to *mavors* and *triquetra* (references and authorships of these names below). From both it differs in the brown color of the underside, which in these species is bright metallic green or blue. The lines below are less apparent than in either of the two species (except that in *kalikimaka* there is a discal line on the fore wing, lacking in *mavors*). Above it differs from *triquetra* in the green color (blue in that species), and from *mavors* in the lack of a pale, almost white, anal line. The apical and marginal border of the fore wing appears slightly heavier than in either *mavors* or *triquetra*. It would seem closest to *mavors*, since it has the two tails of that species, as opposed to the single one of *triquetra*.

A brief discussion of the species of this group (as limited by Draudt, p. 750) might not be amiss.

Thecla mavors Hübner (1818, Zutr. zur Samml. Exot. Schmett., 1st. Hund., p. 31 (no. 95), figs. 189, 190). Quite variable, but whether racially or not cannot be determined from the material at hand. The male is metallic green above, with a compound scent-pad, and is bordered narrowly and indistinctly with black-brown on the fore wing. Hind wing at the anal angle edged with very pale green, almost white. Below green, fore wing brown on inner margin, otherwise practically immaculate. Hind wing with a discal and submarginal line, each angled basad at Cu_2–2A. Outward of the latter is a band of brownish maroon from M_1 to the anal angle. Anal lobe similarly colored. Two tails, the larger at Cu_2 tangentially emitted.

Female, brown above and below. The latter surface crossed on both wings by thin brown lines; two on fore wings, parallel to the outer margin, and a short one crossing the cell-end. Another pair on hind wing, also parallel to the outer margin, but angling basad at Cu_2–2A. A post-basal line commences on costa, crosses cell-end and stops.

Specimens in the M.C.Z. from Suapure, Venezuela; Cusilluni, Bolivia; Cumato Arepo, Savanna, Trinidad; Rio Tapajoz, Brasil.

A Suapure female has the two lines on the hind wing abnormally close together, but whether or not this is an individual variant cannot be stated without additional material.

Thecla triquetra Hewitson (1862–1869, Ill. Diurn. Lep. Lycænidæ, p. 76, pl. 28, figs. 17, 18, 19). Differs from *mavors* in the male by being blue above, having but one tail (also tangentially emitted), the bluer color below, and the presence of a discal line on the fore wing, and heavier ones on the hind wing. Females differ from *mavors* females chiefly in the lack of a Cu_1 tail.

Otherwise they appear very similar. There is, perhaps, a slight difference in the shape of the hind wing, but more specimens are needed to confirm it.

In the M.C.Z. from Blumenau and Rio de Janeiro, Brasil.

Thecla paupera Felder (1865, Reise Novara, Lep. 2, p. 246, pl. 31, fig. 15). May be distinguished from the above in the male by the dark green color and the lack of a scent-pad on the fore wing. Differs below in that the inner of the two longest lines touches the outer at the anal angle.

Apparently not in the M.C.Z. (see under *ella*).

Thecla drucei Lathy (1926, Ann. Mag. Nat. Hist., (9) 17, p. 41). This species, also not in the M.C.Z., is figured in the Trans. Ent. Soc. London, 78, pl. 9, fig. 9 (plate accompanying paper that begins on p. 133). It apparently belongs near *paupera* and *harrietta,* but differs, in the male, by the possession of a scent-pad. There are other differences as well.

Thecla ella Draudt (1919, *in* Seitz, Macrolep. World, 5, p. 750, pl. 148 b as *mavors*). Differs from *paupera* in that the inner line below on the hind wing is w-shaped at the anal angle. This is the difference brought out by Draudt. He noted the fact that *paupera* was rare, and very likely based this difference on the figure of Felder, which does show no "W" at the anal angle of the hind wing below. This character, however, may be very faint (as in the single specimen here provisionally assigned to *ella*), and consequently overlooked when Felder's specimen was figured.

A single specimen in the M.C.Z. (Bogota, Colombia?) ex coll. A. G. Weeks, may possibly be this species. It has, however, much heavier borders above than Draudt's illustration shows, and narrower lines below. It might also be *paupera,* but again the markings below are all thinner than Draudt's and Felder's illustrations show.

Thecla harrietta Weeks (1901, Can. Ent., 33, p. 294). This is a perfectly good species, allied to *paupera* and *ella.* Besides the greatly differing color above, the lines below are rather different, the central apex of the "W" being rather shorter than in the specimen cited above, and in Draudt's figure of *ella*. The discal line on the fore wing extends into the Cu_2–2A interspace, which it apparently does not in the other species. In other Theclinæ, however, this character has been found to be individually variable.

One specimen in the M.C.Z. (Type, M.C.Z. no. 16673) from Coroico, Bolivia, April 20, 1899 (Wm. J. Gerhard).

NOTE ON THE DEATH-FEINT OF BRUCHUS OBTECTUS (SAY)

The common bean weevil, *Bruchus obtectus*, exhibits a wide variation in the duration of its comparatively brief death-feint. Out of 283 freshly emerged beetles, only 72 could be induced to feign death. Although dropped from a height of 12 inches, having their thoraxes pinched, being rolled between the thumb and forefinger, 211 of the weevils refused to perform in spite of all the handling. The 72 that actually went into death-feints, frequently did so, with comparatively little trouble. A slight disturbance such as touching them with the tip of a pencil, or causing them to fall one inch, or gently pressing the sides of the thorax brought about the desired reaction.

The temperature during these tests was 70° F. For the 72 beetles that reacted, the duration of the feint varied in length from 1 to 300 seconds. The duration of the weighted, arithmetic average death-feint was 33.5 seconds, and the standard deviation was 74.8. The following table shows the duration of the death-feint in the 72 different beetles that reacted:

No. beetles	Length of death-feint	No. beetles	Length of death-feint	No. beetles	Length of death-feint	No. beetles	Length of death-feint
	Seconds		*Seconds*		*Seconds*		*Seconds*
2	1	1	12	5	30	1	75
4	2	2	14	1	32	1	78
3	3	6	15	1	33	1	80
1	4	3	17	1	35	1	100
5	5	1	18	1	40	1	105
1	6	5	20	1	50	1	250
2	8	1	22	1	53	1	290
2	9	1	23	1	57	1	300
3	10	3	25	1	60		
2	11	1	29	2	70		

HARRY B. WEISS.

DIFFERENTIATION OF FEMALES OF CERTAIN SPECIES OF CULEX BY THE CIBARIAL ARMATURE

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The purpose of this paper is to describe characters of the cibarial (or "pharyngeal") armature of the *Culex* found in the southeastern United States. These characters support the usual subgeneric classification and serve in addition to distinguish females, previously considered indistinguishable, of certain of the species commonly placed in the subgenus *Melanoconion* (e.g., by King, Bradley, McNeel, 1942).

The cibarial armature has been used by a number of authors in separating the subgenera and certain Old World species of *Anopheles*. Christophers (1933) gives a good account of the structures involved in *Anopheles*.

The armature lies on the posterior margin of the anterior pump of alimentary canal. This pump has usually been called the pharynx, but Snodgrass (1943) has pointed out that it is in reality the cibarium. The second pump is the true pharynx. The ventral surface of the cibarium is sclerotic. This sclerotized area ends posteriorly in a broadly concave margin lying between the two cibarial cornua, which are apodemal muscle attachments at the posterior end of the cibarium. The cibarial armature, which is present only in females, consists of a series of sclerotized projections or teeth along the margin between the cornua.

With a little practice these structures can be studied about as easily as the male genitalia. The technique used is as follows: The head is placed in 10 per cent potassium hydroxide and heated for a short time. Then it is placed in water on a slide and under a binocular microscope the entire outer wall of the head is broken away in large pieces by means of fine needles. The pharynx and cibarium, attached to the hypopharynx, may now be seen within

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[1] Acknowledgment for both helpful advice and specimens for dissection is made to Major Stanley J. Carpenter and Captain Woodrow W. Middlekauff.

and are transferred, with or without separation from the other mouthparts, to a drop of chloral hydrate medium (Berlese's medium) on a slide. Here the pharynx is pulled away from the cibarium. The cibarial armature will probably still not be clearly visible because of the imbricated sclerotized teeth in the membrane of the dorsal surface of the cibarium between the cibarial cornua. Therefore, this membrane with its imbricated teeth is dissected away from the dorsal surface of the cibarium in order to expose clearly the armature on the ventral surface. This membrane should be preserved, however, since its imbricated teeth offer characters of importance. The mount is completed with a coverglass. The separation of individual teeth as recommended by Christophers (1933) for *Anopheles* has not proved to be possible with *Culex*.

The following key separates the species of *Culex* found in the southeastern United States into groups on the basis of female cibarial armatures. *Culex atratus* Theobald and *C. bahamensis* Dyar and Knab, found in this area only on the Florida Keys, have been omitted because of the lack of specimens for study.

1. Cibarial armature consisting of 25 to 35 small, slender teeth; imbricated teeth of the membrane of dorsal surface of cibarium between cornua small, lightly sclerotized, brownish 2
–. Cibarial armature consisting of 3 to 8 large, blunt teeth; imbricated teeth of membrane of dorsal surface of cibarium between cornua large, heavily sclerotic, blackish .... (Subgenus *Melanoconion*) 3
2. Cibarial teeth not longer than width of a cibarial cornu.
(Subgenus *Culex* s. str.) *pipiens* Linnæus, *quinquefasciatus* Say, *tarsalis* Coquillett, *salinarius* Coquillett, *nigripalpus* Theobald
–. Cibarial teeth much longer than width of a cibarial cornu.
(Subgenus *Neoculex*) *apicalis* Adams
3. Cibarium with three teeth .... *pilosus* (Dyar and Knab)
–. Cibarium with seven or eight teeth.
erraticus Dyar and Knab, *peccator* Dyar and Knab

These characters are shown in greater detail in the figures. Except to strengthen the recognized subgeneric classification, the cibarial characters contribute little to our knowledge of the subgenera *Culex* s. str. and *Neoculex*.

The three remaining species, however, are externally indistinguishable in the females except that most specimens of *errati-*

cus have some coarse, golden, mesoscutal scales and the broad, appressed, occipital scales are limited to a band along the eye margin, while in the other two species the mesoscutal scales are usually dark and the occiput is usually mostly covered with broad, appressed scales. These characters do not hold for every specimen. The cibarial characters thus make possible the identification of female *pilosus*.

It is interesting to note that Edwards (1932), on the basis of larval characters, placed *pilosus* in the subgenus *Mochlostryax*, and *erraticus* and *peccator* in *Melanoconion*. The cibarial armatures of the three species here discussed support this classification, but until these characters have been studied for the numerous tropical species of this group, it is not advisable to consider the cibarial armature as a subgeneric character.

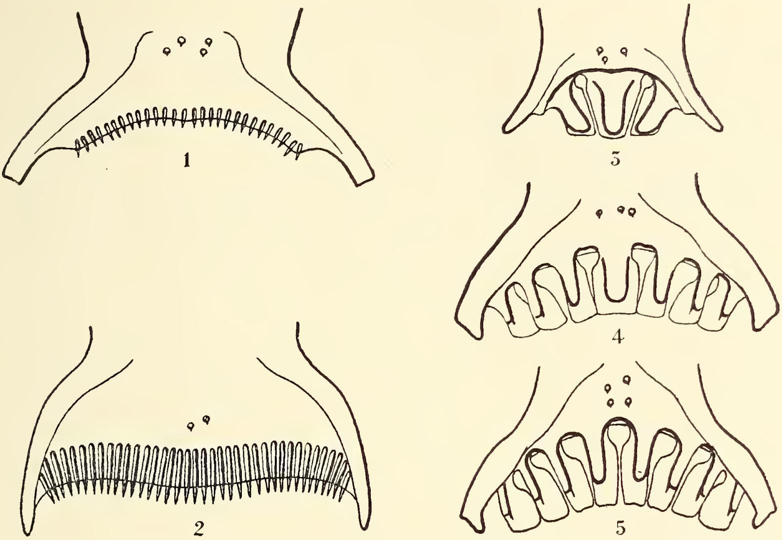

Fig. 1. Cibarial armatures of: 1, *Culex* (*Culex*) *restuans;* 2, *Culex* (*Neoculex*) *apicalis* Adams; 3, *Culex* (*Melanoconion*) *pilosus* (Dyar and Knab); 4 and 5, *Culex* (*Melanoconion*) *erraticus* Dyar and Knab.

The cibarial armatures of about twenty specimens of *C. pilosus* have been examined and found quite uniform in structure. Several of those studied were from a series reared from *pilosus* larvæ by Mr. Wm. V. Reed. The armatures of forty other female specimens of *Melanoconion* were examined. All were seven- or eight-toothed. Most of them, on the basis of the characters of the vestiture already mentioned, were presumed to be *C. erraticus* and two were from a series reared from *erraticus* larvæ by Lt. Basil G. Markos. Among the six specimens studied having seven or eight cibarial teeth but vestiture as in *pilosus* and *peccator,* two from different localities were collected with males of *peccator* and are, no doubt, females of that species. Both of these had but seven teeth.

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INSECT RESPONSES TO COLORS

By Harry B. Weiss

The purpose of this article is to call attention to the approximately similar qualitative results obtained by various workers who used widely different methods of approach and technique in studying the behavior of insects to different wave lengths of light. No attempt will be made here to describe the techniques, as they are already matters of record. In fact they differ as widely as the methods of approach.

Bertholf (1, 2) exposed the honey bee, and the fruit fly Drosophila to two translucent glass plates of equal size, one illuminated with white light and the other with monochromatic light obtained by means of a quartz prism. The intensity of the white light was changed until its effect on the photopositive response of the insects was equal to that of monochromatic wave lengths in different portions of the spectrum. He found that for the honey bee, the stimulating efficiency increased from zero at 6450 Å to a maximum of 100 arbitrary units at 5500 Å, then decreased to 10 at 4350 Å after which it rose rapidly to a second maximum of 450 at 3650 Å and then rapidly declined to zero at about 2800 Å.

As for Drosophila, Bertholf (2) stated ". . . starting with the longer wave lengths the efficiency is very low until it starts to rise at about 5750 Å; from here it rises to a maximum in the so-called visible spectrum at 4870 Å . . . ; from this wave length it decreases again at 4250 Å; then it rises suddenly and attains a maximum value at 3650 Å . . . ; from here it decreases rapidly to zero at 2540 Å." Bertholf worked with 30 wave lengths from 2300 Å to 7000 Å.

Weiss *et al.* (6, 7, 8) exposed approximately 15,000 insects, both adult and larval forms, mostly diurnal, but some nocturnal, involving 40 species in various orders to 10 wave-length bands of light of equal physical intensities from 3650 Å to 7400 Å. Each test lasted from 15 to 30 minutes and a group of 100 or more of each species was used for from one to three successive tests. The composite group behavior pattern, both for larvæ and adult insects indicated that the stimulating efficiency increased only slightly from zero at 7200 Å to 5750 Å. From here it rose to a maximum at 4920 Å. It then declined to a comparatively low level at 4640 Å from which point it ascended to its peak maximum level at 3650 Å.

These authors found that, regardless of the relative positions of the wave-length bands, the insects made approximately the same selections time after time, also that when a second and third test followed the first, there was a shifting of individuals that went to the different colors, but no change in the final result. In addition some species such as the Japanese beetle and the Colorado potato beetle responded to what were unattractive wave lengths under equalized physical intensities, when the intensities of such unattractive wave lengths were increased. In other words, it was possible to vary the behavior pattern by varying the intensities.

Crescitelli and Jahn (3), approached the problem from the standpoint of the electrical responses of the dark-adapted grasshopper eye. ''Leads were taken with silver-silver chloride electrodes from fluid-filled chambers about each eye. The entire surface of one eye was illuminated, and the other eye was kept in darkness. Records were obtained by means of a cathode ray oscillograph. For the experiments on colored light Corning color filters were placed between the light source and the eye.'' Six wave-length bands were employed, extending from about 4000 Å to 7000 Å. ''The relative intensity transmitted through each of these six filter combinations was determined by means of a thermopile and galvanometer. The infra-red radiations were completely removed from the stimulating light by using 5 cm. of water and a Corning (AKLO) heat absorbing filter.''

These authors studied the change in form of the electrograms of the grasshopper eye under variations in intensity of the stimulating light and also the quantitative aspects of the response in relation to the quality of the stimulating light. They found that there was apparently no specific effect of wave length on the electrical response of the whole dark-adapted grasshopper eye. At equalized intensities there were decided differences in wave form with the six different spectral bands, but these disappeared and the color responses were exactly matched when the intensities of the different spectral regions were properly adjusted. Quoting again from their paper: ''The form of the electrical response of the dark-adapted grasshopper eye to brief stimulation by white or colored light varies according to the intensity of the light. At very low intensities the response is diphasic, the initial positive phase of which resembles the a-wave of the vertebrate electroretinogram. As the intensity is increased the positive phase decreases and changes its position while the negative phase becomes increasingly prominent. Eventually the positive phase is completely eliminated and the electrogram takes the form of the typical high-intensity response. The order of effectiveness of the different colors in causing this change in wave form is: green, blue, violet, orange-red, red.''

The curve relating the magnitude of the potential to the wave length had a peak in the green region of the spectrum, and declined sharply toward the red and less sharply toward the violet. The magnitude of the electrical response was found to be definitely related to the quality of the stimulating light and the form of the response to be influenced by the intensity of the stimulating light, either white or colored.

Jahn and Crescitelli (5), also studied, in the same manner, the electrical responses of the compound eye of the moth *Samia cecropia,* in relation to the quality and intensity of the stimulating light. Part of their conclusions are quoted as follows: ''The electrical responses of the moth and grasshopper eyes to wave length are surprisingly similar. For both animals the same type of graph is obtained when the relative magnitude of the potential is plotted against wave length. This graph has a general similarity to the absorption curve of visual purple. Another aspect of the electrical response to wave length concerns the fact that no specific effects of wave length on the electrograms are discernible. By properly adjusting the intensity, the responses to one color may be exactly matched with the response to any other color, indicating that the differences in the responses to different colors of equal intensity are caused merely by differences in sensitivity and are not effects of wave length *per se.*''

In the case of the moth eye the maximum response was obtained with the green band. The responses dropped sharply toward the red band and less sharply toward the violet.

Graham and Hartline (4) studying the responses of single visual sense cells of Limulus to visible light of different wave lengths found that when the energy of the stimulating light of different wave lengths was approximately equal, the response to green was stronger than the responses to either violet or red. When the energy was increased in the red and violet their level of response was raised and when the intensities of the different wave lengths were adjusted so that the responses were equal, there was no effect of wave length as such, indicating that single sense cells can gauge brightness, but cannot distinguish wave length. The relative energies of the various wave lengths required to produce the same response, after being adjusted in inverse ratio to the degree of their absorption yielded a visibility curve for a single visual sense cell that had its maximum in the green near 5200 Å and that declined symmetrically on each side to low values in the violet near 4400 Å and in the red near 6400 Å.

Thus the visibility curves of a single visual sense cell of Limulus, although not an insect, of the eye of a grasshopper, a diurnal insect, and of the eye of a Cecropia moth, a nocturnal insect, are qualitatively similar to the curve of the relative stimulating efficiency of different wave lengths of light for Drosophila, as reported by Bertholf and to the behavior curves for the numerous adult and larval forms of diurnal and some nocturnal insects as reported by Weiss *et al.* These curves are not identical because of the different methods of approach and technique but they are all strikingly similar for the visible portion of the spectrum. All were obtained under wave lengths of equalized physical intensities. Hartline and Graham and Crescitelli and Jahn by properly adjusting the intensity were able to match the response to one color with the response to any other color and Weiss *et al.*, in their behavior studies found that insects responded to what were unattractive colors under equalized intensities, when the intensities of these colors were increased.

Crescitelli and Jahn (3) report that other authors who worked with pigeon eyes and the eyes of certain vertebrates also found that wave form difference are simply intensity differences and that the electrical response to different wave bands could be duplicated by adjusting the intensity of the different bands.

Thus it appears that both the electrical responses of the insect eye and the motor responses of the insect itself to different colors of equal intensity are due to differences in sensitivity, or to the absorption of light, which varies with wave length, by the primary photosensitive substance of the visual sense cells, and are not the effects of wave length by itself.

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HIBERNATION OF THE SYRPHID FLY, LATHYROPHTHALMUS ÆNEUS SCOP.

Lathyrophthalmus æneus Scopoli has the interesting habit of hibernating gregariously in old nests and burrows of Aculeate Hymenoptera. On several occasions in the last few winters the writer has encountered the species in open tunnels of various anthophorid bees situated in vertical banks or cliffs. In February, 1944, however, several hundred specimens were found hibernating in empty nests of the black and yellow mud-dauber, *Sceliphron servillei* (Saussure), in various localities in the San Joaquin Valley, California. The localities included Merced in Merced County, Chowchilla and Berenda in Madera County, Tulare and Tipton in Tulare County, and Kingsburg and Fowler in Fresno County. In all cases the nests utilized for hibernation were situated under bridges or culverts. Usually five or six individuals, more rarely eight or nine, occupied a single empty mud cell. Prof. F. M. Hull, who very kindly made the identification, reported that both sexes were present in a series of approximately thirty specimens submitted to him, with the females slightly predominating.

The only other hibernating insect using these nests and approaching the syrphids in abundance was the elm leaf beetle, *Gallerucella xanthomelæna* (Schrank). These, however, were hibernating elsewhere in the vicinity under a variety of different conditions, whereas the syrphids appeared to exhibit a marked preference for this particular habitat.—E. GORTON LINSLEY.

TWO NEW SUBSPECIES OF LYCÆNOPSIS PSEUDARGIOLUS BDV. & LEC. (LEPIDOPTERA, LYCÆNIDÆ)

By Harry K. Clench
Cambridge, Mass.

The following new subspecies have recently come to my attention and appear to be worthy of names. As is well known, the interrelationships of the various named entities of North American *Lycœnopsis* are not as yet satisfactorily determined. The following two have, therefore, been placed under *pseudargiolus* as simple races. It is possible that later on they will be classified differently.

Lycænopsis pseudargiolus sidara, new subspecies

Upperside:

Male. Both wings uniform, slightly violet blue, with a thin blackish border on each. *Fringe* white, dark toward the apex of the fore wing and occasionally faintly at the vein-ends of both wings.

Female. Both wings shining blue, with a violet tinge. *Fore wing* with a broad, dark, marginal border, thickest at the apex. Costa with the blue whiter and the marginal brown border slightly extended basad. *Hind wing:* Costa shaded with brown. Outer margin with a thin black line, basal to which is a row of spots, one to each interspace. *Fringe* of both wings similar to that of the male.

Underside:

Male. Both wings white, grayish in the basal half. *Fore wing* with the cell closed by a faint dark line. A thin marginal line runs from costa to inner margin, basal to which is a row of small spots, each to an interspace. Basal to these is a scalloped line, sometimes appearing as a row of angled bars, vertices inward. A post-discal series of heavy short bars runs from costa to inner margin. The lower (inner marginal) one is very faint, occasionally almost non-existent, but the others are very heavy, and each is set on the bias, costal end inward, and more heavily so costad than elsewhere. The costal dash is basally dislocated. *Hind wing:* The marginal line, series of dots, scalloped line and cell-end bar as in the fore wing. The post-discal row of spots is heavy as in the fore wing, but quite dislocated. The two costal spots are placed inward, the next two outward, and the next four alternately inward and outward. The base of the wing is scaled with blackish. Three basal spots, one on the costa, one in the cell, and one on the inner margin, roughly parallel to the body line. These spots, the cell-end bar and the post-discal series are all outlined faintly in white.

Female. Purer white, lacking the gray basal shading; otherwise similar to the male.

Holotype, male, Manitou, Colorado, June 5–11, 1882 (ex S. H. Scudder Coll.).

Allotype, female, same data as holotype.

Paratypes, three males, Starr Ranch, El Paso County, Colorado (6500 ft.), May 12, 1934; one male, Rock Creek, El Paso Co., Colorado (6800 ft.), May 9, 1934; one male, "Col." (ex S. H. Scudder coll.).

Holotype, allotype, and four paratypes in the collection of the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy. One paratype in the author's collection.

Remarks. This subspecies bears a rather close resemblance to the form named *violacea*[1] by Edwards. *Violacea* is represented in part in the M.C.Z., by a pair of topotypes and a series of specimens labelled "Coalb.," with various dates around 1883, all received through the Scudder collection, they having been received from Edwards. *Sidara* may be separated from these specimens by the closer proximity of the post-discal series of dashes (principally on the fore wing below) to the scalloped line. Also, in *sidara* the spots of the post-discal series of the hind wing tend to be more rounded, while in *violacea* they are either more linear (usually) or are more quadrate. In *sidara* the ground color below tends toward gray, while in *violacea* it is nearly pure white, making the white ringing of the discal and basal spots of *sidara* absent in *violacea.* A single male from Cloudcroft, New Mexico, is apparently of this subspecies, but it is less heavily marked below, and lacks the basal graying, and the subsequent white-ringing of the spots.

Lycænopsis pseudargiolus bakeri, new subspecies

UPPERSIDE:

Male. Purplish blue, nearly violet, the costal veins pencilled in whitish blue. Costa and inner margin of hind wing whitish. Both wings very narrowly bordered by a thin black line. Apical half of the outer margin of the

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[1] 1866, Proc. Ent. Soc., Philadelphia, 6, p. 201. Type loc.: Kanawha River, West Virginia.

fore wing narrowly black. *Fringe* of fore wing white, becoming black towards the apex and at the vein-ends. That of the hind wing white, occasionally faintly dark at the vein-ends.

Female. *Fore wing* dark brown, with a central area of blue, of varying extent. A small streak closes the cell. *Hind wing* also brown, and with a marginal series of pale blue lunules enclosing small brown spots. *Fringe* as in the male.

UNDERSIDE:

Male. Both wings white. Markings arranged as in other *pseudargiolus* forms (see *sidara* above, for example), the marginal compound border of both wings rather faint, the post-discal, discal and basal spots very well marked, dark, and not tending to confluence. Base of hind wing tinged with greenish.

Female. As in the male.

Holotype, male, Baker, Oregon, April 20, 1941 (J. H. Baker).

Allotype, female, Durkee, Oregon, May 11, 1941 (J. H. Baker).

Paratypes, nos. 1 to 5, male, same data as holotype; nos. 6 to 10, male, Pine Creek, Baker, Oregon, May 26, 1941 (J. H. Baker); nos. 11, 12, male, Kane Creek, Oregon, March 16, 1934 (F. W. Lawrence); nos. 13, 14, male and female resp., same locality and collector as allotype, May 19, 1941.

Holotype and allotype in the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy. Two male paratypes to be returned to Mr. Baker. Remaining paratypes in the author's collection.

Remarks. Both sexes differ from the Californian race *echo*[2] in the much darker, and therefore more prominent, discal and basal spots of both wings below. The female above has slightly reduced blue areas. *Bakeri* apparently connects, to a greater or lesser degree, *echo* with *nigrescens* Fletcher,[3] from which latter it may be told in the greater amount of blue in the females and in the constancy of the underside pattern. Quoting Fletcher, "The underside of this variety (*nigrescens*) is remarkable and specimens of both sexes may be found which, if the underside alone were seen, might be referred to *neglecta, violacea, lucia* or *marginata,* and some even combine characters of all these. One beautiful form which frequently occurs, has an irregular, discal, dark blotch of confluent spots on the secondaries beneath as in

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[2] 1864, Proc. Ent. Soc. Philadelphia, 2, p. 506. Type loc.: California.

[3] 1903, Trans. Roy. Soc. Canada, (2) 9, p. 213, fig'd. Type loc.: Kaslo, B.C.

lucia, and the clear marginal spots of *violacea*. This form Mr. Cockle, who has collected this butterfly for several years and has been much interested in it, considers to be most typical of the variety.'' In all the 16 specimens (14 of them males) of *bakeri* examined, there was but one specimen (paratype no. 8) that exhibited the slightest tendency towards the *lucia*-like confluence of spots on the underside of the hind wing, and this specimen was obviously slightly aberrant. The only indication of discal confluence was the basal thickening of the Cu_1–Cu_2, spot of the post-discal series. The further indication of aberrance was given by the thickened scalloped line of the submarginal compound border.

This subspecies is named for Mr. James H. Baker, of Baker, Oregon, from whom the majority of the specimens were received.

NEW SPECIES OF NEOPASITES WITH NOTES CONCERNING OTHERS (HYMENOPTERA, NOMADIDÆ)

By E. Gorton Linsley

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Since the publication of a revision of this genus,[1] I have had the privilege of studying additional material through the kindness of Mr. J. N. Knull, Mr. P. H. Timberlake, and Prof. O. A. Stevens. The present paper includes the results of this study.

Neopasites elegans Linsley, new species

Female: Form very robust; color black; abdomen deep red throughout; integument densely, coarsely punctate, moderately dull. *Head* very densely punctate, with a large patch of dense appressed white hairs around the antennal bases, a large white patch behind each eye, the two connected posteriorly along the posterior margin of the head and the latter by a narrow median line from the vertex, through the median ocellus to the antennal white patch; antennæ very dark brown, first flagellar segment about as long as following two together; upper frons and vertex coarsely, contiguously and subcontiguously punctate, punctures of ocell-ocular area at least as large as those of disk of mesoscutum; clypeus densely but more finely punctate; labrum clothed with long, dense white hair at base, surface finely punctate, indistinctly longitudinally carinate for more than two-thirds of its length; mandibles black, apices reddish. *Thorax* coarsely punctate; pronotal collar densely white pubescent, tubercles margined with white; tegulæ very dark piceous; mesoscutum coarsely densely punctate, margins and anterior three-fourths of median line, densely clothed with appressed white hairs; mesoscutellum coarsely, densely punctate, lateral margins and median line densely white pubescent, the mid-line expanded at posterior margin into a subtriangular white patch; metanotum with a white patch on each side; mesepisterna coarsely, very closely, somewhat rugosely punctate, vertical face broadly margined with dense appressed white hairs; mesosternum with disk white pubescent. *Wings* lightly infuscated, veins and stigma brown. *Legs* dark brown; anterior and intermediate femora white pubescent beneath at apex, intermediate and posterior tibiæ with posterior face densely, outer face more thinly, white pubescent. *Abdomen* deep red, without any dark clouding; first tergite with a large, suboval white patch on each side bordering

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[1] Linsley, E. G. 1943. A revision of the genus *Neopasites*. Trans. Amer. Ent. Soc., 69: 119–140, fig. 1.

lateral margin of basal concavity, the patches separated by nearly twice their width, basal concavity without white pubescence, tergites two to five with a large oval white patch on basal margin, the pairs separated by about their own diameters and becoming successively larger on succeeding segments except those of the fifth tergite which are smaller, tergites two and three with a latero-basal white patch on each side those of second tergite much smaller than the submedian basal patch, those of third tergite scarcely evident, tergites one to four with a lateral white patch on apical margin, that of fourth tergite small; fifth sternite bilobate, densely punctate, pubescent, apical margin broadly and shallowly emarginate.

Length 5 mm.

Holotype female (collection of Ohio State University) and one paratype, female, from El Paso County, Texas, August 30, 1940, collected by D. J. and J. N. Knull. Two additional paratypes, female, were taken by Mr. and Mrs. Knull in Culberson County, Texas, August 30, 1940. One paratype is deposited in the collection of Mr. P. H. Timberlake, another in the collection of the writer, the third in the collection of Ohio State University.

In my recent key to *Neopasites,* this species would run near *N. calliopsidis* Linsley but it is larger, more robust, with the integument duller and more coarsely and densely punctate, the fifth abdominal sternite more lobate on each side, the disk more densely punctate and hairy, and the apical margin broadly, shallowly emarginate. It further differs in the more extensive white pubescent patches of the head and thorax, the base of the labrum clothed with white hair, a slightly different pubescent pattern on the abdominal tergites, and the absence of white pubescence from the basal abdominal declivity. It is possibly the most beautifully spotted of the known species.

Neopasites knulli Linsley, new species

Male: Form slender; color black, antennæ, mouthparts, legs, and tegulæ brownish or piceous, abdomen red; integument densely, coarsely punctate, moderately dull. *Head* very densely punctate, with a large patch of appressed white hairs around the antennal bases which is denser along the midline where it extends upward nearly to median ocellus, and a large white patch behind each eye, the two connected posteriorly along posterior margin of head; antennæ brown, distal two-thirds of flagellum reddish, first flagellar segment about as long as following two together; upper frons and vertex coarsely, contiguously and subcontiguously punctate, the punctures of ocell-ocular area a little larger but not quite so dense as those of disk of mesoscutum; clypeus densely but more finely punctate; labrum with a few long, erect white hairs at base, surface finely punctate, densely so at base, longitudinally carinate for about one-half its length; mandibles reddish, base and apex broadly piceous; ventral surface of head shining, area on each side of gular cavity shining, irregularly punctate, punctures averaging more than one puncture width apart. *Thorax* coarsely, very closely punctate; pronotal collar densely white pubescent, tubercles margined with white; tegulæ piceous, margins rufo-testaceous; mesoscutum densely, contiguously and more or less rugosely punctate, anterior and lateral margins and anterior half of median line clothed with traces of white hairs along lateral and posterior margins; metanotum with a white patch on each side; mesepisterna coarsely, closely, somewhat rugosely punctate, vertical face broadly margined with white. *Wings* very lightly infuscated, veins and stigma light brown. *Legs* piceous; anterior and intermediate femora apically white pubescent beneath; anterior and intermediate tibiæ thinly, posterior tibiæ more densely, white pubescent externally. *Abdomen* red; first tergite with a patch of white on each side bordering lateral margin of basal concavity, the patches separated by nearly twice their width, basal concavity without white pubescence, tergites two to five with a transverse band of white along basal margin extending from each side of middle to lateral margin, the pair on tergite two separated by about half the distance separating the patches on tergite one, those of each succeeding segment separated by about half the distance separating those of the preceding tergite, tergites two to four with a small lateral white patch on apical margin, fifth tergite with an apical fringe of white pubescence, disk faintly clouded with piceous, sixth tergite more distinctly clouded with piceous; pygidial plate ligulate, at least twice as long as broad; sternites coarsely punctate, apical margins fringed with white pubescence, last sternite with apical process truncate.

Length 5 mm.

Holotype male (collection of Ohio State University) from Culberson County, Texas, August 30, 1940, collected by D. J. and J. N. Knull.

This species is superficially very much like *Neopasites* (*Odontopasites*) *arizonicus* Linsley in size, form, and coloration, but may be distinguished by the naked eyes, less densely punctate ventral surface of the head, especially on each side of gular cavity, the short labral carina, and the darker legs and mouthparts. It appears to be more closely related to *N.* (*N.*) *minimus* Linsley, but the latter species is much smaller (3.5 mm.), with only a few scattered punctures on the under side of the head, and the labrum is not carinate.

Neopasites robertsoni Crawford

Among material recently submitted by Prof. O. A. Stevens for study were examples of this species from Hatton, North Dakota, August 3 (Stevens).

Neopasites stevensi (Crawford)

This species was also taken by Prof. Stevens at Hatton, North Dakota, on August 3, visiting flowers of *Grindelia squarrosa.*

Neopasites heliopsis (Robertson)

N. heliopsis was recently recorded[1] from Winnecock, North Dakota. The locality should have read Winnecook, Montana. The record was based on a specimen in the collection of P. H. Timberlake.

Neopasites calliopsidis Linsley

This species has been previously recorded from Iowa, Kansas and Montana. Mr. Timberlake has submitted specimens from the following localities in Colorado: Boulder County, July 6, 1925 (C. H. Hicks); Boulder, June 26 and 28, 1939, on *Chrysopsis* (Timberlake); Boulder, 2 miles north, June 25, 1939, on *Chrysopsis* (Timberlake); and Cuchara Camps, Spanish Peaks, elevation 8000 ft., July 4, 1939, on *Aster* (Timberlake). In these specimens the average extent of the black areas on the abdomen is greater than in the type series (Iowa), and some males also have the basal white spots of the tergites confluent on each side.

THE DEATH-FEINTS OF ALOBATES PENNSYLVANICA DeG., AND ALOBATES BARBATA KNOCH.

By Harry B. Weiss

Hibernating specimens of both species of darkling beetles were tested during the last week of April, 1944, in order to determine the duration of their death-feints. All specimens were kept at a room temperature of 72° F., several days before testing in order to fully bring them out of hibernation. Death-feints occurred when they were picked up or when they were pressed gently, ventrally or when dropped through a distance of six or twelve inches. Some beetles required a lot of handling and others very little in order to bring on the death-feint. The ventral surface of the thorax appeared to be the most sensitive area. When the stimulus was applied to the dorsal surface the death-feint did not occur. It was impossible to apply the stimulus with equal force each time when it was done by hand, and it is not known if there is any connection between the force of the stimulus and the duration of the reaction. However, it does not seem likely that there is, in view of the fact that a gentle stimulus was just as liable to promote a long or short death-feint as a hard stimulus. Although different degrees of pressure and different amounts of handling were required to initiate the death-feints, both the sensitivity of the individual and the duration of its reaction probably depend upon the variable organization of its nervous and motor mechanism.

Alobates pennsylvanica DeG.

Ten specimens of this species were induced to feign death at Fahrenheit temperatures of 72° and 82°. The durations of the death-feints are shown in the following table. Some beetles rested dorsally and others ventrally during the death-feint, but neither position appeared to affect the duration of the reaction.

Successive death-feints in the same beetle became progressively, irregularly shorter. One beetle refused to react after the eight-

DURATION OF DEATH-FEINT

Beetle	At 72° F. April 19	At 82° F. April 26
	Seconds	*Seconds*
A	778	394
B	266	105
C	62	24
D	138	262
E	247	520
F	43	230
G	129	173
H	1,095	160
I	35	620
J	1,851	380
Average	464.4	268.8

eenth successive death-feint; another after the sixth, and many of them after the third or fourth.

Alobates barbata Knoch.

The durations of the death-feints of ten specimens of this species at Fahrenheit temperatures of 72° and 84° are shown as follows:

DURATION OF DEATH-FEINT

Beetle	At 72° F. April 20	At 72° F. April 25	At 84° F. April 25
	Seconds	*Seconds*	*Seconds*
A	163	25	48
B	165	306	35
C	6	406	86
D	30	40	180
E	227	213	15
F	414	152	265
G	340	85	154
H	97	41	92
I	76	56	7
J	315	475	20
Average	183.6	179.9	90.0

Successive death-feints in the same beetle of this species were generally similar to those reported for *Alobates pennsylvanica.*

Both species reacted alike except for the fact that the death-feints of *A. pennsylvanica* endured longer than those of *A. barbata.* When the temperature was increased 10 or 12 degrees the average duration of the reaction declined approximately one-half, for both species.

Apparently there is a variation in the sensitivity of different individuals, to the external stimuli initiating the death-feint and also in the period of recovery. These variations are probably due to differences in the quality of the labile compounds in the receptive and conductive parts of the nervous system and in the contractile muscle tissue. The destructive chemical action involved in the reaction to the stimulus and the restoration of the discomposed substances require different periods of time for different individuals. A high temperature apparently hastens recovery. It would be of interest to know if internal stimuli play any part in the restorative processes.

INSECT FOOD HABIT RATIOS OF NEW YORK STATE

By Harry B. Weiss

At various times during the past 15 years I have wondered if a food habit classification of the species of insects recorded from New York would show ratios that differed materially from those of other sections such as New Jersey, Connecticut, etc. In order to satisfy my curiosity, I finally classified according to their family food habits 15,343 of the 15,449 species recorded in ''A List of the Insects of New York,'' M. D. Leonard, Editor-in-Chief, that was published January, 1928, as Memoir 101 of the Cornell University Agricultural Experiment Station. The Anoplura, Mallophaga and Siphonaptera were omitted because of their nonrelation to vegetation or to other insects, likewise a few other species, difficult to classify. Considering the large number of species involved, these omissions are relatively unimportant.

The difficulty of classifying families of insects in accordance with the food habits of their members is fully appreciated and the weaknesses of such a classification have been admitted in a former paper.[1] The terms saprophagous, phytophagous, etc., are used in their broadest sense and I am aware that such conclusions as may be drawn from food habit classifications are broad generalizations.

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[1] Insect Food Habit Ratios of North Carolina and Mount Desert Island, Maine. Jour. N. Y. Ent. Soc., vol. 47, p. 155–157, June 1939.

The following table shows the distribution ratios of food habit types for New York and, for comparative purposes, the ratios for five other large areas are included. Five of the six areas are large and embrace a variety of vegetation. Under such conditions one would not expect the distribution ratios of the types of food habits to vary widely and it will be noted that the New York ratios are not unlike those for other areas.

	No. species	Phytophagous	Saprophagous	Harpactophagous	Parasitic	Pollen feeders, etc.
		Per cent	*Per cent*	*Per cent*	*Per cent*	*Per cent*
Western Arctic Coast, N. A.	400	47	27	14	10	2
New Jersey	10,500	49	19	16	12	4
Connecticut	6,781	52	19	16	10	3
North Carolina	9,249	46	17	22	11	4
Mount Desert Island, Me.	5,177	52	17	14	15	2
New York	15,343	48	23	17	10	2

In former papers it was brought out that in relatively small areas, each with a uniform type of vegetation, the ratios of the types of food habits, based on the species present, varied in accordance with the type of vegetation, if the numerical ratios between the species and the factors tending to reduce their numbers are considered as constant. In large areas such as are indicated in the table, the ratios appear to vary but little.

Although the food classifications in the table are broad generalizations of ''apparent'' food, comparatively little has been added to our knowledge of ''actual'' food, since B. P. Uvarov called attention in 1928 (''Insect Nutrition and Metabolism,'' Trans. Ent. Soc. London, Dec. 31, 1928), to the limited number of cases where the true food of insects was actually known.

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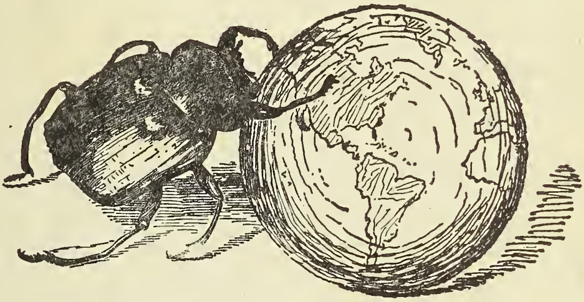

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THE STRUCTURE OF LIVING INSECT NERVES AND NERVE SHEATHS AS DEDUCED FROM THE OPTICAL PROPERTIES[1]

By A. Glenn Richards, Jr.

Zoological Laboratory, University of Pennsylvania

In a previous issue of this Journal relatively indirect histochemical data were presented and were interpreted as indicating the presence of lipid nerve sheaths in insects (Richards, 1943). These sheaths, like those of so-called non-myelinated nerve fibers of vertebrates, are extremely thin and are very labile under the influence of fixation techniques. Optical studies with polarized light permit the study of living nerves and so obviate the difficulties attendant upon histological fixation. They also give far greater sensitivity. The present paper presents data on the ultrastructure of normal living insect nerves and nerve cords as deduced from optical data.[2] The presence of lipo-protein nerve sheaths in insects is confirmed and amplified.

The studies reported herein were performed on the nervous system of adult American cockroaches, *Periplaneta americana*, and on larvæ of the house mosquito, *Culex pipiens*. Most of the studies were made on intact nerve cords and peripheral nerves

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[1] The work described in this paper was done under a contract, recommended by the Committee on Medical Research, between the Office of Scientific Research and Development and the University of Pennsylvania.

[2] Thanks are due to Dr. R. S. Bear and Dr. F. O. Schmitt, of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, for assisting the author with the use and interpretation of polarized light data, and to Dr. H. B. Steinbach, of Washington University, for the loan of a Köhler compensator.

but the data so obtained agree with studies on teased, single-fiber preparations of the larger nerves of cockroaches. Observations were also made on single specimens of an assortment of other arthropods to see if similar optical properties occur for nerves throughout the phylum Arthropoda.

THE USE OF POLARIZED LIGHT

From the viewpoint of optics a nerve is composed of optically inactive components and several types of optically active components. In studies on nerves polarized light is used to determine (in living or fixed nerves) the presence and status of the oriented optically active components. One can in a sense fractionate an intact nerve, and with a knowledge of the optical activities of the extractable components determine where the various components are located and what their orientation is in a living nerve. In experimental studies polarized light can be used to look for degradations of either orientation or chemical structure. One is dealing, then, with a kind of cytological inspection but with a method of inspection that is extremely sensitive when used for nerve studies.

No detailed treatment of the use and interpretation of polarized light data can be given here. Some of the terms to be used in this paper may be mentioned in relatively non-technical language but for an understanding of the complex phenomena involved reference must be made to the extensive treatises listed below.[3]

An ordinary beam of light is considered as a series of wave motions in which the light rays vibrate in all planes *perpendicular* to the direction of propagation. *Plane polarized light* is light in which the vibrations are all in the same plane[4] (Fig. 1). As

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[3] Descriptions of the instruments and general phenomena can be found in Rogers & Kerr (1933) and other textbooks on mineralogy and optics, especially Ambronn & Frey (1926). Excellent diagrams of the optical phenomena involved are given by Myers (1938). The most lucid elementary presentation for beginners is perhaps that of Cheshire (1932). For the interpretation of biological data see W. J. Schmidt (1937) and Frey-Wyssling (1938). A more recent and comprehensive analysis of the optical phenomena shown by nerve sheaths is given by F. O. Schmitt & R. S. Bear (1939).

[4] Actually a light wave consists of electrical and magnetic vectors which vibrate in mutually perpendicular planes perpendicular to the direction of

such, plane polarized light is analogous to parallel waves on water, where the waves vibrate up and down in one plane while traveling forward. With polarized light one studies the *birefringence* (= double refraction) of a material. This is accomplished by observing the specimen between crossed Nicol prisms or other polarizing materials,[5] *i.e.*, one prism is below the object and transmits only light that is polarized in one particular plane, the other prism is above the object and being set at a right angle to the

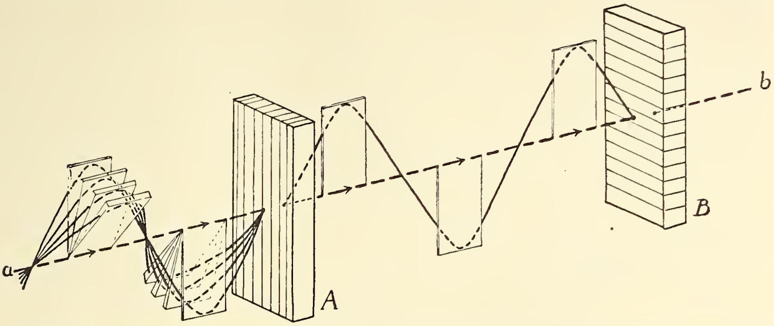

Fig. 1. Diagram of the effect of polarizing blocks set with the polarizing planes at a 90° angle. The axes of the polarizing blocks is indicated diagrammatically by parallel lines. The planes in which the light rays vibrate are sketched in for clarity of three-dimensional visualization.

A light beam traveling along the dotted line in the direction $a \longrightarrow b$ is composed of waves vibrating in all axes perpendicular to the direction of propagation (four of these planes are drawn in this diagram). On passing through the polarizer *A* only waves vibrating in the plane of the paper are transmitted. On reaching the polarizer *B*, set at a 90° angle, these are just the waves that are completely extinguished, and therefore no light is transmitted beyond *B*.[*]

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propagation, but in polarized light studies it is customary to designate the vibration plane of the electrical vector as the plane of polarization.

[5] For a good diagram of how Nicol prisms function see Myers (1938), figure 84. The same result is obtained by a different principle in ''Polaroid'' sheets, etc.

[*] For clarity of diagrammatic presentation the author has taken some liberties with optics in Figures 1 and 2. Actually, four waves traveling in phase along one line would combine into a single wave of intermediate position and the sum of the four in height. For illustrating the point in question the method used here seems clearest even though technically different vibration planes should be drawn along different lines parallel to *a–b*.

first eliminates all of the light except that which has had its plane of polarization changed by passing through the specimen (Figs. 1–2). The ability to change the plane of polarization at certain orientations is a property of birefringent materials. Substances which show birefringence are said to be *anisotropic,* substances which do not are called *isotropic.* Even with anisotropic substances, however, there is one direction along which light (ordinary or polarized) is unaltered; this is termed the *optic axis* of the substance. The optic axis may be called isotropic, all other axes are anisotropic. The anisotropic axes have the property of changing the plane of polarization by splitting any transmitted beam of light into two rays[6] which vibrate in mutually perpendicular planes (Fig. 2) and travel with different velocities.[7] The optical effects can be completely described diagrammatically in terms of a direction of vibration for faster (or slower) transmission (see below) and two *refractive indices,* since the refractive index is an inverse statement of the relative speed of light. Substances with only one refractive index are called isotropic, substances with two different refractive indices are called *uniaxially anisotropic,* and substances with different refractive indices for all three vibration planes of rays perpendicular to the optic axis are called *biaxially anisotropic.* Most biological anisotropic substances, including those dealt with in this paper, are uniaxial.

Several kinds of birefringence are shown by biological materials. In addition to uniaxial and biaxial anisotropy, birefringence may be either *positive* or *negative* with respect to a particular direction. These are arbitrary terms applied to differentiate between materials in which the index of refraction is greater

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[6] Commonly called the *ordinary* and *extraordinary rays.*

[7] As Cheshire (1932) points out, birefringent substances include fibrous and crystalline structures where the orientations of the components are such that the structure is different in the longitudinal and transverse directions. In a certain sense the structure is analogous to the grain of wood, and, as Tyndall showed, the speed of heat and sound waves is different for waves traveling along the long axis of a piece of wood and for waves traveling perpendicular to this. With birefringent materials and polarized light we have similar differences in speeds in different directions with the additional complication that both the ray direction and the vibration direction are concerned.

for the vibration in the stated direction than for the other vibration perpendicular to it (*positive birefringence*), and materials in which the relative velocities are the reverse (*negative birefringence*). The direction for faster (or slower) vibration is determined by comparing the effect with a known standard. Commonly one takes advantage of interference effects for this purpose and uses a gypsum plate which makes the entire field appear red. Any effect of the specimen must be either additive or subtractive, and reference to Newton's series of colors shows which it is. Knowing the orientation of the various parts of the system one can usually tell by clear-cut color changes (from red to blue or yellow) whether the substance is positively or negatively birefringent.

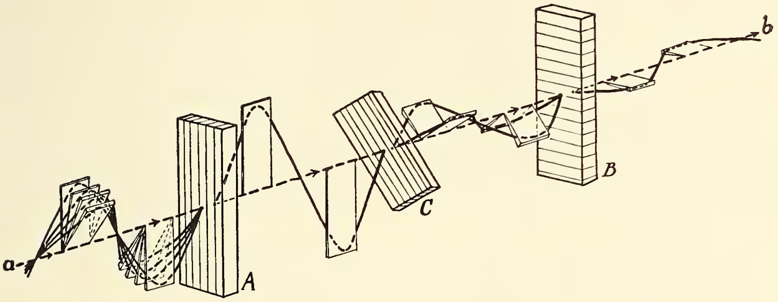

Fig. 2. Same as Figure 1 but with a sheet of birefringent material (the specimen, *C*) inserted between the polarizers with its axis at a 45° angle to each. The description is the same as for Figure 1 except that the specimen, *C*, oriented at a 45° angle splits the plane polarized beam into two mutually perpendicular waves vibrating at a 45° angle to the beam from *A* to *C*, and therefore at a 45° angle to polarizer *B*. The waves do not reach *B* at a 90° angle to the vibration direction, and therefore light is transmitted. Adding to these figures the parts of a compound microscope will give a crude diagram of the optics of a polarizing microscope of the orthoscope type.

The terms positive and negative birefringence, however, can be used in either of two ways: 1) When the orientation of the optic axes of the anisotropic substance is known, then the material may itself be called either positive or negative depending on whether the index for vibrations parallel to the optic axis is greater or less, respectively, than the index for vibrations perpendicular to this axis. 2) Whether the orientation of the optic axes is known or not, one can refer to an anatomical structure as positive or negative with respect to some distinguishing direction. In many cases in biology the optic axis of the oriented birefringent material coincides with the long axis of the gross structure (*e.g.,* muscle, tendon, axis cylinder of nerves, etc.). Thus a muscle fiber is positively uniaxial in relation to both its long axis and the optic axes of the anisotropic micelles. In the case of the nerve sheath, however, the anisotropic micelles are oriented with their optic axes radial (perpendicular to the long axis of the nerve). Accordingly, the nerve sheath can be called either positive or negative depending on whether the reference direction is the optic axes of the anisotropic particles or the long axis of the nerve. This can be confusing unless one is careful to note the reference direction, especially as whichever reference direction is chosen some nerve sheaths are positive and some negative in relation to it. In biological literature reference has usually been made to the anatomically long dimension, and this custom is followed in the present paper; however in the recent review by Schmitt & Bear (1939) these authors have shifted to employing the optic axes as reference directions.

Birefringence may be produced by either the internal structure of a molecule or its asymmetrical shape. The first is called *intrinsic birefringence,* the second is called *form birefringence.* Distinguishing between these two types is quite useful in analyzing the source of the observed birefringence. Fortunately this is readily accomplished. Form birefringence is due to the presence of oriented submicroscopic rodlets or plates called *micelles;* immersion of these micelles in a medium of the same refractive index abolishes their birefringence but has no effect on any intrinsic birefringence that may be present. By immersion in media of various refractive indices one can then determine not only whether the material possesses any intrinsic birefringence but more importantly whether there is present a second birefringent material that is normally masked by the form birefringence of the first material. Thus, in a so-called non-myelinated nerve one first observes a birefringence that is positive in relation to the long axis of the nerve. If such a nerve is immersed in a salt solution containing glycerine, the sign of birefringence is reversed. But if the nerve is first extracted with alcohol the sign cannot be reversed. This is interpreted as due to the positive form birefringence of the oriented protein normally masking the negative intrinsic birefringence of the lipids (Schmitt & Bear, 1937).

In treating birefringence quantitatively, certain values can be measured and others calculated from these measurements. Properly oriented anisotropic substances split a beam into two rays which, vibrating in different planes, travel through the specimen at different velocities. Obviously, if one of the component rays travels more slowly, it will lag behind and emerge from the specimen a certain finite distance behind the faster ray.[8] This difference is called the *retardation* (= phase difference, = amplitude, ϕ). With a Köhler compensator the retardation is calculated from the angle between the compensator plate and the specimen necessary to compensate for (abolish) the retardation of the specimen:

$$\phi = -\ m\lambda \sin 2\beta_1, \text{ or} \tag{1}$$

$$\phi = -2m\lambda \sin 2\beta_2, \tag{2}$$

where m is the known maximum retardation of the compensator plate, λ the wave length of light (551 mμ is taken as the "center of gravity" of white light), and β_1 and β_2 the measured angles using the Köhler method and the Bear & Schmitt modification respectively (Bear & Schmitt, 1936b). The sign of ϕ will depend on whether β_1 and β_2 are additive or subtractive angles and will agree with the qualitative determination of the birefringence as positive or negative in character.

Obviously, the amount the slower ray is behind the faster ray will depend on both the difference in velocity and the thickness of the specimen being measured. The difference between the two velocities, called the *magnitude of birefringence,* is the fundamental property we are interested in obtaining. With sheets of known composition and orientation the magnitude of birefringence is readily calculated from:

$$n_1 - n_2 = \frac{\phi}{d} \tag{3}$$

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[8] This actually transforms the plane polarized beam of light into an elliptically or circularly polarized beam. However, for our purposes we can continue to treat it as though we were dealing with two plane polarized beams vibrating perpendicular to one another.

where n_1 and n_2 are the two refractive indices, ϕ the retardation, and d the thickness of the specimen.

In nerve studies it is relatively easy to determine the retardation (ϕ) but sometimes difficult to obtain the true effective distance (d). This is partly due to the heterogeneous nature of nerves, and in the case of nerve sheaths partly to the complication introduced by the optic axes of the sheath micelles being oriented radially. Schmitt & Bear (1937) have derived the following equation to allow for the radial orientation of the sheath micelles:

$$n_1 - n_2 = \frac{9.46 \sin 2\beta_2}{(d_1 + 2d_2) \cos^{-1}\left(\frac{d_1 + 2d_2}{3d_1}\right)} \tag{4}$$

where n_1 and n_2 are the two refractive indices, β_2 the compensation angle determined by the Bear & Schmitt method, d_1 the axon diameter or its equivalent, and d_2 the axis cylinder diameter or its equivalent.

For entire insect nerve cords none of these methods for determining the magnitude of birefringence seems satisfactory. Due to the low amplitude it has not been found feasible to attempt quantitative measurements on teased single nerve fibers of insects except for extracted nerve sheaths and the axis cylinder of stretched nerves. Equation (1) has been used for the points plotted in Figure 3[9] but equations (3) and (4) have been applied to estimate the more fundamental birefringence values for single fiber preparations and for the neural lamella surrounding the nerve cord.

For the work reported in this paper a Leitz polarizing microscope was used, employing orthoscopic methods, white light, various magnifications and several types of compensators. Quantitative measurements were made with a Köhler $\lambda/20$ rotating mica plate compensator (Leitz Wetzlar No. 2335) using both the Köhler and the Bear & Schmitt methods (Bear & Schmitt, 1936b).

THE OPTICAL EFFECTS SHOWN BY INSECT NERVES

1. *General*

Until recently insect nerves have been considered non-myelin-

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[9] So far as graphs such as figure 3 are concerned, the same curve would be obtained from using the angle (β), the retardation (ϕ) and the magnitude of birefringence ($n_1 - n_2$).

ated (Richards, 1943). In many insects (*e.g.*, mosquito larvæ) single nerves are extremely small (less than 2 μ in diameter) but in the large cockroaches some single fibers attain a diameter of 10 μ and a few are 20–30 μ in diameter. The thicknesses of the nerve sheaths are apparently not more than a few per cent of the fiber diameter. One can recognize the sheath and estimate its thickness around single nerve fibers of the cockroach, but the sheath around nerves of mosquito larvæ is beyond resolution with ordinary microscopical methods.

It is relatively easy to tease out and identify for study single fibers from a cockroach nerve cord. Many observations can be made satisfactorily, however, on intact nerve cords containing many nerves in one bundle. The intact interganglionic abdominal connectives in the adult American cockroach have a diameter of 175–280 μ, while those of fourth (last) instar mosquito larvæ are only 13–24 μ in diameter.

Around the outside of the intact nerve cord there is a secreted sheet of material which Scharrer (1939) has termed the neural lamella. This sheet is also birefringent but does not intefere with optical analyses of the included nerves. It will be discussed in a separate section.

In analyzing nerves, they are first examined in a salt solution, with or without previous fixation, then they may be examined in glycerine or other media of high refractive index to mask the form birefringence and so determine what intrinsic birefringence is present. In insect nerves such immersion normally results in a reversal of the sign of birefringence, indicating that in a normal nerve we are dealing with a balance between birefringent materials of opposite sign (curve 2, Fig. 3). The lipids may be removed by appropriate solvents (*e.g.*, alcohol); comparison of the optical properties before and after extraction permit both showing and localizing the presence of the optically active lipids. Since the form birefringence of the proteins normally predominates in non-myelinated nerves, it is ordinarily sufficient to examine a preparation in salt solution and then in a dilute solution of glycerine in saline solution. For some special purposes and for evaluating the method other media, solvents and variations of technique may be used.

2. *Analysis of the Birefringent Properties of the Axis Cylinder*

Intact, living ventral nerve cords and larger peripheral nerves of American cockroach adults and mosquito larvæ immersed in saline solutions[10] show a slight birefringence which is usually positive in relation to the long axis of the nerve fibers (Fig. 14).[11] The birefringence of the axis cylinder[12] of living cockroach nerves in salt solution or of fixed cockroach nerves after lipid extraction is relatively diffuse, is positive in relation to the nerve axis and seems to be fairly homogeneous throughout *single* giant nerve fibers. In the normal relaxed condition the amplitude of birefringence (ϕ) due to the axis cylinder is very small but it can be increased greatly by tension. Cockroach nerve cords fixed in formol-saline solutions in a *relaxed* condition, then teased to give single-fiber preparations, extracted with alcohol (to remove masking lipids) and examined in water, show bright positively birefringent lines for the sheaths but only faint positive birefringence for the axis cylinder (Fig. 5). Similar results are obtained for the axis cylinder with living cockroach nerve cords teased and examined in salt solutions. In contrast, cockroach nerve cords fixed in formol-saline solutions in a *stretched* condition (1½ times the relaxed length) and then teased and treated as above show strong positive birefringence throughout single fiber preparations (Figs. 8–10). Measurements of the amplitude of birefringence show that the birefringence of the sheaths is affected relatively little (perhaps not at all) by the stretching but that the birefringence of the axis cylinder is greatly increased. Immersion in glycerine practically abolishes the birefringence of the axis cylinder showing that this is due mainly to anisodiametric micelles exhibiting form birefringence.

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[10] For cockroach adults the salt solution used contained NaCl 10.93, KCl 1.57, $CaCl_2$ 0.85, $MgCl_2$ 0.17 and $NaHCO_3$ 0.17 grams per liter; for mosquito larvæ NaCl 7.8, KCl 0.62, $CaCl_2$ 0.40 and $NaHCO_3$ 0.17 grams per liter.

[11] Occasionally a normal relaxed nerve cord is found to be negative in saline. Such nerve cords can be reversed to positive by stretching. Naturally, immersion in glycerine-saline does not reverse the sign of birefringence of such a nerve cord; it only increases the negativity. See curve 3, Figure 3.

[12] The axis cylinder is the nerve axon exclusive of its surrounding membrane and sheath.

Whatever the nature of the tension effect may be,[13] the fact remains that the axis cylinder of insect nerves contains anisotropic micelles, presumably protein, with at least a predominant orientation in the direction of the long axis of the nerve (Fig. 4).

The studies on single-fiber preparations from cockroaches are in agreement with observations on intact nerve cords and peripheral nerves. In intact nerve cords it is easy to measure the total birefringence but the superposition of many fibers makes it difficult to determine what components of the birefringence are due to the axis cylinder and what to the nerve sheaths. In general, a longitudinally striated appearance to the birefringence of intact nerve cords can be interpreted as indicating nerve sheath components whereas the more homogeneous birefringence seen in stretched nerve cords can be interpreted as being due to the summation of sheaths and stretched axis cylinder effects.

An analysis of the form factor involved in this birefringence is graphed in Figure 3. Since the measurements were all made with intact nerve cords these curves, of necessity, show a summation of axis cylinder and sheath effects. Curve 1 shows the change in amplitude with change in refractive index of the immersion media for relaxed nerve cords from which the lipids have been removed by extraction with alcohol and ether. This curve shows that most of the birefringence of lipid-extracted nerves is due to micellar form, the micelles having a refractive index between 1.56 and 1.60 when determined in this manner. A small residue of intrinsic birefringence is probably also present since the value never falls quite to zero.[14] Comparison of these data

[13] There are several conceivable explanations of the increase of birefringence of the axis cylinder on stretching. Mihalik (1937) has made a similar report for vertebrate nerves. The phenomenon is being studied further. It is presented here only because the birefringence of the axis cylinder of insect nerves can be seen most clearly in stretched nerves.

[14] This is the interpretation accepted by Schmitt and Bear. The Ambronn immersion technique commonly encounters difficulties with biological materials. Theoretically curve 1 should be symmetrical. Correction for the shrinkage that occurs in media of higher refractive index is not sufficient to make these curves symmetrical. Such slight asymmetry is seen in various published curves (*e.g.*, Chinn & Schmitt, 1937, Fischer, 1944). Different methods of fixation give roughly parallel curves of considerably different height (Bear, Schmitt & Young, 1937b). Curve 1 and 2 of the present paper

with the data from single-fiber preparations suggests that the form birefringence plotted in curve 1 is due to both the axis cylinders and the nerve sheaths but how much is contributed by each of these components has not yet been determined. Curve 2 shows the change in amplitude of a formalin-fixed nerve cord immersed in media of increasing refractive index with reversal of sign at approximately 1.343. Curve 2 is typical for normal cockroach nerves. Theoretically one would expect this curve to parallel curve 1 if a series of non-lipid-solvent immersion media of higher refractive index were available. Curve 3 gives data from a similar immersion series for one of the occasional nerve cords which is already negative in saline. Great variation, such as is shown by the difference between curves 2 and 3, occurs between different preparations. This seems, at least in part, due to tension, and will be discussed in a subsequent paper.

It does not seem feasible to attempt estimating the true magnitude of birefringence $(n_1 - n_2)$ from measurements on entire nerve cords. Estimates from formalin-fixed, alcohol-extracted, single-fiber preparations of the cockroach using equations (1) and (3) indicate that the magnitude of birefringence of the axis

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and similar curves by Chinn (1938) though roughly parallel are not so far apart as one would expect. More serious is the great variation of curves for some materials depending on the immersion series employed. Castle (1936) has treated in some detail the radically different types of curves shown by chitin in different series of immersion media where imbibition and possibly adsorption alter the picture and complicate interpretation. The use of different series of immersion media has given only slight differences for nerve sheaths (Chinn & Schmitt, 1937) but a much lower value for the refractive index is assumed from glycerine-immersion series in the recent paper by Werndle & Taylor (1943). The complex phenomena involved in these unexpected variations are not understood. Castle (1936) feels that the situation is so complex that it defies explanation at present, and that the immersion method is not valid for the determination of the refractive index of certain materials such as chitin. The curves from nerves and nerve sheaths by various methods and media are, however, sufficiently consistent to be reasonably certain that (1) insect nerves are similar to other nerves, and (2) that the protein component shows largely a form birefringence and that it is of opposite sign from the lipid birefringence. Under the circumstances it seems that the best proof of the lipo-protein nature of the nerve sheaths comes from the results of extraction experiments rather than from the immersion curves (metatropic effect).

cylinder ranges from nearly zero (immeasurably low) in relaxed nerves to approximately 0.0018 for stretched nerves.[12] The several possible reasons for low magnitudes in axis cylinders are discussed by Bear, Schmitt & Young (1937b) and Richards, Steinbach & Anderson (1943).

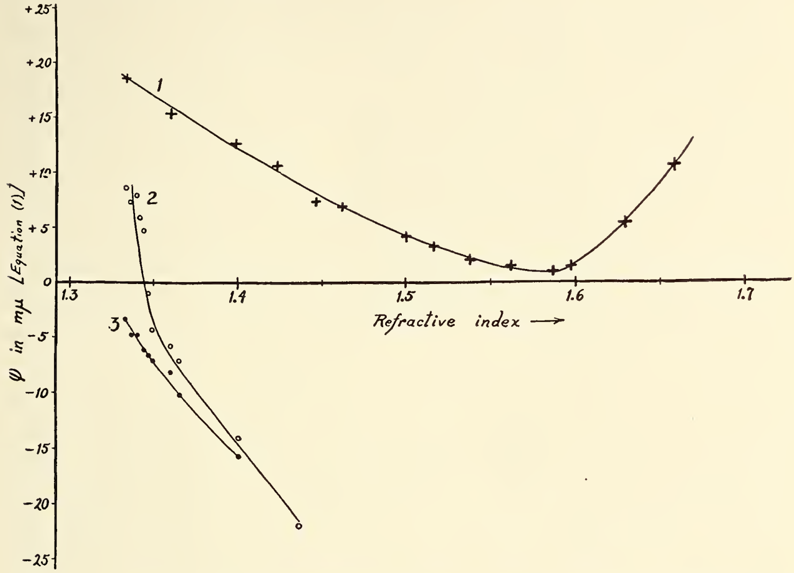

Fig. 3. Data from immersion experiments with cockroach nerve cords. Entire interganglionic connectives were used; the measurements accordingly represent the summation of effects shown by a large bundle of nerves. Curve 1 gives the averages from measurements on six nerve cords fixed in 95% ethyl alcohol and subsequently measured in media ranging from 1.331 to 1.659 in refractive index,* with corrections being made for differences in size and for shrinkage in some of the media. Curve 2 gives the readings from a formalin-fixed nerve cord immersed in distilled water and a series of increasing concentrations of glycerine, range 1.333 to 1.435 in refractive index. This curve closely approximates the typical picture for fresh nerves in saline, with reversal of sign occurring at a glycerine concentration between 10 and 15%. Curve 3 gives measurements from one of the few formalin-fixed nerves which was found to be negative in water.

* The immersion media used were: methyl alcohol, ethyl alcohol, 1-nitropropane, methylcyclohexane, chloroform, carbon tetrachloride, benzene, dimethyl phthalate, methyl salicylate, anethole, aniline, bromoform, carbon bisulfide and alpha-bromo-naphthalene.

The nerve cords of mosquito larvæ are much smaller than those of cockroaches, and the included nerves are all very small (< 1 to $2\ \mu$). All studies on mosquito nerves were made with intact nerve cords since satisfactory single-fiber preparations were not obtained. The intact living nerve cord in appropriate salt solution, like that of the cockroach, is positively birefringent in relation to its long axis. In the relaxed condition (Fig. 14) it shows a more or less striated birefringence which, as noted above, is interpreted as indicating the presence of a relatively strongly birefringent sheath component. In the stretched condition the birefringence is stronger and nearly homogeneous. By comparison with cockroach nerves, this is interpreted as indicating an increase of the axis cylinder component of birefringence. The data from mosquito nerve cords are consistent with the idea that they have qualitatively the same configuration as is found in cockroach nerves, but they are very small and the amplitude of birefringence is very low.[15]

There is no reason to think that the ultrastructure of the axis cylinder of insect nerves is different from that of nerves of other animals. The amplitude of birefringence of relaxed insect nerves is unusually low but this may possibly be reconciled by further study. Otherwise, the picture recorded above agrees well with reports by various workers on various nerves (see W. J. Schmidt, 1937). The birefringence of the axis cylinder is due to anisotropic protein micelles showing chiefly a form birefringence (anisodiametric particles). These micelles are oriented or at least predominantly oriented with their optic axes parallel to the long axis of the nerve since the axis cylinder is isotropic in cross section. Their birefringence is positive both with respect to their optic axes and to the nerve axis (Fig. 4). As already reported with other nerves, there is a slight reduction in the amplitude of birefringence on histological fixation. There is a rapid decay or loss of birefringence of the axis cylinder follow-

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[15] The phase retardation (ϕ) of an entire, relaxed, $18\ \mu$, interganglionic connective of a mosquito larva in saline as calculated from equation (1) is of the order of only 2–3 mμ. In a stretched nerve cord this may rise to 6–8 mμ. These values compare favorably with values given for cultured Corethra nerves by Pfeiffer (1943).

ing mechanical injury, the action of certain venoms and insecticides, and attending post-mortem degeneration.[16]

3. *Analysis of the Birefringent Properties of the Nerve Sheaths*

Insect nerve sheaths are relatively thin. In the largest nerves of the cockroach they attain a thickness of only a little more than one micron, *i.e.,* they are only a few per cent of the fiber diameter. In smaller nerves they seem to be proportionately thinner, and in the smallest cockroach nerves and in all nerves of mosquito larvæ they are too thin for direct observation (submicroscopic thickness). Due to the thinness of these sheaths it is difficult to determine for certain whether or not they are produced by distinct sheath cells. However, in longitudinal sections of insect nerve cords one can find a few nuclei between the nerve fibers.[17] Bear, Schmitt & Young (1937a) concluded that nuclei found around squid giant nerve fibers probably represented cells analogous to the Schwann cells of vertebrate nerves. Possibly the nuclei seen in insect nerve cords likewise represent sheath cells analogous to Schwann cells.

These thin nerve sheaths are metatropic, *i.e.,* they exhibit a weak positive birefringence (in relation to the nerve axis) which is readily reversed to negative by immersion in media of slightly higher refractive index (curve 2, Fig. 3). These data can be interpreted in the same manner that similar data from other animal groups have been interpreted by Schmitt & Bear (1937, 1939). The individual nerve sheaths are composed of bound layers of protein and lipid, both of which are birefringent but of opposite sign. The protein normally dominates slightly with its form birefringence. Masking the form birefringence of the protein with glycerine permits the intrinsic lipid birefringence to be seen. Removal of the lipids with appropriate solvents (*e.g.,* alcohol) increases the positive birefringence and makes it impossible to reverse the sign of birefringence with glycerine. Since two oppositely birefringent compounds can be thus demonstrated

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[16] A presentation of some of the degenerative effects due to venoms and insecticides will be given in subsequent papers.

[17] Other than those associated with tracheæ.

and identified (Figs. 5 vs. 11, 14 vs. 15), it follows that normally both are present in the sheath, and that the normal sheath birefringence is a picture of how much one component (in this case protein) predominates in birefringence over the other.

The axis cylinder viewed from the side is birefringent throughout. The nerve sheaths, however, show birefringence only at or very near to the edges of the nerve. This is due to the manner of orientation of the optic axes of the anisotropic micelles. In all birefringent materials and structures there is one axis, the optic axis, along which the structure is isotropic. In the nerve sheaths both the protein and lipid molecules must be oriented with their optic axes arranged radially (Fig. 4). With such an arrangement, the central part of the sheath should appear isotropic, as it does, since the optic axes of the micelles lie in the axis of the microscope, whereas the edges should be strongly birefringent, as they are. This is confirmed by observation of negative polariza-

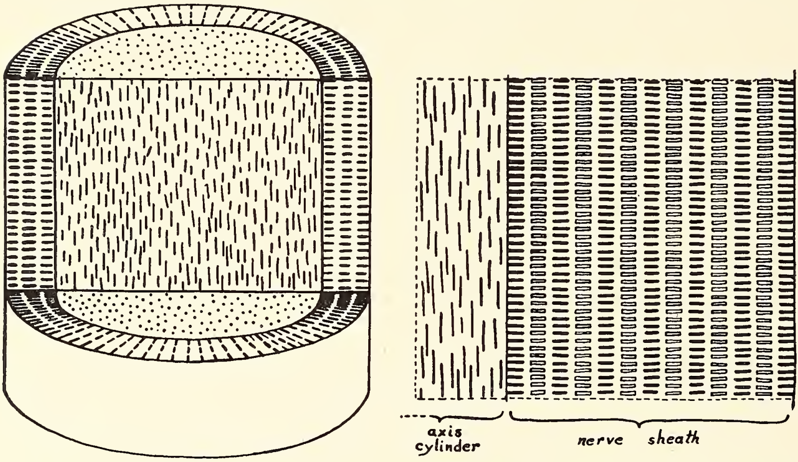

FIG. 4. A diagrammatic representation of the orientation of the birefringent micelles in a nerve and its sheath. The long axes of the rodlets in these diagrams is used to indicate the orientation of the optic axes of the micelles. On the left is a hemi-section of a nerve showing the micelles of the axis cylinder oriented longitudinally while those of the sheath are oriented radially. On the right is an enlarged sketch showing the arrangement of bound lipid and protein micelles in concentric layers as suggested by Schmitt, Bear & Palmer (1941).

tion crosses observed in cross sections of alcohol-extracted giant cockroach nerves (compare Chinn & Schmitt, 1937).

The magnitude of birefringence ($n_1 - n_2$) for the sheath can be calculated approximately from measurements on single giant fibers of cockroaches. Fresh nerves in saline show only extremely faint sheath birefringence. This indicates that the balance of birefringence from the protein and lipid (opposite signs) is nearly equal, and the magnitude of birefringence of the combination is therefore nearly zero. Alcohol-extracted nerves (Figs. 5–7) should show only the protein component. The average of measurements on eleven alcohol-extracted nerves ranging from 6 to 10 μ in diameter using equation (4) is the extremely low value of $n_1 - n_2 = 0.0016$. This represents the value for sheath protein; the lipid value must be similar but slightly lower.

The nerve cords of mosquito larvæ show the metatropic reversal as well as cockroach nerves, but the small size of the fibers makes it difficult to show positively that the reversal is in the sheath. Presumably the situation is the same as in cockroaches except for the small size and low amplitude (Figs. 14–15).

The protein component of the individual nerve sheaths of insects may be collagenous as in other animals (see *e.g.*, Schmitt, Hall & Jakus, 1942). Direct proof of this was not obtained but alcohol-extracted single-fiber preparations from cockroaches observed during treatment with dilute acetic acid showed a reduction and eventual loss of sheath birefringence. This would be expected for collagenous sheaths.

The lipid component of the individual nerve sheaths of insects seems almost certainly to include phosphatids as in other animals (Schmitt, Bear & Palmer, 1941). The solubilities of the sheath components are consistent with the idea that they include phosphatids. Also it is possible to extract considerable quantities of phosphatids and other myelin constituents from bee brains (unpublished data by Dumm, Patterson & Richards).

Metatropic nerve sheaths are found on axons throughout the insect. They are best studied from interganglionic connectives and large peripheral nerves (*e.g.*, cercal nerve) but they can be demonstrated throughout ganglia and in small distal peripheral nerves. Likely these sheaths extend over the nerve cell bodies themselves but this was not studied. Chinn (1938) reported that a sheath continuous with and similar to the axon sheath extends over the nerve cells of lobsters, crayfish and leeches.

The metatropic nerve sheaths of cockroaches and mosquito larvæ exhibit numerous of the properties already described for other nerves. Birefringence is quickly lost following mechanical injury. The metatropic effect is lost on air-drying. Absolute ethyl alcohol removes the lipid quickly but weak alcohol removes it slowly with the production of birefringent particles that are stainable with Sudan dyes (Richards, 1943). Other lipid solvents except acetone also quickly block the metatropic effect (phosphatids are relatively insoluble in accetone). The metatropic reversal is most readily demonstrated by immersion in glycerine solutions but it can also be produced by other solutions of high refractive index (*e.g.,* sucrose) and is independent of shrinkage. The amplitude is somewhat reduced by fixation with formalin, etc., but after fixation with non-lipid solvents the lipids are more strongly bound and difficult to remove (see Mezzino, 1931). Likely there is also a relation between fiber diameter and amplitude of birefringence; certainly the larger nerves of cockroaches show more birefringence than the small nerves (see Schmitt & Bear, 1939, Fig. 1).

Cockroach nerve cords degenerating in saline show first a decrease in amplitude and then loss of the birefringence of the axis cylinder, then a gradual decrease and loss of the lipid component of birefringence. Nerve cords degenerating in glycerine-saline solutions, however, give rise to sphærites which gradually decrease in size and eventually disappear (Fig. 16). These birefringent sphærites originate from the sheath lipids, they can be produced by weak alcohol or degeneration in glycerine but have not been found to occur in cockroach nerve cords degenerating in saline (compare Baldi, 1929). The lipid component can also be abolished by the action of cobra venom which is known to contain phosphatase enzymes. They are also affected by certain insecticides; these data will be treated in subsequent papers.

Insect nerve sheaths differ quantitatively from other nerves in the low order of birefringence and especially in the very close balance of positive and negative components. The balance of these components seems closer in insect nerve sheaths than in other recorded metatropic nerves. Only 10–15 per cent glycerine is needed to effect reversal of sign in the insects studied, whereas 30 per cent glycerine is required for Crustacea, 35–40 per cent for squid giant fibers, 50 per cent for non-myelinated spinal ganglion cells of the frog, and 70 per cent for leech nerves. In all of these the refractive index of the anisotropic micelles is reported to lie in the range 1.56 to 1.60; accordingly this variation in necessary refractive index of the immersion media likely indicates roughly the ratio of protein birefringence to lipid birefringence in the various nerves.

METATROPIC NERVE SHEATHS IN OTHER ARTHROPODS

A hasty survey was made covering a number of scattered arthropods to see if the type of nerve sheath studied in the cockroach and mosquito is to be found throughout the Annelid-Arthropod complex. All species examined exhibited metatropic nerves. Species examined by the author were an unidentified spider, a centipede (*Scutigera* sp.), a millipede (*Fontaria* sp.), a caterpillar (*Lymantria dispar*), a beetle (*Scarites subterranus*) the honey bee (*Apis mellifica*) and also a marine polychæte worm (*Nereis virens*). Other authors have already reported on the earthworm (*Lumbricus* sp.), the medicinal leech (*Hirudo medicinalis*), *Limulus* and various Crustacea (prawn, shrimp, crayfish, crab, lobster).

With all the major groups of the Annelid-Arthropod complex except the Onychophora represented in the above list, it certainly seems probable that Schmitt & Bear were correct in suggesting that metatropic nerve sheaths would be found throughout these phyla.

THE NEURAL LAMELLA

Around the outside of the nerve cord and of peripheral nerves is a homogeneous sheet secreted by an underlying layer of non-nervous cells. Scharrer (1939) studied this rather extensively in cockroaches and termed the cell layer the "perineurium" and the secreted sheet the "neural lamella." She pointed out that the neural lamella is optically homogeneous and stains with dyes like the connective tissue of vertebrates. It is several microns thick in cockroaches but is too thin to measure in mosquito larvæ. It seems to be present in all insects but is commonly very thin and inconspicuous.

The neural lamella is strongly birefringent. It shows as a bright line along the edge of all nerve cords and is positively birefringent in relation to the long axis of the nerve cord (Fig. 12).[18] In cross sections it shows a strong negative polarization cross. Immersion experiments show that its birefringence is almost entirely due to form birefringence, but attempts to determine the refractive index by immersion methods encountered the same sort of difficulty recorded by Castle (1936) for chitin. Imbibition or oriented imbedding in some cases gives quite different measurements for media of the same refractive index. The refractive index seems most likely in the neighborhood of 1.47, and clearly is different from both chitin and the sheaths (collagen ?) around individual nerves. Although the neural lamella shows as a bright line due to its depth, the true magnitude of its birefringence is quite low. Using equation (4), $n_1 - n_2$ is found to be approximately 0.00022.

The neural lamella is unaffected by extraction with lipid solvents. It is completely and readily dissolved by strong alkali, and accordingly is not chitinous. It gives a strong protein reaction (xanthoproteic test) but seems not to be collagen since it does not swell, dissolve or even lose its birefringence in dilute acetic acid (3 days) and since immersion experiments give different results for the neural lamella and the presumably collagenous sheaths around individual nerves. Serial sections show that the neural lamella is composed of concentric thin layers. Attempts to obtain electron micrographs showed only that the neural lamella fractures in an irregular manner suggesting a non-fibrous structure. Stretching experiments show that the neural lamella is elastic and possesses strong, photoelastic properties.

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[18] The neural lamella does not interfere seriously with a study of the birefringence of the included nerves. It shows only as a bright line along the edge, and can be ignored. Proof that it does not interfere with readings made on the included nerve bundle comes from experiments in which the same reading was obtained for the nerve bundle before and after manual removal of the neural lamella.

The above data suggest that the neural lamella of cockroaches is a series of elastic, homogeneous, concentric sheets composed of anisodiametric protein micelles exhibiting form birefringence and arranged with their optic axes perpendicular to the surface of the sheet. The negatively uniaxial protein micelles are arranged with their optic axes at right angles to the nerve axis, and accordingly the neural lamella appears positively birefringent in relation to the axis of the nerve cord.

No attempt has yet been made to study accurately the permeability of the neural lamella but obviously it must be permeable. Exchanges with the blood must take place through it, fixing fluids used in histology penetrate rapidly, and even the rather large aggregates of solubilized detergents—Black Sudan B (a polyazo dye) penetrate the neural lamella more rapidly than they will dialyze through a collodion membrane.

The birefringence of the neural lamella of a wasp and a beetle has already been described and figured by W. J. Schmidt (1937, p. 273, Fig. 70), but seemingly Schmidt erroneously thought that this sheet compared with the sheaths of single vertebrate nerves.

DISCUSSION

The data presented in this paper supplement those given previously (Richards, 1943), and show that the structure of insect nerves and nerve sheaths is closely similar to the structure reported for other animals (see Schmitt & Bear's review, 1939). This structure is diagrammed in Figure 4. Around the outside of insect nerves and nerve cords is a secreted sheet, the neural lamella, which while serving the same protective purpose is different from the protective coatings around vertebrate nerves and nerve cords.

Few observations on the birefringence of insect nerves are to be found in the literature. Bruno (1931) reported that insect nerves (various species) are isotropic. This bare statement cannot be evaluated in the absence of any information on the method of preparation and the type of compensator employed. Perhaps the negative report is simply an expression of failure to recognize the extremely low amplitude of relaxed insect nerves. W. J. Schmidt (1937) has already refuted Bruno's report. He published a figure showing the birefringence of a fresh peripheral nerve from the head of a wasp (Fig. 70, p. 273) and described similar results obtained with the ventral nerve cord of a beetle. From his brief comments, however, it is not certain how clearly he distinguished the various components of the birefringence. Certainly the sheath to which he refers is the neural lamella; he seems not to have seen the sheaths of the individual nerves or to have determined their lipo-protein character. Recently Pfeiffer (1943) has studied the growth of single nerves from *Corethra* larvæ (Diptera) in tissue culture. He records a positive uniaxial birefringence for normal *Corethra* nerves, with an amplitude of birefringence comparable to that described herein for mosquito larvæ. Pfeiffer was interested in studying nerve growth; he does not mention nerve sheaths and seems not to have distinguished between sheath and axis cylinder effects or to have recognized the presence of metatropic sheaths.[19]

Numerous references can be found in entomological literature stating that insect nerves are non-myelinated. These statements are readily understandable in view of the extreme thinness of the sheaths (commonly submicroscopic) and the correspondingly low lipid content.

SUMMARY

1. Insect nerves and nerve cords in saline solutions show a positive uniaxial birefringence in relation to the length of the fiber. This is reversed to negative by immersion in media of higher refractive index, *i.e.*, the nerves are metatropic. Qualitatively they seem to agree well with the structure of other so-called non-myelinated nerves as recorded by Schmitt, Bear and others. A diagram presenting the orientation of the optically active micelles is given in Figure 4.

2. The axis cylinder of insect nerves shows largely form birefringence which is positive in relation to both the nerve axis and the optic axes of the micelles. Most of this birefringence is due

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[19] The extremely small size of these nerves may have caused Pfeiffer to overlook the sheath. In nerves of comparable size from mosquito larvæ the sheaths are of submicroscopic thickness. Another possibility is that insect nerves growing in tissue culture may possibly differ from nerves growing in an animal.

to micellar form but a small residue of intrinsic birefringence seems to be present. The amplitude of birefringence of the axis cylinder increases greatly on being stretched.

3. Each insect nerve is surrounded by a discrete sheath of lipoprotein. In thickness these sheaths are at most only a few per cent of the fiber diameter, and accordingly in the case of small nerves are too thin to be observed directly (submicroscopic). This sheath is responsible for the metatropic reversal effect. Both the lipid and protein components are oriented with the optic axes of their micelles arranged radially. They are of opposite sign. Normally the nerve sheaths appear positively birefringent in relation to the nerve axis because the positive component due to the proteins slightly overbalances the negative component due to the lipids. Removal of the intrinsically birefringent lipid increases the positive birefringence and prevents metatropic reversal. Masking the form birefringence of the protein permits the intrinsic birefringence of the lipids to be seen (metatropic reversal).

The protein component of the sheath may be collagen. Its micelles are negatively birefringent in relation to their optic axes but being arranged radially make the nerve appear positively birefringent in relation to its length. Its birefringence is mostly due to micellar shape but a small residue of intrinsic birefringence seems to be present.

The lipid component of the sheath is probably a mixture of phosphatids with perhaps other ''myelin'' components. The lipid micelles are positively birefringent in relation to their optic axes but being arranged radially make the nerve appear negatively birefringent in relation to its length. The lipid birefringence is intrinsic since it is unaffected by the refractve index of immersion media.

4. Insect nerves seem to differ from the non-myelinated nerves of other animals chiefly in the low order of amplitude of birefringence and the extreme thinness of the nerve sheaths. These seeming differences may possibly be illusory since ordinarily only large nerves are studied whereas insect nerves are commonly very small.

5. Metatropic nerve sheaths have been reported to date in an earthworm, sandworm and leech (Annelida), a spider and *Limu-*

lus (Arachnida), various shrimps, crabs, etc. (Crustacea), a millipede (Diplopoda), a centipede (Chilopoda) and five orders of pterybote insects (cockroach, mosquito, moth, bee, beetle). It certainly seems probable that at least for the Annelid-Arthropod complex Schmitt & Bear were correct in suggesting that metatropic nerve sheaths will be found throughout the invertebrates.

6. Around the nerve cord and peripheral nerves is a secreted permeable elastic layer, the neural lamella, which is structurally and chemically different from the protective coatings around vertebrate nerves. The neural lamella is or at least contains a protein which shows form birefringence and photoelastic properties. This protein seems to be different from collagen and different from the protein of the sheaths around individual nerves. Immersion experiments are complicated by the oriented imbedding of imbibed media. The neural lamella is composed of thin concentric layers with the micelles arranged perpendicular to the surface (radial in relation to the nerve). These micelles, like sheath proteins, are negatively uniaxial in relation to their optic axes; being arranged radially they make the sheet appear as a positively birefringent line (in relation to the nerve axis) along the edge of the nerve.

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PLATE X

In all figures the cross-hairs indicate the orientation of the Nicol prisms of the microscope. Extra contrast and compensation obtained with a Köhler $\lambda/20$ rotating mica plate compensator. Photographs, of course, do not distinguish between positive and negative birefringence; this is determined by compensators and stated in text and legends.

FIG. 5. Teased single large nerve fiber from cockroach nerve cord fixed in 95% ethyl alcohol in *relaxed* condition. Lipids extracted by alcohol. In distilled water; birefringence positive in relation to nerve axis. The parallel light lines represent the protein component (collagen ?) of the nerve sheath. Diameter of this fiber 16 μ. Magnification 300 ×.

FIG. 6. A group of medium-sized nerves from the same preparation as Figure 5. Diameters of these fibers 5–6 μ. Magnification 300 ×.

FIG. 7. A single small fiber, 3 μ in diameter, from same preparation. Note how faint the sheath is. Magnification 300 ×.

FIG. 8. A single teased cockroach nerve fiber which was fixed in 95% alcohol while *stretched* to approximately 1½ × its relaxed length. Note that the sheath and axis cylinder are of the same general intensity and so cannot be distinguished. Specimen in distilled water; birefringence positive in relation to nerve axis. Diameter of this fiber after stretching 10 μ. Compensator set for maximum brightness of nerve. Magnification 300 ×.

FIG. 9. Same but with compensator plate rotated for extinction of nerve retardation. Such brightening and extinguishing effects prove we are dealing with birefringent properties.

FIG. 10. Another nerve from the same preparation. Diameter 12 μ. Magnification 300 ×.

FIG. 11. Large group of nerve fibers from partly teased cockroach nerve cord in saline containing 15% glycerine (2 hrs.). The form birefringence of the protein is here masked sufficiently to give reversal of sign (metatropic effect); the sign of birefringence here is then negative in relation to the nerve axis. The many parallel light lines are due to the lipid components of a number of nerve sheaths. Nerves of various diameters (3–8 μ on plate but somewhat shrunken by the glycerine medium). Magnification 500 ×.

FIG. 12. A thoracic interganglionic connective of a cockroach in saline with 15% glycerine (15 min.). The bright lines along the sides are produced by the neural lamella. The bright interior is produced by the superimposed effects of the lipid sheaths of many nerves. The neural lamella is positive in relation to the nerve cord axis; the included bundle of nerves is negative. Compensator set for maximum brightness. Magnification 45 ×.

FIG. 13. Same but with compensator plate rotated for extinction of nerve retardation. In this photomicrograph the positive birefringence of the neural lamella is lost against the white background.

FIG. 14. Abdominal ganglion and interganglionic connectives of a mosquito larva. Fresh preparation in saline; birefringence positive in relation to nerve axes. Compensator set for maximum brightness. Magnification 200 ×.

FIG. 15. Same fresh preparation after 5 min. in saline containing 15% glycerine. The sign has reversed and the nerve cord shrunken slightly. Magnification 200 ×.

FIG. 16. Portions of two interganglionic connectives of a cockroach after 18½ hours degeneration in saline containing 15% glycerine. Shows the breakdown of the sheath lipids into birefringent sphærites. The two bright lines running diagonally through the center are produced by the neural lamellæ of the two connectives. The wavy bright line in the upper right quadrant is produced by an air-filled trachea. Magnification 200 ×.


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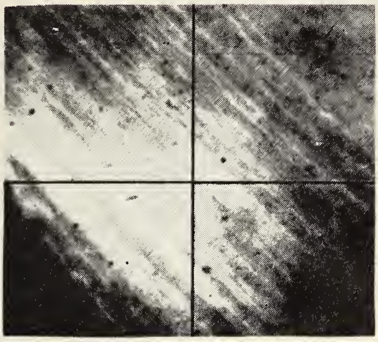
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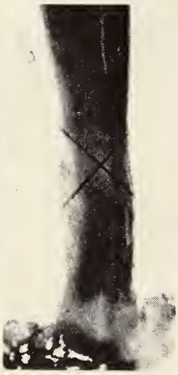
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NOTES ON THE BEHAVIOR OF BURYING BEETLES (NICROPHORUS SPP.)

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For several summers, ending with the season of 1928, the senior author had observed species of *Nicrophorus* (Coleoptera, Staphylinidæ, Silphinæ) burying small carcasses at Irondale (Haliburton County), Ontario, Canada, in July. Some of his observations were published (Milne, 1928). Much more extensive and detailed studies of burying beetles were made by Pukowski (1933) in Europe and Leech (1935) in British Columbia. These authors followed the life history from the time of burial, while the adults cared for the young, through the three instars of larval life, the prepupal and pupal periods, and made observations on emergence and feeding of the adults. Difficulty was reported in observing the burying behavior because of its nocturnal nature and because *Nicrophorus* was not abundant enough to justify the risks of disturbing beetles at work. Since the burying activities had been watched repeatedly in daylight at Irondale, the present authors made a return trip there in the summer of 1944, to prepare a Kodachrome motion picture of the burying beetles in their work above ground. Although the time available during the brief vacation from war research greatly restricted the experimental studies, it was possible to make further observations which extend and clarify the behavior of these insects.

1. SPECIES INVOLVED AT IRONDALE

Six species of *Nicrophorus* have been collected at carrion in this region by the authors, namely *N. sayi* Lap., *N. orbicollis* Say, *N. marginatus* Fab., *N. pustulatus* Hersch., *N. vespilloides* Hbst., and *N. tomentosus* Web. All these are easily distinguished in the field. Only *tomentosus* has the pronotum covered with yellow, appressed hair (which often becomes abraded on the two convexities of the disc). Only *sayi* and *marginatus* have distinctly curved hind tibiæ. Only *vespilloides* and *tomentosus* have the antennal clubs entirely black, the other species having at least part of the club orange red; these two species are also considerably smaller in average size. *Sayi* and *orbicollis* are very similar in markings, with the elytra mostly black, but with orange red in a sub-basal, irregular crossbar and a subapical spot. *Marginatus, vespilloides* and *tomentosus* are similar in markings, the elytra being mostly orange red, the bands of color continuing across both elytra, sometimes confluent also along the outer margins. *Pustulatus* is unique among these six species in having the pronotum transversely oval, the others having a circular disc; it also has the sub-basal elytral spot small or absent, the subapical bar often divided in two (sometimes lacking), the insect thus having an even blacker facies than *sayi* or *orbicollis.* Of these, only *tomentosus* and *orbicollis** were numerous in late July of 1944, and on them most of the following notes are based.

2. METHODS OF STUDY

Irondale is a hilly region from which the original timber was removed perhaps fifty years ago. Those areas which could be freed of glacial erratics and which were reasonably level, have been farmed (chiefly for grain). Other areas have been cleared for pasture and kept available for sheep and cattle. Less level land has been allowed to grow up again. The vegetation is typical Canadian zone, with hemlock, spruce, pine, paper birch, poplar, spiræa, sweet fern, sweet gale, mountain laurel, club mosses, bracken, and an abundant lichen flora on exposed rocks and tree trunks. Among the larger fauna are loons, whip-poor-wills, porcupines, groundhogs, skunks, red squirrels and chipmunks. Most of the glacial lakes contribute to the Burnt River system, deriving the name from the dark color of the water, due to leaching of iron ore from rock substratum and to solution of decaying coniferous and other xerophytic debris. Sphagnum is common and pitcher plants and sundew reach large size.

To attract *Nicrophorus,* small dead animals were placed at selected positions in a variety of ecological habitats. Each carcass was secured to a nearby stake by a two-foot length of fine steel wire, to make recovery easy (*cf.* Milne, 1928). The animals used

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* Referred to as *N. pollinctor* in Milne, 1928.

were chiefly deer mice (*Peromyscus*), with some house mice (*Mus*), shrews (*Blarina*), birds (robins, thrushes, sparrows, wrens, domestic turkeys, etc., as found dead) and snakes. In previous years larger carrion was tried, including groundhog (*Marmota*), skunk, dog, etc., but *Nicrophorus* was found to show little interest in carcasses too large for them to bury. For species observed at Irondale, a body the size of a robin is perhaps the limit.

In open fields, such as pastures or where hay had been cut, *N. tomentosus* and *marginatus* arrived to bury mice and snakes. Competition with ants was frequent and the carcasses deteriorated considerably before the beetles could get them buried. In leaf litter from birch and poplar, second growth woodland, *N. tomentosus* and *orbicollis* were quick to bury mice and birds. In coniferous duff the same species were somewhat slower in finding carrion. No activity was observed on mice placed in low, wet positions such as sedgy swales. Mice placed on particularly hard ground or on bare rock, were transported by the beetles to places where the soil was less packed and burial hence easier. Desiccation of carcasses by the sun did not have any noticeable effect on the interest in them shown by the beetles.

3. BEHAVIOR OF THE BEETLES

Nicrophorus exhibits a number of interesting behavior patterns. The beetles fly to the general vicinity of the carrion, apparently by smell (*cf.* Abbott, 1927a & 1927b; Milne, 1928). *Tomentosus* is particularly accurate in locating the body before alighting, buzzing through the bushes like a bumblebee. The resemblance to *Bombus* is enhanced by the golden body hair, the yellow inner surfaces of the elytra (which are held back to back over the midline) and the creamy cast to the flying wings. All *Nicrophorus* run about briskly, forcing their way through or under tangled vegetation. If disturbed, all but *tomentosus* are likely to either feign death, or run away a few feet to hide in grass roots. *Tomentosus* takes to its wings and may alight in a nearby bush, often standing on a slanting stem rather than the broader surface of a leaf. Pukowski (1933) describes a similar habit as part of the behavior of a lone *Nicrophorus* attracting a mate, the beetle climbing a stone or plant, elevating the abdomen obliquely and extending it so much that the coriæ are visible. No indication of such was observed by the present authors, a lone *Nicrophorus* regularly getting to work on the burial task and continuing so engaged until a mate arrived.

After a beetle has arrived at a dead animal, it characteristically examines the body with palpi and antennæ and tests the size of the carcass by trying to move it. The "carrying" action is one of the most typical behavior patterns shown by *Nicrophorus.* Another activity closely related is that of "exploring" the surrounding soil for a suitable spot in which the body may be interred. A third procedure is to test the looseness of the soil by "plowing" it. All of these behaviors are energetic, and are shown by even a single *Nicrophorus.*

The carrying action of *Nicrophorus* demonstrates the strength of the beetles and the vigor with which they proceed wtih their task. To move a carcass, say forward in terms of a mouse's body, the beetle crawls under the head of the mouse, turns over on its back, and lifts the mouse bodily over itself. The mouse inches forward little by little, while the beetle slides slowly on its smooth back under the mouse until it reaches the posterior end. There it either emerges and runs around to the anterior end of the mouse again, or turns over on its feet to crawl under the mouse, the smooth dorsum of the beetle not disturbing the body. Such effort is very strenuous, and a rest period or an exploring interlude usually follows a few minutes of moving the carrion. A single beetle rests more than when a mate has arrived. A slight tug at the carcass usually stimulates it to renewed activity. When two beetles are operating one or the other is usually carrying the body while the mate explores or plows. No sexual difference in degree of activity could be noticed (*cf.* Wood, 1873; Furneaux, 1893; Pukowski, 1933). Both members of a pair were highly industrious under most circumstances. On level ground devoid of major obstacles, a pair of beetles may transport a full-grown mouse or shrew as rapidly as three or four feet per hour, and keep up this pace for as much as two and a half hours, the limit in every case observed being the distance necessary to reach sufficiently soft ground for burial use.

The exploring behavior was very distressing to the observers. After a shorter or longer period of work on a carcass, one or both members of a pair will suddenly leave the body and run away from it at the usual brisk pace. The beetles may go only a few feet (seldom less), or as much as a few yards, and in some cases (*tomentosus*) took to flight, only to return in a matter of minutes. A specimen of *N. tomentosus* with a broken elytral tip was observed to fly off and back again four times within an hour. Each time it flew out of sight. During the hour perhaps fifteen minutes work was done in carrying the mouse and in plowing in nearby soil, the remainder being either exploring the whole surrounding area (perhaps fifteen feet in diameter), or resting with head under a clump of grass, or absent altogether while away on a flight. This procedure persisted even after the specimen was joined by a mate, continuing until the carrion had been transported (mostly by the mate, in this instance), almost to the area selected for burial use.

The plowing procedure loosens the earth. The beetle uses its head as a plowshare or bulldozer, pressing into the earth perhaps the depth of its stout body below the surface, then forcing its way forward in an arc while maintaining its depth. The earth is forced upward and crumbles. Any roots encountered are either forced aside, or chewed through, but if numerous a new burial site is sought out. Before a final area is considered satisfactory, as many as twenty possible sites may be plowed and found unsuitable. The final area may be many feet away from the carrion, and the beetle(s) will alternately work on the carcass and run to the burial site to do another stretch of plowing. The route taken between carrion and burial site is usually fairly direct, and the body is carried along this line. How both members of a pair can agree on a site was not determined, nor was it at all clear how the beetles were able to keep the carcass moving so uniformly (few exceptions) in one direction. The contrast was very marked between the cooperation of *Nicrophorus* and the great wastage of effort among ants trying to carry a large food particle.

In a few instances, the beetle bait was placed on soft ground and the *Nicrophorus* buried it where it lay. In all instances, however, the burial procedure was a localization of the plowing action. The beetles plowed *under* the carrion, entering at one side (or end) and emerging at the other, only to turn about and complete the shuttling action. On each emergence at the side or end of the carcass, a sizeable amount of earth was forced up, to accumulate in a loose pile all around the body. Gradually the earth from below the carrion was displaced to the side and the carcass settled into the ground. A continuation of the same activity gradually drops the body below the surface of the ground, and the procedure is continued until as much as two inches of earth are over the carcass. The body is usually let into the ground at a steep angle. Not only the earth under the carrion, but also that within a few inches of it is plowed. Closer to the body the ground is plowed to a greater depth. In its final site, a chamber is cleared of earth below and to one side from the body. In the chamber *Nicrophorus* remains after burial. The chamber may be as much as two and a half inches long, an inch wide and deep, and the walls are left packed in the original condition of the earth, so that cave-ins are unlikely. Burial is usually completed in five to eight hours, although the beetles will continue for days if obstructions slow their work. *Nicrophorus* usually remain with the carrion at least for many days (*cf.* Hatch, 1927b; Milne, 1928; Pukowski, 1933; Leech, 1935).

There seems to be a relationship between the size of the carrion, the size of the *Nicrophorus* species and the number of pairs which can work in burying it. A full sized robin (in juvenile plumage) was handled by a pair each of *N. orbicollis* and *tomentosus.* A thirty-inch garter snake was buried by two pairs of *N. tomentosus* and one of *marginatus.* In one instance a full-grown deer mouse was interred by two pairs of *N. tomentosus.* In all other instances only a single pair of a single species did the work. Additional specimens of *orbicollis* arriving at a piece of carrion where a pair were at work, usually crawled under the body, only to emerge (promptly!) pursued by one of the original pair. Several rough and tumble fights were witnessed in which the newcomer resisted briefly the attack of the original ''owner.'' *Orbicollis* coming to carrion where *tomentosus* was at work usually drove the smaller species away. *Tomentosus* coming to a carcass being carried or buried by *orbicollis* usually left without any indication of expulsion. *Tomentosus* coming where *tomentosus* were already at work sometimes helped awhile before leaving, in only one instance (see above) remaining until the body was completely interred. Thus *tomentosus* would seem to make up in small size, greater numbers (see below) and more sociable reactions for its inability to compete physically with the larger species. *Orbicollis* becomes quite excited over expelling a competitor and stridulates very audibly by rubbing the upper surface of the abdomen against the under surface of the elytra (*cf.* Morley, 1902). This same stridulation is observed when a pair mate (3 to 4 seconds; *cf.* Pukowski, 1933), or when an obstruction continues to bar the way in moving a carcass. These were the only occasions and the only species in which such noises were noted. Pukowski (1933) indicates that pairs working on a carcass keep in contact with each other by alternately emitting ''zirping'' sounds.

Obstructions may be of a variety of types. Naturally encountered are situations where roots, stems, leaf petioles, etc., are sufficiently anchored at both ends as to restrict an opening through which the beetle is attempting to move the carrion. The beetle discovering such an obstacle usually tries first to force it out of the way, getting head and pronotum under the restraining strand, feet in the vestiture of the carrion, and crawling ahead. Many obstructions can be stretched sufficiently by this method to open a suitable passage for further progress of the carcass. When force proves inadequate, the beetle may settle down on the restraining piece and laboriously chew it through. Often periods of chewing are alternated with episodes of drawing and pushing at the carcass or strand, the chewing frequently having weakened the obstruction sufficiently to let it give. When the obstacle proves too resistant to such treatment, soil is plowed from under the carcass and the needed space obtained in this way.

Obstructions provided experimentally were usually very irritating to the beetles but in no case did they leave permanently. String tried to the leg or tail of a mouse was the commonest form of restraint, and one which could be overcome by gnawing the string until it broke under strain. Fine steel wire was an insuperable difficulty. A carefully placed piece of rock, supported partly on the ground and partly on the body of a mouse, proved less of a problem. Although the rock weighed several pounds, the pair of beetles working together were able to lift the rock where it rested on the mouse sufficiently to push the carrion free of its pressure and restraint.

One experimental situation gave a good demonstration of the beetles' behavior. A mouse laid out on fairly soft ground had a string tied to one hind leg, the opposite end of the string being fastened to a stake close to the mouse but in such a way that the string was almost vertical and held the leg clear of the ground. A pair of *N. orbicollis* proceeded to bury the mouse. They did a fine job, the head of the mouse finally hanging almost vertically downward into the hole the beetles had excavated. The hind leg continued to be supported in its original position. The beetles cleared away the earth until there was none below the head and shoulders of the mouse for a distance equal to the thickness of a beetle, and a space was also clear all around the mouse so that it hung by its one leg over a sizeable, cup-shaped hole. With much stridulation and rotation of the mouse around and around over the hole, the beetles failed to go vertically upward to the supporting string. Every move in this direction ended in a trip out the length of the mouse's tail, to see that it was free. It was, but the traffic became so heavy and the mouse so "ripe" that the skin rolled off the tail distally like a glove finger. Finally the beetles gnawed the tail off the mouse, severing it at the root. Almost at once they found the supporting string, and after a few abortive attempts to free the foot, one of the *Nicrophorus* settled down to the task of gnawing it through. When the string gave way, the mouse collapsed in a heap into the bottom of the hole prepared for it, and burial was completed uneventfully within half an hour.

Pukowski (1933) indicates that the beetles prepare a conical hole below the carrion, always smaller than the body, and fold the carcass as they draw it into the pit. The episode just described would seem to indicate that *Nicrophorus* continue to enlarge the hole for the carcass until it has been sunk to their satisfaction, and that a conical hole and consequent folding may be merely economy of effort. When carrion has considerable length, as for example a snake, no folding was observed by the present authors. The snake was let into the ground to a depth of nearly two inches all along its length (except for the tail), so that it was buried horizontally, in approximately the attitude occupied previously on top of the earth. It is true that in the case of snakes, burial advanced rapidly in the region from head to anus, the tail being left out in the air for nearly twenty-four hours after the remainder of the carcass was well under the surface. The tail, with its smaller supply of food materials, was obviously of much less interest to the beetles, forming chiefly an obstruction to satisfactory burial. In several instances the last few inches of a snake's tail was chewed off, and the postanal remainder pulled into the ground after putrefaction had rendered it more plastic.

Heavy rain obstructed burying beetles much less than had been expected. On several occasions *Nicrophorus* had begun to bury bait placed on level, hard ground, when torrential downpours drove the observers to nearby shelter. From the cabin the bait could be seen almost or quite covered by water, sometimes to a depth of an inch. No sign of the beetles was noted, yet within fifteen minutes after the rain slackened enough for the ground to drain off, the insects were busy in the wet earth, excavating, plowing and tugging the carcass into their cavity.

The observers' concern over the seeming desertion of the bait whenever *Nicrophorus* went into an exploring episode, suggested another experiment. As indicated above, the beetles frequently explore a very sizeable area befor returning to the carcass. There is no indication, however, that there is ever any difficulty in finding the carcass again, since the beetles often return to it in an almost straight line from a distance of a yard or two. On several occasions, duplicate baits were tried, being mice of approximately equal size and state of preservation, placed a foot apart on even terrain. A *Nicrophorus* would come to one, test it for size, then explore the surrounding ground for a suitable burial site. During the exploration the second mouse was usually discovered. Almost without exception, the beetle examined the duplicate bait without attempting to carry it, then hurried back to the mouse previously discovered. In no case observed did the beetle(s) desert the first bait in favor of the second. The same type of experiment was tried on pairs which were busy burying a relatively fresh mouse. A similar (or more odoriferous) mouse was placed where they would surely find it during exploration trips. In no case did the beetles desert the first-found carcass to more than examine the second. It was quite obvious that the extra carrion so nearby was a source of great distraction, but the recognition of one body as distinct from another was most marked.

