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The Council of the Marine Biological Association wish it to be unterstood that they do not accept responsibitity for the accuracy of statements mblished in this Journal, excepting when those statements are rontained in an official report of the Council.

## ERRATA.

Page 14, line 2. For " 1.20 mm ." read " 1.4 mm ."
Pages 240-241. Tables NXXV1 and XXXVII. The records in these two tables slomhl he added to those of Table XXXV as Gobins sp.
Page 289. In the second square of the last row of the square diagram for "o" read "C."
F'age 291 , line 3. Thsert the word "coluured" before the word "offispring."
" ", 13. For "all black offispring" real "no red offspring."
Page 317, time 6. For " 36.6 " real " 32.6 ." For " 12.2 "read " $16 \cdot 3.3$

## CONTENTS OF VOLUME XI.

## (NEW SERIES.)

List of Governors, Founders, and Members- May, 1917. ..... 266
Report of the Council- 1915 ..... 259
1916 ..... 425
1917 ..... 519
Balance Sheet, 1915 ..... 264
ditto 1916 ..... 425
ditto 1917 ..... 524
Allen, E. J.
Post-Larval Teleosteans collected near Plymonth during the Smmmer of 1914 ..... 207
Heredity in Plants, Animals, and Man ..... 354
Food from the Sea ..... 350
The Age of Fishes and the Rate at which they Crow ..... 399
Allè, E. J., and Sexton, E. W.
The Loss of the Eye-pigment in (rammerns cherrenct. A Mendelian Study ..... 273
(ctler, D) Ward.
A Preliminary Aecomnt of the Production of Ammal Rings in the Scales of Plaice and Flounders ..... 470
Flattely, F. W.
Notes on the (Eicology of Cimratulns (Aulominien) tenturnlutns (Montagn) ..... 60
Kers, J. A.
A List of Maritine, Suth-Maritime and Coast-frequenting Coleoptera of South Devon and South ('omwall, with eppecial reference to the Plymonth District ..... 497
Lebour, Marie Y.
stages in the Life History of ('uhnus funmerchicns (Gumerns) Expren- mentally reared hy Mr. L. R. ('rawshay in the Plymouth latoratory ..... 1
Notes on the Life History of Amphin pertiohtu (Kioyer) ..... 51
Meduse as Hosts for Larval Trematudes. ..... 57
The Microplankton of Plymouth somed from the Region heyond the Breakwater ..... 133
The Peridiniales of Plymonth Somed from the Region beyond the Breakwater ..... 183
Lebour, Marie T. (contimuel). ..... parie,
Some Parasites of Sugitta bipunctutu ..... 201
The Food of Post-Larval Fish . ..... 133
A Trematode Larva from Bureinum umhutnm and Notes on Trematodes from Post-Larval Fish ..... 514
Matthews, Donald J.
On the Amonnt of Phosphoric Acid in the Sea-water off Plymonth Sound122,251
Ortos, J. H.An Accomnt of the Researches on Races of Herrings carried out ly theMarme Biological Association at Plymonth, 1914-1571
sexton, E. W., and Wing, M. B.
Experiments on the Mendelian Inheritance of Eye-colour in the Amphipod Gemmurus cherrenxi ..... 18
Siee ulso Allen, E. J., and Sexton, E. IV.
Alstract of Memoir recording Work done at the Plymouth Laboratory-The Development of Alcyonium digitutrm, with some Notes on the EarlyColony Formation. By Amnie Matthews258
1n Memoriam: H. ('. Damevig ..... 131

# Stages in the Life History of Calanus finmarchicus (Gunnerus), Experimentally Reared by Mr. L. R. Crawshay in the Plymouth Laboratory. 

By<br>Marie V. Lebour, M.Sc.,<br>Assistant Lecturer in Zoology, Leeds Unirersity. Temporary Naturalist in the Plymouth Laboratory.<br>With Plates 1 to 5 in the Text.

[The stages in the development of Calanus finmarchicus described and figured by Miss Lebour in the present paper were taken from culture jars given into my charge by Mr. L. R. Crawshay, when he left the Laboratory to undertake military duties in connection with the war. In one jar at that time the first copepodid stage, from eggs laid in the jar, had just been reached, and the technical details for the successful rearing of the animals had been mastered. The experiments had been conducted with great care, and all possible precautions had been taken to prevent contamination. Subsequently the experiments were repeated up to a certain point by myself and some additional stages obtained to complete the series.

The cultures were made in 2 -litre glass beakers, containing " outside " sea-water filtered through a Berkefeld filter. In order to secure an even temperature the beakers stood in the circulating water of the Laboratory tanks, and a pure culture of the diatom Nitzschia closterium was used as food.--E. J. Allen.]

All the 5 copepodid stages (the 6 th being the fully formed copepod) and 5 out of the 6 nauplius stages were found. Unfortunately the 6 th nauplius stage was missed and could not be found in the material, but it is described and well figured by Grobben (1903), and his figures and description show that it is very like the same stage of Pseudocalanus and Paracalanus described by Oberg (1906). The latter author's descriptions agree very closely with all the corresponding stages of Calanus finmarchicus, the size in all cases being the chief difference. In the very

[^0]young nauplius stage the feelers differ in being long and thin in Calanus finmarchicus and short and hook-like in Pseudocalanus elongatus.

Nauplius Stage III is much the commonest stage and occurred all the time the material was being examined. The animal probably stays some time in this stage.

The number of bristles on the antennules of the nauplius is a sure guide to the stage, as they are constant and very easily seen. They also agree exactly in number with similar stages in Pseudocalanus and Paracalanus.

The colouring was much the same throughout all the stages, although not so marked in the early nauplius. The first nauplius stage has pigment present only in the region of the alimentary canal, where a few orange and red spots occur, and the tips of the appendages are a light orange. Later on the colouring is more marked. In the first copepodid stages and after the antennules are beautifully spotted with dark red, the bristles being red, and the furcal bristles are red merging into orange; the tips of the antemæ and mandibles are red, and the distal portions of all the appendages as far as the maxillipeds and also the hind end of the body are yellow. This colouring appears in all the copepodid stages with slight variations.

Grobben's descriptions agree well with the present material. Those stages which he figures are probably I, III, IV or V, and VI, also the first copepodid stage.

## THE NAUPLIUS.

Stage I (Plate 1, Fig. 1). Only one specimen. This is very like Grobben's figure of the early nauplius, but he figures only 2 bristles on the antennule where the present specimen has 3. It appears to be an earlier stage than any of Oberg's. His Stage I of Pseudocalanus agrees with Stage II of the present species. His Stages III-V agree with the corresponding stages of Calanus as described in the present paper. Length of body 0.21 mm ., oval, slightly more pointed posteriorly than anteriorly, faintly pink with orange tips to the appendages. Eye dark red. A pair of thin feelers at the hind end of the body.

Appendage I. Antennule (Plate 2, Fig. 1). The end segment divided off, the other 2 merely indicated. A small bristle just behind the end segment, the latter bearing 3 bristles.

Appendage II. Antenna (Plate 2, Fig. 6).
Coxopodite with a large thorn-like masticatory process.
Basipodite with 2 roundish prominences, the proximal portion with 2 small bristles.

M.Y.L. Del.

Endopodite with 2 long bristles at the end.
Exopodite with 6 segments, the 7 th showing under the skin, 1st segment short with no bristle, 2-5 with one bristle each, 6 with 2 bristles.

Appendage III. Mandible (Plate 2, Fig. 11).
Coxopodite with a small bristle.
Busipodite with a large blade and 2 small bristles.
Endopodite with 2 segments indicated, 1st with 2 small bristles and a third showing under the skin ; the end segment with 2 long bristles.

Exopodite with 4 imperfect segments, 1-3 with one bristle each, 4 with one long and one short bristle.

Stage II (Plate 1, Fig. 2). Two specimens. Length of body 0.27 mm ., oval, transparent, the same colouring as in I. Hind feelers longer than in I, body bent slightly dorso-ventrally.

Appendage I. Antennule (Plate 2, Fig. 2) with 3 segments, the 1st with no bristle, the 2nd imperfectly divided into 3 , each portion with a small bristle; the end segment with 3 long bristles and an accessory bristle; a group of minute spines dorsally.

Appendage II. Antenna (Plate 2, Fig. 7).
Coxopodite with a large thorn-like masticatory process and a small bristle.

Busipodite with a masticatory process and 2 lobes each with a small bristle.

Endopodite with a pair of small bristles and at the end 3 long bristles.
Exopodite with 7 segments, 1st short with no bristle, $2-6$ with one bristle each, 7 with 2 bristles.

Appendage III. Mandible (Plate 2, Fig. 12).
Coxopodite with a small bristle.
Basipodite with a large blade.
Endopodite with 2 segments indicated, 1st with 3 small bristles, 2 with 2 small bristles, and 3 long bristles at the end.

Exopodite with 4 segments indicated, 1-3 with one bristle each, 4 with 2 bristles.

Stage III (Plate 1, Fig. 3). Several specimens. Length of body 0.42 mm ., the hind end well marked off from the front, body much flexed dorso-ventrally, transparent, coloured rather more strongly than in the first two stages. Hind end of body armed with 2 long feelers, one dorsal and one ventral, a pair of lateral and a pair of posterior hooks. Near the hooks are 3 rows of very short, sharp spines and the same sort of spines surround the bases of the hooks. Besides the 3 pairs of appendages there is a slight indication of a 4 th (maxillule).

M. V.L. DEL.

Appendage I. Antennule (Plate 2, Fig. 3). With 3 segments, no bristle on the first segment, second imperfectly divided into 3 , each with a bristle, the end segment with 2 small bristles dorsally, one ventrally, and 3 long bristles and an accessory bristle at the end. The group of small hooks are present dorsally as in II.

## Appendage II. Antenna (Plate 2, Fig. 8).

Coxopodite with 2 large masticatory processes and a small bristle.
Basipodite with 2 imperfectly divided segments, the proximal with a long, straight masticatory process and 2 small bristles, the distal with one small bristle.

Endopodite with 2 imperfectly divided segments, the proximal with 3 small bristles, one sinaller than the others, the distal with 3 large and one accessory bristle at the end.

Exopodite with 7 segments, the 1st with no bristle, 2 with one large and one small bristle, 3-5 with one bristle each, 6-7 with 2 bristles each.
Appendage III. Mandible (Plate 3, Fig. 1).
Coxopodite with a large process and a small bristle.
Basipodite with a broad blade and 2 small bristles.
Endopodite with 2 imperfectly divided segments, the proximal with 2 pairs of bristles and a masticatory process, the distal with 2 pairs of small bristles and 2 long end bristles.
Exopodite with 4 segments, 1st with 2 bristles, 2-3 with one bristle each, 4 with 2 bristles.
The 4th appendage is very feebly represented by a faint prominence behind the mandible.

Stage IV (Plate 1, Fig. 4). 2 specimens. Length of body 0.48 mm . The same shape and colouring as III. Hind end of the body armed with 2 long feelers, 3 pairs of lateral hooks, one pair of end hooks, and 2 pairs of ventral hooks. Small hooks as in III.

Appendage I. Antennule (Plate 2, Fig. 4). With 3 segments. No bristle on the 1st segment, 2 incompletely divided into 3 each with a bristle, terminal segment with 3 ventral bristles, 4 dorsal bristles, and 3 long bristles and an accessory bristle at the end. Small dorsal hooks as in II and III.

Appendage II. Antenna (Plate 2, Fig. 9).
Coxopodite, basipodite and endopodite as in III.
Exopodite with 7 segments, 1st with no bristle, 2 with 3 bristles, 3-7 with one bristle each, 7 with 3 bristles.

Appendage III. Mandible (Plate 3, Fig. 2).
Coxopodite with a well-developed toothed process like the adult but with fewer teeth.

M. V.L. DEL.

Basipodite with a large blade and 3 small bristles.
Endopodite with 2 lobes, the inner lobe with 4 bristles and a small masticatory process, the outer lobe with 6 bristles.

Exopodite with 4 segments, the 1 st with one large and one small bristle, $2-3$ with one bristle each, 3 with 2 bristles.

Appendage IV. Maxillule (Plate 3, Fig. 4) small with 2 lobes.
Endopodite with 4 small bristles.
Exopodite with 3 small bristles.
Stage V (Plate 1, Fig. 5). This specimen, the only one of its kind found, was unfortumately dead and damaged. Length of body 0.51 mm . Much like Stage IV. The hind part of the body divided into 2 segments with indications of a third, and besides Appendage IV there are traces of V and VI , which show as minute knobs. The armature of the hind end was damaged, but 3 pairs of lateral hooks could be seen, so that there are almost certainly 2 end feelers, a pair of end hooks and 2 pairs of ventral hooks, corresponding to the same stage in Pseudocalanus.

Appendage I. Antennule (Plate 2, Fig. 5) with 3 segments, the 1st with no bristle, 2 imperfectly divided into 3 each with a bristle, the terminal segment with one proximal and 2 distal bristles on the ventral border, 6 bristles and a group of small hooks on the dorsal border, and 3 long bristles and an accessory bristle at the end. A row of minute hooks occur inside the tip of the terminal segment.

Appendage II. Antenna (Plate 2, Fig. 10).
Coxopodite and basipodite as in III and IV.
Endopodite as in IV, but with 4 bristles on the inner side and 5 end bristles.

Exopodite as in IV.
Appendage III. Mandible (Plate 3, Fig. 3).
Coxopodite as in IV.
Basipodite with one strong and 4 small bristles.
Endopodite, the imner segment with 2 pairs of bristles and a masticatory bristle, the outer segment with 2 pairs of bristles and 2 long end bristles.

Exopodite as in IV.
Appendage IV. Maxildule (Plate 3, Fig. 5). Not well seen, as it was somewhat injured.

Basipodite with 2 small bristles.
Endopodite with 6 small bristles and 2 long end bristles.
Exopodite with 2 short bristles and 3 long end bristles.
Stage VI. Not seen. Grobben gives a good figure of this stage, which is very like the description and figure of Pseudocalanus by Oberg. The
rather long body is armed at the hind end with 4 pairs of lateral hooks, 2 feelers, 2 end hooks, and 2 pairs of ventral hooks. The maxillæ and maxillipeds are well developed and swimming feet I and II are present as bilobed structures.

This is the last nauplius stage.

## COPEPODID STAGES.

There are 5 copepodid stages before the animal is fully formed. These were recognised by Gran (1902), who gives 6 stages, the last being the mature Calanus. All the 5 stages occurred and were taken from experimental jars started on March 30th, 1915. Nauplii first appeared between the 17 th and 24 th of April, and on May 19th Stage V was taken from the jar, having taken certainly less than two months to grow from the egg to this stage.

The species can be recognised from the first copepodid stage by the 2 long sensory bristles on the penultimate segments of the antemules. The rostral processes are distinct even in the first stage, which. according to Oberg, is not the case with Pseudocalanus, where they appear only in the second stage.

Stage I (Plate 1, Fig. 6, and Plate 4, Fig. 1). Length of body 0.80 mm . Three free thoracic segments and urosome of one segment with an anterior constriction. In shape like the adult, but broader in comparison with its length. Caudal furca like the adult, but with 3 long bristles and one short bristle, besides a short inner bristle each side. The antennules are now long like the adult, and usually held out almost at right angles to the body. Colour pale yellow all round the edges of the body, antennules, antennæ, mandibles, part of maxillule, maxilliped, and caudal furca, the tips of all these appendages changing from yellow to red as the extremities are reached. Red pigment occurs all along the antennules, the 3 end segments being almost completely red, and dark red blotches run from the base to about the centre. Traces of red pigment are to be seen in the anterior part of the body. Eye dark red. Rostral processes present. There are 2 pairs of well-developed swimming feet and one rudimentary pair. All the other appendages are well developed.

Appendage I. Antennule 10 jointed, long, red sensory bristles, one on the antepenultimate and one on the penultimate segment.

Appendage II. Antenna (Plate 3, Fig. 6).
Coxopodite very small with one bristle.
Basipodite, the masticatory bristle has disappeared. 2 bristles present.

M.V.L. IVEL.


Endopodite with 2 segments, 1st with 2 bristles, 2 with 4 lateral bristles and 5 end bristles.

Exopodite with 7 segments, 7 th as long as the 2nd, 1st with one bristle, 2 with 3, 4-6 with one each, 7 with 3 and one very small bristle.

The antenna is now very like the adult, except for the number of bristles on the endopodite, the full number not yet being formed.