In only a few instances did *Nicrophorus* show any indication of feeding on the carrion (*cf.* Furneaux, 1893; Lutz, 1921; Steele, 1927; Milne, 1928). Usually the beetles seemed to be in a hurry to get the carcass interred. During daylight the need for rapid burial was great, since blowflies came in considerable numbers, laying living larvæ if unmolested for a few minutes. The brisk activities of the beetles and the frequent jerky movements of the carcass have a deterrent effect on flies of some types (including blowflies) but where obstacles prevented beetles from quickly getting the carrion under ground during daylight hours, it was obvious that little of the carcass would be available for other than dipterous larvæ. In many instances the beetles seemed to realize this, and failed to complete burial. In some cases *Nicrophorus* left fly-ridden carcasses sunk below the level of the ground, covered by perhaps a quarter of an inch of loose earth. A few days later such carrion was a squirming mass of fat fly larvæ. Rapidly buried bodies, on the other hand, are remarkably free of dipterous contamination. This may well be due to the preference shown by beetles for operations in twilight, at night or on cloudy (even rainy) days (*cf.* Abbott, 1927b) or an active eating of young maggots by the beetles (noted on a few occasions; *cf.* Steele, 1927; Leech, 1935).

In one instance of *Nicrophorus* feeding, one member of a pair took time off to investigate a small hole in the abdomen of a "ripe" mouse, while the mate was busy excavating under the carcass. For perhaps five minutes the feeding beetle worked into the hole, until head and pronotum were inside the abdominal wall. The viscera were explored rather superficially since the position of the head could be discerned at all times by the moving elevation it produced in the mouse's skin. It was the observers' opinion that the beetle was drinking rather than eating. Prior to this feeding action, small flies had found the hole in the mouse's abdominal wall a very interesting region, and considerable moisture seemed to be present. After the beetle left the hole, there was no liquid visible and no flies were attracted to the area. During feeding, several blowflies ran against the posterior end of the beetle, and were kicked away by violent movement of the posterior legs. This kicking of molesting flies and ants seems a common reaction in *Nicrophorus*.

Nicrophorus apparently discovers carrion entirely by smell, while ants frequently locate freshly killed mice, seemingly as part of routine foraging operations. Often ants had removed the lips and nosetip of the rodent (the first part to be attacked in all instances observed) before *Nicrophorus* arrived, but on warm days (or nights) the beetles began to arrive within an hour or less. Typical of the speed with which *Nicrophorus* gather at a mouse is the following record made between six and ten o'clock one warm evening:

5:30 P.M.	Freshly killed mouse laid out in birch leaf litter.
6:05	♀ *N. tomentosus.*
6:07	♂ *N. tomentosus.*
6:19	♂ *N. tomentosus.*
6:38	♂ *N. orbicollis.*
6:40	♂ *Silpha americana.*
7:33	♀ *N. tomentosus.*
8:02	♀ *N. orbicollis.*
8:13	♂ *N. orbicollis.*
8:36	♂ *S. noveboracensis.*
8:41	♀ *S. americana.*
8:47	♀ *N. orbicollis.*
9:00	♂ & ♀ *S. noveboracensis.*
9:40	carabid beetle.
9:50	♂ *N. tomentosus.*
10:00	Took in mouse for the night.

Thus in four hours, nine *Nicrophorus* arrived, of which approximately half were males. The sex ratio is remarkably close to 1:1. Of twenty-two specimens of *N. orbicollis* collected in the sequence in which they arrived (no selection), ten were females. Of forty-one *N. tomentosus* collected in the same way (and during the same time limits), twenty were males. Other observers confirm the sex ratio (*cf.* Wood, 1873; Leech, 1935). The ratio of twenty-two *orbicollis* to forty-one *tomentosus* is a very good value to indicate the relative abundance of the two species in deciduous woodland. In the sample catch cited above in chronological order, the proportion of *N. tomentosus* is unusually low. Some may have been driven off by *N. orbicollis* between arrival of *orbicollis* and the frequent visits of the observers. Mosquitos made more constant supervision too uncomfortable.

Another indication of the frequency with which *Nicrophorus* come to carrion was afforded by an unintentional experiment. Usually the observers placed all bait which was to be saved for the morrow in a glass jar to be kept overnight on ice. On one occasion a relatively fresh mouse was tossed casually into a butterfly net, the net folded on itself a few times, and left standing outside the cabin over night. In the morning two *N. tomentosus* were collected on the outside of the net just over the mouse inside. Holes had been chewed through the net thicknesses to allow entry of five other *Nicrophorus,* two *orbicollis* which had reached the mouse, one *orbicollis* nearby in a fold of the net, and two *tomentosus* in still other folds. Concern over the damage done to the net precluded observations on how the beetles might have gone about burying a carcass under such conditions.

The authors have been unable to identify the sex of *Nicrophorus* in the field without examining the genitalia—a procedure which is accomplished more satisfactorily on an anæsthetized specimen. Records for *N. orbicollis* were kept, however, to determine if there were any clue to sex in the size of the specimens. Ten male and eleven female *orbicollis,* measured freshly killed and extended, form the basis of study. Since the telescoping of the abdomen provided an independent variable, measurements were made from the most anterior part of the head capsule to the elytral apex. For the ten males there was a variation in this measurement from 14 to 22 mm., mean 19.6 mm., with a standard error of 2.7 mm. or approximately 14%. For the eleven females the variation was from 16 to 22 mm., mean 18.5 mm., with a standard error of 2.2 mm., or nearly 12%. Since the difference between the means is only 1.1 mm. (about 6%), the authors were unable to use size for sex recognition. A small male and a large female, or vice versa, were encountered more frequently than two large or two small specimens.

Due to the preference shown by *Nicrophorus* for work in the shade or at twilight or night, difficulties were experienced in obtaining photographic records. So as to have beetles available to photograph when the light was good, attempts were made to imprison photogenic specimens in glass jars with a little earth. If the earth were moist, isolated specimens burrowed into it and were active the following day, showing little agitation over their confinement and taking on the burial of any mouse provided them as soon as liberated quietly beside it. However, the beetles became very hungry when kept over night, and unless maintained in solitude, resorted to cannibalism. Specimens killed by their fellows were ripped apart most ruthlessly, head from pronotum from remainder of thorax from abdomen, and each part cleaned of viscera. The victors frequently lacked tibiæ, antennæ, sometimes whole legs and elytra, demonstrating the ferocity of the battles. *Onthophagus,* histerids and larvæ of *Silpha* seemed able to escape such attacks, but adult *Silpha* and *Nicrophorus,* as well as other staphylinids and scarabæids (*e.g., Geotrupes*) were destroyed by hungry *N. orbicollis* and *tomentosus.* When specimens were confined without food for more than a day, they became sluggish and often died. Pukowski (1933) mentions *N. germanicus* attacking adult *Geotrupes silvaticus,* capturing them at horse dung, seizing them in the legs and mandibles and devouring the viscera. *Nicrophorus* rolls over on its back or one side while eating such prey.

4. RELATED OBSERVATIONS

Among other species frequenting, but not burying, small carcasses, the following beetles were most common:

Staphylinidæ: *Silpha surinamensis* Fab., *S. lapponica* Hbst., *S. inaequalis* Fab., *S. noveboracensis* Forst. and *S. americana* L., *Staphylinus fossator* Grav., *Ontholestes cingulatus* Grav. and *Creophilus villosus* Grav.

Histeridæ: unidentified—at least three species, probably different genera.

Scarabæidæ: *Geotrupes blackburnei* Fab., *Onthophagus hecate* Panz., *O. orpheus* Panz., *O. nuchicornis* L.

Of these *Silpha noveboracensis* and *americana* and *Onthophagus hecate* were most numerous, coming both night and day, particularly to carrion which had deteriorated considerably. *Staphylinus fossator, Ontholestes cingulatus* and *Creophilus villosus* came to similar carcasses but chiefly in daylight hours. All of these species chewed at the bait. No evidence was obtained as to the food of the histerid species. None of these beetles was driven off by *Nicrophorus,* but only the histerids and *Onthophagus* remained if the carcass was buried.

Larvæ of *Silpha* usually come in small numbers to deteriorated carrion, and can be found many feet away heading toward the carcass with remarkable accuracy. The larvæ and adults of *Silpha* walk with a rapid, jerky movement. In the adults the jerks are more pronounced, possibly because the legs are longer. *Silpha* larvæ roll up like terrestrial isopod crustaceans ("sow bugs, pill bugs") and feign death, but the adults run away if disturbed.

Most of the carrion beetles (and dung beetles) carry a number of mites. *Nicrophorus* usually have less than twenty (*cf.* Leech, 1935). On arrival at carrion, many of the mites leave the beetles and may be found running about on the carcass and nearby ground. They hurry around on the body of the beetles and appear to share any agitation shown by the insect. Thus when the beetle is disturbed, the mites move much more extensively and leave the beetle much more frequently. The arrival of another beetle or irritation shown over some obstacle to burial is enough to greatly excite the mite population. The beetles were never seen to show any reaction to the presence or position of the mites, but it was noted also that the mites did not crawl out on the antennæ of the insects, although they ran over the mouthparts, dorsum, venter and leg bases. Schaupp's (1881) notes are interesting in suggesting a relationship between mites and the death of *Nicrophorus* pupæ.

Pukowski (1933) and Leech (1935) have followed in great detail the later phases of the life history, subsequent to burial of the carcass. The present writers have not had opportunity to repeat many of these observations. They did note, however, that carcasses were cleaned fairly well of hair or feathers and worked into a compact ball, kept free of collected moisture, the skin remaining in fair condition while the tissues became a slate-gray, pasty mass, of a consistency similar to rotting dung. To see some of the later stages in the life cycle, two mice were laid on the top of four inches of earth and forest litter packed into a granite dish. Within a day, both mice were buried by pairs of *N. tomentosus,* and the dishful of carrion and insects was screened and carried home to Pennsylvania. Perhaps due to the agitation of the trip, the *Nicrophorus* came out of the ground and were observed running about over the soil, fluttering their wings and seeking an exit. Two of the four beetles (a pair) were caught and removed, and the remaining pair left to minister to any young they might have on the way. Soil moisture was maintained by occasional watering. The two beetles were seen running around a few times more, but on each occasion they returned into the earth. After two weeks one beetle was noticed on top of the ground, dead and eviscerated. The pan of carrion and earth was turned out on a paper. One mouse had dried to a hard mass. The second was in much better condition, and on it were two fat yellow larvæ of *N. tomentosus,* so distended with food that their intersegmental membranes were more conspicuous than the brown sclerites, and almost helpless to roll over and crawl away. The other parent (♀) was found dead among the earth. About two dozen fly puparia were among the soil particles, probably from the dried mouse. No further observations were made and the specimens were preserved for reference.

The foregoing observations were made during and between shots with the 16 mm. motion picture camera. A visual record in Kodachrome was obtained, somewhat over 600 feet in length, showing the carrying and plowing behaviors, the burial of several mice, the exhumation of mice and a snake, close-ups of *N. tomentosus* adults and larvæ, of *N. orbicollis,* including some footage made at night to the hum of misquitoes while *N. orbicollis* chewed through the string which held up the leg of a mouse. The present notes on the burial behavior of *Nicrophorus* should fill in gaps left in the excellent work of Pukowski (1933) and Leech (1935) and with the film, allow entomologists more widely to become acquainted with the activities of this interesting genus.

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THECLA BURDI KAYE, A SYNONYM

By E. IRVING HUNTINGTON

W. J. Kaye described *Thecla burdi* from St. Vincent, B.W.I., in "The Entomologist," vol. 56, p. 277, 1923. In the collections of the American Museum of Natural History there is a large series of *Thecla angerona* Godman and Salvin from Canefields, Dominica, B.W.I., collected by Mr. L. E. Chadwick between October 24, 1933, and January 16, 1934, as well as three females from Roseau, Dominica, taken on October 19–20, 1933, by the same collector; in addition to this series there are one male and two females taken on the type locality island of St. Vincent by Mr. E. B. Isaacs, and one male taken at Brimstone Hill, St. Kitts, B.W.I., March 16, 1929, collector E. I. Huntington. This series has been compared with Kaye's original description and there can be no doubt that the insect described by Kaye as *Thecla burdi* is the same as that described by Godman and Salvin as *Thecla angerona* (Proc. Zool. Soc., London, p. 516, 1896).

Through an oversight, this synonomy was not referred to in "Lycænidæ of the Antilles," Comstock and Huntington (Ann. New York Acad. Sci., vol. 45, p. 76).

A NEW SPECIES OF LAMBDINA, AND NOTES ON TWO SPECIES OF BESMA (LEPIDOPTERA, GEOMETRIDÆ, ENNOMINÆ)

By Laurence R. Rupert
Horseheads, N. Y.

Recent study of various species of the group of the *Geometridæ*, until recently known as the genus *Ellopia*, has disclosed an apparently undescribed species of *Lambdina* Capps, and sufficient difference between *Besma quercivoraria* Gn. and *B. endropiaria* G. & R., to warrant retention of both these names at specific rank. A description of the new species and notes on the other two follow.

Lambdina canitiaria new species

Similar to *athasaria* Wlk., in shape, color, and maculation of wings; head dark gray, showing no trace of the yellow that is so conspicuous in *athasaria;* thorax and abdomen dark gray, much less yellow than in *athasaria;* male antennæ more narrowly pectinate than in *athasaria.* (The longest pectinations are about 1 mm. long, while in *athasaria* they average 1¾–2 mm. long.) Male genitalia similar to those of *athasaria* but with slight differences which may not prove constant when a longer series of *canitiaria* is available. I have examined the genitalia of two males of *canitiaria*, and of twelve males of *athasaria.* The *canitiaria* genitalia both differ from any *athasaria* examined and from the figures shown by Capps (Proc. U. S. N. M., Vol. 93, Plate 3), in having (1) finer and shorter spinules on the furca, and fewer of them along the basal third; (2) the terminal part of the furca wider and more rounded; and (3) the auger-like process at the end of the ædeagus less prominent.

Wing expanse 1–1¼ inches, averaging a little smaller than *athasaria.*

At Horseheads, N. Y., the only locality from which it is known, *canitiaria* is the earliest *Lambdina* to appear in the spring. It is on the wing about three weeks earlier than *athasaria* and the periods of flight of the two species have not been observed to overlap in the same season.

Holotype.—♂, Horseheads, N. Y.—May 22, 1940. (In Franclemont collection.)

Allotype.—♀, Horseheads, N. Y.—May 4, 1938. (In Rupert coll.)

Paratypes.—3 ♂♂, Horseheads, N. Y.—May 22. 1940, and May 9, 1943. (In Rupert coll.)

Besma quercivoraria Gn.—Two females were taken at Horseheads in May 1943. Eggs were obtained from both, and larvæ from both lots were raised to maturity. No differences of note were observed among the eggs, larvæ, and pupæ of the two lots.

The eggs were elliptical, with the surface finely and evenly pitted, at first translucent, almost colorless, but with a faint greenish tinge, which soon became darker and more distinctly green.

The young larvæ were pale yellow green, very slender and very active. They accepted as food several species of oak, but refused everything else offered including maple. Beech was not readily available, and was not offered at this time. On June 22, when most of the larvæ were in the last stage, I left Horseheads to spend several weeks at Sardinia, N. Y., where oak is difficult to find. The larvæ then accepted beech readily, but still refused maple.

The mature larvæ were dull light yellow-green, with head somewhat mottled with brown; second thoracic segment with two prominent brown lateral warts but no conspicuous dorsal adornment; first, second, third, fifth, and sixth abdominal segments with inconspicuous lateral warts; third and sixth abdominal segments each bearing in addition to the lateral warts two prominent subdorsal warts, those on segment 3 somewhat fused with each other, and with the lateral warts of this segment; other segments without special prominences.

The larvæ pupated in late June and early July, forming pale brown pupæ, with wing cases streaked, and abdomen heavily speckled with dark brown. All of the pupæ produced moths the same season, mostly between July 9 and 25, but with a few stragglers in August, September, and October.

Besma endropiaria G. & R.—A female of this species was taken at Sardinia, N. Y., on June 27, 1943, but only fifteen eggs were obtained. These were similar in size, shape, and surface texture to those of *quercivoraria,* but lacked the green tinge, and showed no color change except the normal darkening just before hatching. They hatched on July 9, the same day that produced the first adult of *quercivoraria* as noted above.

The young larvæ were similar in appearance to those of *quercivoraria,* but the only food they would accept was maple. They refused beech, but were not offered oak since it was not readily available. This preference for maple was not unexpected, for several years ago a single larva which I found upon maple produced a male of this species, which I still have in my collection.

The mature larvæ were either green or brown, with head more uniform brown and less mottled than in *quercivoraria;* second thoracic segment with lateral and subdorsal warts so fused as to form a conspicuous ridge extending completely from one lateral wart to the other; first and second abdominal segments with warts similar to those of *quercivoraria,* and in addition a ventral prominence on the second segment; third abdominal segment with warts similarly placed to those of *quercivoraria,* and similarly fused, but larger; fifth abdominal segment with two well-developed subdorsal warts, somewhat fused with each other, but not with the lateral ones; sixth abdominal segment with warts similar to those of the fifth segment.

Of the thirteen larvæ reared, seven were green with brown warts, similar in color to *quercivoraria* larvæ, while the rest were dull brown with darker brown warts. It is reasonable to suppose that a brown form of the larva of *quercivoraria* may occur.

The larvæ pupated in late August, producing pupæ much darker than those of *quercivoraria.* This color difference may not be constant in large series, however, for it has been noted that among certain other *Geometridæ* the pupæ as well as the larvæ exhibit two or more color phases. These pupæ produced no moths until the following season. The failure of *endropiaria* to produce two generations a season is in accordance with the results of field collecting at Ithaca, Horseheads, and Sardinia, N. Y. (Franclemont and Rupert), and at Chicago, Ill. (Wyatt). At Ithaca, Horseheads, and Chicago both species occur, with *endropiaria* flying between the two broods of *quercivoraria.* At Sardinia *endropiaria* flies in June and *quercivoraria* has never been taken.

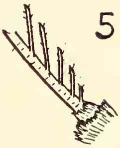
In addition to the differences noted above between these two species, there appears to be a constant difference in the male antennæ. This was first called to my attention by Dr. Forbes, and I have since confirmed his observation by examining all the males of both species in my collection. In *quercivoraria* the length of the pectinations shows a very gradual increase from each segment to the next from the base of the antenna, while in *endropiaria* this increase is more abrupt. Likewise the decrease in length of pectinations near the tip is correspondingly gradual in *quercivoraria* and abrupt in *endropiaria*. In general the pectinations are slightly shorter even at the middle of the antennæ in *quercivoraria*.

Considering altogether the differences found between these two species in egg, larval structure and food, period of flight and number of generations a year, and structure of male antennæ, along with the well-known differences in the appearance of the adults, it seems quite reasonable to consider them distinct species, even though the genitalia show no obvious differences. It is true, as Mr. Capps points out (Proc. U. S. N. M., Vol. 93, p. 142), that apparent intergrades occur. However, if only one species is involved, it would seem that such intergrades should be more commonly found than they are in localities where the typical forms are both abundant. Intermediate specimens have never been taken at Horseheads, nor, so far as I can discover, at Ithaca, where intensive collecting over a period of many years has produced large series of both regular forms.

PLATE XI

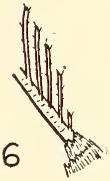
Figure 1. *Besma quercivoraria* Gn. Larva.
Figure 2. *Besma endropiaria* G. & R. Larva.
Figure 3. *Lambdina canitiaria* new species. Furca of male genitalia.
Figure 4. *Lambdina athasaria* Wlk. Furca of male genitalia.
Figure 5. *Besma quercivoraria*. Base of male antenna, showing only the first five pectinations, and only those on one side.
Figure 6. *Besma endropiaria*. Similar view of part of male antenna.

1-QUERCIVORARIA

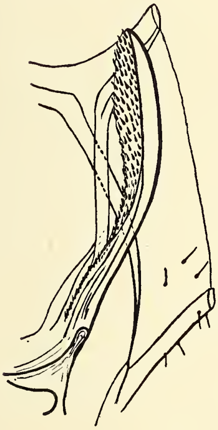


5

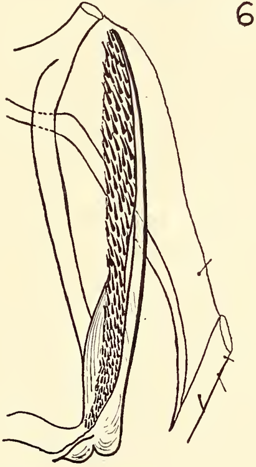
2-ENDROPIARIA



6



3-CANITIARIA



4-ATHASARIA

PSYLLIIDÆ FROM TROPICAL AND SEMITROPICAL AMERICA (HOMOPTERA)*

By John S. Caldwell
Circleville, Ohio

Much of this material consists of species set aside and studied over a period of time because many are not generically distinct, that is they possess characters common to more than one genus according to the present interpretations. Rather than attempt to revise several genera which would be no more than my personal interpretation and quite artificial, I believe the true nature of the generic situation may be represented by a series of frequency curves with the generic types and closely related species near the crown, and the less related species farther down the curves. This way it seems possible that two species belonging in separate genera may be very closely related, which is the true situation at present between *Rhinopsylla* and *Kuwayama.*

The writer takes this opportunity to express his appreciation to Miss Louise M. Russell of the U. S. Department of Agriculture for comparing much of this material with specimens in the D. L. Crawford collection. Dr. Leonard Tuthill has kindly examined some of this material and expressed his opinion concerning its validity. Unless stated to the contrary all types are in the writer's collection.

Calophya arcuata new species, (Fig. 5)

Length 2 mm., forewing 1.7 mm. Deep orange over all with black eyes and genæ and yellow legs.

Head broad. Vertex smooth, impressed discally making posterior ocelli greatly elevated; cephalic half rounded downward and forward. Genæ widely separated, acute, one-third as long as vertex. Thorax scarcely arched; pronotum as long as vertex, deflexed, appearing tricarinate. Membrane of forewing minutely rugose; pterostigma long, open at base; Rs long; M highly arched around large cubital cell.

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* Zoologically speaking, *Chermes alni* L., 1758, is the same insect now known as *Prociphilus tessellatus* (Fitch) [Data from Pehr Kalm, 1756]; hence Kirkaldy's *Psyllia*, type *pyri* L., is the type genus of the family Psylliidæ.

Female genital segment as long as rest of abdomen; dorsal valve bulbose in basal half, apical half deflexed, extreme apex acute; ventral valve subequal in length to dorsal.

Holotype: female from Bonefish Key, Florida, 2–24–40 (Caldwell).

Kuwayama striata new species, (Fig. 6)

Length 2.5 mm., forewing 2.1 mm. Greyish-yellow species with four prominent red stripes on mesoscutum.

Vertex rather small, flat, somewhat rounded in front. Genæ subspherical. Prescutum as long as broad, longer than scutum, rounded cephalad. Forewings three times as long as broad, Rs reaching as far as furcation of M.

Female genital segment three-fourths as long as rest of abdomen; dorsal valve straight dorsad, suddenly blunted apically; ventral valve somewhat stylate in apical fourth.

Holotype: female from Saltillo, Coahuila, 9–23–41 (DeLong, Good, & Caldwell).

Kuwayama hyalina new species, (Fig. 2)

Length 2.9 mm., forewing 2.3 mm. Yellow over all with black eyes. Wings very milky white, hyaline.

Vertex scarcely deflexed, short, emarginate caudad; foveæ shallow. Genæ roundly swollen. Clypeus visible from front but not prominent. Pronotum nearly vertical; prescutum flat dorsad, acute cephalad. Forewings two and a half times as long as broad, not especially acute apically; Rs reaching to furcation of M.

Female genital segment abruptly styliform in apical half; anal opening located well caudad on dorsal valve.

Female holotype and paratype from Tasquillo, Hidalgo, 10–24–41, Km. 172 (DeLong & Good).

Kuwayama mexicana new species, (Fig. 1)

Length 4 mm., forewing 3 mm. Vertex cream excepting elongate foveæ. Pronotum cream; thoracic dorsum red with light cream median stripe. Antennæ, legs and abdomen black.

Robust species. Vertex relative horizontal, flat. Eyes prominent. Genæ produced into minute cones, blunt. Antennæ twice as long as width of head. Pronotum small, depressed to level of vertex; prescutum high, acute cephalad; scutum short. Forewings large, over twice as long as broad, not acute. Hind wings small, not reaching to furcation of M in forewings. Pubescence prominent on legs.

Forceps of male simple, slender, as long as proctiger.

Holotype: male from Mexico, D. F., west 18 Kms., 9–1–39 (DeLong).

Kuwayama lateralis new species, (Fig. 3)

Length 3.5 mm., forewing 2.7–3 mm. General color grey with faint red laterally on prescutum and scutum. Venter of head and thorax black to dusky. Abdomen black dorsad, dusky ventrad with light lateral stripe on either side for full length.

Vertex deflexed, foveæ deep, ocelli raised. Antennæ twice as long as width of head. Genæ swollen. Thorax rather flat, not robust. Forewings almost three times as long as broad.

Proctiger of male longer than forceps. Forceps produced on cephalic margins at midlength. Female genital segment almost as long as rest of abdomen; dorsal valve straight, somewhat styliform apically; ventral valve abruptly styliform in apical third.

Male holotype, female allotype, and paratypes from Mexico, D. F., west Km. 20, 11–24–38 (Caldwell).

Trioza rhinosa new species, (Fig. 4)

Length 4.5 mm., forewing 3.5 mm. Shining black over all with white genæ. Head broad; eyes prominent; postocular areas large. Vertex sloped inward toward median line, rolled roundedly forward; medial ocellus prominent. Genal cones acute, divergent, one-fourth as long as vertex. Pronotum vertical; rest of thorax scarcely arched. Femora prominent, metatibiæ with apical spur ratio of 3–1. Forewings twice as long as broad, rounded; cubital cell smaller than medial; Rs scarcely separated from and paralleling M in basal fourth.

Forceps of male slender, incurved in caudal aspect. Proctiger long, broad in lateral aspect.

Holotype: male from Tehuacan, Puebla, 10–17–41 (DeLong, Good, Caldwell, & Plummer).

The peculiar formation of the head and forewings places this species close to the *Rhinopsylla.* In general appearance it is close to *T. diospyri* Ashm.

Metatrioza neotriozella new species

Length 2.5–2.7 mm., forewing 2–2.2 mm. Head and genal cones black. Mesonotum with red center and two black stripes on either lateral margin. Costal margin of forewing black basally.

Head as broad as thorax. Vertex strongly concave between eyes, median suture prominent. Genal cones slender, as long as vertex, closely appressed. Antennæ scarcely as long as width of head. Thorax scarcely arched. Forewings almost three times as long as broad. Hind tibiæ with three closely appressed spurs at apex.

Forceps of male of even width throughout, truncate apically, evenly arcuate in caudal aspect.

Dorsal valve of female genital segment styliform in apical half, inflated in basal half; ventral valve somewhat styliform.

Male holotype, female allotype, and paratypes from Tucson, Arizona, 8–16–40, (D. J. & J. N. Knull) are in the Ohio State University collection at Columbus, Ohio.

Except for the unique form of the vertex this species would belong in *Neotriozella* Crawford.

Optomopsylla new genus

Head including eyes much broader than pro and mesonotum, as broad as metathorax. Vertex smooth except for median groove, vertical, rounded gently caudad. Posterior ocelli projecting laterad, almost touching the compound eyes. Pronotum much sunken below level of mesonotum and vertex. Propleurites much compressed, somewhat transversely concave. Forewings with Cu branched from main stem before R and M.

Related to *Ceropsylla* but differentiated by the structure and form of head and thorax.

Type: **Optomopsylla formiciformis** n. sp.

Optomopsylla formiciformis new species, (Figs. 7, 7–A & 7–B)

Length 3.5 mm., forewing 3.1 mm. Black with the exception of basal four-fifth of antennæ, lateral and ventral portion of pro and mesothoracic femora, all of metathoracic legs, venter of abdomen and genital segment, most of mesothorax, scutum of mesothorax and dorsum of metathorax whitish. Forewings clear with R+M+Cu and R heavily darkened.

Genal cones heavy, blunt, divergent, almost as long as vertex. Head vertical. Thorax scarcely arched, flat in profile; pronotum greatly depressed. Metatibiæ with apical spur ratio of 3–1. Forewings three times as long as broad, acute; cubital cell long, flat.

Female holotype from Zamora, Michoacan, 10–2–41 (DeLong, Good, Caldwell, & Plummer), on willow.

The form combined with the deceptive markings gives this psyllid the appearance of a black ant in dorsal or lateral aspect. The genæ appear as mandibles, the fore part of the thorax is much narrowed and the color on the last thoracic segment and base of the abdomen form the optical illusion of a narrow waist. The metathoracic legs are white and scarcely visible but the heavily embrowned vein in the forewings completes the illusion of a walking leg. This specimen was swept from willow along with a net full of ants about the same size. Whether accidental or not, to me this is a remarkable example of mimicry.

Euphalerus dubius new species, (Fig. 9)

Length 4 mm., forewing 3 mm. General color green variegated with gray. Head as broad as thorax, almost perpendicular. Vertex twice as broad as long, flat, median suture very smooth. Genal cones scarcely differentiated from vertex, short, blunt, contiguous on basal third. Antennæ one and a half times as long as width of head. Thorax strongly arched, very smooth, sutures very fine between thoracic segments and between head and pronotum. Pleurites of prothorax subequal. Forewings long, somewhat rhomoboidal; pterostigma long and broad.

Female genital segment as long as rest of abdomen.

Female holotype from Davis Mts., Texas, 7–2–40 (D. J. & J. N. Knull). Type in Ohio State University collection at Columbus, Ohio.

Psyllia martorelli new species, (Figs. 8 & 8–A)

Length 2.5–3.5 mm., forewing 2–2.5 mm. Specimens in preservative color unknown. Mesoscutum with broad light stripes.

Head broader than thorax; eyes somewhat stalked; posterior ocelli greatly elevated. Vertex scarcely deflexed, rolled somewhat roundedly forward. Genæ scarcely swollen; frons much sunken but not covered by genæ. Antennæ almost as long as entire insect. Thorax scarcely arched. Forewings little over twice as long as broad; apical margins almost flat; pterostigma not apparent; costal margins pubescent.

Apices of male forceps slightly bifurcate. Female genital segment as long as rest of abdomen; both valves very slender, stylate in apical half.

Holotype male, allotype female, and paratypes from Villalba, Puerto Rico, May 1940, on "Inga Inga" (L. F. Martorell).

This species shows some relationship to the *Pauropsyllinæ.*

The writer dedicates this outstanding species to his friend Dr. Luis F. Martorell.

Psyllia berryi new species, (Figs. 11 & 11–A)

Length 5.4 mm., forewing 4.4 mm. Greenish-yellow over all.

Vertex very small, cephalic margin compressed between genæ. Genæ greatly developed, larger than vertex, inner margins contiguous, apices blunt. Antennal insertion in front of ventral margins of eyes. Eyes very small; postocular area large. Pronotum strongly descending, prominent; prescutum rounded, longer than scutum. Forewings almost three times as long as broad; pterostigma very narrow, elongate; cubital cell twice as large as medial.

Female genital segment short; dorsal valve rounded, somewhat bulbose apically; anal opening with serrate margins; ventral valve short, thick.

Female holotype from Santaram, Para, Brazil, October 1942 (L. A. Berry).

The gigantic development of the genæ sets this species apart from any psyllid known to me; however, the structure of the entire insect is true to the genus. Too many of the present genera of Psylliidæ have been established on gradational characters for me to add another when there are no fundamental differences on which to base a decision.

The writer takes great pleasure in naming this unique species in honor of his friend Lawrence A. Beery, Jr.

Psyllia cedusa new species, (Fig. 10)

Length 2.5 mm., forewing 2.1 mm. General color orange-yellow. Forewings with four black marginal spots.

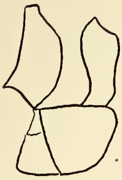
Vertex twice as broad as long; foveæ sharp, deep; posterior ocelli greatly elevated. Genal cones three-fourths as long as vertex, divergent. Whole head deflexed, as broad as thorax. Thorax not especially arched yet pronotum is nearly vertical. Hind tibiæ with small basal spur. Forewings little over twice as long as broad; cubital cell very highly arched; pterostigma, small, equilaterally triangular.

Female genital segment as long as rest of abdomen; dorsal valve straight, stylate in apical third with apex turned up; ventral valve narrowed in apical half, curved dorsad.

Female holotype from Jesus Carranza, Veracruz, 10–14–41 (DeLong, Good, Caldwell, & Plummer).

PLATE XII

Figure 1. *Kuwayama mexicana.* Lateral view of male genitalia.
Figure 2. *Kuwayama hyalina.* Lateral view of female genitalia.
Figure 3. *Kuwayama lateralis.* Lateral view of male genitalia.
Figure 4. *Trioza rhinosa.* Lateral view of male genitalia.
Figure 5. *Calophya arcuata.* Lateral view of female genitalia.
Figure 6. *Kuwayama striata.* Lateral view of female genitalia.
Figure 7. *Optomopsylla formiciformis.* Lateral view of female genitalia.
Figure 7–A. Profile of head and thorax.
Figure 7–B. Dorsal view of head and thorax.
Figure 8. *Psyllia martorelli.* Lateral view of female genitalia.
Figure 8–A. Caudal view of male forceps.
Figure 9. *Euphalerus dubius.* Profile of head and thorax.
Figure 10. *Psyllia cedusa.* Lateral view of female genitalia.
Figure 11. *Psyllia beeryi.* Lateral view of female genitalia.
Figure 11–A. Dorsal view of circum-anal ring.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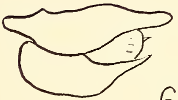
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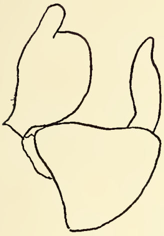
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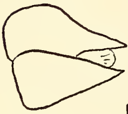
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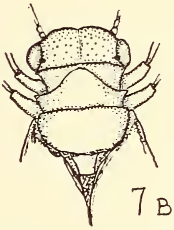
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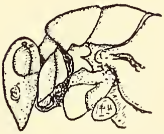
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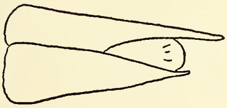
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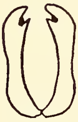
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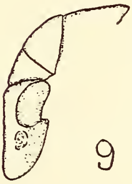
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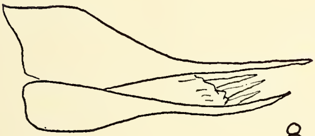
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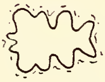
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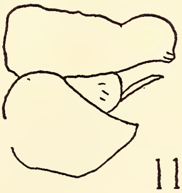
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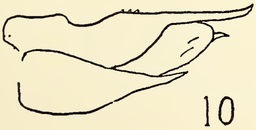
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NOTES ON MEXICAN BUTTERFLIES, IV

By F. Martin Brown

NYMPHALIDÆ—I

Heliconiinæ

230. **Heliconius ismenius telchinia** Doubleday.
G. & S. (1), **1**: 149, 667.
S. (2), p. 380, pl. 72b.
H. (3), p. 672.
Ojo de Agua, Vera Cruz, 1600 ft., 1 ♂ v.12.41 (R.P.).

237. **Heliconius petiverana** Doubleday & Hewitson.
G. & S., **1**: 153, 668.
S., p. 392, pl. 78b.
H., p. 673.
El Bañito Valles, San Luis Potosi, 200 ft., 3 ♂♂ vii.22.39; 1 ♂ 1 ♀ iv.28–29.40 (H.H.).
El Pujal, San Luis Potosi, 100 ft., 2 ♂♂ 2 ♀♀ vii.18–20.39 (H.H.).
Ojo de Agua, Vera Cruz, 1600 ft., 1 ♂ v.12.41 (R.P.).
Rio Blanco, Vera Cruz, 2200 ft., 1 ♂ 1 ♀ v.10.41 (R.P.).
El Sabino, Uruapan, Michoacan, 1 ♂ vii.15–30.36 (H.D.T.).

The broad red bar on the forewings of the Vera Cruz specimens is more rosy red than on the San Luis Potosi specimen. On the latter the bar is tomato red. Is this a real difference or one due to the age of the specimen? In each of the above series there are fresh and flown specimens; females seem to be smaller and more worn than the males.

238. **Heliconius charithonia** Linnæus.
G. & S., **1**: 151.
S., p. 394, pl. 79a.
H., p. 673.
Hda. Vista Hermosa, Villa Santiago, Nuevo Leon, 1600 ft., 3 ♂♂ 1 ♀ vi.16–20.40 (H.H.).

nr. Villagran, Tamaulipas, 1 ♂ 1 ♀ iv.28.41 (R.P.).
60 mi. So. of Victoria, Tamaulipas, 1 ♂ vii.6.36 (H.D.T.).
Jacala, Hidalgo, 4500 ft., 1 ♂ vi.29.39 (H.H.).
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 4 ♂♂ 6 ♀♀ v.28–29.41 (R.P.).
El Mante, San Luis Potosi, 1 ♂ iv.29.41 (R.P.).
El Bañito, Valles, San Luis Potosi, 200 ft., 1 ♂ 1 ♀ vii.22.39, 2 ♂♂ 2 ♀♀ vi.26–27.40 (H.H.); 1 ♀ iv.31.41 (R.P.).
El Pujal, San Luis Potosi, 100 ft., 3 ♂♂ 1 ♀ vii.17–31.39 (H.H.).
Tuxpango, Vera Cruz, 1500 ft., 1 ♀ v.9.41 (R.P.).
Fortin, Vera Cruz, 1600 ft., 4 ♂♂ v.3.41 (R.P.).
Ojo de Agua, Vera Cruz, 1600 ft., 1 ♂ 4 ♀♀ v.12.41 (R.P.).
Orizaba, Vera Cruz, 2000 ft., 1 ♂ 1 ♀ v.6.41 (R.P.).
Rio Blanco, Vera Cruz, 2200 ft., 1 ♂ v.10.41 (R.P.).
Acahuato, Michoacan, 3000 ft., 1 ♂ viii.2.40 (H.H.).

All of the females show a distinct rusty flush over the yellow bars, it is most intense toward the margins. Among these specimens the females seem to be more worn than the males.

243. **Eueides aliphera gracilis** Stichel.
G. & S., **1**: 163, 669 (as *aliphera*).
S., p. 399.
H., p. 673.
Tuxpango, Vera Cruz, 1500 ft., 1 ♀ v.9.41 (R.P.).
Ojo de Agua, Vera Cruz, 1600 ft., 1 ♀ v.12.41 (R.P.)

244. **Eueides cleobæa zorcaon** Reakirt.
G. & S., **1**: 165, 670.
S., p. 368.
H., p. 674.
Galeana, Nuevo Leon, 6500 ft., 2 ♂♂ 1 ♀ iv.29.41 (R.P.).
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 4 ♂♂ v.29.41 (R.P.).
El Bañito, Valles, San Luis Potosi, 200 ft., 2 ♂♂ 3 ♀♀ vii.22.39; 1 ♂ 1 ♀ vi.28.40 (H.H.).
El Pujal, San Luis Potosi, 100 ft., 1 ♂ 3 ♀♀ vii.12–21.39 (H.H.).

Fortin, Vera Cruz, 1500 ft., 1 ♂ v.3.41 (R.P.).
Rio Blanco, Vera Cruz, 2200 ft., 3 ♂♂ 3 ♀♀ v.10.41 (R.P.).

There is considerable variation in this species. The ground color varies from rich fulvous brown to faun. The apical light spots are either concolorous with the rest of the wing or lighter. Seitz (*l.c.*) states that in the females these spots are "rather pale yellow." They do tend to be lighter in the females but yellow apical spots are not restricted to females nor do all females have yellow spots.

There is a peculiar variation in the color of the antennæ. The females have antennæ that are almost wholly yellowish. The males have dark antennæ that are yellow tipped.

Dioninæ

246. **Dryas julia delila** Fabricius.
G. & S., **1**: 168, 670.
S., p. 400.
H., p. 674.
60 mi. So. of Victoria, Tamaulipas, 1 ♀ vii.6.36 (H.D.T.).
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 15 ♂♂ v.28–29.41 (R.P.).
Arroyo del Calabezas, San Luis Potosi, 250 ft., 1 ♂ iv.30.41 (R.P.).
El Bañito, Valles, San Luis Potosi, 200 ft., 3 ♂♂ 1 ♀ vii.22.39 (H.H.); 1 ♂ iv.30.41 (R.P.).
El Pujal, San Luis Potosi, 100 ft., 3 ♂♂ vii.17.39 (H.H.).
Fortin, Vera Cruz, 1600 ft., 1 ♂ v.3.41 (R.P.).
Ojo de Agua, Vera Cruz, 1600 ft., 1 ♀ v.12.41 (R.P.).
Rio Blanco, Vera Cruz, 2200 ft., 6 ♂♂ v.10.41 (R.P.).
El Sabino, Uruapan, Michoacan, 1 ♂ vii.15–30.36 (H.D.T.).

The black apical streak, characteristic of *julia* is present in a reduced fashion on males from El Sol, El Bañito, El Pujal and Rio Blanco, and on both females.

248. **Dione juno huscama** Reakirt.
G. & S., **1**: 170, 670 (as *juno*).
S., p. 401, pl. 84e.

H., p. 674.
Galeana, Nuevo Leon, 6500 ft., 2 ♂♂ iv.29.41 (R.P.).
Jacala, Hidalgo, 4500 ft., 1 ♀ vi.21.39 (H.H.).
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 6 ♂♂ 1 ♀ v.28–29.41 (R.P.).
El Sabino, Uruapan, Michoacan, 1 ♂ vii.15–30.36 (H.D.T.).
Tancitaro, Michoacan, 6000 ft., 1 ♂ 1 ♀ vii.20.40 (H.H.).

In general all of these are more boldly marked with black than Seitz' figured specimen but not quite so boldly as his figure of *juno juno.* The El Sol series is reasonably fresh; the others are worn.

249. **Dione vanillæ** Linnæus.
G. & S., **1**: 171, 671.
S., p. 401, pl. 84f.
H., p. 674 (as *v. insularis* May).
Jacala, Hidalgo, 4500 ft., 4 ♂♂ 3 ♀♀ vi.15–vii.3.39 (H.H.)
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 1 ♂ v.29.41 (R.P.).
El Bañito, Valles, San Luis Potosi, 200 ft., 2 ♂♂ vii.22.39 (H.H.).
Tuxpango, Vera Cruz, 1500 ft., 1 ♂ v.8.41 (R.P.).
Rio Balsas, Guerrero, 2400 ft., 1 ♂ v.26.41 (R.P.).
Apatzingan, Michoacan, 1050 ft., 1 ♀ viii.5.40 (H.H.).
El Sabino, Uruapan, Michoacan, 1 ♀ vii.15–30.36 (H.D.T.).

None of these specimens is *insularis;* all have fully developed markings along the margins of the hindwings. The males of the Jacala series lack the small black dot between M_3 and Cu_1 close to the cell on the hindwings. This dot is present on all of the other males and on all of the females.

NYMPHALINÆ

Tribe **Argynnidi**

251. **Euptoieta claudia** Cramer.
G. & S., **1**: 174, 671.

S., p. 403, pl. 85a.
H., p. 674.
Ojo de Agua, Sabinas Hidalgo, Nuevo Leon, 1000 ft., 1 ♀ vi.14.40 (H.H.).
Hda. Vista Hermosa, Villa Santiago, Nuevo Leon, 1600 ft., 2 ♂♂ 1 ♀ vi.16–18.40 (H.H.).
60 mi. So. of Victoria, Tamaulipas, 1 ♂ vii.6.36 (H.D.T.).
Galeana, Nuevo Leon, 6500 ft., 1 ♂ viii.3.39 (H.H.).
Jacala, Hidalgo, 4500 ft., 2 ♂♂ vi.25.39 (H.H.).
El Bañito, Valles, San Luis Potosi, 200 ft., 2 ♂♂ 1 ♀ vi.27–28.40 (H.H.).
Tuxpango, Vera Cruz, 1500 ft., 1 ♀ v.9.41 (R.P.).
Chichen Itza, Yucatan, 1 ♀ viii.30.36 (H.D.T.).
Rio Balsas, Guerrero, 2400 ft., 1 ♀ v.26.41 (R.P.).
El Sabino, Uruapan, Michoacan, 1 ♀ vii.15–30.36 (H.D.T.).
Tancitaro, Michoacan, 6600 ft., 1 ♀ viii.14.40 (H.H.).

This is probably one of the most adaptable of American butterflies. I have found it breeding from sea-level in the tropics to 11,800 ft., in the lower margin of the alpine-arctic zone in Colorado. In that state it is not uncommon far above tree line, at 13,000 ft. or more. I feel that this species is a true archaic ancestor of the genus *Argynnis*. I know of no structural differences between *Euptoieta* and *Argynnis* that are of generic value.

The species *claudia* is also found in the South Temperate Zone. I can find no reliable character to separate material from the Argentine (*hortensia* Blanchard) from the material before me. In this respect the two forms are analogous to *Phœbis eubule* and *amphitrite*.

252. **Euptoieta hegesia** Cramer.
G. & S., **1**: 175, 671.
S., p. 404, pl. 85a.
H., p. 674.
Sabinas Hidalgo, Nuevo Leon., 900 ft., 1 ♂ vi.15.39 (H.H.).
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 1 ♂ iv.31.41; 2 ♂♂ 1 ♀ v.29.41 (R.P.).

El Bañito, Valles, San Luis Potosi, 200 ft., 1 ♀ vii.21.39; 3 ♂♂ 1 ♀ vi.28.40 (H.H.).
Fortin, Vera Cruz, 1600 ft., 1 ♀ v.4.41 (R.P.).
Orizaba, Vera Cruz, 2000 ft., 2 ♂♂ v.6.41 (R.P.).
Rio Blanco, Vera Cruz, 2200 ft., 1 ♂ 1 ♀ v.10.41 (R.P.).
Chichen Itza, Yucatan, 2 ♂♂ 1 ♀ viii.30.36 (H.D.T.).
Rio Blanco, Guerrero, 2400 ft., 1 ♀ v.26.41 (R.P.).
Sta. Lucrecia, 2 ♂♂ 1 ♀ iv.24.39 (H.D.T.).
Acahuato, Michoacan, 3000 ft., 1 ♂ viii.2.40 (H.H.).
El Sabino, Uruapan Michoacan, 1 ♂ 1 ♀ vii.15–30.36 (H.D.T.).

266. **Melitæa definita** Aaron (?).
G. & S., **2**: 676, pl. 108, ff. 11, 12 (as *schausi*).
S., p. 433 (p. 434, pl. 88h, as *schausi*).
H., p. 676.
Cuidad Victoria, Tamaulipas, 1 ♂ vi.19.39 (H.H.).
Jacala, Hidalgo, 4500 ft., 1 ♂ vi.24.39 (H.H.).

These two specimens come fairly close to Texan *definita* but are by no means typical. The upper side gives the impression that they are *Euphydryas* and the underside continues the impression. I suspect that this is a paleonearctic species and may be closely related to the archaic species from which our North American *Euphydryas* have sprung. The Jacala specimen extends the known range of the species.

270. **Melitæa theona** f. **theona** Ménètries.
G. & S., **1**: 192, **2**: 677 (as *Phyciodes*).
S., p. 438, pl. 89g (as *Phyciodes*).
Ha. (4), p. 26 (as *Phyciodes*).
H., p. 676.
Hda. Vista Hermosa, Villa Santiago, Nuevo Leon, 1500 ft., 2 ♂♂ vi.15–16.40 (H.H.).
Galeana, Nuevo Leon, 6500 ft., 1 ♂ iv.29.41 (R.P.).
Jacala, Hidalgo, 4500 ft., 2 ♂♂ 1 ♀ vi.19–vii.3.39 (H.H.).
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 4 ♂♂ 3 ♀♀ iv.31; v.29.41 (R.P.).
El Bañito, Valles, San Luis Potosi, 200 ft., 1 ♀ vii.22.39; 1 ♀ vi.26.40. (H.H.); 1 ♂ iv.30.41 (R.P.).

270a. **Melitæa theona f. thekla** Edwards.
G. & S., **2**: 677 (as *theona*).
S., p. 433, pl. 88f.
Ha., p. 26 (as *Phyciodes theona* in part).
H., p. 676.
Ojo de Agua, Sabinas Hidalgo, Nuevo Leon, 1500 ft., 1 ♂ vi.14.40 (H.H.).
Las Adjuntas, Nuevo Leon, 3000 ft., 1 ♂ vi.21.40 (H.H.).
Arroyo del Meco, Tamaulipas, 1520 ft., 1 ♀ iv.28.41 (R.P.).

——. **Melitæa** sp.

Two battered specimens of the *gabbi* group were taken by Potts, Cumbres, Vera Cruz, 8000 ft., v.17.41, and Rio Balsas, Guerrero, 2400 ft., v.26.41.

272. **Phyciodes elada elada** Hewitson.
G. & S., **1**: 196, **2**: 679, pl. 21, ff. 6, 7.
S., p. 437, pl. 89f.
Ha., p. 19.
H., p. 676 (as *Melitœa*).
Cumbres, Vera Cruz, 8000 ft. (nr. Km. 295) 1 ♂ v.7.41 (R.P.).
Apatzingan, Michoacan, 1050 ft., 2 ♂♂ viii.3–5.40 (H.H.).
Acahuato, Michoacan, 3000 ft., 2 ♂♂ viii.2.40 (H.H.).

The two Acahuato specimens are much larger than the two from Apatzingan. The baso-apical radii of the forewings are 15.0, 14.2 and 12.5, 12.0 mm. respectively. The Cumbres specimen may not be properly placed here, Hoffmann records the species only from the west coast.

272a. **Phyciodes elada callina** Boisduval.
Ha., p. 20.
Sabinas Hidalgo, Nuevo Leon, 960 ft., 1 ♂ vi.15.39 (H.H.).
Jacala, Hidalgo, 4500 ft., 10 ♂♂ 3 ♀♀ vi.23–vii.6.39 (H.H.).

This may be a mixed series but I cannot bring myself to splitting it between two names. Hoffmann does not include the race. I suspect that his *ulrica* is really *callina*.

274. **Phyciodes liriope guatemalena** Bates.

G. & S., **1**: 198, pl. 21, f. 23 (as *fragilis*).
R. (5), p. 435, pl. 89b (as *guatemala*).
Ha., p. 67.
H., p. 676.
So. of El Mante, San Luis Potosi, 1 ♂ iv.29.41 (R.P.).
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 2 ♂♂ 10.31.41 (R. P.).
Hda. Potrero Viejo, Paraje Nuevo, Vera Cruz, 1500 ft., 1 ♂ 1 ♀ v.5.41 (R.P.).
Ojo de Agua, Vera Cruz, 1600 ft., 2 ♂♂ v.12.41 (R.P.).

Of these specimens only the El Mante specimen is as heavily marked as the figures given by Roeber (*l.c.*). Is *Phycoides mylitta mexicana* Hall (p. 44) synonymous with *guatemalena?*

275. **Phyciodes phaon phaon** Edwards.

G. & S., **2**: 677.
R., p. 436, pl. 89c.
Ha., p. 40.
H., p. 677.
Hda. Vista Hermosa, Villa Santiago, Nuevo Leon, 1500 ft., 2 ♀♀ vi.16–17.40 (H.H.).
Monterrey, Nuevo Leon, 1800 ft., 3 ♀♀ iv.27.41 (R.P.).
60 mi. So. of Victoria, Tamaulipas, 1 ♀ vii.6.36 (H.D.T.).
Jacala, Hidalgo, 4500 ft., 1 ♂ vii.2.39 (H.H.).

The Jacala specimen and two of the Monterrey specimens are typical *phaon,* the others are f. *æstiva* Edwards. The known range is extended by the Jacala specimen.

276. **Phyciodes picta pallescens** Felder.

G. & S., **1**: 195, **2**: 678, pl. 21, ff. 18, 19.
R., p. 437, pl. 89e.
Ha., p. 50.
H., p. 676.
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 1 ♀ v.28.41 (R.P.).
El Sabino, Uruapan, Michoacan, 1 ♀ vii.15–30.36 (H.D.T.).

The El Sol specimen establishes a new northern record for this form on the east coast of Mexico, extending the range given by

Hoffmann. Hoffmann lists *pallescens* (#276) as a distinct species, separate from *picta* (#281).

277. **Phyciodes tharos** Drury.
G. & S., **1**: 193, **2**: 436.
R., p. 436, pl. 89f.
Ha., p. 35.
H., p. 676.
Hda. Vista Hermosa, Villa Santiago, Nuevo Leon, 1500 ft., 1 ♂ 2 ♀♀ vi.17–18.40. (H.H.).
Galeana, Nuevo Leon, 6500 ft., 1 ♂ viii.2.39 (H.H.).
El Sol Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 1 ♂ 1 ♀ v.28 & iv.31.41 (R.P.).
None of these is f. *marcia* Edwards.

280. **Phyciodes vesta vesta** Edwards.
G. & S., **1**: 195, **2**: 678.
R., p. 436, pl. 89c.
Ha., p. 50.
H., p. 677.
Sabinas Hidalgo, Nuevo Leon, 960 ft., 3 ♂♂ 1 ♀ vi.15.39 (H.H.).
Hda. Vista Hermosa, Villa Santiago, Nuevo Leon, 1500 ft., 1 ♂ vi.18.40 (H.H.).
Hda. Sta. Engracia, Nuevo Leon, 1 ♂ vii.25.39 (H.H.).
nr. Villagran, Tamaulipas, 2 ♀♀ iv.28.41 (R.P.).
60 mi. So. of Victoria, Tamaulipas, 1 ♀ vii.6.36 (H.D.T.).
El Mante, San Luis Potosi, 1 ♂ iv.29.41 (R.P.).
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 1 ♂ 1 ♀ v.28.41 (R.P.).
El Bañito, Valles, San Luis Potosi, 200 ft., 2 ♂♂ vii.22.39; 1 ♂ vi.27.40 (H.H.).
El Pujal, San Luis Potosi, 100 ft., 1 ♀ vii.21.39 (H.H.).

The San Luis Potosi specimens tend toward f. *boucardi* G. & S. The Nuevo Leon specimens are almost typical *vesta*.

282. **Phyciodes texana texana** Edwards.
G. & S., **1**: 200.
R., p. 442, pl. 90c.
Ha., p. 96.

H., p. 677 (as *Athanassa*).

Sabinas Hidalgo, Nuevo Leon, 690 ft., 1 ♂ vi.15.39 (H.H.).

Ojo de Agua, Sabinas Hidalgo, Nuevo Leon, 1000 ft., 1 ♂ vi.14.40 (H.H.).

Hda. Vista Hermosa, Villa Santiago, Nuevo Leon, 1500 ft., 5 ♂♂ 2 ♀♀ vi.16–18.40 (H.H.).

Monterrey, Nuevo Leon, 1600 ft., 2 ♀♀ iv.27.41 (R.P.).

Galeana, Nuevo Leon, 6500 ft., 1 ♀ vii.30.39 (H.H.); 1 ♂ iv.29.41 (R.P.).

nr. Villagran, Tamaulipas, 1160 ft., 1 ♂ 1 ♀ iv.28.41 (R.P.).

60 mi. So. of Victoria, Tamaulipas, 1 ♀ vii.6.36 (H.D.T.).

Jacala, Hidalgo, 4500 ft., 5 ♂♂ 1 ♀ vi.23–vii.2.39 (H.H.).

This is the only member of this particular section of the *Phyciodes* that is easily recognized. The broad orange-brown area at the base of the forewing beneath is the characteristic which at once identifies it.

285. **Phyciodes ptolyca** f. **ptolyca** Bates.

G. & S., **1**: 201 (in part), pl. 21, ff. 32, 33.

Ha., p. 91.

H., p. 677.

Galeana, Nuevo Leon, 6500 ft., 9 ♂♂ 1 ♀ iv.29.41 (R.P.).

El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 2 ♂♂ 3 ♀♀ v. 29.41 (R.P.).

El Bañito, Valles, San Luis Potosi, 200 ft., 1 ♂ vii.22.39; 1 ♂ vi.26.40 (H.H.).

Hda. Potrero Viejo, Paraje Nuevo, Vera Cruz, 1500 ft., 1 ♂ v.5.41 (R.P.).

Ojo de Agua, Vera Cruz, 1600 ft., 2 ♂♂ v.12.41 (R.P.).

285A. **Phyciodes ptolyca** f. **amator** Hall.

Ha., p. 92.

60 mi. So. of Victoria, Tamaulipas, 1 ♂ vii.6.36 (H.D.T.).

El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 1 ♀ iv.31.41; 1 ♂ v.28.41 (R.P.).

El Bañito, Valles, San Luis Potosi, 200 ft., 2 ♂♂ 2 ♀♀ vi.26–27.40 (H.H.).

Hda. Potrero Viejo, Paraje Nuevo, Vera Cruz, 1500 ft., 1 ♂ 1 ♀ v.5.41 (R.P.).
Fortin, Vera Cruz, 1600 ft., 1 ♀ v.6.41 (R.P.).
Orizaba, Vera Cruz, 2000 ft., 1 ♀ v.6.41 (R.P.).
El Capirie, Michoacan, 500 ft., 1 ♀ viii.3.40 (H.H.).
El Sabino, Uruapan, Michoacan, 1 ♂ vii.15–30.36 (H.D.T.).

Hall considers this the western race of *ptolyca.* I believe it is only a pale form. Roeber, in Seitz', confused this species, *ptolyca,* with a form of *drusilla, lelex.* In general *ptolyca* is smaller than either *ardys* or *drusilla alethes* with which it is easily confused. I know of no good character for separating this species, but in series there are several intangible differences.

285a. **Phyciodes cortez** Hall.?
Ha., p. 93.
Ojo de Agua, Vera Cruz, 1600 ft., 1 ♀ v.12.41 (R.P.).

I believe that I have correctly placed this species. The type hails from Cuautla (4000 ft.) in S. W. Mexico. It may be a white form of *tulcis.* This species is not included by Hoffmann in his list.

287. **Phyciodes ardys** Hewitson.
G. & S., **1**: 204, **2**: 681, pl. 22, ff. 4, 5.
R., p. 442, pl. 90d.
Ha., p. 90.
H., p. 677.
Hda. Vista Hermosa, Villa Santiago, Nuevo Leon, 1 ♂ 1 ♀ vi.18.40 (H.H.).
Tuxpango, Vera Cruz, 1500 ft., 2 ♂♂ v.9.41 (R.P.).
Fortin, Vera Cruz, 1600 ft., 1 ♂ 1 ♀ v.4.41 (R.P.).
Orizaba, Vera Cruz, 2000 ft., 3 ♂♂ 2 ♀♀ v.6.41 (R.P.). One pair *in copula.*
Cumbres, (Km. 295) Vera Cruz, 8000 ft., 1 ♀ v.7.41 (R.P.).
El Sabino, nr. Uruapan, Michoacan, 1 ♂ vii.15–30.36 (H.D.T.).

This species may be separated from the following by the band on the upperside of the hindwing which is broken into spots on *ardys.* The Michoacan record is an extension of the known range.

287A. **Phyciodes drusilla alethes** Bates.

G. & S., **1**: 201 (as *ptolyca* in part).
R., p. 443, 8c as *lelex* on pl. 90, f. d.
Ha., p. 88.
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 1 ♀ v.28.41 (R.P.).
El Sabino, Uruapan, Michoacan, 4 ♂♂ 2 ♀♀ vii.15–30.36 (H.D.T.).

This race of *drusilla* closely resembles *ptolyca*. It differs from that species in the following respects: the light markings on the upper side are duller; the submarginal markings on the upper side of the forewings are more frequently complete; the underside of the hindwing is less contrasty. Hall states (p. 92) that the most important character is "the enlargement of the submarginal spot at the anterior angle of hindwing above" on *ptolyca*. I find this to be true in about 80% of my specimens.

This species is not included by Hoffmann in his list. He may have confused it with *ptolyca*.

290. **Phyciodes atronia atronia** Bates.

G. & S., **1**: 202, 207, **2**: 681, pl. 22, ff. 19–23 (as *atronia, argentea, cassiopeia*).
R., p. 441, pl. 90a (as *obscurata* & *cassiopeia*) p. 443, pl. 88i (as *atronia* & *argentea*).
Ha., p. 108.
H., p. 677 (as *Athanassa*).
Ojo de Agua, Vera Cruz, 1600 ft., 3 ♂♂ v.12.41 (R.P.).

I have followed Hall (*l.c.*) in respect to this very variable species. My specimens are what Roeber (*l.c.*) called *cassiopeia*.

293. **Phyciodes myia myia** Hewitson.

G. & S., **1**: 188, **2**: 674.
R., p. 444, pl. 90e.
Ha., p. 136.
H., p. 678 (as *Eresia*).
Tuxpango, Vera Cruz, 1500 ft., 2 ♂♂ v.9.41 (R.P.).
Fortin, Vera Cruz, 1600 ft., 2 ♂♂ 1 ♀ v.4.41 (R.P.).
Ojo de Agua, Vera Cruz, 1600 ft., 7 ♂♂ 5 ♀♀ v.12.41 (R.P.).

El Sabino, Uruapan, Michoacan, 1 ♀ vii.15–30.36 (H.D.T.).

These are all typical *myia*. Hall records a single specimen of the slightly different race *griseobasalis* Bates from Western Mexico, Sierra Madre de Tepec. My single female from Michoacan does not show any indication of being that race.

297. **Phyciodes eranites** Hewitson.
G. & S., **1**: 185, **2**: 673.
R., p. 446, pl. 92c & d (as *evanites*).
Ha., p. 164.
H., p. 678.
Fortin, Vera Cruz, 1600 ft., 1 ♂ v.4.41 (R.P.).
Ojo de Agua, Vera Cruz, 1600 ft., 1 ♀ v.12.41 (R.P.).

298. **Phyciodes phillyra** Hewitson.
G. & S., **1**: 184, **2**: 674.
R., p. 448, pl. 92c.
Ha., p. 167.
H., p. 678.
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 1 ♀ iv.31.41 (R.P.).
Tuxpango, Vera Cruz, 1500 ft., 1 ♂ 2 ♀♀ v.9.41 (R.P.).
Ojo de Agua, Vera Cruz, 1600 ft., 1 ♂ v.24.41 (R.P.).
Orizaba, Vera Cruz, 2000 ft., 2 ♂♂ v.6.41 (R.P.).

The Tuxpango females are much larger and the coloring less intense than on the El Sol female. Not previously reported from San Luis Potosi.

299. **Chlosyne janais** Drury.
G. & S., **1**: 178, **2**: 671.
R., p. 451, pl. 91f.
H., p. 678.
Ojo de Agua, Sabinas Hidalgo, Nuevo Leon, 1000 ft., 1 ♂ vi.15.40 (H.H.).
Sabinas Hidalgo, Nuevo Leon, 960 ft., 1 ♀ vi.15.40 (H.H.).
Hda. Vista Hermosa, Nuevo Leon, 1500 ft., 1 ♀ vi.17.40 (H.H.).

Galeana, Nuevo Leon, 6500 ft., 6 ♂♂ iv.29.41 (R.P.).
Nr. Villagran, Tamaulipas, 1160 ft., 1 ♀ iv.28.41 (R.P.).
Arroyo del Meco, Tamaulipas, 1320 ft., 3 ♂♂ iv.28.41 (R.P.).
Jacala, Hidalgo, 4500 ft., 1 ♂ 1 ♀ vi.24.39 (H.H.).
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 1 ♂ v.28.41 (R.P.).
Ojo de Agua, Vera Cruz, 1600 ft., 2 ♂♂ 4 ♀♀ v.12.41 (R.P.).

300. **Chlosyne lacinia** Geyer.

The multitude of forms of this species are so hopelessly confused and the names proposed for them so numerous that I am unwilling to put names to any without much more material and study. Therefore I shall merely list the specimens under brief descriptions.

a) rufous markings on the upper side of both wings, those of the forewing forming a more or less continuous band as in G. & S. pl. 19, **f.** 8 & 10: the underside of the hindwings as in **f.** 7: underside of forewings as in **f.** 13 with added basal spots. This form I believe is best called *adjutrix* Scudder.

Sabinas Hidalgo, Nuevo Leon, 960 ft., 1 ♀ vi.15.39 (H.H.).
Monterrey, Nuevo Leon, 1800 ft., 3 ♂♂ 1 ♀ iv.27.41 (R.P.).
Jacala, Hidalgo, 4500 ft., 1 ♂ vii.2.39 (H.H.).
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 2 ♂♂ iv.31 & 3 ♀♀ v.28.41 (R.P.).
El Bañito, Valles, San Luis Potosi, 200 ft., 2 ♂♂ vi.26–27.41 (H.H.).
El Sabino, Uruapan, Michoacan, 1 ♂ vii.15–30.36 (H.D.T.).

The Michoacan specimen is atypical to this extent: the basal spots are absent and the transverse bands are chestnut, narrow and ill-defined on the upper surface.

b) similar to *a*) but lacking the yellow marginal lunules on the underside of the hindwings.

Jacala, Hidalgo, 4500 ft., 1 ♀ vii.2.39 (H.H.).

El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 1 ♀ iv.31.41 (R.P.).

c) similar to *a*) on the upper side but lacking the brown markings on the forewing. Underside of hindwing with orange brown spots outside of yellowish buff transverse band—see Seitz' pl. 91d—*mediatrix.*

El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 1 ♂ v.28.41 (R.P.).
Fortin, Vera Cruz, 1600 ft., 2 ♂♂ v.4.41 (R.P.).
Orizaba, Vera Cruz, 2000 ft., 1 ♂ v.6.41 (R.P.).
Rio Blanco, Vera Cruz, 2200 ft., 1 ♂ v.10.41 (R.P.).

d) similar to *c*) but lacking the series of orange brown spots on the underside of the hindwings.

El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 4 ♂♂ 2 ♀♀ v.28–29.41 (R.P.).
Tuxpango, Vera Cruz, 1500 ft., 1 ♂ v.9.41 (R.P.).
Fortin, Vera Cruz, 1600 ft., 1 ♂ v.4.41 (R.P.).
Orizaba, Vera Cruz, 1600 ft., 1 ♂ v.6.41 (R.P.).

e) similar to *c*) but brown area on hindwing above diffuse and reduced.

El Sabino, Uruapan, Michoacan, 1 ♀ vii.15–30.36 (H.D.T.).

f) similar to *d*) and varying from that as *e*) does from *c*).

El Sabino, Uruapan, Michoacan, 1 ♀ vii.15–30.36 (H.D.T.).

g) similar to *c*) on the upper side but brown band reduced to a series of small spots; beneath lacking the yellow transverse band on the hindwing.

El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 2 ♀♀ v.28.41 (R.P.).
Fortin, Vera Cruz, 1600 ft., 1 ♀ v.4.41 (R.P.).

h) upper surface lacks all trace of brown: underside with yellow submarginal lunules, transverse band and basal spots on the hindwing (*quehtala* Reakirt?).

Iguala, Guerrero, 1 ♂ v.27.41 (R.P.).
El Sabino, Uruapan, Michoacan, 1 ♂ 1 ♀ vii.15–30.36 (H.D.T.).

i) similar to *h*) but lacking the yellow on the underside of the hindwings (*adelina* Stdgr.?).

Rio Balsas, Guerrero, 2400 ft., 2 ♂♂ v.26.41 (R.P.).
Apatzingan, Michoacan, 1050 ft., 1 ♂ 1 ♀ *in copula* viii.2.40 (H.H.).
El Capirie, Michoacan, 500 ft., 1 ♂ viii.3.40 (H.H.).

j) white spotted forewing, hindwing with a light area extended at least half way from the base to the outer margin which it parallels. The area is not solidly colored but varies from buff to orange brown. Under side like the upper side (*lacinia* Hübner?).

Galeana, Nuevo Leon, 6500 ft., 1 ♂ iv.29.41 (R.P.).
60 mi. So. of Victoria, Tamaulipas, 1 ♂ 1 ♀ vii.6.36 (H.D.T.).
El Bañito, Valles, San Luis Potosi, 200 ft., 2 ♂♂ 1 ♀ vi.26–28.40 (H.H.).

303. **Chlosyne hippodrome** Geyer.

(figured as *hyperia* by Seitz' pl. 91f.).
H., p. 679.
Ojo de Agua, Vera Cruz, 1600 ft., 6 ♂♂ 5 ♀♀ v.12.41 (R.P.).
Chichen Itza, Yucatan, 2 ♂♂ viii.30.36 (H.D.T.).
Acahuato, Michoacan, 1 ♂ viii.2.40 (H.H.).
El Sabino, Uruapan, Michoacan, 1 ♀ vii.15–30.36 (H.D.T.).

There is no difference between east and west coast specimens. Hoffmann does not record this species from Michoacan.

305. **Chlosyne erodyle** Bates.

G. & S., **1**: 180, **2**: 672, pl. 20, ff. 3, 4.
R., p. 452, pl. 91h.
H., p. 679.
Rio Blanco, Vera Cruz, 2200 ft., 1 ♂ v.10.41 (R.P.).

307. **Chlosyne dryope** Godman & Salvin.
G. & S., **2**: 672, pl. 108, ff. 3, 4.
H., p. 679.
Iguala, Guerrero, 1 ♂ v.22.41 (R.P.).
Rio Balsas, Guerrero, 2400 ft., 1 ♀ v.26.41 (R.P.).

Hoffmann records this species only from Jalisco.

311. **Chlosyne endeis** Godman & Salvin.
G. & S., **2**: 673, pl. 108, ff. 5, 6.
H., p. 679.
Jacala, Hidalgo, 4500 ft., 3 ♂♂ 1 ♀ vi.23–vii.6.39 (H.H.).

The transverse discal band on a fresh specimen is fulvous. On the other three which are flown it appears white. This seems to be due to a great extent to the loss of the fulvous scales which seem to be very loosely attached.

This is the first record of this species on the eastern slope of Mexico.

314. **Microtia elva** Bates.
G. & S., **1**: 120, **2**: 682, pl. 20, f. 23.
R., p. 453, pl. 88h.
H., p. 669–70.
Sabinas Hidalgo, Nuevo Leon, 960 ft., 1 ♂ vi.18.39 (H.H.).
Hda. Vista Hermosa, Villa Santiago, Nuevo Leon, 1500 ft., 2 ♂♂ vi.17–20.40 (H.H.).
nr. Villagran, Tamaulipas, 1160 ft., 1 ♂ 1 ♀ iv.28.41 (R.P.).
Arroyo del Meco, Tamaulipas, 1320 ft., 3 ♂♂ iv.28.41 (R.P.).
Jacala, Hidalgo, 4500 ft., 6 ♂♂ 5 ♀♀ vi.23–29.39 (H.H.).
So. of El Mante, San Luis Potosi, 1 ♀ iv.29.41 (R.P.).
El Bañito, Valles, San Luis Potosi, 200 ft., 1 ♀ vii.22.39; 2 ♂♂ 1 ♀ vi.26–27.40 (H.H.); 2 ♂♂ 1 ♀ iv.30.41 (R.P.).
Acapulco, Guerrero, 100 ft., 1 ♀ v.26.41 (R.P.).
Iguala, Guerrero, 1 ♂ 1 ♀ v.22.41 (R.P.).
Acahuato, Michoacan, 3000 ft., 1 ♀ viii.2.40 (H.H.).

Apatzingan, Michoacan, 1050 ft., 1 ♀ viii.2.40 (H.H.).
El Capirie, Michoacan, 500 ft., 1 ♂ viii.3.40 (H.H.).

One of the males from El Bañito, iv.30.41, and the Sabinas Hidalgo male may be termed f. *horni* Rebel. As a matter of fact these two specimens are closer to f. *draudti* Röber which I consider to be merely an intermediate form lying between *elva* and f. *horni.*

The west coast females tend to be generally larger than those from the east coast, 18 mm. vs. 16 mm. baso-apical radius of the forewing. The males are about the same size from both coasts.

315. **Morpheis ehrenbergii** Huebner.
G. & S., **1**: 211, **2**: 682.
R., p. 454, pl. 93a.
H., p. 670.
Jacala, Hidalgo, 4500 ft., 3 ♂♂ 10 ♀♀ vi.23–vii.24.39 (H.H.).
Tancitaro, Michoacan, 6586 ft., 2 ♂♂ 1 ♀ vii.20–30.40 (H.H.).

Hoffmann carefully listed the States from which this local species has been reported. Neither of the two here noted occurs in his list.

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A REVISION OF THE NORTH AMERICAN GENUS EREMOMYIOIDES MALLOCH (DIPTERA, MUSCIDÆ)

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The native genus *Eremomyioides* was established by Malloch[1] for the reception of three species, *Pegomyia setosa* Stein, *Eremomyia cylindrica* Stein and a new form *Eremomyioides parkeri*. The second species, *cylindrica*, was chosen as the genotype. Later Malloch[2, 3] recorded two new species belonging to the genus, *E. fuscipes* and *E. similis*, and published a key to the known forms. There is now before me a sixth species which has not been recognized, and also the male of *parkeri*.

The distinguishing characters of *Eremomyioides* are well marked and distinctive. All the species possess setulæ on all pleural and sternal sclerites of thorax, including propleura, pteropleura, hypopleura, prosternum and metasternum. In addition, all species lack cruciate setæ on interfrontalia; they possess a bristle near middle of anteroventral surface of middle femora and middle tibiæ, and bear numerous stout short setulæ on vibrissal angle. In the male the structure of hypopygium and copulatory appendages is typical of all species, being more robust in *parkeri* and *setosa*. The prebasal sclerite of hypopygium (tegrum 6 of Crampton)[4] has numerous bristles. The females have two or more of the fore tarsal segments broadened. The genus in my opinion finds its closest relationships in the *major*-group of the genus *Pegomyia*,[5] and in *Eremomyia* as delimited by Ringdahl.[6]

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[1] Malloch, J. R. 1918. Notes and descriptions of some anthomyid genera. Proc. Biol. Soc. Wash., 31: 67–68.

[2] Malloch, J. R. 1920. Descriptions of new North American Anthomyiidæ (Diptera). Trans. Amer. Ent. Soc., 46: 182–183.

[3] Malloch, J. R. 1921. Synopses of some North American Anthomyiinæ (Diptera). Can. Ent., 53: 76–77.

[4] Crampton, G. C. 1941. The terminal abdominal structures of male *Diptera*. Psyche, 48: 94, fig. 20.

[5] Huckett, H. C. 1941. A revision of the North American species belong-

The adults of the species are commonly collected in the Spring in the neighborhood of woodland terrain. From available information it would seem that the species *cylindrica* is widely distributed across the continent from Alaska to Quebec. A single specimen of *similis* has been taken at Boulder, Colorado, and of *fuscipes* in the foothills of the Appalachian Mountains in Georgia.

Genus *Eremomyioides* Malloch

Eremomyioides Malloch, 1918, Proc. Biol. Soc. Wash., 31: 67. Curran, 1934, Fam. Gen. N. A. Dipt., p. 391. Séguy, 1937, Gen. Insect., Fasc. 205, p. 122.

Eremomyoides Malloch, 1921, Can. Ent., 53: 76. Huckett, 1924, N. Y. (Cornell) Agr. Exp. Sta., Mem. 77 (1923), p. 12.

Genotype: *Eremomyia cylindrica* Stein.

KEYS TO SPECIES

Males

1. Eyes separated at narrowest by a distance greater than twice that between posterior ocelli inclusive; parafrontals bristled to vertex, vertical and paraorbital bristles robust; hypopygium prominently protruded caudad, anal sclerite (tergum 9) longer than length of process on fifth abdominal sternum 2

Eyes separated at narrowest by a distance not greater than twice that between posterior ocelli inclusive; parafrontals bare caudad, verticals slender, paraorbital bristles lacking; hypopygium inconspicuous, not protruding caudad, anal sclerite not longer than process of fifth abdominal sternum 3

2. Hind femur with long, stiff bristles on proximal region of antero- and posteroventral surfaces which are directed apicad, stouter than those on distal half of anteroventral surface .... *parkeri* Mall.

Hind femur with bristles on proximal region of antero- and posteroventral surfaces directed ventrad and not stouter than those on distal half of anteroventral surface .... *setosa* (Stein)

3. Eyes separated by a distance not greater than that between posterior ocelli inclusive; bristles of middle pair of presutural acrosticals separated by a distance greater than that between eyes; hind tibia largely reddish yellow, apical anterior bristle weak .... *cylindrica* (Stein)

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ing to the genus Pegomyia. (Diptera: Muscidæ) Mem. Amer. Ent. Soc., No. 10, p. 14.

[6] Ringdahl, O. 1933. Översikt av i Sverige funna Hylemyia-arter. Ent. Tidskr., Årg. 54, häft 1, p. 30.

Eyes separated by a distance greater than that between posterior ocelli inclusive; bristles of middle pair of presutural acrosticals separated by a distance less than that between eyes 4

4. Hind tibia with 3 or 4 anterodorsal and 3 or 4 posterodorsal bristles. *conscripta* n. sp.

Hind tibia with fewer bristles on one or other of dorsal surfaces, usually with 2 anterodorsal and 2 posterodorsal bristles 5

5. Costal setulæ scarcely as long as width of costa, serially conforming to costal hairs; thorax with 3 pairs of presutural acrostical bristles; inner margin of second antennal segment extending obliquely across base of third segment and angularly projected on the lower half ...*fuscipes* Mall.

Costal setulæ proximad of costal thorn slightly longer than width of costa, more widely spaced apart than costal hairs; thorax with two pairs of presutural acrosticals; inner margin of second antennal segment extending transversely at right angles across base of third segment, and not forming an angular prominence on lower half .... *similis* Mall.

Females

1. Fifth abdominal tergum obtusely rounded and swollen at apex, curved ventrad, armed with a loose tuftlike series of bristles; opening to ovipositor situated on ventral surface of abdomen and basad of apex. *parkeri* Mall.

Fifth abdominal tergum not rounded nor swollen on caudal region, armed with a transverse series of marginal bristles; opening to ovipositor situated at apex of abdomen 2

2. Mid and hind femora reddish yellow .... *cylindrica* (Stein)

Mid and hind femora largely blackish 3

3. Hind tibia with 3 or 4 anterodorsal and 3 or 4 posterodorsal bristles; hind tibia largely reddish yellow 4

Hind tibia with fewer bristles on one or other of dorsal surfaces, usually with 2 anterodorsal and 2 posterodorsal bristles; hind tibia largely blackish tinged 5

4. Costal setulæ robust and in a prominent series distad and proximad of costal thorn, longest setulæ about equal in length to humeral cross vein and most of the setulæ nearly twice as long as width of costa. *setosa* (Stein)

Costal setulæ weak, inconspicuous, scarcely longer than width of costa. *conscripta* n. sp.

5. Inner margin of second antennal segment extending obliquely across base of third segment and angularly projected on lower half; costal setulæ scarcely longer than width of costa .... *fuscipes* Mall.

Inner margin of second antennal segment extending transversely at right angles across base of third segment, and not forming an angular prominence on lower half; costal setulæ longer than width of costa. *similis* Mall.

Eremomyioides parkeri Malloch

Eremomyioides parkeri Malloch, 1918, Proc. Biol. Soc. Wash., 31: 67. Séguy, 1937, Gen. Insect., Fasc. 205, p. 122.

Eremomyoides parkeri Malloch, 1921, Can. Ent., 53: 76 Strickland, 1938, Can. Jour. Res., Sect. D, 16: 209.

The male resembles *setosa,* having eyes widely separated and frons bristled to vertex. It may be distinguished from the latter species by the bristles on proximal half of antero- and posteroventral surfaces of hind femur, which are coarser and stouter and are directed apicad. The male has a stout apical bristle on anterior surface of hind tibia, but the bristle at middle of anterior surface is very weak in the specimens before me, as is also the lower posthumeral bristle. The fore femora lack the usual series of longish setulæ on median plane of anterior surface.

Alberta: ♂, Medicine Hat, April 2, 1926 (F. S. Carr), allotype [C.N.C.]. ♀, Elk Island, May 16, 1937 (E. H. Strickland) [Univ. Alberta]. ♀, Calgary, May 1, 1939 (W. S. McLeod).

Saskatchewan: ♂, Oxbow, May 11, 1907 (Fredk. Knab) [U.S.N.M.]. ♀, Ogema, June 16, 1916 (N. Criddle) [C.N.C.].

Eremomyioides setosa (Stein)

Pegomyia setosa Stein, 1898, Berl. Ent. Zeitschr., (1897) 42, heft 3 & 4, p. 247. Aldrich, 1905, Misc. Coll. Smithsn. Inst., 46: 558.

Eremomyioides setosa Malloch, 1918, Proc. Biol. Soc. Wash., 31: 67.

Eremomyia setosa Stein, 1919, Arch. f. Naturgesch., (1917) 83, Abt. A, heft 1, p. 153. Séguy, 1937, Gen. Insect., Fasc. 205, p. 122.

Eremomyoides setosa Malloch, 1921, Can. Ent., 53: 76, 77.

In both *setosa* and *parkeri* the hypopygium is much larger than in other species belonging to the genus. The female of *setosa* has all femora largely blackish, costal setulæ robust, and hind tibiæ armed with 3 or 4 anterodorsal and 3 or 4 posterodorsal bristles.

Alaska: 2 ♂, Katmai, June, 1917 (J. S. Hine).

Idaho: ♀, Moscow, cotype [Chicago Nat. Hist. Mus.].* ♀, Juliaetta, May 11, 1902 [N.S.N.M.].

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* Formerly the Field Museum of Natural History.

Oregon: ♂, ♀, Meacham, May 8, 1927, 3680 ft. alt. (H. A. Scullen) [Ore. State Coll.].

Washington: ♀, Davenport, April 4, 1935 (J. Wilcox).

Eremomyioides cylindrica (Stein)

Eremomyia cylindrica Stein, 1898, Berl. Ent. Zeitschr., (1897) 42, heft 3 & 4, p. 226. Aldrich, 1905, Misc. Coll. Smithsn. Inst., 46: 554. Smith, 1910, Ann. Rept. N. J. State Museum 1909, p. 791. Johnson, 1913, Bull. Amer. Mus. Nat. Hist., 32, Art. 3, p. 78. Stein, 1919, Arch. f. Naturgesch., (1917) 83, Abt. A, heft 1, p. 153. Stein, 1920, Arch. f. Naturgesch., (1918) 84, Abt. A, heft 9, p. 73, 74.

Eremomyioides cylindrica Malloch, 1918, Proc. Biol. Soc. Wash., 31: 67. Séguy, 1937, Gen. Insect., Fasc. 205, p. 122.

Eremomyoides cylindrica Malloch, 1921, Can. Ent., 53: 76. Huckett, 1924, N. Y. (Cornell) Agr. Exp. Sta., Mem. 77 (1923), p. 12. Johnson, 1925, Occas. Pap. Boston Soc. Nat. Hist., 7: 233. Johnson, 1925, Proc. Boston Soc. Nat. Hist., 38: 93. Leonard, 1928, N. Y. (Cornell) Agr. Exp. Sta., Mem. 101 (1926), p. 837. Strickland, 1938, Can. Jour. Res., Sect. D, 16: 209.

The male of *cylindrica* may invariably be distinguished by the combination of characters given in the key. In this sex the second antennal segment and tibiæ range in color from yellowish or reddish to blackish. In the female the middle and hind femora and all tibiæ are reddish yellow, and the costal setulæ, like those of the male, are short and arranged in an inconspicuous series.

Alberta: ♀, Wabamun, April 24, 1939, ♂, Edmonton, May 1, 1937, 3 ♀, Fawcett, May 8, 1934 (E. H. Strickland).

Massachusetts: ♂, New Bedford, April 29, 1896 (Hough), cotype [Chicago Nat. Hist. Mus.]. ♀, Wellesley, May 15, 1919 (J. D. Tothill).

Michigan: 2 ♀, Ann Arbor, May 18, 1923 (J. S. Hine) [Ohio State Mus.].

Minnesota: ♀, St. Anthony Park (Lugger), cotype [Chicago Nat. Hist. Mus.].

New York: ♂, Ithaca, May 15, 1914 [C.U.]. ♂, Patterson, April 24, 1935, ♀, Brewster, April 30, 1936 (H. Dietrich) [C.U.]. ♂, ♀, Riverhead, Long Island, May 8, 1927.

Ohio: ♂, West Liberty, April 12, 1931 (R. B. Gordon). ♀, Neotoma, Hocking County, March 28, 1932 (E. S. Thomas) [Ohio State Mus.].

Ontario: ♂, Strathroy, April 22, 1927 (H. F. Hudson). ♀, Low Bush, Lake Abitibi, June 8, 1925 (N. K. Bigelow) [C.N.C.]. ♀, Jordan, June 18, 1926 (G. S. Walley). ♀, Fenelm Falls, May 27, 1927 (F. P. Ide).

Pennsylvania: ♀, Broomall, May 6, 1934 [Brigham Young Univ.].

Quebec: ♀, Aylmer, May 14, 1925 (G. S. Walley). ♀, Hull, May 12, 1925 (C. H. Curran) [C.N.C.].

Eremomyioides conscripta new species

MALE, blackish, resembling *fuscipes* in habitus, second antennal segment reddish along distal margin, parafacial pruinescence brownish, mesonotum subshining, with a dorsocentral stripe and trace of sublaterals caudad of transverse suture, abdomen grayish white pruinescent, dorsocentral vitta gradually becoming broader caudad, legs blackish, hind tibiæ with trace of reddish tinge, calyptræ whitish, halteres purplish tinged.

Eyes separated by about width of third antennal segment, inner margin of second antennal segment squarely transverse across base of third segment, two pairs of presutural acrostical bristles, apical bristles of processes of fifth abdominal sternum fine and slender, costal setulæ not longer than width of costa, inconspicuous; fore tibia with 2 posteroventral bristles, mid tibia with 1 anteroventral, 1 anterior, 1 anterodorsal, 1 posterodorsal, 3 posterior bristles, hind tibia with 2 or 3 anteroventral, 4 anterodorsal and 4 posterodorsal bristles, 1 or 2 median anterior bristles, apical anterior bristle well developed. Length 8 mm.

FEMALE, as male, second antennal segment more broadly reddish, abdominal stripe less distinct, cross veins slightly infuscated, hind tibiæ largely reddish, costal setulæ fine, slightly longer than width of costa, tibiæ bristled as in male, fore tarsal segments 2, 3, 4 and 5 narrowly broadened, when compared to those of mid tarsus, fourth fore tarsal segment fully twice as long as wide. Length 7.5 mm.

Holotype and allotype: ♂, ♀, Copper Mountain, British Columbia, April 8, 1928, *Betula occidentalis* sap (G. Stace Smith) [C.N.C.].

The species *conscripta* comes closest to *fuscipes* and *similis*, from both of which it may usually be distinguished by the greater number of bristles on hind tibia. In *conscripta* the costal setulæ are weak, the inner margin of second antennal segment does not proceed obliquely across base of third segment, and there are only two pairs of presutural acrostical bristles. The female of *conscripta* has paler hind tibiæ than in *fuscipes* and *similis,* and the costal setulæ are much weaker than those of *setosa.*

Eremomyioides fuscipes Malloch

Eremomyioides fuscipes Malloch, 1920, Trans. Amer. Ent. Soc., 46: 182. Frison, 1927, Bull. Ill. Nat. Hist. Surv., 16, Art. 4, p. 198. Séguy, 1937, Gen. Insect., Fasc. 205, p. 122.

Eremomyoides fuscipes Malloch, 1921, Can. Ent., 53: 76. Huckett, 1924, N. Y. (Cornell) Agr. Exp. Sta., Mem. 77 (1923), p. 12. Leonard, 1928, N. Y. (Cornell) Agr. Exp. Sta., Mem. 101 (1926), p. 837.

The speces *fuscipes* and *similis* are closely allied, both having the tibiæ largely blackish in both sexes. However the hind tibiæ, and to a less extent the middle tibiæ, do exhibit a more or less obscure reddish tinge in certain specimens. In *fuscipes* the hind tibia may, or as is more general, may not have a bristle at middle of anterior surface. The costal setulæ in both sexes are weak, and the inner distal margin of second antennal segment is oblique in its course across base of third segment, thereby forming an angular prominence or outline on lower half. In *similis* the costal setulæ are longer than width of costa, and inner margin of second antennal segment is more nearly rectangular across base of third segment.

Alberta: ♂, Edmonton, May 13, 1937 (E. H. Strickland).

Connecticut: ♂, South Meriden, March 15, 1915 (H. L. Johnson).

Georgia: ♀, Clayton, April 15–22, 1940 (H. C. Huckett).

Illinois: ♂, Urbana, March 18, 1918 (Frison and Malloch), paratype [Ill. Nat. Hist. Surv.].

New York: ♂, Ithaca, March 25, 1917 (R. C. Shannon). ♂, Fall Creek, Ithaca, April 24, 1922 (L. S. West). ♂, Cooper Cemetery, Staten Island, March 17, 1918.

Ohio: ♀, Columbus, March 27, 1907.

Pennsylvania: 2 ♂, Hawley, April 20, 1936 (H. Dietrich).

South Carolina: ♀, Clemson College, February 22, 1936 (D. Dunavan).

Eremomyioides similis Malloch

Eremomyioides similis Malloch, 1920, Trans. Amer. Ent. Soc., 46: 183. Frison, 1927, Bull. Ill. Nat. Hist. Surv., 16, Art. 4, p. 198. Séguy, 1937, Gen. Insect., Fasc. 205, p. 122.

Eremomyoides similis Malloch, 1921, Can. Ent., 53: 76, 77.

The distinguishing characters and relationships of this species have already been discussed in notes concerning *conscripta* and *fuscipes*. The species has in error been recorded by me as occurring in New York from specimens which I now regard as belonging to *fuscipes*.

Alberta: ♂, Edmonton, May 13, 1937 (E. H. Strickland).

Colorado: ♂, Campus, University of Colorado (Cockerell) [N.S.N.M.].

Illinois: ♀, Tuscola, March 29, 1918, paratype [C.N.C.]. ♂, Urbana, Brownfield Woods, April 23, 1919, paratype [Ill. Nat. His. Surv.].

South Dakota: ♂, Brookings, April 29, 1919 [Ohio State Mus.].

Wisconsin: ♂, Dane County, April 10, 1900 (F. M. Snyder).

RECORDS AND DESCRIPTIONS OF NEOTROPICAL CRANE-FLIES (TIPULIDÆ, DIPTERA), XVIII

By Charles P. Alexander
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The preceding part under this title was published in March, 1944 (Journal of the New York Entomological Society, 52: 45–57). The species discussed at this time are chiefly from Costa Rica, Panama and Bolivia, derived from sources that are mentioned under the individual species. The types of the novelties are preserved in my private collection of these flies, except where stated to the contrary.

Genus *Tanypremna* Osten Sacken

Tanypremna (Tanypremna) saltatrix new species.

Size large (length, male, over 30 mm.); mesonotal præscutum with disk almost covered by four reddish brown stripes, the usual interspaces darkened and impressed; thoracic pleura yellow, with a narrow interrupted transverse girdle extending from the præscutum to the sternopleurite; tibiæ with a conspicuous white ring about its own length before tip; basal four tarsal segments black with broad white tips; wings subhyaline, the veins seamed with pale brown; cell Sc_2 small and narrow, tending to become closed at margin; male hypopygium with the dististyle provided with 13 or 14 small black spines arranged in a single row.

Male.—Length about 33–34 mm.; wing 18.5–19 mm.; abdomen alone about 28–29 mm.

Frontal prolongation of head yellow; palpi greenish yellow. Antennæ with scape and pedicel yellow; flagellar segments pale brown, the outer ones darker; segments cylindrical, the verticils longer than the segments. Head chiefly yellow sericeous, darker behind.

Pronotum conspicuously blackened above, paling to yellow on sides. Mesonotal præscutum with the disk almost covered by four reddish brown stripes that are very narrowly separated by capillary black lines, the ones delimiting the usual interspaces impressed; a dark transverse line on præscutum extending from cephalic end of lateral stripe to the lateral margin, interrupting the broad yellow lateral and humeral border; scutal lobes reddish brown, divided into two unequal areas by narrowly blackened borders and lines; scutellum testaceous brown; mediotergite dark brown, the central portion behind somewhat paler; lateral border of mediotergite and dorsal portion of katapleurotergite pale, the remainder of pleurotergite dark brown. Pleura yellowish white, with a more or less interrupted transverse girdle extending from the lateral præscutal border, as above described, crossing the dorsopleural membrane, on the anepisternum and sternopleurite being broken into linear spots. Halteres with stem obscure yellow, knob dark brown. Legs with coxæ yellow, outer face of each with a brownish black stripe, broadest on posterior coxæ; trochanters yellow; fore and middle legs with femora yellow basally, passing into dark brown, most intense at outer ends but preceded by a very vague paler subterminal ring; tibiæ black, with a relatively narrow but conspicuous white ring about its own length from tip; fore tibiæ with extreme bases vaguely whitened; basitarsi black with the tips white, on fore legs involving about the distal fourth, on the middle legs a little less; succeeding three tarsal segments black with their tips broadly white; terminal segment uniformly brownish black; posterior legs similar but with the white rings on tibiæ and basitarsi even wider, the latter including almost the outer third of segment. Wings subhyaline, the small stigma dark brown; cell *Sc* and seams along most of veins paler brown, these seams wider and more diffuse on the posterior and caudal veins. Venation: Cell Sc_2 very small and narrow, in holotype closed at margin by approximation of veins Sc_2 and R_{1+2}; *Rs* straight and oblique, in alignment with R_{4+5}; cell *1st* M_2 about one-half wider than long, narrower at outer end; cell M_1 about twice its petiole; *m–cu* subequal to basal section of M_{3+4}; cell *2nd A* relatively wide.

Abdomen elongate; tergites brown, on more proximal segments narrowly ringed with obscure yellow; outer segments more uniformly darkened; pleural membrane dark; sternites yellow, their posterior borders darkened; eighth and ninth segments dark, the tips of basitarsi pale. Male hypopygium with tergal lobes broadly and obtusely rounded. Basistyle elongate; mesal face at near two-thirds the length with a conspcuious lobe that is provided with about a dozen long pale setæ. Dististyle provided with about 13 or 14 short blackened spines arranged in a single row, with more than half placed on the distal third of row; inner branch of style obtuse, provided with abundant short setæ.

Habitat.—Costa Rica.

Holotype, ♂, Rivas, altitude 2,875 feet, January 1939 (Dean Rounds). Paratype, ♂, Pedregoso, altitude 2,075 feet, January 1939 (Dean Rounds).

The nearest relatives of the present fly are the Brazilian *Tanypremna* (*Tanypremna*) *longissima* (Enderlein) and *T.* (*T.*) *manicata* Osten Sacken, both of which differ conspicuously in the relative proportions and in details of coloration of body and legs. These species have been keyed and described in an earlier paper by the writer (JOUR. N. Y. ENT. SOC., 22: 205–218, 1914).

Tanypremna (Tanypremna) clotho new species.

Mesonotum very high and gibbous, dark brown, the sides broadly and abruptly yellow; pronotum narrowly darkened medially; pleura pale yellow;

mesosternum with a conspicuous black spot; legs black, tibiæ with a broad white subterminal ring; tarsal segments one and two black basally, their tips broadly white; segments three and four white; wings pale brown, the costal region slightly darker; stigma and a cloud over cord darker brown; R_{2+3} sinuously bent; cell *1st* M_2 large, square at base, narrowed outwardly; petiole of cell M_1 about twice *m;* cell *2nd A* unusually narrow; abdomen elongate, tergites chiefly dark brown, restrictedly patterned with obscure yellow; cerci black.

FEMALE.—Length about 41 mm.; wing 20 mm.; abdomen alone 36 mm.

Frontal prolongation of head short, almost white; nasus distinct; palpi pale, tinged with greenish, the proximal end of the terminal segment darker. Antennæ with scape and pedicel pale, the basal flagellar segments greenish, outer segments dark brown; flagellar segments elongate, with conspicuous verticils. Front and anterior vertex silvery white; occiput and the transverse adjoining portions of vertex almost black, the remainder of vertex paling to brown; genæ obscure yellow.

Pronotum conspicuously dark brown medially, the sides abruptly yellow. Mesonotal præscutum almost uniform dark brown, the area strongly narrowed in front to leave a very broad humeral and lateral area on either side; the four præscutal stripes differentiated by impressed lines at the interspaces; scutal lobes similarly dark brown, the median region sparsely yellow pollinose; scutellum testaceous brown, the parascutella darker; mediotergite chiefly dark brown, the lateral and posterior borders pale to form a U-shaped border; median region at base more reddened; pleurotergite dark brown, the posterior angle above the halteres abruptly yellow. Mesonotal præscutum high and gibbous. Pleura uniformly pale yellow; sternum pale except for a very evident oval black area on mesosternum. Halteres relatively long, stem brown, yellow at base, knob slightly brightened. Legs with coxæ pale greenish yellow, the posterior pair with a brown spot on caudal aspect; trochanters greenish yellow, the middle pair blackened on posterior face; fore and hind femora brown, paler basally, darker brown at and before tips, middle femora uniform brownish black; tibiæ brownish black, with a broad white subterminal ring, narrowest on fore legs where it is only a little more than twice the blackened apex, broad on middle and posterior tibiæ, especially the latter, where the white is approximately four times the blackened apex; basitarsi black on proximal portion, the tip broadly white, involving about the distal two-thirds of segment, slightly less extensive on middle legs; tarsal segment two black at base, the tip white, broadest on fore legs where about the distal three-fourths to four-fifths of segment is included, narrower on middle and hind legs where more than half the segment is whitened, more extensively so on middle legs; tarsal segments three and four greenish white; terminal segment pale brown; claws (female) simple. Wings with a pale brownish tinge, the broad costal cell slightly darker, cell *Sc* even darker brown; stigma small, ill-defined, darker brown; a restricted brown cloud on cord and adjoining portions of outer radial veins; veins brownish black. Venation: *Rs* straight, subequal to R_{2+3} which is sinuously bent, narrowing cell R_1 at its outer end; vein R_{1+2} weak and pale, lying close to the free tip of Sc_2, which, in turn, is about the same distance from the spur of Sc_1; cell R_3 narrowed at about two-thirds its length; basal section of R_{4+5} almost lacking to punctiform, *r–m* likewise reduced; cell *1st* M_2 large, square at base, narrowed outwardly; petiole of cell M_1 about twice *m; m–cu* at near two-thirds the length of M_{3+4}; cell *2nd A* unusually narrow, its greatest width (opposite anal angle) about as long as petiole of cell M_1 or somewhat shorter than *m–cu.*

Abdomen elongate, as shown by the measurements; basal tergites obscure yellow, narrowly darkened laterally, more broadly so dorsally, the amount of dark color increasing on outer segments; vague paler rings at near midlength of tergites two to five, inclusive; posterior borders of segments slightly darkened, the adjoining base of the succeeding segment restrictedly pale at the sides; basal sternites greenish yellow, the outer segments darker; genital shield brownish black. Ovipositor with long straight black cerci, their tips narrowly rounded.

Habitat.—Brazil.

Holotype, ♀, Palmeiras, Estado Rio de Janeiro, November 6, 1940 (Lopes).

The most similar species is *Tanypremna* (*Tanypremna*) *longissima* (Enderlein), likewise from southeastern Brazil. This differs in the larger size (Female, length 55 mm.; wing 22.5 mm.; abdomen alone 48.5 mm.), more especially the longer abdomen in proportion to the wing length. The latter fly is still not known to me except from the original description. From this it is indicated that the præscutum is directed more strongly forward over the head, completely concealing the latter when viewed from above. There are various discrepancies in color between the two flies, including the ovipositor, legs and wings, as the distinctly seamed veins of the outer fourth of the wing in *longissima.*

It is now very evident that there are numerous species of the subgenus in Tropical America, with an apparent concentration of forms in southeastern Brazil. The venation and the basic plan of structure of the male hypopygium indicates that the supposedly very distinct generic groups, *Ozodicera* Macquart, *Longurio* Loew and *Tanypremna* Osten Sacken are, in reality, all closely related and may well be found to pertain to a single major generic group. A very comparable case is found in *Limonia* Meigen, which rather curiously parallels the present condition. Thus, the conspicuously branched antennæ of *Ozodicera* are suggested by one of the subgeneric groups of *Tanypremna, Tanypremnodes* Alexander, where the flagellar pectinations while short are perfectly distinct. The comparable condition in *Limonia* is to be found in the subgenera *Rhipidia* Meigen, *Idioglochina* Alexander, and *Zelandoglochina* Alexander. Furthermore, the delicate, ethereal build of species of *Tanypremna*, as compared to the stouter and more massive condition in *Ozodicera* and *Longurio*, is closely paralleled by various subgeneric groups of *Limonia*, as *Thrypticomyia* Skuse, *Doaneomyia* Alexander, and *Euglochina* Alexander. It is of interest to note that the three typical Tipuline groups listed above have been placed in various tribes and subtribes within the Tipulinæ. The entire subject of genera and subgenera in the more primitive Tipuline crane-flies requires much further consideration and probably will result in a further reduction in the number of supposedly valid generic groups.

Genus *Holorusia* Loew

Holorusia (Holorusia) furcifera new species.

General coloration of mesonotal præscutum testaceous brown, with four more reddish brown stripes that are narrowly bordered with darker, especially the intermediate pair; antennæ (male) relatively long, about one-third the length of body or wing; basal flagellar segments bicolored; thoracic pleura uniformly pale yellow; femora yellow, the tips narrowly brownish black; wings weakly infuscated, with a more whitish central streak as far as the cord; costal border, outer radial field, *m–cu* and a spot in cell *R* brown; cell *1st* M_2 small, irregularly hexagonal; abdomen yellow, with a broad subterminal, dark brown ring; male hypopygium with the outer dististyle narrow, at near midlength bearing a slender lateral branch.

Male.—Length about 14 mm.; wing 15 mm.; antenna about 5 mm.

Frontal prolongation of head obscure yellow, darker on ventral half; nasus long and conspicuous; palpi black, the terminal segment paling to brownish yellow. Antennæ (male) about one-third the length of body; scape, pedicel and first flagellar segment light yellow; succeeding segments bicolored, the proximal end darkened, with about the distal two-thirds of the more basal segments yellow, the latter color decreasing in amount on the outer segments, on the eighth and remaining segments becoming uniformly brown; flagellar segments cylindrical. Head medium brown, the front and very narrow orbits yellowish gray; a narrow but conspicuous dark brown median stripe on vertex.

Pronotum obscure brownish yellow. Mesonotal præscutum testaceous brown, with four more reddish yellow stripes, the intermediate pair more distinct, margined by narrow, slightly darker brown lines; humeral region slightly darkened, especially internally; scutal lobes chiefly reddish yellow, more obscure laterally; a narrow, darker brown, median vitta that extends onto the extreme cephalic portion of scutellum, the latter pale yellow; parascutella more infuscated; postnotum light yellow, the lateral border of mediotergite and the dorsal and posterior borders of pleurotergite somewhat darker. Pleura and most of pleurotergite clear light yellow. Halteres dark brown, the extreme base of stem narrowly yellow. Legs with coxæ and trochanters clear light yellow; femora and tibiæ yellow, their tips narrowly brownish black, the amount subequal on all legs; tarsi passing into black. Wings with the ground color weakly infuscated, variegated with conspicuous darker brown and restricted whitish subhyaline areas; the darker pattern includes especially the costal border, involving the prearcular field; outer radial field as far caudad as vein R_{4+5}; arcular areas; origin of *Rs; m–cu,* and a conspicuous spot in cell *R* beyond midlength of vein *M;* a whitened area in center of wing as far as cord, especially conspicuous across bases of anal and cubital cells, *M* and outer end of cell *R,* crossing the base of cell *1st* M_2; veins brown. Posterior border of wing with scattered black setæ interspersed with the marginal fringe, as common in genus. Venation: *Rs* a little less than twice *m–cu,* angulated at origin; vein R_{4+5} strongly arcuated at near midlength, constricting cell R_3; cell *1st* M_2 small, irregularly hexagonal in outline; *m–cu* close to midlength to vein M_{3+4}; cell M_1 subequal in length to its petiole.

Abdomen yellow, the three subterminal segments brownish black; hypopygium yellow. Male hypopygium with the tergite narrowed outwardly, the lateral angles produced caudad into relatively narrow lobes, the mesal faces of which bear numerous black spinous setæ; median area of tergite notched, at base of emargination produced into a shorter lobe. Outer dististyle narrow, at near midlength bearing a conspicuous slender lateral branch. Inner dististyle with crest high, obtusely rounded; beak broad and obtuse.

Habitat.—Costa Rica.

Holotype, ♂, Pedregoso, altitude 2,075 feet, January 1939 (Dean Rounds).

The present fly is most similar to species such as *Holorusia* (*Holorusia*) *strangalia* Alexander, differing in the small size, details of coloration, and structure of the male hypopygium. The conformation of the outer dististyle is noteworthy.

Genus *Tipula* Linnaeus

Tipula (Eumicrotipula) votiva new species.

General coloration of mesonotum brownish gray, the præscutum with three brown stripes; pleura yellow dorsally, dark brown beneath; frontal prolongation of head yellow above, brownish black beneath; antennal flagellum black; femora with a narrow yellow subterminal ring; wings strongly and almost uniformly infuscated, restrictedly patterned with dark brown and obscure yellow.

MALE.—Length about 8 mm.; wing 8.7–9 mm.; antenna about 3.8–3.9 mm.

Frontal prolongation of head yellow above, abruptly brownish black on sides and beneath; nasus distinct, yellow; palpi dark brown, the incisures pale. Antennæ (male) of moderate length; scape blackened on basal third to half, the remainder yellow; pedicel and flagellum black; flagellar segments scarcely incised, subcylindrical; verticils shorter than the segments. Head brown, more pruinose on front.

Pronotum yellow, the extreme lateral portions dark brown. Mesonotal præscutum brownish gray with three brown stripes that are best-delimited on posterior half of sclerite, especially the broad median stripe; lateral portions of præscutum darkened, including a velvety black spot on margin behind pseudosutural foveæ; scutum dark brown; scutellum and postnotum light brown, sparsely pruinose. Pleura dark brown ventrally, the color including the propleura, almost all of sternopleurite, and the meral region; dorsal pleurites, including the dorsopleural membrane, conspicuously yellow; dorsal anepisternum, posterior portion of sternopleurite and virtually all of the pteropleurite yellow; pleurotergite blackened, especially posteriorly. Halteres with stem yellow, knob brownish black. Legs with coxæ brownish black, sparsely pruinose; trochanters yellow; femora brownish black, brighter basally, with a narrow yellow subterminal ring that is placed more than its own length before the black tip; tibiæ and tarsi black. Wings with the ground very extensively and almost uniformly infuscated, sparsely patterned with obscure yellow and darker brown areas; cell *C* brown, slightly brightened subbasally; cell *Sc* yellow, with four major dark areas that are more extensive than the pale interspaces; more or less distinct creamy areas in prearcular field, beyond arculus in proximal ends of basal cells and as a very faintly indicated area beyond stigma in outer radial field; veins brown, yellow in the flavous portions. No macrotrichia in cells of wing. Venation: R_{1+2} entirely atrophied; R_2 oblique, in direct alignment with R_1 beyond the free tip of Sc_2; petiole of cell M_1 exceeding *m;* cell *2nd A* narrow; venation of medial field very different in the two available specimens; in holotype normal for the subgenus, that is, with M_{3+4} present and with *m–cu* beneath cell *1st* M_2; in the paratype, the venation is almost exactly as in the genus *Nephrotoma*, with *m–cu* uniting with vein M_4 just before the base of cell *1st* M_2.

Abdomen with basal tergites obscure yellow, beyond the first with the lateral borders conspicuously blackened, greatly restricting the amount of yellow; outer segments, including hypopygium, uniformly brownish black. Male hypopygium with the caudal margin of tergite nearly transverse, with a small U-shaped median notch, the lateral portions of the latter slightly produced into small lobes; lateral portions of tergal plate with long abundant setæ.

Habitat.—Bolivia.

Holotype, ♂, Buenavista, Santa Cruz (J. Steinbach). Paratopotype, ♂.

The most similar described species is *Tipula* (*Eumicrotipula*) *fatidica* Alexander, of Ecuador, which differs conspicuously in the larger size, coloration of the body and wings, the short antennæ, and in the details of venation, as the much wider cell *2nd A.*

Tipula (Microtipula) epione new species.

Allied to *smithi;* mesonotal præscutum and scutum almost uniformly reddish brown; antennæ (male) elongate, yellow, the flagellar segments weakly bicolored; halteres infuscated; legs yellow; wings weakly infuscated, the ground color of outer half of wing more whitish hyaline, heavily patterned with brown, including the broad costal border and outer radial field; R_{1+2} entire; male hypopygium with a single dististyle, its inner angle bearing two or three strong black spinous setæ; lobe of ninth sternite a depressed-flattened quadrate plate, with its apex truncated; eighth sternite with posterior border evenly rounded.

MALE.—Length about 12 mm.; wing 12 mm.; antenna about 7.5 mm.

Frontal prolongation of head brown; nasus stout; palpi brown, the outer segments a trifle darker. Antennæ (male) elongate, exceeding one-half the length of wing; basal three segments yellow; succeeding segments very weakly bicolored, brownish yellow, the small basal enlargements a little darker brown; segments almost cylindrical; verticils much shorter than the segments. Head brownish gray; anterior vertex at widest point a little exceeding twice the diameter of scape, more narrowed behind between the large eyes.

Præscutum and scutum almost uniformly reddish brown, without markings; scutellum and postnotum more testaceous yellow, parascutella darker. Pleura obscure yellow. Halteres infuscated. Legs with the coxæ and trochanters yellow; remainder of legs yellow, the outer tarsal segments infuscated; claws somewhat weakly toothed. Wings with the ground color weakly infuscated, more whitish hyaline in outer half, including vicinity of cord and outer medial field; a very heavy and conspicuous brown pattern, including the broad costal border which involves the prearcular region, cells *C* and *Sc*, all of *R* excepting the outer end, and virtually the whole outer radial field; conspicuous brown seams on *m–cu* and narrower ones at outer end of cell *1st* M_2 and fork of M_{1+2}; veins pale, darker in the patterned areas. Squama with setæ. Venation: R_{1+2} entire; *Rs* relatively long, about one-third longer than *m–cu*, the latter at near midlength of M_{3+4}; basal section of R_{4+5} very long, greatly reducing *r–m;* cell *1st* M_2 relatively long; cells M_1 and *2nd A* wide.

Basal abdominal segments obscure yellow, beyond the second passing into brown; subterminal segments blackened, forming a narrow ring; hypopygium yellow. Male hypopygium with the ninth tergite long, narrowed posteriorly, the apex terminating in a broad flattened lobe that is gently emarginate, to produce two lobules, both set with conspicuous black setæ; ventral tergal appendage (tegmen) pale and fleshy. Dististyle single, appearing as a subquadrate plate, the outer angle produced into a conspicuous flattened obtuse lobe, its apical border narrowly blackened; inner angle less produced, at apex bearing two or three long black spinous setæ, the largest of which is about two-thirds the total length of the style itself. Lobe of ninth sternite a depressed-flattened subquadrate plate, slightly widened outwardly, its apex truncated or with vague indications of a median notch, the surface densely setiferous. Ædeagus stout, terminating in a decurved hook-like projection. Eighth sternite extensive, the posterior border broadly rounded, provided with numerous long setæ.

Habitat.—Bolivia.

Holotype, ♂, Buenavista, Santa Cruz (J. Steinbach).

The present fly is most similar to *Tipula* (*Microtipula*) *intemperata* Alexander, *T.* (*M.*) *smithi* Alexander, and *T.* (*M.*) *temperata* Alexander, differing from all in the structure of the male hypopygium. The wing pattern is generally similar in all of these species yet they differ among themselves in the presence or absence of major setæ on the squamæ. In other subgeneric groups of *Tipula* the squamal character has been deemed to be of primary importance in differentiating groups.

Tipula (Microtipula) nicoya new species.

Allied to *perangustula;* size small (wing, male, about 10 mm.); mesonotal præscutum obscure brownish yellow with three black stripes; thoracic pleura yellow, with a narrow, transverse, black girdle occupying the mesepisternum; knob of halteres blackened; claws of male simple; wings with cells basad of cord brownish yellow, the prearcular and costal fields, together with the outer radial cells, strongly darkened; male hypopygium with the lateral lobes of both the ninth tergite and the eighth sternite broadly and obtusely rounded; outer dististyle a simple cylindrical blackened rod; ædeagus not subtended by a pair of spines.

Male.—Length about 9 mm.; wing 10 mm.; antenna about 4 mm.

Frontal prolongation of head yellow; nasus short and stout; palpi brown. Antennæ relatively long, as shown by the measurements; scape and pedicel yellow; first flagellar segment yellowish brown; succeeding segments black, the incisures of the more proximal ones vaguely brightened; segments only weakly incised; verticils shorter than the segments. Head light brown; anterior vertex wide, approximately four times the diameter of scape, without tubercle.

Pronotum obscure yellow laterally, infuscated on central portion. Mesonotal præscutum with the restricted ground obscure brownish yellow, the surface polished, with three black stripes, the median one relatively narrow; posterior sclerites of notum almost uniformly blackened, the parascutella paler; pleurotergite yellow. Pleura yellow, with a conspicuous transverse brown girdle, extending from the cephalic end of the præscutal stripe which bends laterad to the margin, crossing the dorsopleural membrane and covering most of the mesepisternum. Halteres with stem yellow, knob blackened. Legs with coxæ and trochanters yellow; femora obscure yellow, the tips rather conspicuously blackened; tibiæ obscure yellow, the tips narrowly darkened; tarsi yellowish brown to obscure yellow; claws simple. Wings with the cells basad of cord brownish yellow; prearcular field, cells *C* and *Sc*, stigma, and cells beyond anterior cord conspicuously infuscated, the last slightly less intense than the others; proximal portions of cells distad of posterior cord and very indistinct markings in bases of cells R_3 and R_5 brighter in color. Venation: R_{1+2} entire but the distal end faint and without trichia; *Rs* relatively short, arcuated at origin, subequal to *m–cu;* cell *2nd A* very narrow, about as in *perangustula.*

Abdominal tergites obscure yellow on their basal portions, the caudal margins broadly black, especially on segments two and three, on the succeeding tergites the amount of black somewhat more restricted; lateral tergal borders darkened; a subterminal black ring; sternites chiefly yellow; hypopygium yellow. Male hypopygium in its general features much as in *perangustula* but differing in all details. Ninth tergite with the lateral lobes broadly and obtusely rounded, with a conspicuous median brush of setæ, in addition to the usual paired ventral tufts; these setæ are much more elongate and less spinous than in allied forms. Outer dististyle a simple, slender, cylindrical, blackened rod, its tip obtuse; setæ relatively short and inconspicuous. In *perangustula,* the style on distal half expanded into an elongate-triangular head, with long coarse setæ. Ædeagus without a pair of subtending slender spines, as in *perangustula.* Eighth sternite with the caudal margin conspicuously bilobed, each lobe obtusely rounded and provided with numerous very long pale setæ.

Habitat.—Costa Rica.

Holotype, ♂, Pedregoso, altitude 2,300 feet, January 1939 (Dean Rounds).

The specific name is that of an Amerind tribe inhabiting Costa Rica. The most similar described species is *Tipula* (*Microtipula*) *perangustula* Alexander, of Colombia and Venezuela, which differs especially in the hypopygial characters, as compared above.

Genus *Limonia* Meigen

Limonia (Limonia) curraniana new species.

General coloration brown; anterior vertex silvery; antennal scape yellow, the remainder of organ black; mesonotum brown, with a conspicuous orange dorsomedian stripe; legs dark brown, the tips of the tibiæ and all tarsi with the exception of the terminal segment and proximal portions of basitarsi of fore and middle legs, white; wings strongly tinged with brown; ventral dististyle of male hypopygium without rostral spines.

MALE.—Length about 5 mm.; wing 6–6.2 mm.

Mouthparts very reduced; palpi small, black. Antennæ with the scape pale yellow, the remainder of organ black; flagellar segments gradually narrowed and more slender toward end, the terminal segment about one-half longer than the penultimate segment. Anterior vertex silvery, concave, the anterior vertex several times as wide as diameter of scape; posterior portions of head light brown.

Mesonotum brown, with a conspicuous orange dorsomedian stripe, extending from the anterior portion of the præscutum to the base of the mediotergite. Pleura yellow. Halteres dark brown. Legs with the coxæ and trochanters yellow; femora dark brown; tibiæ dark brown, the tips broadly white; fore and middle legs with the proximal half of basitarsi darkened, the remaining segments, with the exception of the last, white; posterior tarsi white. Wings strongly tinged with brown; stigma not indicated; costal region and barely perceptible seams along cord and over outer end of cell *1st* M_2 darker brown; wing apex insensibly darkened; veins dark brown. Venation: Sc_1 ending just beyond midlength of *Rs*, Sc_2 at its tip; free tip of Sc_2 in transverse alignment with R_2; cell *1st* M_2 short and nearly square; *m–cu* at the fork of *M*, longer than the distal section of Cu_1.

Abdominal tergites dark brown, the basal sternites pale yellow; hypopygium dark. Male hypopygium with the ninth tergite transverse, its caudal border very gently emarginate. Basistyle with the ventromesal lobe extensive, very low and broad. Dorsal dististyle nearly straight, a little expanded before apex, thence narrowed into an acute beak. Ventral dististyle fleshy, the rostral prolongation elongate, gently curved, without evident rostral spines. Gonapophyses appearing as broadly flattened plates, the mesal-apical angle produced into a straight point.

Habitat.—Panama (Canal Zone).

Holotype, ♂, Barro Colorado, January 9, 1929 (C. H. Curran); type in American Museum of Natural History.

I take great pleasure in naming this fly in honor of Dr. C. Howard Curran, distinguished Dipterologist. The species is most nearly related to *Limonia* (*Limonia*) *capnora* Alexander, *L.* (*L.*) *lutzi* (Alexander) and other species but is readily distinguished by the coloration of the legs and wings and by the details of venation.

Limonia (Limonia) mesotricha new species.

General coloration brown, the mesonotal præscutum and scutum variegated with brownish orange; rostrum small, yellow, palpi reduced in size; antennæ black throughout; front silvery; halteres elongate, black; legs black; wings narrowed at bases, strongly tinged with brown; macrotrichia in distal cells; R_2 shortened, the free tip of Sc_2 correspondingly lengthened; male hypopygium with the rostral prolongation of ventral dististyle unarmed with spines.

MALE.—Length about 5 mm.; wing 6 mm.

Rostrum small, yellow; palpi black, very reduced, apparently only 1-segmented. Antennæ black throughout; basal flagellar segments short-oval, the outer ones more elongate; terminal segment one-half longer than the penultimate; verticils elongate. Front silvery; posterior portion of head brownish fulvous.

Mesonotal præscutum with the three usual stripes obscure brownish orange, narrowly margined with brown; scutum with median area pale, the lobes obscure brownish orange, encircled by brown; scutellum dark brown, the median line a little paler; mediotergite with cephalic half brown, the caudal portion brightening to obscure yellow. Pleura obscure yellow. Halteres elongate, black throughout. Legs with the coxæ and trochanters yellowish testaceous; remainder of legs black, the extreme femoral bases restrictedly brightened. Wings strongly tinged with brown, the darker stigmal region restricted to a vague seam over the free tip of Sc_2; vague darker seams over the veins, the centers of the cells paler; veins brown. Wings narrowed basally, long-petiolate; relatively sparse macrotrichia in apical cells from the stigma to cell M_4, inclusive, in most cases being restricted to rows in the centers of the cells. Venation: Sc long, Sc_2 ending shortly before the fork of Rs, Sc_1 shorter than Sc_2; Rs long, angulated at origin; vein R_1 bent strongly caudad, at R_2 approaching vein R_{2+3}, strongly reducing R_2, the free tip of Sc_2 correspondingly lengthened; m–cu near the fork of M, longer than the distal section of Cu_1.

Abdominal tergites dark brown; sternites obscure brownish yellow; hypopygium chiefly brown, the subterminal segments paler. Male hypopygium with the lobes of tergite somewhat obliquely truncated. Basistyle with ventromesal lobe unusually extensive, occupying almost the entire mesal face of style. Dorsal dististyle straight, slender, the apex a little enlarged and curved into a short point. Ventral dististyle relatively small, fleshy, its rostral prolongation flattened, without evident spines. Gonapophyses pale throughout, the mesal-apical lobe slender.

Habitat.—Panama (Canal Zone).

Holotype, ♂, Barro Colorado, December 21, 1928 (C. H. Curran); type in American Museum of Natural History.

Limonia (*Limonia*) *mesotricha* is very different from all other regional members of the subgenus, particularly in the apically hairy wings. The course of vein R_1, with the accompanying shortening of vein R_2 suggests the even more accentuated conditions found in *L.* (*L.*) *insularis* (Williston) and allies.

Genus *Gnophomyia* Osten Sacken

Gnophomyia (Gnophomyia) podacantha new species.

General coloration black, the head polished, the mesonotum more opaque; anterior lateral pretergites light yellow; thoracic pleura with a broad black dorsal stripe, the ventral pleurites paler, pruinose; metapleura and posterior coxæ yellow; halteres uniformly blackened; wings with a blackish tinge, the cord and vein *Cu* even more darkened; R_{2+3+4} only slightly elevated; cell *1st* M_2 long and narrow, very little widened outwardly; male hypopygium with the caudal border of tergite truncate, provided with a chiefly double row of approximately one hundred spinous setæ; cephalic end of mesal face of basistyle produced into a long-cylindrical lobe that terminates in two conspicuous black spines; both dististyles narrowed and pointed at their tips.

MALE.—Length about 5 mm.; wing 5.5–5.6 mm.

FEMALE.—Length about 5.5 mm.; wing 5.6–5.8 mm.

Rostrum and palpi black. Antennæ black throughout, relatively long; flagellar segments elongate, with verticils that are subequal to or slightly longer than the segments. Head black, more or less polished; anterior vertex broad, sparsely pruinose, provided with a low tubercle.

Pronotum black. Anterior pretergites light yellow, the posterior pretergites more obscure. Mesonotum black, the surface opaque by a very sparse pruinosity. Pleura with a broad black dorsal stripe, the ventral pleurites paler, pruinose, on the metapleura and meron paling to yellow. Halteres blackened. Legs with the coxæ dark brown, the posterior pair paling to yellow; trochanters testaceous brown; remainder of legs black, the femoral bases paler. Wings with a blackish tinge, the basal third slightly more brightened; stigma narrow, long-oval, dark brown; a slightly indicated infuscation along cord and vein *Cu;* veins dark brown, paler in the more basal fields. Venation: Sc_1 ending nearly opposite the fork of R_{2+3+4}; *Rs* short and oblique, in direct alignment with R_5; R_{2+3+4} only slightly elevated; R_{2+3} about twice R_2; branches of *Rs* extending generally parallel to one another for virtually all their lengths; cell *1st* M_2 long and narrow, only slightly widened outwardly, with *m–cu* at about one-third to two-fifths its length.

Abdomen, including hypopygium, black. Ovipositor with elongate cerci, these blackened basally, the distal half obscure yellow; hypovalvæ short, black. Male hypopygium with the tergite large, the caudal margin truncate, provided with a chiefly double row of long spinous setæ, there being approximately 100 or more such setæ; lateral tergal angles produced into lobes, with spinous setæ to their summits. Basistyle at cephalic end of mesal face produced into a long cylindrical lobe that bears two conspicuous black spines at summit, these slightly unequal in length and diameter. Outer dististyle a powerful, nearly straight blackened horn or spike that narrows gradually to the acute tip. Inner dististyle much smaller, broad at base, thence similarly narrowed to the nearly acute apex, before this with a few erect setæ.

Habitat.—Costa Rica.

Holotype, ♂, San Juan Miramar, Pacific slope, in cloud forest, altitude 3,500 feet, January 1939 (Dean Rounds). Allotopotype, ♀, pinned with type. Paratopotypes, 1 ♂, 3 ♀♀.

From other members of the subgenus that center around *maestitia* Alexander and allies, the present fly is readily told by the very different male hypopygium, especially the armature of the basistyle which has suggested the specific name.

Genus *Neognophomyia* Alexander

Neognophomyia productissima new species.

General coloration of mesonotum reddish yellow; thoracic pleura with a broad interrupted black dorsal stripe, the ventral pleurites pale; wings grayish yellow, with a brown seam on anterior cord; male hypopygium with the tergal spines unusually long and slender, entirely pale, at near midlength narrowed and produced into a long curved needle-like point; phallosome relatively narrow, its apex broadly obtuse to subtruncate.

Male.—Length about 4.5–4.7 mm.; wing 4.6–4.8 mm.

Rostrum yellowish brown; palpi brown. Antennæ brown, the pedicel slightly brightened; flagellar segments subcylindrical, the outer ones passing into elongate-oval, with very long verticils. Head dark brown, more reddish brown on central portion of vertex; eyes large.

Pronotum obscure yellow above, darker on sides. Mesonotal præscutum shiny yellow, with poorly indicated, more reddish brown stripes, the lateral pair especially distinct, continued backward across the suture onto the scutal lobes; central portion of mesonotum, including the posterior portion of præscutum, scutum and most of scutellum and mediotergite more yellowish. Pleura and pleurotergite on dorsal portion with four disconnected black areas that form a broad broken stripe, these areas located on propleura, anepisternum, dorsal pteropleurite and pleurotergite; ventral pleurites more reddish yellow. Halteres with stem pale, knob weakly darkened. Legs with the coxæ and trochanters yellow, femora, tibiæ and proximal two tarsal segments yellow, the tips very faintly and vaguely darker; outer tarsal segments brownish black. Wings with the ground grayish yellow, the prearcular and costal fields clearer yellow; a relatively broad and conspicuous brown seam extending from the stigma across anterior cord to fork of M; much narrower seams on posterior cord and outer end of cell *1st* M_2; veins brown, more yellowish in the brightened fields. Venation: R_2 placed shortly beyond one-third the length of petiole of cell R_3; vein R_4 ending close to wing tip; cell *1st* M_2 rather conspicuously widened outwardly, its proximal end very narrow; *m–cu* at near one-third the length of cell.

Basal abdominal tergites broadly yellow medially, conspicuously brownish black on sides; fourth tergite paler than the adjoining ones; tergites five and six conspicuously blackened, seven and eight again pale; sternites chiefly yellow, the outer segments more darkened; hypopygium dark brown. Male hypopygium with the tergal spines unusually long and slender, entirely pale, at near midlength abruptly narrowed into a long curved needle-like point that is subequal in length to the basal section. Outer dististyle relatively short and stout, with about four long setæ at outer end, one apical in position. Inner dististyle short and stout, curved, at apex narrowed into a more sclerotized beak or point. Phallosome relatively narrow, its apex broadly obtuse to subtruncate.

Habitat.—Costa Rica.

Holotype, ♂, Pedregoso, altitude 2,500 feet, January 1939 (Dean Rounds). Paratopotypes, 1 ♂, pinned with type; 4 ♂♂, altitude 2,075–2,300 feet, January 1939 (Dean Rounds).

The most similar described species are *Neognophomyia panamensis* Alexander and *N. trinitatis* Alexander, which have the structure of the male hypopygium somewhat the same. The present fly is readily distinguished by the very unusual elongation of the so-called tergal spines.

Genus *Erioptera* Meigen

Erioptera (Symplecta) macroptera argentina new subspecies.

Male.—Length about 3.5 mm.; wing 3.8–4 mm.

As in typical *macroptera* (Philippi), differing in the details of structure of the male hypopygium, especially the gonapophyses. Hypopygium with the outer dististyle only moderately expanded at apex, the latter with about a dozen teeth. Inner dististyle slightly longer, appearing as a flattened lobe that narrows gradually to the obtuse tip. Gonapophyses appearing as flattened blades that have about the same size and somewhat the same shape as the inner dististyle, the outer margin with numerous teeth, those toward the base longer and more conspicuous; upper surface of apophysis with smaller denticles. In typical *macroptera* (Chile), the apophyses appear as slender blades, the apical third glabrous and only about one-half as wide as the inner dististyle, the more basal portions of the apophysis with relatively few, very coarse teeth.

Habitat.—Argentina.

Holotype, ♂, Hornadita, Province of Jujuy, altitude 3,400 meters, November 30, 1919 (Vladimir Weiser). Paratypes, 1 ♂, 1 ♀, Bolson, Province of Catamarca, altitude 2,700–2,750 meters, March 7–9, 1924 (Weiser); 1 ♂, Province of Buenos Aires (C. Bruch).

The late Doctor Bruch (Physis, 17 : 47 ; 1939) records the species *macroptera* from La Plata, Delta of the Paraná, Rio Negro and Mendoza. It is presumed that these further records, at least in part, pertain to the present subspecies. In an earlier paper, Bruch (l.c., 17 : 26–28 ; 1939) provides a detailed account, with figures, of the immature stages of this same fly.

A CORRECTION

In the issue of this JOURNAL, Vol. LII, June, 1944, pages 193–199, under the title "A Re-Survey of Papaipema," there was given a contemplated list arrangement of the Papaipema species.

It has developed that in this list a form name, "*ochroptenoides* Benj.," there given as a variety of *P. circumlucens* Sm., was never validated and should be eliminated.

Ample proof of the matter has been furnished by Dr. Carl Heinrich, and Dr. J. McDunnough called attention to the probable error concerning "*ochroptenoides.*"

It may be further remarked that a synonym of *Papaipema frigida Sm., perobsoleta* Lyman, was omitted, also the synonym *imperturbata* Bird, a dwarf form of *P. necopina* Grt., was not listed. Both these synonyms were shortly given their correct status in American literature.—Henry Bird.

THE STATUS AND FUNCTIONS OF THE INTERNATIONAL COMMISSION ON ZOOLOGICAL NOMENCLATURE AND THE PRESENT STATE OF ITS WORK

By Karl Jordan, Ph.D., F.R.S.
President of the International Commission

The International Commission on Zoological Nomenclature was established by the Third International Congress of Zoology at its meeting held at Leyden in 1895. The functions then assigned to the International Commission were to study existing unofficial Codes and to make proposals to a later meeting of the International Congress for the establishment of an International Code of Zoological Nomenclature.

After six years' work, the International Commission submitted a draft International Code to the Fifth International Congress of Zoology, by whom the proposed Code was adopted, with certain amendments, at its meeting held at Berlin in 1901. The preparation of the authoritative French text of the Code and of the official English and German translations thereof was completed in 1904 and the three texts were published in 1905.

At Boston in 1907 the Seventh International Congress of Zoology authorised the International Commission to render *Opinions* on questions of interpretation arising from the practical application of the Code. At Monaco in 1913, the functions of the International Commission were extended in two important directions by the decision of the Ninth International Congress of Zoology (i) to confer upon the International Commission the power to suspend the rules in cases where the strict application of the rules would clearly result in greater confusion than uniformity and (ii) to entrust the International Commission with the duty of compiling the *Official List of Generic Names in Zoology.*

As originally constituted, the International Commission consisted of five Commissioners, but in 1898 this number was increased to fifteen. Later it was decided to increase the number of Commissioners to eighteen, the present number. Members of the International Commission are elected by the International Congress of Zoology, one-third of the Commission (*i.e.*, six Commissioners) retiring at each meeting of the Congress. Retiring Commissioners are eligible for immediate re-election. Vacancies occurring between meetings of the International Congress may be filled by the International Commission itself.

The International Commission have always attached great importance to securing that the principal countries should be represented on the Commission and that, subject to this consideration, the membership of the Commission should include one or more specialists in each of the main divisions of the Animal Kingdom. At the outbreak of war in 1939, the distribution of seats on the International Commission, as between the various countries, was as follows: the United States (4 Commissioners); the United Kingdom (3 Commissioners); Germany (2 Commissioners); and Argentina, Australia, Brazil, Canada, France, Hungary, Italy, Japan and Poland (1 Commissioner each).

The present state of war makes it impossible for the Secretary of the International Commission to communicate with certain of the members of the International Commission, and in consequence it will not be possible for the International Commission to make use of their plenary powers to suspend the rules in any given case until after the war is over, since unanimity in the Commission is required for the use of these powers. In all other matters, the International Commission is empowered to act by a majority and, therefore, can take—and is taking—decisions, notwithstanding the present state of war.

Shortly before the outbreak of the present war, the late Dr. C. W. Stiles resigned the Secretaryship (though not his membership) of the International Commission on grounds of ill-health and on the election of his successor, Mr. Francis Hemming, the present Secretary, the headquarters of the International Commission were transferred from Washington to London. This change rendered it necessary to make new administrative arrangements, including the transfer of the records of the Commission, the raising of funds for the printing of the Commission's publications, etc. At the outbreak of war in 1939, for a time operations had to be suspended, but in 1942 arrangements were made to resume activities and during the two years that have since elapsed a record number of publications has been issued by the International Commission.

The publications of the International Commission consist of (i) the *Opinions and Declarations* of the Commission, of which together 167 have so far been published, and (ii) the *Bulletin of Zoological Nomenclature.* Thirty-seven *Opinions* and *Declarations* have been published by the International Commission under the new arrangements and many other are awaiting publication and will be issued as soon as possible. In addition, a start is being made in the publication of an annotated edition of the older *Opinions,* the original issue of which has long been exhausted. The *Bulletin of Zoological Nomenclature* was founded in 1943 as the Official Organ of the International Commission to serve as a medium for the publication of cases submitted to the Commission for deliberation and decision, thereby affording zoologists of all countries an opportunity of commenting on any such proposal before any decision is taken on it by the International Commission.

In addition, the International Commission have made arrangements to publish as soon as possible both the *Official List of Generic Names in Zoology* and an up-to-date edition of the International Code of Zoological Nomenclature. The first of these has never previously been published in book form, while of the latter there does not exist any edition containing the latest amendments approved by the International Congress of Zoology.

The publications of the International Commission are obtainable from the Commission's Publications Office, 41, Queen's Gate. London, S.W. 7.

MEMBERS OF THE NEW YORK ENTOMOLOGICAL SOCIETY

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Generic names begin with capital letters. New genera, subgenera, species, subspecies, varieties and new names are printed in italics.

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The meetings of the Society are held on the first and third Tuesday of each month (except June, July, August and September) at 8 P. M., in the AMERICAN MUSEUM OF NATURAL HISTORY, 79th St., & Central Park W., New York, N. Y.

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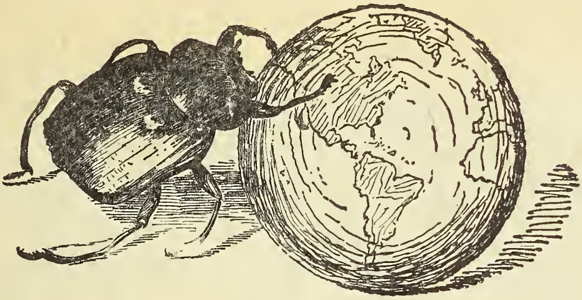

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THE DISTRIBUTION AND ABUNDANCE OF THE JAPANESE BEETLE FROM 1935 THROUGH 1943, WITH A DISCUSSION OF SOME OF THE KNOWN FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE ITS BEHAVIOR

By I. M. Hawley and T. N. Dobbins

Bureau of Entomology and Plant Quarantine, Agricultural Research Administration, United States Department of Agriculture

It has been 10 years since a paper treating of the distribution and abundance of the Japanese beetle (*Popillia japonica* Newm.) has been published. During this 10-year period the insect has been subjected to a variety of climatic conditions and has encountered a wide range of physiographic types that have influenced its behavior. The reaction of the beetle to the conditions encountered in its spread, the variations in its abundance, and the factors responsible for changes in numbers are discussed in this paper.

CHANGES IN THE GENERALLY INFESTED AREA AND FACTORS INFLUENCING THE RATE OF SPREAD

The progressive dispersal of the Japanese beetle in the United States prior to 1934 has been treated in several papers by Henry Fox (1, 2, 3),[1] who also carried on adult-beetle surveys within the generally infested area in 1934 and 1935. As pointed out by Fox (3), the total range of the Japanese beetle in the United States falls naturally into two subdivisions, the smaller of these consist-

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[1] Numbers in parentheses refer to Literature Cited.

ing of an area, known as the area of general distribution, in which the beetle is present at nearly all points with suitable environmental conditions; whereas in the larger subdivision, or peripherally infested zone lying beyond this generally infested area, beetles occur only in localized colonies of various sizes separated by extensive areas free from the pest. Fox designated this large peripheral zone as the area of discontinuous infestation, but in recent years it has been more generally referred to as the outer zone. These two areas, as found in 1943, are shown graphically in Figure 1. Surveys of adult-beetle abundance were carried on in the area of general distribution each year from 1925 through 1939 by the staff of the Moorestown, N. J., laboratory of the Bureau of Entomology and Plant Quarantine, United States Department of Agriculture. In 1940 there was no scouting of this type, and since 1941 surveys have been more restricted and less thorough because of personnel and travel limitations; their continuance has been possible only because of the active cooperation

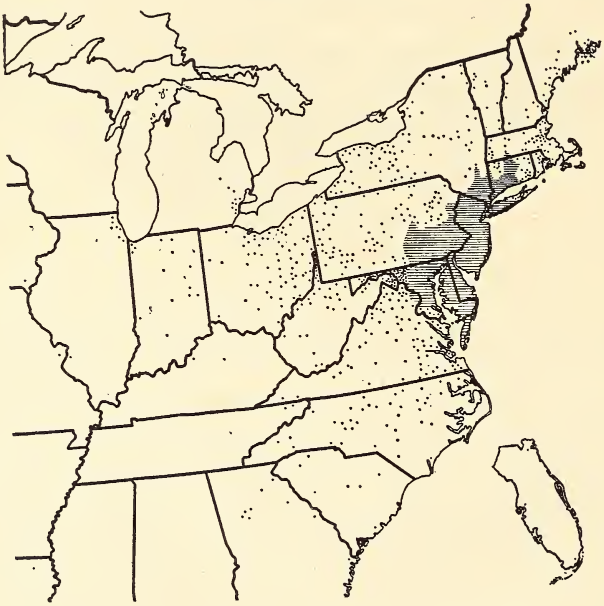

FIG. 1. Dots indicate all known points in the outer zone at which the Japanese beetle has been found prior to and during the summer of 1943.

of entomological agencies in the states involved. Information relative to conditions in the outer zone has been obtained largely from the trapping activities of the Division of Japanese Beetle Control, of the Bureau.

The area of general distribution has gradually developed to its present extent by the spread of the beetle, largely by flight, from the original point of introduction in this country near Riverton, in west-central New Jersey. This dispersal has taken place in all directions over a period of more than 25 years, until at the close of the 1943 summer season the pest had covered an area of roughly 29,200 square miles and had invaded eight states and the District of Columbia (Fig. 2). The growth of the area of gen-

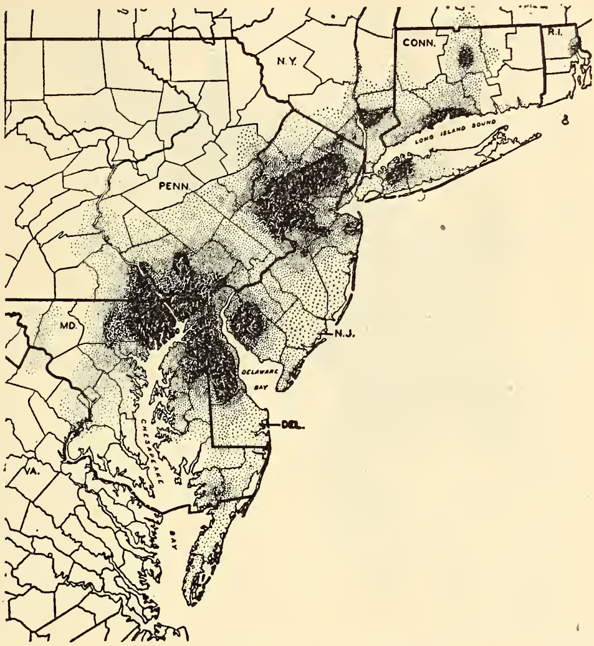

FIG. 2. The area of general distribution of the Japanese beetle in the summer of 1943.

NOTE. In figures 2, 4, 5, 6, and 7 the relative abundance of the beetle is shown by the closeness of the dots in stippled areas. The single dots beyond the limits of the area of general distribution in figures 5 and 6 mark the locations of isolated beetle infestations.

eral distribution is shown graphically in Figure 3, and the progressive increase in the size of the infested area is shown in table 1.

In recent years one of the most significant factors involved in the progressive increase of the area of general distribution has been the absorption by this area in its outward spread of a number of extensive secondary centers of dispersal, which have developed independently of the primary infestation. The largest of these secondary centers have evolved, not from single isolated infestations, but from numbers of such infestations which have united to form extensive tracts of generally infested territory.

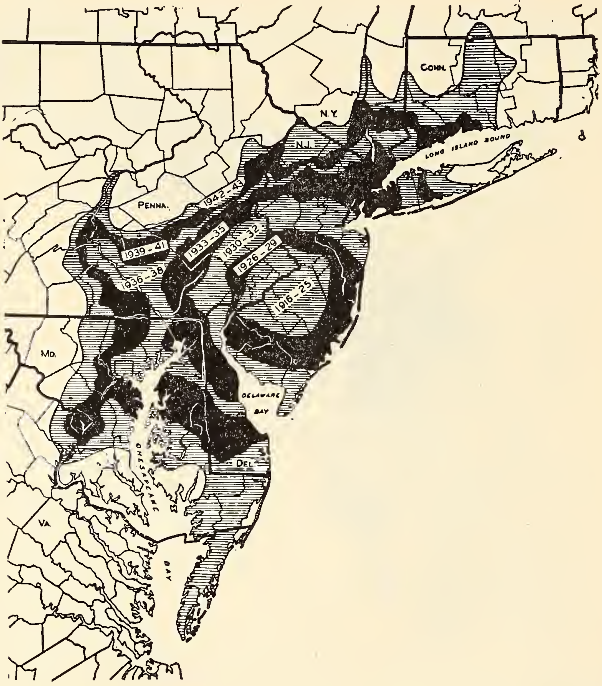

FIG. 3. Progressive changes in the outer limit of the area of general distribution of the Japanese beetle from 1925 through the summer of 1943.

The largest secondary center of dispersal has been that in the parts of Maryland and Virginia lying east of Chesapeake Bay (Figs. 2 and 4). The infestation there originally consisted of a number of local colonies which had fused to such an extent that, when this area merged with the area of general distribution in 1942, all the Eastern Shore of Maryland and Virginia except one relatively small tract was involved. The same type of situation existed when the fringe of the generally infested area, which had been moving north in Connecticut above New Haven, met and united with a strong local colony that had existed around Hartford for a long time, and when this latter colony, in turn, joined one spreading south from Springfield, Mass. (Figs. 2 and 4).

TABLE 1

INCREASE IN SIZE OF AREA OF GENERAL DISTRIBUTION OF THE JAPANESE BEETLE, BY STATES, FROM 1935 THROUGH 1943

State	Estimated infested area (square miles)				
	1935	1937	1939	1941	1943
New Jersey	6,460	6,980	7,250	7,431	8,224
Pennsylvania	3,100	4,358	5,013	6,114	7,169
Delaware	670	946	1,064	1,550	1,965
Maryland	480	664	1,546	3,016	5,887
New York	690	858	1,141	1,722	2,418
Connecticut	....	45	286	620	2,200
District of Columbia	....	....	....	62	62
Virginia	....	....	....	85	1,085
Massachusetts	....	....	....	....	190
Total infested area	11,400	13,851	16,300	20,600	29,200
Increase in area	....	2,451	2,449	4,300	8,600

These large additions were largely responsible for the sizeable increase in the area of general distribution between 1941 and 1943, as shown in Table 1. There have been other instances of this kind in earlier years, when the area centering about Harrisburg, Pa., was added in 1937 (Fig. 5) and when the spread of the area of general distribution to the southwest below Baltimore reached and united with a local infestation about Washington, D. C., in 1941 (Fig. 4). In many instances, however, these isolated colonies were so small that their addition to the area of general distribution would not have been recognized had not the area involved been scouted just before the map was prepared.

Topography, or rather a complex of factors conditioned by topography, is becoming an increasingly important influence on the natural dispersal of the Japanese beetle. The rate of spread of the insect was fairly uniform in the earlier years, owing largely to the fact that the dispersal at that time was through fairly uniform terrain. As the spread has progressed inland to the north and west, however, the beetle has reached the eastern rim of the Appalachian Mountains, which extend in a northeastern-southwestern direction across Pennsylvania, northern New Jersey, and southeastern New York. By 1943 the outer limit of dispersal had either reached or had begun to penetrate this mountain system in

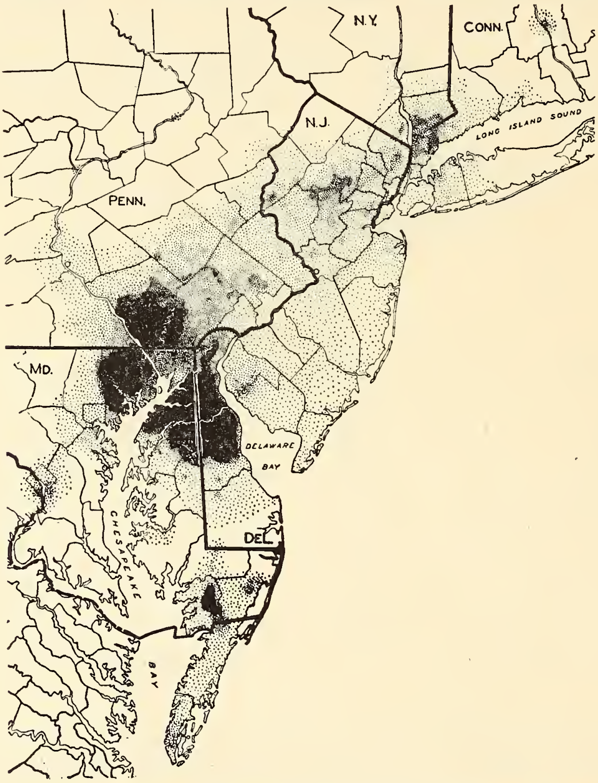

FIG. 4. The area of general distribution of the Japanese beetle in the summer of 1941. The extent of certain large isolated centers of beetle dispersal in the outer zone is shown by stippling.

all three states (Fig. 2). Observations here and at other points have shown that such physical barriers, although not permanent obstacles, do markedly retard the rate of beetle dispersal.

The physiography of the easternmost part of the Appalachian Mountains in Pennsylvania is characterized by a series of approximately parallel, heavily wooded ridges separated by narrow valleys, the ridges rarely rising more than 600 to 800 feet above the immediate lowlands. Occasionally these ridges are bisected by river valleys of various sizes and by natural breaks known as gaps. It is becoming increasingly evident that the dispersal of the Japanese beetle has been more rapid up these valleys and through the gaps than in the rougher, higher terrain. In 1943 the infestation extending up the Susquehanna River in Pennsylvania could be considered continuous as far as Sunbury, a penetration of roughly 50 miles into the Appalachian Mountain sys-

FIG. 5. The area of general distribution of the Japanese beetle in the summer of 1937.

tem, while in the lower Hudson River Valley in New York the beetle had made its way through the bordering semimountainous country to a point some distance above Poughkeepsie (Fig. 2). The spread to the north through Connecticut has largely followed the Connecticut River Valley. Thus the outline of the area of general distribution, which in earlier years was roughly arcuate in shape, is becoming progressively irregular, being characterized by prominent arms or streamers that extend outward through the river valleys.

In 1935 it was estimated by Fox (4) that the area of general distribution covered 11,400 square miles. It included the northern half of Delaware, the extreme northeastern part of Maryland around the head of Chesapeake Bay, the greater portion of the open, rolling farming country lying east of the lower reaches of the Susquehanna River and southeast of the Appalachian Mountains in Pennsylvania, and all of New Jersey except the extreme northwestern part (Fig. 6). In New York State the generally infested area included Staten Island and the metropolitan area of New York City, and extended some distance up the Hudson River Valley; beetles were also present over the western fourth of Long Island.

By 1937 beetles had spread over much of the northern two-thirds of Delaware, and there had been some dispersal to the west and south in extreme northeastern Maryland (Fig. 5). There had been a movement up the Susquehanna River in southeastern Pennsylvania that had reached and joined a group of isolated infestations centering about Harrisburg. In Pennsylvania to the east of this area there had been only a moderate dispersal beyond the outer limits noted in 1935. Similarly, in New Jersey the dispersal had been rather slow in the semimountainous area in the northwestern part of the State. There had been a slight spread up the Hudson River Valley in New York and to the east on Long Island. The State of Connecticut had been invaded for the first time when the area of general distribution moved into the southwest corner.

On the maps for 1935 and 1937 (Figs. 6 and 5, respectively) the larger isolated colonies that lie in the outer zone just beyond the area of general distribution are designated by single dots; on later maps only a few of the more important colonies are shown, and the extent of these is indicated by the limits of the stippled areas.

By 1939 there had been a moderate dispersal to the south in Delaware and eastern Maryland; to the west in Maryland the spread had carried the beetle beyond the city of Baltimore; and in Pennsylvania the Susquehanna River had been crossed from the Maryland State line to a point well above Harrisburg (Fig. 7). As in previous years, there had been only a slight movement to the northwest in the Appalachian Mountains in Pennsylvania and New Jersey, and only the normal spread had occurred up the

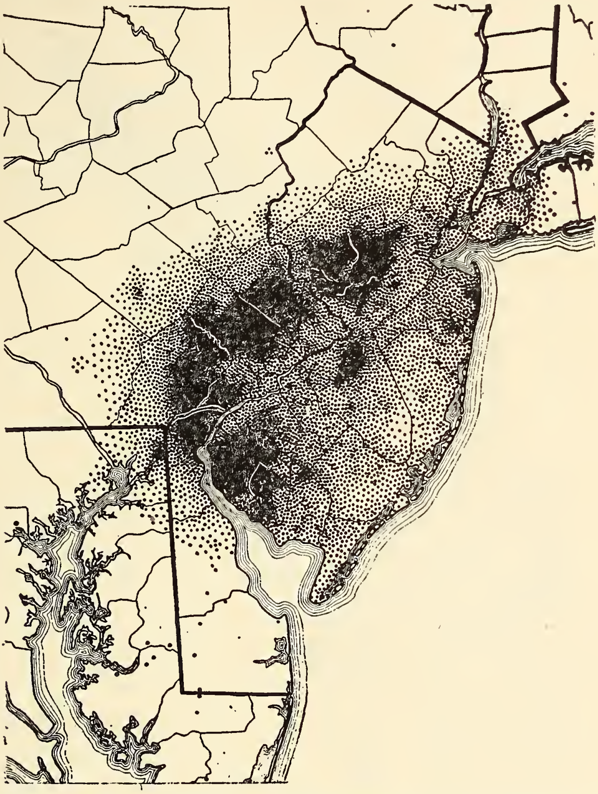

Fig. 6. The area of general distribution or the area generally infested by the Japanese beetle in the summer of 1935.

Hudson River Valley and to the east on Long Island, in New York State. There had been a pronounced eastward dispersal in Connecticut along Long Island Sound, resulting from the inclusion of several local infestations in the area of general distribution. The presence of a large isolated center of dispersal on the Eastern Shore of Virginia and in southeastern Maryland is indicated on the map for 1939 (Fig. 7). There were other local colonies in this area, especially to the southward in Virginia, but, as only a partial survey of this area was made in 1939, their extent at that time was uncertain.

FIG. 7. The area of general distribution of the Japanese beetle in the summer of 1939.

By 1941 all but the extreme southern part of Delaware had become infested by the Japanese beetle, and the isolated center of dispersal on the Eastern Shore of Maryland and Virginia had increased in size until it had almost reached the lower fringe of the area of general distribution just to the north (Fig. 4). The main infested area in Maryland had spread southwestward beyond Baltimore and had united with an isolated colony centering about Washington, D. C., by a slender strip that followed the main Baltimore-to-Washington highway. There had been considerable dispersal to the westward in Pennsylvania through the open country west of the Susquehanna River and a slight though gradual spread northwestward in most of the Appalachian Mountain region. At one point near the New Jersey State line there had been a penetration through the Delaware Water Gap into the higher country beyond. Up the Hudson River Valley in New York State the beetle had spread beyond Newburgh and it had covered roughly half of Long Island in its sweep to the east. In Connecticut the dispersal to the east had carried the insect well beyond New Haven, and north of there a strong local colony was developing and spreading south from Hartford.

In 1943 all of Delaware was in the area of general distribution and the spread of the beetle to the south had met and joined the previously large isolated center of dispersal occupying the Eastern Shore of Maryland. This new area was found to be continuous to the extreme tip of the Eastern Shore of Virginia (Fig. 2). There was only one small section of Maryland east of Chesapeake Bay that the beetle had not reached; on the western side of the bay the insect could be found everywhere well below the latitude of Washington, D. C. There is some question as to the exact location of the western border of the area of general distribution in Maryland in 1943, as this part of the state was not carefully scouted, and, as may be seen from the map, there is a large isolated center of dispersal to the west that may possibly have become joined to the generally infested zone at some point. The spread to the west in southeastern Pennsylvania west of the Susquehanna River had continued and it will probably move rapidly in the future, as this open, fertile farming country is well fitted to support a heavy beetle population. Beetles were found along both banks of the Susquehanna River as far as Sunbury, where a local colony has existed for some years. By 1943 all the open farming country in southeastern Pennsylvania south and east of the Appalachian Mountains was generally infested, and at several points the insect had begun to penetrate this mountain system. In 1943 all of New Jersey was placed in the area of general distribution for the first time. In New York State the Hudson River Valley became infested beyond Poughkeepsie and beetles may now be found in the hilly terrain near the Connecticut State line beyond Pawling. There had been a steady dispersal to the east on Long Island, slower in the central part than in the shore areas because this inland section is unfavorable for beetle spread and development. As already noted, there had been a marked increase in the infested area in Connecticut since 1941, for, in addition to a considerable dispersal to the east, there had been a spread up the Connecticut River Valley in which the area of general distribution moving north from New Haven had met and united with the strong isolated infestation that had been moving down from Hartford for several years. North of Hartford there had been fusion with a dispersal center that had been moving south from Springfield, Mass.

By the end of the 1943 beetle season the area of general distribution was estimated at 29,200 square miles. This is more than twice the size of the continuous area in 1937, when 13,851 square miles were infested. It required from 1916 to 1937, a period of 21 years, to cover a smaller area than has been covered in the 6 years from 1937 through 1943. As previously noted, this striking increase came about largely as a result of the inclusion in the area of general distribution of a number of large isolated centers of dispersal. It is of interest that the extreme outer limits of general dispersal to the south, Cape Charles, Va., and to the north, Springfield, Mass., are each approximately 200 miles from the seat of the original infestation in this country near Riverton, N. J., while some of the more remote points of dispersal to the northwestward into the mountainous section of Pennsylvania are only about 75 miles away.

It will be noted that the distribution maps which accompany this paper are not all on the same scale and that there are differences in their structural make-up. This is because these maps have been drawn by different persons and because the size of each map had to be adjusted to cover the limits of the area of general distribution as found at the time.

BEETLE ABUNDANCE IN THE AREA OF GENERAL DISTRIBUTION AND CLIMATIC AND BIOTIC FACTORS THAT CAUSE CHANGES IN NUMBERS

The abundance of the Japanese beetle at any point is dependent on many factors, among the more important of which are the age of the infestation, the type of habitat, which includes the availability of favored food plants and suitable places for oviposition, the amount of summer rainfall, and the presence or absence of predaceous and parasitic insects and pathogenic microorganisms. It is not within the scope of this paper to go into all these subjects in detail, as they have been treated in other publications (4, 5, 8, 9), but influences known to have been especially active in the years 1935 through 1943 will be briefly discussed.

When the Japanese beetle first spreads into new territory, so few are to be found that it is necessary to search the more favored food plants carefully to locate them. This would be the condition along the outer fringe of the area of general distribution. From this small start the population will gradually increase for a number of years until, if conditions are favorable, beetles will be present in highly destructive numbers; eventually the population will decline until a more or less stable condition at a lower level is reached. The abundance of the insect at any place, therefore, will depend to some extent on the age of the infestation or the position of the given place in the above cycle.

The Japanese beetle has been found to thrive in suburban residential areas where there are plenty of garden and shade-tree hosts and an abundance of thrifty turf for oviposition; beetle colonies also flourish in agricultural areas having good loamy soil, an abundance of pasture land, and plenty of food plants in the form of fruit trees, cultivated crops, or favored weed hosts. Beetles do not usually develop to great numbers in densely wooded regions, in neglected land overgrown with plants that are unattractive as food, or in places with a very light type of soil. Beetle concentrations will depend to some extent, therefore, on the environmental conditions encountered as the insect moves into new areas (5, 8). It should be noted, however, that strong beetle colonies have been found in some locations that would appear to be unfavorable for their development, showing that the beetle has great adaptability.

The amount of rainfall during the summer months, when eggs and newly hatched larvæ predominate in the soil, has an important bearing on the size of the beetle population the following year, because the eggs need an abundance of moisture to complete their embryological development (4, 6). The rainfall at any point varies greatly from year to year and, as precipitation in summer is often in the form of local showers, there may be plenty of moisture in the soil at one point and a deficiency at places nearby. In the Philadelphia area the critical period for eggs in the soil is roughly from July 1 to August 10, as soil surveys have shown that nearly 95 per cent of the eggs in an average season are found during this time; at points south of Philadelphia this period occurs earlier, and it is slightly later farther north. Variations in rainfall can therefore cause marked fluctuations in the beetle population.

Insect parasites of the different stadia have, at least locally, an influence on the size of the beetle populations. Under varying, limited environmental conditions parasitic nematodes, fungus diseases, and an undetermined number of bacterial diseases may also become highly important factors in reducing the soil population. In restricted areas predators, such as birds, skunks, mice, and moles, are often active in destroying various stages of the beetle (5).

Of the various factors effecting a measure of biotic control of the Japanese beetle, however, probably the most widespread and generally effective is a group of bacterial pathogens that produce the condition known as milky disease of beetle larvæ. The infective stage of this group in the soil is a bacterial spore which is well adapted to survive under a wide variety of environmental conditions, because it is highly resistant to desiccation and can maintain its viability and infectiousness over a period of several years and then be able to transmit the disease to other larvæ that ingest the spores along with soil particles in feeding. When diseased larvæ die, the infective spores that fill the body cavity are left in the soil and, in places with high larval populations, the spore concentration increases so rapidly that milky diseases become an increasingly important factor in keeping the population of the insect at a low level.

Following several years with favorable climatic conditions and in the absence of a strong concentration of milky disease spores in the soil, the Japanese beetle by 1935 had become abundant over much of the infested area in New Jersey and eastern Pennsylvania, as is evident from the extent of the closely stippled and dark areas on the distribution map for that year (Fig. 6). In the more heavily stippled areas obvious foliage injury would be of general occurrence and locally there would be extremely severe damage. From this destructive condition there would be a gradation to one of only slight feeding in the lightly stippled areas along the lower Atlantic coast, where beetles have rarely been present in destructive numbers. The feeding habits and food plants of the beetle are treated in a circular by Hawley and Metzger (8).

In the interval between the summer of 1935 and that of 1937 climatic conditions had a marked reducing effect on beetle populations (Fig. 5). The summer of 1936 was warmer than usual and also deficient in rainfall during July in the section of New Jersey north of Trenton and the contiguous part of Pennsylvania to the west. Elsewhere in the area of general distribution precipitation was rather uneven in 1936, and, as a result, infestations in 1937 tended to vary greatly in intensity. In January and February, 1936, there was an extended period when low temperatures combined with abnormal soil moisture brought about the most widespread mortality of hibernating larvæ that has occurred since the beetle first became established in this country. As noted in a paper by Hawley and Dobbins (7), this winter-killing occurred largely in the southern half of New Jersey, in southeastern Pennsylvania, and at certain points in Delaware and Maryland. The combination of these unfavorable weather conditions resulted in a marked drop in the beetle population in much of the infested area by the summer of 1937.

Rainfall was far below normal in July and August, 1937, in the southern half of New Jersey, and the already depleted beetle population was still further reduced. Elsewhere in 1937 and everywhere in 1938 rainfall was adequate for the favorable development of the insect, and by the summer of 1939 an increase in beetles at most points was clearly evident. The highest concentrations continued to exist in southeastern Pennsylvania, northeastern Maryland, and northern Delaware (Fig. 7).

In 1939 and 1940 summer rainfall was below normal in parts of northern New Jersey and in all of southern New Jersey, and by 1941 the infestation in the southwestern part of the State, where a few years before beetles had been more destructive than elsewhere in the country, had markedly decreased from that observed in former years. Numbers were also reduced in Pennsylvania, except in the densely infested zone in the southeastern corner of the State. This same high concentration of the insect was apparently also maintained in northern Delaware and northeastern Maryland. In the isolated infested area in southeastern Maryland beetles were also present in considerable numbers and there were increases at some points in southeastern New York (Fig. 4).

In both 1941 and 1942 there was a return to a condition of at least normal summer rainfall, and this was accompanied by increases in the beetle population throughout most of the enlarged area of general distribution. The infestation in southwestern New Jersey showed a remarkable increase in intensity, and there were larger areas of high beetle concentration in northern New Jersey, in parts of Connecticut, and in Pennsylvania, Delaware, and Maryland, as well as on Long Island (Fig. 2). The current trend appears to be toward the development of several large heavily infested tracts separated by more lightly infested zones. In any of the darker areas on the more recent maps severe foliage injury would be general.

In discussing changes in beetle abundance from 1935 through 1943 the influence of summer rainfall has been stressed, not because it is the only factor involved but because it is the one best understood. At the beginning of this period the organisms causing milky disease were present locally in the oldest infested area about Philadelphia, but diseased larvæ were found rarely, if at all, in the more remote parts of the area of general distribution. There has been some natural dispersal of milky disease infection during the period from 1935 to date which has carried the organism into new areas, but this spread has not kept pace with the natural dispersion of the beetle. For this reason the bacterial pathogens that cause the most prevalent type A disease have been introduced at many points throughout the beetle-infested states in an extensive colonizing program carried out by the Moorestown, N. J., laboratory in cooperation with entomological agencies in the states involved (13, 14). As shown by soil surveys discussed in papers by White (10, 11) and by White and Dutky (12), the type A disease has become so well established at many points that it is now an important factor in reducing the soil population of the Japanese beetle. The widespread distribution of this disease was not started until 1939 and, as it is possible to treat only a relatively small percentage of the land in any given area with the limited spore material available, it is still too soon to expect large reductions in beetle populations at the more recent points of introduction. Soil surveys have shown, however, that there is such a high incidence of disease at certain points in Connecticut, New York, Delaware, and Maryland, where treatments were applied early in the distribution program, that recent reductions in beetles in these areas are undoubtedly due to this cause. As already noted, spore concentrations of milky disease in the soil increase rapidly in the presence of high larval populations; therefore this disease should become an even more effective agent as time goes on.

The situation in southwestern New Jersey deserves especial consideration. It has been possible to trace the yearly changes in the soil population in this area by surveys made by the personnel of the Moorestown laboratory. Several years ago, when beetles were plentiful in this area, spores of the milky disease built up to a high concentration; later, when a marked drop in the larval population occurred, the disease still persisted, although a smaller number of the infected larvæ were recovered. This was the condition in 1940, but, following two summers with favorable rainfall, the larval population had greatly increased by 1943 and the disease incidence had become so high that this factor alone undoubtedly would have brought the soil population down to a much lower level. However, the summer of 1943 was again extremely dry, and this will also tend to reduce the beetle concentration in this area in 1944. Apparently, therefore, there are two main agencies operating to bring about changes in the soil population, one of which, the milky disease, when once established, continues to build up and increase in effectiveness as a control measure; whereas the other, summer rainfall, is an uncertain, fluctuating factor that may bring about either an increase or a decrease in numbers. These two factors working together are probably responsible for most of the larger changes in population density. As already noted, other agencies that go to make up the biotic complex are operative, but the area in which they occur is usually more restricted. There is some evidence that at certain places, in the outer zone to the north, unrecognized factors are at work, therefore the picture of population changes, as we know it now, is still far from complete.

STATUS OF THE BEETLE IN THE ISOLATED COLONIES OF THE OUTER ZONE

In the outer zone, beyond the limits of the area of general distribution, the Japanese beetle occurs in isolated colonies of various sizes with uninfested areas in between. These colonies exist because at some time in the past beetles were carried to these points by automobile, train, airplane, or in the transportation of plants or other materials (5, 9). Every known point where beetles have been found in the outer zone is indicated by a dot on the map in Figure 1. In some places, as in Bratenahl, a section of Cleveland, Ohio, and at Providence, R. I., Richmond, Va., and Asheville, N. C., these colonies have increased in size and strength over a period of years until beetles are now present in destructive numbers. At many points shown on the map only a few beetles were originally found and in some places it was impossible to find any beetles when these locations were checked by trapping or scouting. For example, 1 beetle was found at Fort Madison, Iowa, the most western point, in the summer of 1937 and none has been taken since. At 3 locations in Florida that are shown on the map a total of 10 beetles have been taken in 2 trapping seasons and there is no evidence that permanent colonies now exist in this state. A combined scouting and suppression program is carried on in the outer zone each year by the Division of Japanese

Beetle Control of the Bureau of Entomology and Plant Quarantine, in cooperation with state regulatory agencies. As a part of this program traps are operated at key locations in many states and information is thus obtained as to the presence or absence of the insect at these remote points. The presence of beetles at most of the locations shown on the map (Fig. 1) was discovered in these trapping operations. Beetles have been taken at only a few of the many places that have been trapped. At many points in the outer zone an effort is being made to eradicate these local infestations by treating the soil with lead arsenate to destroy the larvæ as they feed. Trapping in these treated places has shown that a good control has been obtained and few beetles will now be found at most such places.

It is not within the scope of this paper to consider how far the Japanese beetle will eventually spread in this country or what its status as a pest will be in its future range. This subject has been ably treated in a paper by Fox (4) published in 1939, and most of the evidence obtained since this time indicates that the insect will be able to maintain itself in most of the Eastern States, as Fox predicted, and that in much of its new range it could build up to destructive numbers. It is pointed out by Hawley (6) that under the colder climatic conditions in the northern part of the outer zone the seasonal cycle of the insect is so modified that it will probably not become so numerous or destructive there as it has farther south. Some uncertainty still exists as to how the beetle will react in the coastal sections of the extreme Southern States with their lighter types of soil, the higher temperatures, the prolonged periods of scanty rainfall, and the differences in vegetation. Sufficient evidence is available, however, to show that the Japanese beetle can eventually disperse into the outer zone well beyond the present limits of the area of general distribution before encountering any effective barrier to its successful establishment.

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CHECK-LIST OF PSYCHODIDÆ OF SOUTH AND CENTRAL AMERICA[1]

BY WILLIAM F. RAPP, JR.

This check-list, which has been compiled after a careful study of the entomological literature, includes all species described up to December 31, 1943. It covers Central America south of the United States, all of South America and the West Indies. Based upon zoögeographical division, this area would be considered the Neotropical Realm.

At least 47
[illegible]

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busckana Dyar, Inc. Ins. Mens., Vol. 14, p. 107.
Martinique.

chilensis Tonnoir, Dipt. Patagonia and S. Chile, pt. 2, p. 14.
Chile.

complicata Tonnoir, Dipt. Patagonia and S. Chile, pt. 2, p. 15.
Chile.

contigua Tonnoir, Dipt. Patagonia and S. Chile, pt. 2, p. 24.
Chile.

fenestrata Tonnoir, Dipt. Patagonia and S. Chile, pt. 2, p. 20.
Chile.

edwardsi Tonnoir, Dipt. Patagonia & S. Chile, pt. 2, p. 20.
Chile.

griseata Tonnoir, Dipt. Patagonia and S. Chile, pt. 2, p. 22.
Chile.

inornata Tonnoir, Dipt. Patagonia and S. Chile, pt. 2, p. 23.
Chile.

nigropunctata Schiner, Reise der Novara, Dipt., 1868, p. 29.
Brazil.

niveopunctata Tonnoir, Dipt. Patagonia and S. Chile, pt. 2, p. 18.
Chile.

pallidula Tonnoir, Dipt. Patagonia and S. Chile, pt. 2, p. 16.
Chile.

pictipennis Tonnoir, Ann. Soc. Ent. Belgique, Vol. 60, p. 155.
Jamaica.

simplex Tonnoir, Dipt. Patagonia and S. Chile, pt. 2, p. 25.
Chile.

speciosa Tonnoir, Dipt. Patagonia and S. Chile, pt. 2, p. 11.
Chile.

r *squamita~~x~~sis* Tonnoir, Dipt. Patagonia and S. Chile, pt. 2, p. 21.
Chile.

viduata Tonnoir, Dipt. Patagonia and S. Chile, pt, 2, p. 26.
Chile.

PLATYPLASTINX Enderlein

solox Enderlein, Dtsch. ent. Z., 1936, p. 107.
Costa Rica.

sordellii Shannon and Del Ponte, Rev. del Inst. Bact., Vol. 4 (1927), p. 730.
Argentina.

squamiventris Lutz and Neiva, Memorias do Instituto Oswaldo Cruz, Vol. 5 (1912), p. 89.
Brazil.

tejeraœ Larr., Travail Lab. Parasitologie Fac. Med. Paris, 1921, p. 71.
Venezuela.

PSYCHODA Latreille

alternata Say (*Tipula phalænoides* var. *Scop.*) (*Trichoptera phalænoides* Meig.) (*P. phalænoides* Meig.) (*P. sexpunctata* Curtis) (*P. marginepunctata* Roser) (*P. schizura* Kincaid) (*P. floridica* Haseman) (*P. nocturnala* Haseman) (*P. bengalensis* Brunetti) (*P. albimaculata* Welch) (*P. dakotensis* Dyar), Long's Exp. St. Peter's River, App., 1824.
West Indies: St. Vincent.

amplipenna Knab, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., Vol. 46, p. 103.
Cuba.

angustipennis Williston, Dipt. St. Vincent, p. 284.
West Indies: St. Vincent.

antennalis Williston, Dipt. St. Vincent, p. 283.
West Indies: St. Vincent.

dubia Bigot, Miss. Sci. Cap. Horn, Vol. 6 (1888), p. 4.
Cape Horn.

duripuncta Curran, Dept. Sci. and Agr. Jam. Ent. Bul. No. 4, pt. 3 (1928), App., p. 30.
Jamaica.

erecta Curran, Dept. Agr. Jam. Ent. Bul. No. 4, pt. 1, 2 (1926), App.
Jamaica.

fimbriatissima Blanchard, Gay hist. fisica de Chili, 1852, p. 468.
Chile.

fumata Knab, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., Vol. 46, p. 104.
Mexico.

grisescens Tonnoir, Ann. Soc. Ent. Belg., 62 (1922), pp. 87, 88.
Jamaica.

guianica Curran, Bul. Am. Mus. Nat. Hist., Vol. 66 (1934), p. 309.
British Guiana.

helicis Dyar, Proc. Ent. Soc. Wash., Vol. 31 (1929), p. 63.
Cuba.

hirtiventris, Tonnoir, Ann. Soc. Ent. Belgique, Vol. 60 (1920), p. 151.
Brazil.

hyalinata Blanchard, Gay hist. fisica de Chili, 1852, p. 468.
Chile.

incomplete Knab, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., Vol. 46, p. 105.
Panama.

interdicta Dyar, Proc. Ent. Soc. Wash., Vol. 30 (1928), p. 88.
West Indies: Santa Lucia, Gastries.

notata Blanchard, Gay hist. fisica de Chili, 1852, p. 468.
Chile.

pallens Williston, Dipt. St. Vincent, p. 283.
West Indies: St. Vincent.

pseudocompar Tonnoir, Dipt. Patagonia and S. Chile, pt. 2, p. 7.
Chile.

pulla Rondani, Arch. Canestr., Vol. 3 (1865), p. 90.
Chile.

punctata Philippi, Verh. zool. bot. Gesellsch., Vol. 15 (1865), p. 631.
Chile.

punctatella Townsend, Ann. and Mag. Nat. Hist., Vol. 19, p. 19.
Vera Cruz.

septempunctata Philippi, Verh. zool. bot. Gesellsch., Vol. 15 (1865), p. 631.
Chile.

simillima Tonnoir, Dipt. Patagonia and S. Chile, pt. 2, p. 8.
Bariloche.

stellulata Loew, Neue Beitr., Vol. 2 (1854).
Brazil.

subimmaculata Tonnoir, Dipt. Patagonia and S. Chile, pt. 2, p. 6.
Chile.

tenella Philippi, Verh. zool. bot. Gesellsch., Vol. 15, p. 631.
Chile.

tricolor Knab, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., Vol. 46, p. 105.
Panama.

venusta Weyembergh, Tijdschr. Ent., Vol. 29 (1886), p. 132.
Argentina.

SYCORAX Curtis

chilensis Tonnoir, Dipt. Patagonia and S. Chile, pt. 2, p. 31.
Chile.

SYNTOMOZA Enderlein

niveitarsis Enderlein, Dtsch. ent. Z., 1936, p. 89.
Peru.

TELMATOSCOPUS Eaton

albipunctatus (Willist.) (*Psychoda albipunctatus* Williston) (*T. meridionalis* Eaton) (*Psychoda snowii* Haseman), Ent. News, Vol. 5 (1893), p. 113.
Cosmopolitan:—Bahamas, Bermuda, Panama, Porto Rico, Haiti, Mexico, Costa Rica, British Guiana, Jamaica, Cuba, West Indies: St. Domingo, Tabago Islands, Trinidad.

TERMITADELPHOS Holmgren

silverstrii Holmgren, Zool. Ang., Vol. 29 (1905), p. 530.
Peru.

wasmanni Holmgren, Zool. Anz., Vol. 29 (1905), p. 533.
Peru.

TONNOIRA Enderlein

pelliticornis Enderlein, Dtsch. ent. Z., 1936, p. 106.
Peru.

TRICHOMYIA Curtis

cirrata Coquillett, Jour. N. Y. Ent. Soc., Vol. 10, p. 137.
Mexico.

edwardsi Tonnoir, Dipt. Patagonia and S. Chile, pt. 2, p. 29.
Chile.

NOTES ON MEXICAN BUTTERFLIES, V

F. Martin Brown

NYMPHALIDÆ, II

Tribe **Vanessidi**

323. **Nymphalis antiope** Linnaeus.

G. & S., **1**: 215; **2**: 682 (as *Vanessa*).
S., p. 457, pl. 93f.
H., p. 680.
Galeana, Nuevo Leon, 6500 ft., 1 ♀ vii.30.39 (H.H.).
El Sabino, Uruapan, Michoacan, 1 ♀ vii.15–30.36 (H.D.T.).

The Galeana specimen is battered, the other fresh.

324. **Vanessa atalanta** Linnaeus.

G. & S., **1**: 219 (as *Pyrameis*).
S., p. 458, pl. 94a.
H., p. 680.
Galeana, Nuevo Leon, 6500 ft., 1 ♂ viii.4.39 (H.H.).
Las Adjuntas, Nuevo Leon, 2500–3000 ft., 1 ♀ vi.21.40 (H.H.).
Orizaba, Vera Cruz, 2000 ft., 1 ♀ v.6.41 (R.P.).
Tancitaro, Michoacan, 6586 ft., 1 ♀ viii.11.40 (H.H.).

The Galeana and Orizaba specimens are fresh.

325. **Vanessa virginiensis** Drury.

S., p. 459, pl. 94b.
H., p. 680.
Hda. Vista Hermosa, Villa Santiago, Nuevo Leon, 1500 ft., 1 ♀ vi.18.40 (H.H.).

Tancitaro, Michoacan, 6586 ft., 1 ♀ vii.25.40 (H.H.).

326. **Vanessa cardui** Linnaeus.

G. & S., **1**: 217 (as *Pyrameis*).
S., p. 458.
H., p. 681.

Tancitaro, Michoacan, 6586 ft., 1 ♂ 2 ♀♀ vii.20–25.40 (H.H.).

These are worn specimens but they seem a little paler than those we take at the same altitude in Colorado.

328–9. **Junonia lavinia** Cramer.

Hoffmann separates this species into two, *cœnia* Hübner (328) and *genoveva* Cramer (329). I believe these to be nothing more than forms of *lavinia* Cramer, which name has several years priority over *genoveva*.

G. & S. **1**: 220; **2**: 684 (as *cœnia*).
S., p. 461–2, pl. 94d & e.
H., p. 681.
Sabinas Hidalgo, Nuevo Leon, 960 ft., 1 ♀ vi.25.39 (H.H.) (f. *cœnia*).
Galeana, Nuevo Leon, 6500 ft., 1 ♂ vii.1.39 (H.H.) (f. *lavinia*).
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 1 ♂ v.29.41 (R.P.) (f. *lavinia*).
El Bañito, Valles, San Luis Potosi, 200 ft., 1 ♀ vi.28.40 (H.H.) (f. *genoveva*).
Chichen Itza, Yucatan, 2 ♂♂ viii.30.36 (H.D.T.) (f. *lavinia*).
Sta. Lucrecia, 2 ♂♂ ix.24.39 (H.D.T.) (f. *genoveva*).
El Sabino, Uruapan, Michoacan, 3 ♂♂ 1 ♀ vii.15–30.36 (H.D.T.) (f. *cœnia*).

330. **Anartia jatrophe** Johannes.

G. & S., **1**: 221 (as *iatrophe*).
S., p. 462, pl. 94e.
H., p. 681.
Sabinas Hidalgo, Nuevo Leon, 960 ft., 1 ♀ vi.15.39 (H.H.).
Monterrey, Nuevo Leon, 1 ♀ vi.15.35 (H. A. Freeman).
60 mi. So. of Victoria, Tamaulipas, 3 ♂♂ 1 ♀ vii.6.36 (H.D.T.).
Jacala, Hidalgo, 4500 ft., 1 ♂ vii.11.39 (H.H.).
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft. 1 ♂ 3 ♀♀ v.28,41 (R.P.).

El Bañito, Valles, San Luis Potosi, 200 ft., 4 ♂♂ vi.27–28.40 (H.H.); 2 ♂♂ 1 ♀ iv.30.41 (R.P.).

El Pujal, San Luis Potosi, 100 ft., 3 ♂♂ vii.17–21.39 (H.H.).

Hda. Potrero Viejo, Paraje Nuevo, Vera Cruz, 1500 ft., 1 ♂ v.5.41 (R.P.).

Rio Blanco, Vera Cruz, 2200 ft., 1 ♀ v. 10.41 (R.P.).

Sta. Lucrecia, 1 ♂ 1 ♀ ix.24.39 (H.D.T.).

El Capirie, Michoacan, 500 ft., 1 ♂ 1 ♀ viii.3.40 (H.H.).

El Sabino, Uruapan, Michoacan, 3 ♂♂ 1 ♀ vii.15–30.36 (H.D.T.).

331. **Anartia fatima** Fabricius.

G. & S., **1**: 222.

S., p. 463, pl. 94f.

H., p. 681.

Galeana, Nuevo Leon, 6500 ft., 3 ♂♂ iv.29.41 (R.P.) (f. *albifaciata*).

nr. Villagran, Tamaulipas, 1160 ft., 1 ♂ vi.28.41 (R.P.) (f. *albifaciata*).

C. Victoria, Tamaulipas, 1 ♀ vi.19.39 (H. A. Freeman) (f. *albifaciata*).

60 mi. So. of Victoria, Tamaulipas, 2 ♂♂ 1 ♀ vii.6.36 (H.D.T.) (f. *fatima*).

Jacala, Hidalgo, 4500 ft., 4 ♂♂ vii.1–11.39 (H.H.) (f. *fatima*).

El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft. 6 ♂♂ 1 ♀ v.28–29.41; 2 ♂♂ iv.30–31.41 (R.P.) (ff. *fatima* & *albifaciata*).

Arroyo del Calabezas, San Luis Potosi, 250 ft., 1 ♂ iv.30.41 (R. P.) (f. *albifaciata*).

El Bañito, Valles, San Luis Potosi, 200 ft., 4 ♂♂ 1 ♀ vi.26–27.40 (H.H.); 4 ♂♂ 3 ♀♀ iv.30.41 (R.P.) (ff. *fatima* & *albifaciata*).

El Pujal, San Luis Potosi, 100 ft., 8 ♂♂ 2 ♀♀ vii.17–21.39 (H.H.) (ff. *fatima* & *albifaciata*).

Tuxpango, Vera Cruz, 1500 ft., 4 ♂♂ v.9.41 (R.P.) (f. *fatima*).

Fortin, Vera Cruz, 1600 ft., 1 ♂ v.4.41 (R.P.) (f. *albifaciata*).

Ojo de Agua, Vera Cruz, 1600 ft., 2 ♂♂ v.12.41 (R.P.) (f. *fatima*).

Orizaba, Vera Cruz, 2000 ft., 3 ♂♂ 1 ♀ v.6.41 (R.P.) (ff. *albifaciata* & *fatima*).

Chichen Itza, Yucatan, 2 ♂♂ 1 ♀ viii.30.36 (H.D.T.) (ff. *fatima* & *albifaciata*).

Sta. Lucrecia, 2 ♂♂ ix.24.39 (H.D.T.) (ff. *fatima* & *venusta*).

El Capirie, Michoacan, 500 ft., 1 ♂ viii.3.40 (H.H.) (f. *venusta*).

Apatzingan, Michoacan, 1050 ft., 1 ♂ viii.5.40 (H.H.) (f.*venusta*).

El Sabino, Uruapan, Michoacan, 5 ♂♂ 1 ♀ vii.15–30.36 (H.D.T.) (ff. *fatima, venusta* & *albifaciata*).

The distribution of the various forms of this species is interestingly told by the above list of specimens. I cannot agree with Hoffmann as to the status of *venusta*. I believe it to be a west coast form and he considers it to be a west coast race.

333. **Victoria stelenes biplagiata** Fruhstorfer.

G. & S., **1**: 280.

S., p. 463, pl. 95a (as *steneles*).

H., p. 681 (as *steneles*).

El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 9 ♂♂ v.28–29.41 (R.P.).

El Bañito, Valles, San Luis Potosi, 200 ft., 2 ♀♀ vi.27–28.40 (H.H.); 1 ♂ iv.30.41 (R.P.).

El Pujal, San Luis Potosi, 100 ft., 1 ♂ 2 ♀♀ vii.17–18.39 (H.H.).

Chichen Itza, Yucatan, 1 ♂ 1 ♀ viii.30.36 (H.D.T.) (♂ = f. *pallida* Fruh.).

El Sabino, Uruapan, Michoacan, 1 ♂ 4 ♀♀ vii.15–30.36 (H.D.T.).

334. **Victorina epaphus** Latrielle.

S., p. 464, pl. 95b.

H., p. 681.

Tuxpango, Vera Cruz, 1500 ft., 1 ♂ v.8.41 (R.P.).
Ojo de Agua, Vera Cruz, 1600 ft., 1 ♂ v.12.41 (R.P.).

336. **Hypanartia lethe** Fabricius.

G. & S., **1**: 212; **2**: 682 (as *Eurema*).
S., p. 460, pl. 94b.
H., p. 682.
Tuxpango, Vera Cruz, 1500 ft., 1 ♀ v.9.41 (R.P.).
Fortin, Vera Cruz, 1600 ft., 2 ♂♂ 2 ♀♀ v.4.41 (R.P.).
Orizaba, Vera Cruz, 2000 ft., 2 ♂♂ v.6.41 (R.P.).

337. **Hypanartia godmani** Bates.

G. & S., **1**: 213 (as *Eurema*).
S., p. 460, pl. 94c.
H., p. 682.
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 1 ♂ iv.31.41 (R.P.).
Orizaba, Vera Cruz, 2000 ft., 1 ♀ v.6.41 (R.P.).

Tribe **Didonidi**

340. **Didonis aganisa** Boisduval.

G. & S., **1**: 276; **2**: 690.
S., p. 465, pl. 94f.
H., p. 682.
Arroyo del Meco, Tamaulipas, 1320 ft., 1 ♂ iv.28.41 (R.P.).
C. Victoria, Tamaulipas, 1 ♂ vi.25.35 (H. A. Freeman).
Hda. Sta. Engracia, Tamaulipas, 2 ♀♀ vii.24.39 (H.H.).
Jacala, Hidalgo, 4500 ft., 1 ♂ vii.2.39 (H.H.).
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 1 ♂ 1 ♀ v.28–29.41 (R.P.).
El Bañito, Valles, San Luis Potosi, 200 ft., 1 ♂ 2 ♀♀ vi. 27–29.40 (H.H.).
El Pujal, San Luis Potosi, 100 ft., 1 ♂ vii.20.39 (H.H.).
Ojo de Agua, Vera Cruz, 2200 ft., 1 ♂ v.12.41 (R.P.).
Rio Blanco, Vera Cruz, 2200 ft., 1 ♂ v.10.41 (R.P.).
Bet. Tule and Mitla, Oaxaca, 1 ♀ v.18.41 (R.P.).

341. **Mestra amymone** Ménètries.

G. & S., **1**: 278; **2**: 690 (as *Cystineura*).
S., p. 467, pl. 115e.
H., p. 682.
Sabinas Hidalgo, Nuevo Leon, 960 ft., 3 ♂♂ vi.15.39 (H.H.).
Villa Santiago, Nuevo Leon, 1600 ft., 1 ♂ viii.8.39 (H.H.).
Hda. Vista Hermosa, Villa Santiago, Nuevo Leon, 1500 ft., 1 ♂ vi.18.40 (H.H.).
Monterrey, Nuevo Leon, 1800 ft., 1 ♂ 1 ♀ iv.27.41 (R.P.).
nr. Villagran, Tamaulipas, 1160 ft., 1 ♂ 3 ♀♀ iv.28.41 (R.P.).
Jacala, Hidalgo, 4500 ft., 4 ♂♂ 2 ♀♀ vii.2–3.39 (H.H.).
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 1 ♂ v.28.41 (R.P.).
El Bañito, Valles, San Luis Potosi, 200 ft., 5 ♂♂ vi.26–27.40 (H.H.).
Rio Balsas, Guerrero, 2400 ft., 2 ♂♂ 1 ♀ v.26.41 (R.P.).
Acahuato, Michoacan, 3000 ft., 1 ♂ 1 ♀ viii.2.40 (H.H.).
Apatzingan, Michoacan, 6586 ft., 1 ♂ viii.5.40 (H.H.).

The west coast specimens tend to be more strongly marked than the east coast material. However, the difference is slight and no one would fail to recognize the material from the two coasts as being the same species.

Tribe **Epicaliidi**

344. **Pyrrhogyra otolais neis** Felder.

G. & S., **1**: 293.
S., p. 475.
H., p. 682.
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 2 ♂♂ 1 ♀ iv.30–31.41; 1 ♂ 1 ♀ v.28.41 (R.P.).
Ojo de Agua, Vera Cruz, 1600 ft., 1 ♂ v.12.41 (R.P.).

345. **Pseudonica flavilla canthara** Doubleday.

S., p. 476, pl. 97b.
H., p. 682.

Ojo de Agua, Vera Cruz, 1600 ft., 1 ♂ 1 ♀ v.12.41 (R.P.).

These specimens are even more lightly marked than the one figured by Seitz (*l.c.*). The submarginal band on the hindwings is reduced to a dot at the anal angle.

346. **Temenis laothœ liberia** Fabricius.
S., p. 476, pl. 97c.
H., p. 683.
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 4 ♂♂ v. 28.41 (R.P.).
El Bañito, Valles, San Luis Potosi, 200 ft., 1 ♀ vi.28.40 (H.H.); 1 ♂ iv.30.41 (R.P.).

348. **Epiphile adrasta bandusia** Fruhstorfer.
G. & S., **1**: 234; **2**: 685.
S., p. 479.
H., p. 683.
Galeana Canyon, Tamaulipas, 1 ♂ iv.29.41 (R.P.).
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 2 ♂♂ 1 ♀ v. 28–29.41 (R.P.).
El Bañito, Valles, San Luis Potosi, 1 ♂ vi.26.40 (H.H.).

349. **Catonephele nyctimus** Westwood.
S., p. 480, pl. 98c.
H., p. 683.
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 1 ♂ 1 ♀ v.28–29.41 (R.P.).
Tuxpango, Vera Cruz, 1500 ft., 1 ♂ v.8.41 (R.P.).

352. **Mycelia cyaniris** Doubleday.
G. & S., **1**: 230.
R., p. 483, pl. 99a (as *ethusa* ♂).
H., p. 683.
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 1 ♂ iv.30.41; 2 ♂♂ v.29.41 (R.P.).
El Pujal, San Luis Potosi, 100 ft., 1 ♂ vii.20.39 (H.H.).
Ojo de Agua, Vera Cruz, 1600 ft., 1 ♀ v.12.41 (R.P.).

This species may easily be confused with the females of the following species when the upper surfaces are compared. It may always be recognized by the more strongly falcate forewings and the presence of a single WHITE band running the length of the cell. The underside of *cyaniris* is much lighter and uniformly colored than that of *ethusa.* The two species fly together. The ratio of their occurrence in this collection is 1:6! This reverses the usually accepted notion of the rarity of the two species. (See G. & S., *l.c.*).

353. **Mycelia ethusa** Boisduval.

G. & S., **1**: 232.
R., p. 483 (pl. 99a ♀ as *cyaniris* ♂ ?).
H., p. 683.
El Mante, San Luis Potosi, 1 ♀ iv.29.41 (R.P.) (? ♀ *ethusa* or aberrant ♀ *rogenhoferi* ?)
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 8 ♂♂ v.28–29.41 (R.P.).
El Bañito, Valles, San Luis Potosi, 200 ft., 2 ♂♂ vii.22.39; 10 ♂♂ iv.26–29.40 (H.H.); 5 ♂♂ iv.30.41 (R.P.).
El Pujal, San Luis Potosi, 100 ft., 7 ♂♂ vii.17–20.39 H.H.).

See the note following 353A, *Mycelia rogenhoferi* Felder.

353A. **Mycelia rogenhoferi** Felder.

G. & S., **1**: 231, pl. 24, ff. 3, 4.
R., p. 483, pl. 99a.
H., p. 683 (as syn. of *ethusa*).
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 1 ♂ 1 ♀ v.29.41 (R.P.).
El Bañito, Valles, San Luis Potosi, 200 ft., 2 ♀♀ vii.22.39; 1 ♀ vi.26.40 (H.H.)
El Pujal, San Luis Potosi, 100 ft., 3 ♂♂ 2 ♀♀ vii.17–21.39 (H.H.).

I am puzzled about this material that I call *rogenhoferi.* Hoffmann (*l.c.*) lists it as a synonym of the female of *ethusa.* Yet I have males and females that are identically marked. The markings in the cell of the forewing on the upper side corresponds exactly in the two sexes with the figure given by Godman & Salvin and copied by Roeber. This is quite different from the markings found on *ethusa*—Roeber's *ethusa* is *cyaniris* (pl. 99a) and in the same line his *cyaniris* ♂ may be *ethusa* ♀ but is more likely a *rogenhoferi*. The female that I have listed under *ethusa* from El Mante may be a slightly aberrant *rogenhoferi;* it is like Roeber's figure called *cyaniris* ♂ but has four distinct bluish bands on the hindwing while the figure shows only three plus some lunules at the margin. I am bothered by the lack of any clear-cut females of *ethusa* in such a long series. I may be in error about the males noted above and Hoffmann may be correct.

354. **Mycelia cyananthe** Felder.

R., p. 483.
H., p. 683.
Rio Balsas, Guerrero, 2400 ft., 1 ♂ 1 ♀ v.26.41 (R.P.).

The specimens are badly battered but recognizable.

355. **Eunica tatila** Herrick-Schäffer.

G. & S., **1**: 229; **2**: 685.
S., p. 484, pl. 100Aa.
H., p. 683.
Galeana Canyon, Tamaulipas, 12 ♂♂ iv.29.41 (R.P.).
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 17 ♂♂ v.28–29.41 (R.P.).

The light spots on the forewing are very faint on the Galeana Canyon material. However the wings have a distinct purple reflection.

355A. **Eunica cærula** Godman & Salvin.

G. & S., **1**: 229.
S., p. 484, pl. 100Aa.
H., p. 683.
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 1 ♂ v.28.41 (R.P.).

Hoffmann considers this a synonym of *tatila* H.–S. I do not.

356. **Eunica monima** Cramer.

G. & S., **1**: 228.
S., p. 485, pl. 100Ac.
H., p. 684.
Galeana Canyon, Tamaulipas, 2 ♀♀ iv.29.41 (R.P.).

El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 1 ♂ 1 ♀ v.28–29.41 (R.P.).

Tribe **Catagrammidi**

369. **Callicore anna** Guérin.

G. & S., **1**: 255; **2**: 688.
R., p. 501, pl. 102Bc.
H., p. 685.
Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 1 ♀ vii.1.36 (H. A. Freeman).
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 1 ♂ 3 ♀♀ iv.31.41 (R.P.).
Tuxpango, Vera Cruz, 1500 ft., 2 ♂♂ v.9.41 (R.P.).
Fortin, Vera Cruz, 1600 ft., 1 ♂ 1 ♀ v.3.41 (R.P.).

374. **Dynamine mylitta** Cramer.

R., p. 507, pl. 101Ah.
H., p. 685.
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 15 ♂♂ 5 ♀♀ v.28–29.41 (R.P.).
El Bañito, Valles, San Luis Potosi, 200 ft., 1 ♂ vi.28.40; 1 ♀ vii.22.39 (H.H.).
El Pujal, San Luis Potosi, 100 ft., 2 ♂♂ 1 ♀ vii.17–20.39 (H.H.).
Ojo de Agua, Vera Cruz, 1600 ft., 2 ♀♀ v.12.41 (R.P.).

376. **Dynamine dyonis** Geyer.

G. & S., **1**: 250.
R., p. 508, pl. 101Ah, i, 101Ba.
H., p. 685.
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 1 ♂ iv.30.41; 7 ♂♂ v. 28–29.41 (R.P.).
El Bañito, Valles, San Luis Potosi, 200 ft., 1 ♂ vi.27.40 (H.H.); 1 ♂ iv.30.41 (R.P.).
El Pujal, San Luis Potosi, 100 ft., 1 ♀ vii.17.39 (H.H.).

Tribe **Ageroniidi**

379. **Ageronia februa** Huebner.

F., p. 539, pl. 105d.

H., p. 685.
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 8 ♂♂ 6 ♀♀ v.28–29.41 (R.P.).
El Bañito, Valles, San Luis Potosi, 200 ft., 8 ♂♂ vi.26–29.40 (H.H.); 2 ♂♂ iv.30.41 (R.P.).
El Pujal, San Luis Potosi, 100 ft., 2 ♂♂ 1 ♀ vii.17–18.40 (H.H.).
Rio Blanco, Vera Cruz, 2200 ft., 1 ♂ v.10.41 (R.P.).
Acapulco, Guerrero, 100 ft., 1 ♂ v.26.41 (R.P.).

I agree with Hoffmann that Fruhstorfer's Mexican forms are untenable.

381. **Ageronia ferox fictitia** Fruhstorfer.
F., p. 541, pl. 105e.
H., p. 686.
60 mi. So. of Victoria, Tamaulipas, 2 ♂♂ vii.6.36 (H.D.T.).
El Pujal, San Luis Potosi, 100 ft., 1 ♂ vii.17.39 (H.H.).

Of this Hoffmann says, "No se conoce su distribución geografica." My two records place the form on the Gulf Coast.

382. **Ageronia atlantis** Bates.
G. & S., **1**: 269; **2**: 689.
H., p. 686.
Acapulco, Guerrero, 100 ft., 1 ♂ v.23–25.41 (R.P.).

383. **Ageronia feronia farinulenta** Fruhstorfer.
F., p. 542.
H., p. 686.
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 4 ♂♂ 1 ♀ v.29.41 (R.P.).
El Pujal, San Luis Potosi, 100 ft., 1 ♂ vii.19.39 (H.H.).

384. **Ageronia guatemalena marmarice** Fruhstorfer.
F., p. 542.
H., p. 686.
60 mi. So. of Victoria, Tamaulipas, 2 ♂♂ vii.6.36 (H.D.T.).
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 1 ♂ 1 ♀ v.28–29.41 (R.P.).

El Pujal, San Luis Potosi, 100 ft., 1 ♂ vii.18.39 (H.H.).

The species *feronia* and *guatemalena* can be readily separated by observing the ocelli on the upper side of the hindwing. These in *guatemalena* contain a narrow ring of blue scales around the greyish or white pupil.

385. **Ageronia iphthime** Bates.
G. & S., **1**: 274.
F., p. 543, pl. 105a.
H., p. 686.
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 6 ♂♂ 3 ♀♀ v.28–29.41 (R.P.).
Ojo de Agua, Vera Cruz, 1600 ft., 2 ♀♀ v.12.41 (R.P.).

386. **Ageronia fornax fornacula** Fruhstorfer.
F., p. 543.
H., p. 686.
Tuxpango, Vera Cruz, 1500 ft., 1 ♂ v.9.41 (R.P.).

387. **Ageronia amphinome mexicana** Lucas.
F., p. 543.
H., p. 686.
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 1 ♂ v.29.41 (R.P.).

Tribe **Marpesiidi**

390. **Timetes chiron** Fabricius.
G. & S., **1**: 288; **2**: 691.
S., p. 468, pl. 96a.
H., p. 687.
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 4 ♂♂ 1 ♀ v.28–29.41 (R.P.).
Arroyo del Calabezas, San Luis Potosi, 250 ft., 5 ♂♂ iv.30.41 (R.P.).
El Bañito, Valles, San Luis Potosi, 200 ft., 1 ♂ vii.22.39; 2 ♂♂ 1 ♀ vi.26–28.40 (H.H.).

393. **Athena petreus** Cramer.
G. & S., **1**: 283; **2**: 690 (as *Timetes peleus*).
S., p. 469, pl. 96e (as *Megalura peleus*).

H., p. 687.
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 3 ♂♂ 1 ♀ v.28–29.41 (R.P.).
Arroyo del Calabezas, San Luis Potosi, 250 ft., 4 ♂♂ iv.30.41 (R.P.).
El Bañito, Valles, San Luis Potosi, 200 ft., 1 ♂ iv.30.41 (R.P.).
El Pujal, San Luis Potosi, 100 ft., 1 ♂ vii.17.39 (H.H.).

Tribe **Limenitidi**

The material from the genus *Adelpha* was purchased by Mr. Frank Johnson and will be published by him.

414. **Heterochroa bredowi bredowi** Geyer.
G. & S., **1**: 310.
S., p. 533 (as *Limenitis*).
H., p. 688.
Hda. Vista Hermosa, Villa Santiago, Nuevo Leon, 1500 ft., 2 ♂♂ 1 ♀ vi.19–21.40 (H.H.).

415. **Basilarchia archippus** Cramer.
S., p. 534.
H., p. 689.
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 1 ♂ v.29.41 (R.P.).

This is f. *obsoleta* Edw. recorded by Hoffmann from the northeastern part of Mexico.

416. **Basilarchia astyanax arizonensis** Edwards.
G. & S., **1**: 311; **2**: 693 (as *Limenitis*).
S., p. 534.
H., p. 689.
Galeana, Nuevo Leon, 6500 ft., 1 ♂ viii.4.39 (H.H.).
Monterrey, Nuevo Leon, 1 ♀ vi.15.35 (H. A. Freeman).
Arroyo del Meco, Tamaulipas, 1320 ft., 1 ♂ iv.28.41 (R.P.).

Tribe **Apaturidi**

419. **Chlorippe pavon** Latrielle.
G. & S., **1**: 315; **2**: 693 (as *pavonii*).

R., p. 546, pl. 110Bc.
H., p. 689.
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 3 ♂♂ 1 ♀ iv.30–v.29.41 (R.P.).
Arroyo del Calabezas, San Luis Potosi, 250 ft., 1 ♂ iv.30.41 (R.P.).
El Bañito, Valles, San Luis Potosi, 200 ft., 2 ♂♂ vi.27.40 (H.H.); 2 ♂♂ iv.30.41 (R.P.).
El Pujal, San Luis Potosi, 1 ♂ vii.17.39 (H.H.).

424. **Asterocampa leilia** Edwards.
G. & S., **1**: 319; **2**: 694 (as *Doxocopa*).
R., p. 550, pl. 110Ac.
H., p. 689.
Sabinas Hidalgo, Nuevo Leon, 690 ft., 1 ♂ 2 ♀♀ vi.15–16.39 (H.H.).
Ojo de Agua, Sabinas Hidalgo, Nuevo Leon, 1000 ft., 1 ♂ vi.14.40 (H.H.).

424A. **Asterocampa lycaon flora** Edwards.
R., p. 549, pl. 110Ac.
Sabinas Hidalgo, Nuevo Leon, 960 ft., 2 ♂♂ vi.17–18.39 (H.H.).
Villa Santiago, Nuevo Leon, 1500 ft., 1 ♀ vi.17.40 (H.H.).
Galeana, Nuevo Leon, 6500 ft., 1 ♀ viii.4.39 (H.H.).
Hda. Sta. Engracia, Tamaulipas, 1 ♀ vii.25.39 (H.H.).

This species is not listed by Hoffmann.

Tribe **Gynæciidi**

428. **Smyrna blomfildia datis** Fruhstorfer.
G. & S., **1**: 329; **2**: 696.
S., p. 471, pl. 104d.
H., p. 690.
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 1 ♀ v.29.41 (R.P.).
El Pujal, San Luis Potosi, 100 ft., 3 ♂♂ vii.18–20.39 (H.H.).

Ojo de Agua, Vera Cruz, 1600 ft., 3 ♀♀ v.12.41 (R.P.).
The Ojo de Agua females are in tatters but recognizable.

430. **Gynæcia dirce** Linnaeus.
G. & S., **1**: 265; **2**: 689.
S., p. 473, pl. 97a.
H., p. 690.
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 2 ♂♂ v.29.41 (R.P.).
Chichen Itza, Yucatan, 1 ♀ viii.30.36 (H.D.T.).

Tribe **Charaxidi**

431. **Prepona demophon centralis** Fruhstorfer.
G. & S., **1**: 320; **2**: 694 (as *demophon*).
F., p. 554, pl. 111a.
H., p. 690.
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 1 ♂ v.28.41 (R.P.).
El Pujal, San Luis Potosi, 100 ft., 2 ♂♂ 1 ♀ vii.19–20.39 (H.H.).

433. **Prepona antimache gulina** Fruhstorfer.
F., p. 555.
H., p. 690.
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 1 ♀ v.29.41 (R.P.).

443. **Protogonius hippona cecrops** Doubleday & Hewitson.
G. & S., **1**: 357; **2**: 699.
R., p. 580, pl. 117a.
H., p. 691.
El Pujal, San Luis Potosi, 100 ft., 1 ♀ vii.21.39 (H.H.).
Ojo de Agua, Vera Cruz, 1600 ft., 1 ♂ v.12.41 (R.P.).

Anœa:—Mr. Frank Johnson purchased these and will publish upon them.

LIBYTHEIDÆ

464. **Libythea carinenta** Cramer.
G. & S., **1**: 360.

S., p. 623, pl. 120De.
H., p. 693.
Sabinas Hidalgo, Nuevo Leon, 960 ft., 4 ♀♀ vi.15.39 (H.H.).
Arroyo del Meco, Tamaulipas, 1320 ft., 2 ♂♂ iv.28.41 (R.P.).
El Sol, Tamazunchale, San Luis Potosi, 400 ft., 2 ♂♂ v.29.41 (R.P.).
Arroyo del Calabezas, San Luis Potosi, 250 ft., 1 ♂ iv.30.41 (R.P.).
So. of El Mante, San Luis Potosi, 1 ♂ iv.27.41 (R.P.).
El Bañito, Valles, San Luis Potosi, 200 ft., 1 ♀ vii.22.39; 2 ♂♂ vi.26.40 (H.H.).

Riodinidæ:—These are being studied by Mr. Wm. P. Comstock.

Lycænidæ:—These are being studied by Mr. E. I. Huntington.

Hesperioidea:—These are being studied by Mr. Ernest L. Bell.

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(S = Seitz, R = Roeber, F = Fruhstorfer, in Seitz' "Macrolepidoptera."

VIOLA HARRIET DOS PASSOS AND HER NORTH AMERICAN MOTHS

There is romance in the making of a collection. As Milton said in *Lycidas,* ''To-morrow to fresh woods, and pastures new.'' The joy of a fine day in the field, a discovery, an observation, always carried in precious memory, such, I think, was the pleasure of Mrs. dos Passos in her collection. Much of it was of her own collecting, and her orderly cabinets testify to her care, skill and patience in the preparation and arrangement of her specimens. The collection has personality, her personality reflected in it.

In the spring of 1931, at Rangeley, Maine, the collection had its beginning, a joint undertaking, for her husband Cyril F. dos Passos, was equally interested. Their first reference literature was ''The Butterfly Book'' and ''The Moth Book'' by Dr. Holland. It was soon decided that Mrs. dos Passos would make the North American moths her specialty and that Mr. dos Passos would devote his energies to the collection and study of the North American butterflies.

Collecting at Rangeley, season after season, was productive of many rare and interesting species. Collecting methods were improved and a very large light trap was devised and constructed. Added to this, through a beautiful white birch grove, was a trap line, with about a dozen ''Rummel type'' bait traps, always providing an exhilarating morning walk, filled with surprises as each trap revealed its content of *Catocala,* lesser noctuids, perhaps a fine sphingid or two and many smaller beauties of the woods. Then there was the sugaring trail for an exciting evening and it is easy to understand why Rangeley Camp meant so much to Viola and Cyril dos Passos.

Mrs. dos Passos spent some winters in Florida where she collected many butterflies and some moths, as at Key West where she captured a fine *Cocytius antaeus* resting on a wall. In Florida, she made the acquaintance of many local collectors, among them Marguerite S. Forsyth from whom she obtained a number of Florida's rarities.

Early in the winter of 1931 the dos Passos moved to Mendham, New Jersey, and there one summer was spent collecting with Dr. and Mrs. George H. H. Tate who lived nearby. A sugaring trail, along the wooded skirts of a swamp, gave a good sample of the local fauna and the variety was augmented by contributions from the Tate collection.

The home at Mendham, in ample acres, built on a southerly sloping hillside overlooking a brook which is the headwaters of the Passaic River, is ideally located for those who enjoy the beauties of nature. Virginia deer browse at evening in the upper reaches of the swamp, birds of passage and of residence are at home there, even the purple martin, and Viola dos Passos knew and loved the birds. The west wing of the house provided a conservatory with cages for tropical birds and, at the end of the second story, a study for the butterfly and moth collections and library. As the collections grew, this space was entirely given over to the butterflies, Cyril dos Passos' preserve, and another large room in the central wing of the house gave ample space for Mrs. dos Passos' collection of moths.

Two extensive collections of Lepidoptera, one of considerable historic interest, were acquired by Mr. dos Passos and the moths from these collections were placed in the collection of Mrs. dos Passos. One was the collection of Max Rothke, made for the most part at Scranton, Pennsylvania, and the other, that of Thomas E. Bean, containing material taken at Galena, Illinois, and the rich collection made at Laggan, Alberta, in the seventies and eighties of the last century.

Mrs. dos Passos suffered a heart attack, early in the year 1939, which restricted her physical activities. This affliction resulted in her death at Rangeley, Maine, on August 29, 1944. She was the youngest daughter of Anthony H. Van Hise and Harriet Louise Acker and was born at Newark, New Jersey, on November 24, 1891. She is survived by her huband, Cyril F. dos Passos, and their son, Manuel dos Passos.

The collection of North American moths, consisting of over 12,000 specimens, and the library relating to the Heterocera were presented to The American Museum of Natural History by Mr. dos Passos late in the year 1944.—WILLIAM P. COMSTOCK.

RECORDS AND DESCRIPTIONS OF NEOTROPICAL CRANE-FLIES (TIPULIDÆ, DIPTERA), XIX

By Charles P. Alexander
Amherst, Massachusetts

The previous instalment under this general title was published in 1944 (Journal of the New York Entomological Society, 52: 369–383). Most of the materials discussed at this time are from Costa Rica and Panama, with fewer species from the Greater Antilles and South America. I am greatly indebted to the various collectors for their interest in saving these flies. The types of the novelties are preserved in my personal collection except in the cases of three species from the United States National Museum, sent to me for examination by Dr. Alan Stone, and one further species received from Professor J. Speed Rogers.

Genus *Brachypremna* Osten Sacken

Brachypremna geijskesi new species.

Size large (wing, male, over 20 mm.); mesonotum, especially the præscutum, more or less inflated; præscutum reddish brown, patterned with black, these areas especially evident near the suture where they are separated by equally distinct, obscure yellow spots; legs black, the femoral tips, narrow tibial bases and tibial tips whitened, the last broadest on hind legs; basitarsi of fore and middle legs more or less infuscated on proximal third; wings pale brown, patterned with darker brown and cream-colored areas; stigma with pale center; tip of vein R_3 curved at about a right angle into the margin; veins M_1 and M_2 not strongly decurved; male hypopygium with the dististyle expanded at apex into a subcircular head, this further produced into a cultriform blade.

Male.—Length about 15–17 mm.; wing 20–21 mm.

Head broken. Mesonotum, especially the præscutum, more or less inflated, somewhat as in *quasimodo* but not so accentuated. Præscutum, with the cephalic portion reddish brown, the posterior half with four blackened stripes, these latter near the suture separated by conspicuous, obscure yellow spots that become infuscated in front; further yellow brightenings in humeral region and on the sides of sclerite before the suture, separated by a reddish brown extension to the lateral border; scutum chiefly dark brown, narrowly bordered by more brownish black, the central portion very narrowly testaceous; scutellum obscure yellow, with a brown central marking; parascutella reddish brown, margined in front by blackish; mediotergite with three dark brown longitudinal stripes, the more restricted intervening lines obscure brownish yellow. Pleura obscure brownish yellow, spotted with dark brown. Halteres with stem reddish brown, narrowly yellow at base, the knob blackened. Legs with coxæ testaceous brown, the outer face, especially of the posterior pair, marked with dark brown; trochanters obscure yellow; femora brownish black, the bases very restrictedly brightened, the tips rather broadly and abruptly whitened; tibiæ black, the base and apex whitened, the former about one-half as extensive as the femoral tip; the amount of white at tibial apex is narrowest (about distal tenth) on fore legs, somewhat more extensive on middle legs, occupying about the distal fourth on posterior legs; fore and middle basitarsi just beyond their bases weakly infuscated for about one-third their length, the posterior pair, with the remainder of tarsi, yellowish white. Wings weakly suffused with brown, patterned with darker brown and cream-colored areas, arranged as is common in the genus; stigma with pale center, lying behind vein R_1; tips of veins R_{4+5} and M_1 broadly seamed with brown, alternating with creamy spots in the centers of the cells; vein *Cu,* cord and the veins beyond it, particularly the outer medial field, conspicuously seamed with brown; veins brown. Venation: *Rs* relatively long; R_3 very strongly curved to margin, forming a right angle or virtually so; veins M_1 and M_2 not strongly decurved, as in *quasimodo; m–cu* shortly beyond fork of *M.*

Abdomen with somewhat the usual pattern of the genus; basal rings yellow, the posterior portions of the tergites extensively infuscated, including the eighth segment; intermediate sternites with the dark central areas long-oval, more pointed outwardly, on outer sternites becoming much shorter; hypopygium with proximal ends of basistyle darkened, the outer third abruptly pale; dististyles infuscated. Male hypopygium with the dististyle of distinctive conformation; outer spine acute at tip which is directed strongly distad; apex of style dilated into a subcircular head that is further produced into a cultriform blade, the apex very obtuse; before the rounded apex on disk of blade with about 25 circular pores, each with a very small conical peg; in other similar species, including *quasimodo,* the pores and their spines are much larger and placed closer to outer margin of style.

Holotype, ♂, Brownsberg, Surinam, altitude 400 meters, September 19, 1938 (Geijskes). Paratype, ♂, Litanie, Surinam, July 12, 1939 (Geijskes).

I take great pleasure in naming this interesting *Brachypremna* for the collector, Dr. D. C. Geijskes, who has added so materially to our knowledge of the insects of Dutch Guiana. The fly is most similar to species such as *B. diversipes* Alexander, differing in the details of coloration of the body and legs, in the venation, and in the somewhat inflated præscutum. This latter character slightly suggests the more accentuated condition to be found in the otherwise entirely distinct *B. quasimodo* Alexander. The male hypopygium is different from all other species of the genus in which this sex is known.

Genus *Tanypremna* Osten Sacken

Tanypremna (Tanypremna) elegantior new species.

Size large (wing 15 mm.); thorax uniformly orange-yellow, polished, without pattern; head above orange-yellow with a major brownish black area on the vertex; legs dark brown, the tarsi black; wings with the basal two-thirds bright yellow, particularly the prearcular and costal fields, the distal third more obscured, at the apex distinctly darkened; veins glabrous; *Rs* longer than R_{2+3}; cell *1st* M_2 large and subquadrate, nearly as wide as long; cell *2nd A* wide; abdomen yellow, the tergites extensively infuscated medially.

Sex?—Wing 15 mm.; antenna about 1.3 mm. Abdomen broken beyond the sixth segment, the total length probably about 19–20 mm.

Frontal prolongation of head yellow, very short, a little longer in the region of the stout, broad nasus; opposite the lateral portions, the length much shorter; dorsum of prolongation with abundant long black setæ; mouthparts black; palpi brownish black. Antennæ short, 13-segmented; basal flagellar segment oval, narrowed at base, the outer segments becoming long-cylindrical, with long conspicuous verticils. Head above orange-yellow with a major brownish black area on vertex adjoining the margin of eye, chiefly on the posterior vertex, very narrowly interrupted at the midline, prolonged backward on the orbits; head beneath and on front paler yellow.

Thorax uniform orange-yellow, without markings, the surface glabrous, polished. Halteres with stem yellow, knob infuscated. Legs with the coxæ and trochanters yellow; femora dark brown, narrowly yellow at base; tibiæ dark brown, the tips very narrowly blackened; tarsi very elongate, basitarsi dark brown, the remainder of tarsi passing into black; claws simple. Wings with basal two-thirds or to the general level of the cord bright yellow, particularly in the prearcular and costal fields; beyond the cord the yellow becomes more obscured, at the wing-tip passing into dark brown, this including the outer ends of cells R_2 to M_1, inclusive, these latter enclosing inconspicuous whitish central streaks; stigma brownish yellow, narrowly margined with brown; very narrow and little-evident brown seams along vein R_{2+3} and over the anterior cord; veins dark brown, yellow in the more intensely flavous prearcular and costal fields. Veins unusually glabrous, including all veins beyond cord; *Rs* with one or two trichia near base; the only veins with abundant trichia are *C*, *R*, R_1, and Sc_2+R_1 as far distad as the free tip of the latter. Venation: Distance on *C* between Sc_1 and the free tip of Sc_2 a little longer than that between Sc_2 and R_{1+2}; *Rs* long, gently arcuated, exceeding R_{2+3}, the latter strongly arched at base; cell M_1 long, widened subbasally; *m* about one-half longer than the petiole of cell M_1; cell *1st* M_2 large and subquadrate, the basal section of M_{1+2} one-half longer than *m*; *m–cu* at near three-fifths the length of M_{3+4}, subequal to the distal section of Cu_1; cell *2nd A* wide.

Abdomen broken at end of sixth segment; tergites orange, brightest at base and on outer segments; dorsum with a broad, dark brown stripe, on outer segments more brightened on sides of basal rings, the latter delimited behind on either side by more impressed areas; sternites yellow.

Holotype, Sex? Probably from Colombia, exact locality unknown (Fred Walker No. 93); University of Michigan, through Professor J. Speed Rogers. The exact data pertaining to this Walker number is not available at this time.

The most similar described species are *Tanypremna* (*Tanypremna*) *carbonipes* Alexander and *T.* (*T.*) *hodgei* Alexander, both of which differ conspicuously in all details of coloration of the body and wings and in the venation. From the simple claws, it might be assumed that the present specimen was a female; however, the male sex in *carbonipes* has toothed claws whereas in *hodgei* these are simple in both sexes, so nothing can be affirmed on this basis.

Genus *Limonia* Meigen

Limonia (Rhipidia) ingenua new species.

Allied to *multifida;* mesonotal præscutum chiefly brownish yellow, with three incomplete stripes behind; posterior sclerites of notum and pleura dark brown, the anterior pleurites yellow; legs yellow, the outer tarsal segments darkened; fore coxæ yellow, the remaining pairs brownish black; wings brownish yellow with a restricted brown pattern; *Sc* long, *m–cu* before the fork of *M;* male hypopygium with the tergite strongly emarginate, the lobes fringed with powerful flattened setæ; ventromesal lobe of basistyle and apical lobes of ædeagus small; rostral prolongation of ventral dististyle with two unequal spines, the outer one strong and slightly curved.

Male.—Length about 5 mm.; wing 5.7 mm.

Rostrum and palpi black. Antennæ broken beyond the third segment; scape black; pedicel and the simple first flagellar segment dark brown (from its obvious relationship with *multifida* and *sejugata,* it may be assumed that the male antennæ will be found to be long-bipectinate). Head dark brown; anterior vertex reduced to a linear strip that is about as wide as a single row of ommatidia.

Pronotum dark brown, the scutellum and pretergites paler. Mesonotal præscutum strongly arched but not pointed, the color chiefly brownish yellow, clearer and somewhat whitish pruinose on sides; three medium brown stripes are indicated on the posterior portion of the sclerite, the median one longer and broader; posterior sclerites of notum dark brown to brownish black, the parascutella paler; sides of mediotergite and dorsal portions of pleurotergite more reddish brown. Pleura chiefly yellow, the pteropleurite and metapleura abruptly brownish black. Halteres yellow. Legs with the fore coxæ and trochanters yellow, middle and posterior coxæ and trochanters brownish black; remainder of legs yellow, the terminal two tarsi segments infuscated; claws with a single erect basal spine. Wings brownish yellow, the prearcular and costal portions slightly clearer yellow; a very restricted brown pattern that consists of small spots that are limited to the vicinity of the veins, as follows:

Origin of *Rs;* fork of *Sc;* cord and outer end of cell *1st* M_2*;* small darkenings at ends of all longitudinal veins, largest over the tip of *1st A;* stigma bicolored, chiefly yellow, the outer end, over R_2 and free tip of Sc_2, darker brown, conspicuous; proximal end of stigma and a subapical washing in outer radial field paler brown; veins yellow, infuscated in the clouded portions. Venation: *Sc* relatively long, Sc_1 ending about opposite two-thirds the length of *Rs*, Sc_2 at its tip; *Rs* nearly perpendicular at origin but not angulated; *m–cu* about one-third its length before fork of *M;* cell *1st* M_2 a trifle shorter than vein M_{1+2} beyond it.

Abdomen bicolored, obscure yellow, the caudal borders of the segments narrowly infuscated, more extensively so on the more proximal segments; a darkened pleural spot on the intermediate segments; hypopygium yellow. Male hypopygium with the caudal margin of tergite with a deep V-shaped notch, the conspicuous lateral lobes fringed with setæ, smallest near the midline, becoming very large and flattened at apex of the narrowly rounded lobes; remainder of tergite virtually glabrous. Basistyle with the ventromesal lobe low and rounded, with about three setæ on the lower or cephalic portion very long and conspicuous, the others short and normal; face of style at base of lobe with a pair of long setæ. Dorsal dististyle a strong, powerful sickle, its tip acute and slightly upcurved. Ventral dististyle fleshy, the rostral prolongation slender, with two very unequal spines; outer spine placed more than its own length before apex of prolongation, short and powerful; second spine slightly more basal, long and straight, about one-third longer than the outer. Gonapophyses with mesal-apical lobe slender, blackened. Ædeagus with apical lobes small and inconspicuous.

Holotype, ♂, Pedregoso, Costa Rica, altitude 2,500 feet, January 1939 (Dean Rounds).

The most nearly allied species are the Mexican *Limonia* (*Rhipidia*) *multifida* Alexander and *L.* (*R.*) *sejugata* Alexander. The former has a distinctive coloration of the body and wings, and a very different structure of the hypopygium, including the tergite, basistyles and ædeagus; the latter is much more similar in its general appearance, including the wings and legs, but differs in the structure of the male hypopygium, involving the tergite, basistyles, ventral dististyles, gonapophyses and ædeagus, becoming most evident in the single rostral spine of the ventral dististyle and in the quite different gonapophyses.