Appendage III. Mandible (Plate 3, Fig. 7).
Coxopodite with a conspicuous toothed process.
Basipodite with 4 very weak bristles.
Endopodite with 4 bristles on the proximal portion, 6 bristles at the end.

Exopodite with 5 segments, 1-4 with one bristle, 5 with 2 bristles.
Much like the adult mandible, but without the full number of bristles on the endopodite.

Appendage IV. Maxillule (Plate 3, Fig. 8).
Coxopodite with a large lobe, the gnathobase, armed with 6 spiky eating bristles.

Basipodite with 3 lobes, 2 lobes on its inner margin each with 2 short bristles, and a large lobe on its outer margin, the epipodite, armed with 3 long and stout bristles with red tips. Between the epipodite and the exopodite is a very small lobe with a small bristle.

Endopodite, the proximal lobe with 3 bristles, the end lobe divided into 4 portions, 1st with 2 bristles, 2 with 2, 3 with 3 , and 4 with 2 bristles.

Exopodite with 7 bristles.
This has all the parts of the adult maxillule, but not the full number of bristles on the basipodite, endopodite, and exopodite.

Appendage V. Maxilla (Plate 3, Fig. 9).
Coxopodite with 4 segments, 1st with 3 long and one short bristle, 2-4 with $\check{2}$ long and one short bristle.

Basipodite with 2 long and one short bristle.
Endopodite with 3 segments, 1st with one long bristle, 2-3 with 2 long and one short bristle each.

Now the same as the adult maxilla.
Appendage VI. Maxilliped (Plate 3, Fig. 10).
('oxopodite of 3 parts, 1st with one bristle, the other 2 with 2 short bristles each.

Busipodite with 2 short and one very short bristle.
Endopodite with 2 segments, 1st with one bristle, 2nd with 4 bristles.
Appendage VII. 1st Swimming Foot.
Coxopodite and basipodite with no bristles.

Endopodite unsegmented, with 4 long bristles.
Exopodite unsegmented, with 4 thorns on the outer margin, a terminal blade, and 3 bristles inside.

Appendage VIII. 2nd Swimming Foot. Like the first, but with one more bristle on the inside of the endopodite. The exopodite has 4 thorns outside and a terminal bristle, with 3 bristles inside.

Appendage IX. 3rd Swrmming Foot with 2 lobes, each lobe with 2 hooks at the end.

Stage II (Plate 4, Figs. 2 and 6).
Length of body 1.20 mm ., 4 free thoracic segments, urosome of 2 segments. Caudal furca like the adult, with 5 bristles and a small lateral inner bristle. Colouring the same as I, but slightly lighter. 3 pairs of swimming feet and the rudiments of a 4 th pair.

Appendage I. Antennule with 12 segments, the last 7 the same as I.
Appendage II. Antenna the same as I.
Appendage III. Mandible the same as I.
Appendage IV. Maxillule the same as I, but with 7 bristles on the epipodite.

Appendage V. Maxilla the same as I.
Appendage VI. Maxilliped (Plate 5, Fig. 1).
Endopodite with a 3 rd segment, 1st segment with one broad and 2 small bristles, other segments as in I.

Appendage VII. 1st Swimming Foot (Plate 5, Fig. 2).
Endopodite with 2 segments, no bristle on 1st segment, 2 with 2 long bristles on the outside, one terminal bristle, and 4 bristles inside.

Exopodite with 2 segments, a thom on the outside of the first. 2 thoms on the outside of the 2 nd, a terminal blade, and 4 long bristles inside.

Appendage VIII. 2nd Swimming Foot (Plate 5, Fig. 3).
Endopodite with 2 segments, 1st with one bristle, 2nd with 4 bristles inside, a terminal bristle, and 2 bristles outside.

Exopodite with 2 segments, 1 st with a thorn, 2nd with 3 thorns outside, a terminal blade, and 4 bristles inside.

Appendage IX. 3rd Swimming Foot (Plate 5, Fig. 4).
Endopodite unsegmented, one proximal and 3 distal bristles inside, a terminal bristle, and one bristle outside.

Exopodite unsegmented, 3 thorns outside, a terminal blade, and 3 bristles inside.

Appendage X. 4th Swiming Foot with 2 lobes each with 2 hooks.

Stage III (Plate 4, Figs. 3 and 7). Like Stage II in colouring. Body more elongated. Length 1.20 mm ., 5 free thoracic segments. Urosome of 2 segments. All 5 swimming feet present, the 5th rudimentary.

Appendage I. Antennule with 16 segments, otherwise like II.
Appendage II. Antenna like I and II, but with 6 bristles on the inner part of the endopodite.

Appendage III. Mandible like I and II, but with 8 bristles at the end of the exopodite.

Appendage IV. Maxillule.
Coxopodite with the gnathobase bearing 8 bristles.
Basipodite like I and II, but with 3 bristles on the proximal lobe.
Endopodite like I and II, but with 4 bristles on the first lobe and 10 on the end lobe.

Appendage V. Maxilla like adult.
Appendage VI. Maxilliped (Plate 5, Fig. 5).
Endopodite of 4 segments, 1st with 3 bristles, 2 with one, 3 with one and a small outer bristle, 4 with 4 bristles at the end.

Appendage VII. 1st Simming Foot (Plate 5, Fig. 6).
Endopodite with 2 segments, distal segment with 4 bristles inside, 2 terminal bristles, and one bristle outside.

Exopodite with 2 segments, distal segment with 4 bristles inside, a terminal blade, and 4 thorns outside.

Appendage VIII. 2nd Simimming Foot (Plate 5, Fig. 7).
Endopodite with 2 segments, proximal segment with one bristle inside, distal segment with 5 bristles inside, 2 terminal bristles, and 2 bristles outside.

Exopodite with 2 segments, one bristle on the proximal segment inside and a thorn outside, 5 bristles on the distal segment inside, a terminal blade, and 3 thorns outside.

Appendage IX. 3rd Swimming Foot (Plate 5, Fig. 8).
Endopodite with 2 segments, one bristle on the proximal segment inside, distal segment with 3 bristles inside, 2 terminal bristles, and 2 bristles outside.

Exopodite with 2 segments, the proximal segment with one bristle inside and a thorn outside, the distal segment with 4 bristles inside, a terminal blade, and 2 thorns outside.

Appendage X. 4 th Simimming Foot (Plate 5, Fig. 9).
Endopodite unsegmented, with 3 bristles.
Exopodite unsegmented, with 3 bristles inside, a terminal blade, and 3 thorms outside.

Appendage XI. 5th Swimming Foot 2-lobed, each lobe with 2 hooks.
Stage IV (Plate 4, Figs. 4 and 8). Very like III. Thorax with 5 free segments each with a well-developed swimming foot. Urosome of 3 segments.

Appendage I. Antennule with 23 segments.
Appendage II. Antenna like I, but with 7 bristles on the inner lobe of the endopodite. Very like the adult.

Appendage III. Mandible like I-III.
Appendage IV. Maxillule like I-III, but the epipodite is larger with 9 bristles now like the adult, the 1st inner lobe of the basipodite has 3 bristles like the adult, endopodite with 5 bristles at the end.

Appendage V. Maxilla like the adult.
Appendage VI. Maxilliped (Plate 5, Fig. 10).
Endopodite of 4 segments, 1st with 4 bristles, 2 with 2, 3 with 2 inside and one outside, terminal segment with 4 bristles.

Appendage VII. 1st Simming Foot (Plate 5, Fig. 11). The proximal joint of the basipodite with an inside bristle.

Endopodite with 2 segments, the proximal segment with an inside bristle, the distal segment with 3 inside bristles, 2 terminal bristles, and one outside bristle.

Exopodite with 2 segments, the proximal segment with an inside bristle and an outside thorn, the distal segment with 4 bristles inside, a terminal blade, and 3 thorns outside.

Appendage VIII. 2nd Swimming Foot (Plate 5, Fig. 12).
The proximal segment of the basipodite with an inside bristle, the distal segment with an outside thorn.

Endopodite with 2 segments, the proximal segment with one bristle inside, the distal segment with 5 bristles inside, 2 terminal bristles, and 2 bristles outside.

Exopodite with 2 segments, the proximal segment with one bristle inside and a thorn outside, the distal segment with 5 bristles inside, a terminal blade, and 3 thorns outside.

Appendage IX. 3rd Swinming Foot (Plate 5, Fig. 13). The proximal segment of the basipodite with a bristle inside, the distal segment with a thorn outside.

Endopodite with 2 segments, the proximal segment with one bristle inside, the distal segment with 4 bristles inside, 2 terminal bristles, and 2 bristles outside.

Exopodite with 2 segments, the proximal segment with a bristle inside and a thorn outside, the distal segment with 4 bristles inside, a terminal blade, and 3 thorns outside.

Appendage X. 4th Swimming Foot (Plate 5, Fig. 14). The proximal segment of the basipodite with an inside bristle, the distal segment with a thorn outside.

Endopodite with 2 segments, the proximal segment with one bristle inside, the distal segment with 3 bristles inside, 2 terminal bristles, and 2 bristles outside.

Exopodite with 2 segments, the proximal segment with an outside thorn, the distal segment with 4 bristles inside, a terminal blade, and 3 thorns outside.

Appendage XI. 5th Swimming Foot (Plate 5, Fig. 15).
Endopodite unsegmented, with 6 bristles.
Exopodite unsegmented, with 3 bristles inside, a terminal blade, and 3 thorns outside.

Stage V (Plate 4, Figs. 5 and 9). Body much longer, the full number of segments in the thorax and urosome. Antemules, antemr, mandibles, maxillules, maxillæ, and swimming feet I to IV like the adult. The maxilliped has not yet the full number of bristles (Plate 5, Fig. 16). 1st segment with 5 bristles, 2 with 3 , 4 with 2 inside and one outside, terminal segment with 4 bristles. The swimming feet (Plate 5, Figs. 17-21) are all like the adult with the exception of the last, which, although having the full number of bristles, has only 2 segments to the endopodite and exopodite.

Stage VI is the fully developed copepod.

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## ENPLANATION OF FIGURES.

Plate 1.-I. Nauplius Stage I. $\times 80$.

| 2. | - | ,, II. | . |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 3. | " | ,. III. | " |
| 4. | " | , IV. | - |
| 5. | , | . V . | - |
| 6. | Copeporlid | I. | - |

Plate 2.-I. Ist Appendage (Antennule) of Nauplius I.
2. , ,, ,, , II.
3. .. .. .. ,. 11 I .
4. , , , ,, IV.
5. ,, ", ," V.
6. 2nd ., (Antenna) ," I.
7. .. ., ., ., II.
8. .. ,. ,, III.
9. ,. .. ,.

I0 .. , ,, ,. V.
11. 3rd ., (Mandible) ,, I.

I2. ," ," ., II.
175.

Plate 3.-1. 3rd Appendage (Mandible) of Nauplius 111.
2. , , , , , IV.
3. ., ., ,,
4. 4th .. (Maxillule) ., IV.
5. ,, .. ,, ", V.
6. 2nd ., (Antenna) of Copepodid Stage I.
7. 3rd .. (Aiandible)
8. 4th .. (Maxillule)
9. 5th ,, (Dlaxilla)
10. 6th ". (Maxilliped)
$\times 175$.
CI Coxopodite.
$B$ Basipodite.
EP Epipodite.
END Endopodite.
EX Exopodite.
G Gnathobase.
Plate 4.-I-5. Dorsal view of Copepodid Stages I-V.
$\times 1$.
6-9. Lateral view of Copepodid Stages 1I-V.
$\times 18$.
Plate 5.-Distal portion of Maxilliped and Swimming Feet of Copepodid Stages II-V.

$$
\times 26 \cdot 6
$$

# Experiments on the Mendelian Inheritance of Eyecolour in the Amphipod Gammarus cheureuxi. 

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With Plate I.

## CONTENTS.

rage
General conditions-habits, water, air, food, light ..... 19
Explanation of terms employed in paper ..... 21
The pigmentation of the eye-blaek, red, " all-white," "part-white," and " no-white" ..... 21
The first appearanee of the Red eyes ..... 22
Results of examinations of dredgings ..... 24
Experimental work-question of sex-limitation. ..... 26

1. Recessives to the sixtli generation ..... 26
II. Dominants-Pure Blacks ..... 28
Proportions of $\mathrm{P}^{\prime}$. and H . ..... 29
Hybrids-Parent generation ..... 30
$\mathrm{F}_{1}$ generation ..... 31
$\mathrm{F}_{2}$ generation ..... 31
K. Il. and N families ..... 31
Proportions of Black and Red ..... 32
Proportions of Pure and Hybrid ..... 34
'Table of results ..... 35
Preponderance of colour ..... 39
Results of Black crosses ..... 41
Sex of survivors ..... 42
Records of Abnormal Eyes ..... 43
General notes-breeding different generations, etc. ..... 46
Summary ..... 48

The Amphipod which was used in the following experiments was deseribed in 1913 (Journ. M.B.A., Vol. IX, pp. 542-545) under the name of Gammarus chevreuxi, and its life history was then worked out (see Sexton and Matthews, l.c., pp. 546-556).

The usual colour of the eye in this species, as in the other species of the genus Gammarus, is black, but several females and young with red eyes were observed while the above work was in progress. Beyond recording
the fact, however (l.c., pp. 543 and 552), no special attention was given to the matter.

The descendants of two original pairs taken in June, 1912, were kept under observation for moults, etc., in the Laboratory until August, 1913, when the present writers undertook to investigate the variation in eye-colour, with a view to determining first if it were a sex-limited character, and secondly, if it conformed to the Mendelian law of inheritance.

In the course of these investigations we have received constant assistance and advice from the Director, Dr. E. J. Allen, F.r.s., at whose suggestion they were first undertaken, and we wish here to acknowledge our great indebtedness to him.

## GENERAL CONDITIONS.

Before entering into the detailed results of the experiments it will be necessary to give a brief description of the habits of the species as well as of the conditions under which the animals were kept in the Laboratory.

Gammarus chevreuxi is an ideal species for experimental work. It is very hardy, quickly reaches maturity, and breeds all the year round. The young are extruded from the marsupial pouch and another batch of eggs laid generally within 24 hours of the time of hatching. During the summer season a brood takes from 12 to 14 days to hatch, and the period of sexual activity is reached at the age of 36 days ; in winter in natural conditions a brood takes 30 days to hatch, and does not become sexually mature for at least 3 months, low temperature, as would be expected, retarding development. In the Laboratory, however, which is heated in the winter, there is practically no difference in the seasons, and it therefore becomes possible to obtain several generations in the year.

It may be well to state here that in this species of Gammarus the female never lays eggs unless a male is present, and also that it is absohutely impossible for a male to fertilise two broods of eggs with one deposition of sperm. The male generally takes the female a few days before the eggs hatch, and carries it until the young are extruded from the pouch. The female then moults, assisted by the male, as described in the paper referred to above (l.c., p. 550). The aperture of the oviduct is opened by the removal of the old cuticle, and the male deposits the sperm in the pouch around it, but unless the eggs are laid within a few hours they cannot be laid at all. The cuticle hardens rapidly, and a plug of the glutinous lubricatory matter which accompanies monlting and oviposition closes the aperture and hardens to the consistency of the cuticle, effectually
blocking the oviduct, until another moult takes place and the plug is sloughed with the old cuticle.

Another point must be mentioned in regard to the suitability of this species for laboratory work, and that is the ease with which it adapts itself to artificial conditions. This is probably due to the fact that it comes from brackish water ditches where it is habituated to great variations of temperature, salinity, pressure due to depth of water, etc. The density, for example, varies to an extraordinary degree according to the season, tides, excessive rainfall or drought, ranging from 1 to $1 \cdot 028$.

In the experimental work, it has been necessary to keep the water as nearly as possible at the same salinity, as any sudden change of conditions always affects the animals' growth and breeding. A mixture of one part of sea-water to six parts of fresh water gives the same density $(1.004)$ as that found in the ditches when the animals were taken, and such water we have generally used.

The best results have been obtained by keeping the animals in fingerbowls, generally one pair in a bowl. Each bowl contained about 200 c.cs. of water, and was covered with a glass plate to check evaporation and exclude dust. No aerating apparatus was used, the animals obtaining sufficient air for their needs from the surface of the water exposed in the bowls. In the same amount of water but with a smaller surface exposed to the air they did not flourish at all, as was found later when using jam jars and honey jars for the broods; only a very small proportion of the young reached maturity.

For food dry leaves of all kinds were used, after they had been allowed to rot in water. It was found that the animals preferred the soft tissues of the leaves of elm, hazel, and sycamore, rather than the harder leaves of oak, beech, etc. A fine delicate Ulva from the ditches they ate freely, but when the supply failed and the harder marine variety (Ulia latissima) was given, they did not eat it until it maccrated. They flourish better and are much healthier with some of the mud from the ditches in the bowls, but in all these experiments we were obliged to keep the water clear, in order to watch the animals without disturbing them unnecessarily. The young are so minute - about 1 mm . in length when hatched-that they completely escape observation in the mud, clinging as they do to any particles of dirt or weed.

The bowls were kept in ordinary diffused light, strong sunlight being a voided.

A word of explanation is necessary as to the terms employed in this paper. The Black eye-colour is dominant to the Red, and therefore Red is referred to as Recessive (R.). Black divides into Pure (P.) and Impure, but instead of the term "impure " the word Hybrid (H.) is used.

## THE PIGMENTATION OF THE EYE.

The structure of the eve of Gammarus has been well described and figured by Parker ("The Compound Eyes in Crustaceans." Bull. Mus. Comp. Zool., Harvard, Vol. XXI, Plate I), the species investigated by him being the Gammarus ornatus of Milne-Edwards (=Gammarus locusta, Limn., Stebbing, Das Tierreich, V. 21, p. 476).

Sections of the eye of Gammarus cherrenxi show precisely the same internal structure. The eye in this species is reniform in the adult, oval in the young animal, much raised and rounded. The superficial aspect presents a reticulation of opaque white pigment, with the ommatidia appearing as coloured spots, black or red, in the spaces of the network.

The black pigment of the retinular cells of the ommatidia of the Black eye appears to be produced by a combination of black and red, even in the so-called "Pure Black" animals (Fig. 1), with a larger admixture of the red in the "Hybrid Blacks" (Figs. 2 and 4).

The pigment of the Red eye is pure red, with no alloy of the black (Figs. 3 and 5).

Sometimes the retinular cells are unpigmented and the white reticulation shows up in a very striking way, giving the effect of chalk-white eves-the "All-white" eye referred to in the paper (Figs. 8, 9, and 10 ).

Occasionally again, some of the ommatidia are pigmented and some not; this variation is called the "Part-uhite" eye (Fig. 7).

The white opaque pigment is subject to great variation, sometimes showing as faint thread-like lines, sometimes broken up and irregular, sometimes present in excess, obscuring the ommatidia, and sometimes it is entirely lacking, the "No-uhite" eye (Fig. 6). Animals are often found with one or both eyes affected. The defect can be transmitted by normal-eyed animals to both black and red eyed offspring.

## THE FIRST APPEARANCE OF THE RED EyES.

Two pairs of Gammarus cherreuxi were taken in June, 1912, those referred to in the previous paper as Pair I and Pair II. All four animals were black-eyed.

All the broods from Pair II were black-eyed. This stock (which is referred to as the "Pure Black" stock) has been kept under observation from June, 1912, till now, December, 1915, fresh black-eyed material from the ditehes being added from time to time. Not a single redeyed animal has appeared in it. The strain was tested by mating also, to make absolutely certain of its purity before using it in the experiments.

The first brood from Pair I were all black-eyed : 9 young ones coming to maturity, 3 males and 6 females. The first pair to mate (Pair A) were evidently the strongest, and had the largest broods, although owing to unfavourable conditions only a few in each brood survived. The first brood from this Pair A numbered 18 ; the young were counted on hatching, but not examined for eye-colour ; of these 1 male and 6 females came to maturity, one of the females with red eyes. The second brood was 28 in number, 1 male and 5 females surviving, and again one female had red eyes. For the third mating of the female A a different male was used (male S), one which was freshly captured. The ensuing brood was extruded on October 26, 1912, 44 in number, and as these were being separated into finger-bowls for observation of moults 4 red-eyed ones were found. Male A was then put back with the female A, for the fourth mating; the brood numbered 39,3 with red eyes.

It will be seen that this female, mated with two different black-eyed males, produced some red-eyed young in each brood. No red eyes were observed in any of the other offispring of Pair I nor in their progeny.

The four red-eyed young of the third brood died before reaching maturity, and the remainder of the brood were kept separate, each in a finger-bowl, until they were 66 days old. On December 31 they were put together in a bell-jar, and some mated at once. The first female to mate of this brood was separated from the others, and from her and her offspring all the red-eyed stock has descended.

By August 7, 1913, this female and its mate were dead, and only 20 young were found in the jar, 16 black-eyed and 4 red-eyed. The four were removed, and the black-eved left together for three months longer ; when again examined on November 5 the numbers were 65 black-eyed and 8 red , and with these work was commenced.

The following scheme shows the origin of this red-eyed stock, clear circles indicating the red-eyed, black circles the black-eyed animals:-


* The male of Pair A mated with two of the other females of the same brood; the resulting young numbered 27 , all black-cyed.

It cannot, of course, be stated as an absolute fact that red-eyed specimens never occur in the ditches in natural conditions, but so far not a single one has been found, although thousands of specimens brought in at different seasons of the year have been examined. The red strain has only shown itself in the one female, female A and her progeny. It seemed possible at first that the red-eyed strain could be accounted for on Mendelian lines. If the original Pair I had been a Pure Black mated with a Hybrid Black all the offspring would have been black-eyed, half the number Pure Blacks and half Hybrid Blacks; and if in their matings a Hybrid should mate with a Hybrid the red-eye strain should have appeared. But, as far as can be seen, only the female A had the red strain ; both her mates, male A and male S, when mated with other females (some from the same brood as female $A$ and some from other stocks) had only black-eyed offspring, and, moreover, in none of the other members of the brood nor in their offspring has the red strain appeared. It might have been that male A was a Hybrid Black and that female A was the only Hybrid Black female in the brood, but it seems pushing coincidence too far to suggest that male $S$ captured some months later and taken at random from a large dredging should be a Hybrid and
the only Hybrid in it. None of the others captured then or at any other time have shown the red strain.

One series of 5000 was counted, for example, and all were black-eyed. Considering, however, that this way of examining the eyes was not a sufficiently accurate test, it was decided to take two dredgings, a winter one and a summer one, of as many animals as could be found at the time in all the ditches as the result of a day's collecting. These were to be comnted, each one examined for eye-colour, each ovigerous female to be separated until its brood hatched, and each brood to be counted and examined. A number of adults were to be taken and mated with redeyed mates, and their young examined. And finally, the most important test of all, a number of mated pairs were to be kept and bred to the $F_{2}$ generation, to see if captivity and inbreeding would repeat the result obtained with the Pair I of June, 1912.

The first dredging for this purpose was made on February 11, 1915. 373 animals, all black-eyed, were found, 198 of which were adult females; the greater part of the remaining 175 specimens were males, the rest were immature. Of the females, 112 had eggs, the others, 86 in mumber, were paired.

The 112 ovigerous females were separated, and their young counted on extrusion. The broods in many cases were small, many of the animals having apparently not long reached maturity; e.g. the first broods to hatch were in number as follows: $11,3,15,4,9,11$. In all, the number of young extruded was 641, all of them black-eyed.

Forty-six adults were mated with Red mates; all produced black-eyed offspring, proving beyond doubt that they were Pure Black and not Hybrid. The number of broods counted was 62 , the number of young 853.

Twelve of the 86 black-eyed pairs brought in from the ditches were taken to breed to the second generation of offspring. Of these Pairs II to XII * were kept for two or three broods each, and then returned to the rest of the dredging. The total number of young in the first generation of offspring from these broods was 473 , all black-eyed.

For the second generation, one brood from each of the Pairs II to XII was taken, the first to mature in each case. This was done because the red eyes appeared in the first brood of the first $F_{1}$ pair of the original stock (p. 22).

When these broods reached maturity some of the mated pairs were separated and the others allowed to mate in the brood-bowl, the young in all cases being removed as soon as possible and examined for eye-colour.

[^1]215 young were counted, all black-eyed ; some of these have commenced breeding.

This generation is very interesting from the fact that in it, as in the same generation of the original stock, a deviation from the normal occurred. In the case of the original stock the black pigment was absent, and the result was a red eye with the superficial network of opaque white pigment unaltered. In this second case the black pigment was present in every instance, but in the broods of Pair $V$ the white pigment was affected in greater or less degree. The female of this pair had less white than is usual in the eye-the reticulation was perfect, but the lines of white were very thin and thread-like. The eyes of the young in the first generation were the same, but in the young from the first pair of these that mated there was considerable variation. One brood of 13 contained 2 young with "no-white" eyes on both sides (Fig. 6), 5 others with the white reticulation very faintly marked, and 6 with eyes like the male parent and female grandparent. This brood is being kept separate to see if the defect follows the Mendelian lines of inheritance of characters.

No individuals of the third generation from these pairs have been hatched yet (Nov. 19, 1915), but 60 which have been examined from the General Stock bowl all have normal black eyes.

The summer dredging was taken on July 6, 1915. 372 living animals were examined, all black-eyed. A good many more were brought in, but did not survive overnight, owing to the heat and overcrowding of the pots and consequent fouling of the water.

Twenty-two adults were mated with Red mates; 31 broods were counted, containing 348 young, all black-eyed.

Thirteen black-eyed pairs of those paired in the ditches were separated from the others, and placed in finger-bowls to breed to the second generation. By November 19, 1915, there were 127 of the first generation and one brood, 5 in number, of the second generation, all with black eyes and all normal except the offspring of one pair. In this bowl, four of the first generation were left, two females with normal eyes, and two from a younger brood, one with normal eyes, and the other with a white patch on each eye at the upper end caused by three or four of the ommatidia being unpigmented, the "part-white" eye (cf. Fig. 7 for an example of this in the Recessives). This is the first occurrence recorded in the course of the work of a variation appearing in the first generation from animals brought in from the ditches.*

[^2]
## EXPERIMENTAL WORK.

The first question to be decided was whether the red eye-colour was a sex-limited character or not-the only adult specimens previously observed having been females.

In order to settle this point the 8 red-eyed young found on November 5 (p. 22) were placed in a bowl by themselves to come to maturity. It is impossible to distinguish males from females until the animals reach sexual maturity, which occurs when they are about half-grown, the males being then easily distinguishable by the fine coiled hairs of the lower antemæ, and by the larger gnathopods. The 4 red-eyed young of August 7 were kept in the Laboratory, only two coming to maturity, both female. The 8 red-eyed young of November 5 were kept in another room, not heated, with a temperature ranging from $4^{\circ}-10^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$., and were in consequence much slower in maturing; but in three months' time both males and females were seen-thus settling the question of the red eye-colour being a sex-limited character. In February three pairs mated. These were kept separate, each pair in a finger-bowl to itself, and the others, which were females, with the two August 7 females, were paired with males from the "Pure Black" stock. Males and females paired were also taken from this stock, and thus we had Recessive mated with Recessive (R. $\times$ R.), Pure Black mated with Recessive ( $\mathrm{P} . \times$ R.), and Pure Black mated with Pure Black (P. $\times$ P.). We started daily observations and records on this generation, calling it the Parent Generation, and counting from it the $\mathrm{F}_{1}, \mathrm{~F}_{2}$, etc.

Our aim now was to discover if the Mendelian laws of inheritance of characters were applicable to the results of these crosses, and the experiments to this end will be given in detail under the different divisions -I Recessives and II Dominants.

## I. THE RECESSIVES.

We commenced work in February, 1914, with the three pairs just referred to, adding in May seven pairs taken from the 42 red-eyed animals hatched since November 5, 1913, in the Hybrid Stock (sec p. 22). Each pair and its offspring have been kept separate, the broods on hatching removed from the parents' finger-bowl and examined for eye-colour, each brood being numbered and set aside to come to maturity. In every case in which both parents were red-eyed all the offspring have been red-eyed.
The red-eyed animals appear to be more delicate than the black-eyed, shorter-lived, and less fertile. They are quite as large and as active, and
in many cases observed, reached maturity before the black-eyed in the same brood. Yet, if left to breed together with no admixture of the blackeyed strain, they gradually diminish in numbers, throwing off the eggs sometimes soon after deposition, or dying after having had only one or two broods. Seven of the ten stocks have failed in this way.

The results of the Experiments with the Parent Generation are given below in detail. and are typical of all the experiments with inbreeding Recessives. They are as follows :-

Exp. 1. Two broods, 10 and 12 respectively ; female died.
,, 2. Mated, but no eggs laid.
3. One brood ; only 1 young hatched.
4. One brood of 20 young.
5. First brood, only 1 young hatched; second brood, 3 young. Thinking the small numbers might be due to some defect or unhealthiness in this male, it was taken away and another added. Third brood, only 1 young hatched. Male again changed. Fourth brood, 14 young; fifth brood, eggs thrown off before hatching. Nale again changed. Sixth brood, 17 young.
6. One brood, 19 young. A second brood was laid, but the female died before the eggs were hatched.
7. Mated, eggs laid, but thrown off before hatching, probably unfertilised.
8. Mated, eggs thrown off as in Exp. 7.
9. One brood, 10 young. A second brood was laid, but the eggs were thrown off before hatching.
. 10. Mated, eggs thrown off as in Exps. 7 and 8.
.. 11. Mated. eggs thrown off as in Exps. 7 and 8.
The total results for six months for the Parent Ceneration were: One pair mated, no eggs laid; seven broods not hatched; eleven broods hatched, the young numbering in all 108 ; average per brood $9 \cdot 8$. Only about half of these survived to maturity.

In the next generation, the $F_{1}$, a rather different system was followed. In some cases records of separate pairs were kept, in other cases the whole brood was left together in a finger-bowl, each female removed after oviposition, kept separate until the eggs were hatched, and then returned to the brood-bowl to mate again.

The total results in the twelve months from July, 1914, to July, 1915, for the breeding of the $\mathrm{F}_{1}$ generation are: 2 pairs mated with no results ; 80 broods from the other pairs, 20 of these not hatched, 60 hatched,
numbering 422 young (these are the $\mathrm{F}_{2}$ generation), average 7 per brood, a smaller average than in the preceding generation.

In the $F_{2}$ generation the same system was followed as in the $\mathrm{F}_{1}$, the ovigerous females being removed from the brood-bowl till they had extruded their young, and then returned to it. But in one or two cases where only males or only females were left of a brood, mates from a different brood, but of the same family and the same generation, were added. These records were kept separately. The females of the first category laid 26 broods between September, 1914, and October, 1915, and hatched 207 young. One pair mated twice with no results, and two other pairs also mated with no results. In the second case, where male and female came from different broods, only two broods, of 7 and 8 young respectively, were hatched, the male in each case dying soon after, but these broods appear stronger than the others.

Several of this $\mathrm{F}_{2}$ generation are still breeding (Nov. 3, 1915), but the numbers already obtained are sufficient for proof and record.

Of the $F_{3}$ generation 105 have survived (Nov. 19, 1915), many of them not yet mature. In several broods all the individuals have very pale eyes, with hardly any of the red pigment showing. The results for this generation are unsatisfactory, only a few young being hatched. Ten pairs have mated so far, as follows :-

From the first category (individuals of the same brood paired in their brood-bowl) 2 pairs mated, no eggs laid; 1 pair mated, eggs thrown off ; 3 pairs with 18 young in 4 broods.

From the second category, which appears to yield a stronger stock (the two $\mathrm{F}_{3}$ broods of the two $\mathrm{F}_{2}$ pairs in which male and female came from different parents), 4 survive of the first brood of 7 , not yet mature; the second brood of 8 matured, and 6 matings have taken place : 4 young (all dead now) ; eggs thrown off ; no eggs ; 9 young (all dead); 7 young ( 1 left) ; and 5 young (3 left, mature females).

The total number for the $F_{4}$ generation thus far is only 31 . Some individuals of one brood, the 9 young referred to above, came to maturity, and 2 broods of $F_{5}$ were hatched, numbering 12 young. Of these 9 survived, and are now nearly ready to breed.

## II. THE DOMINANTS.

The Dominants are divided into Pure Black and Hybrid Black, which will be dealt with under separate divisions.