Limonia (Peripheroptera) cochabambæ new species.

Size large (wing, male, over 11 mm.); mesonotum yellow pollinose, with three conspicuous brownish black stripes; knobs of halteres blackened; femora obscure yellow, the tips brownish black; wings pale yellow, with a restricted brown pattern; cord in transverse alignment; free tip of Sc_2 lying far before R_2*;* cell *1st* M_2 subequal in length to vein M_{1+2} beyond it.

MALE.—Length about 8 mm.; wing 11.5 mm.

Rostrum brownish black; palpi black. Antennæ black throughout; flagellar segments suboval, the outer ones becoming more slender and cylindrical; verticles conspicuous. Head yellowish gray, somewhat clearer gray on front; a conspicuous brown area on vertex, becoming a little wider on the posterior vertex.

Pronotum dark brown above, broadly obscure yellow on sides. Mesonotal præscutum with the ground yellow pollinose, with three conspicuous brownish black stripes that are more or less obscured by a faint pollen, the median stripe unusually broad and conspicuous; scutum broadly yellow pollinose medially, the lobes more brownish yellow, darkest on their antero-lateral portions; scutellum and postnotum brownish yellow, more or less yellow pollinose. Pleura brownish yellow, heavily yellow pollinose; cephalic portion of anepisternum and ventral sternopleurite more infuscated. Halteres with stem yellow, knob conspicuously blackened. Legs with the coxæ castaneous; trochanters more yellowed, rimmed with black at apices; femora obscure yellow, the tips rather narrowly brownish black, on the posterior legs involving about the outer tenth, subequal in amount on all legs; tibiæ reddish brown; tarsi passing into black; claws with a single long tooth. Wings pale yellow, the prearcular field, costal border and outer radial field more saturated yellow; stigmal region a trifle more infuscated than the remainder of costal border; a very restricted dark brown pattern, including narrow seams over arculus, Sc_2, cord, outer end of cell *1st* M_2, free tip of Sc_2 and R_2; veins brown. Venation: Prearcular region relatively extensive; first section of vein R a little longer than the second section ($Sc_2 + R_1$); free tip of Sc_2 far before R_2, vein R_1 more than twice R_2; cord transverse; basal section of R_{4+5} straight; cell *1st* M_2 long, gently widened outwardly, subequal to vein M_{1+2} beyond it; *m–cu* oblique and weakly sinuous, about one-third its length beyond the fork of M; cell *2nd A* narrow, the greatest width about twice that of the constricted basal portion.

Abdomen dark brown, more or less yellow pollinose, especially on the sternites; hypopygium brownish black. Male hypopygium with the ventral dististyle large and fleshy, its area about three times that of the basistyle; rostral prolongation relatively small; spines placed close together, straight, subequal to the length of the prolongation beyond their bases. Gonapophyses with mesal-apical lobe slender and gently curved.

Holotype, ♂, Chapare, Cochabamba, Bolivia, November 1934 (Franz Steinbach).

The most similar described species is *Limonia* (*Peripheroptera*) *trimelænia* Alexander, of Peru, which differs especially in the venation and pattern of the wings.

Genus *Helius* St. Fargeau

Helius (Helius) schildi new species.

Belongs to the *mirabilis* group, allied to *miranda;* mesonotum in front broadly yellow, præscutum blackened sublaterally, this color crossing the suture onto the outer portion of the scutal lobes, the disk of præscutum and scutum obscure brownish yellow; pleura yellow; knobs of halteres orange-yellow; wings yellowish subhyaline, the prearcular and costal portions light yellow; two conspicuous brown crossbands, one postarcular, the second at cord; cell *1st* M_2 rectangular, *m–cu* only a short distance beyond fork of *M;* abdomen yellow, the posterior portions of the segments brownish black.

FEMALE.—Length about 8 mm.; wing 6 mm.

Rostrum a little exceeding the remainder of head, brown; palpi more brownish black. Antennæ of moderate length; scape and pedicel brown, flagellum yellow, especially the outer segments; flagellar segments passing through oval to elongate-cylindrical, provided with unusually long verticils, especially on the outer segments. Head dark brown, gray pruinose, especially on front and narrow anterior vertex.

Pronotum and the broad cephalic and lateral portions of præscutum yellow, the latter obscure brownish yellow on posterior half, blackened sublaterally, this color crossing the suture onto the lateral portions of the scutal lobes; central portion of scutum obscure brownish yellow; scutellum dark brown; postnotum, including pleurotergite, blackened, the latter restrictedly pruinose on its more dorsal portion. Pleura yellow, sparsely pruinose ventrally. Halteres orange-yellow, especially the knobs. Legs with the coxæ obscure yellow; remainder of legs broken, excepting the basal fourth of a single femur which is clear yellow. Wings yellowish subhyaline, conspicuously crossbanded with brown; prearcular field and costal border conspicuously light yellow; basal dark band post-arcular, slightly more widened at vein *Cu;* outer band at cord, completely traversing the wing from stigma to the posterior margin at Cu_2, narrowest at and above the fork of *M;* cell *1st* M_2 chiefly pale; veins yellow, darker in the banded portions. Venation: Branches of *Rs* on their basal half generally parallel to one another; basal section of R_{4+5} in longitudinal alignment with *Rs*, about twice *r–m; m–cu* only a short distance beyond the fork of *M*, this distance not exceeding *r–m;* cell *1st* M_2 rectangular.

Abdominal tergites conspicuously banded with yellow and brownish black, the bases of the segments yellow, the remainder darkened; on the outer segments the pale color slightly exceeds the dark; second tergite with an additional darkened basal ring; intermediate sternites more uniformly pale, the outer segments banded as are the tergites; valves of ovipositor very long and slender, yellowish horn color.

Holotype, ♀, Higuito, San Mateo, Costa Rica (Pablo Schild); United States National Museum.

I am pleased to name this interesting species for the collector, Mr. Pablo Schild (Paul Schild), who added materially to our knowledge of Costa Rican insects. The fly is most similar to *Helius* (*Helius*) *miranda* (Alexander), of Amazonian Brazil and Peru, differing in the pattern of the body and wings, especially the broad and conspicuous basal wing band and the handsomely patterned mesonotum.

Helius (Helius) phasmatis new species.

Belongs to the *albitarsis* group; thorax yellow, the central portion of scutum and mediotergite, together with the scutellum, a very little infuscated; halteres uniformly pale yellow; legs pale yellow, the tarsi extensively snowy white; wings subhyaline, stigma very long and narrow, brown; *r–m* obliterated by fusion of veins R_{4+5} and M_{1+2}; abdominal tergites brown, hypopygium obscure yellow.

MALE.—Length about 7 mm.; wing 7.5 mm.

Rostrum obscure brownish yellow, about as long as the remainder of head. Antennæ relatively short, subequal in length to rostrum, yellow throughout; flagellar segments passing through suboval to elongate-cylindrical, the longest verticils considerably exceeding the segments in length. Head dark brown, sparsely pruinose; eyes large, the anterior vertex reduced to a capillary line that is scarcely wider than a single row of ommatidia.

Cervical region, pronotum and mesonotum yellow, the scutellum, central region of scutum and the mediotergite a very little infuscated; pleura and broad lateral borders of the præscutum and scutal lobes still paler yellow. Halteres uniformly pale yellow. Legs with the coxæ and trochanters pale yellow; femora, tibiæ and most of basitarsi pale yellow, the apex of the last and remainder of tarsi snowy white. Wings subhyaline, cells *C* and *Sc* a trifle darker; stigma very long and narrow, still darker brown; veins brown. Venation: Crossvein *r–m* obliterated by the short fusion of R_{4+5} on M_{1+2}, the fusion shorter than the basal section of R_{4+5}; cell *1st* M_2 large, irregularly hexagonal, the longest faces being the caudal, proximal and cephalic; *m* about one-third the basal section of M_3; all veins beyond *1st* M_2 much exceeding the cell; cell *2nd A* relatively narrow.

Abdominal tergites brown, the sternites a little paler; hypopygium abruptly obscure yellow.

Holotype, ♂, Santo Domingo, without exact geographical data, March 1928 (P. A. Ricart); United States National Museum.

Helius (*Helius*) *phasmatis* differs conspicuously from all other described species of the *albitarsis* group in the yellow coloration of the thorax, as well as in the yellow legs and halteres.

Genus *Oxydiscus* de Meijere

Oxydiscus (Oxydiscus) destitutus new species.

General coloration of thoracic notum chestnut brown, the præscutum with a darker brown median stripe; wings with a pale brown suffusion; macrotrichia of cells restricted in number; *Rs* strongly arcuated; R_{2+3+4} elevated, in direct longitudinal alignment with vein R_3, the fork of cell R_3 asymmetrical; vein R_2 close to fork of R_{2+3+4}; male hypopygium with the ventral spines of the ædeagus apparently lacking.

MALE.—Length about 3.6 mm.; wing 4.4 mm.

Rostrum chestnut brown; palpi broken. Antennæ broken. Head dark brown; anterior vertex moderately wide, approximately equal to the transverse diameter of eye as viewed from above.

Pronotum dark brown. Mesonotal præscutum chiefly chestnut brown, the median region darkened to produce a poorly delimited median stripe; posterior sclerites of notum obscure yellow, the scutal lobes weakly darkened; pleurotergite yellow. Pleura brownish yellow. Halteres pale, the knobs weakly darkened. Legs with the coxæ and trochanters testaceous yellow; femora brown, the tibiæ and tarsi a little paler brown; tibial spurs conspicuous; claws elongate, simple. Wings not conspicuously widened, with a pale brown suffusion; prearcular and costal regions somewhat more yellowed; stigma pale brown and very inconspicuous, lying entirely beyond the level of vein R_2; veins brown. Macrotrichia of cells restricted to sparse series in central portions of outer ends of cells R_3 to *2nd* M_2, inclusive. Venation: As compared with *costaricensis*; Sc_1 subequal to vein R_1 between the origin of Rs and Sc_2; Rs approximately of the same length but much more arcuated; R_{2+3+4} more elevated, in direct alignment with R_3 so the fork of cell R_3 is asymmetrical; R_{2+3+4} more than one half Rs; vein R_2 close to fork of R_{2+3+4}; cell *1st* M_2 narrower; *m–cu* about one-half its length beyond the fork of M; vein *2nd A* ending shortly beyond the level of origin of Rs, bent rather suddenly into the margin. In *costaricensis*, Sc_1 is only a little more than one-half R_1; Rs is only slightly arcuated so cell R_1 is correspondingly narrow; R_2 about its own length beyond fork of R_{2+3+4}; fork of cell R_3 symmetrical; *m–cu* nearly its own length beyond fork of M.

Abdomen almost uniformly dark brown, the incisures a trifle paler. Male hypopygium with the dististyles about as in the other regional species of the genus. The paired spines of the ventral plate of the ædeagus, found in the other species, are here apparently lacking; in *acutissimus* and *mexicanus*, these appear as elongate spines.

Holotype, ♂, Pedregoso, Costa Rica, altitude 2,075 feet, January 1939 (Dean Rounds).

The present fly is very distinct from the only other described Costa Rican species, *Oxydiscus* (*Oxydiscus*) *costaricensis* (Alexander), differing particularly in the venational features above indicated. The details of structure of the male hypopygium in *costaricensis* are not known to me. From *O.* (*O.*) *acutissimus* Alexander and *O.* (*O.*) *mexicanus* Alexander, of southern Mexico, the present fly differs most evidently in the structure of the male hypopygium, particularly of the ventral plate of the ædeagus. It is now evident that there are rather numerous species of the genus in mountainous Middle and northwestern South America.

Genus *Neognophomyia* Alexander

Neognophomyia heliconiæ new species.

General coloration yellow, the anepisternum and pleurotergite each with a conspicuous black spot; wings subhyaline, the prearcular and costal fields a trifle more yellowed; a relatively narrow but conspicuous brown band at cord; abdomen yellow, tergites two and three on sides, five and six almost entirely blackened; male hypopygium with tergal spines yellow, very long and slender, especially their hairlike tips; both dististyles small and simple, the inner one narrowly blackened; phallosome a depressed plate, its apex broadly obtuse, with a small median blackened knob or point.

MALE.—Length about 4.5–5 mm.; wing 4.8–5.2 mm.

FEMALE.—Length about 4.8–5 mm.; wing 5–5.2 mm.

Rostrum yellow; palpi with two basal segments yellow, the outer ones infuscated. Antennæ with scape and pedicel yellow, flagellum black; flagellar segments long-oval, the verticils conspicuous. Head yellow; anterior vertex narrow, especially so in male where it is about equal to the diameter of the scape, in female a little wider; posterior vertex with a Y-shaped or triangular depression between its posterior portion and the anterior vertex.

Pronotum light yellow. Mesonotum yellow, the surface shiny, the scutal lobes somewhat deeper in color; pleurotergite with a very large and extensive blackened area. Pleura yellow, with a second circular black spot that occupies most of the anepisternum. Halteres yellow, tips of knobs weakly darkened. Legs yellow; tips of basitarsi and remainder of tarsi brownish black; in some specimens, the fore tarsi more extensively darkened. Wings subhyaline, the prearcular and costal fields a trifle more yellowed; a relatively narrow but conspicuous brown band at cord, widest at costa, narrowed behind, ending at *Cu;* outer end of cell *1st* M_2 very narrowly seamed with brown; veins brownish yellow, more flavous in the brightened fields, dark brown in the patterned areas. Venation: R_{2+3+4} varying from about two-thirds to fully as long as R_{3+4}; vein R_3 oblique, R_4 very long, terminating at wing-tip; cell *1st* M_2 short, widened outwardly; *m–cu* from one-fourth to one-half its length beyond fork of *M;* cell *2nd A* relatively narrow.

Abdomen yellow, tergites two and three with large and conspicuous black lateral areas; tergites five and six, in most specimens, entirely brownish black; in the males with the central portion a trifle paler, forming more or less distinct yellow triangles; sternites, remainder of tergites and the hypopygium of male yellow; in female, the genital segment weakly infuscated. Male hypopygium with the tergal spines yellow, very long and slender, the basal half of each appearing as a narrow blade, the distal half narrowed into an exceedingly slender hairlike point, somewhat as in *productissima.* Both dististyles small and simple, the outer style with about four elongate setæ, one apical in position; inner style relatively narrow, especially on its distal half, the apex subacute, narrowly blackened, the outer surface of basal portion with several long powerful setæ. Phallosome a broad, depressed plate, its apex produced into a small black median knob, somewhat as in *monophora,* but with the lateral shoulders much more conspicuous, the general apex of the plate being broadly obtuse.

Holotype, ♂, Barro Colorado, Canal Zone, April 1940, ex flowers of *Heliconia mariæ* (Musaceæ); (James Zetek, No. 4645);

United States National Museum. Allotopotype, ♀. Paratopotypes, 3 ♂♂, 10 ♀♀.

In the structure of the male hypopygium, the present species is quite distinct from other related members of the genus. In the pale, exceedingly produced tergal spines, it is most similar to the otherwise distinct *Neognophomyia productissima* Alexander, while in the nature of the phallosomic plate it somewhat suggests species such as *N. monophora* Alexander, but all details of this plate, as well as other structures of the hypopygium, are quite distinct in the two flies.

Genus *Gnophomyia* Osten Sacken

Gnophomyia (Gnophomyia) apicularis new species.

Allied to *tuber;* general coloration of mesonotum brown, more or less pruinose, the præscutum with indications of a slightly darker brown stripe; femora obscure yellow, with a very vague, light brown subterminal ring; wings light brown, stigma scarcely evident; *Rs* in alignment with R_5; male hypopygium with the mesal face of bastistyle produced into a setiferous tubercle; outer dististyle a relatively short, blackened, paddle-like blade; inner dististyle blackened, its lower apical angle produced into a slender spine; phallosome at apex produced into a diamond-shaped median point.

MALE.—Length about 6.5–7 mm.; wing 6–6.5 × 1.7–1.8 mm.; antenna about 1.8–1.9 mm.

Rostrum and palpi dark brown. Antennæ with scape and pedicel brownish yellow to brown, flagellum brown, the first segment narrowly pale at base; segments subcylindrical, the outer ones shorter; terminal segment long-oval, shorter than the penultimate. Head brownish gray, light gray on the orbits; eyes large; anterior vertex relatively narrow, about three times the diameter of the scape.

Pronotum obscure brownish yellow, more infuscated on sides; pretergites pale yellow. Mesonotum brown, more or less pruinose, the præscutum with indications of a slightly darker brown median stripe, the laterals undifferentiated; humeral and lateral regions of præscutum more yellowed; pseudosutural foveæ reddish brown; posterior border of scutellum narrowly reddened, more conspicuous on sides; lateral border of anterior half of mediotergite and much of dorsal portion of pleurotergite deep obscure yellow. Pleura infuscated dorsally, more reddened on the sternopleurite and meron, the surface distinctly pruinose; metapleura light yellow. Halteres short, obscure yellow, the base of knob very weakly darkened. Legs with the coxæ and trochanters yellow, the posterior coxæ somewhat paler; femora obscure yellow, with very vague indications of a narrow, light brown, subterminal ring; tibiæ and basitarsi obscure yellow, second and third tarsal segments obscure yellow, tipped with darker; outer segments more uniformly brownish black; claws simple. Wings moderately wide, tinged with very light brown, the prearcular and costal fields light yellow; stigma reduced to a scarcely evident seam along vein R_{1+2}, not reaching vein R_3 behind; veins brown, more brownish yellow in the basal portions. Venation: Sc_1 ending just before level of R_2, Sc_2 slightly variable in position, from just beyond level of fork of *Rs* to about opposite one-third the length of R_{2+3+4}; *r–m* at or just beyond fork of *Rs*, the latter in alignment with R_5; cell *1st* M_2 subequal to vein M_4 beyond it; *m–cu* about its own length beyond fork of *M* or nearly opposite two-fifths the length of cell *1st* M_2; cell *2nd A* broad.

Abdominal tergites dark brown, the caudal borders of the sternites more testaceous; hypopygium brown. Male hypopygium with the basistyle short and stout, on mesal face near base with a small setiferous tubercle, somewhat as in *tuber*. Outer dististyle a relatively short, blackened, paddlelike blade, its apex obtuse. Inner dististyle less than one-half the length of the outer, blackened, the lower apical angle produced into a slender beaklike spine, the apex beyond this point strongly produced. Phallosome with apex emarginate, further produced into a conspicuous blackened structure that is more or less diamond-shaped, the apex truncated.

Holotype, ♂, Pedrogoso, Costa Rica, altitude 2,100 feet, January 1939 (Dean Rounds). Paratopotype, ♂.

The most similar described species is *Gnophomyia* (*Gnophomyia*) *tuber* Alexander, of Ecuador, which is approximately alike in its general appearance, differing conspicuously in the structure of the male hypopygium, particularly the outer dististyle, inner dististyle and the phallosome.

Gnophomyia (Gnophomyia) subapicularis new species.

Allied to *tuber;* general coloration of mesonotum blackened, more or less pruinose, especially on the posterior sclerites; pleura variegated with black, reddish brown and yellow; halteres brownish black; posterior legs brownish yellow, paler than the fore pair; wings relatively narrow, with a weak dusky tinge; Sc_1 ending about opposite two-thirds the length of R_{2+3+4}; abdomen chiefly blackened, hypopygium and ovipositor paler; male hypopygium with a setiferous tubercle on cephalic end of mesal face of basistyle; outer dististyle relatively slender; inner dististyle with lower apical angle produced into a chitinized point.

MALE.—Length about 5 mm.; wing 5.3–5.5 × 1.3–1.4 mm.

FEMALE.—Length about 5.5 mm.; wing 6 mm.

Rostrum light brown; palpi darker brown. Antennæ brownish black throughout; flagellar segments elongate, subcylindrical, shortening very gradually to the terminal ones; verticils subequal in length to the segments. Head blackened, heavily gray pruinose; eyes large and protuberant; anterior vertex broad, nearly five times the diameter of scape.

Pronotum yellow medially, dark brown on sides, pretergites even clearer yellow. Mesonotum almost uniformly black, the humeral region of præscutum slightly more reddened; pseudosutural foveæ black; scutal lobes and lateral portions of præscutum more polished black; median region of scutum, scutellum and postnotum similarly blackened but more pruinose. Pleura with the dorsal sternopleurite and pteropleurite reddish brown, the propleura and anepisterum extensively blackened; ventral sternopleurite darkened; metapleura paling to light yellow; surface of pleura more or less heavily pruinose. Halteres brownish black, base of stem restrictedly brightened. Legs with the coxæ yellow, the fore pair more darkened basally; trochanters yellow; fore legs with femora, tibiæ and basitarsi brownish black, on the other legs paler brown or, on posterior legs, brownish yellow; outer tarsal segments blackened; claws simple. Wings relatively narrow, with a weak dusky tinge; stigma elongate, darker brown; veins brownish black. Venation: Sc_1 ending about opposite two-thirds the length of R_{2+3+4}, Sc_2 nearly opposite fork of *Rs; r–m* variable in position but approximately at the fork of *Rs; m–cu* usually less than its own length beyond the fork of *M*.

Abdominal tergites black or piceous; sternites usually obscure yellow, darkened laterally; hypopygium obscure yellow to light brown. Ovipositor and genital shield brownish yellow, the tips of the cerci narrowly darkened. Male hypopygium with the basistyle stout, the mesal face near cephalic end produced into a conspicuous setiferous lobe, approximately as in *apicularis* and *tuber*. Outer dististyle longer and more slender than in *apicularis,* the apex narrow. Inner dististyle darkened, the lower apical angle produced into a toothlike point; apex of style beyond this truncated, not strongly produced as in *apicularis*. Phallosome narrowed outwardly, the blackened apex produced into four points, two of which are more elongate blackened rods, the remaining pair representing the low outer lateral angles of a ventral median plate.

Holotype, ♂, Pedregoso, Costa Rica, altitude 2,100 feet, January 1939 (Dean Rounds). Allotopotype, ♀. Paratopotypes, 7 ♂ ♀, altitude 2,075–2,100 feet, January 1939.

Gnophomyia (*Gnophomyia*) *subapicularis* is most similar to *G.* (*G.*) *apicularis* new species and *G.* (*G.*) *tuber* Alexander, differing especially in the structure of the male hypopygium, particularly of both dististyles and the phallosome. The tubercle on the basistyle and the tooth at apex of the inner dististyle provide noteworthy characters among the host of allied and generally similar forms.

SOME COLLECTIONS OF LEPIDOPTERA

It is often of interest and sometimes of importance to ascertain where a certain collection of Lepidoptera is located. English collectors are fortunate in having a book entitled "Where is the —— collection?" by Charles Davies Sherborn, which gives such information, but there is no similar work on American collections. Even a search of the literature often does not produce results. For that reason I am publishing this brief note respecting several collections acquired by me.

Part of the collection made by E. H. Blackmore of Victoria, British Columbia, was purchased during 1935; the collection, library and correspondence of Thomas E. Bean, were purchased in April, 1936. This collection was made, in part, at Galena, Illinois, but mostly at Laggan, Alberta. Bean was a correspondent of William Henry Edwards and supplied him with much of the data contained in the third volume of "The Butterflies of North America." The collection of Max Rothke of Scranton, Pennsylvania, was purchased in November, 1936; that of R. F. Sternitzky of San Francisco, California, in February, 1938; the collection of Owen Bryant, including his Arctic material, in January, 1941, and I also acquired the small local collection of Louis Doerfel of Newark, New Jersey.

Some of these collections are of considerable historic interest to lepidopterists and contained a number of types and paratypes. The types were given to The American Museum of Natural History. Most of the paratypes remain in my collection.—Cyril F. dos Passos.

A PRELIMINARY REPORT ON CHILOPODA AT ISHAN, KWANGSI AND MEITAN, KWEICHOW

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The Chilopoda which are described in the present report belong to the orders Geophilomorpha, Scolopendromorpha, Lithebiemorpha and Scutigeromorpha and consist of 6 families, 6 genera and 7 species. They should all be included in the paleoarctic forms, the oriental forms and subtropical forms. The species and their characteristics and locations may be stated as follows:

Order GEOPHILOMORPHA

Family GEOPHILIDÆ

Body long, worm-shaped. Eyes absent. Basal shield as long as wide. Ventral pores and coxal pores present.

Genus *Geophilus* Leach

Geophilus duponti Attem

Two specimens examined, measurements in mm.

	No. 20	No. 21
Body length	56	58
Body width	2	2
Basal shield length	1	1
Basal shield width	1	1
Neck length	1.5	1.5
Antenna	2	2
Anal leg	2	2

Ocellus absent; antenna short, 14 joints; basal shield as long as wide; terga a longitudinal band; walking legs 73 pairs; sternum squarius, haired; ventral pores present, crescent shaped at posterior part of each sternum; the 24th to 36th segment, 2 grooves present at the anterior edge of each sternum; anal leg short, 20 coxal pores on each coxa.

Color pale brown; it occurs at Kwangsi and Kweichow. I found it in Meitan under soil.

Family MECISTOCEPHALIDÆ

Basal shield longer than wide; ventral pores absent.

Genus *Mecistocephalus* Newport

Mecistocephalus mecistocephalus Newport

One specimen only. Body length 70 mm. Body width 2 mm., length of basal shield three times longer than width; neck 1 mm.; antennæ 7 mm.; anal leg 4 mm.

Ocellus absent; antenna 14 joints; labium 2 dentitions; body, walking legs and antenna haired; walking legs 65 pairs; no ventral pores; coxal present, more than 68 on each anal leg.

Color yellowish brown, head chestnut red. It occurs at Kwangsi, and feeds upon earthworms.

Order SCOLOPENDROMORPHA

(1) Family SCOLOPENDRIDÆ

Ocellus present, by the genus *Mimops* with a white eye spot. Tarsus always two joints. Sternum with lateral longitudinal furrows or without furrow, rarely with one median furrow, none with transverse furrow; each half of the intercalary sternum two parted, the intercalary terga, for the most part, not greatly developed, often not visible.

Genus *Scolopendra*

Scolopendra subspinipes Leach

Three specimens, measurements in mm.

	No. 1	No. 2	No. 3
Body length	143	120	114
Width	11	10	9.5
Head length	8	7.5	7
Width	8.5	8	6
Neck width	10.5	10	10
Antennæ	28	22	Damaged
Uropods	26	25	21
Sex	Female	Male	Female
Locality	Ishan	Ishan	Meitan

Head brownish yellow, terga dark green, sterna brownish yellow, ocellus 4 on each side of head; labium 5 dentate plates; antenna 18 joints; terga 21 in number, the twelfth, the broadest; stigmata, 9 pairs on each pleuron of the third, fifth, eighth, tenth, twelfth, fourteenth, sixteenth, eighteenth, and twentieth segment. Walking legs 21 pairs, uropods the longest, anal segment with two strong spines. The prefemur of uropod with 3 spines on interior upper edge, 2 spines on exterior lower edge; and 2 spines on interior lower edge; no spine on tarsus. It is found at Kwangsi and Kweichow, more abundant at Kwangsi. I have found it at Kiangsu, Chekiang and Jukien.

Scolopendra japonica L. Koch

Two specimens, male, measurements in mm.

	No. 4	No. 5
Body length	71	65
Body width	7	6
Head length	5	5
Head width	5.5	5
Neck width	6.5	6
Antenna	14	17
Uropods	16	16
Locality	Ishan	Meitan

Head and terga reddish brown, terga bordered with black, sterna brownish yellow. It differs from *subspinipes* in two characteristics: (1) With 4 dentates on labium; (2) 3 spines on exterior lower edge of the prefemur of uropods and one spine on the tarsus of uropods.

Family CRYPTOPIDÆ

Eyes absent. Tarsus of the 1st–19th pairs of legs one joint, only in Trigonocryptes two joints. Sterna with median furrow, rarely absent, often with transverse furrow, none with 2 longitudinal furrows. Intercalary sterna half, simple, intercalary terga most strongly developed.

Genus *Otocryptops* Hasse

Otocryptops rubiginosus (L. Koch)

Four specimens, measurements in mm.

	No. 6	No. 7	No. 8	No. 9
Body length	49	36	31	26
Body width	4.5	4	4	3
Head length	4	3	3	2.5
Head width	4	3	3	2.5
Neck width	4	3	3	2
Antenna	9	8	8	7
Uropods	Damaged	9	Damaged	7
Location	Ishan	Ishan	Ishan	Meitan

Head without median furrow, antenna 17 joints, haired; labium without dentates. Terga 23 in number, stigma 10 pairs, on each pleuron of the 3rd, 5th, 8th, 10th, 12th, 14th, 16th, 18th, 20th and 22nd segment. Walking legs 23 pairs, uropods with 1 spine each on upper and lower surface of prefemur. Color orange brown to reddish brown, head paler. It occurred at Kwangsi and Kweichow, more abundant at Ishan.

Order LITHOBIOMORPHA

Only one family, Lithobudæ, and one genus, *Monotarsobius* Verhoeff, has been collected by the laboratory.

Monotarsobius holstu Pocock

Four specimens, measurements in mm.

	No. 10	No. 11	No. 12	No. 13
Body length	17	16	15	8
Body width	2.5	2	2.5	1.2
Head length	2	2	3	1
Head width	2.5	2	3.2	1.5
Neck width	2.2	2	3	1
Antenna	8	7	9	3.2
Uropods	Damaged	8	7	3
Locality	Meitan	......	......	......

Color dark brown. Head with 3 ocelli on each side; labium with 2 dentates, the base of labium furrowed, antenna 21 joints, haired; terga 15 in number, 8 larger, the 5th segment the broadest; stigma 6 pairs, on each pleuron of the 3rd, 5th, 8th, 10th, 12th and 14th segment. Walking legs 15 pairs, spinous; uropods relatively long, with 0, 1, 3, 1, 0 spines. It feeds on insects and is found under bark and stone. The younger has only 7 segments.

It is more abundant in Meitan. I have found it at Kwangsi and Chekiang.

Order SCUTIGEROMORPHA

Family SCUTIGERIDÆ

Genus *Thereuonema* Verhoeff

Thereuonema tuberculata (Wood)

Six specimens, measurements in mm.

	No. 14	No. 15	No. 16	No. 17	No. 18	No. 19
Body length	15	20	17	11	8	4
Body width	3	3	2.5	2	1.5	0.7
Head length	2	2.5	2	1.5	1.2	0.7
Head width	2.5	3.2	2.5	2	1.8	0.8
Neck width	1.5	2	2	1	0.9	0.5
Antenna	20	24	22	18	14	5
Uropods	27	30	29	20	17	7
Locality	Meitan	......	......	......	......	......

Ocelli numerous; labium with 4 long dentates on each partition; antenna long, 4 parted, more than 400 joints, 11 terga visible, eight larger, the 5th tergum, the longest. Stigma 7 in single number on posterior border of each larger tergum, walking legs 15 pairs, each with 8 blue rings, tarsus 47 joints; uropods very long, spine 1, 2, 2, 3, on humerus, prefemur, femur and tibia.

Color dark brown with 3 blue black longitudinal bands, legs paler.

It is active at night, may be found on the walls and in corners or under stones and soil of human habitations, and is more abundant at Kweichow and Kwangsi. I have found it occurring at Chekiang and Kiangsu.

NOTES ON THE POTATO TUBER MOTH—Gnorimoschema (Phthorimaea) operculella (Zell) IN NEW JERSEY

During the inspection for the tuber moth in New Jersey the New Jersey Department of Agriculture learned of a dump of condemned, southern potatoes on a farm in Burlington County. Clean up of this dump was postponed in the hope that our northern winter would destroy the infestation by this southern insect.

An inspection was made November 10, 1943, and many moths were on the wing. A few larvæ were present. Many pupæ and prepupæ were found. No infested tubers found. Three nights of freezing to this date. A week later moths were still flying; many pupæ and prepupæ; no larvæ. Seven nights of freezing to this date.

No moths were found on February 10, 1944. Many pupæ in various stages of development but the prepupæ were dead. Pupæ gathered and caged started emergence four days later. Seventy-seven days of freezing weather to date.

Healthy pupæ were collected March 31, 1944 and started to emerge three days later. Many pupæ subjected to prolonged moisture had died and were covered with molds. The major portion of live pupæ was found in the ears and folds of the bag closures. Total days of freezing weather to date, 112. A start was made in burning over the dump with Hauck weed burners.

Burning was half finished April 13 and was completed April 19, 1944. Rains and the wet condition of the pile prevented finishing the burning sooner and in the interval moths had emerged. The farmer had planted potatoes in the field adjoining this potato pile and it was necessary to bury and fumigate the potatoes in the dump. These notes show that the potato tuber moth can survive our winter, under certain conditions.

No attempt was made to correlate moisture and temperature during the period of observation. It is assumed that moisture was at an optimum in the lower layers of the pile, with variation only in the upper layer. The death of the pupæ under the upper strata shows that excessive moisture destroys the insect.

The progressive death of larvæ and prepupæ and the disappearance of the moth leads one to assume that survival was only possible in the pupal stage.—WILLIAM M. BOYD.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE NEW YORK ENTOMOLOGICAL SOCIETY

Meeting of January 5, 1943

The Annual Meeting of the New York Entomological Society was held on January 5, 1943, in the American Museum of Natural History, with President Weiss in the chair; thirteen members and nine visitors present.

The treasurer's report for 1942 was read by Dr. Spieth. Dr. Gertsch reported that the Auditing Committee had found the treasurer's books in good order. Both these reports were accepted.

The Nominating Committee's recommendations for the officers for 1943 were read by Mr. Soraci as follows:

President	Wm. P. Comstock
Vice-President	Edwin Way Teale
Secretary	Annette L. Bacon
Treasurer	Willis J. Gertsch
Librarian and Curator	Leonard J. Sanford
Executive Committee	S. W. Bromley
	Wm. T. Davis
	Albert Hartzell
	A. B. Klots
	F. E. Lutz
Publication Committee	Ernest L. Bell
	Herbert Ruckes
	Edwin W. Teale
	Harry B. Weiss
Delegate to the New York Academy of Sciences	Wm. T. Davis

There being no further nominations from the floor, a motion was adopted that the secretary cast one ballot and elect the above proposed officers for 1943. Mr. Weiss then turned the meeting over to the new President, Mr. Comstock.

The President called the attention of the members to the fact that the Certificate of Incorporation of The New York Entomological Society would expire according to its terms on or about the Twenty-fifth day of February, 1943, and that it was desirable to extend the existence of the Society pursuant to Section 45 of the General Corporataion Law. After a discussion, upon motion duly made by Mr. dos Passos, seconded by Mr. Sherman, and unanimously carried, it was:

Resolved, That a special meeting of the members of The New York Entomological Society be held at The American Museum of Natural History, Central Park West, New York City, New York, on the 19th day of January, 1943, at 7:45 P.M., Eastern War Time, to vote upon a proposition to extend the existence of The New York Entomological Society in perpetuity, or for such length of time as the members may decide at said meeting.

The secretary read the following Notice of the Special Meeting and the proxy that was sent to all members of the Society.

THE NEW YORK ENTOMOLOGICAL SOCIETY

THE AMERICAN MUSEUM OF NATURAL HISTORY
CENTRAL PARK, WEST
NEW YORK CITY, NEW YORK

NOTICE OF A SPECIAL MEETING OF THE MEMBERS TO BE HELD ON THE 19TH DAY OF JANUARY, 1943

TO THE MEMBERS OF THE NEW YORK ENTOMOLOGICAL SOCIETY:

Please take notice that by resolution of the members of The New York Entomological Society duly adopted at a regular meeting thereof held on the 5th day of January, 1943, a special meeting of the members of The New York Entomological Society will be held at The American Museum of Natural History, Central Park West, New York City, New York, on the 19th day of January, 1943, at 7:45 P.M., Eastern War Time, for the purpose of voting upon a proposition to extend the existence of said Society in perpetuity, or for such length of time as the members may determine.

Attention is called to the fact that the corporate existence of The New York Entomological Society will expire on the 25th day of February, 1943, unless extended as the result of action taken at the aforesaid special meeting. It is, therefore, very important that you attend said meeting either in person or be represented by proxy. Please sign and return the enclosed proxy in any event, so that we may be assured of a quorum.

January 6, 1943

Annette L. Bacon
Recording Secretary

Wm. P. Comstock
President

Note: No member in arrears in the payment of dues for over six months shall be entitled to vote at said meeting unless satisfactory explanation is given to the Executive Committee. (By-Laws: Art. XVI.)

THE NEW YORK ENTOMOLOGICAL SOCIETY

THE AMERICAN MUSEUM OF NATURAL HISTORY
CENTRAL PARK WEST
NEW YORK CITY, NEW YORK

PROXY

For a special meeting of the members of

The New York Entomological Society

Know all men by these presents, that the undersigned, a member of The New York Entomological Society, hereby makes, constitutes and appoints Harry B. Weiss, William P. Comstock, and Annette L. Bacon, or any one or more of them, true and lawful attorney and proxy for and in the name, place and stead of the undersigned, to attend at the special meeting of the members of The New York Entomological Society called to be held on the 19th day of January, 1943, at The American Museum of Natural History, Central Park West, New York City, New York, and to vote upon a proposition to extend the existence of said Society in perpetuity or for such length of time as the members may determine, and for the transaction of such other business as may come before the meeting or any adjournment thereof, whether incidental to any of the foregoing or otherwise; and at said meeting and any adjournment or adjournments thereof, to vote in the name of the undersigned as fully as the undersigned could do if personally present, hereby ratifying and confirming all that the said attorney and proxy, or substitute duly appointed, may do by virtue hereof, and hereby revoking any or all proxy or proxies or powers of attorney in this behalf heretofore made by the undersigned.

January , 1943. ———————————— (L.S.)

The following resolutions were then adopted: *Resolved,* That the form of notice of said special meeting, presented and read by the Recording Secretary, be and the same hereby is approved; and it was further *Resolved,* That the form of proxy to be used at said meeting, presented and read by the Recording Secretary be and the same hereby is approved; and it was further *Resolved,* That the Recording Secretary be, and she hereby is instructed and directed to cause said notice of said special meeting to be given to the members of the Society in accordance with the provisions of the corporation laws of the State of New York.

There were four proposals for membership: Prof. T. C. Schneirla, New York University, Department of Psychology; Mr. Henry S. Fleming, Department of Tropical Research, Bronx Park; Mr. H. P. Boyd, Boy Scouts of America; Mr. John G. Thorndike, 1075 Park Avenue, New York City.

The resignation of Mr. Adolf Klein was accepted with regret.

To serve on the Program Committee, Mr. Comstock appointed Mr. Becker, Dr. Michener and Mr. Soraci.

Since the By-Laws of the Society were found to be out-of-date, the President appointed Mr. dos Passos and Miss Bacon members of a committee to review the present By-Laws and to recommend modifications and corrections of them sometime during this year.

Dr. Mont A. Cazier, the speaker of the evening, discussed Modern Methods Applied in Systematic Analyses, using a genus of beetles as an illustration. After a discussion, mainly by Mr. Weiss and Mr. Comstock, the meeting was adjourned.

MINUTES OF A SPECIAL MEETING OF THE NEW YORK ENTOMOLOGICAL SOCIETY

A special meeting of the members of The New York Entomological Society was held at The American Museum of Natural History, Central Park West, New York City, New York, on the 19th day of January, 1943, at 7:45 P.M.

The meeting was called to order by Mr. William P. Comstock, the President of the Society, who acted as temporary Chairman.

Miss Annette L. Bacon, the Recording Secretary of the Society, acted as Secretary of the meeting.

The Secretary presented a certified alphabetical list of the members of the Society entitled to vote at the meeting.

The calling of the roll was dispensed with by unanimous consent.

The Secretary reported that the following nine members were present in person: A. L. Bacon, C. F. dos Passos, J. D. Sherman, Jr., W. P. Comstock, N. M. Payne, H. T. Spieth, W. T. Davis, L. J. Sanford, H. B. Weiss.

The Secretary reported that 66 members were represented by proxies to Harry B. Weiss, William P. Comstock and Annette L. Bacon or any one or more of them.

The proxies were presented and examined and upon motion duly made, seconded and unanimously carried were ordered to be filed. Thereupon the temporory Chairman announced that a quorum was in attendance at the meeting and that the election of a permanent chairman was in order.

Upon motion duly made, seconded and unanimously carried, Mr. William P. Comstock was elected Chairman of the meeting and Miss Annette L. Bacon was appointed Secretary of the Meeting.

The Secretary presented an affidavit of Annette L. Bacon sworn to the 7th day of January, 1943, proving the service by mail on the 6th day of January, 1943, of the notice of the special meeting of the members of The New York Entomological Society to be held on the 19th day of January, 1943, upon all the members of said Society, a list of whom is thereto attached and marked exhibit B and the same was ordered to be filed.

After a discussion of the purpose for which the meeting was called, it was:

Resolved, That the duration of the Corporation is to be perpetual and it was further:

Resolved, That the proper officers of the corporation to wit: William P. Comstock, President, and Annette L. Bacon, Recording Secretary, be and they hereby are authorized, directed and empowered to execute, subscribe and acknowledge a Certificate of the Extension of The New York Entomological Society and to file the same in the office of the Secretary of State of the State of New York, pursuant to Section 45 of the General Corporation Law, and it was further:

Resolved, That the said officers of the corporation be, and they hereby are authorized, directed and empowered to take such further steps and proceedings as may be necessary or advisable in order to accomplish the purpose of this meeting, including the payment of the filing fee of $25.00.

There being no further business the meeting adjourned.

CERTIFICATE

I, the undersigned, Annette L. Bacon, Recording Secretary of The New York Entomological Society, do hereby certify that annexted hereto and marked Exhibit "A," is a true and complete list of all the Members of The New York Entomological Society as of January 19, 1943, entitled to vote at the Special Meeting of the Members of said Society held on said date.

Dated, January 19, 1943

ANNETTE L. BACON
Recording Secretary

State of New York } ss.
County of New York }

Annette L. Bacon duly sworn, deposes and says that she is the Recording Secretary of The New York Entomological Society, that she executed the foregoing Certificate as such and that the same is true to her knowledge.

Sworn to before me this
19th day of January, 1943

Members of The New York Entomological Society
entitled to vote on January 19, 1943

Alexander, C. P.
Angell, J. W.
Bacon, A. L.
Barber, G. W.
Barber, H. G.
Bell, E. L.
Bequaert, J.
Bird, H.
Blackwelder, R. E.
Bromley, S. W.
Brown, F. M.
Church, F. E.
Clausen, L. W.
Collins, D. L.
Comstock, W. P.
Connola, D. P.
Crawford, J. C.
Creighton, W. S.
Dalmat, H.
Davis, W. T.
Dethier, V. G.
Dietrich, H.
Engelhardt, E. S.
Felt, E. P.
Fenton, A.
Forbes, J.
Forbes, W. T. M.
Fox, H.
Funkhouser, W. D.
Furness, G. C.
Garman, P. H.
Gertsch, W. J.
Granek, I.
Gray, A.
Groth, C. F.
Hagan, H. R.
Hallock, H. C.
Harriot, S.
Hartzell, A.
Haskins, C. P.
Heineman, B.
Hessel, S. A.
Hood, J. D.
Horsfall, J. L.
Huckett, H. C.
Hunter, R. J.
Huntington, E. I.
Janvrin, E. R. P.
Johnson, F.
Johnston, J. W.
Jones, F. M.
Kisliuk, M.
Klots, A. B.
Lacey, L.
Lutz, F. E.
Melander, A. L.
Michener, C. D.
Mutchler, A. J.
Nicolay, A. S.
Notman, H.
Osburn, R. C.
dos Passos, C. F.
Payne, N. M.
Petrunkevitch, A.
Procter, W.
Rau, G.
Readio, P. A.
Rex, E. G.
Richards, A. G.
Riehl, L. A.
Rosenblum, J. H.
Roth, L.
Ruckes, H.
Rumpp, N. L.
Sanford, L. J.
Satterthwait, A. F.
Schiller, W.
Schmitt, A.
Schott, F. M.
Schwarz, H. F.
Scotland, M. B.
Shannon, H. J.
Sherman, J. D.
Soraci, F. A.
Spieth, H. T.
Swift, F. R.
Teale, E. W.
Thomas, C. A.
Watson, F. E.
Weiss, H. B.
Zerkowitz, A.
Ziegler, J. B.

Meeting of January 19, 1943

President Comstock in the chair; 23 members and visitors present.

The following were elected members of the Society: Mr. H. P. Boyd, Mr. H. S. Fleming, Dr. T. S. Schneirla and Mr. J. G. Thorndike.

Dr. James C. King, Red Oaks, White Plains, New York, was proposed for membership.

The resignations of Dr. Wm. C. Moore and Mr. Samuel Harriot were read, and accepted with regret.

Mr. Wm. T. Davis read a letter from the New York Academy of Sciences stating that it would be necessary for the Society to share the cost of Museum guards for the evening meetings. After much discussion, it was the consensus of opinion that we oppose the charge.

Dr. H. T. Spieth moved that the members present express their thanks to Mr. dos Passos for the work and time he spent on the reincorporation of the Society. This was unanimously approved by a standing vote.

Mr. Comstock exhibited some *Anæa* butterflies from Chiapas, in southern Mexico, from the collection of Mr. Frank Johnson, showing interesting seasonal dimorphism.

Mr. Henry S. Fleming of the Department of Tropical Research, New York Zoological Society, spoke of his experiences on a recent trip to Venezuela.

MEETING OF FEBRUARY 2, 1943

President Comstock in the chair; 24 members and visitors present.

Dr. James C. King was elected a member of the Society.

Mr. Comstock reported on a New York Academy of Sciences Council Meeting, which he attended as representative of our Society, regarding the charges for rooms used during the evening for Society meetings. No action was taken by the Society.

Because of the uncertainty of the presence of members of the Society, Mr. Comstock decided not to appoint an Auditing Committee until one was needed.

Mr. Alan S. Nicolay and Mr. Henry S. Fleming were appointed members of the Field Committee.

Mr. E. L. Bell reported the death of Mr. John Boyd in the Solomon Islands. The following resolutions were adopted:

Upon motion duly made seconded and unanimously carried by a standing vote the following preambles and resolutions were duly adopted:

WHEREAS the Society has learned with deep regret of the death of John Boyd of Southern Pines, North Carolina, as the result of wounds received at Guadalcanal while serving in the armed forces of the United States of America and

WHEREAS the deceased, a young and promising entomologist, was well and favorably known to many members of the Society for his interest and field work in Lepidoptera be it

Resolved, That the Society hereby records its deep regret at the untimely passing of John Boyd and expresses its sincere sympathy to his parents, Mr. and Mrs. Jackson H. Boyd of Southern Pines, North Carolina, and it is further

Resolved, That the Secretary be, and she hereby is requested to transmit a certified copy of these preambles and resolutions to Mr. and Mrs. Boyd.

Mr. Thomas D. Mulhern spoke on the Relation of New Jersey Mosquito Control Work to the War Activity and showed 1600 feet of movie film. He brought several members of his staff with him. A vigorous discussion followed in which many questions were answered.

MEETING OF FEBRUARY 16, 1943

President Comstock in the chair; 14 members and visitors present.

A letter from Mr. Mulhern was read saying that the Eastern Association of Mosquito Control Workers was about to issue a Directory of active mosquito workers.

Mr. Alan S. Nicolay spoke on Beetling in the Southern Appalachians with particular emphasis on the races of beetles found on different ranges and mountains, especially in Tennessee.

MEETING OF MARCH 2, 1943

Vice-President Teale in the chair; 24 members and visitors present.

The Committee on Reincorporation of the Society reported that the Certificate of Extension of Existence was obtained and that the Society was extended in perpetuity as of February 17, 1943.

Dr. T. R. Gardner of the Foreign Parasite Introduction Laboratory, Bureau of Entomology and Plant Quarantine, spoke on Unusual and Interesting Habits associated with Oviposition of Parasitic Insects. An informal discussion followed.

MEETING OF MARCH 16, 1943

Former President Weiss in the chair; 30 members and visitors present.

Dr. Robert Cushman Murphy, Chairman of the Department of Birds at the American Museum, spoke on Insects and Other Arthropods of the Peruvian Guano Islands, illustrating his talk with colored lantern slides.

MEETING OF APRIL 6, 1943

President Comstock in the chair; 17 members and visitors present.

Dr. R. G. Oakley, Bureau of Entomology and Plant Quarantine, Hoboken, N. J., was proposed for membership.

Dr. Oakley spoke on Observations and Experiences in Guam, discussing the topography, agriculture, and insect fauna of the island. Of the 1150 species of insects recorded, many are pests—both of the crops (such as weevils, leaf miners and corn borers) and of man (such as mosquitoes, flies and roaches).

MEETING OF APRIL 20, 1943

President Comstock in the chair; 28 members and visitors present.

Mr. dos Passos read the report of the By-Law Committee stating that a new set of By-Laws had been drawn up, copies of which were being sent to members of the Society. The report was accepted as read and the Committee was discharged.

Dr. R. G. Oakley was elected a member of the Society.

Dr. E. P. Felt spoke on Some Early Work in Entomology. He outlined the work done by about twenty American economic entomologists who laid the ground work in the nineteenth century for a great deal of modern economic and systematic entomology.

An interesting discussion followed, containing many reminiscences about entomologists known to members of the Society.

MEETING OF MAY 4, 1943

President Comstock in the chair; 54 members and visitors present.

Because of the large number of visitors present, all business was postponed until the next regular meeting.

Dr. A. L. Melander showed one of his excellent films of colored motion pictures entitled ''Animals from A to Z.'' This film was particularly designed as an educational one to show children the many kinds of animals found in this country. The members were very glad to see it before Dr. Melander left for Riverside, California.

MEETING OF MAY 18, 1943

President Comstock in the chair; 14 members and visitors present.

A resolution to give the remainder of the books belonging to the Society to the Library of the American Museum of Natural History was passed.

Mr. Wm. T. Davis reported on observations of two methods of singing by cicadas—vibrating membranes and the use of wings. In some species, both males and females click their wings to produce a crackling sound.

Mr. G. C. Furness told of experiments leading to insect repellents for the Army. Such repellents provide protection against malaria-bearing mosquitoes in the tropics. Different species of these are repelled with greater effectiveness by different types of repellents.

Mr. Edwin W. Teale showed photographs of emerging *Microgaster*, the parasite of sphingid caterpillars; also a picture of a mantid dining on a short-tailed shrew.

Mr. Wm. P. Comstock showed five cases of mounted butterflies representing species found in Puerto Rico. Distribution and the effects of different habitats on several of these species were discussed. The mass movements of certain species, particularly the sulphurs, were considered as were such peculiarities as seasonal variation, brood differences and local populations.

MEETING OF OCTOBER 5, 1943

President Comstock in the chair; 19 members and visitors present.

A letter from Miss Hazel Gay, Librarian of the American Museum, was read in which she thanked the Society for the books given to the Museum Library.

The scheduled speaker, Mr. C. F. W. Muesebeck of the U. S. National Museum, was unable to be present so Mr. Comstock called for reports on summer activities by members of the Society. On the whole not much collecting was done, few members having time or means of transportation to get out as they had done in the past.

Mr. Comstock showed a collection of butterflies from New Guinea.

MEETING OF OCTOBER 19, 1943

Mr. Becker in the chair; 12 members and visitors present.

Dr. Joseph M. Ginsburg of Rutgers University spoke on the Protection of Outdoor Gatherings from Mosquitoes. In his discussion Dr. Ginsburg made brief remarks on the more important species of mosquitoes and their habits. Repellents of the type applied to the skin, the essential features of long-range mosquito control projects in New Jersey, and the efficacy of various larvicides were discussed. He also spoke of the efficacy of the various aerosols used in repelling and knocking down adult mosquitoes.

MEETING OF NOVEMBER 16, 1943

President Comstock in the chair; 12 members and visitors present.

Miss Lina Sordillo, Department of Insects and Spiders at the American Museum of Natural History, was proposed for membership.

The amended By-Laws of the Society were read by Mr. Teale. Copies of these were sent to the members of the Society before being voted upon.

President Comstock appointed as members of the Auditing Committee Dr. Schneirla (Chairman), Mr. Fleming and Mr. Furness; and of the Nominating Committee Mr. Schwarz (Chairman), Mr. King, Mr. Nicolay and Mr. Sherman.

Mr. Sherman reported that Dr. L. O. Howard was now living in Bronxville, New York, with his daughter.

Dr. Nellie M. Payne of the American Cyanamid Company spoke on The Life History of the Flat Grain Beetle, *Læmophlœus minutus* (Oliv.).

MEETING OF DECEMBER 7, 1943

President Comstock in the chair; 18 members and visitors present.

Miss Lina Sordillo was elected a member of the Society.

Miss Margaret L. Guy, Department of Insects and Spiders in the American Museum of Natural History, was proposed for membership.

A resolution of thanks, to the Department of Insects and Spiders of the American Museum of Natural History for the gift of $75.00 to the Society, was adopted.

The treasurer was authorized to offer a complete set of the Journal of the Society to the Joint University Libraries, Nashville, Tennessee, at a special price of $90.00.

It was with deep regret that the Society heard of the death of Dr. Frank E. Lutz. It was moved and passed that a resolution be drafted by Dr. Schneirla and sent to the family. A letter from Mrs. Lutz was read thanking the members of the Society for the flowers they had sent.

A brief report of the treasurer was read mentioning the larger receipts and disbursements for the year, and saying that the state of the finances of the Society was about the same as a year ago.

Mr. Comstock read a few changes that had been made in the By-Laws, made necessary by the use of the term ''trustees'' in the original certificate of

Incorporation instead of ''executive committee'' as said group has been commonly called.

Dr. T. C. Schneirla spoke of The Place of Learning in Insect Life, and illustrated his interesting discussion with lantern slides.

MEETING OF DECEMBER 21, 1943

President Comstock in the chair; 21 members and visitors present.

Miss Margaret L. Guy was elected a member of the Society.

Dr. Schneirla read the following resolution which was adopted, and the secretary was instructed to send a copy of it to Mrs. Frank E. Lutz.

> ''We, the members of the New York Entomological Society, realize poignantly that with the death of Dr. Frank E. Lutz on November 27 last there has passed from the active lists one of the most valued and beloved of our number. A senior member of the Society, having joined on March 16, 1909, Dr. Lutz contributed fundamentally to the growth of the organization, serving it always as he served the interests of science in general, with the best capacities of his unusual intelligence and genial personality. As a model for others there stands his fine record of leadership as President of the Society in 1925–1926 and as a member of the Executive Board for several years.
>
> ''Vividly there remain in his many valuable publications, in the annals of the Society, and in the memories of his countless friends, ineradicable signs of his magnificent contributions as a natural scientist and great teacher. His very human personality gleams constantly through his achievements, even as a masterful pun used in the title of a book to conceptualize an important part of his work with ''A Lot of Insects.'' His life work shows most impressively the value of studying the small, ordinary and common things in nature as well as the great moments, an attitude that brought him to many original and fundamental accomplishments in the study of nature in general and insect nature in particular. His accomplishments are indeed a priceless source of guidance and inspiration for the future.
>
> ''We resolve upon this statement as a token of the high esteem and honor accorded Dr. Lutz as scientist and man by his fellow members in this Society.''

It was with regret that the Society heard of the deaths of two more of our old members: Dr. E. P. Felt, a member since 1907; and Mr. Christian F. Groth, one of the first members of the Society. Mr. Groth became a member in 1892 and held several offices during the next ten years. Mr. Sherman read the following resolution which was adopted.

> ''WHEREAS Christian F. Groth, our former President and one of the earliest members of The New York Entomological Society, died on December 12th, 1943, at the age of 79 years, be it hereby *Resolved,* That the members of this society convey to his son, Edward M. Groth, counsellor to the U. S. Legation at Pretoria, South Africa, their deepest sympathy together with an expression of appreciation of his father's enthusiastic interest in the welfare of our Society, especially in its early years, and of the sense of personal loss felt by our older members in the death of this genial, lovable friend.''

A motion was made and passed that the amended By-Laws as read on December 7 and sent to all members on December 14 be adopted. A copy of these By-Laws is printed below.

The speaker of the evening, Dr. H. D. Smith of the U. S. Department of Agriculture, spoke on Some Entomological Observations in Mexico. He told of our government's efforts to head off and control a possible invasion of the citrus black-fly pest by the successful introduction of a chalcid parasite into the Mexican areas affected.

ANNETTE L. BACON, *Secretary.*

CERTIFICATE OF INCORPORATION AND BY-LAWS OF THE NEW YORK ENTOMOLOGICAL SOCIETY

ORGANIZED JUNE 29, 1892

INCORPORATED FEBRUARY 25, 1893

CERTIFICATE EXTENDED FEBRUARY 17, 1943

CERTIFICATE OF INCORPORATION OF THE NEW YORK ENTOMOLOGICAL SOCIETY

WE, THE UNDERSIGNED, BERTHOLD NEUMOEGEN, CHARLES PALM, GUSTAV BEYER, RODERIGUES OTTOLENGUI, citizens of and residents within the State of New York, and GEORGE W. J. ANGELL, a citizen of and resident within the State of Connecticut, all being of full age and citizens of the United States, do hereby certify that we desire to form a Society pursuant to the provisions of an act entitled ''An Act for the incorporation of benevolent, charitable, scientific and missionary Societies,'' passed April 12th, 1848, and the several acts amendatory thereof.

First: The name of said Society shall be ''The New York Entomological Society''.

Second: The particular business and objects of said Society are the advancement of the science of Entomology in all its branches.

Third: The term of existence of said Society shall be fifty years.

Fourth: The number of trustees who shall manage the affairs of said Society is five.

Fifth: The names of the trustees who shall manage the affairs of the Society for the first year of its existence are, Berthold Neumoegen, Charles Palm, Gustav Beyer, Roderigues Ottolengui and George W. J. Angell.

IN WITNESS WHEREOF, we have hereunto subscribed our names this twenty-first day of February, 1893.

Berthold Neumoegen.
R. Ottolengui.
Chas. Palm.

G. W. J. Angell.
G. Beyer.

State of New York } ss.
County of New York }

On this twenty-first day of February, 1893, before me personally came BERTHOLD NEUMOEGEN, CHARLES PALM, GUSTAV BEYER, RODERIGUES OTTOLENGUI AND GEORGE W. J. ANGELL to me personally known and known to me to be the individuals described in and who executed the foregoing certificate, and they thereupon severally acknowledged to me that they had executed the same.

HERBERT F. ANDREWS
Notary Public, N. Y. Co.

I hereby consent to and approve of the filing of the within certificate of incorporation. N. Y., February 24th, 1893. EDWD. PATTERSON, *Justice, Supreme Court.*

No. 70

State of New York } ss.
City and County of New York }

I, HENRY D. PURROY, Clerk of the said City and County, and Clerk of the Supreme Court of said State for said County, Do Certify, That I have compared the preceding with the original Certificate of Incorporation of

THE NEW YORK ENTOMOLOGICAL SOCIETY

on file in my office, and that the same is a correct transcript therefrom, and of the whole of such original.

Endorsed Filed and Recorded 25th February, 1893.

IN WITNESS WHEREOF, I have hereunto subscribed my name and affixed my official seal, this seventh day of June, 1893.

HENRY D. PURROY
Clerk

CERTIFICATE OF EXTENSION OF EXISTENCE OF THE NEW YORK ENTOMOLOGICAL SOCIETY

Pursuant to Section Forty-five of the General Corporation Law.

We, the undersigned, William P. Comstock and Annette L. Bacon, being respectively the President and the Recording Secretary of The New York Entomological Society do hereby certify:

1. The name of the corporation is THE NEW YORK ENTOMOLOGICAL SOCIETY.
2. The certificate of incorporation of said corporation was filed and recorded in the office of the Clerk of the County of New York on the 25th day of February, 1893, and filed in the office of the Secretary of State on the 25th day of February, 1893.
3. The date on which the term of existence specified in the certificate of incorporation will expire is the 25th day of February, 1943.
4. The duration of the corporation is to be perpetual.

IN WITNESS WHEREOF, we have made, subscribed and acknowledged this certificate, this 9th day of February, 1943.

Seal
Attest: ANNETTE L. BACON
Recording Secretary

The New York Entomological Society
By WILLIAM P. COMSTOCK
President

State of New York
County of New York } ss.

On this 16th day of February, 1943, before me personally appeared William P. Comstock to me known and known to me to be the person described in and who executed the foregoing Certificate of Extension of Existence of The New York Entomological Society and he duly acknowledged to me that he executed the same.

THELMA L. RYAN
Notary Public
Notary Public: Putnam County
Certificate Filed In
N. Y. Co. Clerk's No. 1048–Reg. No. 4R617
Com. expires March 30, 1944

State of New York
County of New York } ss.

On this 16th day of February, 1943, before me personally appeared Annette L. Bacon to me known and known to me to be the person described in and who executed the foregoing Certificate of Extension of Existence of The New York Entomological Society and she duly acknowledged to me that she executed the same.

THELMA L. RYAN
Notary Public
Notary Public: Putnam County
Certificate Filed In
N. Y. Co. Clerks No. 1048–Reg. No. 4R617
Com. expires March 30, 1944

State of New York
County of New York } ss.

William P. Comstock, being duly sworn, deposes and says: that he is the President of THE NEW YORK ENTOMOLOGICAL SOCIETY; that he has been duly authorised to execute and file the foregoing certificate by the votes, cast in person or by proxy, of a majority of the members of record of the corporation; that such votes were cast at a meeting of the members duly called for that purpose upon like notice as that required for the annual meeting of the corporation and the date of such meeting was the 19th day of January, 1943.

WILLIAM P. COMSTOCK
President

Subscribed and sworn to before me
this 9th day of February, 1943.
CHARLES J. KERR, *Notary Public*
Notary Public, Queens County Clerk's No. 1186
N. Y. Co. Clk's #426, Reg. #4–K–196 Commission Expires March 30, 1944

State of New York }
County of New York } ss.

Annette L. Bacon, being duly sworn, deposes and says: that she is the Recording Secretary of THE NEW YORK ENTOMOLOGICAL SOCIETY; that she has been duly authorised to execute and file the forgoing certificate by the votes, cast in person or by proxy, of a majority of the members of record of the corporation; that such votes were cast at a meeting of the members duly called for that purpose upon like notice as that required for the annual meeting of the corporation and the date of such meeting was the 19th day of January, 1943.

ANNETTE L. BACON
Recording Secretary

Subscribed and sworn to before me
this 9th day of February, 1943.
CHARLES J. KERR, *Notary Public*
Notary Public, Queens County Clerk's No. 1186
N. Y. Co. Clk's #426, Reg. #4–K–196
Commission Expires March 30, 1944

State of New York }
Department of State } ss.

I Certify That I have compared the preceding copy with the original Certificate of Extension of Corporate Existence of

THE NEW YORK ENTOMOLOGICAL SOCIETY

filed in this department on the 17th day of February, 1943, and that such copy is a correct transcript therefrom and of the whole of such original.

WITNESS my hand and the official seal of the Department of State at the City of Albany, this seventeenth day of February, one thousand nine hundred and forty-three.

FRANK S. SHARP
Deputy Secretary of State

State of New York Department of State Filed Feb. 17, 1943 Tax $ None Filing Fee $25 THOMAS J. CURRAN, *Secretary of State* By B. HORAN, *Asst. Cashier*

The original is filed in the office of the County Clerk and Clerk of the Supreme Court, New York County. File Number 477–1893. Filed February 26, 1943.

BY-LAWS

Article I

Members

The Society shall consist of active, life and honorary members.

1. Active members shall be persons interested in entomology, who shall be entitled to vote and hold office.

2. Life members shall be active members who shall have paid fifty dollars ($50.00) in lieu of annual dues. They shall be entitled to vote and hold office.

3. Honorary members shall be eminent entomologists elected in recognition of their service to science. There shall not be more than twelve (12) honorary members at any one time. They shall not be entitled to vote or hold office.

Article II

ELECTION OF MEMBERS

All candidates for membership must be proposed by an active member of the Society at a regular meeting. They shall be voted upon individually at the following regular meeting and the affirmative vote of at least two-thirds of the members present (given by voice, or by ballot if demanded) is required for election unless these provisions are waived by unanimous consent of the members present.

Article III

OFFICERS AND COMMITTEES

1. Officers of the Society shall consist of a President, a Vice-President, a Secretary, an Assistant Secretary, a Treasurer, an Assistant Treasurer, and an Editor.

2. Elective committees of the Society shall consist of five trustees (one of whom shall be the president) who shall constitute the Executive Committee who are hereinafter referred to as such, and a Publication Committee. The Executive Committee shall be composed of the President (Chairman), and four active members, all entitled to vote. The Editor, Secretary, and Treasurer shall also be members of the Executive Committee but not entitled to vote. The Publication Committee shall be composed of the Editor (Chairman), and two active members.

3. Standing Committees of the Society to be appointed by the President, shall consist of an Auditing Committee, composed of three active members; and a Field Committee, composed of two active members.

4. Temporary committees may be appointed by the President at his discretion to perform special duties which he shall define. The President also shall appoint a Nominating Committee, consisting of three active members, to nominate a full slate of officers, trustees and elective committees at the annual meeting.

ARTICLE IV

ELECTION OF OFFICERS AND COMMITTEES

1. Officers, trustees and members of elective committees shall be elected at the annual meeting of the Society by a majority vote of the members present, or voting by proxy. They shall hold office for one year and/or until their successors shall be elected.

2. Any vacancy that may occur among the officers, or elective committees, except as hereinafter provided, shall be filled by appointment by the Executive Committee. The person appointed to fill the vacancy shall hold office until the next annual meeting and/or until the election of his successor.

ARTICLE V

DUTIES OF OFFICERS AND COMMITTEES

1. The President shall preside at all meetings. He shall appoint all committees except the elective committees, and shall be chairman of the Executive Committee and a member *ex-officio* of all other committees except the publication committee.

2. The Vice-President shall assume the duties of the President in case of the death, resignation, absence or disability of the President. In case both the President and Vice-President are absent at a meeting a temporary chairman may be chosen by the members present to preside at that meeting.

3. The Secretary shall keep the minutes of the meetings of the Society and of the Executive Committee; give notice of the meetings of the Society when not otherwise herein provided for; advise members of their election; attend to all general correspondence; keep all records and files of the Society and generally perform such services as may be delegated to him by the Society.

4. The Assistant Secretary shall act in case of the death, resignation, absence or disability of the Secretary and shall assist the Secretary as need be.

5. The Treasurer shall receive all moneys for the Society and deposit them in the name of the Society in such banking institutions as the Executive Committee may direct; he shall pay therefrom by draft or check all bills and obligations not exceeding Twenty-five Dollars ($25.00), and all others when approved by the President or the Editor. He shall keep an account of all monetary transactions and shall exhibit a statement of them when called for by the President, Editor, Executive Committee or Auditing Committee and shall make a full report for the preceding calendar year at the annual meeting. He shall notify members respecting the payment of dues within ten days after their election and thereafter when annual dues become payable, and shall send out membership cards on receipt of dues. At the expiration of his term of office, the Treasurer shall deliver to his successor all funds, papers, books and vouchers belonging to the Society.

6. The Assistant Treasurer shall act in case of the death, resignation, absence or disability of the Treasurer and shall assist the Treasurer as need be.

7. The Editor shall have general charge, management and supervision of the publication known as the Journal of the New York Entomological Society. The Editor shall be Chairman of the Publication Committee, as hereinbefore provided.

8. The Executive Committee shall meet at the call of the President, who shall be Chairman thereof. It is empowered to call for a report from any of the officers or committees of the Society at its discretion. It shall keep minutes of its proceedings which shall be submitted at the next succeeding regular meeting of the Society. It shall have general charge of the funds, investments and property of the Society. It shall decide on the status of members in arrears of dues. It shall determine the subscription price of the Journal and discounts allowed in connection with its sale, as well as the price of any other publications of the Society. It shall appoint one active member of the Society as Delegate to meetings of the New York Academy of Sciences.

9. The Publication Committee shall cooperate with the Editor in the publication of the Journal of the Society. If, at any time, other publications are undertaken, the Publication Committee shall be in charge of the production thereof.

10. The Auditing Committee shall examine the accounts and reports of the Treasurer and shall report to the Society thereon.

11. The Program Committee shall plan and arrange for the programs of the meetings.

12. The Field Committee shall arrange for and manage the excursions and outings of the Society.

13. The Society's Delegate to the New York Academy of Sciences shall attend meetings thereof and shall report at the next regular meeting of the Society concerning any action taken which may affect the Society. The Delegate shall have no power to obligate the Society without the previous authorization of the Executive Committee or except by action taken at a meeting of the Society.

ARTICLE VI

PUBLICATION FUNDS

All funds subscribed or donated for the Journal or other publications of the Society shall be used for no other purpose than those specified.

ARTICLE VII

DUES

The dues of active members shall be Three Dollars ($3.00), per annum, payable in advance on the first day of January of each year. New members, if elected on or after October 1, shall pay no dues for the year of their election. Honorary members shall be exempt from the payment of any dues.

ARTICLE VIII

MEMBERS IN ARREARS

All members in arrears in the payment of dues for one year, shall lose the privilege of voting or holding office. Before the annual meeting the Treasurer shall present a list of the members in arrears in the payment of dues to the Executive Committee, which shall decide upon dropping such members from the roll of the Society or postponing for good cause the payment of their dues for a definite period.

ARTICLE IX

Subscription to the Journal

1. The subscription price of the Journal and the price of single numbers to active members, and discounts allowed to subscription agencies and on sales of sets shall be determined by the Executive Committee.
2. Subscriptions shall be payable in advance on the first of January of each year.
3. The Journal shall be sent gratis to all Life and Honorary members.

ARTICLE X

Meetings

1. Regular meetings of the Society shall be held at The American Museum of Natural History (or at such other place as the membership shall determine) on the first and third Tuesdays of each month at 8:00 P.M. No regular meetings will be held during the months of June, July, August and September or upon a legal holiday or upon the first Tuesday of January.
2. The annual meeting of the Society shall be held at The American Museum of Natural History (or at such other place as the membership shall determine) on the first Tuesday in January in each year at 8:00 P.M., if not a legal holiday, otherwise on the third Tuesday.
3. Special meetings of the Society may be called by the Secretary upon a written request of the President or 10 active members. Such request shall state the purpose for which the meeting is to be called and the time and place where it is to be held. No other business except that specified in the call shall be transacted except by unanimous consent of the members present.
4. Eleven (11) members shall constitute a quorum for the transaction of business at an annual meeting and seven (7) members shall constitute a quorum at any regular meeting.
5. At any special meeting, members in good standing may vote or be represented by proxy.
6. Whenever notice of any meeting is required by these by-laws it shall be deemed sufficient if published in the Bulletin of the New York Academy of Sciences or if given by postal card and addressed to each member of the Society at his last known address at least ten (10) days and not more than twenty (20) days before the meeting, or if given as required by the General Corporation Law of the State of New York.

ARTICLE XI

The Order of Business

The order of business of regular meetings shall be as follows:

1. Reading of minutes.

2. Reports of officers.
3. Reports of committees.
4. Election of members.
5. Proposals for membership.
6. Miscellaneous business.
7. New business.
8. Reading of papers and scientific discussion.
9. Adjournment.

The order of business of the annual meeting shall be as follows:

1. Reading of minutes.
2. Roll call, verification of proxies.
3. Annual reports of officers.
4. Reports of committees.
5. Election of officers, trustees and elective committees for ensuing year.
6. Miscellaneous business.
7. Proposals and elections for membership.
8. Reading of papers and scientific discussion.
9. Adjournment.

The order of business may be changed or suspended at any meeting with the consent of two-thirds or more of the members present.

ARTICLE XII

AMENDMENTS

These by-laws may be amended at any regular meeting or at a special meeting of the Society called for that purpose by the vote of two-thirds or more of the members present, provided that the proposed amendment or amendments shall have been submitted in writing and presented at a previous meeting of the Society and due notice thereof having been given in conformity with the provisions of Article X.

CORRECTIONS TO LIST OF MEMBERS OF THE NEW YORK ENTOMOLOGICAL SOCIETY

Mr. F. E. Watson was elected to honorary membership on October 3, 1939, and this fact should have been indicated opposite Mr. Watson's name in the list of members appearing in the December, 1944 issue of this JOURNAL.

An unfortunate error was made in the same list of members, by printing ''deceased'' after the name of Cyril F. dos Passos. The death of Mrs. Cyril F. dos Passos occurred on August 29, 1944 and not that of her husband. See the article entitled ''Viola Harriet dos Passos and Her North American Moths,'' by William P. Comstock in this issue.

NOTES ON THYSANIA ZENOBIA (CRAMER),—LEPIDOPTERA, (HETEROCERA)

BY HOWARD SCHIFF

A female specimen of *Thysania zenobia* (Cramer), common in the tropics but as yet rare in New York State, was captured in the village of Monticello, New York, on September 18, 1944. The weather was fairly warm for the time of the year and a large variety of different species of *Catocala* and other Noctuidae were on the wing. The specimen of *Thysania zenobia* had alighted near lights and was quite sluggish and easily caught. Rips on both forewings and other wing damages seemed to indicate a long, hard trip to New York from a distant point.

BOOK NOTICE

A Bibliography of the Homoptera (Auchenorhyncha). By Zeno Payne Metcalf, N. C. State College of Agriculture and Engineering of the University of North Carolina. n.d. [1945], n.p. [Raleigh, N. C.]. $10\frac{1}{2} \times 8\frac{1}{4}$ inches, Vol. I, 886 p., Vol. II, 186 p. Cloth, $7.50 net, postage 24 cents.

Although the accumulated knowledge of ages is to be found in books and papers, students are lost in an ocean of literature until the repositories of this knowledge are made known to them by bibliographies. I am always glad to see a good bibliography, especially of a subject in which I am interested, and it is always a relief to know that I have been saved an enormous amount of preliminary work. Bibliographers never receive all the credit that is due them and we are apt to use the results of their knowledge and industry, without gratitude.

This new bibliography of the suborder Homoptera, series Auchenorhyncha which includes the superfamilies Fulgoroidea and Cicadoidea is an impressive work in two volumes. In the first volume the authors are listed alphabetically and their papers are listed chronologically, with titles, sources and dates of publication. This volume includes approximately 8,000 titles which appeared in 1,000 separate journals and in over 900 books, all in various languages. All titles up to June 1, 1942 are included. Where the title of the paper is not indicative of its contents, a brief note supplies this deficiency and serves as a guide in determining its value for a particular purpose. Volume II consists of a list of the periodicals, their abbreviations and complete titles, with places of publication, and a highly useful topical index, which is general, taxonomic and geographic, thereby enabling the student to find the topic in which he is interested.

In the Introduction, Dr. Metcalf states that the work has been in preparation during his spare time, for more than 30 years, and from the magnitude of the finished product, this may be readily understood. There are some who take the position that a bibliography should be all inclusive and list everything that has been written, even if it is a repetition of previous publications. This may be a safe method for bibliographers who are not intimately acquainted with a particular subject, but I am glad to see that in the present work Dr. Metcalf exercised his discrimination and eliminated summaries of other publications, popular articles and works of an ephemeral nature. There is nothing more annoying than investigating long lists of references that yield exactly nothing. Users of this bibliography can depend upon Dr. Metcalf's wisdom and experience in separating the valuable from the worthless.

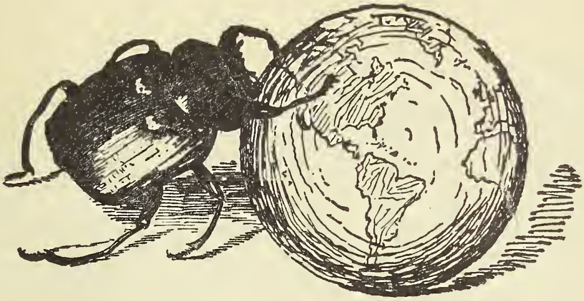
For many years Dr. Metcalf has specialized on the Homoptera and I am sure that his impressive and authoritative bibliography will receive the praise and recognition that it deserves.—HARRY B. WEISS.

Vol. LIII No. 2

JUNE, 1945

Journal
of the
New York Entomological Society

Devoted to Entomology in General



Edited by HARRY B. WEISS

Publication Committee

HARRY B. WEISS JOHN D. SHERMAN, Jr.
T. C. SCHNEIRLA

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1945

CONTENTS

NOTICE: Volume LIII, Number 1, of the Journal of the New York Entomological Society Was Published on May 4, 1945.

Entered as second class matter July 7, 1925, at the post office at Lancaster, Pa., under the Act of August 24, 1912.
Acceptance for mailing at special rate of postage provided for in Section 1103. Act of October 3, 1917, authorized March 27, 1924.

JOURNAL

OF THE

New York Entomological Society

Vol. LIII June, 1945 No. 2

A SUPPLEMENT TO THE NEW YORK STATE LIST OF COLEOPTERA, NO. 6, ADDITIONS AND CORRECTIONS[1]

By Borys Malkin

Since the publication of Cooper's[2] supplement to the New York State list of Coleoptera, numerous records have been added to the known beetle fauna of the state. These the writer has attempted to gather together in a single paper presented below. As in the above mentioned pamphlet, it contains not only records new to the state or those inadequately represented in the list, but also a list of current literature through which a number of records and notes on New York beetles have been scattered.

As usual, the double asterisk (**) signifies species new to the state list. A single asterisk (*) indicates species new to the so-called "continental" New York. A double dagger (‡) denotes species previously unrecorded from Long Island, while records new to Staten Island are preceded by a single dagger (†).

Although the writer's own collection served as the main source of material listed in this paper, numerous records came to his attention from elsewhere. Collections of the American Museum of Natural History, and of Mr. William Spector, Lt. (j.g.) D. G. Kelley, Sgt. J. H. Kremer, Mr. Chas. Ragot, and Mr. J. W.

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[1] Cornell University Agr. Exp. Sta. Mem. 101, Aug. 1926 (issued Jan. 1928). (Coleoptera, pp. 203–520.)

[2] For a complete list of literature pertaining to New York Coleoptera see: K. Cooper, "A Supplement to the New York State List of Insects Devoted to the Coleoptera. Additions, Notes and Corrections." Bull. Brooklyn Ent. Soc., Vol. XXX, No. 4, pp. 142–159.

Green must be mentioned here. To Sgt. Kremer and to Mr. Green the writer is indebted for extensive cooperation, not only in the way of specimens and identifications, but also for help in compiling necessary data of varied nature.

All records are followed by the collector's name in italics. If no such name appears it may be assumed that the author was the collector. The names of the taxonomists are represented by abbreviations as follows:

H. B. Leech—(L), C. A. Frost—(F), J. W. Green—(G), K. M. Fender—(KF), R. E. Blackwelder—(REB), C. T. Parsons—(P), F. T. Scott—(S), W. S. Fisher—(WSF), O. L. Cartwright—(OLC), B. E. White—(W), L. L. Buchanan—(B), A. F. Satterthwait—(AFS), Eugene Ray—(ER), and B. Malkin—(M).

The bibliography includes only such papers as have been published since the appearance of Mr. K. C. Cooper's supplement, or papers not cited by him at that time.

CICINDELIDÆ

(Malkin 1941)

59. *Cicindela longilabris* Say. Upper Saranac, Jl, *Green* (G).

CARABIDÆ

(Van Dyke 1936, Darlington 1936, 1938, Buchanan 1939, Malkin 1941c, 1941d)

**——. *Carabus sp.?* LI: Queens Village, May, under bark, *Funaro,* (M).

**166. *Carabus mæander* Fisch. Dunkirk, Jl., on the shore of Lake Erie, *Funaro,* (M).

‡651. *Bembidion patruele* Dej. LI: Rockaway, Aug., (F); Montauk, May, *Kremer and Malkin,* (M).

‡723. *Bembidion versicolor* (Lec.). LI: Rockaway, Aug., (F).

‡737. *Bembidion quadrimaculatum* (L.). LI: Forest Hills, Apr., *Kelley,* (M); Wantagh, Jl., (F); Alley Pond, Nov., *Ragot and Malkin,* (F).

†820. *Tachyura levipes* Csy. SI: Great Kills, Jn., (M).

†825. *Tachyura capax* (Lec.). SI: Great Kills, Jl., (M).

†841. *Tachys cuneatus* Csy. SI: Great Kills, May, (M).

**888. *Tachyta angulata* Csy. Mt. Whiteface, 4000 ft., Jl., *Green,* (G).

**889. *Tachyta kirbyi* Csy. Mt. Whiteface, 4000 ft., Jl., *Green,* (G).

‡1285. *Celia patruelis* (Dej.) LI: Flushing, Mar., *Cooper,* (M).

†1324. *Celia schotti* Csy. SI: A single specimen from *Ch. Schaeffer's* collection labelled S.I., 3.20.87, (M).

1511. *Platynus stygicus* Lec. Saratoga, Aug., *Kremer,* (Valentine det.).

**1583. *Platynus picicornis* Lec. Upper Saranac, Jl., *Green,* (G).

†1586. *Platynus gemellus* Lec. South Fallsburg, Jn., *Spector,* (G); LI: Alley Pond, Nov., *Ragot and Malkin,* (F, M).

2039. *Selenophorus pedicularius* Dej. Van Cortlandt Park, Jn., (F).

2236. *Stenolophus humidus* Ham. Bear Mt., Apr., *Spector,* (G). This capture verifies old state record of the list.

HALIPLIDÆ

(Malkin 1941c, 1941d)

DYTISCIDÆ

(Fall 1937, Wallis 1939, 1939a, Leech 1940, Malkin 1941c, 1941d)

2346. *Hydrocanthus iricolor* Say. LI: Cunningham Park, Queens, Jl., *Kelley,* (L).

2400. *Celina angustata* Aubé. South Fallsburg, Jn., *Spector,* (L); LI: Brooklyn, Jl., *Spector,* (L).

**2425. *Cœlambus laccophilinus* (Lec.). LI: May, (G, M).

2637. *Dytiscus hybridus* Aubé. LI: Cunningham Park, Queens, Jl., *Kelley,* (L).

**——. *Hydaticus modestus* Shp. White Plains, Apr., *Squire,* (L), misdetermined as *H. lævipennis* Thom. in collection.

**2670. *Cybister flavocinctus* Aubé. LI: Cunningham Park, Queens, Jl., *Kelley,* (L).

GYRINIDÆ

(Malkin 1941c, 1941d)

**2703. *Gyrinus pectoralis* Lec. Upper Saranac, Jl., *Green,* (G).

19251. *Gyrinus bifarius* Fall. LI: Wantagh, Apr., *Malkin and Kremer,* (M).

HYDROPHILIDÆ

(d'Orchymont 1933, Malkin 1941c, 1941d)

*2781. *Berosus exiguus* Say. White Plains, May, *Squire* (M); LI: Wantagh, Apr., *Kremer and Malkin,* (M).

**2874. *Cercyon quisquilius* (L.). Ithaca, May, *Van Nostrand,* (M); South Fallsburg, Aug.–Sept., *Spector,* (F); Upper Saranac, Jl., *Green,* (G); LI: Brooklyn, Jl., *Spector,* (G).

2879. *Cercyon lateralis* (Marsh). Upper Saranac, Jl., *Green,* (G); South Fallsburg, Sept., *Spector,* (G).

**2888. *Cercyon tristis* (Illig). Van Cortlandt Park, Jl., (M); Port Ontario, Jl., *Green,* (G); Fair Haven, Jl., *Green,* (G).

19289. *Cercyon terminatus* Marsh. LI: Brooklyn, Sept.–Dec., *Spector,* (G).

LEPTODIRIDÆ

**2949. *Catops gratiosa* Blanch. Upper Saranac, Jl., *Green,* (Hatch det.).

‡3022. *Leiodes polita* Lec. Forest Park, Jn., *Kelley,* (G).

CLAMBIDÆ

3048. *Clambus puberulus* Lec.? LI: Brooklyn, Nov., *Spector,* (F).

SCYDMAENIDÆ

*3073. *Euconnus salinator* (Lec.) Plattsburg, Jl., *Green,* (G).

STAPHYLINIDÆ

(Blackwelder 1936, 1939, Voris 1936, Wolcott 1937, Malkin 1941c, 1941d)

**33—. *Proteinus* sp. Upper Saranac, Jl., *Green,* (G).

**33—. *Proteinus* sp. Upper Saranac, Jl., *Green,* (G).

3332. *Megarthrus americanus* Sachse. Upper Saranac, Jl., *Green,* (Fall det.).

3425. *Acidota subcarinata* Er. Ithaca, Oct., *Van Nostrand,* (F).

**3426. *Acidota quadrata* Zett. Manhattan, Oct., (REB).

**3497. *Trogophloeus memnonius* Er. Riverside Drive, Jn., flying, (REB).

**3577. *Oxytelus nimius* Csy. Upper Saranac, Jl., *Green,* (G).

**3579. *Oxytelus invenustus* Csy. Upper Saranac, Jl., *Green,* (G); Darts, Oct., *Cooper,* (G).

3668. *Bledius tau* Lec. Phoenicia, Jn., *Green,* (G); Upper Saranac, Jl., *Green,* (G).

‡3908. *Homoeotarsus bicolor* (Grav.). LI: Montauk, May, *Kremer and Malkin,* (M).

*3910. *Homoeotarsus badium* (Grav.). Van Cortlandt Park, May, (M).

†3926*a*. *Homoeotarsus pallipes* var. *capito* (Csy.). Yonkers, March–April–Nov., (REB); Piermont, Oct., *Kremer,* (F); SI: Great Kills, Jn., (REB); Princess Bay, Sept., (REB); LI: Kew Gardens, Aug., *Kelley,* (GOM); Forest Park, March, *Kelley,* (G, M).

**3931. *Homoeotarsus parviceps* (Csy.). SI: Great Kills, Jl., (REB).

4094. *Lithocharis ochracea* (Grav.). LI: Brooklyn, Nov., *Spector,* (F).

**4252. *Stilicolina tristis* (Melsh.). Pelham Bay Park, Jn., (REB, M).

*4265. *Astenus binotatus* (Say). Van Cortlandt Park, May, (M).

4325. *Leptacinodes flavipes* (Lec.). LI: Brooklyn, Nov., *Spector,* (F).

**4386. *Philonthus furvus* Nordm. Ithaca, May, *Van Nostrand,* (F).

*4429. *Philonthus thoracicus* (Grav.). Woodlawn Park, March, (F).

**4461. *Philonthus siegwaldi* Mann. Upper Saranac, Jl., *Green,* (Fall det.).

‡4470. *Philonthus nigritulus* (Grav.). LI: Kew Gardens, March, *Kelley and Malkin,* (F).

†4483. *Philonthus validus* Csy. Upper Saranac, Jl., *Green,* (G); Copake, Jl., *G. Eiten,* (F); SI: Great Kills, Apr., (F).

†19349. *Philonthus tetragonocephalus* Notm. Bronx Park,

Apr., (F); Van Cortlandt Park, Aug., (F); Moshulu, May, (F); Copake Falls, Sept., (F); Ithaca, Oct., *Van Nostrand,* (F); SI: Hugonot, Apr., (F).

**——. *Ocypus* sp.? Hunter's Island, N. Y. C., May, *Spector,* (G); LI: Amagansett, Sept., *Angell,* (G). Probably an introduced species.

4545. *Staphylinus cinnamopterus* Grav. LI: South Huntington, Apr., *Kremer and Malkin,* (M).

4553. *Ontholestes capitatus* (Bland). Slide Mt., Jn., *Spector,* (G).

4569*a*. *Heterothops fumigatus fusculus* Lec. Lk. Placid, Jl., *Green,* (G).

*4574. *Quedius ferox* Lec. Yonkers, March, (F).

4586. *Quedius capucinus* (Grav.). Upper Saranac, Jl., *Green,* (G).

**4592. *Quedius virginicus* Csy. LI: Jones Beach, May, *Spector,* (G).

4660. *Tachinus addendus* Horn. Upper Saranac, Jl., *Green,* (Fall det.).

**4692. *Coproporus lævis* (Lec.). Van Cortlandt Park, Jn., very rare, among *C. ventriculus,* (M).

**4714. *Conosoma elongata* Blatch. Van Cortlandt Park, May, (M).

4716. *Boletobius niger* (Grav.). LI: Sunken Meadow State Park, Jn., *Kelley,* (M, G).

4732. *Boletobius quæsitor* Horn. Upper Saranac, Jl., *Green,* (G).

**——. *Boletobius* sp.? Slide Mt., Jn., *Spector,* (M).

*4738. *Mycetoporus humidus* Say. Van Cortlandt Park, Jn., (REB).

4740. *Mycetoporus consors* Lec. Bear Mt., Jn., (M).

5508. *Datomicra inopia* Csy. Lake Placid, Jl., *Green,* (G); Upper Saranac, Jl., *Green,* (G).

‡5780. *Aleochara puberula* Klug. LI: Brooklyn, May, *Spector,* (G).

‡5833. *Emplenota maritima* Csy. LI: Brooklyn, May, *Spector,* (G).

PSELAPHIDÆ

(Wolcott 1937)

SCAPHIDIIDÆ

(Malkin 1941c)

HISTERIDÆ

(Reinhardt 1926, Hinton 1935, 1935a, Wenzel 1936, Ross 1940, Malkin 1941c, 1941d, Bradley 1943)

6531. *Hololepta lucida* Lec. Hunters Island, *Spector,* (F); Tuxedo, (M).

6574. *Hister memnonius* Say. LI: Brooklyn, Sept., *Spector,* (G); Wading River, *Nicolay,* (G).

**6575. *Hister egregius* Csy. South Fallsburg, Aug., *Spector,* (G).

**6616. *Hister carinifrons* Sf. LI: Montauk, Oct., *Angell,* (Siepmann det.); Amagansett, Sept., *Angell,* (G. M).

6624. *Hister sedecimstriatus* Say. LI: Bellport, Jl., Aug.. Oct., *Nicolay,* (G).

6646. *Teretrius latebricola* Lew. Upper Saranac, Jl., *Green,* (Ballou det.).

**6846. *Saprinus minutus* Lec. LI: Rockaway Beach, May, Jl., *Spector collection,* (G).

6875. *Saprinus sphaeroides* Lec. LI: Riverhead, Jn., *Dietrich,* (G).

**——. *Saprinus semistriatus* Scriba. LI: Jamaica, Jl., *Spector,* (G).

**——. *Saprinus* sp. LI: Sunken Meadows State Park, Jn., *Kelley,* (G).

‡6909. *Gnathoncus deletus* (Lec.). LI: Brooklyn, Sept., *Spector,* (G).

PHENGODIDÆ

*7037. *Omethes marginatus* Lec. Bear Mt., Jn., (G).

CANTHARIDÆ

(Green 1941, Malkin 1941c, 1941d)

**7054. *Podabrus nothoides* Lec. East Windham, Jl., *Green,* (G).

‡7058. *Podabrus basillaris* Say. LI: Rockaway, Jl., *Ragot,* (G).

7078. *Podabrus piniphilus* (Esch.). Upper Saranac, Jl., *Green,* (G); Slide Mt., *Spector,* (G); Maplecrest, Jn., *Schott,* (G).

7080. *Podabrus puberulus* Lec. Upper Saranac, Jl., *Green,* (G); E. Windham, Jl., *Green,* (G); Corinth, May, *Marx,* (G).

7083. *Podabrus laevicollis* (Kby.). Upper Saranac, Jl., *Green,* (G).

**20859. *Podabrus appendiculatus* Fall. Van Cortlandt Park, Jn., (G); Pelham Bay Park, Jn., (G); LI: Brooklyn, Jn., *Spector,* (G).

**20883. *Podabrus brevicollis* Fall. East Windham, Jl., *Green,* (G).

**——. *Podabrus* sp. nov. Bear Mt., Jn., (KF); *Schott,* (G); Ft. Montgomery, Jn., *Schott,* (G); Upper Saranac, Jl., *Green,* (G).

7094. *Cantharis tantillus* Lec. Bear Mt., Jn., (G). This species is recorded from N. Y., by Green (Green 1941), but without definite locality.

**7103. *Cantharis nanulus* Lec. Van Cortlandt Park, Jl., (G).

**——. *Cantharis antennatus* Green. New Rochelle, Jn., (G); Bear Mt., Jl., (G); SI: Great Kills, Jn., Jl., (G).

†7127. *Cantharis marginellus* Lec. SI: Great Kills, Jn., Jl., (G, KF).

7188. *Malthodes fuliginosus* Lec. Bear Mt., Jn., (KF). Swept from *Rubus.*

MALACHIIDÆ

(Malkin 1941d)

CLERIDÆ

(Malkin 1941d)

LYMEXYLIDÆ

7740. *Melittomma sericeum* Harr. Van Cortlandt Park, Tuxedo, Bear Mt., Sutton Island, SI: Great Kills. Larvæ and pupæ reared in great numbers from oak. The adults hatched out between May 10 and May 26, although a single specimen from Bear Mt. emerged July 14.

CEPHALOIDÆ

7748. *Typitium ungulare* (Lec.). Upper Saranac, Jl., *Green,* (G); Catskill, Oliverea, *Shoemaker,* (G).

MORDELLIDÆ

(Malkin 1941c, 1941d)

**7867. *Mordellistena amica* Lec. Mosholu, in American Mus., coll. (M); SI: Great Kills, Jl., (M).

**7911. *Mordellistena bihamata* (Melsh.). N. Y., in Schaeffer's coll. (M); New Rochelle, Jl., *Funaro,* (M).

†7913. *Mordellistena fuscata* (Melsh.). New Rochelle, Jn., *Funaro,* (M); SI: Great Kills, Jl., (M).

7915. *Mordellistena pityptera* Lec. Bear Mt., Jl., *Schott,* (M).

**7921. *Mordellistena fusco-atra* Hellm. Whitehall, Jn., *Dietrich,* (ER).

**7922. *Mordellistena gigas* Lilj. Ithaca, Jl., (ER).

MELOIDÆ

(Malkin 1941c)

——. *Macrobasis murina* Lec. Upper Saranac, Jl., *Green,* (G); South Fallsburg, Jn., *Spector,* (G).

8142. *Meloe impressus* Kby. South Fallsburg, Sept., *Spector,* (F).

PYROCHROIDÆ

8221. *Neopyrochroa femoralis* Lec. Bear Mt., Jn., (M); Upper Saranac, Jl., *Green,* (G).

ANTHICIDÆ

8387. *Anthicus floralis* (L.). LI: Brooklyn, Nov., *Spector,* (F).

**8389. *Anthicus scenicus* Csy. LI: Brooklyn, Nov., *Spector,* (M), with *floralis* L.

*8448. *Anthicus melancholicus* Laf. Bear Mt., Jn., (F).

**8455. *Anthicus rusticus* Csy. Sparkill, Jn., *Siepmann,* (F).

EUGLENIDÆ

8480. *Zonantes signatus* (Hald.). Bear Mt., Jn., (F).

ELATERIDÆ

(Brown 1933, Malkin 1941c, 1941d)

*8596. *Monocrepidius lividus* (DeG.). Van Cortlandt Park, Jl., (M); Bronx, Jl., (M); New Rochelle, Jl., *Funaro,* (M). A very common species, often swept at night from low grasses, plants, etc.

8629. *Limonius plebejus* (Say). Croton Falls, May, (M).

8654. *Pheletes nimbatus* (Say). Bear Mt., Jn., (M).

8791. *Ludius rotundicollis* (Say). Nyack, March, (F).

**——. *Dalopius cognatus* Brown. Maplecrest, Catskill Mts., Jn., *Schott,* (Lane determined).

8910. *Glyphonyx inquinatus* (Say). Van Cortlandt Park, Jl., (M); New Rochelle, Jl., *Funaro,* (M).

*8951. *Ampedus xanthomus* Germ. New Rochelle, Sept., *Funaro,* (M).

*8956. *Ampedus pusio* Germ. New Rochelle, Jl., *Funaro,* (M); Aug., (M).

*8980. *Megapenthes limbalis* (Hbst.). Montrose, Jl., *Ragot,* (M); Bear Mt., Jl., (M).

9020. *Melanotus canadensis* Cand. Bronx, Jl., Under stone, (M).

9048. *Melanotus pertinax* (Say). Croton Falls, May, sweeping, (M).

MELASIDÆ

(Malkin 1941c)

9133. *Deltometopus amoenicornis* (Say). LI: Cunningham Park, Queens, Jl., *Kelley,* (GOM).

BUPRESTIDÆ

(Fisher 1940, 1942, Malkin 1941b, 1941c, 1941d, Obenberger 1934, Helfer 1941)

9399. *Agrilaxia flavimana* (Gory). SI: Great Kills, Jl., (M).

9481. *Actenodes acornis* (Say). Montrose, Jl., *Ragot,* (M); Napeque, *Angell,* (M).

9518. *Agrilus crinicornis* Horn. Van Cortlandt Park, Jn., (F); New Rochelle, Jn., (F).

9522. *Agrilus cephalicus* Lec. Copake, Jl., *G. Eiten,* (F).

HELMIDÆ

(Sanderson 1938)

HETEROCERIDÆ

*9653. *Heterocerus auromicans* Kies. Port Ontario, Jl., *Green,* (G).

DASCILLIDÆ

(Brown 1944)

HELODIDÆ

(Malkin 1941c)

DERMESTIDÆ

(Malkin 1941c, 1941d, Barber 1942, 1942a)

BYRRHIDÆ

(Malkin 1941c)

9864. *Cytilus alternatus* (Say). LI: Broad Channel, May, *Spector* (F).

OSTOMIDÆ

(Malkin 1941c)

NITIDULIDÆ

(Parsons 1938, 1943, Malkin 1941c)

*10060. *Carpophilus antiquus* (Melsh.). Harmon, Sept., (P).

10061. *Carpophilus nitens* Fall. Harmon, Sept., (F).

**10082. *Epuræa adumbrata* Mann. Upper Saranac, Jl., *Green,* (G).

**10100. *Stelidota strigosa* (Gyll.). SI: Great Kills, Jl., (P).

*10136. *Glischrochilus obtusus* (Say). Morris Otsego, Jn., *Angell,* (P); New Rochelle, May, (M).

**10138*a*. *Glischrochilus samguinolentus* var. *rubromaculatus* Reitt. Upper Saranac, Jl., *Green,* (P).

**21855. *Glischrochilus siepmanni* Brown. South Fallsburg, Sept., *Spector,* (F).

EROTYLIDÆ

(Malkin 1941c, 1941d)

**10318. *Tritoma erythrocephala* Lac. Van Cortlandt Park, Jl., (M, F).

**10321. *Tritoma mimetica* Csy. Elbridge, Jn., (G).

CRYPTOPHAGIDÆ

10361. *Loberus impressus* Lec. Van Cortlandt Park, Jl., (M).

‡10483. *Anchicera ovalis* Csy. LI: Brooklyn, Nov., *Spector,* (F).

COLYDIIDÆ

(Malkin 1941c, 1941d)

**10531. *Synchita granulata* Say. LI: Long Island, *Ch Ragot* collection. The labelling of this specimen should be verified. (M).

**10589. *Penthelispa hæmatodes* (Fab.). Greenwood Lake, March, *Nicolay,* (M).

**10602. *Cerylon clypeale* Csy. SI: Great Kills, Apr., (F).

LATHRIDIIDÆ

(Malkin 1941c, 1941d)

COCCINELLIDÆ

(Timberlake, 1943)

(Dobzhansky 1931, 1942, Malkin 1941c, 1941d, McKenzie 1936)

10931. *Hyperaspis octavia* Csy. Port Henry, Jl., *Kremer,* Saratoga, Aug., *Kremer,* (all Chapin and M. det.).

19743. *Hyperaspis lugubris* (Rand). New Rochelle, Jn., (N); Bear Mt., Jn., (N).

*11010. *Scymnus semiruber* Horn. New Rochelle, Aug., under bark of willow trees, (M); SI: Great Kills, Jn., (S).

**11015. *Scymnus rubricauda* Csy. Bear Mt., Jn., (M).

*11016. *Scymnus chromopyga* Csy. Van Cortlandt Park, May–Jn., (N).

**11076. *Scymnus coniferarum* Cr. Bear Mt., May, (M).

11188. *Coccinella undecimpunctata* L. LI: Sagaponack, Aug., *Kremer,* (Chapin and M. det.).

11194*b*. *Adalia frigida* var. *humeralis* (Say). Van Cortlandt Park, May, (M).

ALLECULIDÆ

11336. *Mycetochara bicolor* Coup. Upper Saranac, Jl., *Green,* (G).

TENEBRIONIDÆ

(Blaisdell 1934, Malkin 1941c)

**12316. *Platydema erythrocerum* Cast. and Brll. Bear Mt.. Sept., *Kremer and Malkin,* (F).

12327. *Platydema picilabrum* Melsh. Van Cortlandt Park, Nov., (M).

‡12433. *Paratenetus fuscus* Lec. Harmon, Sept., (M); LI: Manhasset, May, (M); Sea Cliff, May, (M).

MELANDRYIDÆ

(Malkin 1941c)

12536. *Synstrophus repandus* (Horn). SI: May, *Leng,* (G).

PTINIDÆ

(Brown 1944)

12601. *Mezium americanum* Lap. Manhattan, Jl., (M); Kew Gardens, March, *Kelley and Malkin,* (M).

ANOBIIDÆ

12738. *Xyletinus lugubris* Lec. Upper Saranac, Jl., *Green,* (G).

CISIDÆ

**12973. *Cis impressa* Csy. Yonkers, Sept., from *Polyporus, Ragot,* (M).

SCARABAEIDÆ

(Wallis 1928, Kuntzen 1933, Hoffman 1935, Robinson 1936, Malkin 1941c, 1941d, Cartwright 1943)

13082. *Onthophagus orpheus* Panz. Montrose, Feb., *Ragot,* (OLC); Sep., *Ragot and Malkin,* (OLC); Bear Mt., Jn., (OLC).

**13208. *Dialytellus dialytoides* Fall. Upper Saranac, Jl., *Green,* (G).

†13216. *Ataenius abditus* (Hald.). SI: Great Kills, Jn., (M).

13220. *Ataenius imbricatus* (Melsh.). New Rochelle, Sept., *Funaro,* (M); LI: Jamaica, Jl., *Spector,* (G); Brooklyn, Jl., *Spector,* (G).

——. *Ataenius falli* Hinton. Van Cortlandt Park, May–Jl., Sept., (OLC); Bronx, Jl., (OLC); Bear Mt., Jn., (OLC).

**13237. *Dialytes truncatus* (Melsh.). Montrose, Sept., *Ragot,* (M).

**13238. *Dialytes ulkei* Horn. South Fallsburg, Jl., *Spector,* (G).

‡13337. *Trox capillaris* Say. LI: Rockaway, Jl., *Ragot,* (OLC).

**19961. *Serica opposita* Dawson. Cooks Falls, *Angell,* (OLC); LI: Brooklyn, Jl., *Spector,* (G).

‡13517. *Phyllophaga drakei* Kby. LI: Rockaway, Jl., (OLC).

*13742. *Pachystethus oblivia* Horn. White Plains, Jl., *Squire*. One of the commonest *Rutelinæ* in the state.

19986. *Anomala orientalis* Waterh. LI: Valley Stream, *Spector*, (G).

*13803. *Ochrosidia villosa* (Burm.). Bronx, Jl., *L. Faas*, (OLC).

*14022. *Trichiotinus assimilis* (Kby.). Upper Saranac, Jl., *Green*, (Robinson det.).

PASSALIDÆ

(Hincks and Dibb 1935)

CERAMBYCIDÆ

(Rau 1935, Van Dyke 1937, Hopping 1937, Dillon and Dillon 1941)

15137. *Oberea pallida* Csy. Upper Saranac, Jl., *Green*, (G).

CHRYSOMELIDÆ

(Heikentinker 1925, Hatch and Beller 1932, Blake 1933, 1935, 1936, 1936a, 1943, Van Dyke 1938, Barber and Bridwell 1940, Barber 1943, Malkin 1941a, 1941c, 1941d)

15256. *Lema sexpunctata* Oliv. SI: Great Kills, Oct., (M). Beaten from *Solidago*.

**——. *Exema canadensis* Pierce. Collected by the writer in several localities in the vicinity of N. Y. C., and in N. J., (W).

**15308. *Griburius scutellaris* (Fab.). Yonkers, Sept., *Ragot*, (W); South Fallsburg, Jn., *Spector*, (G).

15470. *Pachybrachys hepaticus* (Melsh.). White Plains, Jn., *Squire*, (W).

**15536*a*. *Bassareus lituratus* var. *castus* (Melsh.). Van Cortlandt Park, Jn., (W).

**15536*c*. *Bassareus lituratus* var. *niger* Blatch. Van Cortlandt Park, Jl., (M).

*15559. *Colaspis favosa* Say. New Rochelle, Jl., *Funaro*, (M); Bear Lake, Aug., *Funaro* (M).

**15708. *Chrysomela interrupta* var. *quadriguttata* Sf. Van Cortlandt Park, May. A single specimen taken with *C. interrupta* from *Salix*. Described from B. C.

**——. *Galerucella* n. sp. Upper Saranac, Jl., *Green,* (Fall det.).

‡20196. *Galerucella spirææ* Fall. Flushing, Jn., *Van Nostrand,* (F).

‡20197. *Galerucella alni* Fall. Flushing, Jn., *Van Nostrand,* (F).

**20198. *Galerucella perplexa* Fall. Upper Saranac, Jl., *Green,* (Fall det.).

*15755. *Erynephala maritima* (Lec.). Van Cortlandt Park, Apr., flying, (M).

15865. *Oedionychis gibbitarsa* (Say). Kensico, Aug., *Ragot,* (M).

**——. *Longitarsus* n. sp. Yonkers, Nov., (L. G. Gentner det.); LI: Manhasset, May, (L. G. Gentner det.).

16133. *Microrhopala excavata* (Oliv.). LI: Manhasset, May, (M).

MYLABRIDÆ

16171. *Mylabris chinenis* (L). LI: Alley Pond, Aug., *Kremer,* (G, M).

*16218. *Mylabris alboscutellatus* Horn. Van Cortlandt Park, Jn–Jl., (M).

BRENTIDÆ

(Buchanan 1939)

CURCULIONIDÆ

(Buchanan 1934, 1937, 1937a, Hatch 1938, Henderson 1939, Malkin 1941c, 1941d, Schoof 1942, Tanner 1943)

16325. *Rhinomacer pilosus* Lec. Saratoga, Aug., *Kremer,* (G, M).

16389. *Apion molestum* Fall. Van Cortlandt Park, Jn., (M).

16396. *Apion perminutum* Sm. Van Cortlandt Park, Jl., (B). Listed by Fall without specific locality.

16397. *Apion reclusum* Fall. SI: Great Kills, Oct., (M). Listed by Fall without specific locality.

**16407. *Apion coxale* Fall. Van Cortlandt Park, Jn., (B); SI: Great Kills, Jn., Jl., (B).

16422. *Apion patruele* Sm. Van Cortlandt Park, Jn., (B); Yonkers, May, Jl., (B); Pelham Bay Park, Jn., (B); Bear Mt..

Jl., (B); New Rochelle, Jn., (B); SI: Great Kills, Jn., Jl., Sept., (B).

16423. *Apion walshi* Sm. LI: Manhasset, May, (B).

†16429. *Apion turbulentum* Sm. Yonkers, May, (B); SI: Great Kills, Jl., (B).

16469. *Apion emaciipes* Fall. Bear Mt., Jl., (B); Van Cortlandt Park, May, (B). Listed by Fall without specific locality.

16472. *Apion carinatum* Sm. New Rochelle, Aug., (B). Confirms Fall's state record of the list.

16473. *Apion attenuatum* Sm. Van Cortlandt Park, Jl., (B).

**21444. *Apion dilaticolle* Fall. Van Cortlandt Park, May, (B); Croton Falls, May, (B); Croton on Hudson, Sept., (B); Pelham Bay Park, Jn., (B); SI: Great Kills, Jn., Jl., (F, B).

**16723. *Aphrastus griseus* Blatch. Bronx, Jn., (B); Van Cortlandt Park, Jn., (M). Rare, usually in company of *A. tæniatus* Gyll.

**16740. *Sitona discoidea* Gyll. Tuxedo, May, (M).

**——. *Sitona cylindricollis* Fåhr. Van Cortlandt Park, Jl., (M); Croton Falls, May, (M); Croton-on-Hudson, Sept., (F); Highlands, Aug., *Kremer,* (M); Ithaca, May, *Van Nostrand,* (M). Abundant on clover, usually accompanied by other species.

*16755. *Phytonomus eximius* Lec. Van Cortlandt Park, May, (M); Montrose, Sept., *Ragot,* (M); Croton Falls, May, (M).

16776. *Listronotus callosus* Lec. Van Cortlandt Park, Jl., (M). Addition to LeConte's state record.

16786. *Listronotus frontalis* Lec. Fairhaven, Jl., *Green,* (G). Confirms old LeConte state record.

*16804. *Hyperodes cryptops* (Dietz). Van Cortlandt Park, Jl., (M).

**16807. *Hyperodes grypidioides* (Dietz). Van Cortlandt Park, Jn., Jl., (M).

16931. *Pachyphanes amœnus* (Say). Harmon, Sept., (M).

**16947. *Smicronyx tesselatus* Dietz. Croton-on-Hudson, Sept., (F).

**16955. *Smicronyx picipes* Dietz. SI: Great Kills, Jl., (M).

16973. *Smicronyx tychioides* Lec. Yonkers, Jl., (M); SI: Great Kills, Jn., (M).

**16975. *Smicronyx congestus* Csy. New Rochelle, Aug., (M).

**16978. *Smicronyx apionides* Csy. SI: Great Kills, May, (B).

**——. *Bagous* sp. Bear Mt., Jn., (B); LI: Flushing, May, *Ragot,* (B).

**——. *Endalus* sp. Pelham Bay Park, Jn., (B).

**——. *Endalus* sp. Bear Mt., Jn., (B).

**17023. *Onychylis longulus* Lec. New Rochelle, May, *Funaro,* (F).

†17284. *Anthonomus decipiens* Lec. SI: Great Kills, Jn., Jl., (F).