According to the Mendelian laws of inheritance of characters, the
matings of the Dominants with other Dominants and with Recessives should show the following results :--
(a) P. $\times$ P.: mating of Pure Black with Pure Black should give all black-eyed offspring, Pure Black, which should breed true throngh all succeeding generations.
(b) P. $\times$ H. : matings of Pure Black with Hybrid Black should give all black-eyed offspring, half Pure Black and half Hybrid Black.
(c) P. $\times$ R. : mating of Pure Black with Recessives should give all black-eyed offspring, Hybrid Black, which when bred together should show the red-cyed strain in the next generation.
(d) H. $\times$ H. : matings of Hybrid Black with Hybrid Black should give three black-eyed offspring to one red-eyed, i.e. in the proportion of one Pure Black and two Hybrid Black to one Recessive.
(e) H. $\times$ R. : matings of Hybrid Black with Recessive should give offspring half of which would be Hybrid Black and half Recessive.

## The Pure Blacks.

Only a short note is necessary under this heading.
The Pure Black stock (p. 22) has been kept and interbred for over three years in a large jar. Observations have been made on it at different seasons of the year, all the animals being taken out and examined for eye-colour. Different pairs also have been kept separate from time to time and their progeny recorded to the third and fourth generations, but in all the cases not a single red-eyed one has been found.

With other dredgings brought in at intervals since June, 1912, the same results have been obtained. The last dredgings examined were those described on p. 25.

With regard to the 194 young from the $\mathrm{P} . \times \mathrm{P}$. matings mentioned on p. 41, the record of the number of their offspring has not been kept, it having been thought sufficient to examine the eye-colour of all the animals in the different bowls from time to time to make sure that no red-eved one appears.

In the $\mathrm{P} . \times \mathrm{H}$. matings which have been tried, the young were all blackeyed. The difficulty with these has been in bringing a sufficient number of any one brood to maturity in order to test them for P. and H. characters. Only one case succeeded well enough to be recorded, the Brood 1 of Experiment 118 referred to on p. 41. Twenty-two young were hatched, and twenty-one reached maturity-seven males, thirteen females, and one abnormal one. Each of these was mated with a red-eyed mate except
in the two instances noted, when a proved Hybrid mate was used, with the following results :---
P. of 13 young. Black.
H. of 120 ", 67 Black and 53 Red.
? ㅇ 4 mates, ㄴ P. and 2 R . 5 broods laid, none hatched.
P. of 64 young. Black.
H.q 14 ,, 8 Black and 6 Red.
P. f 6 , Black.
P.ㅇ 71 ,, Black.
P. $q 165$," Black. The eye of this female is figured. See Fig. 1.
P.ㅇ 56 ., Black.
H.q 8 ,. 5 Black and 3 Red.
? +1 ,, Black. Female eaten.
H.f 15 ,, 11 Black and 4 Red.
H.f 4 , 3 Black and 1 Red. This female was tested with a Hybrid Black mate.
H.ơ 14 , 10 Black and 4 Red. Also with a Hybrid Black mate.
? $q$ Eaten by mate.
H. ${ }^{\star} 57$,, 31 Black and 26 Red.
H. +20 ,, 12 Black and 8 Red.
P.ó 37 ,, Black.
H. ${ }^{\star} 24$,, 12 Black and 12 Red.
P. o 8 .. Black.
? ? This is the Abnormal one mentioned above.
In the third cross $(c) \mathrm{P} . \times$ R., the matings have always produced blackeyed offspring, all Hybrid Black. The figures obtained in the $\mathrm{F}_{2}$ generation may be quoted here - 1563 young (see p. 39), as well as those of the Parent generation given in the next paragraph.

## The Hybrids.

## Parent generation.

In the Parent generation 33 experiments were made, starting in November, 1913, Pure Black males being mated with Recessive females, and Recessive males with Pure Black females, 16 experiments with the first cross, and 17 with the second. There were 18 broods hatched from the first cross P. $\widehat{o} \times \mathrm{R}$. 9 , numbering in all 323 young; and 21 broods from the second cross $\mathrm{R} . \hat{0} \times \mathrm{P}$. \& with 313 young. In all these experiments without exception, the young had black eyes. In the first cross some paired without results, the others had from one to six broods each, the largest number in a single brood being 38 . In the
second cross, all but one of the broods were hatched, the largest number being 49.

## $F_{1}$ generation.

All the young of this generation were black-eyed, as was to be expected, in accordance with the Mendelian law that the offspring of Dominant mated with Recessive resemble the dominant parent in character. The further development of the law, that though the offspring are dominant in appearance, yet in constitution they are hybrid, could not be determined until the next generation, the $\mathrm{F}_{2}$, appeared, the eye-colour alone not being a sufficiently accurate guide in distinguishing Pure Blacks from Hybrid Blacks.

In order to make sure of each individual $F_{1}$ and to keep its history clear, all the $\mathrm{F}_{1}$ broods were kept in separate bowls till mature, and then as each pair mated it was removed and records kept of all the matings, the young being counted and examined for eve-colour immediately after extrusion from the pouch. All the $\mathrm{F}_{1}$ that reached maturity were tested and all proved Hybrid Blacks.

The results for the eve-colour in the $\mathrm{F}_{2}$ generation are given below.

## $F_{2}$ generation.

The first idea was to take the $F_{2}$ broods in order as they hatched to the number of 1000 young, and to find if the proportions held good-three black to one red. Seventy-four broods were taken in this way, the young numbering 586, 437 of which were black-eyed and 149 red-eved, the reds therefore being very slightly in excess of the theoretical figure. These broods appeared during the summer months, when the animals mature more rapidly and have a much quicker succession of broods than in the lower temperature. As the numbers in the broods were decreasing, the adults dying off, and the whole of the stock looking unhealthy, it was thought well to strengthen it before continuing the experiment. A change of food was given, and plenty of mud from the ditches.

It was then decided to pick out the three largest and strongest of the $\mathrm{F}_{1}$ broods, and to count all the $\mathrm{F}_{2}$ progeny produced by them. K, M, and N broods, which had matured under the healthier conditions, were chosen-K brood consisted of five males and nineteen females, MI of nine males and six females, and N of fifteen males and seven females.

The first 72 broods from these three families (from Oct. 22. 1914, to March 2, 1915) contained 1004 young, 753 black-eyed and 2.51 redeyed, in the exact proportion, as will be seen, of 3 to 1 . K family was represented by 43 broods, total number of young hatched 655 , of which 487 were Black and 168 Red; M family by 19 broods, 271 young, 201

Black and 67 Red ; and N family by 10 broods, 78 young, 62 Black and 16 Red.

By this time the animals were beginning to die out. N family was finished by June 16, 1915; M family on that date had only 1 male and 4 females left (this male died on July 22) ; while K family still had 3 males and 16 females.

The next 65 broods (to May 24, 1915) brought the number of young extruded to $2000=1505$ Black and 495 Red: K family with 1228,924 Black and 304 Red; M family with 582, 438 Black and 144 Red; and N family with 190, 143 Black and 47 Red.

The number 3001 was reached on July 24, 1915, total number of Black 2270 , and of Red 731 ; K family with 1540 Black and 490 Red; M family with 552 Black and 181 Red; and N family with 178 Black and 60 Red.

The figures therefore for the second and third thousand give to the Blacks a slight excess over the theoretical figure. In the first thousand (1004) the proportions, three Black to one Red, were exact ; in the 2000 they were very nearly right; but in the 3000 the Black rather predominated, the fact that the Black is the hardier strain probably accounting for this.

This same slight but steady increase can be seen on a small scale in the detailed Brood-records of the Hybrid crosses H. $\times$ R. In the first broods of each pair the proportions are nearly always exact, half Black and half Red, but the total results for all the broods show a preponderance of Black (see lists, p. 35) ; compare also for an example of a single brood Exp. 85, p. 3 .


The records of the individual families are very interesting. In K family, in which females preponderate, breeding commenced October 25, 1914, the first thousand was reached on April 20, 1915: 63 broods hatched out numbering in all 1007 young, of which 756 were Black and 251 were Red, exact proportions. In the second thousand there were 59 broods hatched containing 1003 young, 767 Black as against 236 Red, the Black therefore in excess. 23 more broods were laid with 431 young, 336 Black and 95 Red. As will be seen, the proportion of Black is again higher. The last male died on September 21, 1915, on which date the records were perforce brought to a conclusion.
These figures prove conclusively that in the $\mathrm{F}_{2}$ generation the proportions are 3 black-eyed to 1 red-eyed. The next step was the testing the black-eyed $\mathrm{F}_{2}$ to get the proportion of Pure Black to Hybrid Black, but the results of this work are not exact and naturally camnot be. It is easy enough to separate the colours, black from red, immediately on hatching, but impossible to determine the question of the constitution of the black-eyed until they breed. Owing to various causes a high rate of mortality has to be allowed for, and the results therefore can only be given on the survicors.

The animals undergo many eddyses, the young every few days, the adults at longer intervals, the males again at much longer intervals than the females. The moulting period is always critical even to the strong ones. It is absolutely fatal to the weakly ones in a brood, the others attacking them in their feeble condition and devouring them. With the adults the mortality is higher among the females. The reason is that the male carrying the female for some days prior to the extrusion of a brood, and assisting it through the moult which immediately precedes the deposition of a fresh brood, very frequently ends by eating it directly after. A great many females have been lost in this way in the course of the work.

But the principal cause of the high death rate is the development of injurious bacteria in the bowls. At first it was thought that the bacteria had been introduced with the rotting leaves given as food, and many methods of sterilising the leaves were tried. After a while it was noticed that all the broods set out on a certain date had perished, and on comparing this result with a similar one in Mr. Crawshay's experiments, he discovered that the same sea-water had been used in all, and that this water was infected, although taken as far out as the Eddystone for the sake of avoiding shore contamination.

Several kinds of bacteria have been observed, some fatal within a day or two, some after several weeks, and others which, except for retarding development, do not injure the animal. One of this last-mentioned kind turns the water a milky colour, and forms dense slimy masses all round
the bowl, and over the food, and even clings to the amphipods themselves. With a lens it is easy to see long streamers of this slime trailing behind the little creatures as they swim.

## Proportions of Pure Black to Hybrid Black in the $F_{2}$ generation.

The experiments to find the proportions of Pure Black and Hybrid Black were made with the surviving $F_{2}$ progeny of the first $F_{1}$ brood, Brood A, that came to maturity. The following table shows the parentage with the number of young hatched, 210 in all, 153 black-eyed and 57 redeyed.

$$
\text { P. ô } \times \text { R. ㅇ Parent generation } \text {. }
$$

(From Pure Black stock.) | (One of the 8 Reds, p. 26.)
First Brood—Brood A=22 young. Hybrid. $F_{1}$ generation. extruded 16.3.1914.

| A. $\mathrm{F}_{1}$ pair. 4 broods. | B. F 1 pair. 4 broods. | C. $F_{1}$ pair. 1 brood. | D. $F_{1}$ pair. <br> 2 broods. | E.F ${ }_{1}$ pair. 3 broods. | F.F $\mathrm{F}_{1}$ pair. <br> 2 broods. | G.F ${ }_{1}$. <br> 1 brood. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 55 young. | 48 young. | 7 young. | 20 young. | 43 young. | 27 young. | 10 young. generation. |
| Hatched :- |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 38 Black. | 37 Black. | 6 Black. | 15 Black. | 30 Black. | 21 Black. | 6 Black. |
| 17 Red. | 11 Red. | 1 Red. | 5 Red. | 13 Red. | 6 Red. | 4 Red. |
| Survived:- |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 23 Black. | 15 Black. | 4 Black. | 13 Black. | 18 Black. | 15 Black. | 5 Black. |
| 10 Red. | 7 Red. | 0 Red. | 3 Red. | 7 Red. | 4 Red. | 3 Red. |

Only 127 reached maturity, 93 black-eyed and 34 red. Of the Black 44 were males and 49 females; of the Red 20 were males and 14 females.

The testing was done with red-eyed mates, the Blacks being separated into finger-bowls and each given a Red mate. The resulting broods would at once show the P . or H . character, for if the black-eyed animal were a Pure Black the offspring would be all black-eyed; if a Hybrid Black, half the young would be black-eyed and half red-eyed. Later, when the constitution of each had been determined, the survivors were mated together: P. $\times$ P. ; P. $\times$ H. ; H. $\times$ H. ; and H. $\times$ P.

It sometimes happens that the individuals of the first brood of Hybrid $\times$ Recessive, if few in number, are all of one eye-colour, not the normal proportions, half red and half black. This occurred six times in the course of these experiments ; in four broods the young were all black-eyed ; in two, all red; the highest number in any of these broods was four. To avoid error each pair was kept for at least three broods to make quite sure of the constitution ; in some cases the black-eyed were mated with two or three different red-eyed mates.

In all 141 experiments were made with the 93 Black-eyed animals. Thirteen, 7 males and 6 females, died without proof, probably through
some inherent weakness；in one or two cases broods of eggs were laid but not hatched，in others the stronger mate ate the weaker one．

Of the 80 that survived， 22 proved Pure Black， 8 males and 14 females， and 58 proved Hybrid Black， 29 males and 29 females．Ten experiments were made with P ．males， 24 with P ．females， 38 with H ．males，and 56 with $H$ ．females．

The details of the experiments are as follows ：－

## Table

showing the details of the experiments made with the black－eyed $\mathrm{F}_{2}$ progeny of one brood of the $\mathrm{F}_{1}$ generation of Hybrids，from September， 1914，to September，1915，in order to find the proportion of Pure Black to Hybrid Black．Theoretically it should be 1 P．： 2 H．，but，as has been already explained，the results recorded here cannot be considered exact owing to the high mortality amongst the immature．

| Experi－ | Black． | Number of Young | Eye－c | our． | $\underset{\text { of }}{\substack{\text { Number }}}$ | Pure Black or Hybrid Black． |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Number． | $\delta$ \％ | hatched． | Black． | Red． | Broods． | Prre mack or Hybria Black． |
| Exp． 1 | － 9 | － | － | － | － | No results ：\＆eaten． |
| 2 | － | － | － | － | － | No results ：$\uparrow$ died． |
| 3 | －+ | － | － | － | － | No results ：¢ died． |
| ， 40 | ô）－－ | －－ | － | －－ | － | f No results． |
| ．， 46 | ，${ }^{\text {，}}$ | 33 | All | －－ | 4 | 1 P ． |
| 5 | or－ | 31 | 16 | 15 | 3 | H． |
| 6 | －$q$ | 25 | 15 | 10 | 2 | H． |
| ， 8 a | O）－ | － | － | － | － | ，No results． |
| ，， 86 | ．．${ }^{\text {－}}$ | 35 | 21 | 14 | 3 | 1 H ． |
| ，，9a | －$⿻ 丷 木$ | 21 | 12 | 9 | 1 | f H． |
| ， 96 | －．， | －－ |  | －－ | － | \｛ No results． |
| 10 | 9 | －－ | － | － | － | No results ：¢ died． |
| ，， 11 | $\hat{0}$ | 56 | 34 | 22 | 4 | H． |
| ，． $14 a$ | ot－ | 2 | － | 2 | 1 | 1 H. |
| ，， $14 b$ | ，， 1 | 26 | 13 | 13 | 2 | 1 ，， |
| ，， 16 | $\bigcirc$ | 19 | 21 | 28 | 4 | H． |
| 17 1过 | ふ）－ | 21 | 11 | 10 | 2 | ，H． |
| 176 | ．，＇－ | －－ |  | － | － | 1 Eggs laid，not hatched． |
| 19 | $\hat{o}$－ | 28 | All | － | 3 | P． |
| ，， $20 a$ | $\mathrm{o}^{1}$－ | － | －－ | － | － | （No results． |
| ，， 206 |  | 9 | 4 | 5 | 1 | H． |
| ，． $20 c$ | ，，－ | 44 | 2.2 | 22 | 1 | ， |
| 21 | ${ }^{+}$ | － | － | －－ | －－ | No results ：${ }^{\hat{2}}$ died． |
| 22 |  | － | － | －－ | － | No results ：$\%$ eaten． |



|  |  | Black. S O O | Number of Young hatched. | Eye-co Black. | Red. |  | Pure Black or Hybrid Black. No results : ô killed by |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ,, 4 | 4 | -- $q$ | 35 | 16 | 19 | 2 | H. [mate. |
| , 4 | $45 a$ | - 아 $^{\prime}$ | 9 | All | - | 1 | f P . |
| ,, 4 | 456 | - ,, | ) 50 | , | - | 2 | 1. |
| ,, 46 | 46 | or - | 10 | 6 | 4 | 2 | H. |
| ,, 4 | 47a | o) - | 29 | 12 | 17 | 3 | 1 H . |
| ,, 4 | 476 | ," |  | - | - | - | \No results : ô died. |
| ,, 4 | 48 a | - 9 | 19 | All | -- | 2 | f P . |
| ,, 4 | $48 b$ | - , , | 14 | , | --- | 1 | 1 , |
| ,. 49 | $49 a$ | - $\quad$ ? | 30 | 16 | 14 | 2 | f H. |
| ,, 49 | 496 | - ," | 18 | 13 | 5 | 1 | , |
| 50 | 50 | - $\quad$ 앙 | 26 | 10 | 16 | 3 | H. |
| 5 | 51 | - 9 | 84 | 32 | 52 | 3 | H. |
| 5 | 52 | $0^{1}$ - | 41 | All | -- | 2 | P. |
| 5 | 53 | - $\%$ | 82 | All | -- | 4 | P. |
| , 5 | $54(1)$ | ${ }^{\circ}$ | - | - | -- | - | No results. |
| , 5 | $54(2)$ | $\widehat{0}^{1}$ | - | - | - | - | , |
| , 5 | $54(3)$ | ô -- | -- | - | $\cdots$ | - | " |
| , 5 | 55 | - + | 108 | All | - | 5 | P. |
| ,, 56 | 56 | - 9 | - | - | - | - | No results. |
| , 5 | $57 a$ | - $\quad$ + | 30 | 14 | 16 | 2 | H. |
| ,, 5 | 576 | , | 63 | 36 | 27 | 2 |  |
| , 5 | $57 c$ | - , , | 135 | 65 | 70 | 5 | , |
| ,. 59 | $59 a$ | o) - | - | --- | - | - | f No results: \& eaten. |
| ,, 59 | $59 b$ | ,, | 56 | All | - | 3 | 1P. |
| , 60 | 60 | or - | 117 | 63 | 54 | 4 | H. |
| ,, 6 | $61 a$ | - +1 | 58 | 34 | 24 | 3 | , H. |
| ,. 6 | $61 b$ | - ," | 15 | 11 | 4 | 1 | 1 , |
| , 62 | $62 a$ | - +1 | 18 | 6 | 12 | 3 | H. |
| , 62 | $62 b$ | - ," | - -. | - | - | - | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { No results: eggs thrown } \\ \text { off : \& died. } \end{array}\right.$ |
| , 63 | 63 | - $\quad$ ㅇ | 81 | All | -- | 4 | P . |
| 6 | 64 | $0^{*}$ - | - | - | - | - | No results: ate $¢$ : died |
| 65 | 65 | - | 63 | All | - | 4 | P . [in moulting. |
| ,, 66 | $66 a$ | - 9 | 12 | All | - | 1 | P. |
| , 66 | $66 b$ | - ,, | 14.5 | , | - | 10 |  |
| ,, 66 |  | - ," | 131 | , | - | 3 |  |
| ,,67 |  | 0 - | 12 | 3 | 9 | 2 | H. |
| ,, 68 | 88 | O*- | 125 | 62 | 63 | 4 | H. |
|  | 69 | - 9 | 56 | 27 | 29 | 3 | H. |


| Experiment | Black. | Number of Young | Eye-coi | olour. | $\begin{gathered} \text { Number } \\ \text { of } \end{gathered}$ | Pure Black or Hybrid Black. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Number. | $\bigcirc$ | hatched. | Black. | Red. | Broods. |  |
| Exp. $70 a$ | - 우) | -- | - | - | -- | \{ No results: too young? |
| , 706 | - ,, | 135 | All | - | 7 | 1 P . |
| ,. $71 a$ | - 81 | 118 | 63 | 55 | 4 | f H. |
| , $71 b$ | - ,, | - | - | - | - | ( No result : ¢ ¢ eaten. |
| ,. $72 a$ | - ${ }^{1}$ | 9 | 7 | 2 | 1 | H. |
| , $72 b$ | ," | 33 | 16 | 17 | 1 | - " |
| , $72 c$ | - ," | 27 | 11 | 16 | 1 | , |
| ,, 73 | $0^{*}-$ | 19 | 5 | 14 | 1 | H. |
| ,, $71 a$ | - $⿻$ ¢ | 26 | 11 | 15 | 3 | \% H. |
| ,, 746 | - ,,' | 7 | 3 | 4 | ] | 1 , |
| ,, $75 a$ | - 91 | 64 | 33 | 31 | 3 | ¢ H. |
| ,, 756 | - , , | 16 | 8 | 8 | 1 | 1 |
| ,, 76 | $\sigma^{*}$ | 47 | 23 | 24 | 4 | H. |
| ., 77 | $\hat{o}^{+}$ | 30 | 16 | 14 | 4 | H. |
| ,, 78 | ${ }^{\circ}$ | 9 | All | - | 2 | P. |
| ,, 79 | oー | 28 | 14 | 14 | 2 | H. |
| ,, 80 | or - | 1 | 1 | - | 1 | No results of value: |
| ,. 81 | O- | 76 | All | - | 4 | P [ 0 eaten. |
| ,, $82 a$ | $0^{+1}$-- | 9 | 6 | 3 | 4 | f H. |
| ,, $82 b$ | ,' | 26 | 11 | 15 | 1 | 1 |
| .. 85 | o - | 332 | 176 | 156 | 13 | H. |
| ,. 87 | O - | 191 | 95 | 96 | 10 | H. |
| ,, $89 a$ | $0^{+1}$ - | - | - | - | - | , No results: ate ? |
| , 896 | ,, - | 4 | 3 | 1 | 1 | 1 H. |
| ,, 90 | 0 - | 59 | All | - | 2 | P. |
| ,, 91 | O- - | 57 | 31 | 26 | 5 | H. |
| ,, 92 | ठ - | 183 | 95 | 88 | 10 | H. |
| , $93 a$ | - 91 | 32 | 15 | 17 | 1 | H. |
| , 936 | - ,, | , | - | - | - | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { No results: eggs thrown } \\ \text { off. } \end{array}\right.$ |
| ,, 94 | o - | 53 | 21 | 32 | 4 | H. |
| ,, 95 | - + | 146 | 68 | 78 | 6 | H. |
| 96 | $\delta^{*}$ - | 94 | 54 | 40 | 6 | H. |
| ,, 97 | ơ- | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | H. |
| ,, 98 | $0^{+}$- | 209 | 95 | 114 | 12 | H. |
| ,, 99 | ${ }^{\circ}$ | $\varepsilon 6$ | All | - | 7 | P . |
| ,, 100 | $\hat{0}$ - | 10 | 6 | 4 | 1 | H. |
| ,, 104 | $0^{\text {or }}$ | 256 | 140 | 116 | 10 | H. |
| Total 141 | 3743 | 5494 | 3555 | 1939 | 323 | $\mathrm{P} .=8$ on and 14 ¢ |
| Exps. | \% ¢ 1 | Young. 1 | Black. | Red. | Broods. | $\mathrm{H} .=29 \bigcirc^{\star}$ and 29 q. |

The total number of young hatched was 5494. Of this number 388
 The number of young from the other cross, H. $\times$ R., was $3931-1992$ Black-eyed and 1939 Red-eyed-1134 Black and 1098 Red in the mating H. $\widehat{o}^{\hat{o}} \times$ R. ㅇ, and 858 Black and 841 Red in the mating H. $q \times$ R. $\widehat{o}$. As will be seen, the proportion is not quite exact, the Blacks being rather in excess. It appears to vary a good deal with the individual, though perhaps the number of offspring from a single pair is not sufficiently large to eliminate mere chance variation. Some animals have a succession of broods fairly evenly divided into Black and Red, while others have a preponderance of one colour or the other, others, again, having first one brood unevenly divided, the next restoring the balance, and so on. Examples of the first will be found in Exps. 87 and 57.

In Exp. 87 (o H ., with the same mate for all the broods) -
Brood 1 numbered $27=14$ Black and 13 Red.

| $"$ | 2 | $"$ | $14=$ | 5 | $"$ | 9 |
| ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| $"$, |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $"$ | 3 | $"$ | $14=$ | 9 | $"$ | 5 |
| $"$ | $"$ |  |  |  |  |  |
| $"$ | 4 | $"$ | $13=$ | 7 | $"$ | 6 |
| $"$ | 5 | $"$ | $10=$ | 5 | $"$ | 5 |
| $"$ | $"$ |  |  |  |  |  |
| $"$ | 6 | $"$ | $13=8$ | $"$ | 5 | $"$ |
| $"$ | 7 | $"$ | $20=10$ | $"$ | 10 | $"$ |
| $"$ | 8 | $"$ | $24=11$ | $"$ | 13 | $"$ |
| $"$ | 9 | $"$ | $32=14$ | $"$ | 18 | $"$ |
| $"$ | 10 | $"$ | $24=12$ | $"$ | 12 | $"$ |
|  |  |  | $191=95$ | $"$ | 96 | , |

Exp. 57 ( $\uparrow$ H., with 3 different mates) -

For examples of the preponderance of one colour Exps. 60, 61, 71, and 95 will serve ; 60 is a ${ }^{\hat{1}} \mathrm{H}$. and 71 l a 9 H ., both had 4 broods. each, with 117 and 118 young respectively.

In Exp. 60-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Brood } 1 \text { numbered } 11=7 \text { Black and } 4 \text { Red. } \\
& \begin{array}{lllllll}
, & 2 & , & 28 & =12 & " & 16 \\
" & 3 & " & 47 & =28 & " & 19 \\
", \\
" & 4 & " & 31=16 & " & 15 & , \\
\hline 117=63 & , & 54 & ,
\end{array}
\end{aligned}
$$

In Exp. 71-
Brood 1 numbered $12=6$ Black and 6 Red.

$$
\begin{array}{rrrrrr}
" & 2 & " & 24=17 & " & 7 \\
" & 3 & " & 41=22 & " & 19 \\
" & " \\
" & 4 & " & 41=18 & " & 23 \\
& & & 118=63 & , & 55
\end{array}
$$

In Exp. 61 the Black are in excess.
Brood 1 numbered $8=4$ Black and 4 Red.

| $"$ | 2 | $"$ | $21=12$ | $"$ | 9 | , |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $"$ | 3 | $"$ | $29=18$ | $"$ | 11 | $"$ |
| $"$ | 4 | $"$ | $15=11$ | $"$ | 4 | $"$ |
| $73=45$ | , | 28 | ,. |  |  |  |

In Exp. 95 the Red preponderate (cf. Exp. 51).
Brood 1 numbered 15 $=7$ Black and 8 Red.

| $"$ | 2 | $"$ | 14 | $=5$ | , | 9 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | ---: | :--- |

For illustrations of broods unevenly divided the first broods in Exps. 32 and 72 may be given.

Exp 32. Brood 1 with $23=10$ Black and 13 Red.

$$
\because \quad 2, \frac{27=15}{} \quad, \quad 12 \quad,
$$

Exp. 72. Brood 1 with $9=7$ Black and 2 Red.

\[

\]

The H. + of Exp. 75 had two broods of 21 -in one case 13 Black and 8 Red, in the other 13 Red and 8 Black.

The number of young in a brood varies with the individual, but the numbers in the broods of a single pair do not vary much as a rule; to take an example, Exp. 99 had seven broods as follows: 11, 15, 13, 10, 11, 15, 11.

Exp. 35 is an interesting one, showing the varying proportions of Black and Red with different mates. This female was mated with four males with the following results : with male $a$, one brood of 13 young, 3 Black, 10 Red; with male $b$, one brood of 10,8 Black, 2 Red ; with male $c$, two broods of 28 and 27 , with 12 Black and 16 Red, and 11 Black and 16 Red respectively ; and with male $d$, two broods of 11 and 23 , with 6 Black and 5 Red, and 14 Black and 9 Red respectively.

Many of the $\mathrm{F}_{2}$ animals had died by the time these experiments were finished, only a few remained to be mated together. Two matings of $\mathrm{P} . \times \mathrm{P}$. were made, the other P . animals being paired with H . mates.

| P. $\times$ P. | Exp. 83a | 5 broods | 133 Black-eyed young. |  |  | $\hat{o}^{\text {a }}$ died. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 836 | 2 |  |  |  | of died. |
| P. $\times$ H. | 84 | 1 brood | Eggs | ow |  | o died. |
| P. $\times$ H. | $110 b$ | 1 , |  | $k-\mathrm{e}$ | oung. | ${ }^{\text {a }}$ eaten. |
| P. $\times$ H. | 118 | 2 broods | 48 |  | , | $\chi^{\text {or }}$ died. |
| P. $\times$ H. | , 119 | 1 brood | 3 | " | " | ${ }^{\text {or }}$ died. |
| H. $\times$ P. | 102 | 1 , | 43 |  | " | ${ }^{\text {ot died. }}$ |
| H. $\times$ P. | $105 a$ | 3 broods | 85 |  | " | $\delta^{\text {a }}$ died. |
| H.F ${ }_{3} \times$ P.F ${ }_{2}$ | $105 b$ | 4 ., | 113 | " | " | $\delta^{\text {a }}$ eaten. |
| H. $\times$ P. | 107 | - | - |  |  | ¢ died. |
| H.F ${ }_{3} \times$ P. $\mathrm{F}_{2}$ | 115 | 1 brood | 5 | " | , | $\delta^{\circ}$ died. |
| H. $\times$ P. | 117 | - | -- |  |  | $\delta^{2}$ died. |
| Total |  | 21 broods | 497 |  | ung. |  |

The matings of $\mathrm{H} . \times \mathrm{H}$. are as follows :-
H. $\times$ H. Exp. 862 broods 60 young $=46$ Black 14 Red. $q$ eaten.
H. $\times$ H. ,, 1031 brood 22 ,, $=16$, 6 ,, and another brood
(ơ unhealthy) $1 \quad, \quad=1 \quad, \quad-\quad$ ô died.
H. $\times$ H. Exp. $106 a 1$ brood 52 , $=48 \quad, 4$ " ô died.
$106 b$ - $\quad=\quad-\quad$ - $\quad$ died.
H. $\times$ H. , , 1094 broods $62 \quad, \quad=43 \quad, \quad 19$, ô died.
H. $\times$ H. , $\quad 110 a 1$ brood $38 \quad, \quad=30 \quad, \quad 8$, ô died.
H. $\times$ H. ,, 1122 broods $40, \quad=29$, 11 , Both died.
H. $\times$ H. " 1161 brood $11 \quad, \quad=7 \quad, 4$, o died.

Total . In 12 broods 286 young $=220$ Black 66 Red.

The proportions of Black to Red in these H. $\times$ H. experiments are about right if Exp. $106 a$ is not counted.

The H. male in this experiment had been previously mated with a Red female, and had had one brood of 9 young, 1 Black and 8 Red-a preponderance of Red.

The H. female had also been previously mated with a Red male, and had had 84 young in 3 broods, 32 Black to 52 Red, a preponderance of Red. When mated together the one brood of 52 was the result, 48 Black to 4 Red-a preponderance of Black. (The Red male with which the H. female mated was tried with another H. female which had already had 30 young, 16 Black and 14 Red-with the result, one brood of 18 young hatched, 13 Black and 5 Red.)

A great many of the $\mathrm{F}_{3}$ animals from these experiments were mated in order to see if the results would repeat those already obtained in the $P$. $F_{1}$ and $F_{2}$ generations. They were examined regularly, but only a few records were kept, the fact that in all cases they bred true being considered sufficient evidence of accordance with the Mendelian law.

## SEX.

All the broods were kept in separate bowls to come to maturity, in the hope of finding the number of males and females hatched, and if the number varied in the different crosses. Owing to unfavourable conditions, bacteria, etc., it was found impossible to get good results. The broods, therefore, are taken in which over fifty per cent of the young came to maturity, and the numbers are given below, together with the broods in which less than fifty per cent survived, and the number of broods which failed entirely.

As a rule, all or nearly all the animals in the small broods survived, probably because they were stronger, as they were certainly larger than the others on hatching. Almost all the very large broods failed in spite of repeated efforts to save them by separating them into several bowls so as to avoid overcrowding, etc.

Of the broods that failed entirely 5 were in the $\mathrm{P} . \times \mathrm{R}$. cross, 11 in the R. $\times$ P., 29 in the H. $\times$ R., and 23 in the R. $\times$ H., 68 in all.