‡17290. *Anthonomus elongatus* Lec. LI: Manhasset, May, (B).

**21518. *Anthonomus nubiloides* Fall. SI: Great Kills, Jn., (F).

**17298. *Anthonomopsis mixtus* Lec. Upper Saranac, Jl. *Green,* (G).

17351. *Acalyptus carpini* (Hrbst.). Bear Mt., May, (B).

17360. *Miarus hispidulus* Lec. Van Cortlandt Park, Jn., (M); Bear Mt., Jn., Jl., (M); Harmon, Sept., (M).

17415. *Lixus musculus* Say. Harmon, Sept., (F).

17447. *Baris umbilicata* (Lec.). Van Cortlandt Park, May, (B); New Rochelle, Jn., (B); Pelham Bay Park, Jl., (B); SI: Great Kills, Jl., (B); LI: Flushing, May, *Ragot,* (B).

**17509. *Plesiobaris disjuncta* Csy. SI: Great Kills, May, Jn., (B).

‡17550. *Ampeloglypter ater* Lec. Highlands, Aug., *Kremer,* (G, M); LI: Sea Cliff, Aug., *Spector,* (G, M).

**17602. *Centrinopus alternatus* Csy. Van Cortlandt Park, May, (B).

17646. *Limnobaris rectirostris* (Lec.). Elbridge, Jn., *Spector,* (F).

**17671. *Catapastus conspersus* (Lec.). Bear Mt., Jl., (B).

17727. *Psomus armatus* (Dietz). Van Cortlandt Park, May, (B).

17735. *Acanthoscelis curtus* (Say). Phoenicia, Jn., *Green,* (B).

**17754. *Pelenosomus cristatus* Dietz. Van Cortlandt Park, May, (M); SI: Great Kills, May, (M); LI: Sea Cliff, May, (M).

——. *Myllocerus castaneus* Roelf. LI: Sea Cliff, May, beaten from oak and maple, (M); Alley Pond, Aug., *Kremer,* (M).

*17758. *Acallodes lysimachiæ* Fall. Bear Mt. Jn., Jl., (M).

**——. *Ceutorhynchus erysimi* Fab. Pelham Bay Park, Jn., (M); Yonkers, Jl., (M).

‡17781. *Ceutorhynchus sulcipennis* Lec. LI: Aqueduct, Aug., *Engelhardt,* (G).

‡17783. *Ceutorhynchus cyanipennis* Germ. LI: Manhasset, May, (M); Sea Cliff, May, (M).

**——. *Ceutorhynchus* sp. Van Cortlandt Park, Jn., (B).

*17824. *Perigaster cretura* (Hrbst.). Van Cortlandt Park, Jn., (M).

**——. *Rhinoncus castor* (Fab.). Saratoga, Aug., *Kremer,* (B).

17831. *Pelenomus griseus* Blatch. Van Cortlandt Park, May, (M); LI: Sea Cliff, May, (M).

**17901. *Rhyssematus æqualis* Horn. SI: Great Kills, Jl., on milk weed, (M).

17929. *Tyloderma punctata* Csy. LI: Cypress Hills, May, *Engelhardt,* (G).

17973. *Cryptorhynchus fuscatus* Lec. SI: Great Kills, March, (B). Hibernating under bark of willow.

**18087*b*. *Rhodobænus 13-punctatus* var. *5-punctatus* (Say). Yonkers, Sept., *Ragot,* (F); Port Ontario, Jl., *Green,* (G); Sodus Pt., Jl., *Green,* (G); Fire Is., N. Y. C., Jl., *Spector,* (G).

†18123. *Sphænophorus minimus* Hart. Yonkers, Aug., *Ragot,* (AFS); SI: Willowbrook, Sept., *Ragot,* (AFS); LI: Jones Beach, May, *Spector,* (G).

18141. *Sphænophorus venatus* (Say). Pelham Bay Park, Jn., (AFS).

**——. *Genus not found.* "1 specimen labelled 'Van Cort. Park, N. Y.' Belongs to some exotic species not recorded from North America. Probably from Japan or neighboring regions. Looks like an old specimen and locality label may be open to question." (Buchanan in litt.)

SCOLYTIDÆ

(Blackman 1934, 1938, Pechuman 1937)

——. *Scolytus multistriatus* (Marsh). Ithaca, Aug. 1, 1935, *Van Nostrand,* (F). This is the easternmost record of the species from the state.

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BARBER, H. S. AND BRIDWELL, J. C. 1940. Dejean Catalogue Names. Bull. Br. Ent. Soc, 35: (1), 1–12. (The following changes proposed: *Hæmonia nigricornis* Kby. to *Macroplea nigricornis* Kby. *Gastroidea* should be known as *Gastrophysa, Deloyala clavata* becomes *Plagiometriona clavata* Fab., while *Chirida guttata* (Oliv.) becomes *Deloyala clavata* (Oliv.).)

BARBER, H. S. 1941. Bull. Br. Ent. Soc., 36: (1), 27–28. (*Notoxus bicolor* Say should be changed to *N. muripennis* (Lec.).)

———. 1942. Some Synonymy in Dermestes. Bull. Br. Ent. Soc., 37: (5), 174–176. (*Dermestes vulpinus* Fab., a synonym of *D. maculatus* Deg.)

———. 1942*a*. Raspberry Fruit Worms and Related Species. U. S. Dept. Agr. Misc. Publ. no. 468, pp. 1–32. (*Byturus sordidus* Barber—West Point. *B. rubi* Barber-Marion (type, by H. Glasgow), Palmyra, Niagara Falls. Records of *B. unicolor* Say of the list unreliable in view of this new revision. Mr. Barber also believes that the genus and perhaps the entire group *Byturinæ* ought to be removed from *Dermestidæ.*)

———. 1943. Notes on Rhabdopterus in the United States. Bull. Br. Ent. Soc., 38: (4), 111–120. (*Rhabdopterus prætextatus* (Say) probably found in N. Y. area. *R. deceptor* Barber—New York.)

BLACKMAN, W. M. 1934. A Revisional Study of the Genus Scolytus Geoffroy (Eccoptogaster Herbst) in N. A. U. S. Dept. Agr. Tech. Bull. No. 431, 30 pp. (*Scolytus sulcatus* Lec.—Yonkers (O. L. Wolfberger), Staten Island (E. A. Firaz). *Scolytus multistriatus* Marsham. A European species introduced into the United States. New York, Long Island. A new record for ''Continental'' New York.)

———. 1938. Jour. Wash Acad. Sci., 28: (8), 534–545. (*Chramesus hicoriæ* Lec.—New York.)

———. 1942. Revision of the Genus Phlœosinus Chapuis. Proc. U. S. N. M., 92: (3154), 397–474. (*Phlœosinus rugosus,* Swaine probably erroneously listed this species as its known distribution is restricted to California and *Juniperus occidentalis* is the host.)

———. 1943. New Genera and Species of Bark Beetles of the Subfamily Micracinæ. Proc. U. S. N. M., 93: (3165), 341–365. (*Micracis rudis* Lec. separated from the original genus and placed in *Hylocorus. M. asperulus* Lec. united with *M. opacicollis* Lec. and placed in *Micracisella.*)

BLACKWELDER, R. E. 1936. Revision of the North American Beetles of the Staphylinid Subfamily Tachyporinæ—Part I: Genus Tachyporus Gravenhorst. Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 84: 39–54. (*Tachyporus chrysomelinus* L.

is a European species which does not occur here and therefore should be omitted. It is probably mixed with *jocosus* Say and *rulomus* Blackw. in collections.)

———. 1939. A Generic Revision of the Staphylinid Beetles of the Tribe Pæderini. Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 87: 93–125. (Several changes in generic arrangement of *Pæderini.*)

BLAISDELL, F. E. 1934. Studies in the Genus Corticeus. Ent. News. 14, 187–191. (*Corticeus* to replace *Hypophlœus* after Biologia Centrali-Americana.)

BLAKE, D. H. 1933. Revision of the Beetles of the Genus Disonycha. Proc. U. S. N. M., 82: (28), 1–66. (*Disonycha procera* Csy.—New York City, West Point, Whiteface Mt., L. I. *D. arizonæ* Csy. is a valid species—New York. *D. alternans* Illig.—Long Island. *D. admirabilis* Blatch.—West Point, Long Island. *D. glabrata* Fab.—New York. *D. latifrons* var. *laticollis* Sf.—L. I., Wyandach (type). *D. uniguttata* Say—Whiteface Mt., Staten Island. *D. fumata* Lec.—occurs in the southwestern portion of the country and series of specimens from New York in the J. B. Smith collection may be incorrectly labelled. *D. pennsylvanica parva* Blatch, is a synonym of *D. pennsylvanica* Illig. *D. pennsylvanica pallipes* Cr. is a synonym of *D. uniguttata* Say. The correct name for *D. xanthomelæna* Dalm. is *xanthomelas.*)

———. 1935. Notes on Systena. Bull. Br. Ent. Soc., 30: (3), 89–107. (*Systena blanda* Melsh. to replace *S. tæniata* Say and *tæniata* of the list probably refers to the former species.)

———. 1936. Proc. Ent. Soc. Wash., 38: 13–24. (*Altica ambiens* var. *alni* (Harris)—New York.)

———. 1936*a*. A Redisposition of the *Monoxia puncticollis* and Allied Genera. Jl. Wash. Acad. Sci., 26: 426–430. (*Monoxia maritima* Lec. is a valid species and should replace *M. puncticollis* of the list under new generic name *Erynephala.* The typical *E. puncticollis* Say is a western species and does not occur in New York.)

———. 1943. The Generic Position of *Hypolampsis pilosa* (Illig) and some Related Species. Ent. Soc. Wash., 45: (9), 207–225. (*Distigmoptera* a new name proposed for Hypolampsis. *D. apicalis* Blake—L. I., Rockaway. Also an additional record of *D. pilosa* (Illig) for Long Island from the same locality.)

BRADLEY, J. C. 1943. Notes on Synonymy and Distribution of American Histerids. Bull. Br. Ent. Soc., 38: (4), 123. (*Hololepta fossularis* Say replaces *H. inæqualis* Say. The latter a synonym. Similarly, *Platysoma lecontei* Mars. replaces *P. depressum* Lec. *Pseudister hospes* Lew. most likely a S. A. species not Neararctic.)

BROWN, W. J. 1933. Can. Ent., 65: 173–182. (*Betarmon geminatus* Rand. should become *Agriotella geminata* Rand.)

———. 1944. Some New and Poorly Known Species of Coleoptera. Can. Ent., 76: (1), 4–10. (*Eurypogon harrisi* (Westw.)—N. Y. C. *Mezium affine* Boiel—N. Y.)

BUCHANAN, L. L. 1934. Proc. Ent. Soc. Wash., 36: 205–207. (*Hylobius radicis* Buch.—Ballston Spa, Saratoga Co. (type)—O. L. Thompson and G. H. Harris), Albany (H. L. McIntyre). *H. confusus* Kby. should be changed to *H. congener* Dalla Torre.)

———. 1937. Bull. Bk. Ent. Soc., 32: (5), 205–207. (*Ceutorhynchus americanus* Buch.—Ithaca, Ilion, Buffalo, Orangeburg, should replace *C. cyanipennis* Germ. which is considered to be a synonym of *sulcicollis* Payk. and is not found as yet in N. A.)

———. 1937*a*. Notes on Curculionidæ. Jl. Wash. Ac. Sci., 27: 312–16. (*Trachyphlœus bifoveatus* Beck.—Barnevald 1917, Oriskany 1931 [In the U.S.N.M. collection]. This is a European species closely related to *T. davisi* Blatch. *Gymnetron netum* Germ.—New York. The correct name for *G. tetrum* Fab. is *G. teter*. *Ceutorhynchus punctiger* Gyll. to replace *marginatus* Payk. *Perigaster lituratus* Dietz—New York.)

———. 1939. Proc. Ent. Soc. Wash., 41: 79–82. (The following changes in synonymy are proposed: *Agonoderus pallipes* Fab. to *A. lecontei* Chaud. *Eupsalis minuta* Dru. to *Archenodes minutus* Dru. *Orchestes pallicornis* Say to *Rhynchœnus pallicornis*. *Cryptorhynchus lapathi* L. to *Sternochœtus lapathi* L.)

CARTWRIGHT, O. L. 1943. Bull. Br. Ent. Soc., 38: (3), 108. (*Atœnius spretulus* Hald. a valid species and to be separated from *A. strigatus* Say, *consors* Fall, and *falli* Hinton.)

CHAPIN, E. A. 1938. Three Japanese Beetles of the Genus Serica MacCleay. Jl. Wash. Ac. Sci., 28: ~~534–545.~~ 616–618 (*Serica peregrina* Chap.—L. I., Westbury (type), Douglaston. Undoubtedly introduced from Japan.)

DARLINGTON, P. J. 1936. Two Recently Introduced Species of Amara. Psyche., 43: (1), 20. (*Amara humilis* Csy. of the list is a synonym of European *A. familiaris* Duft. *A. œnea* (Deg.) formerly *A. devincta* Csy.—Walton.)

———. 1938. American Patrobini. Ent. Am., 18: 135–183. (*Patrobus longipalpus* Notman a synonym of *P. rugicollis* Rand. *P. foveicollis foveicollis* (Esch) cited from isolated higher mountains of New York.)

DILLON, L. S. AND E. S. 1941. The Tribe Monochamini in the Western Hemisphere. Reading Public Museum and Art Gal. Sci. Publ. No. 1, pp. 1–135. (*Goes tessalatus* Hald. to replace *Hammoderus tessalatus* Hald.—N. Y. *Plectrodera scalator* Fab.—L. I., Huntington. *Monochamus carolinensis* Oliv.—N. Y., L. I.—Rockaway Beach, Flatbush.)

DOBZHANSKY, T. 1931. The North American Beetles of the Genus Coccinella. Proc. U. S. N. M., 80: art. 4, 1–32. (*Coccinella monticola* Muls. a subspecies of the Asiatic *nivicola* Men. *C. perplexa* Muls. a synonym of *C. trifasciata* L., while the variety *C. transversoguttata quinquenotata* is united with the original species.)

———. 1942. Beetles of the Genus Hyperaspis inhabiting the U. S. Smiths. Misc. Coll., 101: (6), 1–94. (*Hyperaspis lugubris* (Rand) additional records—West Point, Pinelawn. *H. separata* Csy. a synonym of this species. *H. lewisi* Cr.—West Point, Bear Mt. *H. serena* Csy. a

subspecies of *fimbriolata* Melsh., additional Long Island records—Babylon, Long Beach, Yaphank. *H. disconotata troglodytes* Muls.—Cascade, West Point. The Cascade record, originally referred to *H. disconotata* proper, belongs to Mulsant's subspecies. *H. octavia* Csy.—West Point, Ithaca, Buffalo, Mt. Whiteface, Rockaway Beach. *H. lateralis* Muls., a record cited from Buffalo, must be erroneous as the species is a western one. *H. signata* Oliv. and *H. binotata* Say both distinct species.

FALL, H. C. 1937. A New Agaporus, Dytiscidæ, Coleoptera. Ent. News, 48: 10–12. (*Agaporus latens* Fall—Peekskill, 1890 [J. D. Sherman].)

FISHER, W. S. 1940. A New Species of Actenodes. Proc. Ent. Soc. Wash., 42: (8). (*Actenodes simi* Fisher—near N. Y. City, L. I., Yaphank.)

———. 1942. A Revision of the North American Species of Buprestid Beetles Belonging to the Tribe Chrysobothrini. U. S. Dept. Agr. Misc. Publ. No. 470, pp. 1–274. (*Chrysobothris neopusilla* Fisher—Syracuse. *C. adelpha* Gemm. and Harold—New York. *C. rugosiceps* Melsh.—New York. *C. viridiceps* Melsh.—New York. *C. lecontei* Leng a synonym of *C. azurea* Lec.)

GREEN, J. W. 1941. Taxonomic Studies in Cantharis (Coleoptera, Cantharidæ). Entom. Amer., 20: 159–217. (*Cantharis proximus* Green—L. I., New Lots. *C. tantillus* Lec.—N. Y. *C. nigritulus* Lec. a synonym of *C. mandibularis* Kby. *C. tenuis* Green—West Hebron. *C. pusillus* (1851) Lec. is a synonym of *C. rectus* Melsh. *C. oriflavus* Lec. and *C. imbecillis* Lec. are valid species. *C. pusillus* (1881) Lec. and *C. mollis* Fall are synonyms of *C. nigriceps* Lec. and *C. mimus* Fall is a subspecies. *C. nigriceps mimus* Fall—L. I., Wyandach. *C. greeni* Fall—N. Y. *C. heterodoxus* Green—N. Y.

HATCH, M. H. AND BELLER, S. 1932. Coleoptera of Washington: Chrysomelidæ. Univ. Wash. Publ. Biol., 1: 93–97. (*Chrysomela* to replace *Lina* and *Melasoma*.)

HATCH, M. H. 1935. A New Subalpine Genus of Halticini from North America. Ent. News, 46: 276–278. (*Crepidodera robusta* Lec. separated from the genus under name of *Orestioides*. Here belong also *C. atriventris* Kby.)

———. 1938. A Bibliographical Catalogue of Injurious Arachnids and Insects of Washington. Univ. Wash. Publ. Biol., 1: (4), 191. (*Hypera punctata* Fab. becomes *Phythonomus zoilus* Scop., but this name is not followed by Winkler [in Cat. Col. Reg. Pal. 13, 1932, p. 1579] who uses *Phytonomus punctatus* Fab.)

HEIKERTINGER. 1925. Bestimmungtabelle der Nordamerikanischen Halticinen Gattungen. Kol. Rund., 2: (3–4), 67. (*Crepidodera atriventris* Kby. changed to *Ochrosis atriventris* Kby.) [See Hatch, 1935.]

HELFER, J. 1941. Revision of the Genus Buprestis of North America North of Mexico. Entom. Amer., 21: (3), 123–200. (*Buprestis apricornis* Herbst—New York. *B. impedita* Say a synonym of *B. striata* Fab., while *B. consularis* Gory is a synonym of *B. nutalli* Kby.)

HENDERSON, L. S. 1939. A Revision of the Genus Listronotus. Univ. Kan. Sci. Bull., 26: (4), 215–320. (*Listronotus callosus* Lec.—this is a

southern species and Leconte's N. Y. citation is a misidentification. *L. inæqualipennis* Boh. a synonym of *L. squamiger* Lec. *L. tuberosus* Lec.—additional records, Buffalo. *L. obliquus* Lec., a synonym of *L. sordidus* Gyll. *L. frontalis* Lec.—Additional records, Buffalo, Rochester, T. B. A. *L. latiusculus* Boh. a synonym of *L. oregonensis* Lec. *L. sctosus* Lec.—New York, N. Y.)

HINCKS, W. D. AND DIBB, J. R. Junk Cat. Pars 142, Passalidæ, p. 16. (*Passalus cornutus* Fab. changed to *Popilius disjunctus* Illig.)

HINTON, H. E. 1935. Can. Ent., 67: (1), 11–18. (*Phelister hospes* Lec. separated from the genus under name of

———. 1935*a*. Description of New Neotropical Histeridæ with Notes on Others. Ann. Mag. Nat. Hist., 15: 584–592. (*Phelister coquisitus* Lewis is probably a S. A. species and should be removed from the list.)

HOFFMAN, C. A. 1935. The Biology and Taxonomy of the Genus Trichiotinus. Ent. Amer., 15: (4), 133–205. (*T. texanus* Horn does not occur in the East and should be omitted. *T. assimilis* (Kby.)—Cranberry Lake, Lake George, Schroon Falls, Buffalo, Rochester, Plattsburg. *T. parvulus* Csy. a synonym of *T. affinis* (G. and P.). *T. viridans* (Kby.) is not found in New York.)

HOPPING, R. 1937. Can. Dept. Mines Res. Bull. 85, Biol. Serv. 22, Part II, 42 pp. (*Stenocorus inquisitor* L. to replace *Rhagium lineatum* Fab. *Parapachyta lacustris* Csy. is considered to be a synonym of *Centrodera decolorata* Harris. *Anthophilax viridipennis* Csy. united with *A. malachiticus* Hald. *Evodinus carolinensis* Csy. united with *E. monticola* Rand.)

KUNTZEN, H. 1933. Aus den Verbreitungstatsachen mitgefolgerte neue Auffassungen über das System einiger Scarabaeiden-genera vornemlich Palaarktichen Region. Mitt. Zool. Mus. Berlin. pp. 458–474. (*Polyphylla occidentalis Rassenkreis variolosa* Hentz—New York. According to Cazier [Ent. News, 51: 134–139, 1940], concept of Rassenkreis cannot be applied to N. A. species of the genus.)

American species of *Chalcoides* belong to form *Ch. fulvicornis nana* Say, as *Ch. helxines* L. is questionable. Mr. Gentner believes that specimens placed at present under this name may belong to several groups.

LACORDAIRE AND BOISDUVAL. 1835. Faune Ent. des. env. de Paris, 1835. p. 613. This publication contains the original description of *Agrilus derasofasciatus* Lac., a European form recently introduced in U. S. A.

LEECH, H. B. 1940. Description of a New Species of Laccornis, with a Key to the Nearctic Species (Coleoptera, Dytiscidæ). Can. Ent., 72: 122–128. (Generic name of *Agaporus* changed to *Laccornis.* Here also belongs *A. latens* Fall.)

———. 1941. The Species of Matus, a Genus of Carnivorous Water Beetles. Can. Ent., 73: (4), 77–83. (*Matus ovatus* Leech—Malclen Bridge, Peekskill, S. I.—Huguonot.)

MALKIN, B. 1941. Bull. Br. Ent. Soc., 36: (1), 28. (*Cicindela patruela* Dej.—L. I.—Douglaston [Ch. Ragot]. A new record for Long Island.)

———. 1941*a*. *Triachus vacuus*. Bull. Br. Ent. Soc., 36: (4), 183. (L. I.—Montauk.)

———. 1941*b*. A European Buprestid in the United States. Bull. Br. Ent. Soc., 36: (3), 132. (*Agrilus derasofasciatus* Lac.—Van Cortlandt Park.)

———. 1941*c*. Additions to Staten Island List of Coleoptera. Proc. S. I. Inst. Art. Sci., Oct. 1940–May 1941. Vol. IX, pp. 91–96. (95 species are listed new to Staten Island. Some of the records included in present list.)

———. 1941*d*. An Addition to the New York State List of Coleoptera No. 5. Bull. Br. Ent. Soc., 36: 209–212. (81 species are listed, 13 of which are new additions to the State list. The remainder are new to Long Island.)

McKenzie, H. 1936. An Anatomical and Systematic Study of the Genus Anatis of America. Univ. Cal. Publ. Ent., 6: (10), 263–272. (The variety *A. mali* Say belongs to the European *A. ocellata* L. and not to *A. quindecimpunctata*.)

Moennich, H. 1941. Supplemental List of Coleoptera Found Living in and on Various Fungi. Bull. Br. Ent. Soc., 36: (1), 20–24. (Although this paper contains no new additions to the state, it is of great interest to N. Y. students, as several rare and rather badly neglected forms are mentioned, particularly in *Staphylinidæ*.)

Obenberger, J. 1934. Monografié Rodu Taphrocerus Sóle. Sbor. Ent. Mus. Praze., 12: 5–62. (*Taphrocerus nicolai* Obenb.—New York. The validity of this species should be verified.)

D'Orchymont, A. 1933. Contribution à l'étude des Palpicornia. Soc. Ent. Belg., 73: 271–313. (*Hydrophilus occultus* d'Orch.—New York.)

Parsons, C. T. 1938. Notes on North American Nitidulidæ. II. Cryptarcha Shuckard. Psyche, 45: 96–100. (*Cryptarcha strigatula* Parsons—Bronx, 1896 (Holotype).)

———. 1943. A Revision of Nearctic Nitidulidæ. Bull. Mus. Comp. Zool., 92: (3), 121–278. (*Boreades* a generic name to replace *Cercometes*. *Brachypterolus mordelloides* Notm. a synonym of *B. pulicarius* L. *Amartus rufipes* Lec. records cited are dubious since the species is a western one. *Carpophilus pallipennis* Say—N. Y. *C. melanopterus* Er.—Rye. *C. sayi* Parsons—paratypes from N. Y. *C. antiquus* Melsh. —Flatbush, an additional record new to L. I. (?). *Epuræa umbrosa* Horn—Lake George. *Omosita discoidea* (Fab.)—New York. *Lobiopa setosa* Har.—S. I. *Pallodes pallidus* Beau. to replace *P. silaceus* Er. *Glischrochilus obtusus* (Say)—Hillburn, also L. I., additional records. *G. sanguinolentus rubromaculatus* Reitt.—Buffalo. *G. siepmanni* Brown —S. I. *Cybocephalus nigritulus* Lec. listed from L. I. by Cooper (1935) apparently not included under *Nitidulidæ* by Parsons. A number of species may well be expected within N. Y. boundaries, having been recorded in adjacent states both to the north and south, particularly the following: *E. fulvescens* Horn, *E. depressa* Ill., *Nitidula flavomacula*

Rossi, *Meligethes æneus* Fab., *Glischrochilus quadrisignatus quadrisignatus* (Say), and *G. q. canadensis* Brown.)

PECHUMAN, L. L. 1937. An Annotated List of Insects Found in the Bark and Wood of Ulmus Americana L. in New York State. Bull. Br. Ent. Soc., 32: (1), 8–21. (Coleop. 8–14. Mr. Pechuman overlooked Cooper's addition and thus duplicated *Scolytus multistriatus* Marsh., as new to New York.)

RAU, G. J. 1935. A New Variety of Anoplodera Vittata from New York. Bull. Br. Ent. Soc., 30: (2), 63–64. (*Anoplodera vittata saratogensis* Rau—Saratoga Springs (type).)

REINHARDT, A. 1926. Über die mit Pachylopus Er. Verwandenten Gattungen. Ent. Blätt., 22: 14. (A genus *Bacmœniolus* erected to which belongs *Saprinus palmatus* Say of the list.)

ROBINSON, M. 1940. Studies in the Scarabæidæ No. 2. Trans. Am. Ent. Soc., 66: 141–159. (*Trox foveicollis* Harold replaces *T. insularis* Chev., the latter probably being not a U. S. species. *Trox hamata* n. sp.—Ithaca, Flushing, N. Y. C.)

ROSS, E. S. 1940. A Preliminary Review of the North American Species of Dendrophilus (Coleoptera, Histeridæ). Bull. Br. Ent. Soc., 35: (3), 103–108. (*Dendrophilus punctulatus* Say united with *D. sexstriatus* Hatch and European *D. punctatus* Herbst., the latter being the proper one. Among examined material, specimens from Long Island and Rockaway Beach. This establishes a new record for this locality.)

SANDERSON, M. W. 1938. Species of Stenelmis. Univ. Kans. Sci. Bull., 25: (22), 637. (*Stenelmis concinna* Sand.—North River (type) (Sanderson). *Stenelmis tarsalis* Sand. Batavia (Knight) 1915. *S. mera* Sand. East Homer (Sanderson), Ithaca, North River (Sanderson). *S musgravei* Sand.—Batavia (Knight), this is probably the species recorded by Knight in the New York State List as new.)

SCHOOF, H. F. 1942. The Genus Conotrachelus in the North-Central U. S. Ill. Biol. Mon., 19: (3), 170 pp. (*Conotrachelus tibialis* Schoof probably occurs in New York. *C. erinaceus* Lec.—New York. *C. carolinensis* Schoof—New York City and vicinity.)

SORACI, F. A. 1940. Distribution in New Jersey of Myllocerus Castaneus. Jl. N. Y. Ent. Soc., 48: (4), 318. (The author mentions that the species has been found on Long Island by Mr. R. I. Clement, and causes considerable damage to shrub oaks, feeding on the foliage.)

TANNER, V. M. 1943. A Study of the Subtribe Hydronomini with a Description of New Species. Study VI. Publ. Dept. Zool. Ent. Brigh. Young Univ., Provo, Utah, No. 1 and 2, pp. 1–38. (*Bagous longirostris* Tanner—Buffalo. *B. americanus* Lec.—Buffalo, Peekskill, Esopus, Olcott, vic. of N. Y. C. are additional records. *B. blanchardi* Blatch.—Lake Oscawana. *B. bicarinatus* Blatch.—Penn Yan. *B. nebulosus* Lec.—New York. *B. floridanus* Tann.—Ithaca. *B. magister* Lec. —Penn Yan, an additional record. *B. planatus* Lec.—Olcott, Penn Yan, Ithaca as above. Several other species may also be found within the state, most likely *B. pusillus* Lec., *B. cavifrons* Lec., and *B. transversus* Lec.)

TIMBERLAKE, P. H. 1943. The *Coccinellidæ* or Lady Beetles of Koebele Collection—Part I. Bull. Exp. Sta. Haw. Sug. Plant. Ass. Ent. Ser. Bull. no. 22. *Coleomegilla maculata lengi* n. sp. Rochester. This name replaces *Ceratomegilla fuscilabris* in part. Also species of American *Neomysia* regarded as races of the Palearctic *N. oblonguttata.*)

VAN DYKE, E. C. 1936. A Review of the Subgenus Nomaretus Leconte of the Genus Scaphinotus Dejean. Bull. Br. Ent. Soc., 31: (1), 37–43. (*Nomaretus* degraded to subgeneric rank.)

———. 1937. Notes and Descriptions of North American Buprestidæ and Cerambycidæ. Bull. Br. Ent. Soc., 32: (3), 105–116. (*Xylotrechus frosti* Van Dyke—Ithaca, 1917 [Van Dyke].)

———. 1938. Bull. Br. Ent. Soc., 33: 45–58. (*Chrysolina* [not *Chrysomela*] *subopaca* Rogers—Peekskill. This verifies Rogers' record from the state.)

VORIS, R. 1936. The Rapid Spread of an European Staphylinid in North America. Ann. Ent. Soc. Amer., 29: (1), 78–80. (Additional records of *Philonthus cruentatus* Gmel.—Rochester, Onendango Co.)

WALLIS, J. B. 1928. Review of the Genus Odontæus Dej. Can. Ent., 60: 168–176. (*Odontæus simi*—New York. *O. liebecki*—New York. *O. darlingtoni*—New York.)

———. 1939. Hydaticus modestus Sharp versus Hydaticus stagnalis Fabricius in North America. Can. Ent., 71: 126–127. (*Hydaticus cinctipennis* Aube and *H. modestus* Sharp are distinct from *H. stagnalis* Fab. which does not occur in this country. Both species should be omitted from the list and replaced by *H. modestus* Shp. Likewise, *H. lævipennis* Thom. must be dropped and superseded by Sharp's species. This opinion is also supported by Mr. Leech.)

———. 1939*a*. The Genus Graphoderes Aube in North America. Can. Ent., 71: 123–131. (*Graphoderes cinereus* L. is the same as *G. fasciaticollis* (Harr.), while *G. elatus* L. and *G. zonatus* Hoppe are synonyms of *G. perplexus* Shp.)

WENZEL, R. L. 1936. Can. Ent., 68: (2), 266–272. (*Hister unicus* Csy. a synonym of *H. cognatus* Lec.)

———. 1939. Ohio Jl. Sci., 39: 10–14. (*Hister immunis* Er. is the same as *H. interruptus* Beauv. *Saprinus semistriatus* Scriba same as *S. lecontei* Csy.)

WOLCOTT, G. N. 1937. *Ecol. Mon.*, 7: 43–55. (Coleoptera). (*Cryptobium clavicorne* Csy. and *Philonthus inquietus* Er. new to the list. *Tachinus fumipennis* Say new to ''Continental'' New York. *Nematolinus longicollis* Lec., *Philonthus thoracicus* Grav., and *Decarthron longulum* Lec. are additional records.)

CHECK-LIST OF THE PSYCHODIDÆ OF EUROPE[1]

By William F. Rapp, Jr., and Janet L. Cooper

The area covered by this check-list includes all Europe, Great Britain, Russia and Asia Minor.

FLEBOTOMUS Rondani

africanus var. *asiaticus* Theodor, Bull. Ent. Res., Vol. 24, p. 541.
Palestine.

ariasi Tonnoir, Ann. Soc. ent. Belg., Vol. 61, p. 53.
Barcelona, Spain.

borowskii Khodukin, in Khodukin and Sofiev, Meditz. Muisl' Uzbekist., Vol. 5, p. 51.
Turkmenistan.

bruchoni Parrot, Arch. Inst. Pasteur Algerie, Vol. 13, p. 252.
Greece.

canaaniticus Adler and Theodor, Proc. Roy. Soc., Series B, Vol. 108, p. 468.
Palestine.

chinensis Adler and Theodor, Bull. Ent. Res., Vol. 21, p. 534.
Persia.

chinensis var. *simici* Nitzulescu, Ann. Parasit. hum. comp., Vol. 9, pp. 129, 265.
Jugoslavia, Palestine.

chinensis var. *longiductus* Nitzulescu, Ann. Parasit. hum. comp., Vol. 9, p. 128.
Jugoslavia, Palestine.

clydei Sinton, Ind. J. Med. Res., Vol. 15, p. 179.
Afghanistan.

grassii Pierantoni, Bull. Mus. Zool. Torino, Vol. 39 (1924), N. S. 21, p. 5.
Italy.

grekovi Khodukin, Meditz. Muisl' Uzbekist. Turkmenist. suppl. 1929, p. 101.
Russia.

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[1] Third contribution to a Check-list of Psychodidæ of the World.

kandelakii Schourenkova, Russ. J. Trop. Med., Vol. 7 (1929), p. 693.
Russia.

larroussei Langeron and Nitzulescu, Ann. Parasit. hum. comp., Vol. 9, p. 73.
France.

macedonicus Adler and Theodor, Proc. Roy. Soc., Series B, Vol. 108, p. 468.
Macedonia.

major var. *longiductus* Parrot, Arch. Inst. Pasteur Algerie, Vol. 6, p. 29.
Turkastand.

major var. *syriacus* Adler and Theodor, Proc. Roy. Soc., Series B, Vol. 108, p. 467.
Syria.

mascittii Grassi, Roma Rend. Acc. Lincei, Vol. 17, pp. 681–682.
Italy.

minutus Rondani, Ann. Soc. Ent. France, Vol. 1, ser. 2 (1843), p. 2 tab.
Mediterranean Region.

minutus var. *arpaklensis* Perfil'ev, Zool. Anz., Vol. 101, p. 226.
Turkmenistan.

minutus var. *meridionalis* Pierantoni, Bull. Mus. Zool. Torino, Vol. 39 (1924), N. S. 21, p. 3.
Italy.

minutus var. *sogdianus* Parrot, Arch. Inst. Pasteur Algerie, Vol. 6, p. 26.
Turkastand.

neglectus Tonnoir, Ann. Soc. Ent. Belg., Vol. 61, p. 333.
Albania.

newsteadi Sinton, Ind. J. Med. Res., Vol. 15, p. 589.
Afghanistan.

nigerrimus Newstead, Bull. Ent. Res., Vol. 2, p. 68.
Malta.

parroti var. *italicus* Adler and Theodor, Bull. Ent. Res., Vol. 22, p. 107.
Italy.

parroti var. *sardous* Bogliolo, Ann. Igiene, Vol. 45, p. 42.
Sardinia.

pawlowskyi Perfil'ev, Zool. Anz., Vol. 101, p. 222.
Turkmenistan.
perfilievi Parrot, Arch. Inst. Pasteur Algerie, Vol. 8 (1930), p. 383.
Crimea.
perfilievi var. *transcaucasicus* Perfil'ev, Ins. U.S.S.R., Dipt., Vol. 3, No. 2, p. 108.
Transcaucasia.
perniciosus Newstead, Bull. Ent. Res., Vol. 2, p. 70.
Malta.
perniciosus var. *nitzulescui* Simic, Ann. Parasit. hum. comp., Vol. 10, p. 434.
Jugoslavia.
perniciosus var. *tauricus* Nasonov., Acad. Sci. U.S.S.R., No. 22 (1927), p. 370.
South Crimea.
perniciosus var. *tobbi* Adler and Theodor, Bull. Ent. Res., Vol. 21, p. 536.
Persia.
selectus Khodukin, Meditz. Muisl' Uzbekist. Turkmenist. suppl. 1929, p. 99.
Russia.
sogdianus Parrot, Arch. Inst. Pasteur Algerie, Vol. 7, p. 303.
Bokhara.
stalinabadi Khodukin, in Khodukin and Sofiev, Meditz. Muisl' Turkmenist., Vol. 5 (9–10), p. 53.
Central Asia.
sumbaricus Perfil'ev, Zool. Anz., Vol. 101, p. 225.
Turkmenistan.
tiberiadis Adler, Theodor, and Lowrie, Bull. Ent. Res., Vol. 21, p. 537.
Palestine.
troglodytes Nitzulescu, Ann. Parasit., Vol. 8, p. 388.
France.
vesuvianus Adler and Theodor, Bull. Ent. Res., Vol. 22, p. 108.
Italy.
wenyoni Adler and Theodor, Bull. Ent. Res., Vol. 21, p. 535.
Persia.

LEPIMORIA Enderlein

tatrica Enderlein, Dtsch. ent. Z., 1936 (1937), p. 98.
High Tatras (Polish-Czechoslovakia border).

galicica Enderlein, Dtsch. ent. Z., 1936 (1937), p. 93.
Poland.

latefasciata Enderlein, Dtsch. ent. Z., 1936 (1937), p. 93.
Italy.

MICRODIXA Muller

scutigera Muller, Z. Morph. Oekol. Tiere, Vol. 7, p. 535.
Switzerland.

similis Muller, Z. Morph. Oekol. Tiere, Vol. 7, p. 541.
Germany.

PANIMERUS Tonnoir

maynei Tonnoir, Ann. Soc. ent. Belg., Vol. 60, p. 186.
Belgium.

PERICOMA Walker

albomaculata Wahlgrem, Arkiv. Zool., Vol. 2, p. 16.
Sweden.

ambigua Eaton, Ent. Monthly Mag., ser. 2, Vol. IV (XXIX) (1893), p. 126.
Northern Europe.

andrenipes Strobl, Milt. Ver. Steierm, Vol. 46 (1910), p. 270.
Austria.

advena Eaton, Ent. Monthly Mag., ser. 2, Vol. IV (XXIX) (1893), p. 127.
Northern Europe.

angustipennis Tonnoir, Ann. Soc. ent. Belg., Vol. 60, p. 184.
Belgium.

auriculata Halid, in Curt.: Brit. Ent., 745, Tab., fig. 9 (Psychoda) (*canescens* Walk., Ins. Britannica, Dipt., Vol. 3, p. 254, *obs.* (1856)) (*fusca* Walker (*nec.* Macq.) Ins. Britannica, Dipt., Vol. 3, p. 260).
Northern Europe.

avicularia Tonnoir, Trans. Soc. Brit. Ent., Vol. 7 (1940), p. 37.
England.

blandula Eaton, Ent. Monthly Mag., ser. 2, Vol. IV (XXIX) (1893), p. 123.
Northern Europe, Great Britain.

calcilega Feuerb., Verhand Intern. Ver. f. Linn., 1923, p. 196.
Great Britain.

caliginosa Eaton, Ent. Monthly Mag., ser. 2, Vol. IX (XXIX), p. 128.
Northern Europe.

canescens Meigen, Klass, Vol. 7 (1804), Vol. 5 (Trichoptera), p. 45.
Europe, Great Britain.

cognata, Eaton, Ent. Monthly Mag., ser. 2, Vol. IV (XXIX) (1893), p. 121.
Northern Europe, Great Britain.

compta, Eaton, Ent. Monthly Mag., ser. 2, Vol. IV (XXIX) (1893), p. 121.
Northern Europe, Great Britain.

consors Eaton, Ent. Monthly Mag., ser. 2, Vol. IV (XXIX) (1893), p. 127.
Northern Europe.

dalii Eaton, Ent. Monthly Mag., ser. 2, Vol. IV (XXIX) (1893), p. 125.
Northern Europe.

decipiens Eaton, Ent. Monthly Mag., ser. 2, Vol. IV (XXIX) (1893), p. 126.
Northern Europe.

diversa, Tonnoir, Ann. Soc. ent. Belg., Vol. 60, p. 182.
Belgium.

exquisita Eaton, Ent. Monthly Mag., ser. 2, Vol. 4 (24) (1893), p. 123.
Great Britain.

extricata Eaton, Ent. Monthly Mag., ser. 2, Vol. IV (XXIX) (1893), p. 121.
Northern Europe, Great Britain.

fallax Eaton, Ent. Monthly Mag., ser. 2, Vol. IV (XXIX) (1893), p. 122.
Northern Europe, Great Britain.

fratercula Eaton, Ent. Monthly Mag., ser. 2, Vol. IV (XXIX) (1893), p. 128.
Northern Europe.

fusca Macquaert, Recueil Soc. Sc. Agr. Lille, Vol. 4 (Psychoda) (1826), p. 167 (*calceata* Meigen, Syst. Beschr., Vol. 11 (1830)

(Psychoda), p. 272) (*tristis* Zedderstett (*nec.* Meigen), Dipt. Scand., Vol. XII (1855), 6–7 (Psychoda), p. 4887).
Europe, Great Britain.

gracilis Eaton, Ent. Monthly Mag., ser. 2, Vol. IV (XXIX) (1893), p. 123.
Northern Europe, Great Britain.

hibernica Tonnoir, Trans. Soc. Brit. Ent., Vol. 7 (1940), p. 37.
Ireland.

hirticornis Tonnoir, Ann. Soc. ent. Belg., Vol. 62, p. 158.
Austria.

incerta Eaton, Ent. Monthly Mag., ser. 2, Vol. IV (XXIX) (1893), p. 129.
Northern Europe.

labeculosa Eaton, Ent. Monthly Mag., ser. 2, Vol. IV (XXIX) (1893), p. 127.
Northern Europe.

magnicornis v. d. Wulp, Diptera Neerlandica, Vol. I (1877), p. 319.
Central Europe.

manicata Tonnoir, Ann. Soc. ent. Belg., Vol. 60, p. 181.
Belgium.

modesta Tonnoir, Ann. Soc. ent. Belg., Vol. 62, p. 165.
France.

morula Eaton, Ent. Monthly Mag., ser. 2, Vol. IV (XXIX) (1893), p. 127.
Northern Europe.

mutua Eaton, Ent. Monthly Mag., ser. 2, Vol. IV (XXIX) (1893), p. 121.
Northern Europe, Great Britain.

neglecta Eaton, Ent. Monthly Mag., ser. 2, Vol. IV (XXIX) (1893), p. 122.
Northern Europe, Great Britain.

notabilis Eaton, Ent. Monthly Mag., ser. 2, Vol. IV (XXIX) (1893), p. 126 (*canescens* Walker, Ins. Britannica, Dipt., Vol. 3 (1856), p. 258).
Northern Europe.

nubila Meigen, Syst. Beschr., Vol. 1 (1818) (Psychoda), p. 107 (*bombyciformis* Schrnk., Fauna Boica, Vol. III (Tipula), p. 2347).
Northern Europe, Great Britain.

ocellaris Meigen, Klass., Vol. I, tab. II, fig. 19 (Trichoptera) (1804), p. 44 (*variegata* Macquaert, Recueil Soc. Sc. Agr. Lille, Vol. 2, p. 167 (Psychoda) (1826)).
Europe.

opaca Tonnoir, Ann. Soc. ent. Belg., Vol. 62, p. 154.
Italy.

ornata Tonnoir, Ann. Soc. ent. Belg., Vol. 62, p. 157.
Italy.

palustris Meigen, Klass., Vol. I (Trichoptera) (1804), p. 43.
Europe.

pilularia Tonnoir, Trans. Soc. Brit. Ent., Vol. 7 (1940), p. 38.
England.

plumicornis Tonnoir, Ann. Soc. ent. Belg., Vol. 62, p. 161.
Austria.

pseudequisita Tonnoir, Trans. Soc. Brit. Ent., Vol. 7 (1940), p. 36.
Great Britain.

pulchra Eaton, Ent. Monthly Mag., ser. 2, Vol. IV (XXIX) (1893), p. 123.
Northern Europe, Great Britain.

revisenda Eaton, Ent. Monthly Mag., ser. 2, Vol. IV (XXIX) (1893), p. 129.
Northern Europe.

soleata Walker, Ins. Britannica, Dipt., Vol. 3 (1856), p. 257.
Northern Europe.

spherica Tonnoir, Ann. Soc. ent. Belg., Vol. 60, p. 180.
Belgium.

subneglecta Tonnoir, Ann. Soc. ent. Belg., Vol. 62, p. 169.
Belgium.

squamigera Tonnoir, Ann. Soc. ent. Belg., Vol. 62, p. 163.
Austria.

trifasciata Meigen, Klass, Vol. I, tab. II, fig. 20 (Trichoptera) (1804), p. 44.
Northern and Central Europe, Great Britain.

tristis Meigen, Syst. Beschr., Vol. VI, 10 (Psychoda) (1830), p. 272.
Europe.

trivialis Eaton, Ent. Monthly Mag., ser. 2, Vol. IV (XXIX) (1893), p. 121.
Northern Europe.

ustulata Walker, Ins. Britannica Dipt., Vol. 3 (1856), p. 258.
Northern Europe.

PERIPSYCHODA Enderlein

nigritarsis Enderlein, Dtsch. ent. Z., 1936 (1937), p. 99.
Germany.

PSYCHODA Latreille

albipennis Zedderstett, Dipt. Scand., Vol. IX (10) (1850), p. 3708.
Europe.

alternata Say, Long's Exp. St. Peter's River App. (1824). (For synonyms see Journal New York Entomological Society, Vol. 52, p. 204.)
Great Britain.

brevicornis Tonnoir, Trans. Soc. Brit. Ent., Vol. 7 (1940), p. 54.
England.

crassipenis Tonnoir, Trans. Soc. Brit. Ent., Vol. 7 (1940), p. 52.
England, Germany.

erminea Eaton, Ent. Monthly Mag., ser. 2, Vol. IV (XXIX) (1893), p. 130.
Northern Europe.

flavescens v. Ros., Correspondenzbl. Wurttemberg. landw., Ver. I, 50 (1840), p. 50.
Central Europe.

gemina Eaton, Ent. Monthly Mag., Vol. 40 (1904), p. 57.
England, Belgium.

grisescens Tonnoir, Ann. Soc. ent. Belg., Vol. 62 (1922), p. 87.
England.

humeralis Meigen, Syst. Beschr., Vol. I (1818), 7, p. 106 (*bullata* Walker, Ins. Britannica, Dipt., Vol. III (3), p. 257 (Pericoma) (1856)).
Europe.

lobata Tonnoir, Trans. Soc. Brit. Ent., Vol. 7 (1940), p. 60.
England, Bulgaria.

lucifuga Walker, Ins. Britannica, Dipt., Vol. III, 1 (Pericoma) (1856), p. 257.
Northern Europe.

obscura Tonnoir, Ann. Soc. ent. Belg., Vol. 50 (1919), p. 140.
England, Europe.

phalænoides Linnæus, Syst. Nat., Ed. X, 32 (Tipula) (1758), p. 588 (*muraria* Latreille, Hist. Nat. d. Crust. et. Ins., Vol. XIV (1805), p. 203) (*nervosa* Schrnk., Fauna Boica, Vol. III, 82 (Tipula) (1803), p. 2350).
Europe.

phalænoides sub. sp. *elongata* Tonnoir, Trans. Soc. Brit. Ent. Vol. 7 (1940), p. 51.
England.

primæva Cockerell, U. S. Mus., Vol. 49, p. 493.
England.

setigera Tonnoir, Ann. Soc. ent. Belg., Vol. 62 (1922), p. 85.
England, Belgium, Germany.

severini Tonnoir, Ann. Soc. ent. Belg., Vol. 62 (1922), p. 78.
England, Belgium, Austria, Germany.

spreta Tonnoir, Trans. Soc. Brit. Ent., Vol. 7 (1940), p. 57.
England, Belgium.

silacea Curt., Brit. Ent., Vol. 10 (1839), p. 745.
Northern Europe.

TELMATOSCOPUS Eaton

apicealbus Tonnoir, Ann. Soc. ent. Belg., Vol. 62, p. 179.
Italy.

britteni Tonnoir, Trans. Soc. Brit. Ent., Vol. 7 (1940), p. 47.
England.

eatoni Tonnoir, Trans. Soc. Brit. Ent., Vol. 7 (1940), p. 47.
England.

furvus Tonnoir, Trans. Soc. British Ent., Vol. 7 (1940), p. 49.
Belgium.

rothschildii Eaton, Ent. Mag., Vol. 48, p. 9.
England.

similis Tonnoir, Ann. Soc. ent. Belg., Vol. 62, p. 171.
Holland.

THRETICUS Eaton

compar, Ent. Mag., Vol. XL, p. 57.
Britain, Madeira.

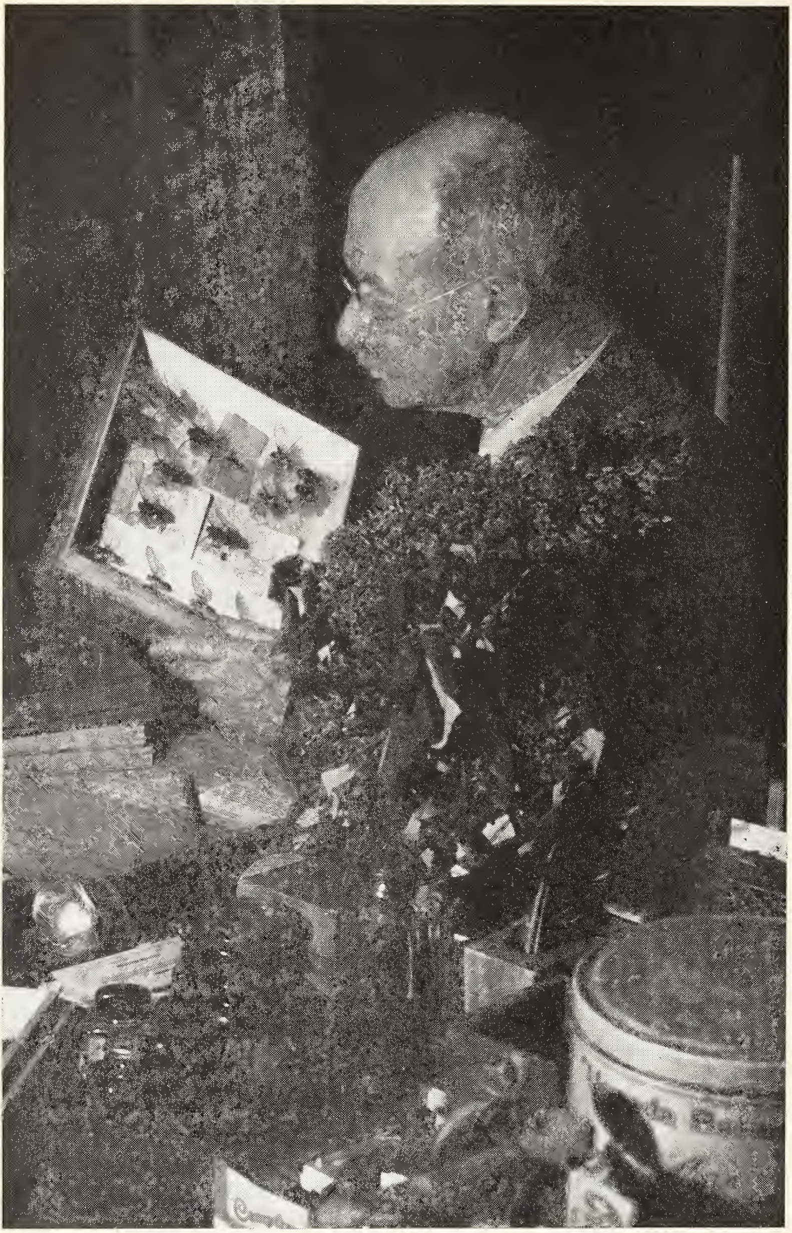
gemina Eaton, Ent. Mag., Vol. XL, p. 57.
England.

TRICHOMYIA Haliday

urbica Curt., Brit. Ent., Vol. 9 (1839), p. 745 (*aurea* Zett., Dipt. Scand., Vol. IX (8) (Psychoda) (1850), p. 3707).
Europe.

ULOMYIA Walker

plumata Tonnoir, Ann. Soc. ent. Belg., Vol. 60, p. 187.
Belgium.



WILLIAM T. DAVIS
(COURTESY OF EDWIN WAY TEALE)

WILLIAM THOMPSON DAVIS—1862–1945

On January 22, 1945, the New York Entomological Society lost by death its honorary president, William T. Davis, who was one of its oldest and most distinguished members. Mr. Davis died in the Staten Island Hospital after a long illness following an operation in July, 1944. He was in his eighty-third year. Mr. Davis was born in New Brighton, Staten Island, October 12, 1862. His parents were George B. and Elizabeth (Thompson) Davis, and his forebears, at various times, took leading parts in the civic progress of the Island. After an education in private schools on the Island he became a clerk in a New York mercantile house. Shortly afterward he entered the New York Produce Exchange of lower Manhattan, in the Gratuity Fund Department, where he stayed for over 26 years, having complete charge of that department during the three years previous to his resignation in 1909. His work in the Exchange was tedious and exacting, involving, as it did, the keeping in order of more than 3,000 individual accounts of the members of the Exchange.

Long interested in natural history, Mr. Davis, Mr. Charles W. Leng and others formed the Natural Sciences Association of Staten Island at a meeting on November 12, 1881, held in the home of his maternal grandfather, John C. Thompson, in St. Mark's Place at the corner of Hyatt Street. Mr. Davis was only nineteen years old at the time and Mr. Leng was twenty-one. The Association was incorporated February 19, 1885, and in May, 1905, the name was changed to the Association of Arts and Sciences. Its present name, Staten Island Institute of Arts and Sciences was adopted May 18, 1918. Mr. Davis was vice-president from 1905 to 1929, president from 1930 to 1934, and president emeritus from 1934 until his death.

After his retirement from business Mr. Davis occupied himself exclusively with natural history and other interests close to his heart. Entomology was one of these and probably the most important. Certainly, it occupied his attention continuously throughout most of his long life. Mr. Davis was one of the very few, good, general naturalists in addition to his specialization in entomology. Over the years he thoroughly explored the fauna and flora of Staten Island and he was capable, at the same time, of identifying much of his material. Most of his life was spent on Staten Island, interrupted occasionally by collecting trips to Long Island, Gardiner's Island, up along the Hudson River in New York, to the Pine Barrens and southern counties of New Jersey, and to California, Arizona, Texas, Florida, Georgia, the Carolinas and Virginia. In "A List of the Insects of New York," edited by Dr. M. D. Leonard and published by the Cornell University Agricultural Experiment Station in 1928, will be found most of his Staten Island and New York records. His New Jersey records were used by Dr. John B. Smith in "Insects of New Jersey," Trenton, 1909, wherein his ability and thoroughness were recognized. And his observations and descriptions of new species of dragonflies were utilized in Dr. James G. Needham's "Handbook of the Dragonflies of North America," Baltimore, 1929.

In the prefaces to many works on North American insects will be found statements of the authors acknowledging their indebtedness to Mr. Davis for his large fund of entomological knowledge and for his help in supplying specimens. Examples of rare species were either loaned or given to students as well as notes on distribution and habits. In the introduction to "Orthoptera of Northeastern America," Indianapolis, 1920, Dr. W. S. Blatchley said, "Mr. Davis, who is not only a student of Orthoptera, but also a naturalist of high rank and interested in all forms of living things, has aided me greatly in many ways." The same author, in his "Heteroptera or True Bugs of Eastern North America," Indianapolis, 1926, wrote—"As in my works on Coleoptera and Orthoptera, so in this instance, my friend and fellow naturalist, William T. Davis, of Staten Island, N. Y., has been of great service. Anything I wanted which he could furnish in the way of specimens or literature, he gladly sent, and he also furnished many notes on distribution and habits." Such happenings were a daily part of Mr. Davis's life.

In addition to helping others Mr. Davis wrote extensively upon entomological topics. Although most of his contributions appeared in the pages of the Bulletin of the Brooklyn Entomological Society and the JOURNAL OF THE NEW YORK ENTOMOLOGICAL

SOCIETY, other technical journals carried some of his articles. In the bibliography of the "Alphabetical Index to North American Orthoptera," by Samuel H. Scudder (Bost. Soc. Nat. Hist., 1901), there are eight references to early papers by Mr. Davis on the Locustidæ. These appeared from 1886 to 1896 in the Canadian Entomologist, Proceedings of the Entomological Society of Ontario, American Naturalist, Entomologica Americana and the Proceedings of the Natural Sciences Association of Staten Island.

In the 52 volumes of the JOURNAL OF THE NEW YORK ENTOMOLOGICAL SOCIETY, from 1893 to 1944, there are 132 titles by Mr. Davis. His first paper in Volume I, 1893, was a "Catalogue of the Butterflies of Staten Island," and his last paper in Volume LII, 1944, was "The Remarkable Distribution of an American Cicada: A New Genus and Other Cicada Notes." Between the publications of these two papers, 130 notes and lengthy articles appeared on cicadas, water beetles, dragonflies, butterflies, crickets, local lists of insects, ants, tiger beetles, pink katydids, aphids, roaches, biographies of entomologists, collecting notes, book reviews, etc., and in addition the printed Proceedings of the Society abound with notes and observations by Mr. Davis.

Most of his lengthy papers in the JOURNAL, of which there are about 35, are concerned with descriptions of new species and varieties of cicadas from western and southwestern states and from Mexico, Porto Rico and the West Indies. About 155 new species and varieties of cicadas were described in the pages of the JOURNAL together with notes on their songs, distribution and habits. Other papers, that I know of, on cicadas appeared between 1891 and 1928 in the Canadian Entomologist, Proceedings of the Staten Island Institute of Arts and Sciences, American Naturalist, Entomological News, Bulletin of the Brooklyn Entomological Society and the Proceedings of the Staten Island Natural Sciences Association. In addition Mr. Davis prepared the lists of Cicadidæ that appear in W. E. Britton's "Guide to the Insects of Connecticut, Part IV, Hemiptera (Conn. State Geol. & Nat. Hist. Survey Bull. 34, 1922) and in M. D. Leonard's "A List of the Insects of New York (Cornell Univ. Agric. Exp. Sta. Mem. 101, 1928), and he also wrote a bulletin on "The Cicadas or Harvest Flies of New Jersey'' (Circ. 97, N. J. Dept. Agric., 1926).

Mr. Davis was the leading authority on the cicadas of North America and numerous friends and correspondents all over the country sent him specimens and notes. Without attempting to mention all, some of these included S. J. Hunter of Kansas; T. D. A. Cockerell of Colorado; Harry H. Knight and Joseph Bequaert, who were members of the Cornell University Biological Expedition, organized by J. Chester Bradley in 1917, which extended from New York to California; Colonel Wirt Robinson of West Point and Wingina, Va.; Louise Knobel of Arkansas; E. D. Ball of Arizona; Douglas K. Duncan and O. C. Poling who sent specimens from Arizona; R. W. Harned of Mississippi; W. S. Wright of California; R. H. Beamer, who supplied specimens from New Mexico and Oklahoma; Alonzo C. Davis of California; J. W. Sugden of Utah; F. F. Bibby of Texas; Ernest L. Bell, who sent cicadas from Nevada; and H. Garman of Kentucky. Mr. Geo. P. Engelhardt during his travels supplied cicadas from Texas and other places. Howard H. Cleaves also, during his various travels, collected many specimens for Mr. Davis, his lifelong friend. Mr. Davis corresponded with W. E. China of the British Museum and extensively with E. P. Van Duzee, especially during the early part of the period in which he was describing new species. M. D. Leonard sent him specimens from Spain in 1924. J. N. Knull supplied specimens from Texas, Arizona and California during the course of his travels. And in 1922, Joseph Bequaert took specimens for Mr. Davis to the British Museum for comparison with Walker's types. Such activities and exchange of correspondence took place continually between Mr. Davis and his friends and such occurrences as I have noted could be extended over several pages.

In ''Insect Singers, a Natural History of the Cicadas,'' London, 1929, by J. G. Myers, wherein many of Mr. Davis's observations are recorded and which contains a bibliography of his cicada papers from 1891 to 1906, there is the following statement on page 82. ''That happy walking hand-in-hand of ethology and taxonomy which has made myrmecology a model for systematic entomology was never achieved in any degree in tettigology till

Wm. T. Davis brought to bear his very wide field experience.'' In the Staten Island Museum there is Mr. Davis's extensive collection of Cicadidæ and other insects as well as large series of Coleoptera collected by Charles W. Leng and Mr. Davis.

Edwin Way Teale in his book ''Near Horizons, The Story of an Insect Garden,'' New York, 1942, has a chapter entitled ''Cicada Man,'' which is an appreciative account of Mr. Davis and his interest in cicadas interwoven with personal anecdotes about Mr. Davis, his collecting paraphernalia and habits, his workshop in the ''attic'' of the Staten Island Museum with its rattlesnake skins, Indian skull, boxes of insects, notes, clippings, etc., his kindliness, his dry humor, and entertaining remarks, his encouragement and help to young naturalists all written when Mr. Davis was close to 80 years of age.

The October, 1942, issue of the Bulletin of the Brooklyn Entomological Society was dedicated to Mr. Davis upon his eightieth birthday and contains articles by J. R. de la Torre-Bueno, Edwin Way Teale, Howard Cleaves, and J. Bequaert, all dealing with different phases of Mr. Davis's life activities, and personality and illustrated by early and late photographs of Mr. Davis in action as an entomologist. It is a temptation to quote extensively from this publication and only its comparatively recent appearance prevents this. From these articles one gets a very good idea of William T. Davis himself, his quiet unassuming manner, his kindliness and consideration of others, his philosophy, his placidity, his admiring friends, his wide knowledge of plants and animals, his close association with lifelong friends, his material generosity to individuals and to natural history institutions, his field trips, his absorbing interest in Staten Island history and the Staten Island Institute of Arts and Sciences, his versatility, the endless contents of his pockets and his energy, for a small man who was, as he said of himself ''so poorly put together.''

My own friendship with Mr. Davis extended over a period of 25 years. It was the custom of many years for Mr. Davis and Mr. Leng to arrive at the American Museum of Natural History late in the afternoon, preceding the evening meeting of the New York Entomological Society and to gather in Mr. A. J. Mutchler's office for a discussion of entomological matters. Here I used to enjoy their reminiscences and conversations about old-time entomologists, whom I knew only by reputation. Mr. Davis was frequently burdened by large packages of boxes of cicadas which he brought along to illustrate his frequently scheduled talks before the Society and he could always be depended upon for a talk when the program committee ran short of speakers. My collecting experiences with Mr. Davis involved only a few trips to Lakehurst, N. J., at which time he was interested particularly in Orthoptera. I recall several pleasant visits to his home on Stuyvesant Place and to the Staten Island Museum while it was growing up and where I was entertained by Mr. Davis in the "attic" where he held forth. After the close of the meetings of the New York Entomological Society I frequently rode downtown partway on the subway with Mr. Davis and I used to marvel at his agility when he was close to 80 and at his continued energy and varied interests. During my editorship of the JOURNAL Mr. Davis published many cicada papers therein, all written carefully in longhand, all requiring little or no editing and all legible to the printer. His papers were frequently accompanied by checks for substantial sums to help toward the cost of printing.

At the age of 30, Mr. Davis wrote "Days Afield on Staten Island" (Published under auspices of the Staten Island Historical Society, 1892) and a second edition appeared in 1937. This is a series of records of rambles, over Staten Island made in company with Charles W. Leng, or Louis P. Gratacap or, that Mr. Davis made by himself. They are really prose essays dealing with such subjects as spring in the Clove Valley, South Beach, a deserted farm house, native brooks, etc., interwoven with observations on natural history, trees, insects, plants, picturesque people, bits of local history, associations, and the author's own thoughts. Mostly the book is about the activity of nature that goes on outdoors, of which so many persons are unaware. Mr. Davis happily discovered at an early age the pleasure that may be derived from making discoveries in natural history and the fact that more joy may be extracted from such activities than from an exclusive interest in the acquisition of material possessions. The book is as pleasing to read now as when it was first written and in it is firmly embedded the personality of Mr. Davis which never changed during his lifetime. More than any other of his writings this book reflects the man himself. Mr. Davis occasionally put his thoughts into verse and several of his poems are printed in this book.

Mr. Davis served the New York Entomological Society long and faithfully in many capacities. He was treasurer from 1904 to 1928, president during 1929 and 1930 and honorary president from 1940 until his death. The same can be said of the Brooklyn Entomological Society of which he was president from 1912 to 1916 and again from 1920 until his death. He was a fellow of the Entomological Society of America, of the New York Academy of Sciences, and a fellow and life member of the American Association for the Advancement of Science. The Staten Island Bird Club, in which he was deeply interested, elected him president from 1919 to 1930. He was also president of the Staten Island Historical Society for many years and his offices in the Staten Island Institute of Arts and Sciences have already been noted. In addition he was a member of the New York Historical Society, the Academy of Natural Sciences of Philadelphia, the Boston Society of Natural History, the American Museum of Natural History, the New York Zoological Society, the Brooklyn Institute of Arts and Sciences, and other societies. In 1941 the Park Association of New York City awarded him a citation for his interest and assistance in the development of parks and nature recreation centers on Staten Island.

Furthermore, Mr. Davis was actively interested in Staten Island history. He was the author of ''Homestead Graves,'' ''Staten Island Names, Ye Olde Names and Nicknames,'' 1896, ''Legends, Stories and Folklore of Old Staten Island; the North Shore'' (Charles G. Hine, co-author), and ''History of the Staten Island Historical Society 1936.'' In 1925, there was published under the auspices of the Staten Island Historical Society, by Mr. Davis, a work by William T. Davis, Charles W. Leng and Royden Woodward Vosburgh, entitled ''The Church of St. Andrew, Richmond, Staten Island, Its History, Vital Records and Gravestone Inscriptions.'' And the following year, 1926, under the same auspices and publisher there appeared a book on ''The Conference or Billopp House, Staten Island, New York'' by William T.

Davis, Chairman Committee on History, Conference House Association. This is the house where representatives of American and British governments met on September 11, 1776, to discuss the war of the Revolution.

For several years Mr. Leng and Mr. Davis devoted much time and effort to the huge task of producing a history of Staten Island and in 1930 the Lewis Historical Publishing Company, Inc., of New York City brought out the results of their labors in a monumental work of four volumes entitled, "Staten Island and Its People, A History 1609–1929," by Charles W. Leng and William T. Davis. This work was favorably received and a fifth volume was published in 1933. Volume three contains biographical accounts of Mr. Davis and Mr. Leng. A bibliography of all Mr. Davis's papers would, I am sure, reveal other works outside the field of entomology and would indicate more fully the breadth of his activities.

On November 7, 1900, Mr. Davis married Bertha Mary Fillingham, daughter of William and Elizabeth (Brook) Fillingham at Livingston, Staten Island. Her death occurred a little over a year later on December 17, 1901. Mr. Davis's father died March 4, 1899, and his mother who lived to be 86 years, and with whom he made his home at 146 Stuyvesant Place, St. George, S. I., died on April 9, 1928. No one could know Mr. Davis for any length of time without being impressed by his innate goodness, his quiet, cheerful disposition and his abiding interest in natural history. He was admired by many and by them he will be missed and remembered. One of his poems "A Day Afield on Staten Island" is printed below.—HARRY B. WEISS.

A DAY AFIELD ON STATEN ISLAND

BY WILLIAM T. DAVIS

The glorious sun is setting
  In the far and distant west,
And the clouds all golden laden
  Seem sinking down to rest.

The day was one of glory and
  The sun did brightly shine,
No heart in all the wild-wood
  Has been so glad as mine.

I went where fancy led me,
  For fancy is broad and wild;
I stayed where beauty kept me,
  For beauty is soft and mild.

But the glorious sun is setting,
  And the day is no longer mine;
Could I but turn the hour-glass
  And hold the sands of time.

ANTEOS MAERULA, A NEW BUTTERFLY RECORDED FROM FLORIDA

One bright, windy, sunny day, a female of *Anteos maerula maeurula* (Fabricius) flew into one of the gardens at Port Sewall, Florida. As it settled on one of the flowers, it was caught by Carolyn Ponsonby, a little girl, who scarcely realized until afterwards the extraordinary prize of her capture. This particular specimen bears a closer resemblance to the Cuban and Antillean members of this species, than to those from Mexico and Central America.

Anteos maerula is a newcomer to Florida. To my knowledge, this is the first and only record of this species ever reported from this state. It is not even mentioned in the latest Check List of North American Butterflies.—LEONARD J. SANFORD

THE WAX OF STINGLESS BEES (MELIPONIDÆ) AND THE USES TO WHICH IT HAS BEEN PUT

BY HERBERT F. SCHWARZ

We are indebted to bees especially for three things: their indispensable service as pollinators of plants, whereby they make possible life as we know it; their welcome contribution of a table delicacy, honey; their production of a substance, beeswax, that has commercial value. The pollination of plants is the function of bees of all kinds. The production of honey in edible quantities and of beeswax is, on the other hand, apt to be associated primarily with the honeybee, *Apis*. No one would want to underestimate the contribution that this insect has made to general well-being through furnishing in abundance these valued products. Nevertheless, it is perhaps only proper to point out that before the discovery of America the indigenes of this Hemisphere were dependent for both honey and wax on the native stingless bees. There was even an apiculture in Mexico and southward of Mexico into northern South America.

While honey was the principal object of this culture, beeswax, too, found employment. In ancient Mexico beeswax was an essential in the goldsmith's craft, being used in the preparation of the molds for the gold ornaments and figurines that are so characteristic of the art of Mexico and Central America.[1] An earlier and a later technique are indicated and in the later process workmanship in wax received greater emphasis than it did in the earlier one.

While beeswax was used in metallurgy even in pre-Columbian times, there is some doubt whether before the Discovery the native populations of Mexico and Central America were aware of its possibilities as a medium of illumination. Indeed, the testimony of more than one early visitor to the region south of the Rio Grande is to the effect that this common use for beeswax was not originally recognized by the aborigines. Gómara, writing about the middle of the Sixteenth Century, stated that the native people

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[1] Saville, M. H., 1920, The Goldsmith's Art in Ancient Mexico (Indian Notes and Monographs, Mus. Amer. Indian, Heye Foundation), pp. 125–142.

of Yucatan cultivated large hives and thus had plenty of honey and wax, but he added that they did not know how to use wax for illumination until they were taught how to make candles by the Spaniards.[2] Santarén, who is known to have been in the territory of the Acaxee, a mountain tribe of Durango and Sinaloa in 1600, wrote with reference to beeswax that the Indians ''now know how to make of it candles for the church,'' with the implication that probably no use was made of wax for lighting purposes by the Indians prior to their contact with the Whites.[3] On the other hand, Redfield and Villa R[4] or at least the senior author expressed the opinion that probably ''The Middle Americans burned wax as an offering to the gods, as they burned rubber, copal, and other substances,'' although conclusive proof could not be offered. Certain we are of one thing, in spite of these conflicting viewpoints, and that is that the use of wax for illumination was greatly stimulated by ecclesiastical demand. The Indians apparently soon learned the significance of wax for the making of candles, and as a result wax became an important item of commerce not only in Mexico but in other regions, often far distant, as well.

One of the chief ways in which the wax of stingless bees was used in South America was for the making of candles.[5] Many of the native tribes apparently made such candles for sale to Europeans. They were used in rural churches and in the Indian missions.[6] According to Maximilian, Prince of Wied-Neuwied,[7] the Tapuya of Brazil prepared such candles by winding about a thin core of wax a wick of cotton and then rolling the whole

[2] Gómara, F. L. de, 1564, Historia delle Nvove Indie Occidentali, Pt. 2, p. 65; 1940, The Conquest of the Weast India, p. 200.

[3] Beals, R. L., 1933, Ibero-Americana, Vol. 6, p. 10.

[4] Redfield, R., and Villa R, A., 1934, Chan Kom, A Maya Village (Carnegie Inst. Washington, No. 448, p. 366).

[5] Saint-Hilaire, A. de, 1830, Voyages dans les Provinces de Rio de Janeiro et de Minas Geraes, Vol. 2, p. 371; 1848, Voyage aux Sources du Rio de S. Francisco et dans la Province de Goyaz, Vol. 2, p. 164. Also Lepeletier, A., 1836, Histoire Naturelle des Insectes—Hyménoptères, Vol. 1, p. 414.

[6] Azara, F. de, 1809, Voyages dans l'Amérique Méridionale, Vol. 1, pp. 161–162.

[7] Maximilian, 1820, Reise nach Brasilien in den Jahren 1815 bis 1817, Vol. 1, p. 142.

firmly into one mass. The same author stated[8] that the Camacans of Brazil arranged the candles intended for sale in long strings, then placed them in elongated bundles and finally pasted a covering of large leaves on the outside. The Patacho of the same country brought great balls of black wax to a settlement for the purpose of making trades.[9] Saint-Hilaire used candles made of of the purified wax of stingless bees and found such candles satisfactory although inclined to drip and give forth much smoke.[10] Others have indicated that they were of inferior quality. Gardner spoke of these wax tapers as coarse and ''about a yard long.'' His observations were made in Goyaz.[11]

To this day apparently beeswax is used in the Mayan village of Chan Kom for making ceremonial candles. According to Redfield and Villa R [12] the method of making these wax candles is identical with that used for those of paraffin. From a wooden ring placed horizontally are hung about fifty wicks and, as this ring is revolved, melted wax is poured over the wicks until the particular diameter desired is attained. Wax candles of this type are either yellow or black, some hives producing wax of darker color than do other hives. Candles of black wax are occasionally lighted at funerals of grown-ups and at that part of the All Souls' Day ceremonies when there is commemoration of the adult dead.

Redfield and Villa R found that beeswax is at Chan Kom used for black magic. Figures are made of it and ''there is a belief that children who play with it become somnambulists.''

In Java the wax of *Trigona (Tetragona) iridipennis* F. Smith is used by the natives for the production of ''Battik,'' a substance for coloring calicoes and other textiles.[13]

Peckolt mentioned[14] that in southern Brazil the indigenes used the

[8] *Idem,* Vol. 2, p. 219.

[9] *Idem,* Vol. 1, p. 284.

[10] Saint-Hilaire, A. de, 1848, Voyage aux Sources du Rio de S. Francisco et dans la Province de Goyaz, Vol. 2, pp. 164–165.

[11] Gardner, George, 1846, Travels in the Interior of Brazil, First Edition, p. 329; 1849, *idem,* Second Edition, p. 250.

[12] Redfield, R., and Villa R, A., 1934, Chan Kom, A Maya Village (Carnegie Inst. Washington, No. 448, p. 49).

[13] Schulz, W. A., 1907, Zeitschr. Wiss. Insektenbiol., Vol. 3, p. 67.

[14] Peckolt, T., 1893, Natur, Vol. 42, p. 580.

wax for attaching their feather finery and other things. Later[15] that author stressed as particularly sought for this purpose, the very sticky wax of "*Melipona longiceps* Smith," which was doubtless a slip of the pen for *Trigona longipes* Smith, but may be based on a misconception of the true character of *longipes,* a synonym of *varia* Lepeletier.

According to Rayment[16] in northern Australia the aborigines decorated their head by attaching beeswax balls or beads to the ends of wisps of their hair. Similarly they used beeswax to form knobs on tassels of various ornaments, heightening the effect by pressing into the wax the scarlet seeds of the leguminous plant, *Abrussus.*

A further use which certain Australian natives have found for beeswax is as a coping to protect their rock-paintings from rain that might otherwise run down the sloping surface of the rock and damage the picture. This is the practice of the Worróra, and in a picture cave of this tribe Love[17] found a semicircle of beeswax over two representations of Waráhninya, the wedge-tailed eagle.

An Indian tribe (the Pury) living in Minas Geraes, Brazil, used the wax of stingless bees in the fabrication of their arrows and bows and also in making candles for sale to the Portuguese.[18] By the Xicaque Indians of Honduras, I am informed by Mr. V. W. von Hagen, the wax of stingless bees was used for blowgun sights and for fixing arrows.

In Cuba wax of the stingless bee, *Melipona beecheii* variety *fulvipes* Guérin, was used in lithography. References to this use of the wax appear both in Felipe Poey's account[19] and also in that of his son, Andre Poey.[20] A lithographer of Havana by the name of Marquier was the originator of the plan for using the dark wax of this bee in the manufacture of lithographic ink, and the ink made of this native wax proved more suitable for the pur-

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[15] Peckolt, T., 1893, *idem,* Vol. 43, p. 91.

[16] Rayment, T., 1935, A Cluster of Bees, pp. 512–513.

[17] Love, J. A. B., 1929–1930, Jour. Royal Soc. Western Australia, Vol. 16, p. 9.

[18] Maximilian, Prince of Wied-Neuwied, 1820, Reise nach Brasilien in den Jahren 1815 bis 1817, Vol. 1, p. 142.

[19] Poey, F., 1851, Memorias sobre la Historia Natural de la Isla de Cuba, Vol. 1, p. 169.

[20] Poey, A., 1855, Bull. Soc. d'Acclim., Vol. 2, pp. 334–336.

pose than did the imported ink of Europe. Subsequently lithographic pencils were also manufactured from this wax. But these instances do not cover all the known uses for the native wax in Cuba. In addition, Felipe Poey noted that it was employed in fastening artificial flowers, in mending shoes, in removing corns, in fastening boys' kites, etc.

Just how corns were removed or "cured" is not made clear but this was not the only medicinal use for the wax of stingless bees. The wax of *Trigona* (*Schwarziana*) *quadripunctata* variety *bipartita* (Lepeletier) was, according to Peckolt,[21] prized more highly than any other native wax of southern Brazil for salves and plasters, and Spix and Martius[22] likewise indicated that the wax of stingless bees was put to these uses. The fragrant wax of "Yatëi" (*Trigona jaty* F. Smith) was used, according to Wappaeus[23] in Paraguay "only for perfume or in rural medicine."

Writing from Moulmein, Parish[24] spoke of the preparation and use in Burma of propolis (known as *Pwai-ngyet*). Boiled in water and softened thereby, it is then given an admixture of petroleum and kneaded until it has the consistency of putty. In this form its principal use is for caulking boats.[25] Parish indicated that Pwai-ngyet in the limited sense is the product gathered by *Trigona* (*Tetragona*) *laeviceps*, which is a synonym of *Trigona* (*Tetragona*) *iridipennis* F. Smith. A South American species, too, furnishes a resinous material prized for the caulking of leaking canoes. This species is *Trigona fulviventris* variety *guianæ* Cockerell, which, according to Miss L. E. Cheesman, stores large yellow lumps used by Colombian fishermen for this purpose.[26]

In East Africa, on the other hand, Morstatt found that wax of all species of stingless bees was used to make canes and ropes pliant.[27]

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[21] Peckolt, T., 1894, Natur, Vol. 43, p. 90.

[22] Spix, J. B. von, and Martius, C. F. P. von, 1928, Reise in Brasilien in den Jahren 1817 bis 1820, p. 523.

[23] Wappaeus, J. E., 1867, Die Republik Paraguay, p. 1157.

[24] Parish, C. S. P., 1866, Science Gossip, pp. 198–199.

[25] Cook, M. C., 1865, Science Gossip, p. 252.

[26] Cheesman, L. E., 1929, Trans. Ent. Soc. London, Vol. 77, p. 149.

[27] Morstatt, H. A., 1921, Arbeiten Biol. Reichsanstalt für Land- und Forstwirt., Vol. 10, p. 299.

It has long been known that ambergris is a product of the sperm whale—an origin sufficiently remarkable but far eclipsed by that assigned to it in a seventeenth century article on stingless bees,[28] in which it is stated:

> ''He (Monsieur Villermont) promises to show me, that Ambergrise is nothing but wax, mixt with the Honey, which falls into the Sea, and is beat about in the Waves, between the Tropics.''

One could almost wish that this fantastic explanation had validity, so that yet another use for the wax of stingless bees might be added to those already cited.

The wax when it issues from the wax-producing glands is approximately as pale as that produced by *Apis,* but almost always it is subsequently mixed by the bees with alien materials that give it a darker color. It is true that Bertoni[29] classifies Paraguayan bees' wax as follows: (1) of brown color and much mixed with woody materials (*amalthea* and *tataira*); (2) of ferruginous color (various *Melipona* and *Trigona* (*Cephalotrigona*) *capitata* F. Smith); (3) of clear yellow color and soft (various *Trigona*). In general, however, the wax used in the nest architecture is far from pure and tends to be dark in color. It was the conclusion of Fritz Müller[30] that in some species no more than 10% of the building material is wax, resinous substances and clay accounting for the other 90%. It is no surprise that, even in cases where the admixture of foreign materials is much less, this impure dark wax is often very resistant to blanching. When Azara was making his journey through the South American wilderness in the late Eighteenth Century no way was known of bleaching it.[31] Nor was any blanching method known in northern South America, for Fermin in his account of Surinam shortly after the middle of the Eighteenth Century indicated that the dark wax of the stingless bees of the region remained permanently dark.[32]

The Count da Barca, minister of the king, made repeated at-

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[28] I, Mr., 1685, Philosophical Transactions, Vol. 15, p. 1031.

[29] Bertoni, A. de W., 1912, An. Mus. Nac. Hist. Nat. Buenos Aires, Vol. 22 (Ser. 3, Vol. 15), p. 139.

[30] Müller, Fritz, 1874, Nature, Vol. 10, pp. 102–103.

[31] Azara, F. de, 1809, Voyages dans l'Amérique Méridionale, Vol. 1, p. 161.

[32] Fermin, 1769, Description de la Colonie de Surinam, Vol. 2, p. 301.

tempts, according to Saint-Hilaire,[33] to give the indigenous wax of Brazil a light color, yet had not succeeded. On the other hand, Saint-Hilaire observed at Goyaz a workman who had discovered a successful method, which consisted of melting it, dividing it into small bits and exposing these to the sun. He repeated this process sixteen times, consuming two to three months in doing so, but in the end the wax was almost as white as that of the domestic honeybee. Not all wax had to be bleached, however, for according to Azara,[34] a large stingless bee found at Santiago del Estero in the Chaco produced a pale wax that could be mingled up to a half with tallow. Inhabitants of the region gathered annually about 14,000 pounds of this wax. Bertoni[35] spoke of the wax of *Trigona* (*Plebeia*) *mosquito* Smith, as "almost white," and Burlamaqui referred to the wax of one Brazilian stingless bee that was paler than that of the Old World honeybee and superior in quality. The bee in question, it was said, nested in hollows of trees in certain regions near the Amazon.[36]

Peckolt made analyses of the ingredients in the wax of stingless bees as he did of the ingredients in the honey. The wax of the following species was analyzed: *droryana* and *ruficrus* among *Trigona,* and *fuscata* among *Melipona.* Wax, resin, water, ash, were present in varying proportions in each case and usually there was also present a humus-like substance. The wax in each case exceeded 50 per cent of the total, ranging from 52 per cent to 59 per cent. Resin was present in the proportion of about 31 per cent to 42.5 per cent. The analyses are based on too limited a study of material to be applied more generally. Some species are known to use other foreign substances than those included by Peckolt, but it is interesting at least to find the wax content so high in the conglomerate material studied. However, the percentages cited did not apply to the brood-envelope, where the wax ranged from about 11 per cent to about 20 per cent, and where, in

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[33] Saint-Hilaire, A. de, 1848, Voyage aux Sources du Rio de San Francisco et dans la Province de Goyaz, Vol. 2, p. 164.

[34] Azara, F. de, 1809, Voyages dans l'Amérique Méridionale, Vol. 1, pp. 161–162.

[35] Bertoni, A. de W., 1912, An. Mus. Nac. Hist. Nat. Buenos Aires, Vol. 22 (Ser. 3, Vol. 15), p. 145.

[36] Raveret-Wattel, M., 1875, Bull. Soc. d' Acclim., Ser. 3, Vol. 2, p. 757.

addition to resin and humus-like substances, not to mention plant material, there were in substantial proportions organic substances soluble in water and organic salts.[37] In the analyses of the brood envelope Peckolt apparently failed to include an analysis of the brood envelope of *ruficrus*.

The process of preparing the wax in Cuba was described by Poey.[38] The wax was obtained from the provision containers, which were first thoroughly cleansed of honey and of pollen and, when dry, placed in a pan over a slow fire. The melted part was drawn off, and if any dregs remained at the bottom of the pan, they were thrown away. Another method was to boil the wax in water, and to skim it from the surface of the brew, or to strain it through a linen cloth; but this method, which worked well enough in the case of wax of the European honeybee, is, according to Poey, unsuited in the case of the dark wax of the stingless bees. In the Mayan village of Chan Kom the inhabitants clarify wax by melting it and then placing it in cold water, whereupon the good wax comes to the surface. "The wax which is no good stays underneath."[39]

From East Africa used to be shipped from time to time wax that passed under the name of "bumblebee wax," but as there are no bumblebees south of the Mediterranean region of Africa, the designation was obviously a misnomer. The wax in question—of an inferior quality—was the product of stingless bees.[40] Doubtless there are many other uses to which the wax of stingless bees has been put in the Old World and the New, but the instances here offered indicate at least that this wax has proved its worth in a great variety of applications.

[37] von Ihering, H., 1904, Zool. Jahrb. System. Geogr. und Biol., Vol. 19, pp. 267–269.

[38] Poey, F., 1851, Memorias sobre la Historia Natural de la Isla de Cuba, Vol. 1, p. 168.

[39] Redfield, R., and Villa R, A., 1934, Chan Kom, A Maya Village. Carnegie Inst. Washington, No. 448, pp. 49, 50.

[40] Morstatt, H. A., 1921, Arbeiten Biol. Reichsanstalt für Land- und Forstw., Vol. 10, pp. 283–284.

INSECT ENEMIES OF THE HOUSE FLY, MUSCA DOMESTICA L.

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INTRODUCTION

While the house fly, *Musca domestica* L., is one of the most abundant of insects and one of the most important from the standpoint of human health and sanitation, there are very few accounts in literature of the insect predators of the adult fly. The following is an annotated record of the writer's observations on this subject.

The house fly is much less numerous in New England now than was the case thirty-five years ago. Better sanitation, screens, fly sprays have all contributed, but the most important factor, completely overshadowing all others, has been the decrease of the horse as it gradually became replaced by the motorized vehicles of the gas engine era. The principal breeding medium of the house fly was horse manure. With this staple food of the house fly gone, house fly populations were bound to decrease.

The passing of old Dobbin brought about other far-reaching changes such as the decrease of the English sparrow which depended to a large extent for its winter forage, in the snow-covered northern states at least, on the undigested grain in horse droppings. As the horse population dwindled, the demand for hay dropped off with the result that farmers began to abandon their mowings initiating a succession of vegetation of weeds and brush to young woods on the old hayfield sites. This affected bird ecology to the extent that such grass-nesting birds as meadowlarks and bobolinks began to fade away from their old haunts with the passing of the grassland.

The effects on human health were evidenced by a decline of tetanus or ''lockjaw'' the causal organism of which throve in soil or straw in the neighborhood of horses, as well as the decrease of typhoid fever which was carried largely by the house fly. The replacement of dirt roads by hard-surface highways for auto transit did away with the clouds of dust which together with proximity to horses, in some cases, produced, and in others, aggravated asthma in many humans.

One entomological effect of the decrease of horses was the depletion, in New England, of the horse bot flies, *Gastrophilus* spp., which were completely dependent upon the horse for their existence. The tabanid horse flies which have a variety of hosts were affected little if to any extent. Some of the coprophagous beetles specialized in equine ejecta and have now become scarce, as for example, the beautiful *Geotrupes semiopacus* Jek.

HORNETS VS. THE HOUSE FLY

Back in the days when streets, houses, and farms reeked with house flies, I spent many hours when, as Mark Twain once remarked concerning his own observations on the habits of ants, ''I should have been better employed,'' watching the killing of house flies by their insect enemies.

First and foremost of these insect predators was the common white-faced hornet, *Vespa maculata* L. These hornets dogged the house fly assemblages and persistently hunted down the flies. Herewith are some of these instances, a very incomplete record of my observations inasmuch as this was so commonplace an occurrence I did not take the trouble half the time to make the record.

Warren, Mass., August, 1908. Around pig sty at barn. Three captures noted.

Charlton, Mass., August 10, 1909. Around milk bucket. Two captures noted.

Dudley, Mass., August, 1910. Around barn. Two captures noted.

North Woodstock, Conn., August, 1910. Around farmhouse porch. Five captures noted.

Charlton, Mass., August, 1910. On side of barn near door of farmhouse. Four captures noted.

Southbridge, Mass., July, 1910. Around produce at a meat market. Hornets noted demonstrating their poor vision by butting into nailheads which they mistook for flies on the side of the building. Three captures noted.

Charlton, Mass., August, 1918. Around pig pen at a farm. Two captures noted.

Certain other social wasps were seen to hunt down house flies but to a less extent than *V. maculata.* These were the common native ground-nesting yellow-jacket, *Vespa maculifrons* Buy., and the English wasp, *Vespa vulgaris* L.

For *V. maculifrons* I have the following records of their capturing house flies.

Southbridge, Mass., September 28, 1913. On sunny side of stable shed. Two captures noted.

Southbridge, Mass., August 12, 1917. Around a rendering plant. Three captures noted.

On May 4, 1928, on a greenhouse window at Chappaqua, N. Y., I saw a brown wasp, *Polistes fuscatus* Fabr., capture and devour a house fly, a rather unique instance as this wasp feeds as a rule on caterpillars.

Among the solitary wasps, *Bembex spinolæ* Lep., *Oxybelus quadrinotatus* Say, *Stictia carolina* Fabr. (The "Horse Guard" of the South), and species of *Solenius* (*Crabro*) have been known to seize and store up house flies, although such observations have never chanced to come within my own personal notice.

ROBBER FLIES VS. THE HOUSE FLY

Next in importance to the hornets as house fly enemies were the robber flies. This was true of New England but throughout the Southern States the house-fly killing asilids are much more numerous than in the north, and undoubtedly surpass the hornets as enemies of *Musca.*

Around restaurant doors and windows or in the open-air markets for meat, vegetables and fruit where house flies swarmed in the old days, it was not unusual to see larger, more slender flies of another breed pouncing on *Musca domestica* individuals and sucking their blood. These were robber flies. I have several records which I have preserved for many years, and now publish a number of them, some for the first time.

Asilus notatus. Wied. A common asilid at the edge of woods, fields, and thickets, along fence rows and around buildings. It used to be attracted to house fly assemblages and was frequently found in towns and cities, feeding on flies. Woodstock, Conn., July, 1909, on moving wagon which was swarming with flies. Southbridge, Mass., July 7, 1910, on side of meat market building. Southbridge, Mass., July 7, 1910, on box of fruit outside market. Charlton, Mass., July, 1910, on side of barn. Worcester, Mass., June 24, 1910, on restaurant window. Worcester, Mass., June 24, 1910, on sign on open-air meat counter. Boston, Mass., July, 1911, on sunny side of meat market. Boston, Mass., July, 1911, stuck with its prey on fly paper on meat counter. Boston, Mass., July, 1911, on exposed meat at open-air market.

Asilus sadyates Walker. This is a late summer counterpart of *A. notatus.* Southbridge, Mass., August, 1909, on side of building near kitchen door. Southbridge, Mass., August, 1909, on porch of house.

Asilus lecythus Walker. Larger than *A. notatus* and more local. Rockville, Pa., July 4th. Specimen in State Collection, Harrisburg, Pa.

Neoitamus (*Asilus*) *flavofemoratus* Hine. Worcester, Mass., June 24, 1910, on restaurant window.

Erax æstuans L. The leading fly-killer of the robber fly group, east of the Rockies, is the abundant and widespread *Erax æstuans* L. This *Erax* alights in bushes at the edges of woods or fields, on fences, buildings, domestic animals, and even on man himself where it seizes house flies, deer flies, mosquitoes and many other pestiferous Diptera.

A common name throughout the South for *Erax æstuans* L., together with other species of the same genus is the appellation "fly-hawk," and every farmer has noted its fly-catching proclivities.

In August, 1927, Dr. C. O. Eddy, then at Clemson College, S. C., wrote me that this fly-killer had been noted throughout the summer at the insectary building where it rested on the outside walls or screens, disposing of a great number of house flies each day. Here are some records of *Erax æstuans* feeding on *Musca domestica.* Charlton, Mass., July, 1910, on side of farm house. Charlton, Mass., August, 1911, on barn door. Southbridge, Mass., July, 1912, on screen door. Southbridge, Mass., August, 1917, on side of rendering plant. Columbia, Missouri, July 26, 1923, on fence near farm building. Eureka, Missouri, August 4 (D. J. Knull). College Station, Texas, June 1, 1932, on side of small building; June 11, 1932, on wooden fence along pasture; July 4, 1932, on horse shed; July 8, 1932, on water tank near barn; July 14, 1932, at dairy building. Cedar Creek, Campbell County, Tennessee, June 10, 1943 (R. M. Goslin).

In sandy farm yards in the Southern States, a number of ground-resting asilids are common feeders on house flies. Outstanding are the two ''fly-hawks'' of the genus *Erax: E. barbatus* Fabr. and the so-called ''Snorey-Joe,'' *E. interruptus* Macq., as well as the smaller *Proctacanthella* (*Asilus*) *cacopiloga* Hine; while the much smaller *Stichopogon trifasciatus* Say occasionally captures the house fly.

As distinguishing common names for the fly-hawks, I might suggest bush fly-hawk for *Erax æstuans* L.; field fly-hawk for *Erax rufibarbis* Macq., and sand fly-hawk for *Erax barbatus* Fabr.

Erax barbatus Fabr. This active little asilid feeds on house flies extensively when it can find them. Cane Springs, Imperial Valley, California, June 20, 1925, on sand near a filling station. Weslaco, Texas, June 20, 1933, on sand in citrus grove near packing shed; June 21, 1933, on truck in orange grove; July 2, 1933, on sand in citrus grove near packing shed; July 31, 1933, on sand in citrus grove near packing shed; August 14, 1933, on sand near packing shed; September 14, 1933, on sand in road through citrus grove.

Erax interruptus Macquart. While this *Erax* feeds largely on grasshoppers and Lepidoptera, it also frequently selects house flies. Yuma, Arizona, July 3, 1925, on sand in horse corral. Chadbourne, North Carolina, September 12, 1925, on path through field. Clemson College, South Carolina, August 16, 1926, on path through field; August 17, 1926, in barn yard of dairy farm. Calhoun Falls, South Carolina, August 17, 1926, in road to farm yard.

Erax rufibarbis Macquart. A common species throughout the eastern half of the United States, alighting on the ground in open fields and paths. Southbridge, Mass., September 5, 1914, in path near dump; September 10, 1915, in path near dump; September 16, 1915, on ground in dry field near stable.

Proctacanthella (*Asilus*) *cacopiloga* Hine. A common ground-resting species in sandy regions of the South. College Station, Texas, June 12, 30, 1932, in path near gate to pasture.

Proctacanthus philadelphicus Macquart. Southbridge, Mass., August, 1911, in field near stable. A unique record for this large robber fly whose capture-mechanism is designed for larger prey.

Stichopogon trifasciatus Say. South Union, Ohio, June 29, 1941 (R. M. Goslin). Scioto River, Columbus, Ohio, July 1, 1944 (R. M. Goslin).

DRAGON FLIES VS. THE HOUSE FLY

Certain dragon flies were seen to capture house flies. The late Dr. Charles Branch Wilson in his comprehensive and interesting article on "Dragon Flies in Relation to Pondfish Culture" (Bulletin of the Bureau of Fisheries, Vol. XXXVI, Document No. 882, 1920) on pages 212–214 records several species of dragon flies; *i.e., Gomphus fraternus, G. vastus, Æschna constricta, Leucorrhinia intacta, Libellula luctuosa, Erythemis simplicicollis* and *Plathemis lydia,* feeding on house flies. My own records are rather few. The commonest dragon flies around barns and stables, *Sympetrum rubicundulum* Say and *vicinum* Hagen, I never saw make any attempt to capture the flies. My only records are of some of the large æschnid dragon flies which would occasionally put in an appearance at house fly gatherings, select a victim and depart.

Æschna constricta Say. North Woodstock, Conn., August, 1909, in farm yard. Southbridge, Mass., September, 1912, in barn yard; September 28, 1913, near stable.

Æschna clepsydra Say. Lake Mashapaug, Union, Conn., August, 1916, at kitchen door of Summer Hotel. Charlton, Mass., August, 1918, in farm yard.

Æschna umbrosa Walker. Southbridge, Mass., August 12, 1917, at rendering plant.

Æschna canadensis Walker. North Woodstock, Conn., July, 1910, near barn.

Boyera vinosa Say. Southbridge, Mass., August, 1910, in late P.M., near stable.

RECENT RECORDS

With house fly aggregations smaller during late years in the north at least, their enemies are less in evidence. It usually took a great abundance of the flies to draw the hornets, robber flies and dragon flies, where the expenditure of effort in capturing their prey could be quickly and easily recompensed.

One may still find flies in abundance at piggeries in the dung of which the house fly will breed. The house fly does not ordinarily breed in cow manure. At pig-pens, the white-faced hornet still finds house flies in sufficient numbers to be tempting, while garbage dumps attract great numbers of *Musca domestica.*

Hoping to get the facts on present-day house fly predatism, one hot Sunday morning in August, 1943, I walked over to the town dump. Ever since its inception several years ago, this dump had been, to use a trite expression, the bane of my existence. It would catch fire every now and then and on cold winter nights, the acrid and nauseating fumes of smouldering wet paper and decomposing garbage would cascade down the river valley and collect in my back yard about a mile and a half away. I organized committees and tried to make things as miserable as possible for the good Town Fathers with my angry protests and demands for the abatement of the nuisance but to no avail. The dump went on growing and waxed mighty both in area and stench, engendering great numbers of Norway rats, European house crickets, flies and mosquitoes.

Finally compensating factors, principally ornithological, began to develop. The dump attracted flocks of crows. The crow is the most effective bird enemy of the Japanese beetle, so I didn't complain about them. The rat populations brought back the horned owl, which I had heretofore considered extinct, at least as a nesting bird, in the Stamford area. The great horned owl prefers the brown rat to all else as food: there is no better ''ratter'' in the whole world.

After several years had gone by, particularly as special efforts were made by the authorities to stop the fires and reduce the odors by quickly filling with soil, I began to lose my resentment. So on this particular day, I decided to brave the effluvium and see what was happening to *Musca domestica* at the hands of its insect enemies.

The flies swarming on the garbage were mostly the common carrion or garbage fly, *Phormia regina* Meigen, with a scattering of green-bottles, *Lucilia sericata* Meigen. *Musca domestica* swarmed over the old crates and cartons. There were six or eight white-faced hornets in sight all the time, seizing all three kinds of flies.

There were ten to fifteen dragon flies, *Libellula pulchella* Drury, coursing over the garbage and over the big patches of scattered broken glass which they evidently mistook for pools of water. I watched them through the binoculars. They were feeding, not on house flies, but on some very minute insects which they picked up in the air and then chewed up while resting on some exposed point. They paid no attention to the house flies, or to the garbage flies, either.

On September 6, 1943, I revisited the dump. The white-faced hornets were again the principal fly hunters, although at this time I counted, in addition, five English wasps, *Vespa vulgaris* L., seizing house flies. At the edge of the dump a dragon fly, *Æschna umbrosa* Walker, swept in and snapped up a house fly which had just left its perch on a packing box. This was the only time I saw an Odonate catch a house fly at this dump.

The foregoing may be taken to indicate that in spite of a marked reduction of flies in New England during the past few decades, in spite of an apparent dwindling of breeding places, and in spite of the pressure of natural enemies, together with man's efforts at fly eradication, the lowly house fly is still with us and will probably be for milleniums to come.

THE SELECTIVE PENETRATION OF FAT SOLVENTS INTO THE NERVOUS SYSTEM OF MOSQUITO LARVÆ[1]

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It was pointed out in a previous paper that when certain lipid solvents are marked with Sudan dyes and introduced into the tracheal system of mosquito larvæ the central nervous system may become intensely colored with the dye while other tissues remain uncolored (Richards, 1943). There are reasons for thinking that the dyes do not leave the tracheæ except with the solvent, and accordingly that the distribution of dye in tissues can, with certain limitations, be used as an index of the penetration of the solvent (see discussion). The present paper summarizes data on over 100 organic compounds of which the majority showed a selective coloring of the nervous system; the remainder usually were negative (dye remained in tracheæ).

Materials and Methods. These experiments have been performed over a period of a year and a half. In general the entire series of compounds listed were tested once using fourth instar larvæ of the house mosquito, *Culex pipiens;* then with few exceptions they were subsequently tested again using fourth instar larvæ of the yellow-fever mosquito, *Ædes ægypti.* The approach was to introduce into the tracheæ a concentrated solution of a lipid (Sudan) dye in the solvent being tested, and subsequently check the distribution and condition of the dye. Notes were also made on obvious gross pathology.

The standard procedure adopted was to remove the larvæ from the culture singly and place them on filter paper on the stage of a binocular dissecting microscope. A fine glass capillary tube from a small hand syringe was introduced into the spiracular opening at the end of the respiratory siphon when the valves were

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[1] The work described in this paper was done under a contract, recommended by the Committee on Medical Research, between the Office of Scientific Research and Development and the University of Pennsylvania.

open, and the solution being tested forced out of the capillary and induced to flow down the longitudinal tracheal trunks until they were full or nearly so. The larvæ were transferred to 10 per cent formalin in saline for an hour, and then the brains and ventral nerve cords dissected out and examined in formol-saline under the compound microscope.

The timing was varied in cases where negative results were first obtained. Commonly a longer or shorter time was given between injection and dissection, and the cover glass sealed on and the slide examined at intervals up to 24 hours. In several cases specimens were kept in culture water instead of formol-saline to offset the possibility that the slow formol fixation might be interfering with penetration (in no case was it found to do so). In some cases the material was allowed to enter the tracheæ from a water-test substance interface instead of being introduced from a syringe.

As lipid stain, Black Sudan B (National Aniline and Chemical Company) was usually used because of its intense color and its chromatic effects. When negative results were obtained with this complex polyazo dye, Sudan IV or Oil Red O was tried because of its smaller molecular size.

When the dye penetration is considerable the color can be seen in the nerve cord through the body wall. In these cases it is easy to see during dissection whether the other tissues are colored to any similar degree. In all cases other tissues were watched for the presence of stain. As additional checks on the selective dye penetration from tracheæ, blood injections were made with the same solutions, and larvæ with the respiratory siphons tied off with a hair-loop were immersed in the solutions to test cuticular penetration.

Results. In the following table are presented data from over 2,000 tracheal injections. The accompanying blood injections and cuticle applications were used primarily as controls, and are not included.

Unfortunately it was not found possible to estimate and interpret the results with sufficient accuracy to permit a precise quantitative comparison of the penetration and accumulation of the substances tested. As an attempt to express partially the obvious gross differences a series of five units was adopted. For

Material	Source	Number of replicates	Number of larvæ	Distribution in small tracheæ	Distribution in nervous system	Distribution in other tissues	Miscellaneous
n-Pentane	2	3	13	Negative	Negative	Negative	Too volatile
iso-Pentane	2	2	10	Negative	Negative	Negative	Too volatile
Hexane	2	1	5	Fair	Diffuse 2	Negative	
Heptane (practical)	2	3	15	Good	Diffuse 2	Negative	
n-Heptane (synthetic)	2	2	10	Good	Diffuse 2	Negative	
n-Octane (synthetic)	2	1	5	Good	Diffuse 2	Negative	
n-Nonane	2	2	10	Good	Diffuse 3	Negative	
n-Tetradecane	2	4	19	Good	Diffuse 4	Negative	
n-Hexadecane (practical)	2	3	14	Good	Diffuse 4	Negative	
n-Hexadecane (synthetic)	2	4	19	Good	Negative	Negative	
Kerosenes							
Ultrasene	15	3	18	Good	Diffuse 4	Negative	
Shell Kerosene	14	1	10	Good	Negative ?	Negative	Some aromatics
Esso Kerosene	13	1	10	Good	Diffuse 4	Negative	Some aromatics
Solvesso #3	13	2	10	Good	Diffuse 1	Negative	Stains from blood
Naphtha #3	13	2	11	Good	Diffuse 2	Negative	Some aromatics
Mentor 28	13	2	12	Good	Diffuse 3	Negative	
Bayol D	12	4	25	Good	Negative ?	Negative	
Various Mineral Oils (light and heavy)	12	Many	Many	Good	Negative	Negative	
Carbon bisulfide	1	1	6	Poor	Diffuse 2	Negative	
Carbon tetrachloride	1	1	6	Good	Diffuse 2	Negative	
Chloroform	1	2	12	Fair	Diffuse 2	Slight in muscle	
Ethylene dichloride	3	4	30	Fair	Diffuse 3	Muscles 4	
Trichlorethane	3	2	15	Good	Diffuse 3	Negative	Nerve pathology

Material	Source	Number of replicates	Number of larvæ	Distribution in small tracheæ	Distribution in nervous system	Distribution in other tissues	Miscellaneous
Nitromethane	4	3	25	Poor	Negative	Negative	
Nitroethane	4	2	15	Negative	Negative	Negative	
1-Nitropropane	4	3	25	Fair	Diffuse 4	Negative	
2-Nitropropane	4	3	25	Fair	Single specimen	Negative	
Octyl alcohol	3	2	16	Good	Diffuse 3	Negative	Nerve pathology
Capryl alcohol	4	2	15	Good	Diffuse 3	Negative	
Heptadecanol	3	2	15	Good	Negative	Negative	
2-Nitro, 1-butanol	4	3	25	Negative	Negative	Negative	
2-Amino, 2-methyl propanol	4	3	13	Negative	Negative	Negative	
Methyldiethanolamine	3	2	15	Negative	Negative	Negative	Causes degeneration
Monoisopropanolamine	3	2	15	Negative	Negative	Negative	Causes degeneration
2-ethyl, 1,3-hexanediol (*612*)	7	3	35	Fair	Negative	Muscle 4	
Geraniol "C"	5	2	15	Good	Droplets 2	Negative	Nerve pathology
Geraniol standard	9	1	5	Good	Droplets 2	Negative	
Eugenol, USP XII	5	4	43	Fair	Single specimen	Negative	Nerve pathology
Citrola	5	2	10	Good	Droplets 3	Lesser amounts	Nerve pathology
Petrodor 7766	5	3	20	Good	Droplets 3	Negative	Nerve pathology
Petrodor 8029	5	2	15	Good	Droplets 3	Negative	Nerve pathology
Citronella—Ceylon ST	5	2	15	Good	Droplets 2	Lesser amounts	
Citronella—Imitation	5	2	16	Good	Droplets 2	Lesser amounts	
Citronella tails	9	1	6	Good	Droplets 3	Negative	Nerve pathology Not same as above
Butyraldehyde	3	2	10	Poor	Diffuse 3	Questionable	Stains from blood
Acetone	1	6	70	Very poor	Negative	Erratic	Passes into blood
Diacetone	4	3	26	Negative	Negative	Negative	Stains from blood

Material	Source	Number of replicates	Number of larvæ	Distribution in small tracheæ	Distribution in nervous system	Distribution in other tissues	Miscellaneous
Methyl isobutyl ketone	3	2	14	Good	Diffuse 3	Slight	
Ethyl ether	1	4	30	Very poor	Diffuse 3	Positive	
Hexyl ether	3	3	20	Poor	Diffuse 4	Can enter blood as droplets	
Dioxan (diethylene oxide)	1	1	10	Negative	Negative	Negative	
Dichlorethyl ether	3	2	15	Fair	Negative	Negative	
Dichlorisopropyl ether	3	2	21	Fair	Diffuse 4	Can enter blood as droplets	
Triglycol dichloride	3	4	34	Fair	Negative	Negative	
Dichlorethyl formol	3	3	23	Fair	Negative	Negative	
Butyl ''carbitol'' acetate*	7	2	13	Good	Diffuse 3	Erratic in muscles	Nerve pathology
Butyl ''cellosolve'' laurate	6	2	15	Fair	Droplets 4	Negative	
Butyl oleate	4	4	47	Good	Droplets 4	Negative	
Butyl stearate	4	3	26	Good	Droplets 4	Negative	
Glycerol monoleate	6	3	16	Fair	Droplets 4	Negative	
Diethylene glycol monoleate	6	2	15	Good	Droplets 3	Negative	
Propylene glycol monolaurate	6	4	21	Good	Droplets 3	Negative	
Dibutyl sebacate	4	3	26	Good	Droplets 4	Negative	
Sorbitol dilaurate	6	2	14	Fair	Droplets 3	Negative	
Insectemul C	11	2	16	Good	Droplets 4	Negative	
Insectemul D	11	2	15	Good	Droplets 3	Negative	
Oleic acid	1	1	10	Good	Diffuse 3	Negative	
Tergitol #7	3	2	14	Fair	Negative	Negative	Other detergents similar

*Another sample of Butyl ''carbitol'' acetate gave negative results, at least partly because of its poor distribution in the tracheæ. The differences between these two samples are not known.