Broods in which $50 \%_{0}$ and over survived to maturty．

| Biack and Red Crosses． | 右 | 苑 | 昜 | Black． |  |  |  | Reert． |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  | $\stackrel{\text { ex }}{\underline{x}}$ | 空 |  | 菏 | $\frac{\dot{e}}{\frac{\text { en }}{x}}$ |  |  | 鴯 |
| P．$\times$ R． | 10 | 106 | 83 | 50 | 33 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| R．P． | 25 | 299 | $\because 40$ | 129 | 111 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| H．$\times$ R． | 43 | 551 | 387 | 95 | 101 | 28.2 | 196 | 90 | 101 | 269 | 191 |
| R．$\times$ H． | 37 | 510 | 351 | 92 | 95 | 269 | 187 | 72 | 92 | 241 | 164 |

Broods in which less than $50{ }^{\circ}{ }_{0}$ survired．

| P．$\times$ R | 10 | 14： | 31 | 16 | 15 |  |  | 36 | 49 | 451 | 85 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| R．$\times \mathrm{P}$ ． | 26 | 492 | 86 | 45 | 41 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| H．$\times$ R． | 43 | 889 | 174 | 46 | 43 | 438 | 89 |  |  |  |  |
| R．$\times \mathrm{H}$ ． | 40 | 860 | 176 | 44 | 36 | 432 | 80 | 55 | 41 | 428 | 96 |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Black } \\ & \text { Crosses. } \end{aligned}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| P．$\times$ P． | 7 | 194 | 79 | 40 | 39 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| P．$\times$ H． | 5 | 57 | 28 | 10 | 18 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| H．$\times$ P． | 9 | 169 | 40 | 17 | 23 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| H．$\times$ H． | 13 | 286 | 30 | 7 | 15 | 220 | 22 | 6 | $\stackrel{ }{2}$ | 66 | 8 |

RECORDS OF ABNORMAL EYES：＂NO－WHITE，＂ ＂PART－WHITE，＂AND＂ALL－WHITE．＂

Attempts at breeding the animals together to ascertain if the＂no－ white，＂＂part－white，＂and＂all－white＂variations follow the Mendelian lines of inheritance have so far not succeeded，although these abnormalities seem to run in certain families and not in others．For example，in the $\mathrm{F}_{1}$ Hybrids（p．31）a great number of cases occurred in Families A and K， only one case in M，and none in the other families．

Some instances may be given in illustration of the proportions and degree per brood of the＂no－uhite＂variation．In K family at least six normal－eyed females transmitted this strain，some more than others，and the proportion of＂no－white＂－eyed in their broods was much higher than in A family．These females mated in the brood－bowl and were removed to extrude their young，and then returned to the bowl to mate again． During the month of June，1915， 20 broods were extruded by the different K females（some of them having two broods each in the month），and
in 10 of the broods "no-white"-eyed individuals were found, as follows:--
14 young: 11 Black, 3 Red; amongst them 2 Black "no-white."

| 9 , | 8 | ,' | 1 | , | " | 4 , | .. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 19 | 15 | ", | 4 | " | " | 3 , | , |
|  |  |  |  |  |  | 2 Red | .. |
| 3 , | 3 | , | 0 | " | , | 1 Black | " |
| 15 ," | 11 | " | 4 | ", | " | 6 , | , |
| 28 " | 23 | " | 5 | " | ", |  | " |
|  |  |  |  |  |  | 1 Red | , |
| 30 (2 broods together) | 23 | , | 7 | " | " | 5 Black | .. |
|  |  |  |  |  |  | 2 Red | , |
| 17 young: | 14 | " | 3 | " | ", | 4 Black | " |
| 15 ," | 14 | ", | 1 | " | " | 5 , | , |

In the A family 7 animals out of the 93 black-eyed (p. 34) produced some " no-white" -eyed young, 1 male and 2 females from $\mathrm{Af}_{2}, 1$ male and 1 female from $\mathrm{Df}_{2}$, 1 male from $\mathrm{Ef}_{2}$, and 1 male from $\mathrm{Ff}_{2}$. The details are as follows :-

In Exp. 28. Brood III. 1 Black " no-white" on one side, and 1 Red "no-white" both sides. The Black was a female, the Red died before maturity. The of of this experiment mated with the of in Exp. 27 and had 1 Black abnormal of in Brood III.
, $\quad 59$.
. 2" no-white" Black-both died.
II. 1
preserved.
", III. $2 \quad$ ", " $\quad$ ", preserved. a female "no-white" on right side.
60. ", II. I "no-white" Red male, one side only.
IV. Contained 31 young, the eyes in all with very imperfect and broken reticulation.
66. ", VI. ] "no-white" Black, female, left side.
93. One brood of 12 young. ] " no-white" Black, died. All the others with the reticulation imperfect. One brood of 7 young, 5 with imperfect reticulation. One brood of 32 young, all with imperfect reticulation.
112. The male was from $\mathrm{Af}_{2}$, the female from $D f_{2}$.

Brood I. 38 roung. 1 "no-white" Black, died. Many with reticulation imperfect. Several Red, very pale colour.
, II. 2 young. 1 Black " no-white" both sides--died.

Another instance is that of Exp. 99 (p. 38), a Pure Black male from $\mathrm{Bf}_{2}$ mated with a Recessive female, both with normal eyes. All their young, 86 in number, were also normal. In the $\mathrm{F}_{2}$ generation the " nowhite" and the "part-white" strains appeared in the offspring of a pair from Brood 7. This pair had three broods, the first brood of 6 died young. Of the second brood, 21 in all, 13 Black and 8 Red, only 7 survived, 3 Black males, one with the left eye affected (in this case 2 or 3 of the ommatidia formed a little cluster apart from the ommateum). 4 Red survived, two normal and two " part-white" as figured (Fig. 7). (In the first brood from these Reds 3 out of the 4 young $\left(\mathrm{F}_{4}\right)$ had normal eyes, the fourth had eyes like the male figured.) The third brood numbered 30, 20 Black and 10 Red, of these 6 survived, 4 Black and 2 Red, only one normal-eyed amongst them, a Black. Two of the other Blacks were " no-white" on both sides, and the remaining one was normal on the right side, but had a small cluster of ommatidia apart on the left side. Of the two Reds, one was " no-white" on the left side, the other had the white reticulation partly lacking, i.e. partly " no-white."

Many cases have occurred in which the white pigment (instead of being diminished or lacking) is present in excess. This appears to be always accompanied by a diminution of the coloured pigment of the retinular cells, the red, e.g., being hardly perceptible, even with a strong lens showing only as a very pale pink tint, instead of the vivid blood-red of the normal red eye. This variation has been noticed especially in the later generations of the imbred Recessives, and it is possible that another generation or two of inbreeding may produce the " all-uhite" eye.

Only a few "all-whites" have been recorded so far (Nov. 19, 1915). Two, a male hatched April 2, 1915, and a female hatched April 14, have appeared in the Pure Red Stock amongst the young from Brood 4, Exp. 5, Recessives (p. 27) (descendants of the fourth brood of female A of the original experiments, p. 22). The female came to maturity but died without mating. The male (Fig. 8) was mated with female B (Figs. 9 and 10), referred to below (a Hybrid with degenerate " white" eyes), and proved pure Red - the 5 young being normal-eyed, 2 Black and 3 Red. It died in moulting, November 19, 1915, without mating again. Two other females from the same brood as the " all-white" female extruded their young in the brood-bowl, 6 in number, all with very pale pink, almost " white " eyes.

A curious instance of the " all-white" accompanied by degeneration of the eye was noted in the forty-second brood of M family, $\mathrm{F}_{1}$ Hybrids (p. 31). This brood was extruded on Jme 1, 1915, and numbered 12 young, 7 Black, 1 Red, and 4 " all-white " eyes. These four proved to be 1 male and 3 fomales. The male mated with one of the females, eggs were
laid but thrown off, then the male died and was eaten. A Pure Black male was put in, mated with one of the females, but ate it after mating.

By September 26 only the two females B and C were left. The " allwhite " male from the Pure Red Stock with unpigmented perfectly formed eyes (Fig. 8) was put with them and mated at once with female B (Figs. 9 and 10). eggs were laid, and 5 young were extruded, on October 16, all with normal eyes, 2 Black and 3 Red. This result proved bevond doubt that female $B$ was a true Hybrid and the male a true Recessive.

The second female. C, was left with the same male, but as no mating had taken place by October 28, a Red male was added, mated, and the eggs were laid on November 4.

The figures given of the eyes and eye-colours are all taken from living animals, for the colours alter so rapidly after death, that notes made on the colour in dead or preserved specimens are not of the slightest value. For instance, the white pigment disappears within an hour or two of death, and the red also fades out completely, though much more gradually.

## CENERAL NOTES.

Breeding different yenerations together.-Eight experiments were made with males of the $\mathrm{F}_{3}$ generation and females of the $\mathrm{F}_{2}$ : one with $\mathrm{R} . \times \mathrm{H}$.; two with $\mathrm{H} . \times$ R. ; two with $\mathrm{H} . \times \mathrm{H}$. ; and three with $\mathrm{H} . \times \mathrm{P}$. In the first, the male was rather small, mated three times, and carried the female for 7,6 , and 6 days respectively with no results ; female disappeared. In and Exp. the female was eaten ; 3rd Exp., one brood of 26 young was hatched, 11 Black and 15 Red, the male died; 4th Exp., one brood of 6 young; 5th Exp., eggs were laid, not hatched, male died; 6th Exp., same male as in the second experiment, one brood of 5 young, male died ; 7th Exp., female laid eggs but died before they hatched ; Sth Exp., four broods of $36,17,30,30$; male eaten. The results are not satisfactory, probably because of the difference in size. The females were large, and the males had only just reached maturity. When the animals are about the same size there is nothing to distinguish their matings from those of animals of the same generation.

Fertility. A great variation in fertility has been noticed, not only in individuals, but often in all the members of any one brood.

Some instances may be given in illustration from broods of the $\mathrm{F}_{1}$ generation of the Recessives. As an example of infertility Brood 1 of Exp. 9, p. 27, may be taken. Ten young were hatched, and most of them rearhed matmity, but after six months' breeding they all perished without leaving a single descendant. Brood after brood of eggs were laid, but not a single young one was hatched.

Another brood, Exp. 5, Brood 4, kept under the same conditions as the one just mentioned and breeding during the same time had 132 young. In the following four months, March to July, 1915, 91 young were hatched.

The next brood of the same experiment, Exp. 5, Brood 5, shows a curious variation. There were the same number of individuals as in the last, the same conditions, etc. After six months' breeding only 2 young were hatched from all the eggs laid, but in the following three months, April to July, 1915, 90 young were hatched.

For instances of fertility and infertility in individuals some of the $\mathrm{F}_{2}$ animals may be taken. Sometimes an animal will mate several times with no results ; the most striking case of this was the H. female of Exp. 39 (p. 36). Mated with a Black male, eggs were laid on September 12, 1914, carried for six days and then thrown off ; eggs again on September 25 and again thrown off before hatching. The male was taken away, and another Black male put in : eggs laid on October 9 and thrown off ; eggs again on October 23 and again thrown off. Then the female was left for a period without a male. On November 29 the male was put back, and eggs were laid, a large number, thrown off some days later; eggs laid on December 14, a large number, thrown off ; eggs laid on Jannary 3, 1915, all there on January 12, but on the 14th they were all thrown off except two, these were carried a day or two longer but not hatched. The male was taken away, and a Red male put in, which died on January 26 without any mating taking place. Then two more Red males were added -one disappeared on February 8. The female laid eggs, very few, these were thrown off on February 11. The male was again changed. On February 17 eggs were laid, and from these 4 young were hatched on March 8. Eggs were laid on March 10 and 12 young hatehed on April 3. A fresh brood laid on April 3, hatched out on April 23, 19 young. The male disappeared and another was put in. Eggs laid on June 1, very few in number. On June 9 the male ate the female. The seven males used in this experiment, 2 Black and 5 Red, were all healthy animals, which had already fertilised the eggs of other females.

Numbers in Broods.-As a rule it is found that an exceptionally large brood of young is followed by a very small brood, or by the omission of one period of sexual activity, but in several cases the animals had a series of large broods, the highest nmmbers recorded in two succeeding broods being: In Exp. 11 (R. \& mated with H. ô), 42 in the brood and (mated directly after with another H. 3. Exp. 20) 44 in the next ; in Exp. 51 (H. $\% \times$ R. ô), 40 and (mated then with H. 今, Exp. 106) 52, the largest number in a brood yet recorded ; Exps. 60, 68, and 104 (H. ô $\times$ R. \&) had 47 and 31, 30 and 48, and 40 and 43 respectively, and Exps. 70 and
 all except Exp. 70 being Hybrid Black and Recessive matings.

Different rate of development.-There is often a marked difference in the rate of development of individuals in the same brood, and also of broods from the same pair. For example, in Exp. 85 (p. 38) some members of a brood hatched on January 6, 1915, were mature in March, the others not till June. Many instances like this were noted.

In Exp. 99, Brood V took four months to reach maturity; Brood VI, seven months; while Brood VII was mature in two months, and the animals were then much larger than many of the broods hatched three months earlier.

It was found that Bacteria greatly retarded growth; in one case a female took eight months to become mature, and was then only about half the normal size.

## SUMMARY.

1. Twenty-one thousand, five hundred and fourteen $(21,514)$ amphipods of the species Gammarus cherreuxi Sexton have been examined for eyecolour, 21,302 referred to in this paper, and 212 in other experiments, not included.
2. The normal eye-colour of this species is black, with a superficial reticulation of opaque white pigment.
3. The pigmentation of the eye is very variable within limits. Eyes have beeu observed either partially or entirely lacking in the coloured pigment of the retimular cells, or with either a partial or entire lack, or else an excess of the opaque white pigment.
4. The red strain appears to have arisen as a "sport" in the second generation of offspring of the first animals captured. No red-eyed animals have yet been found in natural conditions, although many thousands have been brought in from time to time and examined. Those counted for the purpose while the work for this paper was in progress numbered 8697, but this figure does not include the many thousands previously observed. Experiments have been made repeatedly with a view of getting the Red strain again from the Pure Black, but with no success.
5. The Red eye-colour is not a sex-limited character ; about as many males as females come to maturity. 4248 red-eyed animals have been examined, 4175 referred to in the paper, and 73 in control experiments.
(i. The inheritance of the coloured pigment of the eye follows the Mendelian law-Black is dominant and Red recessive. The dominants are divided into Pure Black and Impure or Hybrid Black.
6. The Pure Dominants and the Recessives breed true through all generations.
7. The crosses which have been made and the young hatched from them are as follows :-

Pure Black $\times$ Recessive.- 3779 black-eyed young; 3746 in paper, 33 in control experiments.
Hybrid Black $\times$ Recessive.-4255 young, of which 2176 were black-eyed and 2079 red-eyed. Those referred to in the paper numbered 4189 , 2138 Black and 2051 Red, the others came from other experiments in the $\mathrm{F}_{4}$ generation--not included.
Pure Black $\times$ Pure Black.-All black-eyed young, 1715 in number.
Pure Black $\times$ Hybrid Black:-All black-eyed young, 379 in number.
Hybrid Black $\times$ IIybrid Black.--4393 young, of which 3327 were blackeyed and 1066 red-cyed. Those referred to in the paper numbered 4302, 3259 Black and 1043 Red-the other 91 , being from the $\mathrm{F}_{4}$ experiments, not included here.
9. The absence or diminution of the white pigment seems peculiar to some broods. The " no-white" eye appeared in the second generation of offspring of Pure Black animals brought in from the ditches. The individuals affected in this way are more difficult to rear than the others, and, so far, attempts to breed them have not been successful.
10. The absence of the coloured pigment and degeneration of the eye occurred also in the $\mathrm{F}_{2}$ generation-in this case from Hybrid Black animals.
11. The absence of the coloured pigment in perfectly formed eyes, the " all-white" eye, occurred in the Recessives. A great diminution of the red pigment has also been observed, particularly in the $F_{4}$ generatio o of the inbred Recessives.
12. The absence of the coloured pigment in part of the eye, the " partwhite" eye, was observed in the first generation of offspring of Pure Blacks brought in from the ditches. It has been noted several times in both black and red eyes of specimens bred in the Laboratory, but only once in fresh-captured material. This case was a male, with one eye affected.
13. About as many males as females survive to maturity.
14. The breeding together of animals from different generations gives the same results as regards proportions of colours as the breeding together in the same generation.

## EXPLANATJON OF PLATE I.

Fig. I.-Pure Black eye. Female from Brood 1 of Exp. 118 (p. 41). Extruded June 9. Mated with Red male, first brood hatched Ang. 26 numbering 14; five more broods, 19, 31, 24, 41, and 36 respeetively, all black-eyed. Figured Oet. 29, 1915, a few hours before moulting. $\times 58$.
Fig. 2.-Hybrid Black eye. Female from Brood 7 of Exp. 1056 (p. 4I). Extruded April 29 , figured Nov. 24, 1915. Mated with H. male, one brood of 13, 10 Blaek and 3 Red. $\times 58$.
Fig. 3.-Red eye. Large male from Recessive stock. Figured Nov. 5, 1915, two days before moulting; examined after moulting but no increase of ommatidia seen. $\times 58$.
Fig. 4.-Right eye of young Hybrid from H. . R. cross. Extruded Uct. 22, figured Oct. 25,1915 ; the white pigment was then mueh more solid in appearance than when newly hatched. $\times 75$.
Fig. 5.-Right eye of young Red from Reeessive stock. Extruded Oct. 21, 1915, and figured three hours after extrusion. $\times 75$.
Fif. 6.-" No-white" eye. Young male from the seeond generation of Pure Blacks (p. 25). Figured Nov. 23, $1915 . \quad \therefore 58$.

Fig. 7.- "Part-white" eye. Male. $\mathrm{F}_{2}$ generation from P. R. eross (see p. 45). Extruded June 15. Figured Nov. 2, 1915. × 58.
Fir. 8.-" All-white" eye. Male from inhred Reeessive stoek (see p. 45). Extruded April 2, died in monlting and figured Nov. 19, 1915. $\times 58$.
Fic. 9.-"All-white" degenerate eye, right side. Female B. F generation from P. : R. cross (see p. 46). Extruded June 1, figured Nov. 16, 1915. $\times 58$.

Fig. 10.-" All-white" degenerate eye, left side, from Female B. Figured Nov. 16. $\times 58$.


2



# Notes on the Life History of Anaphia petiolata (Kröyer). 

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In the early summer of 1915 it was noticed that many medusæ brought in with the tow-nettings contained larval Pyenogonids in the manubrium and at the junction of mambrium and stomach. The medusæ specially noticed to contain them were Obelia sp., Cosmetira pilosella, Turris pileata, Stomotoct dinema and Phialidium hemisphericum. By far the greater number were in Obelia, although many were in Phialidium hemisphericum and Cosmetira pilosella. They were extremely abundant in June, after that became scarcer, and finally disappeared by October. On examination they were seen to be larval stages of Amaphia petiolata* (Kröyer), a Pycnogonid common in Plymouth Sound. The older larvæ sometimes were seen to cast their skins, so that the species could be easily recognised, although the fourth pair of walking legs were not fully developed. This is evidently the species described by Dogiel (1913) as Anoplodactylus pygmecus, the life history of which he traces from its first entry into the Obelia hydroid to the older stages when it is ready to leave its host. The form he refers to as Anoplodactylus petiolatus occurring in cysts in Corgne with Phoxichitidium femoratum must be some other species. as his figures prove clearly that it differs from A. pygmous, and also the colour is totally different (a bright pink, while the present form is a pale yellow). Dogiel believes he has proved that Anoplodactylus petiolatus and $A$. pygmans are different species from the difference in their life histories, and it is evident that he is dealing with two different species, but his A. petiolatus cannot be the same as our form. which is certainly identical with his A. mygmous, and shows that Sars (1891) and Norman (1894) were right in regarding A. pygmous as the young form of A. petiolatus (hröyer).

[^3]Dogiel's account of the larval stages of A. pygmocus, together with the present discovery of the older larvæ in medusæ, shows a most interesting life history. According to him the very young larva hatches out of the egg (which contains very little yolk), leaves the protection of the father, and crawls on to the Obelia hydroid. In this early stage it has three appendages, the first the chelæ, the second and third with long threadlike ends which are used for attachment to the father directly after hatching. It immediately begins to burrow into one of the hydroid polyps, and once settled down there undergoes a metamorphosis, the second and third appendages atrophy, and three pair of walking legs develop. After several moults older larvæ appear, which are like the adults, except for the incompleteness of the last pair of walking legs, and these leave the hydroid and begin to live a free existence.

The stages found in the medusæ correspond to the larval stages after the second and third appendages have atrophied. The youngest stage seen corresponds with Dogiel's Stage IV with the three pair of walking legs indicated and the chelæ well stretched out in front, which are used for clinging firmly to the host. Dogiel has called attention to the fact that many larvæ do not succeed in entering the polyps, and have to undergo their development on and not in the hydroid, and now we find still another alternative for the larva. A large proportion of them, instead of entering a polyp, must in some way manage to enter a medusa. How they do this it is not possible at present to say. Possibly they eling to a medusa just as it is escaping from the colony, or perhaps they may get into a gonotheca before the liberation of the medusæ. One young larva in just the same stage as the youngest from a medusa was found amongst a colony of Obelia from Laminaria collected below the Laboratory. The oceurrence of the same larva in various medusæ shows that it does not strictly keep to one species or genus of hydroid, although Obelia seems to be the favourite host.

The discovery that larval Pycnogonids are carried about by medusæ must have an important bearing on their means of dispersal, those individuals which are in the medusæ having much greater chances of life than those in the crowded area where the hydroid colony is situated. Pyenogonids swim feebly, and have not much in themselves to help in their distribution (see Calman, 1915, p. 6), but in the parasitic habits we have an important means of dispersal. Already H. Merton (1906) has found a species of nymphon ( $N$. parasiticum) living parasitically on the nudibranch Tethys leporina in the Mediterranean. H. Prell (1909) has found nymphon on Lucernaria (in this case eating the tentacles), now we find larval forms being carried about in medusæ. It is interesting to note that a young specimen of Endeis spinosus (Montagu) was twice found
in the tow-nettings from outside the Breakwater, Plymouth, extended flat on the top of the bell of an Obelia medusa, and clinging to it. So beautifully was it balanced that the medusa could swim perfectly, although weighted by the Pycnogonid.

If medusæ and Pycnogonids are left together in a vessel, e.g. Anaphia petioluta or Endeis spinosus, it is nearly always found that the Pyenogonids are attracted towards the medusæ and cling to them. The only movement made by the young larvæ when taken from the medusæ is a strong waving of the chelæ, and if these come in contact with a medusa they cling tightly to it.


Fig. 1.-Larval stages of Anaphiu petiolutus (Kröyer). $\times 60$. A. Youngest stage in Obelita medusa ; B. Later stage ; C. Still later stage, the legs having been separated with needles. I-VI. The appendages. Ventral view.

The larva at all stages is of a pale yellow colour, and has its legs so folded that they pack into the smallest possible space. As many as four were found in one medusa, but usually there is only one. It grows rapidly, and the body elongates considerably together with a great lengthening of the legs. In the youngest stage found (Fig. 1, A) the legs (IV-VI) were short, roundish stumps, the alimentary canal extending into them and well into the chelæ. The chelæ were powerfully developed with strong claws; remains of the second and third larval appendages were seen as small hair-like protuberances. These, however, are often very difficult to see, and the drawing shows an exceptionally clear specimen. These appendages, although dwindling, persist until the larva has grown to nearly twice the size ; in this differing from Dogiel's observations, who describes them as disappearing almost at once.

As the legs elongate a short spine is apparent at the angle of folding, but these soon disappear (Fig. 1, B). When considerably larger the larva resembles the adult, although still packed up tight. If the legs be unfolded the body is seen to be broad with the cephalic segment distinct, proboscis fairly long, the claws of the legs showing through the skin, and the last pair of legs and candal segment appearing as a broad hind piece (Fig. 1, ('). Yellow eyes have now appeared. This is the last larval


Fif. 2.-Young Amphiu petiolata (Kröyer) soon after emergence from the last larval skin. Lettering as before. 47.
stage, which shows the young Anaphia through the skin, and this form can often be seen with the young Anaphia emerging from it. This is in all essentials like the adult, but much smaller, and with the last pair of legs appearing as two stumps with a very short eaudal segment in between them. When quite newly hatched it measures about 0.70 mm . from the anterior end of the cephatic segment to the posterior end of the caudal segment (Fig. 2). The cephalic segment is very short, in fact the whole animal is exactly like the figures and descriptions of Anoplo-
dactylus pygmereus (Hoek, 1881; Hodge, 1864). By comparing these young forms with older undoubted specimens of Anuphia petiolata (Kröyer), they correspond exactly with the exception of the length of the cephalic segment, which grows with the animal just as Canon Norman suggests (1894). The growth, however, appears to take place after the


Fig. 3.-Diagram to show growth of cephalic segment. A. Length 0.70 mm ., young Anaphia petiolata direetly after emergence from the last larval skin; B. Length 0.90 mm ., later stage; C. Length 1.04 mm ., later stage in which all legs are developed; D. Length 1.56 mm ., nearly full grown.
moult in which the walking legs are complete, that is to say when the body and legs are fully formed, for a series of measurements show that there is very little difference in the length of the cephalic segment of the young form after it has slonghed its last larval skin and the young form with completely formed legs (see Fig. 3). The increase in length takes place afterwards.

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# Medusæ as Hosts for Larval Trematodes. 

By<br>Marie V. Lebour, M.Sc.,<br>Assistant Lecturer in Zoology, Leels University. Temporary Naturalist in the Plymouth Laboratory.<br>With Figure 1 in the Text.

The larval form (late cercaria stage) of Pharyngora bacillaris (Molin) has been recorded by Nicoll (1910) from Plymouth as occurring free in the coarse-meshed tow-nettings in August. The adult is a common parasite of the mackerel, and the above is the only record of its larval stage.

Whilst examining tow-nettings at Plymouth in 191.5 it was found that certain medusæ were at times abundantly infected with a trematode which proved to be the larval form of Pharyngora bacillaris. As it also occurred free, although almost certainly having originally come from the medusæ, it is obviously the form recorded by Nicoll, who expected the host to be a crustacean and unsuccessfully examined copepods in order to find it.

The medusæ found to contain the trematode were Obelia sp.. Cosmetira pilosella, and Turris pileata. Cosmetira pilosella was the commonest host in the early summer when Pharyngora was most abundant, but in the later summer Obelia was found to contain it frequently, Cosmetira not occurring at those times in the tow-nettings. Phialidium hemisphericum was also a host in the later summer and autumn. Even in December it still occurred, though very rarely. A ctenophore may also serve as host for this trematode, as it is occasionally found clinging to the inside of the stomach of Pleurobrachia pileus.

The parasite is generally to be found clinging to the manubrium or stomach wall of its host, but sometimes it occurs underneath the umbrella wall, so that it looks as if it were on the top, the wall being so transparent; on further examination, however, it is seen to be underneath. It seems to be undoubtedly a case of parasitism as so many of the medusæ were infected, sometimes every specimen in a haul, and, with the exception of an occasional ctenophore, none of the other animals in the same haul contained them or had them clinging to them.

From these observations it seems that there is no encysted stage in this species, the period passed in the medusa serving the same purpose. Probably this period is very short, the mackerel swallowing the host soon after the entry of the parasite, and for this reason an encysted stage is not necessary.

Nothing is at present known of the early stages in the life history of Pharyngora, although it is to be inferred that a mollusk is the first host.


Fig. 1.-Pharyngora bacillaris. $\times 120$. ED, excretory duct; EP, excretory pore; EV, excretory vesicle; IC, intestinal cæcum ; (ES, œesophagus; OS, oral sucker ; PH, pharynx ; PPH, prepharynx ; P(ES, pseudo-œsophagus; VS, rentral sucker.

The larval worm is very like the adult, but without reproductive organs (see Fig. 1), and bears a close resemblance to Nicoll's figure (Plate XXIX, Fig. 5). The body is covered with minute spines; the curiously shaped oval sucker is conspicuous ; ventral sucker, prepharynx, pharynx, œesophagus, pseudo-osophagus, and intestinal cæca all agree with the
adult form. The body in this stage, however, is crowded with gland cells along the sides reaching from the pharynx to well behind the ventral sucker. The pigment spots anteriorly are very well developed. The excretory resicle is long and narrow, just as Nicoll describes it, its ducts in the larval form showing particularly clearly. At the hind end is a strong sphincter guarding the opening posteriorly ; in front of this the main excretory branches are given off which send one branch backwards and a much convoluted branch forwards. The flame cells are particularly well seen in the living larval forms. As Nicoll's description does not enter into the details of the excretory system a figure of the larva is given, showing the main points.

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1910. Nicoll.-On the Entozoa of Fishes from the Firth of Clyde. Parasitology, Vol. Ill, No. 3.

# Notes on the Erology of Cirratulus (Audouinia) tentaculatus (Montagu). 

By<br>F. W. Flattely,<br>University College of $W$ ules, Aberysturyth.

With Figures 1 to 7 in the Text.

Cirratulus tentaculatus is found inhabiting the wet, sandy, somewhat foul mud of the Aberystwyth shore, chiefly in the Laminarian zone, although it also occurs in rock pools higher up the shore in which there is sufficient depth of sand containing the necessary organic matter. The presence of the worm in its natural habitat is indicated by a group of delicate, elongate, rosy or yellow coloured filaments of tentacular appearance which protrude from the sand into the pools left by the receding tide. These filaments nearly always display a certain amount of movement, either waving gently from side to side or curling slightly from the tips. The amount of motion and also the colour of the filaments will depend on the degree of freshness of the water in the pool, and this, of course, will, in its turn, be related to the state of the tide.

Specimens are not easy to collect owing to the marked propensity the animal exhibits for lying with its body beneath stones or pieces of rock embedded in the mud. In rock pools or crevices where there is but little depth of sand and the animal lies with its body more or less parallel to the surface collection is almost impossible. This response to stimuli of contact and pressure, or, as M. Georges Bohn has it, this "thygmotactism," is very marked, and, in the aquarium, when specimens are placed in a vessel containing sand and a few stones, the animals will roam about till some portion, at any rate, of their bodies is undergoing pressure from those stones.

Thus, in addition to the occurrence of sandy mud of rich organic content, the worm would seem to require the presence of a certain amount of rock or loose stones. Both these requirements are well met on the portion of the Aberystwyth shore opposite the College. Here a large reef of rock runs out to sea in such a manner as to form a barrier to the prevailing wind and thus to aid in the deposition of organic matter, of which no doubt a certain proportion is contributed by the Harbour sewer lying to southward, decaying fragments of algæ, etc.

When withdrawn from the mud Cirratulus presents an exceedingly limp and bedraggled appearance. The body appears to possess, when in this partially extended condition, absolutely no turgidity. This is in agreement with the animal's marked thygmotactism, the necessary tension being secured in the natural habitat by the pressure of stones.

A detailed account of the external characters is no longer necessary, owing to the recent appearance of Vol. 3 of Prof. McIntosh's memoir on British Marine Amnelids, containing the Cirratulidæ (1). It is sufficient to say that the species tentaculatus is distinguished by the occurrence of lateral filaments on segments anterior to the fifth chætigerous segment behind which the paired fascicles of filaments arise.

Considerable doulst seems to exist as to the analogy of the lateral filaments with those of the paired tufts. Prof. McIntosh quotes Claparède as distinguishing (in C. chrysoderma) between tentacles and branchiæ in such forms ber the fact that the former have only one blood-vessel, whilst the latter have two. In Audouinia filigera, on the contrary, every filament is branchial in structure. De St. Joseph (2) distinguishes between Cirratulus, in which the tentacles appear at the same time as the branchir, and Audouinia, in which the segments bearing the tentacles are preceded by a variable number of segments with lateral branchiæ, and remarks that in neither case do the tentacular filaments and lateral branchiæ differ materially in external appearance. Cumningham and Ramage (3), on the other hand, describe a groove along the so-called tentacles and find it to contain only a single blood-vessel, whereas in the branchiæ two bloodvessels are present.
J. Bounhiol (4), in an ingenious paper on Respiration in Polychætes, denies any respiratory function to either kind of filaments; be says if a specimen of either Cirratulus cirratus or C. tentaculatus be placed in a glass ressel the floor of which is covered with sand, the animal is soon seen to make active use of the tentacular filaments to remove the sand grains, draw them towards itself and more or less cover itself with them. These filaments have been placed by anatomists in two categories, according to whether they contain a simple vascular cæcum or a complete vascular circuit. The first are called tentacular filaments, the others gills. But the animal uses both kinds indiscriminately as prehensile organs. It has also been shown by experiment that the respiratory rôle of these so-called gills is very feeble, and merely corresponds to an increase of the body surface. "La définition anatomique des branchies de Cirratulidæ n'est done pas confirmée par l'expérimentation physiologique. Ce sont de simples organes prehensiles, tout comme les filaments prehensiles dont on avait cru pouvoir les distinguer."