Material	Source	Number of replicates	Number of larvæ	Distribution in small tracheæ	Distribution in nervous system	Distribution in other tissues	Miscellaneous
Cyclohexane	2	1	5	Excellent	Diffuse 2	Negative	
Methylcyclohexane	2	1	5	Good	Diffuse 3	Negative	
Dipentene No. 122	10	4	31	Good	Diffuse 2	Negative	
alpha-terpineol	10	5	33	Fair	Droplets 4	Negative	
Terposol #3	10	3	15	Excellent	Diffuse 2	Negative	
Pinene III (alpha-pinene)	10	2	15	Good	Diffuse 2	Negative	
Terpin diacetate	10	3	31	Poor	Diffuse 4	Negative	
Yarmor pine oil	10	2	16	Good	Droplets 3	Negative	
Para thinner	10	2	15	Good	Diffuse 2	Negative	
D. H. S. Activator (ethylene glycol ether of pinene)	10	2	25	Fair	Diffuse 3	Negative	
Ionones terpenes	9	1	5	Good	Droplets 2	Negative	
Turpentine	1	2	15	Good	Diffuse 1	Negative	
Thanite	10	4	33	Fair	Diffuse 4	Negative	Nerve pathology
Isoborneol thiocyanoacetate	10	2	16	Fair	Diffuse 3	Negative	
Pyrethrum	5	1	10	Excellent	Diffuse 2	Negative	Without dye
Indalone	8	4	31	Fair	Questionable	Negative	
Isophorone	3	5	40	Poor	Diffuse 4	Negative	
Morpholine	3	2	18	Poor	Negative	Negative	Causes degeneration
Pyridine	1	3	28	Poor	Negative	Negative	Passes into blood and stains from there
Benzene	1	1	7	Excellent	Diffuse 1	Head muscles	
Toluene	1	3	30	Excellent	Diffuse 1	Head muscles	
o-Xylene	2	2	10	Excellent	Diffuse 1	Head muscles	

Material	Source	Number of replicates	Number of larvæ	Distribution in small tracheæ	Distribution in nervous system	Distribution in other tissues	Miscellaneous
m-Xylene	2	1	5	Excellent	Diffuse 1	Head muscles	
p-Xylene	2	1	5	Excellent	Diffuse 1	Head muscles	
Xylol	1	2	16	Excellent	Diffuse 1	Head muscles	
p-Cymene	10	2	23	Excellent	Diffuse 1	Head muscles	
Benzyl ''cellosolve''	3	3	25	Poor	Negative	Negative	Causes degeneration
Cinnamic alcohol	9	3	22	Fair	Negative	Negative	
Oil of thyme	5	2	15	Good	Droplets 1	Negative	Extensive degeneration
Aniline	1	2	15	Poor	Negative	Negative	Extreme pathology
Acetophenone	9	2	10	Negative	Negative	Negative	
Methylacetophenone	9	1	5	Negative	Negative	Negative	
Anethole (technical)	10	3	31	Fair	Diffuse 4	Negative	
m-Cresol acetate	......	2	21	Poor	Negative	Negative	Nerve pathology
Dimethyl phthalate	4	5	52	Fair	Diffuse 4	Negative	
Diethyl phthalate	4	2	15	Fair	Negative	Negative	
Dibutyl phthalate	4	2	15	Fair	Negative	Negative	

SOURCE OF MATERIALS

1. Standard laboratory reagents (Merck or Baker).
2. Eastman Kodak Chemicals.
3. Carbide and Carbon Chemicals Corporation.
4. Commercial Solvents Company.
5. Dodge and Olcott Company.
6. Glyco Products Company.
7. National Carbon Company.
8. U. S. Industrial Chemicals Company.
9. General Drug Company.
10. Hercules Powder Company.
11. Emulsol Corporation.
12. Stanco Distributors Company.
13. Standard Oil Company of Pennsylvania.
14. Shell Development Company.
15. Atlantic Refining Company.

distribution in the small tracheæ and tracheoles the sequence: excellent, good, fair, poor and negative is used. For the distribution in the nervous system the same scheme is followed but with the addition that this penetration may be either diffuse or in the form of droplets; thus "diffuse 1" means an excellent diffuse staining, "diffuse 2" a good staining commonly restricted to the fiber tract areas, "diffuse 3" a more erratic or less extensive penetration, and "diffuse 4" a poor staining that showed in only one or a few of the specimens. A glance at the table will show that good distribution in tracheæ is not necessarily correlated with good penetration into the tissues (*e.g.*, compare hexadecane, carbon bisulfide, terpin diacetate and xylol).

Materials are arranged according to chemical structure. First aliphatic hydrocarbons, substituted hydrocarbons, alcohols, aminated alcohols, aldehydes, ketones, ethers, esters, acids, salts, cyclo-hexanes, mixed rings; then aromatics: benzene series, aromatic petroleums, alcohols, cresols, amines, ketones, ethers and esters.

DISCUSSION.—EVALUATION OF METHOD. The primary difficulty in any study of this type is to show what relation (if any) the distribution of the dye bears to the distribution of the solvent being tested (Bredenkamp, 1942). Theoretically movements of the solute are independent of those of the solvent. Our best evidence that the dye does reflect movements of the solvent in these experiments comes from chromatic effects. Black Sudan B is blue in some solvents, violet or even red purple in others. If a violet solution in xylol is mixed with paraffin oil the color changes to blue. In the lipids of mosquito larvæ the dye is blue. If a solvent in which the dye is some violaceous shade (*e.g.*, benzene series) is introduced into the tracheæ and its passage into the nerve cord watched, one finds that the first color in the tissue is violaceous and that this changes to blue only slowly and in places where the dye (and presumably solvent) is not too concentrated. This is good evidence that in these cases the interpretation is valid.[2]

This chromatic effect, of course, cannot be obtained with solvents in which the dye is blue, but in no case did we see any

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[2] In the case of pyrethrum penetration, can be observed directly by the yellowish color.

indication that the dye enters the tissue except with the solvent. In a few cases both the solvent and dissolved dye apparently remained in the tracheæ, even for solvents in which Black Sudan is less soluble than it is in the nerve sheath lipids (*e.g.,* mineral oils). However, in some cases the solvent clearly gets into the blood or tissues leaving most or all of the dye precipitated in the lumen of the tracheæ. Certainly great caution must be observed in evaluating the distribution of dyes. In general, we feel that the positive data are valid so far as they go, and that negative results on accumulation in the blood and non-nervous tissues are valid for solvents which do show accumulation in nervous tissue.

The term "negative" appearing in the table means only that no clearly recognizable color was found. For the "distribution in small tracheæ" this almost certainly means that the solvent never reached these tubes, and so the word "none" might be quite correct. We find that substances with fair or good water solubility seldom reach the small tracheæ. This is true even of those that are good lipid solvents—acetone, ethyl ether, etc. How much this is due to poor affinity for the tracheal walls, how much to volatility and how much to direct penetration from large tracheæ into the blood is uncertain. What is certain is that these variations decrease the accuracy of the data on penetration. For negative results with dye penetration into the tissues, however, we have no way to distinguish between whether the dye is all in the tracheæ or whether so little got into the tissue that it cannot be recognized. In at least some of the "negative" cases penetration of the solvent takes place because one can see gross pathological changes or precipitated dye in the tracheæ. It is possible that all of the substances tested (molecular weights up to about 375) show some penetration and dye transport. The large size of the dye molecule would certainly reduce the sensitivity (molecular weight, Oil Red O = 276, Sudan IV = 376, data not available on Black Sudan B, but it must be considerably greater). We can only conclude that substances giving completely negative data cannot be evaluated by this technique.

These data would be much more interesting if we were able to express the amount of penetration per unit time under constant conditions. Even if we were to assume that the color is a good index of the solvent concentration, the variations in dye concentration in the solvent, variations in distribution in the tracheæ, and errors in estimation of the amount of color outside the tracheæ, would prevent any more quantitative scale than good—fair—poor.

EVALUATION OF RESULTS. These data present one portion of the work showing the structural and toxicological similarity of vertebrate and insect nerves. It has been generally considered in entomological literature that insect nerves lack myelinization (*e.g.,* Lindsay and Craig, 1942). Recently it has been shown that insect nerves do possess myelin sheaths of extreme thinness but otherwise structurally comparable to those of vertebrates (Richards, 1943, 1944), and that groups of lipids comparable to those found in the vertebrate brain and representing approximately 40 per cent of the dry weight can be extracted from the insect nervous system (Patterson, Dumm and Richards, 1945). One would then expect that lipid-soluble materials would tend to accumulate in the insect nervous system where the sheath lipids are readily accessible and in a fluid crystalline state. Such accumulation has at times been assumed without direct confirmation from entomological data (Hurst, 1943). The presence of a tracheal system facilitates demonstration of such accumulation since it permits placing series of lipid-soluble materials in intimate contact with the various tissues without being limited to the amount that can pass via the blood in solution.

A wide range of organic solvents have been tested by this dye-penetration technique. These data show beyond question that lipid-soluble materials do accumulate in the insect nervous system, and that the site of this accumulation is correlated with and so presumably conditioned by the presence of lipid nerve sheaths. Of course, smaller amounts (without visible dye penetration) must gain access to other cells and tissues but the quantitative difference may be great (Richards, 1943). The fact that some solvents gave negative results by this technique is not necessarily counter evidence (see preceding section). The fact that smaller or even equal amounts get into other tissues in a few cases is confirmation rather than otherwise since these seeming exceptions are with either the best penetrants or with water-soluble materials.

Blood injections were also performed. In most cases the results were negative since the stained solvent remained as immiscible droplets. Solvents which were significantly water-soluble and not too cytolytic can give selective staining by this route (*e.g.*, diacetone). Blood injections are really superfluous beyond showing that some substances which cannot be satisfactorily introduced via tracheæ can be via the blood.

From the tracheal injection data it follows that lipid-soluble substances will tend to accumulate in the insect nervous system whatever their mode of entry into the body. Hence general toxins (*e.g.*, toluene) can give the appearance of being selective nerve poisons simply because it is there that they first accumulate in toxic concentrations.

As already stated, the technique employed is primarily qualitative but if we accept the quantitative expressions in the table at face value certain generalizations can be made. So far as one can reasonably suggest from these data it would seem that the penetration is not any simple function of chain length, molecular weight or molecular size. The penetration observed is correlated with oil and fat solubilities rather than cellulose, nitrocellulose, vinyl resin, etc., solubilities. However, it seems that more than the oil-water partition coefficient is involved because substances with similar water solubility do not necessarily give the same degree of dye penetration. Somehow the molecular configuration must be involved but the present data do not warrant saying more than that in these experiments we obtained the best dye penetration with the benzene-cymene series and some of the cyclic (terpene) hydrocarbons, and the least dye penetration with the ketones, amines, chlorinated ethers and nitroparaffins.

Incidentally some remarks can be made concerning the properties of the tracheal walls of mosquito larvæ. It is well known that these walls must be permeable to water, respiratory gases and the toxic components of petroleum oils. Obviously they must be permeable to the substances tested here. Black Sudan B is a poly-azo dye of fair size. Some of the solvents are also of moderate size. Assuming that the solvents are not radically altering the permeability, it would seem likely that the tracheal walls are not greatly different in permeability from the membranes used for dialysis. One would rather expect that the permeability in life would be controlled, then, more by the surrounding cells; and that dialyzable substances would pass through.

Several detergents were also tried. Sudan dyes can be solubilized in water with these agents but all those tested gave negative results. Tests in beakers showed that such solubilized dyes pass through a regular dialysis membrane too slowly for the method to be usable in these studies. Detergents had to be omitted but one (*Tergitol*) is deliberately included in the table to represent the group.

The dye penetration observed is not necessarily correlated with toxicity, insecticidal efficiency or pathological effects. None of these are considered in the present paper.

SUMMARY. Dye penetration tests on over 100 assorted organic compounds indicate that the penetration from tracheæ of mosquito larvæ results in selective accumulation in the central nervous system. Other tissues seldom show visible accumulation (mouthbrush muscles are the commonest exception). This accumulation is correlated with and presumably conditioned by the presence of extremely thin lipid nerve sheaths. It follows that lipid-soluble substances with low water solubility will tend to accumulate in the insect nervous system whatever their mode of entry into the body. General cellular toxins (*e.g.*, toluene) can thus give the appearance of being selective nerve poisons.

The data are primarily qualitative but do not seem wholly interpretable in terms of any one property such as oil-water partition coefficients.

The data presented are not necessarily correlated with the toxicity or insecticidal efficiency of the various solvents.

It seems likely that the permeability of the tracheal membranes is of the same general order as that of dialysis membranes.

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INSECT FOOD HABIT RATIOS OF THE LLOYD-CORNELL RESERVATION

By HARRY B. WEISS

The Lloyd-Cornell Reservation is a quadrangular, uncultivated area of approximately 81 acres, fifteen miles northeast of Ithaca, N. Y. The reservation is more than 1,100 feet above sea-level and its topographic features consist of a pond, streams, ridges and bogs. This area and its flora and fauna are described in Bulletin 27, Entomological Series No. 5, of the Lloyd Library of Botany, Pharmacy and Materia Medica, entitled "A Preliminary Biological Survey of the Lloyd-Cornell Reservation," by members of the scientific staff of Cornell University. This was published in 1926.

In addition to other animals, over 2,400 species of insects are listed in this bulletin as occurring on the reservation. These have been classified in accordance with their predominating family food habits. The weakness of such a classification is appreciated and has been admitted in former papers. The terms phytophagous, saprophagous, etc., are used in their broadest sense and represent apparent rather than actual food habits.

The distribution ratios of food habit types for the reservation are as follows:

	No. species	Phytophagous, per cent	Saprophagous, per cent	Harpactophagous, per cent	Parasitic, per cent	Pollen feeders, etc., per cent
Lloyd-Cornell Reservation	2,449	40	26	19	13	2

Regardless of the numerical abundance of individual species, these ratios are the percentages of the total number, 2,449. As various species maintain themselves in certain numerical ratios with respect to factors tending to reduce their numbers and as such relationships are usually normal, these numerical ratios have been considered as constant.

It is of interest to compare the Lloyd-Cornell Reservation ratios with those for the entire state of New York* which are given below.

	No species	Phytophagous, per cent	Saprophagous, per cent	Harpactophagous, per cent	Parasitic, per cent	Pollen feeders, etc., per cent
New York State	15,343	48	23	17	10	2

There is not as much difference between the two sets of figures as I had supposed there would be. The entire state of New York embraces different types of vegetation and I had assumed that the Lloyd-Cornell reservation, a relatively small area with fewer vegetation types, would show a greater deviation from the state ratios. On the other hand the Lloyd-Cornell reservation does not have a uniform type of vegetation and includes water, bogs, and ridges. Aside from a reduction in the number of phytophagous species the remaining food habit types do not differ significantly from those for the state as a whole.

* Jour. N. Y. Ent. Soc., vol. 52: 283–284, 1944.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE NEW YORK ENTOMOLOGICAL SOCIETY

MEETING OF JANUARY 4, 1944

The Annual Meeting of the New York Entomological Society was held on January 4, 1944, in the American Museum of Natural History, President Comstock in the chair; nineteen members and visitors present.

The Treasurer's report for 1943 was read. Dr. Schneirla reported that the Auditing Committee had found the Treasurer's books in good order. Both these reports were accepted.

The Nominating Committee's recommendations for the elective officers of the Society for the year 1944 were read as follows:

President—Edwin Way Teale
Vice President—George G. Becker
Secretary—Annette L. Bacon
Treasurer—Willis J. Gertsch
Assistant Secretary—Lina Sordillo
Assistant Treasurer—Margaret L. Guy
Editor—Harry B. Weiss

Executive Committee—Edwin Way Teale, Stanley Bromley, William P. Comstock, William T. Davis, and Herbert F. Schwarz.

Publication Committee—Harry B. Weiss, T. C. Schneirla, and John D. Sherman, Jr.

There were no further nominations from the floor. A motion was made and passed that the secretary cast one ballot and elect the above proposed officers of the Society for the year 1944.

Mr. Comstock then turned the meeting over to the new president, Mr. Teale.

The following committees were appointed by Mr. Teale:

Program Committee—William P. Comstock, Henry S. Fleming, and Alan S. Nicolay.

Field Committee—George C. Furness and Chris E. Olsen.

Dr. Bromley presented the following resolution which was adopted:

> "WHEREAS, in the death of Dr. E. Porter Felt on December 14, 1943, the New York Entomological Society has lost one of its oldest and most highly esteemed members, and
>
> "WHEREAS, the New York Entomological Society wishes to express the sorrow of its members to the family of the decreased and to bespeak their tribute to one who had been so faithful and revered a member of this Society, and one so important to the entire broad field of the science of Entomology.
>
> "*Be it resolved,* That the Secretary be instructed to prepare a letter of condolence and sympathy to the surviving members of Dr. Felt's family to be sent to his youngest daughter, Mrs. Elizabeth F. Deane, 51 Beekman Road, Summit, New Jersey, Administratrix of his estate."

A motion was made and carried that Mr. Samuel Harriot, who resigned at the beginning of last year, be, at his own request, reinstated to membership.

A discussion of what to do with the old incomplete sets of signatures of the Society's Journal took place. Although several years ago it was suggested that the Society dispose of these signatures after the members had a chance to pick out any that they wanted, members elected since then did not know of this plan. Therefore, it was announced that no action would be taken until the February 1 meeting at which time a vote of the members would be taken concerning the disposal of the signatures as waste paper.

Mr. Comstock spoke of the Relationships of Antillean Butterflies, the material for which was taken from his Puerto Rican Survey paper which is in press (to be published by the New York Academy of Sciences) and from a joint paper with Mr. Huntington on Antillean Lycænidæ that has just been published by the Academy.

MEETING OF JANUARY 18, 1944

President Teale in the chair; 26 members and visitors present.

The Executive Committee reported as follows: At a special meeting of the Excutive Committee held on January 18, 1944, with Mr. Comstock, Mr. Schwarz, and Mr. Teale present, Mr. Wm. T. Davis was appointed the Society's delegate to the New York Academy of Sciences for the year 1944. This report was approved by the members present.

Mr. John Noaks, 500 Washington Avenue, Brooklyn, New York, was proposed for membership.

Father Joseph Asmuth of Fordham University spoke on his Termite Observations in India.

MEETING OF FEBRUARY 1, 1944

President Teale in the chair; 13 members and visitors present.

Mr. John Noaks was elected a member of the Society.

After a short discussion it was decided that the old signatures of the Journal be turned into the salvage drive for waste paper inasmuch as the Society had an ample supply of complete issues of the Journal. (The Society received fifteen dollars for them.)

Mr. Alan S. Nicolay told of the work he had done with Coleoptera during the last year at museums where he studied other collections and discovered some synonymies, and in the field, especially in New Jersey but also in the southern states, where he collected some interesting things.

MEETING OF FEBRUARY 15, 1944

President Teale in the chair; 21 members and visitors present.

Mr. Gustav Detgen, 303 W. 42nd St., New York City, was proposed for membership.

Mr. Comstock discussed the matter of a contribution from the Society for the International Commission on Zoological Nomenclature to assist it in carrying on its work.

Dr. Daniel Ludwig of New York University spoke on Relative Humidity and Insect Development. (A summary of his work appeared in Science Supplement for February 25, page 12.)

MEETING OF MARCH 7, 1944

President Teale in the chair; 18 members and visitors present.

The following report of the Executive Committee was read and approved:

''At a meeting of the Executive Committee of the New York Entomological Society held in the American Museum of Natural History on March 7, 1944, Messrs. Teale, Comstock, Davis and Schwarz were present.

''The principal business under discussion concerned the matter of unpaid dues for membership and unpaid subscriptions to the Journal. A motion was made and passed that dues for membership would be remitted to members of the armed services on application, the treasurer to include such a notice when bills are sent out. As for delinquent members not in the armed forces, it was agreed that the treasurer would have to consider each case on its own merits and is hereby empowered to act according to his best judgment. In regard to unpaid subscriptions to the Journal, it was moved and passed that the Journal shall not be sent to anyone a year in arrears. This is according to postal regulations. (That is, if a subscription for the Journal has not been paid for 1943, it will not be sent to the subscriber in 1944 and after, until the subscription has been paid.)

''There was also a discussion of electing more Honorary Members of the Society. No action was taken at this meeting.''

Mr. Comstock reported that he had collected $78.00 from members of the Society to be sent to the International Commission on Zoological Nomenclature as a gift from this Society. A motion was then made and passed that the Society give $100.00 to the Commission, said money to be given by members of the Society for this purpose.

Mr. G. Detgen was elected a member of the Society.

Mr. Harold Hagan of the College of the City of New York spoke on the work he had been doing on the embryonic history of the appendages of the mantid.

MEETING OF MARCH 21, 1944

President Teale in the chair; 75 members and visitors present.

Because of the number of visitors present, all business was postponed to the next regular meeting.

The speaker of the evening, Mr. Rutherford Platt, showed many unusual and excellent Kodachrome slides illustrating the relationship of insects and flowers, or ''How Plants and Insects Fit Each Other.''

MEETING OF APRIL 4, 1944

President Teale in the chair; 16 members and visitors present.

Mr. Weiss proposed Mr. William M. Boyd, 170 Millerick Ave., Trenton, N. J., for re-election into the Society. As he was a former member, the By-Laws were waived and he was elected a member.

Mr. Sanford proposed Mr. Raymond Goelbert, 71–15 65th St., Glendale, N. Y., for membership in the Society.

Mr. Comstock presented the following report of the Executive Committee of the Society:

''The Executive Committee of the New York Entomological Society, at their last meeting, after careful consideration of a long list of candidates, made a selection of eight eminent entomologists, who, as the result of lifelong devotion to our science, seem to the Executive Committee to be worthy, and whom they now propose as Honorary Members of the Society.

''The selections were controlled by several considerations:

1) Eminence in the science of Entomology.
2) Outstanding qualifications as naturalists and scientists.
3) Services to the Society, past and present.
4) Individual diversity of interest in particular families of insects.

''Our by-laws limit us to 12 honorary members. At present we have but one honorary member, Dr. Leland O. Howard. The eight eminent men now to be proposed will raise the number of honorary members to nine and in the judgment of the Executive Commtitee it seems best not to increase this number for the present. We now propose as Honorary Members of the New York Entomological Society:

Prof. Nathan Banks
Prof. T. D. A. Cockerell
Mr. William T. Davis
Dr. J. McDunnough
Prof. A. L. Melander
Prof. James G. Needham
Prof. Herbert Osborn
Dr. Robert E. Snodgrass.''

Mr. Comstock then gave a short biographical sketch of each of the above.

The scheduled speaker of the evening was unable to be present. Mr. Geo. G. Becker told of the work at the plant inspection house at Hoboken. He had a number of slides showing the work of the Bureau of Plant Quarantine, and related some unusual situations that the inspectors are called upon to meet.

MEETING OF APRIL 18, 1944

President Teale in the chair; about a hundred members and visitors present.

Mr. R. Goelbert was elected a member of the Society.

The eight entomologists proposed at the last meeting as honorary members of the Society were elected.

The Society heard with regret of the death of Mr. George C. Furness, one of our active members, on April 10, 1944.

Dr. C. B. Williams from England was one of the guests of the evening.

President Teale was the speaker and told of his ''Garden for Insects,'' showing his excellent colored motion pictures.

MEETING OF MAY 2, 1944

A regular meeting was held on May 2, 1944, at the U. S. Inspection House in Hoboken, N. J., with 19 members and visitors present.

Mr. Comstock proposed Mr. Gardiner Mulvaney, 3 Patchin Place, New York City, for membership.

Mr. George Becker, head of the Inspection House, conducted the group around the Inspection House, showing its facilities for the various activities. He gave a very interesting and thorough explanation of its operation and answered many questions during the tour.

MEETING OF MAY 16, 1944

President Teale in the chair; 16 members and visitors present.

Miss Lucy Clausen was appointed a member of the Field Committee to fill the vacancy caused by the death of Mr. Furness.

Mr. Chris Olsen gave details concerning the Entomological Society's picnic to be held at his home in Nyack on June 4. The Field Committee sent instructions through the mail as to how to reach there. (Due to Mr. Olsen's illness, the picnic was held at the home of the Engelhardt's—Elizabeth Sherman—in Hartsdale.)

Mr. Gardiner Mulvaney was elected a member of the Society.

A motion was made and passed that the Society donate its complete set of the Revista de Entomologia to the library of the American Museum.

Answers were received from the recently elected Honorary Members of the Society. They accepted with much pleasure the honor thus bestowed upon them and conveyed to the members of the Society their appreciation.

There was a general discussion by those present of their winter activities. Mr. Sherman told of his long trip to the West Coast and his interesting experiences.

ANNETTE L. BACON, *Secretary.*
LINA SORDILLO, *Assistant Secretary.*

MEETING OF OCTOBER 3, 1944

A regular meeting of the New York Entomological Society was held on October 3, 1944, in the American Museum of Natural History, Mr. Teale in the chair with twenty-two members and visitors present.

Dr. Clarence Goodnight, New Jersey State Teachers College, Jersey City, N. J., and Mr. R. C. Casselberry, 55 Edgemont Road, Scarsdale, were proposed for membership.

A letter from the Treasury Department was read which stated that the N. Y. Entomological Society is exempt from Federal income tax. The Society will be required, however, to file a return with the collector of internal revenue annually.

A communication from the International Commission on Zoological Nomenclature, London, England, expressed thanks for the $100.00 gift which the Society has contributed to the Commission's Special (Publications) Fund.

The resignation of Annette Bacon, as Secretary of the Society, due to the pressure of outside work was accepted with regret. The Assistant Secretary, Lina Sordillo, assumed the duties of Secretary for the remainder of the year.

The death of Charles Wunder who died on September 21, 1944, and the illness of William T. Davis were noted with regrets.

The program of the evening was a general discussion on summer activities and observations of the members.

LINA SORDILLO, *Secretary.*

MEETING OF OCTOBER 17, 1944

A regular meeting of the New York Entomological Society was held on October 17, 1944, in the American Museum of Natural History, President Edwin Teale in the chair with thirty-one members and visitors present.

Dr. C. J. Goodnight, New Jersey State Teachers College, and Mr. R. C. Casselberry, 55 Edgemont Road, Scarsdale, were elected members of the Society.

A letter from the Zoological Society of London, asking if it would be possible for us to send them a donation to the Zoological Record Fund again this year was read. The Zoological Society of London is being very hard hit at the present time. Donations to the Society for this worthy purpose may be mailed to or given personally to Mr. Comstock or Dr. Gertsch.

The speaker of the evening was Dr. S. W. Bromley of the Bartlett Tree Research Laboratories, Stamford, Conn., who spoke on the ''Insect Enemies of the House Fly,'' the text of which will appear in a later issue of the Journal of the Society. Dr. Bromley discussed hornets, robber flies and dragon flies as house fly enemies and presented records going back to 1908 when the house fly was more abundant than at present.

Mr. Teale mentioned reading recently an early account of American pioneers in which it was stated that it was a custom among the people to place the nest of a white faced hornet in the cabin during the summer so that the hornets would destroy the flies, the buzzing wasps living in complete harmony with the human inhabitants.

LINA SORDILLO, *Secretary.*

MEETING OF NOVEMBER 21, 1944

A regular meeting of the New York Entomological Society was held on November 21, 1944, in the American Museum of Natural History, President Edwin Teale in the chair with sixteen members and visitors present.

Lt. Edmund C. Berkeley, 36 West 11 St., New York 11, N. Y., was proposed for membership.

Mr. Comstock reported that he had collected $85.00 from members of the Society, $20.00 promised, to be sent to the Zoological Record Found of London, as a gift from this Society.

The speaker of the evening was Dr. J. L. Horsfall, who spoke on ''A method for determining leafhopper populations in grape vineyards,'' illustrated by lantern slides. A special method for determining grape leafhopper populations was described. Essentially, it consists of selecting certain leaves, collecting them, separating the leafhoppers and determining the total catch by counting the number in an aliquot of the sample. Studies indicate that it is rapid, reasonably accurate, sufficiently simple to be used by helpers, adapted to field studies and requires inexpensive equipment. The errors due to this special manner of counting appear to be no greater than those occurring in duplicate samples from the same vines, and give very small discrepancies in calculating per cent control especially where the efficiency is 75 per cent or greater.

The amount of variation in populations in different parts of the same vineyard was found to be practically as great as between different vineyards.

LINA SORDILLO, *Secretary.*

MEETING OF DECEMBER 5, 1944

A regular meeting of the New York Entomological Society was held on December 5, 1944, in the American Museum of Natural History, President Edwin Teale in the chair with fifty members and visitors present.

Lt. Edmund C. Berkeley was elected a member of the Society.

Mr. Paul Buxbaum, 360 Central Park West, New York City, was proposed for membership.

Mr. Comstock reported that he had collected $90.00 from members of the Society, $15.00 promised, to be sent to the Zoological Record Fund of London, as a gift from this Society.

Mr. Sherman told of the illness of Mr. William T. Davis.

Dr. J. L. Horsfall reported that the Joint Meeting of the Entomological Society of America and the American Association of Economic Entomologists is to be held on December 13, 14 and 15, 1944, at the Hotel New Yorker.

The President and Trustees of the American Museum of Natural History invited the Society to attend an informal tea, to open the exhibition of Animals in Miniature by Louis Paul Jonas, December 15, 1944, from 4:00 to 6:00 in the Portrait Room.

President Edwin Teale appointed a Nominating Committee, consisting of Mr. Schwarz, Chairman, Mr. Sherman and Mr. Huntington.

The speaker of the evening was Mr. E. Irving Huntington, who spoke on "Ecology of the West Indies and Panama," illustrated by lantern slides.

Mr. Huntington had made several trips to the West Indies, Panama and Colombia, and he made numerous photographs, showing the nature of the country and the collecting conditions to be met with. He discussed the ecology of the Greater and Lesser Antilles, pointing out the Greater Antilles presumably in the past were a connected land mass, while the Lesser Antilles were in the form of two arcs, both of volcanic origin; the northern arc being more ancient and known as the limestone Caribees, while the southern arc was of more recent volcanic origin. The fauna of the Greater Antilles is much richer than that of the Lesser Antilles. Mr. Huntington also spoke of his collecting experiences in Trinidad and in Panama.

LINA SORDILLO, *Secretary.*

MEETING OF DECEMBER 19, 1944

A regular meeting of the New York Entomological Society was held on

December 19, 1944, in the American Museum of Natural History, Mr. George G. Becker in the chair with twenty-one members and visitors present.

Mr. Paul Buxbaum was elected a member of the Society.

Mr. Comstock reported that he had collected $95.00 from members of the Society, $15.00 promised, to be sent to the Zoological Record Fund of London, as a gift from this Society.

President Teale appointed an Auditing Committee consisting of Wm. P. Comstock, Chairman; E. I. Huntington, and Herbert F. Schwarz.

The paper of the evening was delivered by Mr. Chris E. Olsen, his subject being Homoptera which he discussed in a broad way, illustrating his talk with six boxes of local and exotic specimens. He also exhibited a number of magnificent water color drawings showing, in an enlarged scale, many of the astounding variations which occur in these insects. These were the work of the late Mr. Mataush. Of interest to many of the members were Mr. Olsen's reminiscence of the old collectors and members of the Society whom he knew so well. He mentioned the old meetings in George Franck's store and those who used to gather there: Torre Bueno, George P. Engelhardt, Dr. E. B. Southwick, R. P. Dow, Andrew Mutchler and William T. Davis. He also spoke of many other prominent entomologists whom he had known and with whom he had corresponded. He estimated that there were somewhere around 4000 species of Homoptera in North America, excluding plant-lice and scale insects. His main taxonomic discussion concerned the Homoptera, particularly the series Auchenorhyncha.

LINA SORDILLO, *Secretary.*

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THE ENNOMID PUPA (LEPIDOPTERA, GEOMETRIDÆ)

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The following notes were mostly taken some years ago and have been set aside in the hope of adding more forms. Since there seems little prospect of doing so, and the characters developed throw a definite light on the classification of this now tangled subfamily, it seems best to put them on record.

Our present knowledge of the geometrid pupa is based on two papers by Edna Mosher (Bull. Ill. State Lab. Nat. Hist., vol. xii (2), pp. 126 to 133, 1916, and Bull. 259, Maine Agr. Exp. Sta., pp. 35 to 58, 1917). Both of these contain keys, but each has genera omitted from the other, and the characters used are expressed somewhat differently, making them a little difficult to use. Altogether only fifteen genera are discussed.

The present notes are not considered sufficient to base complete keys upon, and so a key is given to a series of somewhat arbitrary but convenient groups, and in each group the genera (and a few species) are separated by summary descriptions. About seventy genera are now known.

From the point of view of classification, by far the most important character developed is the type of cremaster, which in the boarmid series is a heavy bifurcated process or pair of spines, with the hooked setæ extremely weak or absent; while in the ennomid series proper there is a simpler cremaster, bearing four pairs of well-marked hooked setæ, one pair (corresponding to the two forks of the Boarmines) being usually though not always longer and heavier than the rest. This makes almost a sharp separation, and will be useful in the natural division of this great subfamily, though a few exceptions have already developed: in the European Heliothea and *Tephrina sepiaria* the two forks of the first group are blunted, and each ends in four hooked setæ; Sericosema has hooked setæ on a cremaster of Boarmine type, and in Heliomata, the cremaster is of the bifid type, although it certainly belongs to the Ennomine series; while Eumera is so degenerate as to have lost the characteristic structures.

A second character, which is morphologically significant, though less consistent, is the character of the suture between the 9th and 10th abdominal segments. In the great mass of Ennominæ, this is deeply marked dorsally and down onto the sides, and usually has a scalloped or notched posterior edge (the "dorsal groove"), while laterally it is extended back across the segment in the form of a triangular or oblique depression, which we will call the "lateral groove." If one is present the other is usually also, but in a few forms where the dorsal groove is weak the lateral is undeveloped (*e.g.*, *Ectropis crepuscularia* and Ennomos), while in Patalene the dorsal groove has been lost while the lateral survives. The primitive condition of the two grooves appears in Cabera (Deilinea) where the dorsal groove is quite typical, but the lateral is represented merely by a slight outpocketing of the posterior side of the suture. We believe this structure originated within the Geometridæ since it is absent in Brephos, but it is found in Hydriomeninæ and Sterrhinæ as well as Ennominæ, so its absence in all but the lowest of the Boarmine complex is doubtless due to degeneration.

Which is the earlier type of cremaster does not appear, since while the 8-hooked type would be expected to be most primitive, and occurs in other subfamilies, Brephos and Alsophila have an exaggerated form of the bifid type.

Other important characters are shown by the side of the fifth abdominal segment. We shall have to define the spiracular furrow and the flange plate a little more sharply than Miss Mosher did. We will call spiracular furrow a shallow, usually unsculptured and shining depression crossing or lying immediately in front of the spiracle, usually bounded by a sharp ridge behind, and either by a less definite ridge or the flange plate in front. In Itame and a few others, instead of a single spiracular groove there is a series of sharper ridges in front of the spiracle, and in this case there are often punctures at the bottom of the intervening grooves. We will restrict the term flange-plate to a *sharp* vertical ridge lying well in front of the spiracle, preceded by a deep groove, which is often heavily punctured or otherwise sculptured at the bottom. In many cases this structure lies far to the front of the segment, and it has not been possible to check for it in borrowed material. We have assumed it absent in the whole series centering around Euchlæna and Cingilia, but frequently the front of the 5th segment was invisible and it may possibly have been present in one or another genus. The same structures are found in the Sphingidæ.

The segment numbers given are always of the *abdomen.* The dorsal ridge lies between the 9th and 10th. In many Boarmines, where there is a sharp change of sculpture, we have distinguished between the 11th segment (specially sculptured) and the cremaster proper, but in the majority of the Ennomines in the restricted sense there is no such distinction, and the whole 11th segment is called cremaster.

Some time ago (Psyche, xxxii, 106–112) I published a summary grouping of the Ennominæ on certain antennal characters. There I recognized four main series. Of these the group with pectinations naked and basal on the segments, with sense-cones at their apices, seems a pretty homogeneous group—Neotropical in origin, and containing Cingilia with its relatives, Sicya, Metanema, and many South American genera. The corresponding pupæ all fall in the group with 8-hooked cremaster, femur not exposed and fully developed dorsal and lateral grooves. But the European genera with this antennal structure are divergent, and Bupalus at least shows the Boarmine type of pupa with bifid cremaster, and dorsal and lateral grooves lost. The only available South American pupa (Myrmecophantes) falls right into this group. The group with cones on the shaft and two or more setæ of type 2 on naked pectinations also fall pretty consistently in this series, but so also do a few stray genera with scaled pectinations, and the principal neotropical type with simple antennæ, so far as we can judge by their northern relatives.

In the Boarmine series there is a pretty consistent type, shared by both the Cleora-like and the Macaria-like genera; with bifid cremaster, femur exposed and no dorsal or lateral grooves; but the latter are present in several Old World genera, including Boarmia itself, and are weakly developed in Ematurga and vestigial in *Ectropis crepuscularia.* On the other hand they are normally well developed in the Bistonine type, which are definitely related to the Boarmines, being absent only in Paleacrita, which is certainly degenerate. It is interesting that in the Boarmid series this character is more stable than the fovea or the antenna, for Paraphia with naked antennæ, Vitrinella with scaled antennæ and large fovea, and Anacamptodes, with scaled antenna and no fovea, are all quite like Macaria, which has simple antennæ and a vestigial fovea of peculiar type.

One larval character was also noted in this survey: whether the suckers on the prolegs do or do not interrupt the series of crotchets. This was the only larval character found which was both tangible and of some significance, since the humps and spines on the body vary even in closely related species (*e.g., Therina quercivoraria* and *textrinaria,* which Capps would not even separate specifically). The position of the ventral proleg is probably of considerable value, but proved very difficult to judge, especially in inflated specimens; and the setæ are often difficult to see. The character which seemed useful was not whether the crotchets were continuous or interrupted as bases, but whether the ones in the middle, opposite the sucker, had lost their terminal hooks. In several species the hooks in the middle of the line were somewhat shortened but still perfectly formed; these were considered to form a continuous series.

KEY TO GROUPS

1. Cremaster deeply bifid, frequently with a pair of terminal spine-like setæ, but with the other setæ vestigial or absent (Boarmine series) 2

Cremaster bifid, but each lobe with a quartet of hooked setæ of roughly equal length (Eur.) .... *Heliothea, Tephrina* (1)

Cremaster simple or irregular and knobby, with four pairs of well-developed hooked setæ, equal or unequal 6

2. Dorsal and lateral grooves well developed, the former usually deep, with scalloped posterior margin, sometimes joining anterior end of lateral grooves 3

Dorsal groove weak and shallow; lateral groove shallow and inconspicuous or (usually) absent 5

3. Four segments dorsally with deep subdorsal pits, each with a pit in the center; dorsal and lateral grooves connected as in Cabera. *Heliomata* (2)

No conspicuous subdorsal pits; dorsal and lateral grooves normal 4

4. Cremaster more or less conical, tapering from a massive conical base to a rather short slender cremaster proper .... *Biston group* (3)

Cremaster reduced to two spines arising separately from body. *Zamacra* (4)

Cremaster with a rounded and heavily rugose base, bearing (? if always) a slender cylindrical cremaster proper .... *Boarmia group* (5)

5. Femur concealed or minutely exposed .... *Exelis, Melanolophia, Pseudoboarmia, Paraphia, Paleacrita* (6)

Femur well exposed .... *Epimecis, Bupalus, Itame, Ematurga, Macaria, Ectropis, Anacamptodes, Vitrinella, Glena, Physostegania* (7)

6. Dorsal and lateral grooves normal, the latter oblique and meeting the dorsal at an angle; the dorsal groove rarely obsolescent (*Pero*) when the cremastral hooks are 2–6 7

A single (dorsal) groove extending two thirds way around the segment, with a single strong dentation to represent the rudiment of the lateral groove .... *Cabera* (*Deilinea*) (8)

Dorsal and lateral grooves vestigial and ill defined or absent; cremaster with all hooks short, and the two longer pairs subequal 15

7. Fore femur exposed 8

Fore femur concealed 9

8. Lateral groove small, limited to anterior part of 10th segment, body with regular puncturation (except in a western species of Pero); exposed part of fore femur small .... *Pero group* (9)

Lateral groove large, frequently extending forward onto 9th segment or backward onto cremaster; puncturing confused and largely modified into vermiculate sculpture .... *Sabulodes group* (10)

9. Skin smooth or with fine inconspicuous ridging; white or green 10

Skin rough and rugulose or punctured; brown 11

10. Cremaster with second pair of hooks about as thick as long pair, both short, but much longer than the more basal hooks; tongue about 2/3 length of wings .... *Xanthotype* (11)

Cremaster with two hooks much longer and stouter than the other six; tongue about as long as wings .... *Cingilia group* (12)

11. Cremaster with two pairs of heavy and somewhat longer, and two pairs of small setæ 12

Cremaster with two setæ much longer than the other six 13

12. Spiracular furrow absent, but flange-plate present, preceded by a deep groove .... *Abraxas* (13)

Spiracular furrow represented on 5th segment by a series of ridges separated by series of punctures; small and slender species. *Nematocampa* (14)

No trace of spiracular furrow or flange-plate, the front of 5th segment falling off sharply but smooth; very stout, general sculpture of sparse irregular puncturing .... *Selenia* (15)

13\. Antenna strongly roughened, in the form of five or six rows of tubercles (one of each row on each segment) .... *Nacophora* (16)

Antenna smooth or less extensively sculptured 14

14\. Prothoracic callosity prominent .... *Euchlœna, Metarrhanthis* (17)

Prothoracic callosity minute and inconspicuous or obsolete. *Therina, Caripeta,* etc. (18)

15\. Pupa with dense secondary hair .... *Hygrochroa* (*Pericallia*) (19)

Pupa with small primary hairs only 16

16\. Antennæ with four rows of tubercles, one to a segment in each row; tongue half as long as legs; cremaster long, pyramidal, with the basal two pairs of hooks rising far out on it; preceded by two pair of raised tubercles .... *Ennomos* (20)

Antennæ not or less regularly sculptured, normally with only the segments marked; tongue full length; cremaster normally short and rough; no raised conical tubercles 17

17\. All legs nearly covered (♂); a series of punctures before and behind suture 9/10, to indicate the dorsal groove; mesothoracic callosity (so-called spiracle) obsolete .... *Patalene* (21)

Legs normal; posterior segments without punctures; mesothoracic callosity distinct 18

18\. Mesothoracic callosity depressed, indicated mainly by its sharp posterior edge, giving with the posterior edge of the prothorax almost exactly the impression of a spiracle .... *Opisthograptis* (*Rumia*) (22)

Callosity very large, black and chitinized .... *Plagodis* (23)

The following supplementary characters, while not always definitely contrasted, should help in determining some of the pupæ, and may throw a little further light on relationships. They are listed not in a natural arrangement, but in the order of the key.

1\. *Heliothea discoidaria* (Europe, C.U.). *Cremaster* in the form of two rounded but irregular prominences, with a cleft between them, each bearing four hooks, as in Tephronia, which is not otherwise related, the most terminal of the four hooks longer but more slender than the subapical pair. *Dorsal groove* well marked, but smooth, suture-like, the *lateral groove* similar and slender, branching off from it at an angle and running back two thirds the width of the segment, the preceding suture also accented and the segment between raised; *sculpture* smooth and confused, but surface dull, even on terminal segments; segment 7 with a raised, but rounded, longitudinally rugose keel running around most of the segment just in front of the spiracle (setæ iii and v), segments 5 and 6 with weaker keels at sides; spiracles raised. No *spiracular furrow* or *flanges;* callosity well marked, but pale; *appendages* mostly normal, but *tongue* less than half as long. *Femur* covered.

The pupa is as queer as the corresponding moth, which belongs in the waste-basket called ''Œnochrominæ.'' The *antenna* of imago is also queer; the pectinations are naked and basal, with short single type 2 setæ, and vestigial abnormal cones on the tips of a few pectinations.

1. *Tephronia sepiaria* (N.M.; Europe). *Cremaster* bifid, each half with a little tuft of subequal setæ. *Dorsal* and *lateral groove* absent. *Sculpture:* body punctured, including 9th segment of abdomen, but not tenth. No *spiracular furrow,* the front of 5th segment of abdomen rather more finely but very irregularly punctured; mesothoracic *callosity* pretty strong; *legs* and *tongue* normal, mid-legs short and small.

In this genus, and in all so far as examined with the bifid type of cremaster (except the following) the series of hooks on the prolegs is complete.

2. *Heliomata cycladata* (N.M.). *Dorsal groove* deep, running into a short conspicuous *lateral groove* as in Cabera. *Callosity* obscure. Segment 5 with a strong *flange-plate* in front of spiracle, the anterior face more finely punctate. Fore *femur* minutely exposed or covered. *Antenna* nearly as in Sabulodes.

Larval *hooks* interrupted. Imago with simple, prismatic *antenna.* This genus is as queer in the pupa as in the adult. The pattern and genitalia suggest a close relationship with the European *Abraxas* (*Lomaspilis*) *marginata,* but the pupa of *marginata* is not available and there is no resemblance to true Abraxas.

3. *Amphidasis cognataria. Cremaster* minutely bifid at apex and acutely shouldered near base, longish and rather rugose. *Dorsal groove* strong and toothed as usual, *lateral* strong. *Sculpture* punctured, especially dorsally, becoming heavier on 6th to 8th segments and absent on 9 and 10. A5 with strong prespiracular *flange* with the groove in front. *Callosity* strong. *Tongue* a

little more than $\frac{3}{4}$, separating the fore legs; middle *legs* slender and normal; *antenna* very wide basally but not 5-tuberculate; *femur* covered. (See also Mosher, '16, 131.)

Antenna of imago with pectinations naked, cones on shaft.

3. *A. betularia* (Dampf coll., C.U.). Similar, the shoulders on *cremaster* acute.

3. *A. strataria* (Dampf coll.). *Cremaster* with shoulder obsolescent. *Spiracular furrow* very broad and shallow, with the spiracle in its center; groove in front of *flange-plate* heavily barred.

3. *Biston hirtaria* (Dampf coll.). Similar to Amphidasis; *cremaster* more conspicuously but shortly forked, its shoulders sharp and spine-like. Puncturation present also on anterior side of 9th segment. Spiracle lying in an emargination of posterior side of *spiracular furrow;* groove in front of *flange-plate* smooth. *Spiracular callosity* of mesothorax weak. *Antenna* with two submarginal rows of tubercles, like the two outer rows on Nacophora or Ennomos. *Front* strongly rough and bulging below; *tongue* almost full length.

Antenna of imago like Amphidasis.

3. *Nyssia zonaria* (Dampf). *Cremaster* obscurely bifid. *Puncturation* as in Biston, the general surface smoother. *Flange-plate* and its preceding groove on segment 5 smooth, much shorter. *Spiracular furrow* like Biston. *Callosity* absent. Front and antenna smooth. Otherwise like Biston.

3. *Coniodes plumigeraria* (N.M.). End of abdomen reduced, the *segments* 9–11 together only as long dorsally as 8, heavily rugose, with unspecialized *dorsal groove* and lateral groove a mere pit. *Sculpture* punctate, heavily chitinized. *Spiracular furrow* strong and double, with a more prominent ridge (the *flange-plate*) between; *spiracles* not produced (unlike Paleacrita). *Callosity* obscure; *tongue* not reduced; *mid tibia* almost covered by the very wide (male) *antenna;* tongue full length (unlike Amphidasis, etc.).

(3) *Phigalia* not examined. It should presumably be close to Coniodes, but with more moderate antenna, and probably shortened tongue.

3. *Erannis tiliaria* (Mosher, '17, 57). Shoulders on *cremaster* marked; *dorsal groove* finely serrate; *callosity* strong, *tongue*

nearly full length. *Flange-plate* of 5th segment characteristic; a deep narrow elliptical groove at anterior edge of segment, with sharp black edges; *spiracular furrow* a smooth glossy band, and a slight vertical ridge through the spiracle.

3. *E. aurantiaria* and *marginaria* (Dampf coll.) essentially the same, the thick base and thin apical portion of cremaster even more sharply set off. The *dorsal* and *lateral grooves* are very weak.

(3) *Paleacrita* belongs to this group, but as it has wholly lost the dorsal and lateral grooves will be discussed below.

4. *Zamacra excavata* (Japan, N.M.). *Cremaster* reduced to two separate spines arising from body. *Body* smooth; (*flange-plate* not seen). *Dorsal groove* rather weak and not toothed; *lateral* weak, on front part of 9th segment; *callosities* indicated by black color only. *Head* obscurely 3-tuberculate in front. *Antenna* with two rows of tubercles, like Biston; *tongue* full length; *femur* covered.

5. *Phthonosema tendinosaria* (Japan, N.M.). *Cremaster* stout, bifid and almost shouldered; dorsal groove slender, but distinct and toothed, *lateral* present. *Spiracular furrow* invisible, apparently absent. *Callosity* small and obscure. Fore *femur* exposed.

A curious form, one of the few Old World types with naked antenna like Paraphia and the Bistonids, but otherwise a Boarmia. It probably represents the immediate point of origin of the latter.

5. *Ematurga atomaria* (Dampf). *Cremaster* slender and cylindrical, arising out of a heavily punctate shortly conical base (bifid no doubt—all our specimens are broken). *Dorsal groove* slender but well marked, continuous far down on sides, a little scalloped; the *lateral grooves* forming branches slanting 45° up and back. *Body* heavily punctate, the 9th and 10th segments impunctate but dull; no *spiracular furrow* of cleorid type, but a broad and vague impunctate zone, bounded in front by a sharp *flange-plate* preceded by a row of deep crowded punctures (essentially as in Amphidasis). *Callosity* in the form of an indefinite rough spot. *Femur* covered.

5. *E. faxonii* (N.M.) is the same so far as my notes extend. Evidently this genus is not close to Itame, as one might think, but the naked pectinations of antenna are consistent with a place

derived from the same early Boarmia type that gave rise to the Bistonids (*i.e.,* the following).

5. *Boarmia roboraria* (Dampf). *Cremaster* (?), apparently deformed in the only specimen at hand. *Dorsal* and *lateral grooves* strong, the former with many fine dentations. *Sculpture* normally punctate, with 9 and 10 smooth and glossy; *spiracular furrow* fairly defined, bounded by a ridge through spiracle, and a *flange-plate* as in Ematurga. *Callosity* strong; *femur* covered. *B. consortaria* is essentially the same, the cremaster having a long slender free portion.

For *Boarmia repandaria* see Paraphia group.

4 or 5. *B.* (*Deileptenia*) *abietaria* (Europe, C.U.). *Cremaster* thick to its tip, conical, the two spines arising separately. *Spiracular grooves* distinct, with a ridge just behind the spiracle, and a front ridge which may represent a *flange-plate* but is only preceded by a band of deep but sparse punctures. *Sculpture* otherwise of light sparse puncturing, only on anterior parts of segments.

4, 6. *Paleacrita vernata* (C.U.; Mosher, '17, p. 55). *Cremaster* with branches widely divergent and recurved, usually broken off. Dorsal groove rather rudimentary, even less developed than in Erannis, the lateral groove in the form of a slight branch of it; *sculpture* punctate, strong, covering part of 9th segment and venter of 8th in male but not female; *flange-plate* and furrow in the form of an elliptical pit, less than twice as high as wide; *callosity* fairly well developed; *head* with lower part of front bulging (like Biston), all roughly sculptured, the eye as rough as any part except for the crescent separating the "chitinized" and "glazed" portions. *Tongue* as long as legs and wings which are fully developed in both sexes, the female wings showing a normal venation.

On account of the rudimentary dorsal groove this may be sought either in the Biston or the Paraphia groups; in either case the high raised cones bearing the spiracles are distinctive.

6. *Prosopolopha jourdanaria* (Europe, C.U.). *Cremaster* with basal $\frac{2}{3}$ rugose in the form of a flattened cone; terminal portion smooth, slender and bifid. *Dorsal groove* rudimentary, a merely slightly wandering groove, *lateral* absent. *Sculpture* densely

punctate, including segment 8, 9 smooth, 10 faintly longitudinally ribbed above; *spiracular furrow* well marked, bounded by a ridge through the spiracle, and the very strong and sharp *flange-plate;* sculpture in front of flange-plate of dense irregular puncturing. *Callosity* well marked, pubescent; *appendages* normal; antenna rough with well marked segmentation; *femur* minutely exposed, but covered with glossy varnish, as structures are likely to be which are normally covered.

Larva with *hooks* of prolegs continuous. *Antenna* of imago distinctive, with three large subterminal setæ of type 2 on naked pectinations, and cones on shaft. By the antenna this genus would be Ennomine, by pupa Boarmine. The build is stout, and connections appear to be with the Australasian fauna. A curious beast. The pupa is essentially Paraphia-like.

6. *Nychiodes lividaria* (Europe, C.U.). Essentially like Prosopolopha; *cremaster* thick clear out to the point of forking, with angles half way out like Amphidasis. Segment 10 heavily and conspicuously longitudinally ridged. *Femur* covered, *callosity* stronger.

6. *Exelis pyrolaria* (N.M.). *Cremaster* transversely ribbed at base, the rest very slender without the thickened bases of the preceding series. No trace of *dorsal* or *lateral grooves. Sculpture* heavily punctate, including dorsum of 9th segment (more than in any of the preceding); no *spiracular furrow. Callosities* obscure. Mesothorax rugose, *spiracles* not raised. *Tongue* only $\frac{2}{3}$ length of appendages.

Imago with *antenna* scaled, the cones on shaft.

6. *Paraphia triplicipunctaria* (Rupert). *Cremaster* bifid, stout, less shouldered than usual, smooth, but 11th segment rugose. *Sculpture* lightly punctate, running into transverse grooving, 9th and 10th segments smooth, 8th somewhat pitted. *Spiracular furrow* broad, smooth, conspicuous but ill defined, as in Vitrinella with a faint central ridge, but unlike Melanolophia. *Callosity* prominent, pubescent. *Flange-plate* strong, the groove coarsely pitted.

Differs from Protoboarmia only in the covered femur, from Melanolophia mainly by the broad ''cleorid'' spiracular groove. Imago with antennal pectinations naked, cones on shaft, as in both Melanolophia and Protoboarmia, etc.

6. *Melanolophia* (N.M.). *Cremaster* without shoulders. *Sculpture* punctured, segment 9 smooth. *Spiracular furrow* a shallow fold curving around the spiracle. *Callosity* small, neat, pubescent.

6. *Pseudoboarmia porcelaria* (N.M.). No really distinct shoulders on *cremaster*. *Spiracular furrow* strong, its anterior boundary closely parallel to *flange-plate* at anterior edge of segment, its posterior running through spiracle, neither quite so sharp as in Vitrinella. *Callosities* strong, setulose. *Femur* minutely exposed; *antenna* extremely narrow in male considering the width of antenna in the imago.

7. *Epimecis hortaria* (N.M.). *Cremaster* a simple spine, definitely shouldered at the base. No *dorsal groove,* the suture being normal, with a suggestion of intersegmental membrane, and 9th segment lightly punctate. *Lateral groove* faintly suggested behind. No *spiracular furrow* of Cleorid type, but 5th segment with a *flange-plate* like that of Amphidasis. 6th and 7th segments with ridges practically tangent to spiracle. No trace of *callosity*. *Femur* narrowly exposed ($\frac{1}{4}$ tibia).

7. *Bupalus piniarius* (Dampf). (Determination doubtful.) *Cremaster* a short cone, ending in two spikes; the basal half heavily rugose. No *dorsal groove,* the *lateral* faintly visible in favorable light. *Sculpture* heavily punctate on abdomen, the 9th and 10th segments smooth and shining, and thorax nearly smooth. No *spiracular furrow* or *flange-plate,* but the segment falling off sharply from a ridge close to spiracle. *Callosity* strong.

The antenna of the imago is as in Melanolophia and Paraphia. This pupa seems a little closer to Itame, but may be misdetermined.

6 or 7. *Boarmia repandaria* (Dampf). *Cremaster* with two separate spines or a short fork from a thick rugose base (varying individually). No *dorsal* or *lateral* grooves. *Sculpture* of fine sparse punctures on a glossy ground. *Spiracular furrow* vague, impunctate; bounded in front by a strong *flange-plate* which is preceded by a band of dense coarse puncturing. *Callosity* neat but small. *Femur* very narrow or obsolescent, but consistently visible in three specimens.

7. *Ectropis crepuscularia* (Dampf and N.M.). *Cremaster* tapering sharply, bifid, the base rugose as usual. *Dorsal groove*

well marked but not strong, very finely dentate on posterior edge, as in Erannis; *lateral groove* obsolescent. *Sculpture* densely punctured; 9th and 10th segments clear; *spiracular furrow* broad and vague, bounded in front by a long elliptical fovea sharply bounded by a chitinized black edge as in Erannis. *Callosity* small but well marked.

This is surprisingly like Erannis, especially considering the rather similar antenna, but can be distinguished by the well exposed fore femur.

7. *Vitrinella pampinaria* (C.U. and N.M.) (Mosher, '17, p. 50). Characters typical for the group, with slender tapering bifid *cremaster,* no *dorsal* or *lateral* groove; *sculpture* of moderate puncturation; *antenna* with segments marked but not otherwise sculptured, *femur* exposed, *tongue* long. *Spiracular furrow* broad and shallow, lying between a ridge *behind* the spiracle and the well-marked *flange-plate* at anterior edge of segment, bisected by a slight but sharp ridge.

Moth (as in the following) with pectinations scaled and cones on shaft.

7. *Anacamptodes* sp. (a female, apparently of *fragilaria*) (C.U.). Closely similar to the preceding; *cremaster* more deeply forked; *spiracular furrow* bounded in front by a ridge passing through spiracle, undivided. *Callosity* stronger. *A. humaria* appears to be identical.

7. *Glena cribrataria* (N.M.). Closely similar (fifth segment of abdomen destroyed). Skin more roughened between the punctures. Spiracle of 8th segment marked by a decided tubercle (indicated in our specimen of *A. fragilaria,* but not distinct in *V. pampinaria*).

7. *Macaria liturata* (Dampf). Most features quite like those of the preceding three genera, but with no *spiracular furrow* nor *flange-plate,* there being merely a smooth convex band in front of the spiracle, preceded by a vague band of close puncturation; puncturing of posterior segments normal, 8 as heavy as any, 9 and 10 smooth, and base of *cremaster* rugose.

7. *M. eremiata* and *irrorata* (N.M.). Abdomen with segments 9 and 10 slightly rougher; a deep strong *spiracular furrow* flanked by two closely parallel ridges, and with a *few* punctures in front of them ventrally.

7. *M. pervolata* (N.M.). *Spiracular groove* less definite, the posterior ridge distinct, but anterior ridge partly fused with it, running into punctures above and below, and preceded by several irregular ridges.

7. *M. punctolineata.* Almost like *M. liturata, spiracular furrow* with the posterior ridge only distinct, in front of the spiracle, the anterior face with coarse punctures in vertical series as in Itame.

7. *Itame brunnearia* (Dampf) and *occiduaria* (N.M.). *Cremaster* stout and shortly bifid, not really shouldered. No *dorsal* or *lateral grooves.* Abdomen punctate, including 8 but not 9 and 10. No *spiracular furrow,* the front of segment falling off, with coarse punctures in vertical series instead of the scattered ones on rest of segment. *Callosity* smallish, well set off. *Femur* well exposed, *appendages* normal. No *flange-plate* at all.

7. *I. ribearia* (C.U.) closely similar, the puncturation on anterior slope of segment 5 denser. (See also Mosher, '17, p. 52.)

7. *I. anataria* (Mosher, '17, p. 52) has distinct *spiracular furrows.*

7. *I. wavaria* (Europe, C.U.). Similar but the *spiracular furrows* very well developed, a zone of 4 or 5 close, sharp ridges without punctures between them, the most posterior interrupted opposite the spiracle, and in front of these, confused and broken ridges with rows of punctures intervening.

In this group the antennal segments are strongly marked, sometimes with deep puncturing, but without other sculpture; the second and third spiracles are partly covered, and fourth fully exposed. In the specimens of *ribearia* and *brunnearia* before me the second spiracle is less covered than the third.

7. In *Physostegania pustularia* (Mosher, '16, p. 130) there is a deep *spiracular furrow* with chitinized edges and with punctures in its bottom, unlike the true Itames.

7. *Melanchroia chephise* (Florida, Hansbery, C.U.). *Cremaster* smooth, a nearly regular flattened cone, shortly bifid, with minute points on side where the dentations of Amphidasis are located. No *dorsal* or *lateral groove. Sculpture* of regular fairly dense puncturation, as dense on 8th segment as any (except for the usual smooth posterior stripe); 9 and 10 without punctures,

glossy. No *spiracular groove, flange-plate* short, curving forward at ends to enclose a long-elliptical area, which is heavily punctate at bottom, and reaches to front edge of segment. *Callosity* very heavy, setulose. *Appendages* normal, smooth and glossy, *tongue* full length; *femora* exposed; *antenna* with segmentation faintly marked.

Larva with sucker interrupting *hooks* (unlike all with bifid cremaster except Heliomata). Imago with scaled pectinations and no visible cones, extremely heavily chitinized. Most of the pupal characters point to the group of Vitrinella and Anacamptodes, and the antenna agrees, but the larval sucker as well as appearance are wholly wrong. The genitalia are also unique (Rupert).

8. *Cabera erythremaria* (N.M.). *Cremaster* with two longer hooked setæ (unlike the preceding genera). *Dorsal groove* distinctive, narrow, as a whole even, but neatly notched on its posterior edge, the *lateral groove* represented by an oblique lateral notch hardly if at all deeper than the others. Sculpture of normal punctures, segment 8 as well as 9 and 10 practically smooth; fifth segment rapidly falling off in front, but punctured like the rest (no *spiracular furrow,* etc.). *Callosity* easily seen, but not raised, *femur* concealed, other appendages normal.

Larva with *sucker* interrupting hooks.

Imago with *antenna* with scaled pectination and cones on shaft.

This is the only genus studied of a rather substantial group, that may perhaps be ancestral, as the condition of the dorsolateral groove suggests. There may possibly be some connection (through South American types) with Heliomata, which also has the larva with a sucker and a similar dorsal groove. The antenna is very similar to Apicia (Caberodes), but this seems to be a case of parallelism, since other structures diverge. The remaining genera form the series with 8 hooks on the cremaster, and in them many genera have the hooks of the prolegs interrupted by the sucker (except for rudimentary bases) and have the sense cones of the antenna at the tips of naked pectinations, the combination marking a distinctive Cingilia group, which is primarily South American.

8. *C. pusaria* (Dampf). Almost identical. The antenna shows

a series of tubercles at the anterior (ventral) edge, marking the inner series of pectinations.

9. *Pero honestarius* (N.M.). *Cremaster* short and rugose, with two setæ much longer than the others. *Dorsal groove* merely an accented suture; *lateral groove* deep, narrow, set at 60°, visible on 10th segment only, which is long, and ridged behind. *Body* regularly punctate, *segment* 5 not modified, merely falling off abruptly in front, segments 8 and 9 smooth. Fore *femur* well exposed, mid tibia reaching about to front of eye.

Imago with simple *antenna.*

9. *Pero* sp. (an undetermined western sp. in Nat. Mus.). Similar, but *sculpture* tending to run together into grooves, and *dorsal groove* fully developed.

9. *Stenaspilates* species (in Nat. Mus. from Texas). *Dorsal groove* very distinct, sculptured; *lateral groove* short, on anterior part of 10th segment; fore *femur* minute.

Pectinations of imaginal *antenna* naked, cones on shaft.

This tribe may perhaps be distinguished by the regular puncturation and small lateral groove. *Sericosema* agrees on these two characters, but has a different 5th segment.

9? *Sericosema* (N.M.). *Cremaster* bifid but with recurved hooks and at least one more pair of hooks besides. *Dorsal groove* coarsely notched; *lateral groove* well marked, but opening forward into dorsal groove; *sculpture* coarsely punctate, including fore portion of 5th segment; which has a strong *flange-plate* with a row of deep pits in front of it; segments 8 and 9 smooth, 10 becoming rough behind, less well set off from cremaster than usual; *callosities* well indicated, but not forming a true tubercle; *femur* exposed; *antenna* narrow, with a double series of tubercles toward base; *mid-leg* to front of eye, unlike Apicia.

A synthetic type that seems to connect the Boarmine series with Cabera, but also resembles Pero. By the antenna of the imago it appears to connect through Ixala to Cabera. The resemblance to Pero is probably purely superficial.

10. The following group is characteristically neotropical, where there are many closely related genera. In the imago, one can distinguish a series with two well-formed accessory cells from one with more varied venation, but the pupal characters do not cor-

respond. In general the present (Sabulodes) group has simple antennæ and irregular radial system, while the "Therina" group has the double accessory cell and characteristic antenna with cones at the tips of naked pectinations. But Abbotana, with the concealed femur of Therina, has the venation and essentially the antenna of Sabulodes, while Tetracis, with essentially Sabulodes pupa and antenna, has the double accessory cell. The genera with thin glossy nearly unsculptured pupa are not a homogeneous lot, Xanthotype being near to Euchlæna, Cingilia, etc., to Therina. Phrygionis is inserted purely because it keys here. It of course represents the Palyadinæ. The pupa which Mosher reported as *Philobia enotata* ('16, p. 129) obviously belongs to this group, but I cannot guess what it really is; it is extremely improbable that a member of the enotata group (which are normal Macarias) would have such a different pupa from *M. liturata.*

10. *Sabulodes transversata* (N.M.). *Cremaster* massive, with weak spines. *Dorsal groove* normal, *lateral* very wide in front, set at 30–45°, encroaching on 9th segment. *Sculpture* rugulose, 9 smooth, 10 longitudinally ridged, 11 with 4 ridges, 8 with enlarged tubercle; middle segments with a long heavy vertical ridge tangent to spiracle, but no *spiracular furrow*. *Callosity* obscure; *head* with a transverse ridge; *femur* narrowly exposed ($\frac{1}{10}$ tibia), *mid-leg* extending beside eye; *antenna* with two transverse grooves to a segment. In other ways much like Abbotana. (Mosher, '17, p. 47).

Larva with *hooks* interrupted; imago with simple, prismatic antenna.

10. *S. forficularia* (N.M.). *Sculpture* pitted, tending to form spiracular ridges on 5th segment, ridges on 5 to 7 less prominent than in transversata; 8 with tubercle i slightly enlarged, the pitting weak; 10 irregularly marked, only, not really sculptured; 11 irregularly rugose.

10. *S. caberata. Cremaster* longer, with *lateral groove* continued onto it; sculpture almost all of vertical ridges, with no especially high one, smoother than the two preceding; no enlarged tubercles; a keel on vertex.

McDunnough would separate this one species as Sabulodes (of course with its South American congeners) calling the residue

Antepione, but I cannot see so very deep a difference. The longer cremaster and different sculpture may possibly be generic.

10. *Tetracis lorata* (N.M.). *Cremaster* very long, four-ridged like transversata, with one pair of hooks especially long and straight. *Lateral groove* not extending onto cremaster; *sculpture* rugulose, practically smooth on 9 and anterior part of 10. *Callosity* rather stronger; *front* with a slight suggestion of a knob, and a slight crest on prothorax.

The pupa show much closer connection to Sabulodes (and Antepione) than would be supposed from venation and genitalia. (Studied by Mosher, '16, but not discriminated from *transversata.*)

10. *Apicia confusaria* (N.M.). Similar to Sabulodes, except: *cremaster* transversely rugose; *lateral groove* less longitudinal, not invading segment 9. *Sculpture* punctured and grooved, 9 smooth and 10 more finely longitudinally strigose, especially behind; *mid-leg* falling far short of fore leg at front end (at least in male). No *spiracular groove* or distinct keels on segments 5 to 7; male antenna twice as broad, with a tendency to pitting between the pectinations.

Larva with sucker interrupting *hooks.* Imago with scaled pectinations and basal cones. I have examined four genera of the Sabulodes group with pectinate antennæ, and each differs widely in structure, so it would appear that pectinations have been secondarily developed. In most characters Apicia has antennæ like the Cabera group. Halesa, Patalene and Gynopteryx are each quite different.

10? *Phrygionis argenteostriata* (N.M.). *Cremaster* small. Dorsal groove strong, lateral nearly longitudinal and not disturbing 9th segment at all; *sculpture* pitted, fading out behind, 10 rough and heavily chitinized; *spiracular furrow* not visible (probably absent). *Callosity* large and brown, but not very high. Fore *femur* wide, at least $\frac{1}{3}$ tibia; *antenna* narrow, with faint sculpture; only *fore leg* extending past eye; *tongue* full length; mandible projecting and heavily chitinized, labrum more plainly than usual 2-segmented (*i.e.,* clypeus and true labrum).

Antennæ of imago with scaled pectinations, a few cones on the shaft, and single strong terminal setæ.

11. *Xanthotype sospeta* (C.U.). *Cremaster* short, thick, very rugose and heavily chitinized, with short hooks, the second pair as thick as the terminal and nearly as long. *Dorsal groove* with middle notch much deeper, the side notches numerous and irregular in depth; *lateral groove* oblique, conspicuous. *Body* thinly chitinized, glossy, wholly without *sculpture,* the 10th segment more heavily chitinized but also smooth and glossy; head darker but not more heavily chitinized. No *spiracular furrow* or *flanges. Callosity* very large, overhanging behind. *Antenna* rising to a slight rounded keel, the segments strongly marked. *Tongue* only ⅔ appendages. (Mosher, '16, 129).

Larva without a trace of interruption in the series of *hooks;* imago with *antenna* like Euchlæna, pectinations naked, cones basal. A close relative of Euchlæna and Angerona in spite of the different appearance of the pupa.

12. *Cingilia catenaria* (C.U., Mosher, '17, p. 43). *Cremaster* short, continuing the line of the 11th segment, with the two terminal hooks much longer than the rest; *dorsal groove* normal, with middorsal notch a little deeper; *lateral groove* strong and oblique. *Sculpture* of fine vertical strigulation, without any punctures, the area in front of the spiracle of 5 like the rest, the ninth and tenth segments smooth and 11th dorsally with deep longitudinal vermiculation. No distinct *callosity.* Third spiracle partly covered.

Larva with hook-series interrupted. *Antenna* of imago with terminal cones on naked basal pectinations.

The ventral third of the "glazed eye" in this species shows striking and regular facetting, and certainly looks as if it should be functional. This may be correlated with the extremely open mesh-type of cocoon.

12. *Nepytia canosaria* and *phantasmaria* (C.U.). Practically identical; the dentations on the *dorsal groove* perhaps on the average fewer and coarser. *N. canosaria* from Ithaca, lacks the pattern of black dots so conspicuous in Cingilia, but in *N. phantasmaria,* from Vancouver, they are present, though duller and more diffuse than in *catenaria.*

Larval legs not examined, but doubtless as in Cingilia. Pattern strikingly different. *Antennæ* of imago as in Cingilia.

12. *Myrmecophantes valens* Thierry-Mieg (El Campamiento, Colony of the Perené, Peru, C.U.). *Cremaster* a single mass with 11th segment, black, rugose and shapeless, with hooks shorter and much heavier than in Cingilia; *dorsal groove* with about 9 regular dentations, *lateral* deep, oblique, triangular, not really reaching posterior edge of segment. *Sculpture* mostly weak, sparsely punctured on a lightly chitinized body; anterior halves of segments 5 and 6 with strong sharp vertical striation, bounded by a higher vertical keel through spiracle; 7th segment with corresponding portion slightly rugose and lacking the usual punctures; *callosity* obsolescent. Pattern of black dots much as in Cingilia with minor differences; *e.g.*, the black on the antenna takes the form of a solid ventral line instead of a double row of dots.

I reared this from a cocoon found in the field and do not know the larva; the cocoon is of coarse open meshes, like *catenaria,* but coarser. Antenna of imago of Cingilia type, more heavily chitinized. This genus represents a large South American group, evidently very close to Cingilia, Nepytia, etc., with which their antenna and venation also agree essentially.

12. *Philtræa* (N.M.). Similar to Cingilia, the *sculpture* less markedly transverse; *tongue* only half length of wing; *cremaster* not seen.

12. *Sicya macularia* (Mosher, '17, p. 44) (not seen). Similar to Cingilia; iridescent green or yellow. 11th segment notably striate (according to figure) with *cremaster* not distinguished; *body* smooth with a few punctures.

12. *Cistidia couaggaria* (N.M.). *Cremaster* very short, massive and rugose, with one pair of longer hooks. *Dorsal* and *lateral grooves* strong. *Body* practically smooth, punctate only in front of the keel through front of spiracle, as in Sicya; but *callosity* large and rough. *Femur* not noted. A genus generally considered related to Abraxas; the pupa shows a marked likeness to the Cingilia group, but the characters are not compelling. Imago with simple antenna.

13. *Abraxas grossulariata* (C.U.). *Cremaster* short, flat, semicircular, with four short and very heavy hooks radiating from it at equal distances; 11th segment and cremaster-base rugose, and bearing the four small hooks; *dorsal groove* shallow, with only

three vague notches on its posterior side, cut off below by the *lateral groove,* which is oblique, with sharply keeled upper boundary and rounded lower, the upper ending behind in a spur and lower continued as the suture ventrally; *sculpture* coarsely and sparsely punctate on a smooth glossy base, the posterior portions of segments glossy and impunctate, followed by a shagreened posterior declivity on segments 4 to 6; segment 5 laterally impunctate, without *spiracular furrow,* but with a strong *flange-plate,* preceded by a deep sharply bounded groove, as, *e.g.,* in Erannis, and unlike most forms with 8-hooked cremaster. *Callosity* obscure; *appendages* normal, *femur* concealed. The *eye* is as smooth and glossy as the rest, with the division into glazed and sculptured eye barely visible.

Larva with uninterrupted *hooks.* Imago with simple *antenna.* This genus does not fit into the American pattern, having the cremaster of the second and the flange-plates of the Boarmine series. But compare Sericosema.

"*Abraxas sylvata*" (Europe, Dampf, and C.U. from Staudinger & Bang-Haas). This pupa is so totally different from the well known *A. grossulariata* that I feel sure there must be some mistake. Perhaps it is a Boarmia in the broad sense.

Cremaster proper glossy, broad at base, and narrowing pretty abruptly to a short slender tip; 11th segment rugose. *Dorsal groove* rather weak, only the middorsal notch strong; *lateral groove* degenerated. *Sculpture* heavily punctate, with a row of punctures even on 9th segment, 10th only smooth. No *spiracular furrow,* the 5th segment smooth for a limited area in front of spiracle; *flange-plate* very short and sharp, extending up from level of spiracle; with a deep, short, smooth groove in front of it (suggestive of Paleacrita); *appendages* normal, with *femur* concealed. *Callosity* small but normal.

14. *Nematocampa filamentaria* (C.U.). *Cremaster* short, the penultimate pair of hooks as stout and almost as long as the terminal pair, but extending much more laterad; *dorsal groove* shallow, with about three posterior notches, only the middle one well defined; *lateral groove* more nearly longitudinal than usual. *Sculpture* of sparse puncturing on a dull surface, the 9th and 10th segment unpunctured, but also dull, posterior part (true cremaster) only of 11th roughened. *Callosity* obscure, slightly

raised but not discolored. *Spiracular furrows* of 5th and 6th segments similar, a series of sharp vertical somewhat anastomosing ridges, with punctures between them; 7th with a rather sharp ridge through spiracle, but the rest of the system degenerated. No *flange-plate* seen.

We must assume this genus is degenerate from the Sabulodes group, but it is quite abnormal; the well known larva (see Packard and Mosher) is unique. (Mosher, '17, p. 42.)

15. *Metanema inatomaria* (Franclemont). Pupa very strongly flattened. *Cremaster* a shapeless nodule, with very short hooks on its *dorsal* surface only; *dorsal groove* shallow, the posterior edge hardly dentate, cut off laterally by the unique *lateral groove,* which is a shallow area, absolutely continuous with the side of the 9th segment, but extending sharply dorsally and separated only by a high chitinized ridge from the lower end of the dorsal groove. *Sculpture* densely and rather coarsely punctate, the 8th as well as 9th and 10th segments impunctate, but dull; no trace of *spiracular furrow,* the front of 5th segment absolutely continuous with the rest. *Callosity* large and high. *Femur* covered.

Antenna of imago with cones at apices of one series of the naked pectinations. The pupa and moth remind one strongly of Selenia, but the antennæ are of the Therina type.

15. *Selenia alciphearia* (N.M.). *Cremaster* very short, with a mass of short hooks, wider than long and very rough; *dorsal groove* normal, *lateral* slight and flat, open in front. *Sculpture* of sparse irregular puncturing, segments 6 to 10 practically alike and smooth above; built very stout. *Callosity* well developed and setulose, like the preceding. Face projecting ventrally; *femur* concealed; fore tibia projecting and only twice as long as wide.

15. *S. tetralunaria* (Europe, C.U.). Similar; puncturing very even all over, but absent from segments 8 to 10; the *dorsal* and *lateral grooves* are shallow, the male *antenna* keeled, and with a suggestion of the tubercle-row of Ennomos; fore tibia not prominent.

Antenna of imago naked, with cones on shaft, unlike Metanema. Larva with sucker interrupting hooks.

(15) *Eumera regina* (Japan, C.U.). Entire pupa smooth and rather glossy, even the eyes and front being smooth and continuous, and only faint rugosities dorsally on thorax, etc. *Cremaster*

vestigial, flanked by two minute hooks. *Dorsal groove* strong, but dorsal only, with about 15 teeth, rather *shorter* middorsally; no *lateral groove*. No *spiracular grooves* or *flanges*. *Appendages* smooth, *femur* covered.

This pupa is far too degenerate to place in a group; while smooth it has no resemblance to such genera as Xanthotype, being fully chitinized. It may possibly be related to Selenia.

16. *Nacophora quernaria* (Mosher, '16, 129). Antenna with 5 or 6 rows of tubercles; flange-plates present.

Larva with *hooks* uninterrupted. *Antenna* of imago essentially as in Cingilia group; of which it is probably a derivative. There is no connection to the Biston group, where it is commonly placed. *Phæoura mexicanaria* is merely a Nacophora, *"Biston" arnobia* is a little more distinct, but doubtfully worth a genus.

17. *Euchlæna tigrinaria* (N.M.). *Dorsal groove* marked, with a deep middle notch and a group of two or three subdorsals. *Lateral groove* strong, standing at 45°. *Sculpture* of sparse pitting dorsally, 9th and 10th segments and most of 8th smooth and shining. Segment 5 with a flange tangent to spiracle (replacing *spiracular furrow*). *Callosity* large but smooth and concolorous. *Antenna* moderate, with two rows of pits. *Mid tibia* extending forward to front of eye.

17. *E. obtusaria decisaria* (N.M.). *Cremaster* with two long hooks. *Dorsal groove* with 7 strong notches; *lateral* running into suture of segments 9–10 below; sculpture coarser. *Antenna* with a strong median keel; *spiracular furrow* clearly absent. *Callosity* formed of two surfaces at an angle, but both belong to mesothorax on dehiscense.

The relation of sucker and hooks in the larva varies from species to species, but any interruption tends to be weak or absent. Imago with naked pectinations and cones on shaft. By the antenna this belongs to a well limited holarctic group, including Lytrosis and Stenotrachelys, which are very close, Angerona and Xanthotype, which represent each other and are perhaps not distinct, Metarrhanthis and Cepphis (Priocycla). Many other genera are similar, but have only two strong setæ on each pectination instead of three.

17. *Hemerophila atrilineata* (N.M.). Near Euchlæna in both imago and pupa. *Sculpture* heavily punctured, with part of seg-

ment 8, and 9 and 10 contrasting, smooth; *callosity* not very large; first two spiracles half covered. *Antenna* keeled, tongue only ⅔ way to apex of appendages, unlike Euchlæna.

18. *Priocycla decoloraria* (C.U., reared by Benjamin). Essentially like Euchlæna. *Dorsal groove* rather short, the lateral being high on sides, 7-notched; *lateral* continuous with surface of 9th segment as in Metanema, but normal in position. *Sculpture* as in Euchlæna, 8 smooth, no traces of spiracular structures on segment 5. *Callosity* absent, *appendages* normal, *antenna* faintly pitted. *Tongue* full length.

The cocoon is of open meshes, but much finer-meshed than Cingilia.

18. *P. armataria* (C.U.). Practically identical. In the single specimen the lateral groove is smaller and branches off from the dorsal groove, approaching the condition of Cabera.

Larva with series of *hooks* uninterrupted; imago with antenna as in Euchlæna.

17. *Metarrhanthis hypochraria* (Rupert). Closely similar to Euchlæna. *Dorsal groove* with several notches, decreasing in size toward sides; *lateral* very deep, but merely an extension of the dorsal. *Cremaster* dorsally heavily reticulate, the reticulations drawn out lengthwise; *sculpture* coarsely and densely punctate, including most of the 8th segment. *Callosity* very strong, in the form of a half-funnel opening forward. Front sharply raised above the level of the *eyes,* which are very coarsely sculptured. *Antenna* rather coarsely sculptured, with a double row of pits which are strongest at middle of its length, and flanked by vague tubercles. *M. warneri* and *angularia* differ in very minor points of sculpture that may be individual. *M. obfirmaria* is smoother and more glossy, with less puncturation on 8th segment, cremaster perhaps a little longer in proportion and shallow very widely open lateral groove.

17. *Gonodontis bidentata* (Dampf). *Cremaster* short, more neatly triangular than in Metarrhanthis, the two terminal setæ tremendous and specially socketed, the rest very small and equal. *Dorsal groove* with 7 or 8 deep and equal notches, *lateral* shallow and very broadly open. *Sculpture* of rather sparse fine puncturing on a smooth and glossy base; totally absent on 8–10, segment 9 being only half as wide as 8 and 10; *callosity* small, but

well set off and of the clearly open half-funnel type of Metarrhanthis. No trace of *spiracular furrow* or *flanges. Appendages* normal. So far as the pupa goes this could be a minor differentiation of Metarrhanthis, as they were formerly placed, but the larvæ are strikingly different, Gonodontis having rudiments of two extra pairs of prolegs. In both the hooks are uninterrupted, but in Metarrhanthis the middle hooks are shortened to mere rudiments. The imaginal antenna has lost one of the three terminal setæ on the pectinations, a character I believe of some significance.

18. *Himera pennaria* (Dampf). *Cremaster* rather smooth, shining, somewhat longitudinally ribbed, the two terminal setæ massive as in Gonodontis, but curved sharply ventrad; *dorsal groove* deep with about 8 deep notches like Gonodontis; *lateral* vestigial. *Sculpture* of fine sparse puncturation on a glossy base, the 8th segment with sparser puncturing behind the middle only; *callosity* vestigial. *Appendages* normal; no trace of *spiracular furrow* or *flanges.*

The cremaster and dorsal groove suggest Gonodontis, which the antenna also resembles; the caterpillar has a minute vestige of the proleg on the 5th segment in the form of a circle of rudimentary hooks, so the connection can be considered solid.

18. *Crocallis elinguaria* (Dampf). *Cremaster* with the two much-enlarged hooked terminal setæ; not very rough at base. *Dorsal groove* with five deep dentations and a lateral pair of shallow ones; *lateral* shallow and widely open. *Sculpture* heavily punctate on a shagreened base; 8th segment without punctures. No *callosity* or *spiracular* structures. *Appendages* normal, the basal portions transversely striate with fine grooves.

Larva with hooks in a complete series, no traces of an extra proleg. Imago with *antenna* with cones on apices of both sets of pectinations, like the following and the Cingilia group, but unlike Gonodontis and Himera.

19. *Abbotana clemataria* (N.M. and Mosher, '17, p. 49). *Cremaster* rugose, with setæ 2, 6, the terminal extremely large as given by Mosher. *Dorsal groove* with a deep central notch, flanked by a broad riser, and then narrower side notches and risers; *lateral groove* very deep, standing at 60° to the longitudinal; sculpture coarse, of tubercles, continued on 8th segment, 9th

smooth, 10th longitudinally ribbed in front; incisures granulose. A tendency for the sculpture to form three or four *spiracular ridges.* Vertex and thorax with a strong median crest; *callosity* obscure. *Femur* concealed, *antenna* narrow, with five tubercles on each segment, arranged 2 and 3.

In the imago in spite of the subpectinate antenna one would place this next to Sabulodes, but the pupa is wholly different. Larva with sucker interrupting *hooks.*

Therina endropiaria (Rupert). *Cremaster* longer than in the preceding, four-ridged so as to form an oblong pyramid; terminal setæ not massive. *Dorsal groove* with about five strong notches, *lateral* deep. *Sculpture* with punctures running together into vermiculate grooves, very rough, extending onto anterior part of 8th segment; 9th and 10th smooth, finely shagreened. Sculpture rather transverse, and forming a hint of *spiracular furrows* but not definitely. *Callosity* minute, but perfectly formed and faintly setulose.

T. fiscellaria (Rupert) is much smoother, without the rough vermiculation, but with the punctures tending to lengthen into shallow vertical grooves, the 8th segment almost free of sculpture, and the 5th segment in front of the spiracle with rather more distinct vertical grooving, but still not really with *spiracular grooves. Dorsal groove* with smaller and more numerous notches, about 9 rather than five to seven. *Destutia excelsa* shows no substantial difference, and is also sparsely punctured; I believe it is merely a variant Therina.

I consider Therina should be made a conservandum, with type *fervidaria,* the one of the two original species which was figured. While the distinctness of the European ''Ellopias'' and the American ''Therinas'' was never recognized in print it was well known to all workers on Geometridæ for many years, and usage was absolutely consistent from Packard's revision till McDunnough's check-list came out, and practically so for another 20 years after that, except by those who automatically followed the check-list. I cannot see that the ''genera'' of Capps are more at best than very weak subgenera. They are mainly based on small differences of genitalia, in a group where the genitalic type is perfectly homogeneous.

18. *Caripeta divisata* (N.M.). *Cremaster* of typical 2–6 type, short and stout. *Dorsal groove* deep and coarse-toothed, *lateral* well-marked. *Sculpture* of fine punctures, connected by faint grooves, 8 and 9 completely fused in middle line, dull but not punctured; 10 smooth. No *spiracular furrow, callosity* obscure. *Appendages* normal, *antenna* with punctures.

A normal variant of Therina, with which the imaginal venation agrees. Curiously for this series, the antennal pectination is scaled; the cones are on the shaft. Larva with sucker interrupting hooks (Rupert).

19. *Hygrochroa syringaria* (Europe). *Cremaster* with hooks apparently all very short; no *dorsal groove,* traces of a *lateral* one. *Sculpture* deeply pitted, and whole pupa densely hairy, including segment 9; segment 5 with a keel through spiracle only. A cone on face, a ridge on eyes; *callosity* very large and velvety.

A very curious type, looking like a caricature of Selenia. The larva also has the dense secondary hair, which is unique in the Geometridæ, and the hooks are interrupted. Imago with pectinations naked, but no cones found.

20. *Ennomos magnarius* (C.U.). *Cremaster* a high pyramid, twice as wide as thick, with four small hooks $\frac{2}{3}$ way out and the third pair subterminal and about as heavy as the terminal; longitudinally ribbed; *dorsal groove* obsolete, the suture open; *lateral* represented by a broad triangular slightly depressed smooth area; body very thin, white, the *sculpture* of transverse rugosities; segment 9 smooth, 10 longitudinally strigose; thorax and base of abdomen dorsally nubbly. Most tubercles well set off, but depressed, the tubercles of segments 8 and 9 conical. No *callosity* or *spiracular furrows. Antennæ* with four rows of conspicuous tubercles, and traces of a fifth; *tongue* less than half as long as other appendages, I believe the shortest in the entire Geometridæ.

Larva with sucker interrupting the *hooks. Antenna* of imago unique in details, with cones on the tips of the scaled pectinations. An isolated genus, obviously degenerated from a type with dorsal and lateral grooves, but far from any other genus studied. While there are differences of detail, I see no justification for a genus Deuteronomus. The differences in venation are of a type that occurs elsewhere, the larva and pupa are almost exactly as in typical Ennomos, and the antenna is substantially the same; only the genitalia differ in a group where the structures are highly plastic anyway, as shown by the striking differences between species in both the Ennomos and Deuteronomus groups. Even the coloring is the same except for our single species subsignarius. The members of both groups are known to hybridize.

20. *E. subsignarius* (C.U.). Similar to magnarius; *cremaster* with hooks more nearly terminal; skin less completely membranous, with rugosities stronger, but almost absent on segment 10; quite heavy before spiracle of 5, but not really forming *spiracular grooves.* Appendages as in magnarius except for the stronger sculpturing. Tubercles ii weaker.

20. *E. autumnaria* (Europe). In appearance like magnarius, the skin white but not quite as thin; *sculpture* longitudinal on 10th segment and subdorsally on 9th; *spiracular furrows* rather distinctly recognizable, multiple, divided by sharp ridges. *Cremaster* hooks like subsignarius.

20. *E. erosaria* (Europe). With the darker color and heavy skin of subsignarius, heavily rugose, the *spiracular furrow* nearest the spiracle rather well marked but extremely narrow. 9th segment smooth, 10 striate; tubercles i and ii on 9th somewhat enlarged, black and conspicuous.

21. *Patalene puber* (N.M.). *Cremaster* with all hooks very short, and the longer two pairs subequal; *dorsal groove* represented only by series of punctures before and behind the suture; *lateral groove* a mere right triangular depression, with a fine longitudinal ridge above and a rounded oblique one below; with separate grooves on the sides of the very large cremaster. *Sculpture* punctate; 9 and posterior part of 8 smooth; *mid tibia* wholly and fore tibia mostly covered; femur in the specimen examined with a linear exposure. *Callosity* obsolete.

The moth would invariably be placed close to Apicia and the pupa is quite a surprise, but confirmed by the associated moth. Larva with *hooks* uninterrupted. *Antenna* of imago with pectinations scaled and cones on shaft, and with some scattered extra type 2 setæ on the sides of the pectinations, like Apicia.

22. *Opisthograptis luteolata* (Dampf). *Cremaster* short, with rounded end bearing a row of four practically equal hooks like Abraxas, the other four a little further basad, as usual; no traces

of *dorsal* or *lateral grooves.* *Sculpture* punctate on a silky slightly dull ground, limited to anterior portions of segments, and absent from 8 to 10. *Spiracular ridge* well marked, through the spiracle on segments 6 to 7, slightly in front on 5; no *flanges. Spiracles* of segments 2 and 3 raised, conical, unlike those of 5 to 7. *Appendages* normal, only with segmentation marked on the narrow antenna; *femur* exposed.

Larva with prolegs on segments 4 and 5 even better developed than in Gonodontis; sucker interrupting *hooks.* Imago with simple *antenna.* A peculiar, perhaps a relict genus, apparently without close relatives, ranging over the Palæarctic. On genitalia Pierce puts it next to Gonodontis, though the latter has a pair of structures which may represent the clavus. Both have the type of gnathos with small dentate tip.

23. *Plagodis altruaria* (N.M.). *Cremaster* with all setæ minute and subequal. No *dorsal* or *lateral groove,* the suture being an ordinary ankylosed one. *Sculpture* fine and punctate, including anterior portions of segment 5; 8 to 10 smooth; prothorax longitudinally ribbed, but no other special sculpture. *Callosity* very large, black and chitinized; *legs* and *tongue* normal, *antenna* with one puncture to a segment; fore *femur* damaged in specimen examined, apparently with a linear exposure.

Larva with sucker interrupting series of *hooks.* Imago with characteristic *antenna* and venation; the antenna with scaled pectinations and cones on shaft. Hyperitis and Anagoga are closely related by imaginal structures, but the more distant relationships of the three are obscure.

23. *Hyperitis alienaria* (Rupert). Similar; *cremaster* with terminal pair of setæ much stronger than the rest, though small; ridging of prothorax obscure and irregular; *antenna* with a vague ventral terminal depression on each segment rather than a puncture; *femur* concealed. The anal notch of fore wing is strongly shown on the pupa, unlike Gonodontis, where the scalloping is a secondary development, due to the degeneration of part of the wing-pad.

SUMMARY

Considering primarily the pupal characters, the Ennominæ divide into two groups:

A, a Boarmine series, with cremaster bifid, with hooked setæ absent or vestigial; flange-plate present at least on 5th segment of abdomen; antenna of imago with cones on shaft, and larva without the sucker interrupting the series of hooks on the prolegs.

B, an Ennomine series, with cremaster simple, but bearing 4 pairs of hooked setæ, the terminal pair or two longer and stronger; flange-plate absent; femur concealed; the imago normally with naked pectinations, frequently bearing the cones at their tips; the larva most often with the sucker interrupting the series of hooks.

But there are numerous exceptions and recombinations among these characters, the principal absent combinations being *a,* flange-plate present, dorsal groove absent; cremaster 8-hooked; and *b,* cremaster bifid and flange-plate absent, except for the reduced Macaria group which have spiracular callosity present and femur exposed.

Aside from this Macaria group, the Boarmine series divide into Bistonine type with femur concealed but dorsal groove preserved, and a Paraphia type with dorsal groove lost and femur exposed; but there is every possible intergrade between these types.

Symbols on Table

First row: N: pectinations of imaginal antenna naked; S: scaled; A: absent.

Second row: S: cones on shaft of antenna; P: cones on pectinations; O: no cones on pectinate segments.

Third row: s: larva with sucker on proleg interrupting series of hooks; o: series of hooks continuous.

Notes

[1] Flange plate not noted (mostly concealed in specimens examined) presumed as listed.

[2] Spiracular callosity of mesothorax not noted.

[3] Femur not noted.

[4] Femur vestigial, and perhaps sometimes absent.

[5] Callosity very weak, should perhaps be counted as absent.

[6] Lateral groove not set off from dorsal.

[7] A faint vestige of dorsal and lateral grooves.

[8] Dorsal groove vestigial but lateral distinct.

[9] A distinct vestige of dorsal and lateral grooves in *E. crepuscularia;* femur almost covered in *E. bistortata.*

TABULATION OF THE ENNOMINE PUPA

CREMASTER 8-HOOKED				CREMASTER BIFID			
DORSAL GROOVE +		DORSAL GROOVE −		DORSAL GROOVE +		DORSAL GROOVE −	
Flange-plate present							
Spiracular callosity present							
Femur exposed							
SS	Phrygionis			N	Phthonosema	NSo	Boarmia rep.
						NS	Protoboarmia[4]
				As	Heliomata[1, 4, 6]	NSo	Prosopolopha[4]
						SS	Vitrinella
						SS	Anacamptodes
						A	Ectropis[9]
						SOs	Melanchroia
Femur concealed							
NPo	Nacophora[2]			S	Boarmia rob.	NO	Nychiodes
				NSo	Biston	NSo	Melanolophia[1]
						NS	Paraphia
A	Cistidia[1, 3]			NSo	Amphidasis	A	Paleacrita
				NSo	Erannis		
				NS	Coniodes[1]		
				Ao	"Abraxas sylvata"		
Spiracular callosity absent							
Femur exposed							
SS	Sericosema					NS	Epimecis
Femur concealed							
Ao	Abraxas			NSo	Zamacra[1]		
					Nyssia	SS	Exelis[1]
				SSo	Ematurga		
Flange-plate absent							
Spiracular callosity present							
Femur exposed							
NSs	Gonodontis[4, 5]	As	Opisthograptis			SS	Physostegania
NS	Stenaspilates[1]					SSo	Itame
A	Pero					o	Tephronia[1, 3]
SSs	Apicia[1, 2]					NPo	Bupalus
A	Tetracis[1, 5]					Ao	Macaria

Femur concealed ……………………

NSs,o	Euchlaena[1]	NOs	Hygrochroa[1, 2]		
NSo	Xanthotype	SS	Hyperitis	NP	Heliothea
NS	Angerona[1, 2]	SSs	Plagodis[1, 3]		
NS	Lytrosis[1, 2]				
NSs	Selenia[1]				
NSs	Metarrhanthis				
SS	Hemerophila				
NP	Metanema				

Callosity absent ……………………

Femur exposed ……………………

As	Sabulodes[1]	SSo	Patalene[1, 4, 8]

Femur concealed ……………………

NPs	Therina	SPs	Ennomos[7]
NPs	Cingilia		
NP	Nepytia		
NP	Myrmecophantes		
NP	Sicya[1, 2]		
NP	Philtraea[1, 2]		
NSo	Himera		
NSo	Crocallis		
NSo	Priocycla		
SSs	Caripeta		
SSs	Abbotana		
SSs	Cabera[6]		
As	Nematocampa		
	Eumeria		

SUPPLEMENT

The following pupæ have come in since this paper was in press. Those of Leucobrephos and Bapta are of particular interest.

(3) *Leucobrephos brephoides* (U.S.N.M.). *Cremaster* proper short, bearing two massive spines pointing straight back. *Dorsal* groove deep, widening backward at middle into a deep semicircular or more pointed pit, *lateral groove* merely a shallow notch in its side. *Sculpture* sparsely punctate, including segment 8, but 9 and 10 smooth. No spiracular furrow or flange-plate, the former represented by a slight smooth ridge; spiracles, excepting as usual the first, set well away from edge of wings. *Fore femur* and callosity absent; *tongue* ¾ length of wings.

Larval and imaginal characters show this is closely related to Brephos, but the pupa would be considered a normal Ennomine, and totally unlike Brephos, which is correctly described by Miss Mosher. The pupa is normal in form, much less cylindrical than Brephos.

3. *Hesperumia sulphuraria* (U.S.N.M.). *Cremaster* bifid, the base large and highly rugose, ending in a very short smooth cremaster proper, which bears the usual two spines. *Dorsal groove* normal, moderate, *lateral* strong, a broad deep triangular depression. *Sculpture* punctate, 9 more lightly, 10 impunctate; a slight compound pit at front of segment 1 at middorsal line; *flange-plate* and groove double, the posterior groove smooth, the anterior pitted, separated and followed by sharp ridges. No *spiracular groove* or *callosity* (Face-plate lost).

By imaginal characters this should belong to the Boarmid group (5), but the cremaster is on the whole more Amphidasis-like. Ematurga is somewhat anomalous in the same way, and may be the closest relative whose pupa is known.

6. *Melanolophia signataria* (?) (Rupert). *Cremaster* regularly tapering to a long bifid tip; rugose on basal half, the rest smooth and shining. No *dorsal* or *lateral* grooves. *Sculpture* punctate, segments 9 and 10 smooth. *Spiracular groove* shallow, smooth and shining, the two ends turning back to the level of the spiracle as if pushed back by the flange-plate. Pit of *flange-plate* deep, with sharp anterior as well as posterior edge, smooth at bottom, tapering to point at ends, the upper end turned sharply

back, and anterior edge with a single reëntrant point toward upper end. *Fore femur* covered; spiracular *callosity* obsolescent, rugose.

M. imitata (U.S.N.M.) differs, so far as I can tell by brief notes, mainly in the pubescent, though small, callosity.

(8) *Bapta vestaliata* (Rupert). *Cremaster* bearing a pair of extremely heavy terminal hooks, with their fine apices sharply bent to the sides, and small hooked setæ (only two pair seen), the base (i.e. segment 11) short, shining and rounded; *dorsal groove* deep, with 7 or 8 deep posterior notches, fading out below, but faintly connected with the shallow rounded pit which represents the *lateral groove*. *Sculpture* punctate, 8 smooth as well as 9 and 10, but with a slight sinuous anterior dorsal ridge. No *spiracular grooves* or *flange-plates*. Callosity vestigial; mouthparts normal, with full length tongue and *femur* concealed.

Larva with sucker very large, dividing the series of hooks into two widely separated patches.

This is an important and very distinct form, being the first pupa seen of its tribe. The general characters suggest the Cabera (Deilinea) group, the cremaster corresponding to Sericosema though not to Cabera, but Sericosema has the flange-plates, which are totally absent in Cabera and Bapta.

22. *Plagodis keutzingaria* (Rupert). Fore femur concealed.

CHECK–LIST OF PSYCHODIDÆ OF ASIA AND AUSTRALIA[1]

By William F. Rapp, Jr., and Janet L. Cooper

The area covered by this check-list includes India, Malay Peninsula, China, Japan, Philippines, East Indies, Australia, and New Zealand.

BRUNETTIA Tonnoir

biformis Edwards, Ins. Samoa, Vol. 6, fasc. 2 (1928), p. 68.
Samoa.
sapphiaina Edwards, Treubia, Vol. 6, p. 160.
Sumatra.
travancarica Annandale, Rec. Ind. Mus., Vol. 5, p. 144.
India.

DIPLOMIA Annandale

superstes Annandale, Calcutta Jour. As. Soc. Beng., Vol. 4 (1908), p. 353.
India.

FLEBOTOMUS Rondani

angustipennis Meyere, Tijdschr. Ent., Vol. 52, p. 202.
Java.
annandalei Sinton, Ind. Jour. Med. Res., Vol. 10, p. 744.
India.
arboris Sinton, Ind. Jour. Med. Res., p. 107.
India.
argentipes Annandale and Brunetti, Rec. Ind. Mus., Vol. 2, pp. 101–104.
Calcutta, India.
babu Annandale, Rec. Ind. Mus., Vol. 5, p. 49.
India.
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Ceylon.
bailyi Sinton, Ind. Jour. Med. Res., p. 821.
India.

[1] Fourth Contribution to a Check-List of Psychodidæ of the World.

bailyi var. *campester* Sinton, Ind. Jour. Med. Res., p. 821.
India.
barraudi Yao and Wu, Chin. Med. Jour., Vol. 59 (1940).
Kwanysi, China.
barraudi var. *kwangsiensis* Yao and Wu, Chin. Med. Jour., Vol. 59 (1940).
Kwangsi, China.
barraudi var. *siamensis* Causey, Amer. Jour. Hyg., Vol. 28, p. 488.
Siam.
bigtii Manalang, Philipp. Jour. Sci., Vol. 45, p. 356.
Philippines.
brevifilis Tonnoir, Bull. Ent. Res., Vol. 26, p. 145.
Australia.
chalami McCombie, Yong and Chalam, Ind. Jour. Med. Res., Vol. 14, p. 849.
Bombay, India.
christophersi Sinton, Ind. Jour. Med. Res., Vol. 15, p. 33.
Punjab.
colabœnsis McCombie, Young and Chalam, Ind. Jour. Med. Res., Vol. 14, p. 859.
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dayapensis Manalang, Philipp. Jour. Sci., Vol. 45, p. 358.
Philippines.
demeijerei Nitzulescu, Ann. Parasit., Vol. 8, p. 543.
Java.
dentatus Sinton, Ind. Jour. Med. Res., Vol. 20, p. 869.
India.
eadithœ Sinton, Ind. Jour. Med. Res., Vol. 20, p. 577.
India.
englishi Tonnoir, Bull. Ent. Res., Vol. 26, p. 144.
Australia.
heiseri Manalang, Philipp. Jour. Sci., Vol. 42, p. 299.
Philippines.
himalayensis Annandale, Rec. Ind. Mus., Vol. 5, p. 50.
India.
hitchensi Manalang, Philipp. Jour. Sci., Vol. 42, p. 291.
Philippines.
hivernus Raynal and Gaschen, Bull. Soc. Path. exot., Vol. 28, p. 582.
French Indo China.

hodgsoni Sinton, Ind. Jour. Med. Res., Vol. 20, p. 873.
India.

iyengari Sinton, Ind. Jour. Med. Res., Vol. 21, p. 221.
India, French Indo China.

iyengari var. *hainanensis* Yao and Wu, 10th Congr. Far East Ass. Trop. Med., 1938.
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North China.

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major var. *chinensis* Newstead, Bul. Ent. Res., Vol. 7, p. 191.
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manganus Manalang, Philipp. Jour. Sci., Vol. 42, p. 283.
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nicnic Manalang, Philipp. Jour. Sci., Vol. 41, p. 175.
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perturbans Meyera, Tijdschr. Ent., Vol. 52, p. 201.
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philippinensis Manalang, Philipp. Jour. Sci., Vol. 41, p. 175.
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India.

pooi Yao and Wu, Chin. Med. Jour., Vol. 59 (1940).
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punjabensis Sinton, Ind. Jour. Med. Res., Vol. 21, p. 421.
India.

queenslandi Hill, Bull. Ent. Res., Vol. 14, p. 83.
Queensland, Australia.

queenslandi subspecies *meridionalis* Tonnoir, Bull. Ent. Res., Vol. 26, p. 142.
Australia.

squamirostris Newstead, Ann. Trop. Med. and Parasit., Vol. 17, p. 531.
Japan.

sylvaticus Raynal and Gaschen, Bull. Soc. Path. exot., Vol. 28, p. 592.
French Indo China.

taianensis Patton and Hindle, Proc. Roy. Soc. Lond., Vol. 102, Series B, p. 545.
China.

tonkinensis Raynal and Gaschen, Bull. Soc. Path. exot., Vol. 28, p. 742.
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torrechantei Manalang, Philipp. Jour. Sci., Vol. 45, p. 361.
Philippines.

zeylanicus Annandale, Spol. zeyl., Vol. 7, p. 60.
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prodigiosa Tonnoir, Rec. Ind. Mus., Vol. 35, p. 54.
India.

LEPIDOPSYCHODA Edwards

tieniformis Edwards, Ins. Samoa, Vol. 6, fasc. 2 (1928), p. 72.
Samoa.

NEMOPALPUS Alexander

australiensis Alexander, F. M. S. Mus. Jour., Vol. 14, p. 65.
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unicolor Edwards, F. M. S. Mus. Jour., Vol. 17, p. 257.
Borneo.

zelandicus Alexander, Insec. Inscit. Mens., Vol. 9 (1921), p. 158.
New Zealand.

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albohumeralis Brunetti, Rec. Ind. Mus., Vol. 4, p. 311.
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bella Brunetti, Rec. Ind. Mus., Vol. 2, p. 383.
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townsvillensis Taylor, Bull. Ent. Res., Vol. 6, p. 267.
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albonotata Brunetti, Rec. Ind. Mus., Vol. 2, p. 373.
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apicalis Brunetti, Rec. Ind. Mus., Vol. 4, p. 301.
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argenteopunctata Brunetti, Rec. Ind. Mus., Vol. 2, p. 375.
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conspicillata Hutton, Catal. New Zealand Dipt., etc., Vol. 13 (1881).
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decora Brunetti, Rec. Ind. Mus., Vol. 4, p. 299.
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distans Brunetti, Rec. Ind. Mus., Vol. 4, p. 296.
India.
distincta Brunetti, Rec. Ind. Mus., Vol. 2, p. 372.
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fulvohirta Brunetti, Rec. Ind. Mus., Vol. 4, p. 297.
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geniculata Brunetti, Rec. Ind. Mus., Vol. 4, p. 294.
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hirtipennis Brunetti, Rec. Ind. Mus., Vol. 4, p. 300.
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maculipennis Brunetti, Rec. Ind. Mus., Vol. 4, p. 299.
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BOOK NOTICE

Notas sobre Insectos Dañinos Observados en Venezuela 1938–1943. By Charles H. Ballou. 3ª Conferencia Interamericana de Agricultura. Caracas, 1945. 151 p. 6 figs.

This report is written by a fellow member of the NEW YORK ENTOMOLOGICAL SOCIETY who has been serving since 1938 as Chief of the Section of Entomology in the Instituto Experimental de Agricultura in Venezuela. The survey on which the report is based was begun on March 10, 1938, and terminated on December 31, 1943. The material is divided into two parts. In Part 1 are listed the hosts—plant and animal—that give sustenance to the injurious insects considered. Only hosts of economic importance are included in this compilation, and the arrangement is alphabetic. In Part 2 the injurious insects and arachnids are given the main emphasis and under each insect or arachnid are grouped the organisms adversely affected by it. Here the arrangement is by orders and families. Thanks to this division of the subject matter the reader can readily trace first the different insects or arachnids that attack a given host and then the different hosts that furnish sustenance to a given insect or arachnid. In both Parts the locality where the observation was made, the number of the week, and the year, as well as the observer's name, are noted. The complete destruction of the host is indicated by placing the number of the week in *Italics*.

In all 298 kinds of insects are listed but of these only 156 have been determined as to species and a dozen of these 156 are listed as doubtful; of the remaining 142, some 75 have been identified as to genus but the residual 67 still lack generic determination. In spite of these gaps in the knowledge, the publication will serve as a very helpful guide to those in Venezuela who want to know their insect and arachnid foes and to be on guard against them.—HERBERT F. SCHWARZ.

INSECTS FEEDING OR BREEDING ON INDIGO, BAPTISIA

By S. W. Frost
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Wild indigo is an interesting group of plants especially from the standpoint of the insects that feed upon its flowers, leaves, stems or seeds. The genus belongs to the Leguminosæ (the Fabaceæ, according to some authorities) and comprises thirty-one species that are confined to the eastern portion of North America and range from Maine to Florida, west to Minnesota and south to Texas. Some of the species occur in the immediate portions of Mexico and Canada. Only two species occur in Pennsylvania namely, *Baptisia tinctoria* (L.), commonly known as wild indigo, yellow broom, indigo broom or horsefly weed, and *Baptisia australis* (L.), known as blue false indigo.[1] *Baptisia tinctoria* is the more common of the two species in Pennsylvania and it is from this species that the writer collected many insects. *Baptisia tinctoria* ranges from southern New Hampshire to Minnesota and southward to Florida and Kentucky. It grows rather freely on sandy or gravelly soil and is common in these localities.

The species of *Baptisia* are structurally and biologically different from most of the Leguminosæ. They possess properties which apparently are undesirable for many insects and may account for their relative freedom from insect attack. Three glycosides; *baptin, baptisin* and *pseudobaptisin* and one alkaloid *baptitoxin* have been derived from *Baptisia.* A phenol, *baptinol,* has been extracted from the dried leaves of *Baptisia tinctoria* by means of vapors of chloroform and similar substances. The latter explains the characteristic blackening of injured *Baptisia* leaves which Clark (1915) remarks may be produced by any agent, physical, chemical or mechanical, that disturbs the normal relationship of the cells containing certain enzymes. First

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[1] There has been some confusion in entomological literature recording insects from *Baptisia.* This is probably due to the fact that *Amorpha fructuosa* L. also bears the common name, false indigo.

a hydrolytic enzyme decomposes a glucoside and then an oxidase acts to produce the dark pigment. Wehmer (1911) states that *Baptisia tinctoria* probably contains a small amount of indican, a glucoside of indoxyl, from which indigo of commerce may be produced.

Early in summer, *Baptisia tinctoria* is a graceful, bushy plant with clean, deep green foliage. Its glabrous, trifoliate leaves attract some insects which disfigure them in various ways. Several insects feed upon the seeds or contents of the pods while a few bore into the stems. The small, but distinct, yellow flowers appear about the first of June and are visited by many insects. During the course of the summer the foliage become riddled by the attacks of various insects and fungus diseases and by August the plants in most localities are almost completely defoliated.[2]

The insects feeding upon wild indigo naturally have a somewhat limited range coinciding with the distribution of the plants. Many of these insects seem to be confined to species of the genus *Baptisia*. All but one of the insects are native to North America. The coffee bean weevil, *Aræocerus fasciculatus* (DeG.), originally introduced from India, has adapted itself to *Baptisia*, other weeds and cultivated plants. Authors have occasionally recorded some of the *Baptisia* insects as ranging to the Pacific; however, species of the genus *Baptisia* only occur east of the Rockies.

I have had an opportunity to study several rather uncommon insects that feed upon *Baptisia tinctoria*. These observations together with previously published records suggested a compilation of the species known to attack *Baptisia*.

A SUMMARY OF THE INSECTS ATTACKING *BAPTISIA* SPP.

Coleoptera

Curculionidæ

Aræocerus fasciculatus (DeG.). On the seeds of wild indigo, senna, cotton, cacao, coffee, poke berry and dried apple seeds,

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[2] Eleven parasitic fungi have been recorded from *Baptisia*. Most of them are listed by Seymour (1929). They include two mildews, two rusts, three leaf spots and other disorders. The mildew *Erysiphe polygoni* D.G., which occurs on *Baptisia tinctoria* and *Baptisia australis*, appears to be the most prevalent species.

Mass., Ohio, D. C., N. J., Ala., Fla. (Blatchley & Leng: 42). Breeding in St. Ignatius bean (*Strychninos ignatii*) in the Philippines (Brown: 116).

Apion rostrum Say. Taken from the pods of false indigo, *Baptisia leucantha* in the seeds of which they live, New Hamp. to Fla., and west to Wis. and Texas (Blatchley & Leng: 81–82). Infests the seeds of *Baptisia leucantha* (Beutenmuller, 1890). Infests the seeds of *Baptisia leucantha* (LeConte & Horn: 411). The writer has found these beetles abundant on *Baptisia tinctoria* at Arendtsville especially early in June. On June 9 they were observed feeding on the leaves and flowers. On July 10 there was evidence of abundant oviposition. The eggs are pushed through small holes made at the base of the pods, usually one, sometimes two eggs in a pod. The egg is yellow elongate and almost as large as the seeds which are small at this time.

Conotrachelus erinaceus Lec. Taken on cotton and *Baptisia* in Texas (Pierce: 275). Occurs mainly beneath rubbish along the banks of streams; also on hickory. Ranges from Ohio and Northern Indiana to the District of Columbia, Florida and Texas (Blatchley & Leng: 482).

Tychius sordidus Lec. Breeds in the seed pods of *Baptisia bracteata* (Sanderson, 1904). Breeds in pods of *Baptisia leucantha*. The larvæ eat pods clean, sometimes two or three larvæ occur in a single pod. They then eat their way out and pupate in the ground (Pierce: 273). Ranges from Illinois and Iowa to Louisiana and Texas (Blatchley & Leng: 245).

Lissorhoptrus simplex Say. One specimen on *Baptisia,* Texas (Pierce: 265). Ranges from Canada and New England to Michigan and Iowa, south to Florida and Texas (Blatchley & Leng: 229). Apparently this species does not breed on *Baptisia* for Blatchley states "Water is the element in which this beetle delights, and it breeds only in plants growing in it."

Chrysomelidæ

Pachybrachys luridus Fabr. Occurs on the foliage of false indigo, *Baptisia leucantha,* also on the flowers of Jersey tea. Scarce in Indiana (Blatchley: 1130).

Pachybrachys trinotatus Mels. New Jersey on *Baptisia tinc-*

toria and on *Ceanothus americana* (Smith: 302). This species has apparently been confused with *P. luridus* Fabr.

Lepidoptera

Œcophoridæ

Agonopteryx lecontella (Clem.). Food plant *Baptisia tinctoria* (Clarke: 95). Larva green, tubercles shiny black, a dark spot on each side of the prothoracic shield, a leaf roller on *Baptisia tinctoria* (Frost, 1945).

Tortricidæ

Grapholitha tristrigana (Clem.). Larva on "Tinctoria" perhaps *Baptisia tinctoria*, Massachusetts to Florida, Kansas and Oregon (Forbes: 394). Food plant *Baptisia* and *Lupinus;* larva lives in seed pods and stems. Illinois, Kansas, Oklahoma, Alabama, Texas, Florida, North Carolina, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, New York, Massachusetts and Ontario (Heinrich: 39).

Pyralidæ

Tetralopha baptisiella Fern. Larva on Baptisia, N. J., W. Va., and west, "New York." (Forbes, 1920.) *Baptisia tinctoria* Pa. (Frost).

Tholeria reversalis Guénee. Larva on *Baptisia* and *Lonicera,* N. Y., Ill., to Fla., and Colorado (Forbes, 1920). *Baptisia australis* Pa. (Frost).

Hesperidæ

Thanaos juvenalis Fab. Food: bean (Apios), wild indigo (*Baptisia*), *Lathyrus* and *Galactia* (Beutenmuller, 1890b: 202). Ranges from Quebec to Florida and westward as far as Arizona where it appears to be common (Holland: 335). The writer has frequently observed the larva of a hesperid feeding on *Baptisia tinctoria*. The head and thoracic shield were dark brown or black, the former roughened and not shiny. The body was pinkish or brownish green, often olive in color. At first they ate small pieces of leaves, later they tied several leaves together to form a retreat in which they fed.

Thanaos brizo Boisd. Caterpillar feeds on *Galactia* and possible *Baptisia,* from the Atlantic to the Pacific, ranging from New England to Arizona (Holland: 333).

Geometridæ

Cingilia catenaria Drury. A general feeder, blackberry, cranberry, hazel, oak, Myrica, "Wild indigo" *Genista tinctoria, Carex pennsylvanica* and *Rhus toxicodendron* (Beutenmuller, 1890b: 221).

Noctuidæ

Papaipema baptisiæ Bird. The caterpillar lives in the stem of *Baptisia tinctoria* Providence, R. I. (Beutenmuller, 1902: 434).

Diptera

Agromyza baptisiæ Frost. A linear-blotch leafminer on *Baptisia tinctoria*. Arendtsville, Pa. (Frost: 273).

Agromyza species. A petiole miner on *Baptisia tinctoria.* Makes a long narrow shallow mine sometimes 31 inches long, starting at the tip of a branch and working downward. Adults were not reared (Frost).

Heteroptera

Gelchossa heidmenni O. & D. This tingid is one of the most abundant of the insects that attack *Baptisia tinctoria* in Pennsylvania. They make their appearance during May and by the end of the month their characteristic white stippling is very evident upon the leaves. During June the plants are still vigorous although the leaves may become almost white from the punctures of these insects. By the middle of August the leaves are so severely affected by these and other insects that they begin to fall and before the end of the month the plant may be completely defoliated. On False indigo *Baptisia tinctoria,* Mass., Pa., N. J., Md., D. C., La., Ark. (Weiss & West: 56–60).

Hadronema militaris Uhler. Food plant *Baptisia tinctoria,* Long Island and New York (Britton: 501). Colorado, Iowa, Michigan, Kansas, California, New Mexico (Van Duzee: 385). On *Baptisia leucantha,* New York west to the Pacific feeding on several species of Baptisia, also from Mexico (Blatchley, 1926: 884).

Homoptera

Macrosiphum solanifolii (Ashm.). Colonies abundant on *Baptisia tinctoria* during May, June and July at Arendtsville. Apparently a summer host. Identified by T. L. Guyton and J. O. Pepper. A common aphid with a wide distribution and a wide range of food plants.

Jassus olitorius Say. Nymphs and adults of this common species were found on *Baptisia* (Z. P. Metcalf, in correspondence). A shrub feeding species often taken on Sassafrass during July, August and September (Britton: 142). Ont., Me., N. Y., N. J., Pa., N. C., Fla., Kans., Ariz., (Bermuda) (Van Duzee: 60). The writer has found nymphs and adults of a species of cicadelid on *Baptisia tinctoria* at Arendtsville, Pa.

Thysanoptera

Sericothrips baptisiae Hood. Apparently confined to *Baptisia tinctoria*, Virginia and Maryland (Hood: 113).

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C. V. RILEY'S PIRATED WORK

In this JOURNAL, vol. 46, p. 194, June, 1938, I published a note referring to an overlooked title by C. V. Riley on the Colorado potato beetle, which failed of inclusion in Samuel D. Henshaw's "Bibliography of the More Important Contributions to American Economic Entomology, Part III." The title in question is "The Colorado potato beetle with suggestions for its repression and methods of destruction," by C. V. Riley. This was published in London in 1877 by George Rutledge & Sons.

Had I read, at the time, the introduction to Parts I, II, III of Henshaw's "Bibliography," I would have known that the omission was deliberate. According to the introduction, the book published by George Rutledge & Sons was a partial reprint of Riley's "Potato Pests," and it was unsanctioned and printed without the knowledge of C. V. Riley. For this reason Henshaw omitted this and other pirated works of Riley from his "Bibliography."—HARRY B. WEISS.

THE MECHANISM OF OVIPOSITION IN PHÆNICIA (LUCILIA) SERICATA MEIG. (DIPTERA)

By Cyril E. Abbott

Oviposition is a complex process involving a variety of factors. Some of the factors involve the physiology of the insect, some are external to it. All form a complex so involved that the process is difficult to control experimentally or even to evaluate from observation. In these respects oviposition differs from, let us say, the feeding response, which, although far from simple, may be experimentally controlled with some degree of success, and its characteristics predicted under known conditions with some degree of assurance.

In a living fly, dissected in Ringer's solution at room temperature, the ovaries may, and usually do, contract rhythmically. Contraction is fairly rapid, relaxation slow, and the intervals between beats are often decidedly unequal. Not only does the ovary as a whole pulsate, the individual ovarioles exhibit a periodic wave of contraction which passes from the free end of each toward the body of the ovary. There is no synchrony in this contraction, for each ovariole behaves independently in this respect, and indeed any synchrony between the contractions of the two ovaries appears to be accidental. These movements are doubtless responsible for the extrusion of ova which has been observed even in cases of organs completely excised.

Studies extending over a period of three years had as their object the determination of factors which influence ovarian pulsation. The evidence indicates that these are myogenic. Excised ovaries may pulsate for hours, even in the presence of nicotine, and there is no evidence that an eserine-acetylcholene solution has more than a slight effect upon pulsation. Indeed, after applying every possible type of stimulus, the conclusion was reached that only three are effective in increasing the rate and intensity of pulsation. These are: 1, mechanical, 2, osmotic, and 3, thermal.

Poking, pinching, or pushing an ovary which has ceased to pulsate will often initiate pulsation which, however, is generally of short duration when the mechanical stimulus alone is applied. The application of solid particles of NaCl, of sucrose, or of concentrated solutions of these, initiate pulsations which endure much longer than those initiated by mechanical stimuli.

But the most effective stimulus is that of *temperature.* On several occasions preparations, which had remained overnight, had cooled to a temperature of 10° C., and ceased to pulsate, resumed activity when the cold liquid was replaced by Ringer's warmed to a temperature of 25°–35° C. Moreover pulsation then continued for some time. Further observation demonstrated that gradual cooling of the fluid was accompanied by a decrease in the rate of ovarian pulsation. The table is composed of averages from several observations.

TABLE I

DECREASE IN OVARIAN PULSATION WITH DECREASE IN TEMPERATURE

Temperature, ° C.	Number of contractions per minute
35	8.1
34	6.0
33	5.4
32	4.5
30	4.3
28	4.2
27	4.0

Of and by themselves these observations indicate nothing concerning oviposition. But consider the following data taken from my notes.

Still not until I read in a paper by Shannon and Putnam (1934), that the oviposition rate of *Ædes ægypti* rises 7.7 per cent with each rise of 1° C., did the possibility occur to me that oviposition by *P. sericata* may *depend more upon certain external factors than upon nervous mechanisms in the insect.*

It has generally been assumed that oviposition by calliphorid flies is initiated by chemical and mechanical stimuli, the effects of which are immediate and essential. Now although oviposition generally occurs in the presence of "meat odors," and usually, too, when the insect is in direct mechanical contact with the meat, gravid females, confined in small containers (*e.g.*, a test tube), will deposit eggs, and when confined in a cage will likewise deposit eggs about their drinking fountain and dishes containing sugar.

Furthermore oviposition is closely associated with feeding. Detinova (1936) has observed that *Anopheles messeœ,* before ovipositing, probes the water with her proboscis. If the water contains materials which inhibit feeding, oviposition is likewise inhibited. Hecht (1930) found that optimum ovipositon in a given species of mosquito depends in part upon the temperature of the water where eggs will be laid.

Students are agreed that stimuli which initiate oviposition are many and seldom operate singly. Kuzina (1940) found this to be true of *Musca domestica*. Mackerras (1933) states that oviposition by calliphorid flies depends upon copulation. (It is a fact that every ovipositing fly which I have subsequently dissected has contained sperm.) Hobson (1937) mentions as stimuli necessary for oviposition the nutritive condition of the insect, chemical stimuli, and contact stimuli. Starved, gravid females begin to feed before they oviposit, and even replete flies, although they will oviposit in response to distance chemical stimuli, generally require direct contact with the substrate.

TABLE II

Effect of Temperature upon Oviposition of *P. sericata*

Temperature, ° C.	Average number of eggs per female
20	1 ± .0
22	7 ± 1
24	19.5 ± 2
26	38.2 ± 2
28	45.5 ± 3
30	68.5 ± 2
32	75.0 ± 4
34	67.0 ± 5
36	42.5 ± 2

Obviously not all of the factors mentioned are stimuli of a nervous type, and since even those that are, vary so in their effect, one is justified in suggesting that the act of oviposition *per se* involves a release mechanism. This is the more probable because observation demonstrates that the vagina is generally in a state of contraction.

There is a definite limit, however, to inhibitory action, whether at the site of the vagina or elsewhere. High temperatures, confinement, and repletion make retention of the ova practically impossible. It is attraction of the fly to animal matter—not a stimulus to oviposition—which accounts for the deposition of eggs upon flesh. This also explains the observations of Salt (1930) and Vladimirova and Smirnov (1938) that flies deposit more eggs upon the nutritive substrate than it will support as larvæ.

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THE LONGEVITY OF ENTOMOLOGISTS

By Harry B. Weiss

I had often wondered if entomologists as a group had a longer average life than the average for the population as a whole but the amount of work involved in assembling the data for a large number of entomologists always deterred me from trying to find out. However, upon the appearance of Mathilde M. Carpenter's excellent ''Bibliography of Biographies of Entomologists'' (The American Midland Naturalist, vol. 32, no. 1, p. 1–116, 1945) I found that the enormous job of assembly had been done and that from this source I could draw the type of information that was needed. Miss Carpenter's bibliography, among other things, contains the birth and death dates for 2187 entomologists born between 372 B.C. and 1920. The term entomologist includes both professional and amateur workers including some who, achieving fame in other fields, made some contribution to entomological science. It also includes a few women, but in numbers these are so few that the list as it stands consists almost entirely of white males from all parts of the world. It was impossible to separate the amateurs from the professionals and this means that other occupations are included. For the present purpose this is a defect that is difficult to correct. On the whole, however, it can be safely assumed that the list represents an occupational group. The country of birth and cause of death are not known, as these facts had no place in a bibliography of biographies. In order to remedy this one would have to read all the individual biographies and even then the information would not be complete because many obituaries fail to mention the exact cause of death. In view of this the mortality of the subjects considered herein must be put down as due to all causes and the conclusions must be considered as applying to the entomologists of the world, rather than of any specific country.

Table I shows the number of deaths and its percentage of the total for each age from 19 to 98. The largest number of deaths occurred in the age group 70–74, the highest number occurring at age 72. The number dying at each age is also shown by the frequency curve (Figure 1), the peak of which is at 72. The weighted average age at death for the entire 2187 is 65.48 years.

TABLE I

MORTALITY TABLE OF 2187 ENTOMOLOGISTS BORN BETWEEN 372 B.C. AND 1920 SHOWING DISTRIBUTION BY AGE, NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL

Age at death. Years	No. dead	Per cent of total	Age at death. Years	No. dead	Per cent of total	Age at death. Years	No. dead	Per cent of total
19	1	0.045	46	21	0.96	73	69	3.15
20	2	0.090	47	21	0.96	74	66	3.01
21	1	0.045	48	27	1.23	75	64	2.92
22	1	0.045	49	24	1.09	76	60	2.74
23	2	0.090	50	25	1.14	77	56	2.56
24	1	0.045	51	23	1.05	78	52	2.37
25	6	0.27	52	21	0.96	79	57	2.60
26	10	0.45	53	29	1.32	80	54	2.46
27	9	0.41	54	19	0.86	81	50	2.29
28	9	0.41	55	35	1.60	82	42	1.96
29	8	0.36	56	41	1.87	83	35	1.32
30	10	0.45	57	44	2.01	84	36	1.64
31	17	0.77	58	37	1.69	85	29	1.32
32	12	0.54	59	36	1.64	86	27	1.23
33	12	0.54	60	46	2.10	87	24	1.09
34	8	0.36	61	38	1.73	88	24	1.09
35	13	0.59	62	44	2.01	89	18	0.82
36	8	0.36	63	44	2.01	90	11	0.50
37	8	0.36	64	52	2.37	91	10	0.45
38	16	0.73	65	59	2.69	92	8	0.36
39	19	0.86	66	49	2.24	93	3	0.13
40	12	0.54	67	62	2.83	94	5	0.22
41	15	0.68	68	59	2.69	95	2	0.090
42	15	0.68	69	51	2.33	96	4	0.180
43	13	0.59	70	69	3.15	97	1	0.045
44	14	0.64	71	68	3.11	98	1	0.045
45	22	1.00	72	71	3.24	......	......	....
							2187	100.00

According to Table II, which summarizes the distribution of deaths by age groups, it is apparent that approximately 30 per cent had died before reaching 60 years. Of the remaining 70 per cent, 23 per cent died between 60 and 69, 29 per cent between 70 and 79 and about 18 per cent between 80 and 98. The same thing is exhibited graphically by Figure 2 which is a cumulative curve showing the successive additions of the percentages of deaths (from Column 3, Table I) at successive ages.

Table III exhibits the average age at death of 2183 entomologists born between 1500 and 1914. Of the entire original group of 2187, those born before 1500 and after 1914 were excluded because of the smallness of their number. Entomologists were scarce during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries and for this reason these first two periods cover 100 years each. The eighteenth century has been split into 10-year periods and the nineteenth into 5-year periods. The average age at death during each period within the entire range from 1500 to 1859 shows a remarkable degree of uniformity. From 1860 to 1914 the average age at death shows a steady decline. This is because there are still many entomologists living who were born after 1859.

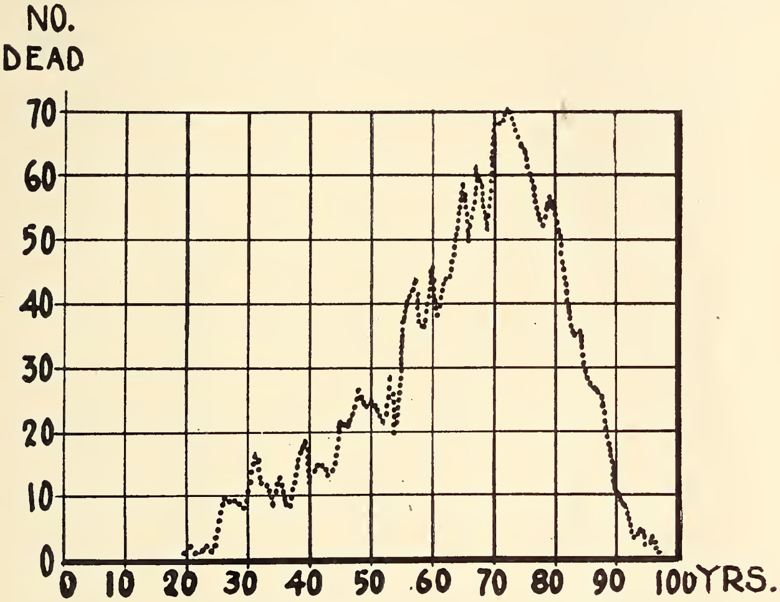

FIG. 1. Frequency curve showing the distribution of the deaths of 2187 entomologists by ages.

As practically all who were born between 1500 and 1859 have now died, the average ages at death for the different periods between these dates are of special interest. For the 1600 entomologists who were born between 1500 and 1859, the average age at death for the entire group was 69.09 years. By scanning the average ages at death for the various periods between 1500 and 1859 in Table III, one may note that the variations from this average are not extensive. In fact, the standard deviation is only 3.147.

TABLE II

DISTRIBUTION OF DEATHS OF 2187 ENTOMOLOGISTS BY AGE GROUPS

Age group. Years	Per cent of total
19–24	0.36
25–29	1.94
30–34	2.66
35–39	2.90
40–44	3.13
45–49	5.24
50–54	5.33
55–59	8.81
60–64	10.22
65–69	12.78
70–74	15.66
75–79	13.19
80–84	9.67
85–89	5.55
90–94	1.66
95 and over	0.36
	100.00

Life tables for early times are mostly incomplete and fragmentary, but Pearl has shown the changing expectation of life at different periods based on data from various sources. For example, in Roman Egypt the expectation of life (or the average number of years that persons of a given age will probably live) for a child of about 3 years was a little over thirty years. In Breslau, for the years 1687 to 1691, the expectation of life at birth was about 34 years. In Carlisle, England, 1780–1787, the expectation at birth was close to 40 years, and in continental United States in 1910, it was about 50 years. In 1940 in continental United States* the expectation of life at birth for white males was 62.94 years, and for white females 67.31 years. The figures in all the life tables show that at all early ages the expectation of life is longer now than it has been during past times. And in addition, they indicate that there is no trend toward a longer life-span.

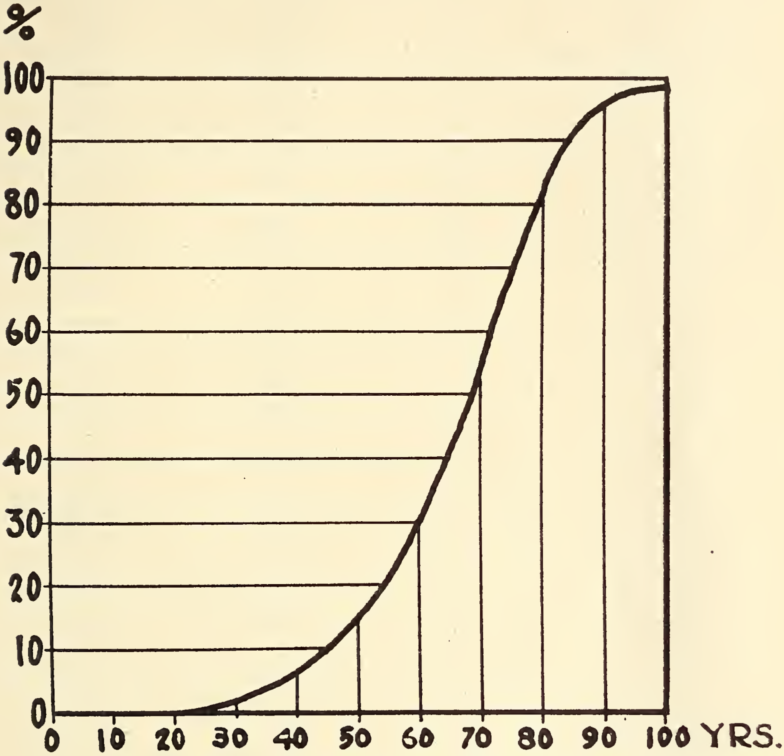

FIG. 2. Cumulative curve showing the successive additions of the percentages of deaths of 2187 entomologists at various ages. For example at the age of 60, approximately 30 per cent of the total number had died.

It is apparent, from Table III, that all during the periods when the expectation of life at birth was low for populations in general

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* Statistical Bull. Met. Life Ins. Co., 22 (12): 6–8, 1941.

TABLE III

AVERAGE AGE AT DEATH OF 2183 ENTOMOLOGISTS
BORN BETWEEN 1500 AND 1914

Born from	No.	Range in ages at death	Average age at death
1500–1599	12	29–83	60.83
1600–1699	31	34–91	68.03
1700–1709	7	54–84	72.85
1710–1719	6	55–72	62.50
1720–1729	18	51–86	67.94
1730–1739	14	31–90	65.64
1740–1749	15	56–88	76.33
1750–1759	23	28–91	70.33
1760–1769	19	45–90	68.42
1770–1779	53	35–89	72.96
1780–1789	53	41–92	71.88
1790–1799	104	38–97	69.66
1800–1804	83	28–96	69.61
1805–1809	78	30–98	70.02
1810–1814	90	33–91	67.53
1815–1819	80	26–91	70.57
1820–1824	103	26–90	68.63
1825–1829	83	26–92	66.53
1830–1834	79	35–94	67.91
1835–1839	124	25–94	68.95
1840–1844	129	29–96	70.17
1845–1849	120	31–94	70.25
1850–1854	128	24–89	67.59
1855–1859	148	28–87	68.20
1860–1864	136	26–82	65.71
1865–1869	118	25–77	62.94
1870–1874	67	37–73	60.01
1875–1879	70	27–67	54.18
1880–1884	67	30–63	47.70
1885–1889	45	25–58	44.26
1890–1894	28	27–59	42.25
1895–1899	20	20–47	36.30
1900–1904	14	25–41	36.07
1905–1909	11	23–35	29.90
1910–1914	7	26–29	27.71

and while the average length of life was continually increasing to its now comparatively high level, entomologists continued to live an average of 69 years.

Persons who live long lives generally attribute this fact to certain habits such as abstinence from alcohol or tobacco, special diets, exercise or no exercise, fresh air, etc., or to other habits which personally give them the entire credit for their long life-spans. As a matter of fact, the length of life of any individual, barring accidents including infections, etc., is dependent upon the impetus received during conception and this is largely the result of hereditary determinants. Karl Pearson reached the conclusion many years ago that from 50 to 75 per cent of the general death-rate is determined by the forces of heredity and is not susceptible of moderation by sanitary measures or preventive medicine. Preventing accidents, and infections, practicing hygiene, curing diseases, etc., will add to the life-span of many individuals but the life-span is determined largely at the time of birth.

In every population from early times to the present a certain percentage or part of the population has always lived, by reason of parentage and environment, many years beyond the average for the balance of the population. From the average ages at death of entomologists who were born between 1500 and 1859, it is apparent that they have always been recruited, for the most part, from among that portion of the population that lived the longest. The gap between the constant high average length of life of an entomologist in the past and the present average length of life for the population at large is decreasing because the population at large is living longer by reason of the measures taken to increase national health. Unless the ranks of entomologists continue to be renewed from that part of the population that lives the longest, they may not enjoy this advantage in the future. At any rate, they deserve no special credit for their long lives however useful they may be. The credit, if any, should go to their long-lived parents.

A LABORATORY AID IN THE ISOLATION OF ENTOMOGENOUS FUNGI

By E. E. McCoy

The technique here described was developed to facilitate the preparation of isolation plates of the fungus *Beauveria bassiana* occurring on larvæ and adults of the Japanese beetle. The dead insects, even when presenting the typical external growth of *Beauveria* spores, are heavily contaminated with a variety of other microorganisms and the successful preparation of isolation plates requires that a suspension of discrete cells be made in water. The spores of most entomogenous fungi are wettable by water only with difficulty, and the commonly used method for preparing cell suspensions gives poor results because the mass is not thoroughly dispersed, so that the contaminating organisms are carried along with small aggregates of the desired spores.

An excellent dispersal of individual spores may be prepared by placing a small amount of the fungus growth on a sterile slide together with a small drop of water, and covering this with a sterile micro cover. The cover is then moved about in a more or less rotary fashion by means of a pencil eraser. The disintegration of the mass can be periodically observed under the compound microscope. When it is seen that the spores are thoroughly dispersed the cover glass is removed and the suspension on the slide diluted and pipetted into the usual dilution tubes. Care must be taken that the grinding action between the slide and cover glass is not too long continued or the pressure too great, since the spores are easily crushed or ground and rendered nonviable.

PHALANGIDA FROM THE UNITED STATES

By CLARENCE J. AND MARIE L. GOODNIGHT

This present paper is fifth[1] in a series in which the authors are attempting to make the phalangid fauna of the United States better known. Before the entire group is monographed, it has been thought better to describe most of the species and to clarify their relationships and distributions. All holotypes are deposited in the collection of The American Museum of Natural History.

Suborder Laniatores Thorell

Phalangodidæ Simon

Phalangodinæ Roewer

Wespus arkansasensis Goodnight and Goodnight

(Figs. 7, 8, and 9)

Wespus arkansasensis Goodnight and Goodnight, 1942, Amer. Mus. Novitates, No. 1188, p. 12, figs. 46, 47, and 48.

FEMALE.—Total length of body, 2.0 mm. Cephalothorax, 0.8 mm. Width of body at widest portion, 1.6 mm.

	I	II	III	IV
Trochanter	0.2 mm.	0.2 mm.	0.2 mm.	0.2 mm.
Femur	0.9	0.7	0.8	1.0
Patella	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.4
Tibia	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.9
Metatarsus	0.6	0.7	0.7	1.0
Tarsus	0.8	0.5	0.7	0.5
Total	3.6 mm.	3.0 mm.	3.3 mm.	4.0 mm.

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[1] See the following papers:

The Genus Protolophus (Phalangida). Amer. Mus. Novitates, No. 1157.

New American Phalangida. Amer. Mus. Novitates, No. 1164.

New Phalangodidæ (Phalangida) from the United States. Amer. Mus. Novitates, No. 1188.

New and Little Known Phalangids from the United States. Amer. Midl. Naturalist, Vol. 29, No. 3, pp. 643–656.

Dorsal scute with five distinct areas, the boundaries of which are parallel, but difficult to discern. First area without a median line. Eye tubercle removed from the anterior margin of the cephalothorax, rounded above, eyes at the base. Eye tubercle unarmed, but granulate. Entire dorsum roughly granulate, but without any armature. Venter and coxæ roughly granulate. Third coxa with marginal teeth on the anterior and posterior margins. Spiracles not visible.

Legs: Clothed throughout with scattered hairs, which are more numerous on the tarsi. Legs without tuberculations. Metatarsi of legs divided into a long astragulus and a short calcaneus. Tarsal segments: 3–6–5–6. Distitarsus of first tarsus with 2 segments, of second 3 segments. The fourth tarsus has 6 segments rather than 5 as was stated in the original description. One specimen of the many studied had only 5 segments in the second tarsus; the remaining tarsi had the same number as those of the holotype.

Palpus: Trochanter 0.2 mm. long, femur 0.4, patella 0.4, tibia 0.4, and tarsus 0.3. Total length, 1.7 mm. Palpus armed retrolaterally as in Figure 9. Prolaterally the femur has two apical median spines, one of which is larger. The patella has one spine in the medial portion and one in the apical. The tibia has three spines, and the tarsus is armed as on the retrolateral side. Dorsal surface of femur with heavy granulations.

Chelicera normal, clothed throughout with scattered hairs.

Entire body including palpus reddish brown. Free tergites with darker shadings. Eyes black, contrasting. Appendages yellowish, lighter than the dorsum.

MALE: Total length of body, 2.4 mm. Cephalothorax, 0.8 mm. Width of body at widest portion, 1.8 mm.

Male similar in appearance to the female; however each maxillary lobe of the second coxa has a rounded ventral projection.

RECORDS: Washington County, Arkansas, October 6 and 11, 1939, and October 3 and 21, 1941 (Miller and Sanderson). Centreville, Wilkinson County, Mississippi, July, 1944 (A. F. Archer).

Suborder Palpatores Thorell
Tribe Dyspnoi Hansen and Soerensen
Nemastomatidæ Simon

Nemastoma pallidimaculosa new species
(Figs. 1 and 2)

MALE: Total length of body, 1.4 mm. Cephalothorax, 0.4 mm. Width of body at widest portion, 0.8 mm.

	I	II	III	IV
Trochanter	0.2 mm.	0.2 mm.	0.2 mm.	0.2 mm.
Femur	0.9	1.4	0.9	1.3
Patella	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Tibia	1.0	1.8	1.0	1.4
Metatarsus	1.4	3.0	1.7	2.5
Tarsus	1.1	2.2	1.1	1.5
Total	4.9 mm.	8.9 mm.	5.2 mm.	7.2 mm.

Body elongate, eye tubercle low, rounded, near the anterior margin of the cephalothorax. The male holotype has colorless eyes at the base. The two paratypes lack all traces of eyes. Dorsal scute, including the eye tubercle and cephalothorax, covered with small round granulations. Free tergites also covered with these small granulations except for the membranes which separate them. A row of irregularly shaped light splotches along the lateral margins and the posterior margin of the dorsal scute; these splotches are without granulations, and extend onto the cephalothorax and up to the eye tubercle. Free sternites, venter, and coxæ thickly covered with the same type of granulations. First to fourth coxæ with teeth on the anterior and posterior margins. Spiracle very conspicuous.

Legs: Trochanters granulate, remainder of legs smooth, with a few long scattered hairs on all segments and numerous small, closely adhered hairs on the tibiæ, metatarsi, and tarsi. All femora with a basal false articulation. Tarsal segments: 8–13–7–7.

Palpus: Trochanter 0.4 mm. long, femur 1.0, patella 0.9, tibia 1.0, and tarsus 0.4. Total length, 3.7 mm. Palpus very long and slender. All segments clothed with long hairs which extend at right angles to the segment. These hairs are more numerous on the tibia and tarsus.

Cheliceræ: clothed with scattered hairs. A dorsal median enlargement on the proximal portion of the second segment.

Entire body brown, with granulations a darker brown. Lateral portion of the body and membranes between the free tergites lighter. The row of spots on the abdominal scute lighter and somewhat shiny. Appendages lighter. Tips of cheliceral claws dark.

FEMALE: Total length of body, 1.6 mm. Cephalothorax, 0.3 mm. Width of body at widest portion, 0.9 mm.

Similar in appearance to the male, but lacking the enlargement of the chelicera.

Type locality: Male holotype and female paratypes from Rock House Cave, 1 mile south of Oleander, Marshall County, Alabama, June 23, 1942 (W. B. Jones).

This species differs from *Nemastoma inops* Packard in the conspicuous lateral spots and in the granulation of the body.

Ischropsalidæ Simon

Taracus malkini, new species

(Figs. 4, 5, and 6)

FEMALE: Total length of body, 2.0 mm. Cephalothorax, 1.5 mm. Width of body at widest portion, 3.2 mm.

	I	II	III	IV
Trochanter	0.3 mm.	0.3 mm.	0.4 mm.	0.4 mm.
Femur	1.4	1.2	1.3	1.6
Patella	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.7
Tibia	1.1	1.8	1.2	1.5
Metatarsus	1.5	2.3	1.7	2.2
Tarsus	1.3	2.1	1.4	1.8
Total	6.2 mm.	8.4 mm.	6.6 mm.	8.2 mm.

Cephalothorax smooth except for some extremely fine granulations. Eye tubercle large, not canaliculate, a row of spine-tipped tubercles over each eye. Just posterior to the eye tubercle is the characteristic spine. It has an enlarged base, and is situated on a slight elevation. It is directed forward. Laterad to the spine, on both sides, is a row of several spine-tipped tubercles. On the last segment of the cephalothorax is a complete transverse row of the same type of tubercles. Abdomen smooth except for numerous tubercles which are scattered irregularly over the surface. There is variation in the size of these tubercles, and little regularity of arrangement. Most, but not all of the tubercles, are tipped with a small spine-like hair. These hairs are curved and directed caudad. Venter, coxæ, and genital operculum thickly covered with long black spine-like hairs. These spines are situated on very small tubercles. Spiracles visible. Maxillary lobe of second coxa club-shaped and thickly covered with spine-like hairs.

Legs: Trochanters with scattered spine-bearing tubercles which are similar to those on the coxæ. All segments of the legs with numerous small hairs which are closely applied to the surface. In addition there are the same spines on all segments but the tarsi. These hair-like spines are somewhat arranged in rows. All femora with a basal false articulation. Metatarsi with false articulations. Tarsal segments: 11–16–11–13.

Palpus: Trochanter 0.4 mm. long, femur 1.5, patella 1.1, tibia 0.9, and tarsus 0.4. Total length, 4.3 mm. Palpus elongate. Femur, patella, and trochanter with numerous spine-like hairs on small tubercles. Tibia and tarsus thickly covered with hairs which extend at right angles to the segment.

Chelicera: Length of proximal segment 1.7 mm. Length of distal segment 2.4 mm. Length of movable claw 0.9 mm. Proximal segment with heavy spines which are arranged in rows. Distal segment with somewhat less heavy spines. All these spines are hair-tipped. Cheliceral claw armed as in Figure 5.

Cephalothorax brown. Eye tubercle brown except for a black ring around the eye. Spine pale. Abdomen grey with irregular light patches. Spines on the tubercles black. Legs brown, palpi brown, darker distally. Chelicera dark brown to black.

Type locality: Female holotype from Manzanita Lake, Lassen National Park, elevation 5800 feet, California, October 1, 1944 (B. Malkin).

This species is related to *T. silvestrii* Roewer, differing by having the tubercles arranged irregularly on the abdomen and by having 5 or more tubercles over each eye instead of 3 as in *T. silvestrii.*

Tribe Eupnoi Hansen and Soerensen

Phalangiidæ Simon

Leiobuninæ Banks

Leiobunum gordoni, new species

(Fig. 3)

Female: Total length of body, 5.0 mm. Cephalothorax, 1.8 mm. Width of body at widest portion, 2.7 mm. Length of femora: I, 9.1 mm.; II, 16.5 mm.; III, 8.5 mm.; IV, 12.6 mm.

Dorsum finely granulate. Eye tubercle in the central portion of the cephalothorax, canaliculate, with a row of spinules over each carina. Anterior margin of the cephalothorax smooth. Supracheliceral lamella in the form of an expanded plate. Abdomen subtruncate as seen from above, not strongly arched. Venter and genital operculum clothed with scattered hairs; genital operculum and coxæ with small tuberculations. Genital operculum margined with low teeth. Lateral teeth present on the anterior and posterior margins of coxæ I and IV, those on the posterior margin of coxa I very small; and on the anterior margins only of coxæ II and III.

Legs: Trochanters, femora, patellæ, and basal portion of tibiæ with small black spines which are more or less arranged in rows. Remaining segments with a few scattered hairs placed at right angles to the segments and with many small investing hairs.

Palpus: Trochanter 0.5 mm. long, femur 0.8, patella 0.4, tibia 0.6, and tarsus 1.2. Total length, 3.5 mm. Femur elevated only slightly above the cephalothorax, armed ventrally with small spines. Patella and tibia with small scattered spines, tibia and tarsus clothed with hairs, palpal claw small and toothed.

Dorsum yellowish, eye tubercle black (lighter in some specimens); base of tubercle forming the apex of a triangle which broadens and is continuous with the median dorsal stripe of the abdomen. Lateral portions of cephalothorax bordered with dark brown. Abdominal scute with a dark median stripe which terminates at the posterior margin of the fifth segment. Second, third and fourth abdominal segments indicated by brownish stripes which begin at the median stripe and terminate at the lateral margins. These have light spots on them. Other segments indicated by brownish stripes without the lighter spots. Venter, and coxæ slightly lighter than the dorsum. Palpus light yellowish, distal portion of femur and proximal portion of patella dark brown. Chelicera light. Legs: trochanters and bases of femora dark, contrasting with the coxæ, remainder of legs lighter brown; patellæ darker. All legs ringed with white at the distal portions of all femora and tibiæ. These white rings are preceded by darker rings.

MALE: Total length of body, 3.4 mm. Cephalothorax, 1.3 mm. Width of body at widest portion, 2.5 mm. Length of femora: I, 10.1 mm.; II, ?; III, 9.3 mm.; IV, 12.0 mm.

Similar in appearance to the female. Dorsal stripe less distinct. Penis alate. The white rings of the tibiæ are proceeded by dark brown rings, those of the femora are not. Remainder of legs yellowish orange, darker on the distal segments, but much lighter than the legs of the female.

Type locality: Female holotype from Haleyville, Alabama, July 17, 1943 (D. Sparkman). Paratypes from Ranken, Missouri, June 29, 1941 (W. M. Gordon) and from Giant City State Park, Illinois, July 5, 1944 (Sanderson and Leighton).

This species is closely related to *L. relictum* Davis differing by having contrasting trochanters and by the male having an alate penis.

Roewer in "Die Weberknechte der Erde" has described an animal under the name of *Leiobunum nigropalpi* which appears to have many characters in common with this. The true *L. nigropalpi*, as described by Wood however, has no white annulations on the legs and has a completely black palpus.

PHALANGIDA

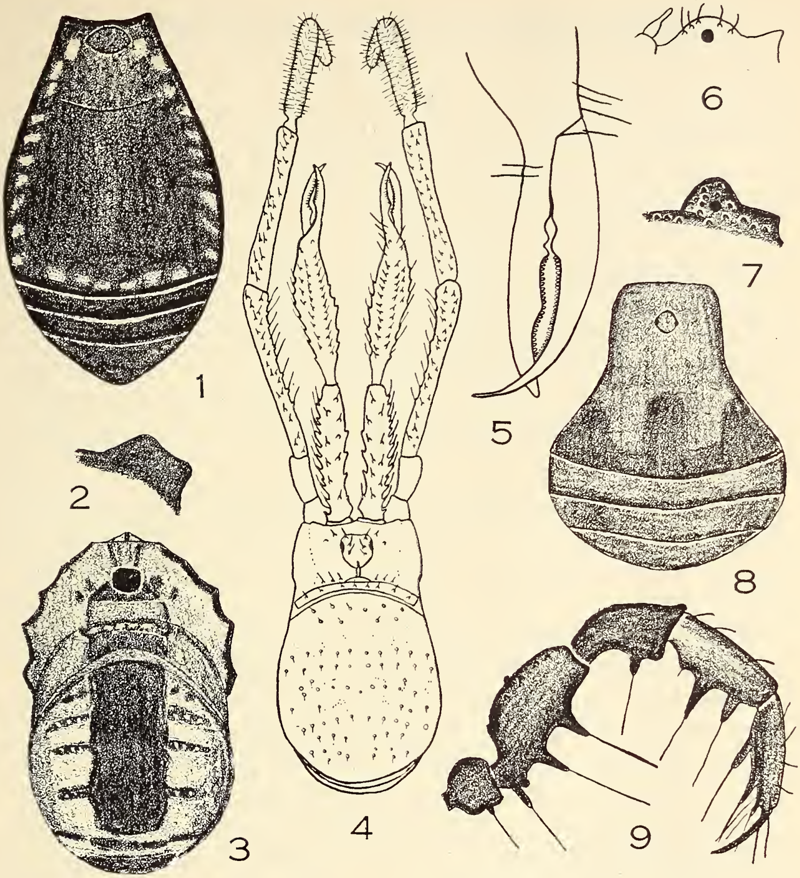

PLATE II

Figure 1. *Nemastoma pallidimaculosa,* new species, dorsal view of male holotype.
Figure 2. Idem, lateral view of eye tubercle of male holotype.
Figure 3. *Leiobunum gordoni,* new species, dorsal view of female holotype.
Figure 4. *Taracus malkini,* new species, dorsal view of female holotype.
Figure 5. Idem, ventral view of cheliceral claw of female holotype.
Figure 6. Idem, lateral view of eye tubercle of female holotype.
Figure 7. *Wespus arkansasensis* Goodnight and Goodnight, lateral view of eye tubercle of female.
Figure 8. Idem, dorsal view of female.
Figure 9. Idem, retrolateral view of palpus of female.

ANCIENT REMEDIES INVOLVING INSECTS

The ''Natural History of Pliny'' abounds with misinformation that was once accepted as fact and some of it refers to insects. For example, a person who carried about with him the beak of the woodpecker of Mars was never injured by bees, wasps and hornets. For the bite of a mad dog, one remedy consisted in attaching to the body of the patient a maggot taken from the carcass of a dead dog. When the hair was lost, it could be made to grow again by the application of a mixture of mouse dung and the heads of flies, applied fresh, the part first being rubbed with a fig leaf. Other remedies for baldness consisted of applications of the blood of flies, or of the ashes of burnt flies. In one case the ashes of burnt flies kneaded with woman's milk and cabbage was recommended.

For the bites of all spiders the best remedy was a cock's brains taken in oxycrate with a little pepper. Five ants swallowed in drink was also effective as well as spiders of any kind left to putrefy in oil.

Nits were destroyed by using dogs' fat or by eating serpents cooked like eels. Cantharides were supposed to be produced from small grubs found particularly in the spongy galls on the stems of the ''dog-rose.'' In order to utilize them, they were put in a small earthen pot, which was covered over with a linen cloth, on which was placed a layer of full-blown roses. The pot was then suspended over vinegar boiled with salt, until the steam penetrated the cloth and stifled them. They they were put aside for later use.—H. B. W.

CHECK-LIST OF AFRICAN PSYCHODIDÆ*

By William F. Rapp, Jr., and Janet L. Cooper

This check-list of African Psychodidæ is presented to aid entomologists in working with African specimens.

The genus Flebotomus has been studied by several workers as some species are carriers of tropical diseases. There are two notable papers dealing with African species of the genus: one by Theodor[1] giving descriptions and keys and one by Sinton[2] dealing with the distribution. Both these papers were written in the early 1930's; it should be remembered that much work has been done since then.

Since none of the other genera is of medical importance, no particular attention has been paid to them. A great deal of systematic collecting must be done before we can obtain a complete picture of the species and distribution of African Psychodidæ.

The area covered in this check-list includes all Africa, Madagascar, all islands in the Indian Ocean north to the Seychelles and the Cape Verde Islands in the Atlantic Ocean.

BRUCHOMYIA Alexander

edwardsi Tonnoir, Ruwenzori Exp. 1934–35, Vol. 1, p. 38.
Uganda.

BRUNETTIA Tonnoir

albonotata Brunetti (*Psychoda indica* Eaton), Ruwenzori Exp. 1934–35, Vol. 1, p. 76.
Uganda, Seychelles.

gloriosa Tonnoir, Ruwenzori Exp. 1934–35, Vol. 1, p. 73.
Uganda.

grahami Tonnoir, Rev. zool. afric., Vol. 8, p. 143.
Gold Coast.

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* Third contribution to a Check-List of the Psychodidæ of the World.

[1] Theodor, O., "On African Sandflies (Dipt.)," Bull. Ent. Res., Vol. 22 (1931), p. 469–478.

[2] Sinton, J. A., "Some New Species and Records of Phlebotomus from Africa," Ind. Jour. of Med. Res., Vol. 18 (1930–31), p. 171–193.

obscura Tonnoir, Ruwenzori Exp. 1934–35, Vol. 1, p. 77.
Uganda.
pectinata Tonnoir, Bull. Soc. Ent. Egypt, 1921, p. 107.
South Nigeria.
splendens Tonnoir, Rev. zool. afric., Vol. 8, p. 140.
Gold Coast, Uganda.

CLYTOCERUS Eaton

africanus Tonnoir, Rev. zool. afric., Vol. 8, p. 137.
Nigeria.
carbonarius Tonnoir, Ruwenzori Exp. 1934–35, Vol. 1, p. 62.
Uganda.
fasciatus Tonnoir, Ruwenzori Exp. 1934–35, Vol. 1, p. 59.
Uganda.

FLEBOTOMUS Rondani

adleri Theodor, Bull. Ent. Res., Vol. 24, p. 543.
Gold Coast.
affinis Theodor, Bull. Ent. Res., Vol. 24, p. 545.
Sudan.
africanus Newstead, Bull. Ent. Res., Vol. 3, p. 361.
Algeria, Tunisia, Morocco, Senegal, Gold Coast, Ivory Coast, Chad Territory, Northern Nigeria, Southern Nigeria, Belgian Congo, Anglo-Egyptian Sudan, Northern Rhodesia, Nyasaland, East Africa, Portuguese East Africa, Tanganyika Territory, Transvaal, Mauritius.
africanus var. *cherifianus* Ristorcelli, Ann. Parasit. hum. comp., Vol. 17, p. 364.
Morocco.
africanus var. *congolensis* Bequaert and Walravens, Rev. Zool. Bot. afr., Vol. 19, p. 38.
Tanganyika (East Africa).
africanus var. *longior* Parrot, Arch. Inst. Pasteur Algerie, Vol. 14, p. 40.
Ethiopia.
africanus var. *magnus* Sinton, Ind. Jour. Med. Res., Vol. 20, p. 571.
South Africa.

africanus var. *niger* Parrot and Schwetz, Rev. Zool. Bot. afr., Vol. 29, p. 226.
Belgian Congo.

africanus var. *sudanicus* Theodor, Bull. Ent. Res., Vol. 24, p. 541.
Sudan.

antennatus Newstead, Bull. Ent. Res., Vol. 3 (1912), p. 365.
Gold Coast.

bedfordi Newstead, Bull. Ent. Res., Vol. 5, p. 179.
Transvaal.

brodeni Parrot, Rev. Zool. Bot. afr., Vol. 19, p. 185.
Belgian Congo.

buxtoni Theodor, Bull. Ent. Res., Vol. 24, p. 544.
Gold Coast.

congolensis var. *distinctus* Theodor, Bull. Ent. Res., Vol. 24, p. 542.
Gold Coast, Sudan.

decipiens Theodor (*Flebotomus simillimus* Adler, Theodor, Parrot), Bull. Ent. Res., Vol. 22, p. 473.
East Africa.

duboscqui Neveu-Lemaire, Bull. Soc. Zool. de France, Vol. 31 (1906), p. 65.
French Sudan, Mauretania, Chad Territory, Ashanti, Southern Nigeria, Sierra Leone.

dureni Parrot, Rev. Zool. Bot. afr., Vol. 24, p. 266.
Belgian Congo.

fallax Parrot, Arch. Inst. Pasteur Afrique de Nord, Vol. 1, p. 99.
Algeria, Tunisia.

freetownensis Sinton, Ind. Jour. Med. Res., Vol. 18, p. 188.
Sierra Leone.

gigas Parrot and Schwetz, Rev. Zool. Bot. afr., Vol. 29, p. 224.
Belgian Congo.

ingrami Newstead, Bull. Ent. Res., Vol. 5, p. 179.
Ivory Coast, Northern Ashanti, Uganda.

legeri Mansion, Bull. Soc. Path. exot., Vol. 6. p. 640.
Bastia.

longipes Parrot and Martin, Arch. Inst. Pasteur Algerie, Vol. 17, p. 143.
Abyssinia.

katangensis Bequaert and Walravens, Rev. Zool. Bot. afr., Vol. 19, p. 35.
East Africa.

langeroni Nitzulescu, Ann. Parasit., Vol. 8, p. 547.
Tunis.

langeroni var. *longicuspis* Nitzulescu, Ann. Parasit., Vol. 8, p. 551.
Tunis.

langeroni var. *orientalis* Parrot, Arch. Inst. Pasteur Algerie, Vol. 14, p. 30.
Ethiopia.

major var. *perniciosus* Newstead, Bull. Ent. Res., Vol. 2 (1911), p. 204.
Algeria, Tunisia, Morocco, Spanish Guinea.

martini Parrot, Arch. Inst. Pasteur Algerie, Vol. 14, p. 35.
Ethiopia.

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EARLY ENTOMOLOGICAL MANUSCRIPTS

After the death of Dr. George H. Horn, the Academy of Natural Sciences of Philadelphia acquired his library, which included Dr. Christian Zimmerman's note book or diary. A copy of this diary is also in the library of the Museum of Comparative Zoology, and at one time, the late Dr. W. H. Wheeler contemplated translating it from the German and preparing it for publication. It is my opinion that this should be done for the sake of future students of the history of American entomology.

Another set of manuscript notes and entomological drawings that should be made available to students are those of Jacob Cist, an early entomologist who corresponded with Thomas Say and who lived in Wilkes Barre, Pa. These notes and drawings are in the possession of Mr. Gilbert S. McClintock, of Wilkes Barre. Mr. Cist was a versatile person of much skill and inventiveness, and it is hoped that some day more information will be available about his entomological activities.—H. B. W.

A PEDICEL GALL ON TRICHOSTEMA

By James G. Needham

There is a little mint flower that grows on Longboat Key opposite Sarasota, Florida. It is a bushy species of *Trichostema* of boot-top height. It branches from the base and forms a rounded heap of rather dense evergreen foliage, above which it rears a few tall leafless open panicles of inflorescence. In the slender terminal pedicels of these panicles I found specimens of the little woody gall that is the subject of this paper. The moth that causes the gall is a slender black and white lavernid kindly determined for me by Dr. W. T. M. Forbes as *Mompha sexnotella* Chambers.

The plant is *Trichostema suffrutescens.* It grows in the outer edges of rounded tussocks of grass, sharing this situation with the much commoner horse-mint, *Monarda dispersa.* Between the tussocks are areas of bare soil; a hard and sterile soil, composed of marine shells washed up by the waves from the Gulf of Mexico, and in all stages of disintegration. The narrow strips of this peculiar meadow lie behind an aggrading storm-wave reef. Here and there in them are patches of white wind-blown sand, partly covered by the soft green mats of a lupine, *Lupinus diffusus.* Wherever the soil has been disturbed (as around the burrows of gopher turtles) the low sunflower, *Helianthus debilis,* spreads its halberd-shaped leaves and procumbent branches. It blooms there gloriously in January.

I found the galls there on January 5 at the end of the flowering season. The massed foliage was fresh and green and scented with a delicate fragrance, less pungent than that of the horse-mint. The fruiting panicles at the top were bare and brown, each terminal twig bearing the persistent strongly bilabiate calyx. In some of the calyces there still nestled four, whitish, pock-marked seeds.

Here and there was a terminal twig that had been made over into an ocarina-shaped gall of about the size of a peanut. A few of the galls were still green with a wash of reddish color on the side exposed to the sun; their thicker tissues had dried up more slowly than the rest of the panicle. Most of them were brown, some of the older ones were black. Their size made them easy to find among the slender twigs.

The gall is short-spindle-shaped, 15 to 20 millimeters long, 5 to 8 wide, smoothly contoured and slightly inequilateral. Its walls are woody, thick and very hard. The entire gall involves two internodes of the twig, and the node between the two lies near the distal end of it at a place that is marked by the vestiges of what would normally be a pair of opposite branchlets. There is a little low protuberance on one side near the base—a predetermined point at which the exit door will be made for the emergence of the adult insect.

The cavity of the gall lies mainly in the lower internode. It is oval and wide, loose-fitting for the caterpillar, and it tapers upward to a narrowing tube in the distal internode which serves the occupant for a frass receptacle.

Inside the woody layer of the wall there is another hard and very brittle layer whose components I was unable to determine. It occupies the position of the layer of nutritive tissue that feeds the larva during its development; but in the old galls, containing only full-fed larvæ, this layer is nearly as hard and as thick as the wood, and much more brittle. At first I found it difficult to get a larva out uninjured; for the gall cannot be split and pried open without crushing this inner hard layer. I found it possible by sticking a knife point through the softer distal end of the gall, where the frass receptacle is, and breaking off that portion, then putting the knife point inside the hole thus laid open and pushing outward, so chipping the remaining wall away in pieces, the larva could be uncovered and withdrawn uninjured. In this process the cylindrical, brittle layer would sometimes remain intact, entirely freed from the wood. Perhaps some frass enters into the composition of the brittle layer; for the frass in the over-filled receptacle seems to be continued down the widening sides of the gall under a thin transparent layer of silk.

In cutting open a score or more of galls I found some of them empty, the exit hole open, and the empty abandoned pupal skin of the moth left lying inside. Most of the galls contained fat larvæ, nestled down where the gall narrows to the exit door with only a thin pellicle of epidermis closing the door. One gall had a young and active larva still engaged in clearing the exit passage way, the silk lining of the gall completed only in its upper half.

Notwithstanding hard walls for its protection, the gallmaker has enemies that find it. Two of the galls first examined contained adult braconid parasites; adults apparently about ready for emergence. They had eaten the moth larva and then they had spun their own slender cocoons obliquely across the gall cavity. The empty skins of the caterpillars lay beside the cocoons of the parasites. The braconids had bored their own holes for exit; round holes about half as large as the moths would require, situated near the middle of the gall. They made no use of the moth's easier way out at the lower end of the gall. Twelve more of these braconids emerged later from galls that I had placed in the rearing cages. The adults were sent to Dr. C. F. W. Muesebeck for determination. He reports that they represent an undescribed species of the braconid genus *Heterospilus.* The specimens are now in the United States National Museum.

The moth larvæ also have larger enemies. I found about a dozen of the galls had been gnawed open apparently by the teeth of rodents; possibly by cotton rats. Mr. William Hegener was catching these animals in traps in this same strip of shoreland meadow.

The emergence of the adult moths was slow and irregular. From galls collected on January 5, the first moth came out on the last day of the month; and others came out at long intervals for two months thereafter.

The living adult is a delight to the eye: a slender resplendent mothlet, ringed and spotted with black and white in perfect camouflage; its long wings shedding bronze and coppery reflections, and on the middorsal line, where fore wings meet and cover the feathery edgings of the hind wings, tufts of elevated scales rise in three little rounded heaps that shine like globules of quicksilver.

A NEW NAME FOR PERICOMA UNICOLOR ABREU

BY WILLIAM F. RAPP, JR.

Recently while working on a check-list of Psychodidæ of the world I found that Dr. D. Elias Santos Abreu had made a homonym of *Pericoma unicolor* (Men. Acad. Cie. y Artes, Barcelona, Vol. 22 (1930), p. 98). Brunetti in the "Record of the Indian Museum," Vol. 4 (1911), p. 309 described *Pericoma unicolor* from India. Therefore, I have attempted to contact Doctor Abreu and bring this matter to his attention, but was unsuccessful. I propose the name *Pericoma abreui* nom. nov. for *Pericoma unicolor*. The type locality is Canary Island.

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ON THE OCCURRENCE OF IMPATERNATE FEMALES IN THE FORMICIDÆ

By Caryl P. Haskins and Ernst V. Enzmann

INTRODUCTION

The phenomenon of parthenogenesis in the Hymenoptera has excited the continuing interest of entomologists for a relatively long period. The studies of Dzierzon (1845) on the honeybee belong to a rather early era of entomological thinking, and his classic "rule" paved the way for much later work. The conclusion of Dzierzon that arrhenotocous parthenogenesis is the invariable rule in the honeybee has been confirmed many times, although it has been questioned by other workers. The fact that males may be totally absent among certain of the lower Hymenoptera, so that infertile ova must of necessity develop into females, was observed by Foerster (1856) as early as 1850 in the eulophid *Astichus arithmeticus.* The phenomenon has since been found to be of common occurrence among the Tenthredinidæ and other sawflies, and to be widespread in the Terebrantia. Ampherotocous parthenogenesis is also common among the Phytophaga and the Terebrantia.

The fact that, while males are usually of haploid constitution, females, whether produced uniparentally or biparentally, are diploid is as well established among the lower as among the higher Hymenoptera.[1] It follows that among species in which

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[1] The exceptional diploid males of *Habrobracon* observed by the Whitings and their colleagues (1940; 1941) have been found to arise only among closely inbred stocks, consistently with the hypothesis that heterozygosity

ampherotocous or thelytocous parthenogenesis occurs, diploid as well as haploid ova must be produced. This situation has been analyzed for the Terebrant genus *Habrobracon,* where it is known that diploid ova are produced which develop into females. Whiting (1928) and Speicher (1934) first accounted for the condition as the result of an abnormal second division of the oocyte, or its complete suppression, but Speicher and Speicher (1938) have more recently concluded that such diploid, female-producing eggs arise from patches of tetraploid ovarian tissue.

The occurrence of uniparental females is such a common phenomenon among the lower Hymenoptera that it is natural to question whether the conclusion of Dzierzon for the honeybee is universally applicable among the higher Aculeates. Numerous apparent exceptions to Dzierzon's rule have been reported among the social Hymenoptera. Many of these have been subjected to doubt, however, because of the greater difficulty of thoroughly controlling experiments to prove the point among the social Aculeates. Thus Onions (1912) and Jack (1917) reported the production of workers and even queens from worker ova in *Apis mellifica.* More recently Mackensen (1943), working with virgin females of the honeybee, has found indication that uniparental females may be regularly produced, although only to the extent of about one per cent of the normal brood. The evidence of Descy on *Osmia* (1924), of Stöckhert on *Halictus* (1923), and of many observers on *Bombus* and *Apis,* however, has been entirely negative.

The case among ants is even less clear and more controversial, and although the production of impaternate queens or workers was frequently claimed in the early years of this century, recent workers have been more skeptical. Thus Tanner (1892) reported the production in the artificial nest of adults of both sexes and all castes from eggs of workers of *Atta cephalotes.* Reichenbach (1902), in a series of observations extending over three years, described the consistent production of workers as well as males in a colony of *Lasius niger* containing originally

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of alleles at the sex locus rather than the mere fact of diploidy is the determining factor of femaleness, and homozygosity rather than haploidy of maleness. The production of males from fertilized eggs in the Chalcidid genus *Copidosoma,* reported by Leiby (1922) is however less clear.

only workers. This claim was later substantiated by Crawley (1912) for the same insect. Comstock (1903) similarly observed the maturation of workers from worker eggs in *L. niger americanus.* Wheeler (1903) has presented a fairly extensive review of the cases of uniparental females recorded for ants in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. On the other hand Forel (1874), Lubbock (1888), Fielde (1901), Janet (1909), and Tanquary (1913), whose collective observations were both extensive and carefully controlled, reported entirely negative results.

It is to be remembered that this early work was undertaken without a knowledge of certain pertinent factors in the colonial economy of the Formicidæ which are much better understood today. It was realized that eggs of worker origin may constitute a considerable proportion of the total number of ova produced and reared to maturity in normal ant colonies containing one or more queens. It was not recognized, however, that fecundation of workers—as well as of young infertile queens—may frequently take place within the parent nest in advance of any mating flight, and that worker ants are often capable of such fertilization. Miss Fielde, to be sure, took adequate precautions in her work to eliminate this possibility. It is much less certain that this source of error was positively eliminated in the case of other observers, including many of those reporting the occurrence of impaternate females.

Recently Goetsch (1937), in a very extensive study involving six species of the leaf-cutting Myrmicine genus *Acromyrmex* and three of *Atta,* as well as representatives of the genera *Pheidole, Solenopsis, Camponòtus,* and *Lasius,* has concluded that uniparental ova among ants produce only males, and Goetsch and Käthner (1937) report a similar conclusion from a study of progeny of virgin females of *Lasius.* These authors have also reviewed the reported cases of uniparental females among ants and have decided rather definitely that all are spurious, being accountable in many cases by intranidal fertilization of "virgin" queens or workers unknown to the experimenter.

In view of the wide divergence in the reports of different observers and because of the common occurrence of impaternate females among the lower Hymenoptera, it would seem desirable that additional experimental data should be secured before the final conclusion is reached that only arrhenotocous parthenogenesis occurs among the Formicidæ. The present program was undertaken in an effort to secure a certain amount of such data. The results reported are preliminary and include relatively few cases. Nevertheless, they seem sufficiently suggestive to publish at the present time.

EXPERIMENTAL CONSIDERATIONS, MATERIAL, AND PROCEDURES

Experiments designed to test the occurrence of thelytocous or ampherotocous parthenogenesis among ants must satisfy a number of requirements, some of which are inherent in any careful work with the Formicidæ. Optimum conditions of the normal environment with respect to physical features of the nesting situation, temperature, humidity, and food supply must be duplicated as closely as possible. These are often complex and specialized. Colony fragments should be made as small as is consistent with approximately normal social behavior, and the observation of isolated individuals is a great desideratum whenever possible. Both colonies and isolated individuals should be thoroughly habituated to the experimental situation before work is begun. Rigid precautions should of course be taken against the accidental insemination of infertile females or workers within the nest. Full controls should be kept and the data recorded should be extensive enough to permit of adequate statistical treatment. A considerable effort was made to meet all these requirements except the last one in the work here reported.

Two species of the temperate-zone Myrmicine genus *Aphænogaster* Mayr were selected for this work, *Aphænogaster fulva aquia* and its variety *picea* and *A. lamellidens.* The first species is a soil-nesting type by preference, is extremely widespread and abundant in distribution in the northeastern and Atlantic states, and occurs in small to medium-sized colonies. *Aphænogaster lamellidens* usually nests in decayed logs, in colonies which at maturity are somewhat more populous on average than those of *A. fulva.* It is somewhat more restricted in distribution, but is abundant throughout its range. Queens of both species normally found their colonies in the independent claustral fashion characteristic of most higher ants.

Ants of these species present several advantages as experimental animals. Typically they nest in deeply shaded situations in woodlands, where the variations of temperature from day to night and from superficial to deeper layers of soil or wood are relatively small during the breeding season. This simplifies the problem of approximating the temperature conditions of the normal environment very considerably. The species are of both entomophagous and sweet-feeding habits, and these generalized alimentary requirements can be fairly accurately met under artificial conditions. Both ants are unusually tolerant of a wide range of humidity. The workers of both species are relatively unspecialized in social function, so that it is more practicable to work with small colony fragments or even with isolated workers than is the case with many ants. Workers are usually readily fertile. The pupæ of *Aphœnogaster,* like those of all Myrmicines, are naked, and unlike the pupæ of higher groups which are enclosed in cocoons, are able to emerge without assistance. It is thus possible to rear workers or virgin queens which as adults have had contact with no other ant. Unlike the condition in *Lasius* described by Goetsch and Käthner, fertilization is not necessary to evoke the normal instincts of colony foundation in young queens of *Aphœnogaster.* The entire behavior train involved in colony foundation can be initiated in virgin queens merely by artificial dealation at maturity. Not infrequently such females spontaneously dealate themselves if confined in the artificial nest in the absence of males beyond their normal period of flight. This situation permits the ready study of single individuals at a period in the life of the colony when, as Light (1943) and others have pointed out, it is at its hardiest as well as its socially simplest stage.

The colonies under investigation were housed in earth-containing nests of a modified Lubbock type, six by eight inches square and just sufficiently deep to allow freedom of movement to the largest members of the colony. The nests were stored in wooden cabinet drawers seven by eleven inches in inside dimensions and one and one-quarter inches deep, which were covered with tightly-fitting glass panes. The upper surfaces of the nests were protected with sheets of ruby glass except when the colonies were under observation. Each mature colony occupied a separate drawer and the nest-entrances were kept open so that workers had the opportunity to forage freely at all times within the confines of the drawers. Small colony fragments, isolated workers, and queens in the process of colony formation were housed in similar nests but were not permitted to forage. Mature colonies, colony fragments, and isolated workers were continuously supplied with a diet of strained honey and chopped mealworms. Isolated females were fed chopped mealworms from the time of their isolation but were given no other food. The inclusion of earth in the nests allowed a much closer approximation to natural conditions in the physical environment than would otherwise have been possible. Nearly all colonies of *A. picea* maintained an earthen crater of the ragged, scattered form characteristic of the species outside the nest entrance. It also greatly facilitated the continuous maintenance of conditions of normal humidity. Much attention was given to this factor. No temperature regulation of the nests was attempted. They were maintained at outdoor ambient temperature during the summer and at the temperature of a heated room, averaging 21° C., during the winter. No effort was made to hibernate the colonies. This was the experimental condition which deviated most widely from the normal, but it was not possible to detect significant abnormalities of behavior or development in colonies maintained for three or four years under these conditions beyond an accelerated growth of the larvæ during the winter and the production of sexual forms indifferently around the calendar rather than at sharply circumscribed seasons.

The results presented were obtained with young virgin females in the isolated condition and with colony fragments composed of virgin queens and workers of their own colonies. Experiments with fragments of queenless colonies and with isolated workers are in progress but are not reported here.

DATA

In the first set of experiments 100 virgin females were dealated either spontaneously or artificially, were isolated, and were kept under continuous observation as they attempted to found colonies. They were divided into three groups on the basis of previous history: those which had been reared from the egg in old colonies kept in the artificial nest for several years, those which had been obtained as brood from wild colonies and hatched under observation, and those obtained from wild colonies as young winged adults. It was possible to be certain that individuals of the first two groups had had no contact with males throughout their development. It was possible that females of the third class had been fertilized within the nest prior to capture.

Colony foundation by virgin queens of *Aphænogaster* appears to be difficult and protracted under the best conditions which can be provided artificially. Only eighteen of the first group of individuals succeeded. The remainder either rested quiescent and without brood until the termination of the experiment or perished at ages of from six months to something over a year. This is partly to be accounted for by the delayed development of uniparental larvæ and a tendency of the females to destroy them before maturity. Male pupæ were also frequently destroyed as they appeared among the first brood. The period from dealation of the female to maturity of the first pupa, at continuous summer temperatures, ranged from three to nine months with the average well over six months. At the close of the experiments recorded, which ran between one and two years, the maximum number of pupæ which any infertile female had reared was five. This was in excess of the number of adults present in one colony at any time, since young males emerged continuously if permitted, and perished within the nests if confined to them. This total is to be contrasted with that of the control, consisting of a young isolated fertile female, which had reared a single young worker at the time the experiments were begun and which was given precisely the same treatment as the infertile individuals. At the close of the experiments, the colony of this control consisted of seventy-six adult workers and a numerous brood.

A detailed account of these eighteen individuals is shown in Table I.

In the second set of experiments, infertile females were returned to fragments of their own colonies after dealation instead

TABLE I

PROGENY OF ISOLATED INFERTILE FEMALES

	Parent female			Progeny		
	Designation	Species	Background	Males	Workers	Nature and fate of pupæ
1.	A1	*A. picea*	*	0	1	Perfect pupa, not seen to hatch
2.	A2	*A. picea*	*	1	0	Perfect pupa, not seen to hatch
3.	1a	*A. picea*	†	2	0	Both imperfect pupæ; destroyed by female
4.	1e	*A. picea*	†	1	0	Perfect pupa, hatched. Wings of one side imperfectly expanded
5.	Q1	*A. picea*	†	1	0	Perfect pupa, eclosed perfect adult
6.	Q2	*A. picea*	†	2	0	Both perfect pupæ, eclosed perfect adults
7.	3a	*A. picea*	†	2	0	One pupa perfect, eclosed perfect adult. Second pupa imperfect, destroyed by female
8.	3d	*A. picea*	†	2	0	One pupa apparently perfect but destroyed. Second pupa perfect
9.	4b	*A. picea*	†	1	0	Pupa apparently perfect, but destroyed
10.	4c	*A. picea*	†	2	0	Both perfect pupæ, eclosed perfect adults
11.	4e	*A. picea*	†	2	0	Both perfect pupæ, eclosed perfect adults
12.	4q	*A. picea*	†	1	0	Perfect pupa, eclosed perfect adult
13.	5d	*A. picea*	†	5	0	Four pupæ apparently perfect but destroyed. One pupa perfect, eclosed perfect adult
14.	6b	*A. picea*	†	1	1	Worker pupa perfect, eclosed perfect adult. Male pupa imperfect, destroyed by female
15.	6d	*A. picea*	†	3	0	Two pupæ apparently perfect but destroyed. One pupa perfect, eclosed perfect adult
16.	7a	*A. picea*	†	3	0	One pupa apparently perfect but destroyed. Two pupæ apparently perfect, eclosed adults with imperfectly expanded wings
17.	7c	*A. picea*	†	1	0	Perfect pupa, eclosed perfect adult
18.	7i	*A. picea*	†	3	0	Two perfect pupæ, eclosed perfect adults. One pupa apparently perfect but destroyed
Totals				32	2	

* Female produced in colony long maintained in artificial nest (reared from egg).

† Female collected from wild colony as young winged adult.

of being isolated. Permanent acceptance of such queens under artificial conditions seems difficult to bring about. Workers exhibit a strong tendency to drive such young females out or to kill them within a few weeks, and the females on their part frequently strive to leave such colony fragments to establish their own colonies. From a total of about twenty young females treated in this fashion, permanent and satisfactory adoption was secured for only four. The progeny of these females, however, was much more numerous than in the case of their isolated sisters, so that the records of numbers are larger. Young were produced in these colony fragments as indicated in Table II.

TABLE II

PROGENY FROM COLONY FRAGMENTS CONTAINING INFERTILE FEMALES

	Parent female			Progeny		
	Designation	Species	Background	Males	Workers	Nature and fate of pupæ
1.	D1	*A. lamellidens*	*	3	0	Perfect pupæ, eclosed perfect adults
2.	D2	*A. lamellidens*	*	22	0	Perfect pupæ, eclosed perfect adults
3.	D3	A. *lamellidens*	*	0	8	Perfect pupæ, eclosed perfect adults
4.	D4	*A. lamellidens*	*	0	44	Perfect pupæ, eclosed perfect adults
Totals				25	52	

* Female taken as half-grown larva in wild colony. Matured in the artificial nest.

DISCUSSION

Of a total of eighteen isolated infertile young females which successfully reared young, sixteen produced only males to the number of thirty-two in all. Two (A1, 6b) each produced a single worker. One of these subsequently produced a defective male pupa, which was destroyed prior to maturity and before it could be thoroughly examined. Of the four colony fragments containing workers and a sister infertile female which had been adopted, two (D1, D2) produced only males, to the number of 25, while two (D3, D4) produced only workers to the number of 52 at the close of the experiments. At that time D4 was still actively rearing abundant workers, and no males have ever appeared. Thus the four females designated as A1, 6b, D3, and D4 appear to have exhibited thelytocous parthenogenesis. A fuller discussion of these cases is warranted, to indicate how truly their worker progeny can be considered to have been impaternate.

A1. A1 was a young female of *A. picea,* matured with a group of 20 in a colony which had been maintained in the artificial nest since August, 1940. It accomplished a normal marriage flight (except for the absence of males and of mating) in January, 1943, and immediately thereafter was isolated. No males were recorded in the parent colony from the time it was set up in the artificial nest until January, 1944, after the parent queen had died and long after Female A1 had emerged. There seems virtually no chance, therefore, that Female A1 had been accidentally inseminated. This female had been exposed to about 2000 röntgens of x-rays at 85 kvp. as an adult between the time of its flight and its isolation in connection with another experiment. There was no external evidence throughout the life of the queen, however, that this treatment had produced any effect, unless the premature death of this female can be so considered.

A perfect worker pupa was eclosed in the brood of Female A1 three months after isolation. Several larvæ were present at the time. Unfortunately a prolonged absence from the country interrupted observations of this colony for three months after the appearance of this pupa. When observation was renewed the queen was found intact, but the young worker and all brood had disappeared. The female attempted to rear a new brood, but both queen and brood perished from unknown causes late in 1943.

6b. Female 6b was a young queen of *A. picea* which was taken as a winged mature insect from a wild colony, artificially dealated, and isolated. Three months after isolation a perfect worker pupa was produced, which hatched successfully as a first-brood worker of typically minute stature, and remained in the nest. Younger larvæ were present, which developed slowly but from which a second pupa matured nine and one-half months after the dealation of the female. This pupa was predominantly male in character, but small and defective. It was destroyed by the queen almost immediately, before further examination could be made of it. The remaining larvæ shortly perished or were destroyed.

D3. Female D3, a queen of *Aphœnogaster lamellidens,* was produced from a larva taken in a wild colony. It was matured and hatched under controlled conditions, emerged and was dealated and returned to a group of its sister-workers, by which it was accepted permanently. No males were recorded in the parent nest during its presence there, nor in the colony-fragment for the duration of the experiment. The first worker pupa appeared in a little over three months after the introduction of the young female. Seven additional workers were matured during the next two months. Thereafter the female perished and observations were discontinued.

D4. Female D4 was a sister of the preceding, and was treated in exactly the same manner. Worker pupæ were similarly matured within the colony fragment to which this queen was attached, which was composed of older sister-workers. The number of these worker pupæ mounted rapidly in numbers over the next six months. In October, 1943, six months after the parent female had been isolated with this colony fragment, which of course contained no brood at the time of its introduction, worker production ceased temporarily, with a large residue of larvæ within the nest. In June, 1944, this brood began to mature, producing only workers. These continued to be produced until late September, at which time 44 worker pupæ had been counted. It is probable that this count is low, since the colony was not anæsthetized to make it, and some were therefore probably missed.

The conclusion seems inescapable that the worker progeny of Female A1 was truly impaternate. Female 6b, since it was taken as an adult from a wild colony, might have been fecundated before capture. It would be unusual in such a case, however, if the second pupa to mature were a male, or a male-worker mosaic, which latter this pupa may conceivably have been. A sister of this ant, taken at the same time, produced only males. Several additional sisters failed altogether to raise broods.

The precautions surrounding the handling of Females D3 and D4 were such that it is extremely difficult to believe that either was accidentally fecundated. However, the young workers which came to maturity in these colony fragments could conceivably have been the progeny of workers rather than of these individuals, and since these workers had been taken as adults one or more of them might have been fecundated. Female D3 died during the rearing of the first broods, so that it was impossible to check this point. Female D4, however, survived, and after rearing the broods recorded was again isolated, this time with nine of her own worker pupæ and semipupæ, but without adults. Under these conditions it was certain that all brood produced was the progeny either of this female or of young workers known to be infertile.

Eggs were produced within four days of isolation and a larva hatched 27 days later. Eighteen days after hatching, this larva formed a semipupa, from which a perfect, though small, worker pupa was eclosed eight days later. The pupal period lasted for 15 days, and a normal worker was hatched. A second semipupa matured nine days after the first, eclosing a perfect small worker pupa 6 days later, which matured in 20 days. Five additional adults were brought to maturity after pupal periods of 12, 11, 11, 19, and 13 days respectively. All were workers of the normal form, though of smaller than normal stature. They closely resembled the usual "first-brood" workers of *A. lamellidens* in pilosity, sculpture, coloring, and stature, and all took up normal functions in the colony. There seems no doubt, therefore, either that Female D4 in fact consistently produced workers, or that they were produced by the young worker progeny of this same insect. Inasmuch as the first eggs appeared in the colony before these pupæ had completed hatching, and in view of the previous record of Female D4, it seems highly probable that these ova were at least in part derived from this insect. It should be added that, subsequent to the removal of Female D4 from the original colony fragment, eggs continued to appear, but none of these produced workers.

The experiments recorded here involve but few individuals. They are of preliminary character and are being continued on a much larger scale. Nevertheless they seem to confirm the suspicion that thelytocous parthenogenesis, so common among the Phytophaga and Terebrantia, may also occasionally occur among the Formicidæ as well as other higher Aculeates. If its occurrence is at all frequent among ants, it may have an interesting bearing upon the methods of colony formation normal to certain species, and upon other aspects of colonial economy.

These experiments may have a possibly suggestive relation to one or two questions of the general biology of ants which is worth noting in passing. The first question relates to the habit of dealation. It seems indicated that in *Aphænogaster picea,* at least, the instinct of self-dealation in the young queen may be fully expressed not only in the absence of a mating flight but in the absence of fecundation. Thus of the females listed in Table I five had spontaneously dealated themselves before isolation. None of these had gone through even the semblance of a mating flight, and all produced males. This may be suggestive in consideration of the ready self-dealation of the females of many lower ants in advance of emergence from the parent nest, and particularly with the observed ground-mating of females of *Stigmatomma pallipes* which were already dealate, though still callow (Haskins, 1928).

The second point concerns the minute stature regularly observed among first-brood workers of most ants which establish their colonies in the claustral manner. Goetsch (1937) has shown that eggs of young fertile queens when transferred to older colonies still give rise to the nanitic workers characteristic of normal first broods. It is clear that the potentialities of minute stature are therefore present in first-brood ova, but Goetsch considers this to be a function of the yolk-supply of the egg rather than a genetic factor. In *Aphænogaster picea* and *A. lamellidens* the males, though of slight stature, are considerably larger than the ordinary nanitic workers of the first brood. The males which were brought to maturity as first-brood progeny by the infertile females reported here were, with a few exceptions, of fully normal stature. These females, as already noted, had been well fed with solid proteinaceous material from the time of first isolation, and their larvæ were similarly fed. This might seem to account for the discrepancy. On the other hand, the worker daughter of Female 6b, which was treated in exactly the same fashion, was of nanitic stature, and the worker pupa of Female A1 was also minute. It would be of interest to determine how far nanism and the sex of the first progeny are really related in young females which have been abundantly supplied with food from the time that they were eclosed from pupæ throughout the history of their colony foundation. Experiments are in progress to check this point.

SUMMARY

The general question of the occurrence of parthenogenesis in the Formicidæ, and especially the problem of the production of impaternate females, is considered. The requirements which must be met in work designed to test the existence of thelytocous parthenogenesis among ants are outlined and a program of this sort, at present in its early stages, is described. Preliminary data are presented which are suggestive of the production of *bona fide* impaternate workers in *Aphænogaster fulva picea* and *A. lamellidens.* The bearing of these results on certain general questions of the biology of ants is indicated.

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RECORDS AND DESCRIPTIONS OF NEOTROPICAL CRANE-FLIES (TIPULIDÆ, DIPTERA), XX

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The preceding part under this general title was published in March 1945 (Journal of the New York Entomological Society, 53: 49–61). The majority of the novelties here treated are from Costa Rica where they were collected by the late Pablo Schild. Such materials were contained in the extensive Melander Collection which I have been privileged to study through the kindly interest of Dr. Melander. I am further indebted for the great privilege of retaining the types of such species as are based on a single specimen. A few further species are from Panama where they were collected by Dr. C. Howard Curran and are preserved in the American Museum of Natural History. I am very indebted to Drs. Curran and Melander for much friendly co-operation in this survey of the crane-flies of Tropical America.

Genus *Teucholabis* Osten Sacken

Teucholabis (Teucholabis) circumscripta new species.

General coloration of thorax handsomely patterned with yellow, black and chestnut, the præscutum with three separate black stripes, the lateral pair crossing the suture and entirely covering the scutal lobes; postnotum entirely black; pleura black, with a yellow ventral longitudinal stripe; halteres with yellow knobs; femora obscure brownish yellow, the tips blackened; wings whitish subhyaline, characteristically patterned with brown, including a narrow border that almost encircles the wing; abdominal segments black, ringed with yellow; male hypopygium with the inner dististyle terminating in a single developed spine.

Male.—Length about 6 mm.; wing 6.2 mm.

Rostrum unusually long, subequal to or exceeding the remainder of head, black throughout; palpi black. Antennæ black; basal flagellar segments oval, the outer ones more elongate; terminal segment about two-thirds as long as the penultimate; verticils longer than the segments. Head above with a large black area that occupies much of the vertex, leaving the front and part of anterior vertex, together with the posterior portions of head paler.

Pronotum partly hidden, evidently yellow, the sides more darkened; pretergites pale yellow. Mesonotum with an unusually handsome pattern; præscutum with three black stripes, the median one broadened at cephalic end, narrowed behind and not reaching the suture; lateral stripes much wider, crossing the suture and involving all of the scutal lobes; præscutal interspaces light chestnut, the humeral and lateral portions conspicuously light yellow; central region of scutum and the scutellum conspicuously pale yellow, the extreme posterior median area of præscutum concolorous; parascutella dark brown; postnotum entirely black. Pleura conspicuously patterned; ground color black, including the dorsopleural area and the ventral sternopleurite; a yellow longitudinal stripe extending from behind the fore coxæ to the base of abdomen, more widened behind; midsternal region again light yellow. Halteres with stem blackened, knob light yellow. Legs with all coxæ and trochanters black; femora obscure brownish yellow basally, the tips conspicuously blackened, on the dilated fore femora including more than the distal third, on the posterior legs involving about the outer fourth or fifth; posterior femora with basal half infuscated, isolating a broad subterminal yellow ring; tibiæ obscure yellow, the bases and tips narrowly darkened; tarsi brownish black, posterior basitarsi narrowly dilated at proximal end and with a sensory pocket; claws simple. Wings with the ground color whitish subhyaline, conspicuously patterned with brown, including a narrow border that encircles the wing, from *h* to the axillary angle, including all of cells *C* and *Sc* and remaining of approximately this general width throughout; further brown spots at origin of *Rs*, stigma, cord, outer end of cell *1st* M_2 and at end of vein *2nd A*, mostly confluent with the marginal darkening; prearcular field pale; veins light brown, darker in the patterned fields. Venation: *Sc* long; Sc_1 ending about opposite three-fifths *Rs*; R_2 slightly more than one-half longer than R_{2+3+4}; cell *1st* M_2 strongly widened outwardly, nearly as long as vein M_{1+2} beyond it; *m-cu* about one-third its length beyond the fork of *M*.

Abdominal tergites black, the extreme caudal borders of the segments paler; sternites with the basal segment yellow; succeeding segments conspicuously bicolored, black, the incisures broadly yellow, including about the distal fourth of each segment, as well as the extreme cephalic border of the succeeding segment; hypopygium chiefly brownish black. Sternal pockets restricted in area, that on segment five largest, the lateral setæ not forming rows. Male hypopygium with the apical spine of basistyle straight, broad-based, narrowed rapidly to the acute terminal spinous point, the inner margin conspicuously fringed with long yellow setæ; mesal lobe conspicuous but not blackened, provided with elongate setæ. Outer dististyle a long simple rod, the extreme tip apparently broken; surface with long setæ. Inner dististyle relatively narrow, terminating in a single developed spine, the usual basal armature lacking; lobe near base of style terminating in a very few setæ of various lengths. Ædeagus relatively narrow, the lower margin at apex further produced into a long curved spine; ventral margin with a group of three unusually long setæ at near three-fourths the length, with an isolated additional seta nearer the base; on dorsal edge with a single further strong bristle.

Habitat.—Costa Rica.
Holotype, ♂, Turrialba, November 1922 (Schild).

Teucholabis (*Teucholabis*) *circumscripta* is entirely different from all described regional species in the very characteristic pattern of both the thorax and wings. No approximately similar species can be indicated.

Teucholabis (Teucholabis) diplaca new species.

Size medium (wing, male, 5 mm.); general coloration polished black and yellow, the black including a discal area on præscutum; head polished orange yellow; femora yellow, tips black; posterior tibiæ (male) with a blackened tubercle on outer sixth; wings whitish subhyaline, virtually unpatterned except for the narrow triangular stigma; base of cell *Sc* darkened; Sc_1 ending about opposite one-third the length of *Rs;* abdominal segments black, ringed caudally with yellow; male hypopygium with the apical lobe of basistyle appearing as a broad plate, its outer apical angle further produced into a long slender spine, the inner angle with three smaller spinous points; outer dististyle a long simple blackened rod.

Male.—Length about 5.5 mm.; wing 5 mm.

Rostrum orange; palpi black. Antennæ with scape and pedicel obscure orange, flagellum black; flagellar segments oval, the outer ones smaller; verticils of the more proximal segments subequal in length to the segments. Head polished orange yellow.

Pronotum chiefly orange yellow; pretergites light yellow. Thorax handsomely patterned with polished black and light yellow; præscutum chiefly black, with three areas that form a complete disk behind, split in front to isolate narrow yellow lines on the cephalic third of sclerite; scutellum, median area of scutum and an adjoining small median area on præscutum yellow, the suture entirely yellow; scutal lobes extensively black; parascutella orange; postnotum black, the mediotergite with an extensive yellow lateral border on the cephalic half or more. Pleura conspicuously patterned with black and yellow, the former including the polished sternopleurite and anepisternum, with smaller areas on the propleura and metapleura; dorsopleural membrane and the entire pteropleurite yellow; no pruinose area on pleura, as in many species in the genus. Halteres brownish black, knobs orange. Legs with all coxæ and trochanters orange yellow; femora yellow, the tips broadly and conspicuously black; tibiæ obscure yellow, the tips darkened; tarsi brownish black; posterior tibiæ near outer sixth with a small blackened tubercle or knob; proximal fifth of hind basitarsus swollen. Wings whitish subhyaline, virtually unpatterned except for the unusually narrow triangular dark brown stigma; base of cell *Sc* narrowly darkened; veins comprising the cord and outer end of cell *1st* M_2 somewhat more intensely darkened but the membrane not involved; veins dark brown, *C, Sc* and *R* more yellowed. Venation: Sc_1 ending about opposite one-third the length of *Rs,* Sc_2 some distance from its tip, Sc_1 alone nearly as long as R_2; anterior branch of *Rs* gently sinuous, slightly upcurved at tip so cell R_2 at margin is only a little more extensive than cell R_3; outer section of M_{1+2} arcuated; *m-cu* at or just before the fork of *M*.

Abdomen black, ringed with yellow, the latter color involving the posterior margins of the segments; hypopygium chiefly darkened. Sternal pocket of segment five extensive, more or less triangular in outline, the setæ converging toward the midline, the more central ones smallest; setæ of sternite six more widely separated, including only about six or seven on either side. Male hypopygium with the apical lobe of basistyle unique, appearing as a broad flattened plate, the outer apical angle of which is produced into a long slender spine, the opposite apical angle produced into about three smaller spinous points; inner margin and apex of plate provided with long yellow setæ; near base of plate with a small lobe bearing about four long marginal setæ; mesal flange of basistyle with smooth margin. Outer dististyle a long slender simple blackened rod, the tip acute, the surface with conspicuous appressed spinulæ on outer face and with strong tuberculate points. Inner dististyle with the outer and basal teeth powerful, separated from one another by an oval notch, the margins thickened; basal lobe of style with about five very long setæ. Ædeagus stout, the apex expanded into obtusely rounded blades; setæ relatively numerous and unusually long.

Habitat.—Panama.

Holotype, ♂, Barro Colorado Island, Canal Zone, February 13, 1929 (Curran); American Museum of Natural History.

Teucholabis (*Teucholabis*) *diplaca* is quite distinct from all others of the very numerous regional species of the subgenus. It differs especially in the structure of the male hypopygium, more particularly the outer lobe of the basistyle. This latter structure is approximated by species such as *T.* (*T.*) *bigladia* Alexander, *T.* (*T.*) *biramosa* Alexander, and *T.* (*T.*) *scabrosa* Alexander, all of which are entirely different in other respects and evidently not closely allied.

Teucholabis (Teucholabis) platyphallus new species.

Allied to *furva;* mesonotum black, pronotum yellow; thoracic pleura with a conspicuous ventral pale stripe; knobs of halteres light yellow; posterior basitarsi (male) dilated and with an elongated setuliferous pocket; wings with a brownish tinge, the cephalic border more whitened; stigma oval, darker brown; Sc_1 ending about opposite midlength of *Rs;* branches of *Rs* extending generally parallel to one another; male hypopygium with the outer lobe of basistyle a broad flattened blade, its margin fimbriate; outer dististyle a long simple sinuous rod, microscopically spinulose and with scattered elongate setæ; inner dististyle trilobed, the basal lobe cylindrical and tipped with four long setæ; ædeagus unusually expanded, subtriangular in outline, with paired setæ on the dorsal and ventral margins.

MALE.—Length about 5.5 mm.; wing 5.5 mm.

Rostrum obscure brownish yellow; palpi black. Antennæ with basal segments pale brown, the outer ones darker; under face of scape more yellowed; basal flagellar segments short-oval, the outer segments more elongate; verticils conspicuous. Head dark liver brown.

Pronotum and pretergites, with the restricted humeral region of præscutum, yellow. Remainder of mesonotum, including scutellum and pleurotergite, black. Pleura chiefly black, the propleura and a conspicuous ventral stripe on the mesopleura pale yellow, whitish pruinose, this color including the whole ventral portion of thorax excepting the restricted ventral sternopleurite. Halteres with stem infuscated, knob light yellow. Legs with the coxæ yellow, the fore pair a trifle darker; trochanters yellow; remainder of legs long and relatively slender, obscure yellow; tips of femora narrowly and weakly darkened, on the fore pair a little more extensive and gradually darkened; tibiæ obscure yellow, the tips narrowly dark brown; basal segments of tarsi obscure yellow, the terminal segments more darkened; claws simple; posterior basitarsi (male) with proximal end dilated and provided with an elongated setuliferous pocket. Wings with a brownish tinge, the prearcular and costal fields, together with areas before and beyond the stigma, more whitened; stigma oval, darker brown; a weak brown cloud over anterior cord; veins brown, those in the prearcular field more yellowed. Venation: *Sc* ending about opposite midlength of the long *Rs,* the latter very weakly bent at near midlength; branches of *Rs* extending generally parallel to one another for their entire lengths; cell *1st* M_2 subequal to or a trifle longer than vein M_4; *m-cu* shortly beyond the fork of *M.*

Abdominal tergites brownish black; sternites paler medially, more darkened on sides; outer segments, including hypopygium, more uniformly blackened. Sternal pockets well developed on both segments five and six. Male hypopygium with the outer lobe of basistyle subapical in position, appearing as a broad flattened blade, its outer third narrowed into a long terminal spine; inner margin of blade with a fringe of long yellow setæ; darkened flange of mesal face of style relatively untoothed, the outer portion smooth, the central part emarginate, the cephalic third with two or three coarse denticles. Outer dististyle a long simple sinuous rod, narrowed very gradually to an acute spine, the outer surface with microscopic appressed spinulæ and a few long setæ. Inner dististyle blackened, trilobed, the outer lobe stout and obtuse, the inner one a sharp spine; basal lobe cylindrical, tipped with about four unusually long setæ, these subequal to or exceeding in length the lobe itself. Ædeagus unusually expanded, subtriangular in outline, the lower apical angle a curved black spine; surface smooth except for two powerful setæ on lower edge at near three-fourths the length and two others on dorsal edge, a trifle more basad in position.

Habitat.—Costa Rica.

Holotype, ♂, Turrialba, November 1922 (Schild).

The nearest relative of the present fly appears to be *Teucholabis* (*Teucholabis*) *furva* Alexander, which differs in the pattern of the body and wings, and in the details of structure of the male hypopygium.

Teucholabis (Teucholabis) serrulifera new species.

Allied to *furva;* mesonotal præscutum and scutal lobes polished black; a broad black stripe over the dorsal thoracic pleurites; rostrum and palpi black; knobs of halteres a little paler than the stem; wings with a weak blackish tinge, a little more intense on outer fourth; stigma dark brown; Sc_1 ending opposite midlength of *Rs;* branches of *Rs* parallel to one another for most of their lengths; male hypopygium with the spine of basistyle slender, glabrous; outer dististyle at base widely expanded into a lobe or blade bearing spines and conspicuous setæ, ædeagus with the apical spine bent laterad, before the tip with a conspicuous lobe that bears a few setæ.

MALE.—Length about 5.5 mm.; wing 5.5 mm.

Rostrum and palpi black, the former relatively long, about two-thirds the remainder of head. Antennæ black throughout; flagellar segments oval; terminal segment shorter than the penultimate; verticils exceeding the segments in length. Head brownish black.

Pronotal scutum obscure yellow, more infuscated laterally; scutellum and pretergites light yellow. Mesonotal præscutum and scutal lobes uniformly polished black, only the reduced humeral region of the former obscure yellow; median region of scutum and posterior portions of the lobes narrowly obscure yellow; scutellum dark brown, parascutella yellow; postnotum black, the suture between the mediotergite and pleurotergite narrowly reddened. Pleura conspicuously bicolored, the entire venter light yellow, including the sternopleurite and meral region; dorsal pleurites occupied by a broad black longitudinal stripe extending from the sides of the pronotum across the anepisternum and dorsal pteropleurite onto the postnotum; dorsopleural region yellow; no well-developed silvery area on pleura. Halteres with stem blackened, apex of knob a little paler, obscure yellowish brown. Legs with fore coxæ blackened, remaining coxæ and all trochanters yellow; femora yellow basally, the tips blackened, most broadly so on fore legs where about the distal third is included, narrowest on posterior femora where only the outer sixth or seventh is blackened; tibiæ brownish black; tarsi black; posterior basitarsi strongly dilated, at proximal end with a setuliferous pocket. Wings with a weak blackish tinge, slightly more intense on outer fourth; stigma oval, dark brown; a narrow, vague, darkened seam over cord; veins dark brown, brownish yellow in the prearcular field. Venation: *Sc* relatively long, Sc_1 ending about opposite midlength of the long *Rs;* R_{1+2} and R_{2+3+4} subequal, both a little more than one-half R_2; branches of *Rs* extending generally parallel to one another for almost their whole lengths, R_5 near its apex diverging, ending at tip of wing; cell *1st* M_2 narrow, subequal to distal section of M_3; *m-cu* a short distance beyond fork of *M*.

Abdominal tergites and hypopygium black; basal sternites a trifle more piceous. Pocket on fifth sternite oval, with about eight setæ on either side, these directed toward the midline, the area comprised of abundant small bulbous structures ending in small points; on sixth sternite, setæ about ten on either side, widely separated at midline. Basistyle with apical spine very slender, subapical in position, without setæ; mesal lobe irregularly erose, the denticles interspersed with long setæ. Outer dististyle a broad flattened blade that narrows gradually to a slender apical spine, the outer edge microscopically serrulate; near base, style broadly expanded, bearing a long slender spine, provided with abundant long coarse setæ and a few smaller spinous points. Inner dististyle conspicuously bispinous, the outer spine larger and more curved; at base of style a broad lobe that bears a transverse row of about five strong spinous setæ. Ædeagus relatively narrow, the apical third bent strongly laterad into a long blackened spine, before the apex of which, on lower face, bearing a strong cylindrical lobe with two or three apical setæ and one unusually long additional bristle nearer base; on opposite side of ædeagus, at point of bending, with a nearly rectangular lobe, below which are two strong setæ.

Habitat.—Costa Rica.

Holotype, ♂, Turrialba, November 1922 (Schild).

This species and various others, center about *Teucholabis* (*Teucholabis*) *furva* Alexander which they resemble in general appearance and venation, but differ in all details of the male hypopygium, especially the spine of the bastistyle, both dististyles and the ædeagus.

Teucholabis (Teucholabis) turrialbensis new species.

Male.—Length about 6 mm.; wing 5 mm.

Closely related and generally similar to *serrulifera* new species, differing especially in the structure of the male hypopygium. Wings with *Sc* somewhat shorter, Sc_1 ending before midlength of *Rs*.

Sternal pocket of sixth segment of male with the setæ fewer in number, totalling six or seven. Male hypopygium with the outer dististyle much more slender and subcylindrical, not flattened, the armature much restricted; serrulations of outer surface smaller and inconspicuous; spinous flange of mesal face much smaller, closely applied to the style, the outermost spine long and slender.

Habitat.—Costa Rica.

Holotype, ♂, Turrialba, November 1922 (Schild); Melander Collection. Paratopotype, ♂; Alexander Collection.

Genus *Gnophomyia* Osten Sacken

Gnophomyia (Gnophomyia) curraniana new species.

Head and abdomen black; thorax, excepting the postnotal scutum and the metapleura, orange; halteres and legs black; wings broad, dark brown, with a wide whitish band at and beyond midlength; cells *C* and *Sc* uniformly darkened; cell R_2 at margin wider than cell R_3; cord transverse; cell *1st* M_2 rectangular.

FEMALE.—Length about 7 mm.; wing 7 mm.

Rostrum and palpi black. Antennæ black throughout; flagellar segments oval, gradually decreasing in size outwardly. Head uniformly black.

Pronotum with scutum black, scutellum orange, the sunken central portion a little paler. Mesonotum and pleura uniformly orange, only the metapleura beneath the root of the halteres blackened. Halteres black, the extreme base of stem orange. Legs, including coxæ and trochanters, black. Wings broad, conspicuously dimidiate; dark brown, with a broad whitish band at and beyond midlength; cells *C* and *Sc* uniformly darkened; basal two-fifths of wing slightly paler brown than the apical fourth, the latter a trifle more extensive than the white band; the latter includes most of cell R_1, thence continued to the posterior border as a nearly parallel-sided area, the outer edge lying just beyond cord so the bases of cells R_4 to M_4 are whitened; conspicuous white streaks along veins *M* and *1st A*, with further similar lines in basal portion of cell *R* and near outer end of cell *Cu;* veins brown, not paler in the brightened field, excepting certain elements at cord. Macrotrichia abundant in all cells beyond cord and in outer ends of cells R_1, *Cu* and *1st A*. Venation: Sc_1 ending just before fork of *Rs;* R_2 suboblique; R_{3+4} present as a short to very short element; veins R_3 and R_4 more nearly parallel than in *leucoplaca,* cell R_2 wider than cell R_3; in *leucoplaca,* the veins divergent so the cells are subequal in area at the margin; basal section of R_5 short and straight, the entire cord transverse; in *leucoplaca,* anterior cord oblique, the inner end of cell R_4 lying more proximad than the other cells; cell *1st* M_2 more rectangular.

Abdomen black; ovipositor with the cerci unusually slender, dark chestnut brown, gradually narrowed to the subacute tips, the surface glabrous.

Habitat.—Panama.

Holotype, ♀, Barro Colorado Island, Canal Zone, February 13, 1929 (Curran); American Museum of Natural History.

The most similar described species is *Gnophomyia* (*Gnophomyia*) *leucoplaca* Alexander, from the upper Amazons (Teffé, Amazonas, Brazil), which differs in the much greater extent of black coloration, particularly of the præscutum and mesopleura, and in distinct venational details, as compared above. In *leucoplaca,* the cells of the outer radial field are uniformly darkened, without broad white bases in R_4 and R_5, as in the present fly. The species is named in honor of the collector, the distinguished Dipterologist, Dr. C. Howard Curran.

Gnophomyia (Gnophomyia) pulvinaris new species.

Allied to *mœstitia;* general coloration of body and appendages black, the lateral portions of the pronotal scutellum yellow; halteres uniformly blackened; wings tinged with brown, with a still darker brown pattern, including a broad band at cord; male hypopygium with the caudal margin of tergite gently concave, with a double row of at least one hundred spinous setæ; basistyle on proximal portion of mesal face with an oval area or cushion including about fifty blackened setæ; outer dististyle with inner margin with irregular blackened teeth.

Male.—Length about 4.5 mm.; wing 5.1 mm.

Female.—Length about 4.5 mm.; wing 4.8 mm.

Rostrum and palpi black. Antennæ black throughout; flagellar segments elongate, subcylindrical, with long conspicuous verticils, the longest much exceeding the segments, unilaterally arranged on the outer face; in addition to the coarse verticils, the segments clothed with abundant finer setæ. Head dull black, sparsely pruinose in front; anterior vertex broad, approximately four times the diameter of scape.

Pronotum dark brown, the lateral portions of the scutellum clear light yellow. Mesonotum almost uniformly brownish black, the surface more or less polished. Pleura black, more pruinose on the ventral and posterior portions, including the pleurotergite; dorsal pleurites, as well as the dorsopleural membrane, deep velvety black. Halteres black throughout. Legs with the coxæ dark brown, more or less pruinose, especially the middle pair; remainder of legs black. Wings with a brownish tinge, rather distinctly patterned with still darker brown, this appearing especially as a broad dark band at the cord and darkening in cells *M* and bases of *Cu* and *1st A;* stigma long and narrow, dark brown; veins brownish black. Venation: *Rs* with its basal section oblique, straight; *r-m* variable in position, in the type a short distance before the fork of *Rs,* in the allotype just beyond the fork; R_{2+3+4} in direct alignment with R_{2+3} and R_3, forming an even arc; R_{2+3+4} and R_{2+3} subequal; all outer branches of *Rs* extending generally parallel to one another; cell *1st* M_2 long-rectangular, with *m-cu* at near midlength, the cell about as long as vein M_4.

Abdomen, including hypopygium, black. Ovipositor with cerci relatively long and slender, with setæ to the acute tips. Male hypopygium with the tergite large and conspicuous, transverse, the caudal margin broadly and gently concave, provided with an unbroken double row totalling at least 100 spinous setæ, those at the ends of row not modified into a brush or pencil. Basistyle short and stout, on mesal face at cephalic end with a dense oval cushion of long black setæ totalling about 50 in number. Outer dististyle gradually narrowed outwardly, the inner margin with a row of small irregular blackened teeth, including a larger flange at base of the series. Inner dististyle about three-fourths as long as last, uniformly dark colored, gradually narrowed outwardly, the tip a small blackened point; style provided with long erect setæ. Gonapophyses appearing as two separate blackened plates, one on either side of the slender ædeagus, the tips of the blades incurved and contiguous.

Habitat.—Costa Rica.

Holotype, ♂, Turrialba, November 1922 (Schild). Allotopotype, ♀.

Gnophomyia (*Gnophomyia*) *pulvinaris* is entirely distinct from the now numerous species of the genus that center about *G.* (*G.*) *mœstitia* Alexander, having in the male an enlarged ninth tergite that is provided with an armature of strong spinous setæ. The most similar species is *G.* (*G.*) *nimbifera* Alexander, of Peru, which has all details of the male hypopygium distinct. The cushion of setæ on the basistyle of the present fly provides a distinctive character.

Genus *Neognophomyia* Alexander

Neognophomyia schildi new species.

General coloration of mesonotum reddish brown; pleura yellow, with an almost continuous darkened dorsal stripe; femora yellow, the tips narrowly infuscated; wings whitish subhyaline, restrictedly patterned with brown, including a narrow band over the anterior cord; male hypopygium with the tergal spines strong and powerful, blackened; outer dististyle slender, with five setæ, of which two occupy the apex; phallosome consisting of two broadly flattened plates that subtend the shorter ædeagus, the apex of each blade terminating in a small conical darkened point that is directed laterad.

MALE.—Length about 5 mm.; wing 5 mm.

Rostrum yellow; basal segment of palpus yellow, outer segments brown. Antennæ with scape brownish yellow, pedicel light brown, flagellum brown; flagellar segments oval, with long conspicuous verticils. Head yellow, darker behind.

Pronotum very pale brown, the lateral borders of the scutellum, with the pretergites, pale yellow. Mesonotal præscutum with the disk reddish brown, the lateral and humeral borders yellow; scutal lobes a trifle more darkened; scutellum obscure yellow. Pleura clear light yellow ventrally, the dorsal sclerites chiefly infuscated, including the propleura, anepisternum and pleurotergite, somewhat paler brown on the dorsal pteropleurite, the whole forming a broad dorsal pleural stripe. Halteres with stem light yellow, knob infuscated. Legs with the coxæ and trochanters light yellow; femora yellow, the tips narrowly and weakly infuscated; tibiæ and basitarsi yellow; outer tarsal segments passing into brownish black. Wings whitish subhyaline, restrictedly patterned with brown, including a narrow band over anterior cord and very narrow seams over the posterior cord and outer end of cell *1st* M_2; a very restricted darkening near wing base, especially in cell *M;* veins brownish yellow, darker in the patterned areas. Venation: Sc_1 ending about opposite R_2; R_{2+3+4} subequal to R_{3+4}; venation of outer radial field normal for the genus, cell R_2 at margin being very reduced, cell R_3 greatly widened; cell *1st* M_2 short and strongly widened outwardly, *m-cu* at near midlength.

Abdominal tergites chiefly infuscated, the subterminal ones more yellowed; sternites yellow; hypopygium chestnut brown. Male hypopygium with the tergal spines strong and powerful, blackened, nearly straight, narrowed to acute points. Dististyle unusually small and simple; outer dististyle slender, narrowed to the obtuse tip which bears two long setæ, with three further similar setæ along outer margin; near base of style, on lower margin, with a low lobe or flange; inner dististyle large, generally triangular in outline, narrowed to the subobtuse apex, outer margin with a row of about six or seven strong setæ; basal flange low, provided with a similar number of much longer setæ. Phallosome consisting of two broadly flattened plates subtending the slightly shorter ædeagus, the tips of the blades terminating in small conical darkened points that are directed laterad (in slide mounts).

Habitat.—Costa Rica.

Holotype, ♂, Turrialba, November 1922 (Schild); Melander Collection. Paratopotype, ♂; Alexander Collection.

Among the described species of the genus that have the male hypopygium with heavily blackened and powerful tergal spines, including *Neognophomyia colombicola* Alexander, *N. consociata* Alexander, *N. pervicax* Alexander and *N. scapha* Alexander, the present fly differs conspicuously in all details of structure of the male hypopygium, particularly of the dististyles and phallosome. It is perhaps closest to *consociata* yet amply distinct. I take pleasure in dedicating this fly to the memory of the collector, Mr. Pablo Schild.

Genus *Gonomyia* Meigen

Gonomyia (Lipophleps) lustralis new species.

Belongs to the *manca* group; size medium (wing, male, 3.8 mm.); general coloration of præscutum cinnamon brown, unpatterned; antennæ (male) long, the flagellar segments with abundant long erect setæ, additional to the long, unilaterally distributed verticils; thoracic pleura with an ill-defined whitish longitudinal stripe; knobs of halteres infuscated; legs medium brown; male hypopygium with the basistyle produced far beyond the origin of dististyle as a long pale clavate lobe; dististyle conspicuously forked, the style bearing a slender blackened arm on the outer margin beyond midlength; phallosome without blackened elements.

MALE.—Length about 3.5 mm.; wing 3.8 mm.

Rostrum yellow; palpi black. Antennæ dark brown, relatively elongate; flagellar segments long-cylindrical, with abundant long erect setæ, additional to the still longer, unilaterally distributed verticils, the latter occurring on the more proximal segments only. Head above chiefly pale, the central posterior vertex darkened.

Pronotum and pretergites very pale yellow. Mesonotal præscutum uniformly light cinnamon brown, unpatterned; scutal lobes a trifle darker, the broad median area yellow; scutellum yellow, slightly darkened at base; mediotergite brownish gray. Pleura and pleurotergite chiefly yellow, the former with an ill-defined, more whitened, longitudinal stripe extending to the base of the abdomen. Halteres with stem pale, knob infuscated. Legs with the coxæ and trochanters testaceous yellow; remainder of legs medium brown. Wings with a weak brownish tinge, the prearcular and costal fields light yellow; stigma scarcely indicated as a very weak darkening; veins pale brown, including those in the brightened fields. Venation: Sc_1 ending opposite origin of *Rs*, the latter about four-fifths to five-sixths the length of its anterior branch; *m-cu* close to the fork of *M*.

Abdominal tergites dark brown, sternites paler; hypopygium chiefly weakly infuscated. Male hypopygium with the outer apical angle of basistyle greatly produced beyond the origin of the dististyle, the lobe being fully as long as the basal portion of style, slightly dilated outwardly, the outer end with unusually long setæ. Dististyle conspicuously forked, the main body pale, bearing the usual two fasciculate setæ at and below the apex; on outer margin beyond midlength, the style bears a slender blackened lobe or arm, approximately equal in length to but much narrower than the true apex of the style. Phallosome with all elements pale, undarkened, with two long flattened blades that are subacute at tips, together with an obtuse median lobe that juts slightly distad of the paired blades.

Habitat.—Costa Rica.

Holotype, ♂, Turrialba, November 1922 (Schild).

Gonomyia (*Lipophleps*) *lustralis* is entirely distinct from the very numerous members of the *manca* group occurring in Tropical America. It shows affinity with species such as *G.* (*L.*) *batesi* Alexander, but differs from all other forms in the structure of the male hypopygium.

Genus *Erioptera* Meigen

Erioptera (Mesocyphona) turrialbæ new species.

Size small (wing, male, less than 3 mm.); general coloration dark brown; thoracic pleura striped longitudinally with pale; femora very pale brown, the tips very narrowly and indistinctly whitened; wings uniformly tinged with pale brown; male hypopygium with a single three-branched dististyle, the axial branch stoutest and longest, the acute apex glabrous; lower branch pale, slightly more basal in position than the blackened upper arm; gonapophyses single, appearing as a very strongly sinuous blackened rod.

MALE.—Length about 2.5 mm.; wing 2.8 mm.

Rostrum and palpi black. Antennæ black throughout; verticils very long. Head dark brown, the front and orbits narrowly gray.

Pronotum dark brown. Mesonotum almost uniformly dark brown, the scutellum a trifle more testaceous. Pleura dark brown, with a ventral yellowish longitudinal stripe, the dorsopleural region pale. Halteres with stem yellow, knob weakly darkened. Legs with the coxæ and trochanters obscure yellow; femora very pale brown, the tips narrowly and indistinctly whitened; remainder of legs more brownish yellow. Wings with a uniform pale brownish tinge; veins pale brown, trichia dark brown. Venation: Cell M_2 open by atrophy of basal section of M_3; vein *2nd A* with outer third deflected slightly cephalad.

Abdomen, including hypopygium, dark brown. Male hypopygium with a single dististyle that is conspicuously three-branched; main axis longest and stoutest, its apex acutely pointed, glabrous; outer or dorsal branch slender, blackened, about two-thirds as long as the axial point; lower or ventral branch arising a trifle nearer base of style than does the outer spine, entirely pale, the tip obtuse and microscopically setuliferous. Gonapophysis of either side single, appearing as a very strongly sinuous blackened rod, gradually narrowed to the acute spinous point, the latter decussate at the midline.

Habitat.—Costa Rica.

Holotype, ♂, Turrialba, November 1922 (Schild).

This species is allied to various other regional species, including *Erioptera* (*Mesocyphona*) *factiosa* Alexander, *E.* (*M.*) *invariegata* Alexander, *E.* (*M.*) *modica* Alexander, *E.* (*M.*) *quadrifurcata* Alexander, and *E.* (*M.*) *withycombei* Alexander, differing in the structure of the male hypopygium.

BOOK NOTICE

The Lost Woods, Adventures of a Naturalist, Illustrated with 200 Photographs by the Author. By Edwin Way Teale. Dodd, Mead & Company, New York, 1945. 10 × 7 inches. xv + 326 p.

Mr. Teale's fan mail, I am sure, will rise to another peak, after *The Lost Woods* gets in circulation. This is the sixth of Mr. Teale's books on natural history to be brought out by Dodd, Mead & Company, all attractively designed and printed. *The Lost Woods,* named after a childish recollection of a mysterious woods that the author was unable to find after the passage of many years and which became to him a symbol of outdoor life, is a collection of fascinating accounts of animals of the land, sea and air, narrated and illustrated with the skill for which Mr. Teale is noted.

King crabs, serpents, cloud formations, birds, beavers, insects, snowflakes, animal tracks, naturalists, and all living things, instead of being ordinary everyday objects of no unusual interest, suddenly become animated actors in nature's drama as soon as Mr. Teale sets foot out-of-doors with his camera. Their behavior, their amazing and interesting habits, their battles and their movements are faithfully and accurately recorded by Mr. Teale for all to enjoy.

Mr. Teale's adventures occur in all sorts of places, in Times Square, in a submarine and in a plane, but most of them happen on the ground wherever he chances to be. These endless activities in the world of nature that Mr. Teale exposes to us are available to all who have the curiosity and interest necessary to be aware of them. Failing in this, one should read *The Lost Woods* in order to be made aware of life other than our own. Mr. Teale brings the woods, the fields, the sky, the streams, and their inhabitants right into your living room and his accounts are not only fascinating, but scientifically accurate. If you can't afford an actual vacation in the woods, take one anyhow by reading Mr. Teale's book, and enjoy the company of an interesting, many-sided naturalist and master photographer, who writes refreshingly about all animals, even jelly fish and slime molds.—H. B. W.

SEASONAL VARIATIONS IN CERTAIN SPECIES OF MOSQUITOES (DIPTERA, CULICIDÆ)

By Charles D. Michener
First Lieutenant, Sanitary Corps, A. U. S.

It is the purpose of this paper to point out seasonal variations in structure, coloration, and size of adults and larvæ of certain mosquitoes of the genus *Culex*. In some cases such variation may have led to unnecessary multiplication of specific names. It is of importance, also, since the apparently less studied winter forms of some of the species do not run to the correct point in certain keys.

Seasonal variations are well known in many groups of insects. In mosquitoes the winter individuals are often larger than the summer ones and slight color variations have been noted. Thus the overwintering females of *Anopheles maculipennis freeborni* Aitken in California are larger and darker than the summer forms.[1] The same appears to be true of the related *Anopheles quadrimaculatus* Say.

The specimens studied in the preparation of this paper have all come from the southeastern United States. Many of them were collected at Camp Shelby, near Hattiesburg, Mississippi, by Mr. Wm. V. Reed, Capt. Basil G. Markos, the author, and others. For the opportunity to study numerous other specimens from other parts of the southeast, the author is indebted to Major Stanley J. Carpenter, Major W. W. Middlekauff, Lieutenant Louis M. Roth, and other personnel in the entomology department of the Fourth Service Command Laboratory.

CULEX (NEOCULEX) APICALIS ADAMS

Among the species of *Culex* occurring in the southeastern states, the most conspicuous seasonal variation is found in *Culex apicalis*. This holarctic species breeds throughout the year in this area.

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[1] Freeborn, S. B. 1932. The seasonal life history of *Anopheles maculipennis* with reference to humidity requirements and ''hibernation.'' Amer. Jour. Hyg., 16: 215.

Larvæ, as well as adults, collected in the cooler months of the year differ markedly from those found during the summer.

The differences which have been noted in adults between a midwinter series and midsummer series are indicated in the following tabulation:

Summer form	*Winter form*
Smaller, wing scarcely over 4 mm. in length.	Usually larger, wing 4 to 5 mm. in length.
Abdominal bands sometimes represented only by lateral spots, more often complete but only one or two rows of scales in width.	Abdominal bands normally broad, three or sometimes four scales in width, rarely with a partial fifth row.
Integument of mesoscutum light brown, rarely infuscated.	Integument of mesoscutum usually infuscated or blackish.
Under surfaces of tibiæ with scales mostly pale.	Uuder surfaces of tibiæ with scales usually almost all black.
Upper surfaces of femora with dark scales often not reaching bases.	Upper surfaces of femora with dark scaled area frequently reaching bases.

All the characters listed in the above tabulation vary between the extremes, and occur in different combinations with one another. It is therefore believed that only one species is involved, although a large, broad-banded, dark-legged winter specimen with dark mesoscutal integument looks like a different species from a summer specimen. No genitalic differences between such individuals could be found.

Small specimens almost invariably lack or have only narrow abdominal bands, although they may have an infuscated mesoscutum. Many large specimens, particularly during spring and fall, also have narrow bands, and a few large ones have brown mesoscuta. The percentage of large individuals and also of those having infuscated mesoscuta decreases more slowly in spring and increases more rapidly in fall than does the percentage of individuals with broad bands. Apparently these characteristics and band width are affected by different environmental factors or by the same factor or combination of factors acting at different thresholds.

Because, as already stated, there are all intergrades between the extremes for each character, an arbitrary line had to be selected in gathering data for the following table, between, for example, "infuscated" and "not infuscated." The mesoscutal integument of the midsummer individuals recorded as infuscated is, as a rule, paler than that of winter individuals. Table 1, based on 206 specimens collected at localities more than thirty miles from the Gulf coast in Mississippi, Alabama, and Georgia, shows the seasonal distribution of certain of the characters discussed above. The localities from which these specimens were obtained are Atlanta, Augusta, Hinesville, Macon, Savannah, and Valdosta, Georgia; Anniston and Ozark, Alabama; and Centerville, Grenada, and Hattiesburg, Mississippi.

TABLE 1

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	Jun.	Jul.	Aug.	Sep.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Per cent with bands three or more scales wide	88	100	67	33	20	0	0	0	0	0	50	91
Per cent with infuscated mesoscutum	100	100	67	88	80	43	0	17	10	0	83	100
No. of specimens studied	18	23	30	18	20	7	11	12	10	10	36	11

Similar results were obtained from a study of about 30 additional specimens from North Carolina (Durham, Fayetteville, Hoffman, Laurinburg), South Carolina (Greenwood, Spartanburg), and Tennessee (Smyrna), except that one specimen from near Fayetteville, North Carolina, collected in January and one from Greenwood, South Carolina, collected in November, are small with narrow bands and not or scarcely infuscated mesoscuta.

The seasonal variation here described does not occur throughout the range of *C. apicalis*. In the northern states, and in the west as far south as Arizona (the type locality of *apicalis*), specimens are of the broad-banded type even in summer (according to a letter from Dr. Alan Stone dated January 28, 1944). In the southeastern region such broad-banded specimens disappear during the summer, being replaced by a narrow-banded form. The narrow-banded type occurs, as shown by specimens in the United States National Museum, at least as far north as Maryland. There is evidence that in Florida, and possibly in a narrow zone along the Gulf coast, the broad-banded form does not occur even in winter. Eighteen specimens collected at Panama City and Marianna, Florida, in November, December, and February are small with narrow bands as in summer individuals farther north. Approximately 40 other specimens from these same localities and from Jacksonville, Florida, collected from April to June are indistinguishable from the winter specimens collected in the same area. This Floridian population which appears to be narrow-banded throughout the year does not represent the extreme in band reduction in this group, however, for in Mexico *C. derivator* Dyar and Knab, which is apparently only a subspecies of *apicalis,* lacks pale scaling on the abdominal terga altogether or, at most, has small white areas latero-apically.

Unfortunately, the species appears to be scarce in peninsular Florida. Through the kindness of Dr. Alan Stone, records have been received of specimens from Orla Vista, Orlando, Rock Springs, and Sanford, Florida. Of these, two specimens from Rock Springs, collected February 25, have "rather wide" bands, but the remainder are narrow-banded.

It would be reasonable to recognize the Floridian form as a distinct subspecies of *apicalis.* For the present, no name is applied, since the seasonal variation evident in other southeastern states suggests that the differences between Floridian and other populations may be the direct effect of the environment rather than indications of genetic differentiation. It is remotely possible that two species are involved but if so suitable differentiating characters have yet to be found. This question will probably remain unsettled until rearing experiments can be carried out.

The larvæ of *C. apicalis* also exhibit a wide range of variation in many characters. Certain of these variations appear to be correlated with the seasons, although not so well so as the variations of the adults. Those which are best correlated with the season are indicated in the following tabulation:

Summer form	*Winter form*
Smaller, pigmentation light.	Larger, pigmentation, especially of head, dark.
Air tube long, slender, about 2½ times as long as antenna, more expanded at tip than in winter form, both sides curving outward apically.	Air tube shorter and more robust, less than 2½ times as long as antenna, less expanded at tip, one side nearly straight.

All intergradations between these forms occur, sometimes even in one pool. The size and pigmentation is correlated in part at least with food supply. In a turbid pool larger, darker specimens are usually found, while in a clear pond with meager food supply small pale individuals occur. Thus climatic factors may produce the variation by their effect on larval food supplies rather than by a direct effect on the larvæ. Typical ''summer'' larvæ were found in certain situations in the middle of February, 1944, at Camp Shelby, near Hattiesburg, Mississippi, but most collections throughout March were of the ''winter'' type.

As with the adults, the typical summer individuals approach the characters of the Mexican *C. derivator,* which has an exceedingly long and slender air tube.

Unfortunately larval material, although more easily obtained in this species than adults, has been preserved in such small quantities that detailed information on the occurrence of the different types in different regions cannot be given. It is very clear, however, that in southern Mississippi the larger, darker larvæ with shorter, robust air tubes occur during approximately the months when broad-banded adults are to be found and that paler larvæ with long, slender tubes are collected during the remaining months. However, narrow-banded ''summer'' adults have been reared from dark, short-tubed ''winter'' larvæ.

CULEX (CULEX) NIGRIPALPUS THEOBALD

This primarily Neotropical species has been recorded from several of the southeastern states, but is common only in Florida. One hundred thirty-eight female specimens have been studied from the following localities in Florida: Apopka, Avon Park, Boca Raton, Leesburg, Mt. Dora, Palm Beach, Panama City, and Sebring. In this species males show the seasonal differences only inconspicuously, while no such differences were observed in larvæ.

In this species, as in *C. apicalis,* the specimens found during the cooler months of the year average larger, with more conspicuous abdominal bands, than those collected during the summer months. However, at no time during the year are all specimens of the large, banded type. Intermediate types are common. In size they resemble unbanded individuals but have a pale band on the fourth tergum and sometimes also on the third and fifth terga. It is such specimens that are listed as intermediate in Table 2.

The banded and unbanded types may be distinguished as follows:

Unbanded form	*Banded form*
Smaller.	Larger.
Abdomen appearing almost completely black from above, lateral patches of pale scales absent on first two or more segments and scarcely extending onto dorsum on following segments.	Lateral patches of pale scales present on all exposed abdominal segments, and extending across terga as narrow (one scale wide) white basal bands.

The seasonal distribution of these forms may be seen in Table 2.

TABLE 2

	Mar.	Apr.	May	Jun.	Jul.	Aug.	Sep.	Oct.	Nov.
Per cent unbanded	43	50	50	50	66	100	100	78	35
Per cent intermediate (slightly banded)	57	17	33	33	34	0	0	22	40
Per cent banded	0	33	17	17	0	0	0	0	25
No. of specimens studied	28	6	6	6	22	7	15	23	40

No specimens are available for December, January, and February.

It is clear that considerable percentages of banded and slightly banded specimens persist into the summer months of June and July. Whether they emerge during these months or are specimens which survive from the spring months is not known.

Specimens studied from more northern localities (Warner Robins, Georgia; Opelika, Alabama; Hattiesburg, Mississippi) are all of the unbanded type but all were collected in September or October.

Culex salinarius Coquillett is closely related to *C. nigripalpus*. The banded specimens of the latter resemble *salinarius* even more closely than the unbanded ones and do not run clearly to one species or the other in the key given by King, Bradley, and McNeel.[2] The pale abdominal scales of *C. salinarius* are yellowish

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[2] King, W. V., C. H. Bradley, and T. E. McNeel. 1942. The mosquitoes of the southeastern states, U. S. Dept. Agr. Misc. Publ., 336, 96 p., 26 figs., 6 pls.

or golden, while those of *nigripalpus* are white. Furthermore, when the pale scales are numerous in *C. salinarius* they are most extensive at the apex of the abdomen, often largely covering the seventh segment, while in banded *nigripalpus* the pale scales are most numerous on the middle abdominal segments and do not cover the seventh segment. The two species are easily distinguishable by characters of the male genitalia and the larvæ.

CULEX (MELANOCONION) SPP.

Three species of *Melanoconion* are widespread in the southeastern states. Externally they are indistinguishable, or nearly so, in the females, although the larvæ and male genitalia are quite different. The cibarial armature of the female of one species is distinguishable from that of the others. These three species are *C. erraticus* Dyar and Knab, *C. peccator* Dyar and Knab, and *C. pilosus* (Dyar and Knab).

Winter specimens, chiefly females, of *C. erraticus* and probably of one or both of the other species have been noted with white basal bands two or three scale-rows in width on the abdominal segments. At other seasons of the year pale scales of the abdominal terga are confined to patches at the sides of the abdomen. Available material is insufficient to give further significant data on the occurrence of banded forms of *Melanoconion.*

The abdominal bands of some winter specimens of *Melanoconion* are definitely conspicuous, for which reason they cannot be properly run through such keys as that of King, Bradley and McNeel.[2]

An examination of series of *Culex pipiens* Linnæus, *C. quinquefasciatus* Say, *C. salinarius* Coquillett, and *C. restuans* Theobald showed much individual variation but none clearly correlated with the seasons.

SUMMARY

Seasonal variation occurs in larvæ and adults of *Culex* (*Neoculex*) *apicalis* and in adults of *C.* (*Culex*) *nigripalpus* and *C.* (*Melanoconion*) spp. in the southeastern United States. In all three cases the adults have more extensive white areas on the abdomen in winter than in summer, and in at least the first two species winter specimens average larger than summer ones.

Winter larvæ of *apicalis* are not only larger, but darker and structurally slightly different from summer specimens. Seasonal differences were not observed in four other species of *Culex*.

In *Culex apicalis* conspicuous seasonal variation in adults is apparently limited to the southeastern states other than Florida. In the north and west all specimens are similar to the winter form of the southeast, while in Florida the summer form of the other southeastern states appears to occur throughout the year.

SOME EARLY ENTOMOLOGICAL IDEAS AND PRACTICES IN AMERICA

BY HARRY B. WEISS

Early ideas and practices in any field should be considered in connection with the times in which they circulated. When viewed many years later, in the light of accumulated knowledge and wisdom, they frequently appear fanciful and unworkable. On the other hand some early workers and observers had ideas far in advance of their time and with the passage of years the soundness of their judgment has become apparent. The following examples, drawn from various records, are cited as early expressions of entomological thought and suggestion.

Occasionally, translations of foreign papers were published in our early scientific journals. One of these, entitled, ''A Memoir on Animal Cotton, or the Insect Fly Carrier,'' by Baudry des Lozieres, founder of the Society of Sciences and Arts at Cape Francois, was read before the American Philosophical Society in 1797 (Trans. vol. 5, no. 18, p. 150–159). The author, in this paper, refers to a caterpillar that destroyed indigo and cassada plantations at Santo Domingo. He described the caterpillar, its food, mating of the adults, eggs, natural enemies, etc., but was particularly interested in the activities of an ''ichneumon'' parasite. Parsitized caterpillars changed color, increased in size and assumed a state of ''factitious pregnancy.'' Lozieres described the cocoons of the parasite, but did not seem to be aware that the parasitic larvae had been feeding within the body of the host for he said, as soon as the larvæ were hatched, without moving from the spot where the eggs were laid, they yielded a liquid which hardened upon contact with air and then spun their cocoons. These cocoons fascinated him. He said they were made of the finest cotton and he called it cotton because it was ''idio-electric'' and was pervious to the ''electric fluid.'' As soon as the parasites emerged, the cocoons could be carded and spun and in less than two hours it was possible to collect 100 pints of cocoons as they were always plentiful. Such ''animal cotton'' could also be used in hospitals, as it did not inflame wounds like silk and vegetable cotton. Baudry des Lozieres believed that the use of such cocoons would introduce a new branch of commerce with the West Indian colonies and make useful an insect previously known for the trouble it caused. However, this new branch of commerce never developed. At the time the idea was suggested, commerce was uppermost in the minds of many persons and it is likely that proposals involving any increase in trade always received the most attention.

A posthumous paper on ''Facts, Experiments, and Observations Relative to Some American Species of Lampyris, or Fireflies . . .'' by Dr. Thomas Walmsley appeared in the Medical and Physical Journal in 1807 (vol. 2, pt. 1, Nov. 27, Suppl. 1, Mar. 7, Sect. 2, Art. 4, p. 118–123). Dr. Walmsley reported that when Lampyris was immersed in water, it drowned in fifteen to twenty minutes, but shone with almost as much brilliancy as when in the open air. Immersed in spirit of wine, it lived for five or six minutes, remained ''opake'' for two or three minutes, then flashed for three or four times, losing part of its opacity after each flash. In a perfect Torricellean vacuum it shone for a short time and then became ''opake.'' Upon the admission of the least amount of air, it shone again. Walmsley tried carbonic acid gas, hydrogen, oxygenated muriatic acid gas, oxygen and azotic gas and noted their effects upon the luminosity of the beetle. He then described the part emitting the light and stated that the air taken in by the spiracula had no communication with the luminous part. He believed that the air came into contact with the ''phosphorescent'' substance some other way.

Numerous workers before and after Walmsley have been excited by luminous organisms and much investigational work has been done on the biology, physics and chemistry of such forms. It is now known that the light organs of fireflies consist of a dorsal mass of reflecting cells and a ventral mass of photogenic cells well supplied with tracheæ and nerves. It is in the photogenic layer that the substance luciferin is oxidized in the presence of an enzyme, luciferase, under the control of the nervous system. The brilliance of the flash is determined by the flow of air through the tracheæ and tracheoles.

Dr. Walmsley was born near Philadelphia in 1781. When nineteen he began the study of medicine at the University of Pennsylvania, receiving the degree of M.D. in 1803. He practiced in Chambersburg, Pa., and then in Elizabethtown, Md. During the years immediately preceding his death at the early age of 25, he was much interested in the light of fireflies and in the natural history of these insects.

About 1810 the idea must have prevailed that insect abundance and human disease went hand in hand because in order to combat this idea the "Medical Repository and Review of American Publications on Medicine, Surgery and the Auxiliary Branches of Philosophy," published in 1810 (vol. iv, p. 304–305) an unsigned statement entitled "Insects in Abundance not Necessarily Connected with Sickly Seasons," from which the following is quoted.

"In describing pestilential seasons, it has been very common to notice the innumerable swarms of insects. Some observers of the phenomena attendant on times of sickness have even been led to an opinion that the growth and multiplication of these tribes of animals is promoted by that condition of the atmosphere and the waters which is unfriendly to the health of man. We suspect, however, this is by no means correct. The summer and autumn of 1800 was very productive of insects in the states of New York, New Jersey & Pennsylvania and still no considerable degree of sickness occurred, either in city or country. Locusts were so thick in West Jersey and the eastern parts of Pennsylvania—as to keep up a continuous noise." Other cases are cited of numerous forest tree insects but no remarkeble human illnesses prevailed. "There is therefore no necessary connection between swarms of insects & pestilential seasons. But it is nevertheless true that during some periods of epidemic sickness, there have been great numbers of insects. These, however, have been merely accidntal coincidences & by no means indicate a law of nature on the subject. On the contrary—some insects are killed by pestilential air as has been often observed of common house-flies, vast numbers of which died on the approach of the sickness in New York toward the latter part of the summer of 1799. For the future, physicians & others who describe pestilential seasons, should be careful not to use the broad & unqualified term 'insect'—but instead particularize the species which is abundant. This is the safest & will mean more to readers.''

On October 10, 1810, the Rev. William Smith wrote a letter from Norwalk, Connecticut, to Doctor Mitchill, editor of the Medical Repository about ''Observations on the Decay of Fruit Trees, and on Lean and Shriveled Fruit, as Caused by Insects,'' which was published in 1811 (vol. 14, no. 4, p. 350–354).

It appears that some peaches on exhibition in New York were destitute of pulp, juice and flavor. Some resemblance was traced between their external form and that of hickory nuts, and this led to a belief on the part of some that they represented a mongrel production. The Rev. Smith inquired into the facts, found that they came from the Moses Hanford orchard, of Canaan and concluded that the trouble was caused as follows: ''Some fly, to which the apricot and nectarine trees are more accessible than others, injects its eggs or semina, which contaminate the juices of the tree so powerfully as to stop the fructification, at an earlier or later stage, according to the strength of the trees.'' The tree in question showed exudations of gum and numerous ''insect incisions,'' and the fruit was dried and shriveled. Probably the trouble was due to the shot-hole borer, or to peach yellows or to ''little-peach,'' or to all.

The Atlantic Monthly in 1832 (vol. 1, no. 1, p. 13–14) published an article by Constantine Samuel Rafinesque that does him no credit although at the time everything probably seemed to be reasonable and in order. It is entitled ''Confirmation of the Important Discovery of the Property of Sulphur in Trees, to Destroy all Insects Preying on Them.'' The article is quoted below and in it Rafinesque claims the now doubtful honor of being the first ''tree plugger'' in America.

''Farmers and Gardeners ought to hail with rapture a safe, certain, easy and unfailing mode of driving away or destroying all the insects, bugs, caterpillars, lice, ants, which prey upon trees and often kill them.

''Numberless have been the means proposed or devised to get rid of these troublesome guests, most of which are dirty, costly, or unavailing. Our farmers appear to have given up in despair the hope of preventing the deadly attacks of curculios on the roots of peach trees, and the fruits of the plumb tree. Yet an efficacious mode is said to have been found several years ago in France, perfectly efficacious and applicable to all cases and all trees. The name has not even reached us. But we claim the honor to have been the first to make known the process in America, in 1823 in Kentucky, and in 1827 in Philadelphia. Yet the most useful knowledge is so slow to spread, that the fact is hardly known yet, or doubted by those who know of it.

''We are happy to be able to publish two direct experiments in support of the fact and discovery.

''First. We bored and plugged with sulphur in the usual way, a plumb tree which commonly dropped every year all the plumbs before becoming ripe, the curculios lodging eggs in their germs. This was done when the tree was in blossom. On that year hardly any fruit fell, and the tree produced quite well.

''Second. We find in the Genesee Farmer of January 28, 1832, that a young willow nearly killed by aphis or lice, and pissmires feeding on their honey, was quite revived in three days, and all the lice and ants driven off, by boring the tree with an augur five feet from the ground and three-fourths through the diameter, filling with brimstone and plugging tight. The tree has thrived ever since.

''The *modus operandi* of this singular process is very easy to explain. The vital energy of the tree and sap, dissolves the sulphur, carries it into circulation, and evolves it in sulphuric gas evaporating through all the pores of branches, leaves and fruits. This gas is a deadly poison to insects and all animals, it suffocates them or drives them away as soon as they begin to smell it; but no injury whatever results to the tree.

''We have never heard yet of any direct experiment on peach trees; but we are sure it will answer quite as well. If the sulphuric emanation could not reach quick enough the roots of the trees which are commonly attacked; the plugging must be near the root or at the time of the descending sap, when it will sooner reach the roots. Let it be tried and the results made known. C.S.R.''

The Franklin Society of Providence, R. I., published at Providence in 1829 an 8-page pamphlet entitled ''General Directions for Collecting and Preserving Articles in the Various Departments of Natural History,'' in which it is stated that beetles may be killed by immersion in spirits of wine, or hot water and also by touching their heads with spirits of turpentine or by putting them under an inverted tumbler and filling it with sulphur fumes, by means of lighted matches held under one edge. However, J. P. Kirtland, 24 years later, or in 1852, in the American Journal of Science and Arts (vol. 63, no. 38, March, p. 286–287) said that compressing the thorax, puncturing the thorax with a needle dipped into oxalic acid, killing with ether, chloroform, or sulphur fumes, were all objectionable because they impaired the beauty of the specimens and mutilated them as well. His method was to puncture the thorax once or twice with a needle dipped previously in a strong solution of potassium cyanide. He advised also that, in order to prevent oily exudations and to preserve colors, the abdominal contents should be removed and replaced by cotton. Detailed directions were given for the dissection, stuffing and sewing-up of the body.

At the annual fair of the New Haven Agricultural Society, held at New Haven, Connecticut, Mr. Noyes Darling, on October 1, 1845, gave a popular talk on the importance of knowing about insects and much of his information came from Harris's ''Insects Injurious to Vegetation.'' Darling recommended the study of insects as a part of education and said, ''If the time ever comes, as it may come, when the interference of government shall be required to stay the ravages of insects, a thorough knowledge of them will be indispensable to enlightened and well directed legislation.'' In addition, he asked, ''Why should not government make war upon cutworms and plum weevils, as well as upon barberry bushes and Canada thistles?'' Darling, who was a graduate of and a tutor in Yale, one time mayor of New Haven, a judge of the county court, and interested in horticulture and agriculture, would be amazed, were he alive today, at the entomological activities of government.

A publication called ''The Annual of Scientific Discovery'' was started, in Boston, in 1850, to record the most important discoveries and improvements in mechanics, natural philosophy, chemistry, zoology, botany, geology, etc., etc., etc. As a rule entomology did not occupy much space in the Annuals, but in the one for 1851, a statement was copied from the ''London Journal of Arts'' about the electroplating of insects, flowers, etc., as a means of preserving them. The insects were first steeped in a solution of phosphorus and then in a solution of nitrate of silver. The phosphorus caused the silver to precipitate upon the insect and to form a very thin metallic coating over every part of it. Upon this a thicker deposit of metal was obtained by the ''electrotype'' process, after which two or three small holes were made through the coating and the specimen heated so as to drive off the moisture. This method of preserving insects was ignored by collectors and museums alike.

Biological control was not highly regarded at first even by some entomologists. In Brooklyn, N. Y., there appeared, in 1862, a report on ''The measure worm Ennomos subsignaria; a description of the insect in all its metamorphoses, its history and progress, and a systematic plan for its final extermination, together with remarks on the state of the shade trees, in the city of Brooklyn, N. Y.'' This report, prepared by H. A. Graef and Edward Wiebe, was submitted to a large committee appointed by the Brooklyn Horticultural Society, which ordered its publication.

The insect in question had been a pest of Brooklyn shade trees for a number of years. In 1860 the Common Council passed a resolution ''to free the city from the perpetually increasing measure worm nuisance, even by removing from our streets all trees infested by this insect.'' The control plan of Graef and Wiebe was extensive. It involved a mapping of the area, the scraping of all egg masses from all trees during the winter. During April, tar rings four inches wide, were to be applied to the trunks and larger branches. Such caterpillars as were found beyond the tar bands were to be removed with the foliage by means of shears. Any caterpillars escaping the operations thus far were to be syringed with a strong tobacco infusion or destroyed by daily repeated beatings or jerkings of the tree and branches with proper tools and machinery. If any caterpillars still resisted and spun cocoons then the cocoons were to be gathered and destroyed. If, after all the foregoing had been done, adults appeared they were to be caught in nets or syringed from the trees like the caterpillars. Such uninterrupted warfare, carried on with energy, must as a matter of course, so the authors stated, reduce the infestation considerably in a short time. In addition the cooperation of wrens was to be enlisted by the erection of cheap, useful, simple and lasting wren houses, in the city streets.

In the preparation of their report, the authors consulted entomologists and other scientific and learned persons. It was received flatteringly by almost everyone. There was, however, one exception. Dr. Trimble, of Newark, N. J., a member of the original Committee on Shade Trees, dissented. He said that it was useless to spend a single dollar, because a little ''fly'' was destined to do the controlling. The authors would not have mentioned this at all if Dr. Trimble had not published his adverse opinion in the ''Newark Weekly Mercury,'' of October 14, and sent copies of this paper to most of the members of the Committee. The authors claimed that the insect had been getting worse over a period of 25 years and they did not believe that a parasite, all at once, would be able to combat an enemy so strong. As practical men, they preferred to rely on their own exertions, refusing any help from ''a fanciful agency.'' It is not known if the measures recommended in the report were attempted or if everything was left to the parasite. Mr. H. A. Graef, one of the authors of the report, came from Aix-la-Chapelle, Germany, in 1848, and settled in what is now known as Bay Ridge, Brooklyn. He established himself as a florist and he was also interested in natural history and in collecting local plants. His son, Edward L. Graef, previous to his death, was a well-known member of the Brooklyn Entomological Society.

NEW PSYCHODIDÆ FROM BARRO COLORADO ISLAND

By William F. Rapp, Jr.

Five apparently new Psychodidæ together with one new genus are described in the following pages. The flies were all collected on Barro Colorado Island by Dr. C. H. Curran. The types are in the American Museum of Natural History. The writer is indebted to Miss Janet L. Cooper for the drawings in this paper.

Psychoda Latreille

Psychoda eburna, new species

(*eburneus,* ivory-white)

Female.—Antennæ (Fig. 1, a, b) thin, beads ovate, brownish-white-haired; face and occiput yellowish-white, the front with scattered long, white hairs. Thorax with dense long brownish-white hairs except on the scutum which is bare and yellowish white. Legs with abundant brownish-white hair, uniform from coxa to tarsal segments. Abdomen with very thick and long brownish-white hairs. Wing (Fig. 1, c) thickly brownish-white-haired, especially along the posterior margin. Length of wing, 2 mm.

Type.—Holotype, female, Barro Colorado Island, Canal Zone, January 10, 1929 (C. H. Curran).

This species may be easily recognized by the shape of the antenna beads and the light brownish-white color.

Psychoda maculosa, new species

(*maculosus,* spotted)

Female.—Antennæ (Fig. 2, b, c) thin, light-brown-haired; face and occiput with light-brown, the front with light-brown hair. Palpi short, with brown hair. Thorax with dense brown hair except on the anterior scutum which is shining light-brown, entire squamæ with long brown hair. Legs with long brown hair, also with brown scales, tarsi with brown white scales, base of first tarsal segment with a brown ring at base. Abdomen brown-haired, the dorsum, lighter at the segmental lines and with a black spot at center of each segment. Genitalia with brown hair. Wings (Fig. 2, a) thickly brown-haired, with dense clusters of hairs at the ends of the veins, which form small brown patches. Length of wing, 2.25 mm.

Types.—Holotype, female, Barro Colorado Island, January 7, 1929; four paratypes, Barro Colorado Island, January 8, 1929 (3) and January 10, 1929. All collected by C. H. Curran.

This species may be recognized by the shape of the antennæ and the spots at the ends of the wing veins.

Psychoda brevitarsa, new species

(*brevis*, short; *ταρσδs*, tarsus)

FEMALE.—Antennæ (Fig. 3, b, c) thick, brown-haired, segments ovate in shape; densely haired. Face with brown iridescent scales, occiput brown, the front with brown hair. Palpi long with short brown hair. Thorax with dense brown hair, except on the sides which are shining brown. Legs with scattered brown hairs, but completely covered with brown iridescent scales. Tarsal segment very short. Abdomen brown-haired, last segment with light-brown scales. Genital segment with two long black hairs. Wings thickly brown-haired. Length of wing, 1.75 mm. (Fig. 3a).

Types.—Holotype, female, Barro Colorado Island, Canal Zone, January 8, 1929, three paratypes Barro Colorado Island, January 8, 1929 (2) and January 10, 1929. All collected by C. H. Curran.

This species may be recognized by the antennæ and the short tarsi.

Psychoda atraseta, new species

(*ater*; black; *seta*, hair)

FEMALE.—Antennæ thick, the last two segments with thin white hairs, the rest thick with abundant black hairs; face and occiput black, the front with black hair. Palpi long, with bushy black hair, the apical segment white. Thorax with dense black hair except on the area directly below the wing which is yellowish-white. Legs with abundant black hairs, tarsi with alternate bands of black and white hairs, basal segment, white. Abdomen black-haired, the dorsum gray. Second and third segments nearly devoid of hair on dorsum. Genital segment with long brown hair. Wings (Fig. 4, a) thickly brown-haired, with dense patches of black hair at the ends of the veins. Length of wing, 2.25 mm.

Type.—Holotype, female, Barro Colorado Island, Canal Zone, January 10, 1929 (C. H. Curran).

This species may be recognized by the antennæ, bushy black with white terminal.

Kupara, new genus

(*kupar*, cooper; in honor of J. L. Cooper)

This genus may be recognized by the forming of R_2 and R_3, beyond the center of the wing. R_4 and R_5 branch at the center of the wing. M_1 and M_2 branch past the center and before R_2 and R_3. M_2 does not join with M_1 (Fig. 5, a).

Genotype.—*Kupara albipeda*, new species.

Kupara albipeda, new species

(*albus*, white; *pes*, foot)

FEMALE.—Antennæ (Fig. 5, b, c) slender, dark brown-haired; face dark brown, occiput with light brown hair, the front with dark brown hair. Palpi long with dark brown hair. Thorax shining brown, with clumps of long brown hair. Legs, femur and tibia with thick dark brown hair, tarsi with white scales. Abdomen brown with white bands at the segmental lines. First segment with very few hairs, but increasing on the following segments, genital segment thick with dark brown hairs. Wings (Fig. 5, a) brown-haired and brown in color, at tips of radial veins a patch of very long dark brown hair. Length of wing, 2 mm.

Types.—Holotype, female, Barro Colorado Island, Canal Zone, February 13, 1929; paratype, Barro Colorado Island, Canal Zone, February 18, 1929 (C. H. Curran).

This species may easily be recognized by the white tarsi and the antenna.

(JOUR. N. Y. ENT. SOC.), VOL. LIII (PLATE III)

PSYCHODA

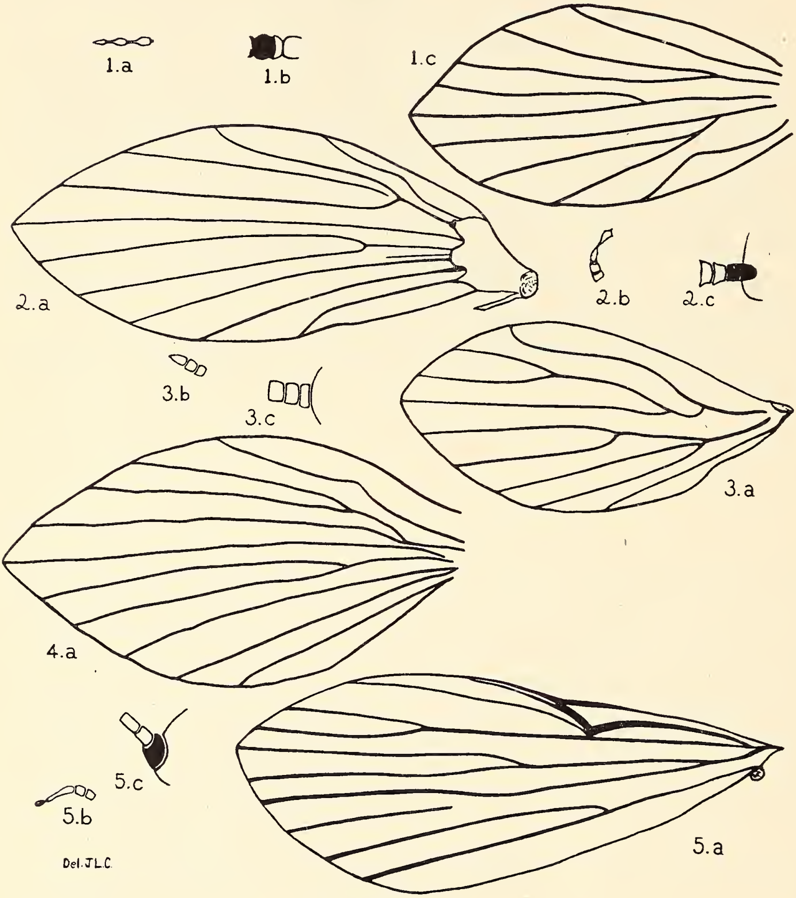

PLATE III

Figure 1. *Psychoda eburna,* n. sp.—(a) tip of antenna, (b) base of antenna, (c) wing.
Figure 2. *Psychoda maculosa,* n. sp.—(a) wing, (b) tip of antenna, (c) base of antenna.
Figure 3. *Psychoda brevitarsa,* n. sp.—(a) wing, (b) tip of antenna, (c) base of antenna.
Figure 4. *Psychoda atraseta,* n. sp.—(a) wing.
Figure 5. *Kupara albipeda,* n. sp.—(a) wing, (b) tip of antenna, (c) base of antenna.

NEUROPATHOLOGY IN INSECTS[1]

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Neuropathological pictures resulting from insecticide action have been recorded for the insect nervous system by Krüger (1931), Klinger (1936), Richards (1941), Wigglesworth (1941) and especially by Hartzell and his colleagues (1932–1944). The aim of the present paper is to present the numerous data we have gathered on various compounds, to compare these data with other published data, and to discuss the relation between the various pathological pictures and the cessation of nerve action. The effects of compounds on other tissues is not considered. Analysis of the action of pyrethrum is presented in considerable detail. Other compounds are then treated more briefly, practically as summaries, without specific reference to the hundreds of experimental animals involved. Such a space-saving procedure seems warranted in view of the thesis of the present paper; this thesis being that the visible pathological changes induced in nerves by insecticides are at least largely postmortem and accordingly too complex for analysis at the present time.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

For most of the original data presented in the present paper we used adults or sometimes large nymphs of the American cockroach (*Periplaneta americana*). In some cases mosquito larvæ were employed (*Culex pipiens* and *Aedes œgypti*). The substances tested were introduced in acute dosages (commonly very large doses) either into the tracheæ or hemocœl by means of a syringe, or fed orally or applied to the cuticle. Some volatile

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[1] The work described in this paper was done under a contract, recommended by the Committee on Medical Research, between the Office of Scientific Research and Development and the University of Pennsylvania. Valuable technical assistance was given by Miss Jane L. Weygandt during the course of these experiments.

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substances were also used as vapors. Repeated chronic dosing was usually not tried. It has been shown in an earlier paper in this series (Richards & Weygandt, 1945) that organic solvents of low water solubility definitely tend to accumulate in the central nervous system particularly when applied in the tracheæ (Figs. 3, 13, 14). Tracheal injections have several advantages: the distribution of the substance can be checked with fair accuracy on dissection; also the injection may be made at either end of the animal, one end then serving as the experimental end, the other end serving as one kind of control (for some purposes this gives excellent results). The method of tracheal injection was accordingly commonly employed in studying the effects of lipid soluble materials on the nervous system.

The majority of the microscopic observations were made by the polarized light method which is highly sensitive and avoids questions of fixation artifacts (Schmitt & Bear, 1939; Richards, 1944). Quantitative changes in the birefringence of nerve cords can be measured with a high degree of accuracy (see preceding reference for illustrations). It is not possible to repeat the details of this technique here. Suffice it to say that with this method it is possible to analyze the effects of various toxins on both the nerve axoplasm and the surrounding lipo-protein sheath. In normal nerves there is a balance between positive and negative components of the birefringence, the positive elements being slightly stronger (having greater amplitude). Measurements in saline give the amplitude by which the positive components (axis cylinder and sheath proteins) exceed the negative components (sheath lipids). In glycerine (15 per cent in saline) the form birefringence of the proteins is largely masked, and measurements give the amplitude by which the birefringence of the lipid sheath exceeds the protein birefringence in this solution. Theoretically, elimination of *all* the positive (protein) birefringence should show the true negative (lipid) value, and vice versa. It is not possible at present to do this with nerves. But so long as conditions of measuring are kept standard the figures from various specimens can be compared quantitatively. When the measurements in glycerine remain constant (within the normal range), the previous measurements in saline indicate the condition of the positive or protein components; when both are lowered by the same or different degrees allowance must be made for the fact that we are dealing with a balance; when a nerve is isotropic in saline but not in glycerine then the two opposed components are presumably in balance and the measurement in glycerine gives a measure of the amplitude of each; and only when a nerve is isotropic in both saline and glycerine can we say that there has been an approximately complete decay of the birefringence.

With pyrethrum, valone, aniline, petroleum oils and a number of other materials, serial sections were prepared following routine paraffin procedures. Nerve cords or brains were fixed in 95 per cent ethyl alcohol plus 5 per cent glacial acetic acid, and after sectioning stained with toluidine blue and acid fuchsin. Polarized light analyses are applicable only to nerve fibers; investigation of possible histological effects on the nerve cell bodies must be done by the more usual methods of histopathology.

In many cases pathological effects can be seen even under the ordinary light microscope without fixation or other treatment. This is particularly true of substances which cause opacity, chromatin clumping or the release of droplets in the highly transparent nervous system of mosquito larvæ (Figs. 5, 15).

The condition of the insects was noted after application and at the time of dissection. A further check was made on the functional condition of the nerve cord by applying a direct electrical shock to selected parts of the nerve cords and observing any responses. Platinum electrodes were used either with an ordinary inductorium or an electronic multivibrator (thyratron controlled, condenser discharge circuit) adjustable to give shocks with frequency from 0 to 1000 per second, the duration and interval being separately controlled, and the voltage variable from zero to several hundred volts.

NORMAL STRUCTURE OF THE INSECT NERVOUS SYSTEM

The central nervous system of insects consists of nerve cells and their fibers surrounded by thin lipo-protein sheaths (Richards, 1944) and held together by tracheæ, neuroglia and a tough outer sheath, the neural lamella (Scharrer, 1939). The nerve cells are of typical structure but range from very small to only moderate in size. The nerve fibers are commonly very small (to less than 1 micron). The nerve sheaths are always thin, and in the case of small fibers are not detectable by ordinary microscopic methods and require polarized light methods for their demonstration.

The central nervous system (Fig. 2) is a solid structure arranged with the major fiber tracts centrally and the cell bodies in a peripheral layer in the segmental ganglia (Hanström, 1928). The interganglionic connectives and peripheral nerves consist of nerve fibers with some tracheæ and neuroglia. All ganglia, connectives and peripheral nerves are surrounded by the neural lamella.

The tracheal network in ganglia is most rich in the boundary between the cell body layer and the central fiber tract region. This is readily seen in favorable preparations (Figs. 1, 2). The distribution of tracheæ at this boundary may weaken it, and also, in cases where toxins are applied via the tracheæ, results in a maximum concentration and effect here. It is not surprising, therefore, that one of the recorded pathological changes in insect ganglia is a tendency for cell body and fiber tract regions to separate (Richards, 1941).

EFFECTS OF PYRETHRUM

For a standard of comparison with a well-known neurotoxic insecticide, two series of experiments were performed with pyrethrum concentrates. In the first series a known pyrethrum concentrate[3] was injected into the first thoracic spiracle of 25 adult cockroaches. Individual records were kept on each specimen: cessation of general movements, cessation of heartbeat, responsiveness of the nerve cord to electrical stimulation at the time of dissection, and the extent of distribution of the pyrethrum

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[3] Sample received from McLaughlin, Gormley, King Company, Minneapolis. Assay: 10.80 per cent pyrethrin I, 9.85 per cent pyrethrin II, total 20.65 per cent pyrethrins. In the absence of chemically pure materials there is, of course, no way of evaluating how much of the effect may be due to the other 80 per cent of the material, or whether or not there is any difference between the effects of pyrethrin I and II. This concentrate, however, is the kind used in preparing insecticides.

One should also remember that in tracheal injections we are always dealing with relatively large doses and rapid penetration.

concentrate throughout the tracheal system. Most of these specimens were examined with polarized light but representative specimens were serially sectioned and compared with published figures and descriptions of pyrethrum lesions. In the second series 24 last instar nymphs and adults were injected in the first or second thoracic spiracle with an unassayed pyrethrum concentrate, records kept individually as above, and the nerve cords later removed and examined with polarized light.

Following the tracheal injection there is an immediate initial paralysis that may be in part a reflex immobilization.[4] A few minutes later there is a partial recovery followed by a gradual decline and slower and slower movements of peripheral parts and eventually complete death. The legs, abdomen and heart may continue moving for many hours (up to 52 hours in these experiments). Electrical stimulation to test responsiveness was routinely performed on specimens still moving appendages at the time of dissection; specimens treated ½ to 52 hours prior to dissection showed in no case any response to direct electrical stimulation of the affected nerve cord. The fact that muscular movements may continue for many hours after the nerve cord is irreversibly paralyzed or even highly degenerate is good evidence for the selective nervous action of pyrethrum.

Analyses with polarized light revealed that nerve cords paralyzed with pyrethrum show first an effect on the axoplasmic colloid (axis cylinder) of the nerve, then somewhat later an effect on the lipid component of the nerve sheaths. It seems to be the latter that gives rise to the most prominent pyrethrum lesions. Both the axis cylinder of the nerves and the lipo-protein sheath may lose the ultrastructure responsible for the optical properties prior to the cessation of movement of appendages but not prior to paralysis of the nerve cord. These effects on the ultrastructure responsible for the optical properties are first seen in the region of maximum penetration, but with the passage of time extend to all parts of the nerve cord and to at least the larger peripheral nerves. The experimental technique employed was not sufficiently refined to permit direct demonstration of the

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[4] Reflex immobilization from injection of pyrethrum is not a specific action. It may result from any tracheal injection.

status of the optical properties of a nerve at the moment of paralysis, but we can infer that the visible effects are all postmortem since affected nerves are always paralyzed whereas normal-appearing nerves may or may not be paralyzed. The paralysis prevents both direct stimulation and the passage of impulses through to unaffected regions.

No illustrations of pyrethrum effects are given in the present paper. Adequate illustrations of the more advanced stages of degeneration as seen in serial sections have already been published by Klinger, Hartzell *et al.,* and Wigglesworth. The deterioration of optical properties can be measured with considerable accuracy but there is no point in publishing photographs of the various stages. Such a series of pictures would simply range from those published for normal nerves (Richards, 1944) to a complete absence of contrast (= no picture).

The two series, totalling 49 specimens, were sufficiently consistent so that the data may be combined and analyzed as follows:

In ten specimens that were dissected from ½ to 2½ hours after treatment there was usually a slight but significant decay of the positive component of birefringence but not any clearly demonstrable change in the negative component.[5] This is interpreted as meaning that the proteins of the axis cylinder of the nerves are degenerating but that the nerve sheaths are still normal. The decay of birefringence of the axis cylinder was most evident in the injected regions, the abdominal or posterior abdominal connectives being normal. Another specimen (1½ hrs.) serially sectioned and stained showed seemingly normal nerve tissue. The large nerve cell bodies and the fiber tracts appeared normal; there was a little homogeneous staining in the vicinity of pyrethrum-filled tracheæ but this is of questionable significance, and chromatin clumping was fairly general but not universal in the medium-sized nerve cells, usually absent in the large nerve cells and always absent in the neuroglia cells. The "typical" pyrethrum lesions were not found in this specimen.

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[5] In one of the above cases the reading in saline was approximately normal but an unusually high negative reading in glycerine implies an effect on the axis cylinder which was masked by slight stretching of the nerve cord during dissection. This phenomenon can be reproduced experimentally by deliberately stretching pyrethrum-treated nerve cords.

In eleven specimens that were dissected in 3½ to 7 hours after treatment the positive component of birefringence was considerably reduced but the negative component was still strong (nerves isotropic in saline but strongly birefringent in 15 per cent glycerine). This is interpreted as meaning that the optical properties of the proteins of the axis cylinders have degenerated to half or less than half their normal value, but that the lipo-protein sheaths are still normal or nearly so. This decay commonly extended farther posteriorly than the visible distribution of pyrethrum in the tracheæ but was not complete in the posterior abdominal segments. Another specimen (5½ hrs.) serially sectioned and stained showed relatively slight pathological changes, especially in stainability, throughout the area of penetration. Histological effects are thus evident but the changes are not of the extreme type described by Klinger, Hartzell and Wigglesworth.

In six specimens that were dissected from 12 to 14 hours after treatment the positive component of birefringence was low and the negative component was also somewhat reduced (nerves isotropic in saline but moderately birefringent in 15 per cent glycerine). This is interpreted as meaning an advanced state of degeneration of the optical properties of the axis cylinders and a beginning of degeneration of the lipids of the nerve sheaths. The decay is also more general throughout the nerve cord after this time interval. No specimen from this set was sectioned.

In eight specimens that were dissected from 24 to 25 hours after treatment the positive component of birefringence was further reduced or abolished and the negative component was also greatly reduced or even abolished in the regions of greatest penetration (less or not at all affected in regions far removed from the visible distribution of pyrethrum in the tracheæ). This is interpreted as meaning a complete or nearly complete degeneration of the axoplasmic colloid, plus an advanced degree of degeneration of the nerve sheaths. Effects are apparent throughout the nerve cord at 24 hours and are not limited to regions where pyrethrum is visible in the tracheæ. Another specimen (30 hrs.) serially sectioned and stained showed chromatolysis, vacuolization, etc., of the types described as ''characteristic'' for pyrethrum by Klinger, Hartzell and Wigglesworth, but commonly the sections illustrated by these authors represent more advanced stages of degeneration than is to be seen in this specimen.

A single specimen that was still moving its metathoracic legs 52 hours after treatment had a nerve cord with seemingly complete decay of all its optical properties (isotropic in both saline and glycerine). As seen without crossed Nicols, the axis cylinder and nerve sheaths were both obviously degenerate.

In nine specimens that appeared to be dead at the time of dissection (29½ to 56 hrs.) there was generally a complete decay of both the positively and negatively birefringent components of the nerve cords. In specimens with shorter exposures (29–30 hrs.) the negative component had usually degenerated completely only in the regions where pyrethrum was visible in the tracheæ; in specimens with the longer exposures (55–56 hrs.) the decay seemed complete throughout the nerve cord although pyrethrum was visible in only the thoracic tracheæ. As seen without crossed Nicols, these nerve cords were obviously degenerate. Another specimen (55½ hrs.) serially sectioned and stained showed extensive degeneration of the "typical" pyrethrum type.

The above data show that pyrethrum does have a selective nervous action as previously reported by others. As seen with polarized light, pyrethrum first causes degeneration of the colloid of the axis cylinder (and likely of the nerve cells). The degeneration of the nerve sheaths occurs later. Degeneration proceeds from the region of application towards and finally to other regions. The death of the animal does not bear any fixed relationship to the degree of degeneration of the central nervous system. All the histological effects seen in our experiments are subsequent to irreversible paralysis and are accordingly to be classed as postmortem pictures.[6] The appearance of vacuoliza-

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[6] Hartzell & Scudder (1942) used "moribund" flies four hours after treatment and obtained both slight lesions and chromatin clumping. Differences in technique and in the test animals used prevent strict comparison to these data. However, the use of peripheral movements as an index of life does not prove that the visibly pathological nerve cells were still living. Our "living" cockroaches had "dead" nerve cords. It is possible that some nerve cells may show changes before they die but this would be difficult to prove and has not yet been proven. Chromatin clumping is discussed in a later section entitled Suffocation and Acidity.

tion coincides with the time of breakdown of the lipo-protein sheaths and may be due to sheath products (Richards, 1943). The histological effects develop rather slowly following death of the nerves concerned, and we have found that these effects are remarkably similar to those seen in the autolytic degeneration of nerves in saline. It seems questionable, therefore, whether pyrethrum has any causal relationship to "pyrethrum lesions" other than killing the nerves. It is quite possible that a lethal concentration of pyrethrum develops in the central nervous system so far in advance of that in other tissues that advanced autolysis may develop there before other tissues even die.

EFFECTS OF "THANITE"

This commercial product and its active ingredient, isoborneol thiocyanoacetate (96 per cent) were studied mostly for the effect of the water miscible (soluble ?) fraction in the culture water of mosquito larvæ. Some tracheal injections were also performed with mosquito larvæ. Histological examination was made only by means of stained serial sections. The same results were obtained with "Thanite" as with isoborneol thiocyanoacetate. Selective degeneration of the nervous tissue is not so marked with this material as with pyrethrum but similar lesions (vacuolization) are produced in larvæ still capable of feeble movements (Fig. 7).

EFFECTS OF PETROLEUM OILS

The pathological changes resulting to brains and nerve cords from the application of various petroleum oils in the tracheæ of mosquito larvæ have already been described and illustrated in some detail (Richards, 1941). It was shown that asphyxiation might or might not occur in the experiments depending on the technique employed. It was also shown that the lighter oils containing unsaturated compounds produce a degeneration involving chromatolysis, cell separation and fiber degeneration (stained sections). At that time it was suggested that the histological effects might be postmortem insofar as the cells of the nerve cord were concerned, and that the effect is at least partly intercellular (*i.e.,* on the nerve sheaths). As seen in stained sections there are certain similarities between the histological effects of petroleum oils and those of pyrethrum and "Thanite." Cell separation and fiber separation are more distinct with petroleum oils, perhaps partly due to a solvent action of the oils on the sheath lipids.

The saturated, so-called non-toxic, petroleum oils can kill insects. They have not, however, been shown to produce any noticeable change in the nervous system or other tissues prior to death of the insect. When asphyxiation is avoided they do not produce any cytological changes visible in stained sections. Also, saturated petroleum oils do not alter the optical properties of the nerve fibers of cockroaches.

EFFECTS OF COBRA VENOM AND LYSOLECITHIN

A number of neurotoxic snake venoms have been studied by mammalian physiologists. Cobra venom is most commonly used. This venom is a complex mixture of toxins (see Ghosh, 1940; De, 1941; Macht, 1941; etc.) in addition to an enzyme, lecithinase A, which splits the fatty acids radical from lecithin to form the potent hemolytic agent called lysolecithin. In some of the older literature it was assumed that cobra venom acted on mammals by producing lysolecithin *in vivo,* the lysolecithin then causing death (Page, 1937, p. 80). In view of the obvious sheath degeneration caused in insects by some insecticides, this hypothesis was introduced into entomological literature by Richards (1943). Subsequently, however, experiments designed to test this suggestion have not given confirmatory evidence, and it seems advisable to abandon the hypothesis.

Cobra venom[7] is quite toxic to insects. It first paralyzes the nervous system, then later results in the deterioration of the optical properties of the axis cylinders, and only lastly causes a breakdown of the lipids of the nerve sheaths. This makes it seem dubious that lysolecithin formed during sheath breakdown could be an important factor in the action of cobra venom on insects. As a further check, lysolecithin was prepared by the action of crude cobra venom on egg yolks (chicken) following the techniques of King & Dolan (1933) and Levene *et al.* (1923, 1924). The preparation obtained was potent for hemolysis of erythro-

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[7] Supplied through the courtesy of Hynson, Westcott & Dunning, Baltimore.

cytes and seemed reasonably pure. Injections of maximal doses of saline suspensions into the hemocœl of cockroaches was without effect. One can question whether the lysolecithin penetrated from the insect's blood into the cells, but certainly the data do not support the idea that lysolecithin is toxic to insects. In vertebrates it seems that the effect of lysolecithin is expressed largely by hemolysis and rupture of capillaries—phenomena that are not found in insects.[8]

Bee venom is known to contain lecithinase A (Feldberg, 1940). Perhaps wasp venom does also. Hartzell (1935) has recorded nerve pathology with vacuolization in the ganglia of cicadas paralyzed by wasp stings. Insect venoms, like snake venoms, are complex mixtures (Beck, 1935). We have not had any venom of *Sphecius speciosus* for study, but certainly with cobra venom the pathological effects on insect nerves are subsequent to the death of the nerve cells.

EFFECTS OF TRIORTHOCRESYL PHOSPHATE

This is the causative agent of "ginger paralysis" in humans. It is moderately toxic to mammals but its exact effects are not clear (Lillie & Smith, 1932). Hartzell (1934) has shown that it can be used to produce lesions in the nervous system of insects. We have confirmed this with the polarized light method, but again the histological effects are found only after paralysis (death) of the nerve cells.

EFFECTS OF LIPID SOLVENTS

The selective accumulation of various lipid solvents in the central nervous system of mosquito larvæ has been treated in detail in a preceding paper (Richards & Weygandt, 1945). It was reported therein that organic solvents may diffuse from the tracheæ to become uniformly distributed throughout the fiber tracts (xylol, chloroform, etc., Fig. 14) or they may penetrate the tracheal walls and collect outside the tracheæ as droplets which disperse gradually (essential oils, Figs. 3, 4; various glycol derivatives, Fig. 13, etc.). Stained serial sections may reveal no visible effect in the case of the former, especially those that

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[8] Several potent toxins of mammals have little or no effect on insects. In addition to lysolecithin, the list includes histamine and curare.

are common ingredients of fixing fluids, perhaps partly because the same or similar solvents are used in histological techniques. Stained serial sections of brains into which the organic solvent has penetrated as droplets may show a considerable degree of seeming vacuolization, but the so-called vacuoles in these cases may represent the precipitation of tissue components around the periphery of invading droplets which are later dissolved away (Fig. 9).

With the polarized light method we studied the effects of injecting ethyl ether, ethylene dichloride, chloroform, xylol and toluene as fluids into the tracheæ of cockroaches. The effects of ethyl alcohol on extirpated nerve cords were also studied. When these solvents are used as fluids (relatively large amounts) they quickly block metatropic reversal by dissolving the sheath lipids. They do not destroy the optical properties of the axis cylinder, in fact they have good fixing properties except for lipids (see Richards, 1944, Figs. 5–10).

It appears, however, that the detectable solvent effects are not necessarily concerned with the anesthesia or death produced by these substances. When cockroaches are anesthetized or killed with the *vapors* of chloroform or ethylene dichloride there is no detectable change in the optical properties of the nerve cords.

EFFECTS OF INSECT REPELLENTS

Insect repellents are organic compounds, and like most organic compounds have lipid solvent properties. Accordingly, it is not surprising that when introduced into the tracheal system of insects they tend to accumulate in the nervous system, and that large doses of the fluids so introduced abolish (dissolve) the lipid component of nerve birefringence. Of more interest is the fact that they produce no detectable changes other than those which can be ascribed to their solvent properties. As with the preceding materials, the visible effects are subsequent to paralysis and presumably subsequent to death of the cells concerned. Materials tested included dimethyl phthalate, 2-ethyl hexanediol-1,3 (“Rutgers 612”), a,a′-dimethyl-a-carbobutoxydehydro-gamma-pyrone (“Indalone”), and synthetic Oil of Citronella.

When the above repellents are used as *vapors* they can kill cockroaches. It is particularly easy to kill cockroaches with the vapor (saturated atmosphere at room temperature) of synthetic citronella (12–26 hrs.). Dimethyl phthalate vapors also kill readily. Cockroaches are more resistant to ''Indalone'' and ethyl hexanediol but are eventually killed. The interesting aspects shown for repellent vapors are: (1) they can kill such a hardy insect as an American cockroach, and (2) they act like the vapors of other lipid solvents in not altering appreciably the optical properties of the nerves they kill.

EFFECTS OF ANILINE

This is an extremely toxic substance for all cells. As such it is not to be called a selective nerve poison; however, its effects on the lipids of the nerve sheaths are so striking that we are treating it separately. When aniline is injected into the tracheæ of mosquito larvæ and the nerve cords dissected out in saline immediately, the whole nerve cord (ganglia and connectives) is diffusely but unusually strongly birefringent (Fig. 17; compare to figures of normal nerve cords in Richards, 1944). If the nerve cord is now transferred to 10 per cent formalin in saline, birefringent particles appear within a few minutes and rapidly increase in size and brilliance (Fig. 18). These irregular particles are found *between* the cells and fibers throughout the ganglia and connectives. They dissolve and disappear within a few seconds in 95 per cent ethyl alcohol. Birefringent particles are not found if the nerve cord is left in saline. Untreated nerve cords in formol-saline retain their normal birefringence. It follows that aniline does not directly produce these particles but that it affects the sheath lipids in such a manner that the particles are produced by the fixation process.[9]

Similar but less striking effects (smaller particles) are obtained by the injection of aniline into the tracheæ of cockroaches and subsequently removing the nerve cords into formol-saline.

Serial sections of mosquito larvæ treated with aniline, and fixed first in formol-saline and then in the alcohol-acetic acid mixture, show many holes (''vacuoles'') in positions comparable to those occupied by the birefringent particles (Fig. 10). The presumption is that these holes and also the extensive cell separa-

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[9] Nerve cell lipids may be involved as well as the sheath lipids. What can be verified optically is that sheath lipids are involved.

tion result from the production and solution of such particles. Aniline is destructive to nerve cells in other ways too. Figure 10 shows that the nerve cell bodies are somewhat shrunken and stain heavily and nearly homogeneously.

Birefringent particles can be produced in insect nerve cords by several other means. Immersion of normal nerve cords in lower concentrations of ethyl alcohol (30–50 per cent) results in the production of birefringent particles which may appear similar to the above (Richards, 1943). Autolytic degeneration of normal nerve cords in saline gives a gradual diminution and eventually loss of the lipid component of sheath birefringence, but degeneration of normal nerve cords in 15 per cent glycerine in saline gives birefringent particles (Richards, 1944, Fig. 16). Particles that appear somewhat different can be produced by the action of certain essential oils (see next section). Clearly the production of birefringent particles can result from the action of a variety of treatments that seem to have no other obvious common action. So far as is known, all such particles appear postmortem.

EFFECTS OF ESSENTIAL OILS

Chemically, essential oils are diverse compounds, commonly complex mixtures. Included are terpenes, aldehydes, esters, resins, etc. Some are relatively toxic substances, others less so. Some are attractants to certain insects (*e.g.*, eugenol), others are repellents (*e.g.*, citronella). All these tend to accumulate in the insect nervous system (Richards & Weygandt, 1945) where they usually penetrate as clusters of droplets from the tracheæ (Figs. 3, 4); these clusters disperse slowly throughout the nerve cord and eventually lose their identity in mixing with the degenerating nerve substances. Some notes on essential oils have been included in preceding sections.

In terms of histopathological effects the members of this diverse group of substances produce various effects. Observations on gross changes in the nervous system of mosquito larvæ were made during the penetration studies cited above. The list tested included: oil of thyme, natural oil of citronella, citronella "tails," synthetic oil of citronella, eugenol, geraniol, cinnamic alcohol, ''Citrola'' and several perfume bases called ''Petrodars.'' As mentioned above these substances first penetrate as droplets clustered around the tracheæ. Serial sections of mosquito larvæ treated with oil of citronella (Ceylon ST) show clear acidophilic nuclei in which no chromatin threads can be seen,[10] and some ''vacuoles'' around the tracheæ (presumably arising from precipitation of the tissue elements followed by solution of the citronella droplets, Fig. 9). Gross pathological changes were noted only in the cases of eugenol, citronella ''tails'' and oil of thyme.

Eugenol is striking in that nerve cords fixed in formalin show many rounded particles or globules (Fig. 15) which are weakly birefringent (Fig. 16). It seems most likely that the optically active material in these globules comes from the lipids of the nerve sheaths. The rounded shape and relatively low amplitude of birefringence suggest that they are not identical with the particles resulting from the application of aniline, alcohol or glycerine. These globules in nerve cords treated with eugenol resemble somewhat the ''myelin figures'' that can be produced by the action of water on preparations of phospholipids. Somewhat similar but less striking results were obtained with the unknown mixture that constitutes the end distillation product of citronella (''citronella tails'').

Oil of thyme is a destructive material to various types of cells. The nerve cords of mosquito larvæ treated with this material are opaque and obviously highly pathological. No extensive analysis of the action of oil of thyme was attempted.

EFFECTS OF ''VALONE'' AND ''TERTIARY BUTYL VALONE''

Most of our experiments were performed using ''Valone'' (2-isovaleryl-1, 3-indandione), and accordingly this compound will be discussed first. Individual experiments were performed on more than 300 adult cockroaches and 200 mosquito larvæ in addition to the accompanying controls. Various types of ap-

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[10] Similar dissolution of chromatin has been reported for isobutyl undecylene amide by Hartzell & Scudder (1942) and for piperine by Hartzell & Strong (1944). Several other oils (mustard, croton, cantharidin, colchicine, etc.) are listed by Haas (1941) as primary nuclear poisons in vertebrates.

plications were employed in an attempt to elucidate the erratic results obtained in the use of this compound in our experiments on cockroach control. The variations in effectiveness for practical control programs are not of primary interest to the present paper where only effects on the nervous system are to be considered. Intensive study of these practical variations did, however, lead to the accumulation of an unusually large amount of pathological data.

The methods of application employed included blood and tracheal injections of both oil and alkaline-saline solutions, oral feedings, cuticle applications in sealed wax cells, and *in vitro* studies of the effects on extirpated nerve cords.

Cockroaches affected with ''Valone'' become completely paralyzed. The effect from blood and tracheal injections is quite rapid. With acute doses attainment of complete paralysis may require only a few minutes or even a few seconds. With smaller doses the effect is slower. With sublethal doses no effects were noticed. With tracheal injections the immediate paralytic effect can be localized to the region of injection and there does not appear to be any marked stimulation transmitted to the yet unaffected parts of the nervous system. Electrical stimulation of exposed nerve cords shows that ''Valone'' both paralyzes the affected ganglia and blocks transmission of impulses through to unaffected areas. With oral and cuticle applications the effect is slower (may require days) and highly erratic in that many individuals are never affected. In all cases, irrespective of the mode of application, once animals are affected they show the same paralytic symptoms, and in all of our cases cockroaches once showing paralytic symptoms always died. The variability concerns only the time for the effects to develop and whether or not the effects ever do develop. In part this probably represents unexplained variations in penetration or absorption but it also seems partly due to various uncontrollable degrees of enolization.

Nerve cords of slightly more than 100 cockroaches affected with ''Valone'' were examined with polarized light. The results were entirely consistent irrespective of the mode of application or the time lapse between application and paralysis. In all cases the nerve cords or the affected regions thereof showed complete or almost complete loss of the positive component of birefringence. This is interpreted as indicating destruction of the ultrastructure responsible for the optical properties of the axis cylinders of the nerve fibers. Correlated with the above is a great diminution or even loss of the elasticity of the nerve cord, and also a diminution of the photoelastic properties, but we do not as yet sufficiently understand the elastic and photoelastic properties of whole nerve cords to localize or evaluate effects thereon.

It seemed that the effects on the optical properties of the axis cylinder were always subsequent to irreversible paralysis but because of the time lag involved in dissection this was checked by *in vitro* experiments. Extirpated cockroach nerve cords were measured with polarized light in saline, and then while observation was continued a ''Valone'' solution in alkaline saline was drawn under the cover glass and the beginning and completion of the effect timed. Measurable changes, with only one exception, required 2–4 minutes or longer, and a large effect such as obtained in dissections after treatment required 10–15 minutes or longer. This is much slower than the paralytic action under comparable conditions and so demonstrates that the visible effect is post-paralysis and presumably postmortem.

The effects of ''Valone'' differ from those of all other substances tested not only in the drastic effect on the axis cylinder but also (and even more strikingly) in the apparent absence of any demonstrable effect whatsoever on the nerve sheaths.

Serial sections of ''Valone''-treated cockroach nerve cords showed nearly normal histology. Even the axis cylinders of nerves appeared in reasonably good condition despite the known extensive degeneration of the optical properties. The only abnormal condition found was a moderate amount of chromatin clumping in a fair percentage of the nerve cells. As will be pointed out in the section on Suffocation, this indicates an increased cellular acidity presumably brought about by the ''Valone''-injury.

''Tertiary butyl valone'' (2-pivalyl-1,3-indandione) was not studied so intensively as ''Valone.'' It was used on 75 cockroaches and 140 mosquito larvæ. The symptoms it produces are comparable to those found for ''Valone,'' and so the effects seem likely to be similar so far as the nervous system is concerned.

EFFECTS OF OTHER DESTRUCTIVE AGENTS

In the course of work on penetration a number of very destructive organic compounds were encountered (Richards & Weygandt, 1945). Octyl alcohol (2-ethyl hexanol) can serve as an example of the more extreme of these. It accumulates in the central nervous system when injected into the tracheæ of mosquito larvæ but since it is somewhat soluble in water (0.1 per cent) it can travel readily in the insect's blood or be used for *in vitro* studies. The results are similar whatever method of application is employed.

The most obvious gross effect of octyl alcohol is to make the normally transparent brain and nerve cord of mosquito larvæ nearly opaque. Commonly the neural lamella becomes separated from the nerve cord by a clear space (Fig. 5). Observation of extirpated nerve cords treated *in vitro* shows that the neural lamella is not detectably altered but that the nervous tissue shrinks away from it. Using high magnifications it is possible to see that considerable cellular dissolution, as well as shrinkage, has occurred in these brains. Without any fixation artifacts being involved, one can see in these whole mounts in saline that octyl alcohol produces opacity, shrinkage and extensive cellular dissolution.

In serial sections of fixed brains extensive destruction is apparent. Commonly the peripheral parts of the brain have lost all appearance of cellular structure and consist of relatively uniform basophilic granular material (Fig. 11). Nuclei of recognizable cells are stained a solid dark blue. The fiber tract regions do not appear to be as badly cytolyzed as with some other agents (Fig. 12). Other tissues are also extensively affected by octyl alcohol, for instance the cytoplasm (but not nuclei) around muscle fibers has nearly or quite disappeared and the muscle fibers themselves show no cross striations.

Obviously the extensive destruction due to octyl alcohol is not selectively on the nervous system, and the dissolution is so great that no analysis of the effects is possible.

More or less similar, but usually less destructive, effects were obtained with a number of other compounds, some of which are used in insecticides. The list includes methyl diethanolamine, monoisopropanolamine, morpholine, benzyl "cellosolve," cinnamic alcohol, m-cresol acetate, oleic acid, butyl carbitol acetate, butyraldehyde, oil of thyme, trichlorethane, ethylene dichloride, and to a lesser extent a number of other organic substances. The aminated alcohols are especially destructive to tissues.

EFFECTS OF SUFFOCATION AND ACIDITY

In connection with studies on petroleum oils one of us pointed out that asphyxiation causes a reversible clumping of chromatin within nuclei (Fig. 6, see also Richards, 1941). This criterion can, under properly controlled conditions, be used as an index of suffocation. However, the phenomenon can be produced by other agencies (*e.g.*, pressure) and so is no specific result of asphyxia itself. No explanation of the chromatin clumping was offered in the above paper. More recently it has been called to our attention that Nassonov analyzed this phenomenon in a paper published in 1932 (see also Alexandrov, 1932). He presented strong evidence supporting the view that the clumping is due to increased acidity in the nuclei (gut cells of fishes).[11]

Increased cellular acidity can be obtained in a number of ways. Asphyxiation can lower the pH by increasing the CO_2 concentration. It is also rather generally accepted that one of the common effects of injury to cells is increased acidity (Ettisch & Jochims, 1927). Thus one sees references to "the acid of injury" in physiological literature (see, *e.g.*, Heilbrunn, 1943). Several kinds of injury can produce clumping of chromatin, *e.g.*, pressure (Buck & Boche, 1938).

In view of the above, it is not surprising that chromatin clumping has been recently recorded as an effect obtained from the action of an insecticide (Hartzell & Scudder, 1942). We too have found chromatin clumping fairly general but not universal in pyrethrum-treated nerve cells of cockroaches.[11] We have also obtained chromatin clumping in nerve cells from the action of

[11] Chromatin clumping seems to be a general response to asphyxia in cells with large nuclei. It has been observed and studied in gut cells, gland cells and nerve cells. It is, however, not found in the small nuclei of the neuroglia cells of the central nervous system of cockroaches. Since one would expect asphyxia to lower the pH of all cells it would seem that the chromatin of some nuclei is unaffected by this degree of acidification (Fig. 6).

''Thanite'' and ''Valone.'' Apparently, this effect can be interpreted as meaning no more than that the affected cells were injured in such a way (manner unknown) that they become somewhat more acid. This, however, is more than one usually learns from a histopathological effect, and it is interesting that some insecticides do this and others do not.[12] When this clumping is produced by asphyxiation it occurs before death and is fully reversible up to the time of death. It would be very interesting (and desirable) to find out whether or not it is premortem and reversible when produced by insecticide action but this has not yet been studied.

TOXINS WITHOUT KNOWN HISTOPATHOLOGICAL EFFECTS

A number of well-known insecticides apparently do not produce any histologically visible effects in insects. Krüger (1931) and Hartzell (1934) both failed to find any effects from the application of rotenone. McIndoo (1916) and Hartzell & Wilcoxon (1933) report no effects from nicotine. The latter workers also found no histopathological effects in nerve cords of insects killed with lead arsenate. In our work we were unable to detect any notable changes in nerve cords treated with formalin, ''non-toxic'' mineral oils (*e.g.*, Marcol GX), sodium fluoride or ''DDT'' (2,2-bis-(p-chlorophenyl)-1,1,1-trichloroethane). Possible effects from ''DDT'' have been studied by us in some detail. The nerve cords of dying cockroaches have normal optical properties and may even still be capable of transmitting impulses set up by electrical stimulation. Stained serial sections prepared from cockroaches dying from the effects of ''DDT'' showed no clear effects in the nerve cords or other tissues.[13]

It has already been noted in a previous section that lipid solvents used as vapors cause no demonstrable histological effects in insect nerve cords.[14] It seems probable that a rather large num-

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[12] This criterion, of course, is not applicable to those agents which cause a dissolution of the chromatin. The work of Haas (1941) is of interest in suggesting possible differences in terms of nuclear versus cytoplasmic action of drugs.

[13] In addition to nerve cords we examined midgut epithelium, malpighian tubules, thoracic muscle, ''heart'' and nephrocytes.

[14] Shull, Riley & Richardson (1932) concluded, ''it is probable that lethal concentrations of most gaseous compounds do not produce marked visible changes in the blood'' of cockroaches.

ber of insecticides and other toxins will not give rise to notable histopathological changes in insects.

DISCUSSION

The term "nerve poison" is encountered rather commonly in discussions of insecticide action but seldom defined. Actually, it is a loose term without any very precise meaning. As commonly employed in insecticide literature it is used to categorize the action of compounds that seem to produce symptoms involving the nervous system. Sometimes there is an implication that other systems and tissues are less or not at all involved.

Logically at least four degrees or categories of effects on the nervous system can be recognized: 1) A substance may affect all cells (octyl alcohol, aniline, fixing fluids, etc.), and may cause either degeneration or fixation of nerve cells non-selectively. These compounds are not referred to as nerve poisons. 2) A substance may have a significantly lower threshold for its action on nerves. At somewhat higher levels it may affect other tissues. 3) A substance may accumulate in the central nervous system and so reach toxic levels there sooner than in other tissues. This is rather general for lipid soluble substances. Since the concentration of a substance in a bathing solution is not necessarily an index of the concentration within cells or tissues it is commonly very difficult to separate truly lower thresholds from accumulation phenomena. In most cases no attempt is made to do so. Whether or not one is to call substances nerve poisons or selective nerve poisons when they affect other tissues at slightly higher concentrations or slightly longer times seems to be a matter of definition (and accordingly will vary with the purpose for which the term is used). 4) Lastly, there are some substances such as atropine which are thought to act specifically on nerve systems. One could add drugs such as eserine (physostigmine) to this last category, but eserine not only poisons the specific cholinesterase in the nervous system but also poisons other esterases from other tissues. An animal poisoned with eserine apparently dies because of the anti-cholinesterase action on the nervous system but less vital esterases of other tissues are also poisoned. With so many possibilities and gradations the term "nerve poison" cannot have any specific meaning. By the time the action of a substance is sufficiently understood to state what is meant physiologically by calling it a nerve poison, a more precise term or statement would seem possible. Despite all its vagueness, or perhaps because of its vagueness, the term "nerve poison" is useful at times to express an action involving the nervous system.

Pyrethrum is not only one of the most standard of insecticides but also the classical example of an insecticide that is termed a "nerve poison." With the above preamble in mind, we would like to discuss the present state of our knowledge concerning the neurotoxic action of pyrethrum. The literature is voluminous and the following citations make no pretense of completeness. In 1924, Juillet, d'Everlange & Ancelin first suggested that pyrethrum was a neuromuscular poison because of the paralysis produced. Saling (1928) added cogent evidence since he could obtain what he thought were effects on the nervous system but could detect no effects on the respiratory system or blood. A considerable series of papers treat or mention the nervous symptoms of stimulation, narcosis, paralysis and death from pyrethrum, notably Buchmann (1929), Krüger (1931), Hartzell & Wilcoxon (1932), O'Kane *et al.* (1933), Gösswald (1934), Wigglesworth (1941), Eagleson (1942) and especially Hutzel (1942). Although the skeletal muscles seem to be stimulated extensively (Krüger, 1931; Klinger, 1936; Hutzel, 1942), the heart is only slowly affected (Krüger, 1931; Belleuvre, 1938). A number of authors have recorded and figured extensive histopathological changes in the central nervous system (Krüger, 1931; Hartzell *et al.,* 1932–1942; Klinger, 1936; Wigglesworth, 1941; and the present paper). Krüger and Hartzell also both record histological changes in other tissues, especially muscles. The recent paper by Sweetman & Gyrisko (1944) sounds as though they can obtain in firebrats a progressive localized narcosis involving various tissues but their data do not yet permit any real analysis of the situation (they also get the "typical" pyrethrum symptoms). Hurst (1943) considered the question of cuticle penetration of pyrethrum and other substances from a physico-chemical viewpoint, and Richards & Weygandt (1945) showed that pyrethrum, like other lipid solvents or lipid soluble materials, selectively penetrates into and accumulates in the nervous system. The present paper deals rather extensively with the time relationships between loss of responsiveness of nerve cords to electrical stimulation, blocking of nerve transmission, paralysis and the appearance of histopathological changes. Preliminary oscillographic studies of the effect of pyrethrum in inducing spontaneous outbursts of impulses and modifying normal impulses have been presented by Lowenstein (1942) and Ellis, Thienes & Wiersma (1942).[15] The recent papers by Roy *et al.* (1943, 1944) seem to us not convincing and not significant; they will not be considered in the following discussion. The latest review of the action of pyrethrum seems to be that of Campbell (1942); older discussions are given by Shepard (1939) and Hoskins (1940). A number of papers have appeared on the effects following injection of pyrethrum into mammals; the most recent of these is by Leonard (1942) who agreed with previous authors in reporting nervous stimulation leading to convulsions and respiratory paralysis but a depression of muscle contractions in isolated pieces of intestine and an absence of neuropathology.

These lines of evidence for a neurotoxic action of pyrethrum may be grouped under five headings: 1) stimulating effect leading to paralysis and death, 2) histopathological changes, 3) accumulation and threshold concentrations, 4) early loss of responsiveness of nerves to electrical stimulation, and 5) effects on the action potential.

The nervous symptoms and diagnostic effects are thoroughly discussed by Hutzel (1942) and reviewed by Campbell (1942). The sequence of activation, convulsions and paralysis, as they point out, suggest stimulation of peripheral sense organs or sensory nerves, stimulation of the central nervous system and then paralysis. These data are quite suggestive and seem correctly interpreted, but they leave unanswered the question of possible effects on other tissues and the question of why the heart is affected so slowly.

The histopathological changes seem to us the poorest line of evidence. Unlike certain other tissues, a functioning nerve undergoes no visible changes.[16] All one can study is chemical processes

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[15] This paper deals with the peripheral nerves of crayfish (crustacea) but the data are nevertheless of entomological interest.

[16] With tissues in which one can follow the functioning cytologically, a stronger case can be made for histopathology (note for instance how little

and electrical phenomena. Using direct electrical stimulation of nerves and ganglia as a means of verifying the functional status of the nerve cord, we were unable to produce visible changes with pyrethrum (or any other insecticide) until after the nerves concerned were dead.[17] The degenerative effects and lesions therefore seem postmortem and accordingly incapable of being analyzed at present. Also there is no fixed relation between the degree of degeneration of the central nervous system and the death of the experimental insect. More serious is the fact that, except for possible differences in the time factor, the degeneration of pyrethrum-killed nerves follows a course similar to that of nerves degenerating in saline (present paper) or in the body after suffocation (Richards, 1941). Pathological changes have also been recorded for muscles (Krüger, etc.). In view of the fact that the central nervous system degenerates more rapidly than other insect tissues (Richards, 1941), it seems at least possible that the degeneration seen in pyrethrum-killed insect nerve cords might be due to autolysis.[18] If this is true, then the recorded histopathology from pyrethrum could be interpreted as indicating no more than death of the central nervous system prior to that of other tissues.

The chromatin clumping in nerve nuclei (Hartzell & Scudder, 1942) is a good criterion but seemingly indicates only that the cells have become somewhat more acid (Fig. 6). It seems likely that this increased acidity may be due to the pyrethrum but it

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reference is made to nerves in Ludford's review). However, although histopathology is of great use for diagnostic purposes in medicine, it is not viewed with favor by cellular physiologists or biochemists. It may in some cases give clues for study but it does not seem likely to explain much of the physiology of toxic action.

[17] Data from vertebrates are probably not strictly comparable but we can note that Schmitt, Bear & Palmer (1941) were unable to affect nerve sheath structure *in vitro* with detergents, autolysis, calcium or potassium prior to the death of the nerves, and Leonard (1942) found no pathology in the brains of rabbits and mice in convulsions from pyrethrum.

[18] The difficulty in this connection is to decide what is the "normal" course of autolysis. Some method must be used to kill the cells. This automatically complicates the analysis. We have found that physical methods such as heat and cold introduce invalidating errors. Any chemical is suspect. The two methods recorded here seem to us best although it cannot be claimed that either is "normal."

would be difficult to prove that an "acid of injury" is really involved in this case. It is not yet known whether this is premortem (cell viewpoint) when produced by insecticide action.

Very few data are available on cytopathology of insect nerves from the action of pyrethrum or any other insecticide. The data from optical analyses given in the present paper are cytological (and even based on submicroscopic structure) but cover only the optical properties of the nerve fibers. The degeneration we found in these properties was postmortem for the specific cells concerned.[17] Except for the phenomenon of chromatin clumping discussed above, other possible cytological changes in insect nerve cells (Nissl patterns, mitochondria, Golgi apparatus, etc.) have been scarcely or not at all studied (see especially review by Ludford, 1942).

Nothing is known about the threshold for the action of pyrethrum. MLD determinations can be made accurately but they give no indication of the quantitative distribution within the insect. Until actual thresholds for different tissues are determined (or a specific chemical action to nerves alone demonstrated), it does not seem possible to state that pyrethrum has a *specific effect* on nerves since the material has been shown to penetrate selectively into and accumulate in the nervous system (Richards & Weygandt, 1945). In any experimental insect one has almost certainly a greater concentration in the nervous system than in other tissues. It is conceivable, but not necessarily true, that the apparent selective action is a result of the differences in distribution in the insect. Some distribution phenomenon such as this may possibly account also for the slow effect on the insect heart and its intrinsic nerves.

It was found in our work that pyrethrum paralyzed nerves so that they would not respond to direct electrical stimulation, and also blocked the transmission of impulses through affected ganglia. Yet peripheral movements might proceed for many hours. This is a direct proof of nerve paralysis. It substantiates the conclusions already drawn by others from the general symptoms and general paralysis. The paralysis, however, is still open to the same questions mentioned above; namely, that other tissues may be affected and the quicker effect on nerves may merely reflect the distribution of the pyrethrum.

Preliminary data on action potentials also corroborate the stimulatory and paralytic effects of pyrethrum. This insecticide can alter normal action potentials in cockroach nerve cords (Lowenstein, 1942) and induce spontaneous discharges in crayfish peripheral nerves (Ellis, Thienes & Wiersma, 1942).

The one function that a nerve has (transmit an impulse) is affected by pyrethrum as shown by general body reactions, spontaneous discharges, altered discharges, and loss of responsiveness. Without question, then, pyrethrum has a definite and strong effect on the insect nervous system, and it seems safe to conclude that its normal action on an intact insect is to stimulate and then paralyze. It remains for further work to show how much other tissues are affected, and in how far the selective nervous action is due to selective penetration and accumulation in the nervous system. It seems superfluous to add that as yet we have no idea as to what specific effect pyrethrum has on nerves or other tissues (in terms of cellular physiology or biochemistry).

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It may be convenient to some to have a summary of the types of pathological effects recorded in the present paper.[19] The use of optical analyses of treated nerve fibers has a number of advantages over the usual routine histological procedures (Schmitt & Bear, 1939; Richards, 1944). Outstanding among the advantages, the changes in optical properties can be measured accurately and expressed quantitatively. At least with those substances studied by us intensively, the method either reveals changes not detectable by ordinary sectioning methods (since based on submicroscopic structures and organization) or is at least more delicate (shows small measurable changes sooner). Fixation and sectioning, with their attending artifacts, can be avoided. A clear distinction between effects on the axis cylinder and effects on the nerve sheaths is usually obtained as a routine result of the several measurements in different media. The optical method, however, is applicable only to nerve fibers; it cannot be used to study the nerve cell bodies.

[19] Of the many treatises on vertebrate, especially human, neuropathology, we might recommend Spielmeyer (1928), Weil (1933), Speransky (1935), Page (1937), Young (1942), and Ludford (1942) as particularly useful references.

Nerves may become granular in internal appearance. This is the first visible change in normal nerves viewed in ordinary light as they die and begin to degenerate in saline. The granularity is preceded by a loss of the optical properties of the axis cylinder, which in turn is preceded by death of the nerve. This granularity is best seen in intact nerves viewed in saline; it is commonly not detectable in stained sections.

Various kinds of larger particles may occur with some materials. These may be either inside or outside the cells and fibers. Birefringent particles which are soluble in lipid solvents and occur *outside* the fibers most probably originate from the release of the optically active lipids of the nerve sheaths although one can not exclude the possibility that some of the lipids might have been drawn out of the interior of the nerve fibers (Figs. 15–18). Isotropic particles and globules are of more uncertain origin.

Vacuoles, like particles, may occur either within or between the cells and fibers, but the largest ones are found *outside* of the cells (Figs. 7–10). The holes called "vacuoles" in insect histopathology do not or at least do not necessarily represent vacuoles in the usual cytological sense. They represent the precipitation of tissue constituents around some particle or droplet which is subsequently dissolved during preparation of the section. The nature of those that are found *inside* cells is unknown, and it does not seem possible to attribute their presence directly to the action of the killing agent since they might represent autolytic phenomena (see Ludford's review). The holes that are found *outside* of the cells and fibers can sometimes be identified with fair certainty. The possibilities are that they represent breakdown products of the nerve sheaths produced either by the action of the toxin or by autolysis, or that they represent actual droplets of the toxin, or that they represent material withdrawn from or extruded by the cells. The last possibility is difficult to exclude but examination of unfixed specimens in saline helps in certain cases. In attempting to determine from what the holes originate it is desirable to examine specimens in saline because in several cases (*e.g.,* aniline) we have been able to demonstrate that the particles and hence "vacuoles" are fixation phenomena. In stained sections the "vacuoles" appear simply as holes bearing no label as to their previous contents.

There are three other phenomena that seem best studied in unfixed nerve cords in saline. These are shrinkage, opacity and chromatin clumping. So much shrinkage is involved in making sections that this effect should be studied in saline, preferably the toxin applied after measuring and during observation. Shrinkage most likely indicates a water loss, but in insecticide studies the reasons for such a loss do not seem easy to analyze. Opacity must be examined in unfixed material since fixation produces opacity, and clearing in mounting media masks it. Opacity may be used as an index of abnormality, but interpretation of it would seem difficult. Chromatin clumping can be readily observed either in transparent tissues in saline (or even in intact transparent animals) or in stained sections. As a reversible physiological phenomenon it should be experimented with either *in vivo* or *in vitro* but as a product of a particular treatment it can be just as well seen in stained sections. Since it appears to be caused by changes in the cellular pH, care must be taken to be sure that the effect is really due to the action of the insecticide. Its possible reversibility when produced by insecticide action merits investigation.

Other forms of degeneration are best or sometimes only seen in sections.[19] Chromatolysis or various forms of staining and non-staining that differ from controls (not necessarily "normals") is usually studied in stained sections (Figs. 10 & 12). With certain dyes this is possible both *in vivo* and *in vitro* but such techniques have not yet been applied to insect nerve pathology. An alteration in staining capacity is the least radical of changes recorded in previously published literature. Extensive changes in the staining properties of insect nerve cells and fibers treated with insecticides are, in our experience, subsequent to irreversible paralysis of the nerves and so presumably postmortem. It is quite possible that some changes in stainability and in fine cytological structure may occur in nerve cells prior to the death of the cells concerned but this is not easy to study or prove and has not yet been done.

More extreme forms of degeneration are numerous. One could apply many terms and describe long series of stages. In general, two types of extreme degeneration can be distinguished although they commonly occur together: cell and fiber separation, and cell and fiber degeneration. Separation is produced by agents which injure or destroy the nerve sheaths, and may be due directly to the toxin (Fig. 10) or to autolysis following death caused by the toxin (Fig. 7). Separation is greatly affected by fixation since the cells and fibers can shrink independently instead of as a unit. Separation is always accompanied by more or less degeneration of the nerves but may be extreme at a time when the nerve cells and fibers still appear fairly typical. The separation is commonly most noticeable at the boundary between the central fiber tract area and the peripheral layer of nerve cell bodies. Probably several factors are involved: this seems to be the weakest part of the tissue and also the layer in which most of the tracheæ occur (Fig. 2) and in which "vacuoles" may be particularly prevalent (Richards, 1941). The destructive agents which cause radical degeneration, lytic or otherwise, are recordable but beyond analysis by the methods used in this paper.

As mentioned previously, the data in this and other papers deal with the effects of single acute doses. No localized action on particular centers of the insect central nervous system has been reported. In our work we have not noticed any such local effects from insecticide action. It seems that the substances studied affect all nerve cells indiscriminately when applied in the doses we used. At least one reservation must be made. To date no one seems to have studied seriously the possible occurrence of localized effects (more susceptible nerve centers) resulting from prolonged, repeated chronic doses.

In conclusion on the types of histopathological changes found in nerves following insecticide action, we can say that a fairly large number of varieties have already been recorded in the present and other papers. There is no reason to think that others cannot be found. A number of insecticides produce effects which parallel and so presumably represent autolysis phenomena (pyrethrum, "Thanite" & petroleum oils); certain other insecticides produce effects more or less distinct from autolysis ("Valone," lipid solvents, certain essential oils, etc.). It seems that one could go on indefinitely performing such experiments and describing in detail the histological and cytological pictures obtained. The value of such a mass of data seems to us questionable. At least in the best analyzed case (acute doses of pyrethrum) there is no fixed relation between the degree of degeneration and death of the insect. And in no case have we found detectable pathology from an insecticide prior to the irreversible paralysis (and presumably death) of the cells concerned. Chromatin clumping is a possible exception since when it is produced by suffocation it is premortem and then reversible. Chromatin clumping is a phenomenon that seems to us profitable for further study.

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Cytologically the insect nervous system is similar to that of vertebrates, especially to the non-myelinated fibers such as are found in the vertebrate autonomic system. The cells are smaller, the sheaths thinner, and the connective tissue less, but the basic structure of the cells and fibers so far as has been determined is the same (Richards, 1944; Scharrer & Scharrer, 1944–1945). The chemical or at least lipid components are comparable (Patterson, Dumm & Richards, 1945). Also insect nerves are cholinergic, *i.e.*, have an acetylcholine-cholinesterase mechanism, but there are at least qualitative differences in the cholinesterases of insect and vertebrate nerves (see Richards & Cutkomp, 1945).

Accordingly, we may conclude that the insect nervous system is similar in many ways to the vertebrate nervous system, particularly to the vertebrate autonomic system (Jordan, 1928; the Roeders, 1939; the Scharrers, 1944–1945), but that some differences seem to exist (cholinesterase). A more intensive study of the insect nervous system and its relation to insecticide action is needed. It seems to the present authors that histopathology has little if anything to offer this further analysis. The possible use of cytopathology of insect nerves has not been sufficiently studied for evaluation but the slight amount of data available is not encouraging. Studies of the reactions of insects to drugs (including some insecticides), of nerve enzymes and biochemical processes, and of electrical phenomena are the methods that seem promising for studying the action of neurotoxic insecticides.

SUMMARY

1. Data are presented on the histopathological effects caused by acute doses of various materials including pyrethrum, "Tha-

nite,'' petroleum oils, venoms, triorthocresyl phosphate, lipid solvents, insect repellents, aniline, essential oils, ''Valone,'' acidity, and a number of highly destructive compounds of which octyl alcohol is taken as an example. Cockroaches and mosquito larvæ were used as test animals. No visible effects were obtained with ''DDT'' and certain other compounds. Optical analyses, routine stained sections and *in vitro* analyses were used; electrical stimulation of the nerve cords was employed to determine the physiological state of the nerves being studied.

2. The various types of pathological pictures can be described by the use of terms such as decrease or loss of one or more of the components of the optical properties, granularity, chromatin clumping in the nuclei, and various stages of cell dissolution ranging from chromatolysis to particle production, ''vacuolization,'' opacity, shrinkage, and extensive cell and fiber separation and disintegration.

These categories are not sharply defined or mutually exclusive. A particular toxin may produce a more or less characteristic picture under a particular set of conditions but at least with pyrethrum there is no fixed relationship between the death of the insect and the degree of degeneration of the nervous system.

3. The physiological and histological effects of pyrethrum are considered in some detail. It is concluded that previous workers are correct in calling this insecticide a ''nerve poison'' but that the histological (and what is known for cytological) changes are similar to those produced by autolysis and may not be directly caused by the pyrethrum. Pyrethrum penetrates selectively into and accumulates in the nervous system of insects. Its threshold for nerves, its possible thresholds for and effects on other tissues, the relation between these thresholds, how it kills and whether or not it has a *specific* effect on nerves, are points not yet covered by the existing literature.

4. Lipid solvents used as fluids in considerable quantity remove the lipid component of the sheath birefringence. Used as vapors, however, they kill without producing any visible effect. Accordingly the visible effects that can be produced cannot be the cause of death from these substances.

5. Insect repellents have a visible effect on nerves comparable

to that of lipid solvents. Used as fluids they abolish the lipid component of birefringence but used as vapors they kill without visibly altering the structure of the central nervous system.

6. In all cases studied, nerves were paralyzed and presumably dead *prior* to the appearance of any abnormalities or lesions with the possible exception of chromatin clumping. Accordingly all histopathological pictures recorded for insect nerves, with the possible exception of chromatin clumping, are to be classed as "postmortem," and their further analysis is of questionable value. The same statement may be made for the little that is known about insect nerve cytopathology. It seems to us that histopathology of insect nerves may at times give some slight help in localizing the action of certain insecticides but that it is at best a crude and likely to be misleading measure of physiological effects in insects. The reservation should be repeated that existing data refer to the effects of acute doses; the possibility of obtaining more localized effects on particular centers by prolonged chronic dosing has not been sufficiently investigated as yet.

7. The term "nerve poison" is a rather vague concept. It is a convenient term but not a specific one. It can mean either that the substance has a lower threshold in nerves, or accumulates there more rapidly or in greater amounts, or it may mean a truly specific action. However, the analysis of insecticide action on nerves requires more specific techniques than histopathology and the demonstration of paralysis.

8. The suggestion (Richards, 1943) that lysolecithin formed by the breakdown of nerve sheath lipids may be concerned in insect paralysis, is discredited. Cockroaches are not visibly affected by the injection of maximal quantities of lysolecithin, and the nerve sheaths are not detectably affected by cobra venom prior to paralysis. Certain other substances highly toxic to vertebrates have little or no effect on cockroaches (histamine, curare).

SUPPLEMENTARY NOTE

While this paper was in press Hartzell (1945) published a paper on the histopathological effects of several compounds used in insecticides, including "DDT." He stresses the selective action of certain substances on nuclei, nuclear membranes, nerve cell cytoplasm, nerve fibers or intercellular spaces, and notes that these differences connote something different in the way of action of the substances concerned. He further suggests that the synergistic effect of certain substances may be due to the activator attacking one cellular component, the insecticide another. The paper is subject to the same criticisms pointed out in the above text, and it is difficult to attempt interpretation on the basis of such data.

Hartzell records ''relatively slight'' pathological effects from ''DDT.'' He has no real knowledge of whether or not the nerves concerned were living or dead but since the time interval was short (and ''DDT'' effects are relatively slow) they may well have been still functional. However, at least in cockroaches, more variation is seen in long series of controls (or normals) than Hartzell shows for the differences between normal and DDT-killed houseflies. Possibly Hartzell did obtain a slight effect (assuming that histology of the central nervous system is less variable in houseflies than in cockroaches) but the slight effects recorded agree with the usual autolysis picture. We can only repeat that in our ''DDT'' experiments dying cockroaches which had responsive nerve cords showed no effects that could not be ascribed to normal variation and matched by control preparations.

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PLATE IV

Figure 1. Whole mount of supra- and sub-œsophageal ganglia of mosquito larva showing the distribution of tracheæ. The tracheæ are filled with Eugenol saturated with Black Sudan B. Magnification 55 ×.

Figure 2. Obliquely tangential section of prothoracic ganglion of an adult cockroach showing the distribution of tracheæ principally in the boundary region between the fiber-tracts and cell-bodies. One half is cut tangentially through this boundary and shows several tracheæ in longitudinal section. Magnification 45 ×.

Figure 3. Whole mount of supra- and sub-œsophageal ganglia of mosquito larva showing spotty penetration of stained oil of citronella from the filled tracheæ. Magnification too low to show the droplet-type of penetration (see figure 4). Magnification 45 ×.

Figure 4. Portion of whole mount of supraœsophageal ganglion of mosquito larva showing the droplet-type of penetration. Tracheæ incompletely filled with stained ''Citrola.'' Magnification 220 ×.

Figure 5. Whole mount of supraœsophageal ganglion of mosquito larva. Tracheal injection of octyl alcohol has caused the neural lamella to separate from the brain (shrinkage of the nervous tissue). Magnification 55 ×.

Figure 6. Portion of section of a thoracic ganglion from a suffocated cockroach. Shows extreme chromatin clumping in most but not all of the nerve cells, whereas the nuclei of the neuroglia cells (vertical row on right side) are normal. Magnification 470 ×.

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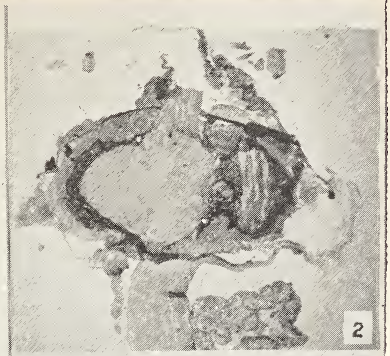

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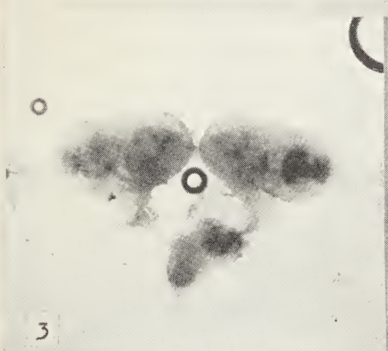

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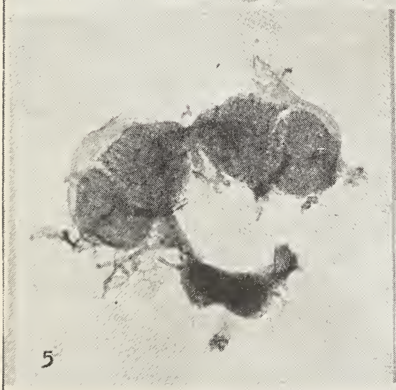

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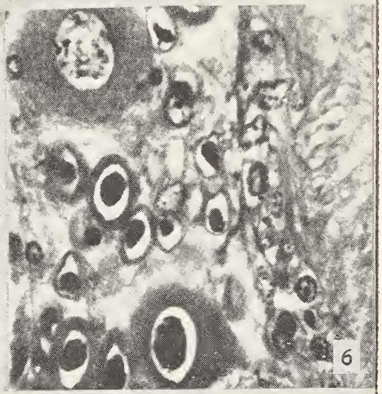

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PLATE V

Figure 7. Longitudinal section of fourth abdominal ganglion of mosquito larva dying from the effects of a tracheal injection of isoborneol thiocyanoacetate (active principal of ''Thanite''). Note ''vacuolated'' fiber tract region. Compare figure 8. Magnification 470 ×.

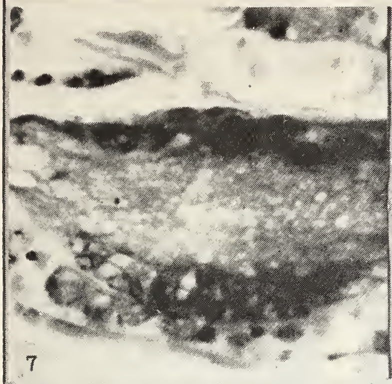
Figure 8. Longitudinal section (slightly oblique) of fourth abdominal ganglion of mosquito larva with tracheal injection of a ''nontoxic'' mineral oil (''Marcol GX''). Control for figure 7. Magnification 470 ×.

Figure 9. Section of supraœsophageal ganglion of mosquito larva. Tracheæ filled with stained oil of citronella. The arrow points to a cross-section of a trachea. The holes adjacent to this trachea presumably represent droplets of citronella. Magnification 470 ×.

Figure 10. Section of subœsophageal ganglion of a mosquito larva killed by a tracheal injection of aniline. Magnification 435 ×.

Figure 11. Portion of a section through the cell-body region of supraœsophageal ganglion of a mosquito larva killed by a tracheal injection of octyl alcohol. Note indistinctness of cells in central part and disintegration to granular layer in peripheral part. Magnification 400 ×.

Figure 12. Section of subœsophageal ganglion of a mosquito larva killed by a tracheal injection of octyl alcohol. Magnification 470 ×.



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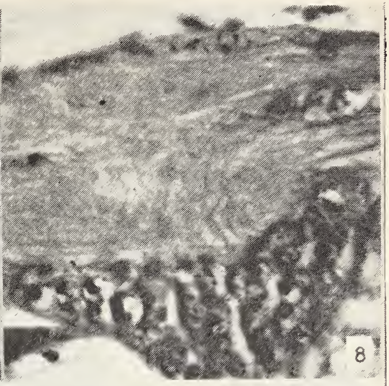

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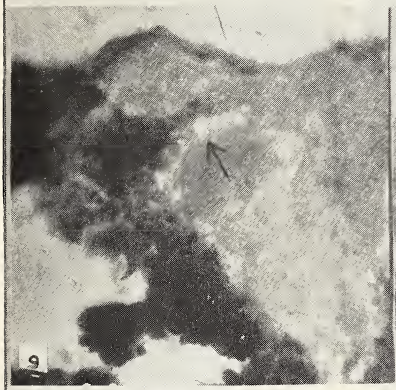

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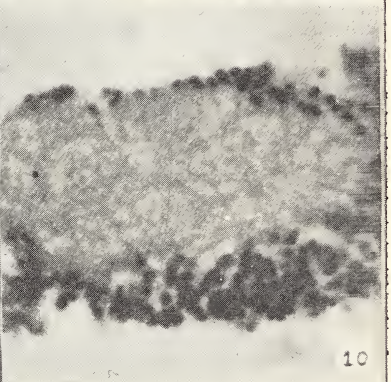

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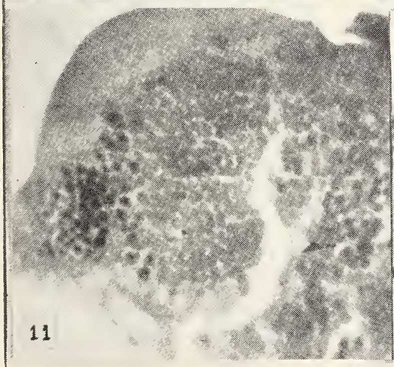

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PLATE VI

Figure 13. Portion of a whole mount of supraœsophageal ganglion of mosquito larva showing penetration of stained droplets of propylene glycol monolaurate from injected tracheæ. Magnification 470 ×.

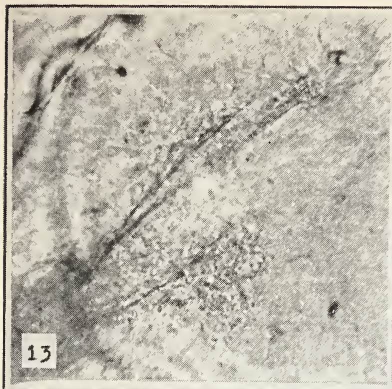
Figure 14. Whole mount of two thoracic ganglia of a mosquito larva showing the diffuse penetration of stained chloroform. This is an early stage picked to show gradient from the fluid-filled tracheæ into the nervous tissue. Magnification 220 ×.

Figure 15. Whole mount of abdominal connective of a mosquito larva killed by a tracheal injection of Eugenol. Photograph in ordinary light to show rounded particles. Magnification 300 ×.

Figure 16. Same as seen in polarized light between crossed Nicols. The rounded particles are very faintly birefringent. Magnification 300 ×.

Figure 17. Whole mount in saline of abdominal nerve cord of a mosquito larva following a tracheal injection of aniline. Photographed in polarized light between crossed Nicols. Compare the relatively strong, diffuse birefringence with normal nerve cord figured by Richards (1944). Magnification 50 ×.

Figure 18. Same after fixation for 50 minutes in formol-saline. The strongly birefringent particles are of irregular shapes. Magnification 50 ×.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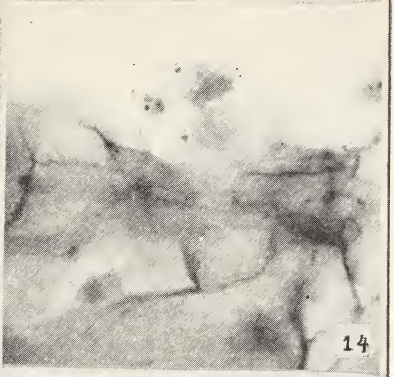
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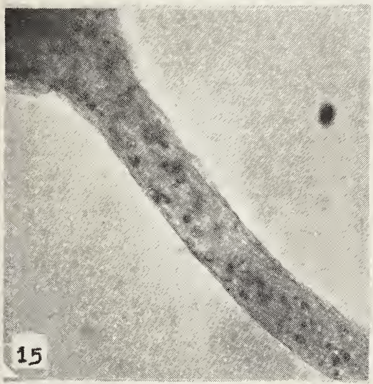
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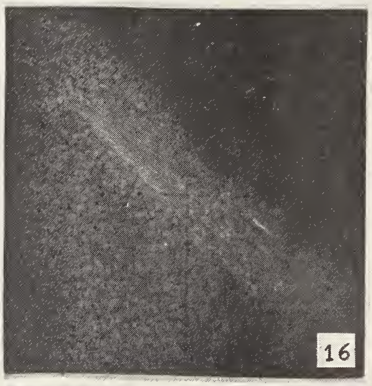
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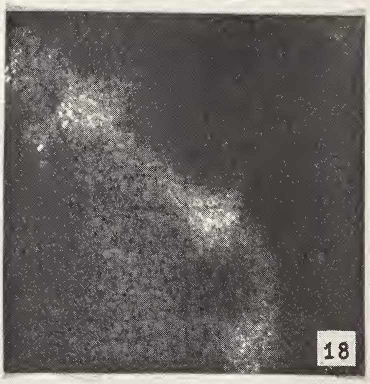
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INDEX TO NAMES OF INSECTS AND PLANTS IN VOLUME LIII

Generic names begin with capital letters. New genera, subgenera, species, varieties and new names are printed in italics.

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