The experiments of M. Bounhiol on Cirratulus in his examination of the
filaments as respiratory organs were faulty as they made no allowance for the animal's natural habitat. The rôle played by the filaments is essentially respiratory; further, close observation has shown that the prehensile function. so readily admitted by most authors, is non-existent. Careful study of the animal's habits shows that there is absolutely no need for such a function, whereas there is every need for that of respiration. What leads the majority of observers to suppose a prehensile function is undoubtedly the perpetual curling motion of the filaments in the pools. A differentiation of function between the lateral filaments and those in the paired fascicles is undoubtedly suggested by their behaviour when the animal is withdrawn from the mud. The filaments in the clusters immediately contract, their colour becoming quite yellow, while the remaining lateral filaments are still more or less distended by the contained blood, and are of course, red in colour. These superficial differences, however, do not necessarily prove any difference in function, and this notwithstanding the disparity in structure referred to by Bounhiol. [It has been suggested that the fascicles of filaments are prostomial tentacles which have shifted backwards, Meyer (12)]. The worm is essentially and in all except perfectly abnormal conditions a burrower, and consequently permanently subject to pressure. When all pressure is relaxed and the animal bathed on all sides by water it is only natural that, with respiration taking place over the whole body surface, numbers of filaments should be left idle, and it would be particularly the filaments lying in front of the heart-body which would be affected. In further response to the relieved pressure the animal contracts and curls up, the anterior part of the body is forced beneath the coils and the prostomium is protruded as far as possible, and the characteristic actions of burrowing are performed, that is to say, the anterior region is pumped turgid with fluid and waves of muscular contraction pass along the body from behind forwards. At the same time the mucous investment, with the sand adhering from the burrow, is gradually shed and becomes caught in the gill filaments, and an inextricable tangle is the result. Prof. McIntosh notes that the animal appears to be less comfortable in pure sea water, and thinks the mud to be the most fitting medium, since it keeps the filaments apart. Undoubtedly, mud is a more fitting medium, but not, I think, for this latter reason. If a number of flat stones be laid upon the bottom of the vessel, the worm, a few hours later, will be found ensconced beneath them and numbers of filaments will stretch in all directions, withont any trace of entanglement, showing that what the animal chiefly lacks is pressure.

The appearance of the gill filaments when the worm is in its natural habitat is sufficiently familiar, but the manner in which they attained that position, in view of their extreme delicacy, is rather remarkable. If
the worm be withdrawn from the mud on the floor of the pool and left on the surface, it will immediately coil up and commence to burrow again in the manner already noticed. Owing to the downward and forward movement the gill filaments will tend to stream backwards, and, as the worm progresses, being extremely elastic, their distal portions will remain at the surface, the filaments stretching till the animal has found its proper level. The portions of the filaments remaining in contact with the water will thus be available for aeration of the contained blood.

The question now arises as to how the animal would react should the filaments become buried beneath several inches of mud, as must often happen.

In order to answer this question a specimen of Cirratulus was placed at the bottom of a glass vessel 5 inches high by $-\frac{1}{4}$ inches in diameter, covered with mud to the height of two inches, and the remainder of the vessel filled with water. Four hours later a number of filaments were projecting at the surface. The following day, when about $20-30$ filaments were projecting, another $2 \frac{1}{2}$ inches of mud were added. Two hours later one filament had been protruded. This time, by a lucky chance, the anterior end of the worm was in contact with the glass close to the top of the first layer of mud, and its behaviour could thas be observed. The body of the worm itself was practically stationary, some of the filaments of the anterior fascicles were yellow and motionless, but numbers which were gorged with blood showed remarkable activity, and were gradually yet speedily forcing their way upward through sand and mud to the surface, exactly as if they were so many individual worms. The extensility and muscular activity of the filaments is therefore enormons, the length of some of them from their junction with the body wall to the tips exceeding three inches.

The whole forms a remarkable adaptation to an underground habitat. The majority of species of Polychætes inhabiting the same environment are either of small size and able to respire through the body wall generally, or they are obliged to mount to the surface to avoid asphyxiation. Cirratulus is able to live permanently surrounded by the sandy mud where it finds its food supply (reference to which will be made later), and by remaining eonstantly underground is well protected from enemies. The large numbers in which Cirratulus occurs is sufficient proof of its snecess.

We have seen that when the body of the worm is undergoing pressure the filaments are stimulated to great activity by the pressure of blood in their vessels, and on seeking an explanation of this phenomenon, we cannot help being struck by the fact that in the Cirratulidæ, the heart-body, the function of which has aroused so much curiosity, reaches its greatest development.

The structure and function of the heart-body, in this and in other
groups where it occurs, has been discussed by L. J. Picton (5) and, several years previously, by J. T. Cumningham (6). Although the former writer is chiefly concerned with the composition of the granules contained in the cells forming the body, and of their reaction to various stains, his object being principally to examine its claims as an excretory or blood-controlling organ, he nevertheless gives a certain amount of attention to its possible mechanical function. He quotes the suggestion of Schaeppi (7) in the case of Ophelia and of Steen in that of Terebellides Stroemii to the effect that the organ has a valvular function. Schaeppi considers this is brought about by the swelling of the organ at systole owing to the pressure of blood in its meshes. The most telling evidence in favour of a mechanical action is that afforded by Cirratulus chrysoderma. Picton says that in this species, which is transparent, the heart-body at the point of its greatest development almost entirely blocks, at systole, the limen of the heart, the action of which as a blood-propelling organ must be considerably modified.

It seems certain from what has been noted of the habits of Cirratulus that it depends to a great extent amid its somewhat foul surroundings, for its supply of oxygen, on the long filaments. There is, therefore, every necessity, in view of their delicate nature, for maintaining them turgid. Otherwise, they would be extremely liable to breakage and laceration. This difficulty would be met by the heart-body acting as a valve and preventing the blood from being regurgitated. It is certainly remarkable that in Arenicola, to which genus the above arguments apply with almost equal force, the heart-body is also strongly developed. J. H. Ashworth (8) also suggests a valvular function in this latter, and the fact that the organ does not appear till after the pelagic larval and post-larval stages are complete is not without significance. Some such arrangement would be a small compensation for the drawbacks to which Arenicola, with its delicate branched gills, must undoubtedly be exposed, through its sandy environment.

External processes with respiratory properties are a common feature in Polychætes, but that does not necessarily imply the same need for a heartbody, with the function described, in all. According to Picton a heart-body is found in the following groups: Spionidæ, Cirratulidæ, Terebellidæ, Ampharetidæ, Amphictenidæ, Chlorhæmidæ, Sternaspidæ, and Hermellidæ. He omits the Arenicolidæ, and states that in Magelona the organ is merely larval and transitory. As regards the Spionidæ, I am unable to find any confirmation as to its occurrence in this group. Possibly owing to a revision of the nomenclature the Cirratulidæ have been included twice in this list, under different headings.
M. Ceorges Bohn (9) shows how among Amelids adaptation to life in the sand is pushed further in some groups than in others, and divides the Poly-
chætes, after cxcluding the Errantia, into three classes, according to the degree in which they have become adapted to a subterranean existence. In connection with this it is interesting to note that it is only in his third group, i.e. among those in which the burrowing habit is the rule, that the heart-body is present, and that all possess delicate respiratory filaments. Bounhiol, to whose paper reference has already been made, belittles the value of these processes for respiration, but the point is that they are not merely of value as gills pure and simple, but are often the seat of abundant cilia which ensure the circulation of water round the body itself. Thus in tubicolous forms serious damage to the processes is as dangerous as in Cirratulidæ or Arenicolidæ. In the Sabellidæ, which do not possess a heartbody, aeration of the body in the tube is obtained by the perpetual protrusion and retraction of the branchial crown, and here the branchiæ or tentacles are no longer soft and delicate, but are supported by an undoubted skeleton, whereas in the closely allied Hermellidæ, e.g. Sabellaria, where a heart-body is present, the " tentacles " and nemropodial processes are again of the delicate type.

Groups possessing a Heart-body.

| Fomil! | Habits. | Type of branchice. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Cirratulidx. | Permanent burrowers; with exception of one boring form. | Gills soft, delicate, and filamentous, capable of great elongation. |
| Terebellidx. | Forms building tubes of sand or mud. | Gills, situated at anterior end, branched in most species, but all soft and delicate. |
| Ampharetidæ. <br> Amphictenidæ. ) | Tubicolous. | Gills, situated at anterior end, delicate and filiform, capable of extension, e.g. Pectinaria belgica. |
| Arenicolidæ. | Permanent burrowers. | Gills branched and delicate. |
| Chlorhæmidæ. | Burrowers or imhabitants of tubes in mud. | Gills delicate and filiform. |
| Stermaspidæ. | Burrowers. | Gills delicate and threadlike. |
| Hermellidæ. | Tubicolous. | Filaments at anterior end are apparently not much used for respiration, but true branchial processes are present on the sides of the body. These are delicate, unbranched and covered with cilia. |

The above table shows considerable similarity in the nature of the gills and habitat among the species of those families which possess a heartbody. The majority are burrowers, permanently subjected to pressure, and even in the tubicolous forms, seeing that they must often become sanded up (for instance, by wave shock when the tide is rising), the possession of a heart-body cannot but be advantageous in preventing regurgitation of the blood to the dorsal vessel, keeping the branchial processes turgid, and generally counteracting the effects of varying pressure. As a proof of this we note that the greatest development of the heart-body occurs in just those groups where burrowing habit and branchial development are carried to their greatest extent.

It is perhaps advisable to point out here that any mechanical function which is suggested on behalf of the heart-body is only regarded as secondary. There seems hardly any doubt that in the heart-body we are dealing with a structure the original function of which was almost, if not entirely, organic.

It may be urged that, according to this theory, one might reasonably expect to find the development of a heart-body in those other groups of II. Bohn's where the burowing, free-swinming, and crawling habits are combined, e.g. in the Aphroditidæ, Phyllodocidæ, Nephthydidæ, Glyceridæ, Eunicidæ. Ariciidæ. In these groups, however, apart from the fact that, owing to their semi-active habits, the danger of asphyxiation is considerably reduced, the branchial processes themselves are in most cases effectively protected by the great development of the parapodia and chætæ. This is excellently exemplified by the condition in Nephthys, where the sickle-shaped gill is sitnated between the strongly developed lobes of the parapodia and their lengthy chreæ.
is we pass to the consideration of forms with more and more predominantly burrowing habit we note the concurrent reduction in size of the chætæ, for, useful as they undoubtedly are in swimming and crawling, they can only be a hindrance to progress in and throngh sand. The bristles acquire more and more the character of short hooks, enabling the animal to grasp the side of its burrow, and, if the gills are to be retained, a new method of protection must be adopted.

Method of Feeding.-- I will now examine the specialised method of feeding in Cirratulus in more detail. Unlike its congener in the same habitat, Arenicola, Cirratulus does not live by passing sand through the gut; selection of the mutritive organic particles is made outside the body. The excreta are green in colour, and the worm's diet would seem to consist of algal spores, fragments of decaying algæ, diatoms, and general organic debris. Jn preparing the worm for sectionising no special precautions were taken to ensure the emptying of the git, and the razor did not suffer.

The best proof of the microscopic nature of the animal's food is the ciliated condition of the gut. It remains to be seen by what means the animal is able to exercise selection.

On the ventral side of the peristomium a deep groove leads back to the mouth and is continuous with the dorsal surface of the gut. On the walls of the pharynx immediately behind the mouth opening are situated a pair of flaps. These flaps are dorso-lateral in position and project each with its free edge standing out ventrally towards the median line (see Figs. 1-7).


Fig. 1. - Transverse section through the anterior portion of the peristomium, showing the ventral groove.


Fis. 2.-Transverse section behind Fig. l, showing the development of the sensory flaps.


Fig. 3.-Section through the peristomium, somewhat anterior to the line AB in Fig. 7.

The two free edges are closely apposed and thus practically separate a groove above them from the remainder of the vestibule beneath. The epithelium of this groove and of the surfaces of the flaps which face inwards, including the free edges, is ciliated and rich in sensory elements, and is most markedly distinguishable from the general epidermis and from the lining of the restibule, the floor of which projects forwards and seems glandular. The ciliated epithelium of the gut has already been noticed. The animal would thus seem to feed by a kind of suction ; the sensitive edges of the flaps being closely apposed would effectively prohibit the entrance of any but the smallest food particles, and these latter would be wafted backwards by the cilia of the gut epithelium.


Fig. 4.-Transverse section throngh A B in Fig. 7, showing the sensory lips and the eiliaterl epithelium of the gut.


Figs. 5 and 6.-Sections showing the gradual disappearance of the vestibules and the fusion of the sensory flaps with the sides of the pharynx.

In view of such a method of feeding, the idea of a food-catching function on the part of the filaments must be rejected. Moreover, as the mouth of the worm in its burrow is situated some distance beneath the surface and the filaments are waving in the water above, how is any such function practicable?

I am convinced that it is only under direst necessity that Cirratulus quits its burrow, and then it is certainly not to swim about actively, as M. Bounhiol suggests, but merely to crawl sluggishly on the surface of the


Fig. 7.--Diagrammatic median longitudinal section through the anterior end of Cirratulus.
mud. If by an accession of clean water the symptoms of asphyxia are removed, the worm will immediately recommence burrowing.

Nor are the filaments used to collect sand particles. Sand particles adhere to the mucus exuded by the body of the worm, and by so doing probably prevent the walls of the burrow from caving in. They thus allow the animal greater freedom of movement, but there is certainly nothing that can be dignified by the name of a tube.

In conclusion, I wish to thank Mr. F. S. Wright for his able execution of the drawings for half-tone blocks for this paper.

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# An Account of the Researches on Races of Herrings <br> <br> Carried out by the Marine Biological Association at <br> <br> Carried out by the Marine Biological Association at Plymouth, 1914-15. 

 Plymouth, 1914-15.}

By

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Naturalist at the Plymouth Laboratory. Witl Figs. 1 to 6 in the Text.
CONTENTS. Page
Investigations made ..... 72
The characters studied ..... 72
Method of work ..... 74
lst Series of operations: weighing, measuring, recording gonad ..... 75
2nd Series of operations: counting ..... 75
3rd Series of operations: preparing skeletons ..... 75
Distribution of work among the workers ..... 7
Description of the working of the separate samples ..... 77
Sample I ..... 77
Sample II ..... 7
Sample III. ..... 78
Sample IV ..... 78
Explanation of Records of Characters $1 a$ and $1 b$ in Samples If and III ..... 79
Explanation of Records of Characters 13, 14, and 17 in Sample III and Character 17 in Sample II ..... 79
Explanation of Records of Characters 13, 14, and 17 in Sample IV ..... 81
Explanation of Records of Character 18 in Samples II, III, and IV ..... 82
Explanation of Records of Characters 1 to 9,11,12,15, and 16 in Samples 111 and IV ..... 82
Definition of Character 7 ..... 83
Accuracy of measurements ..... 84
Remarks on Additional Characters to those recommended by the Board ..... 86
Tables I to IV ..... 87
Appendix to Tables ..... 118
[The following Tables record the measurement and enumeration of a number of characters in certain samples of Herrings taken in the neighbourhood of Plymouth. The work was carried out as part of a general scheme for studying the question of the existence of local races of herrings around the British Coasts, which was organised by the Board of Agriculture and Fisheries. In consequence of the war there is no immediate prospect of the figures being analysed and compared with similar figures relating to fish obtained in other localities. It has therefore been thought
advisable to place them on record as they stand, so that they may be available for other workers at any time. The short explanatory statement of the methods employed was prepared by Dr. Orton, who had charge of most of the work, to accompany the figures when they were sent to the Board of Agriculture and Fisheries, and was not written by him with a view to publication. The drawings have been made by Mrs. Sexton.-E. J. Allen.]

## THE INVESTIGATIONS MADE.

In accordance with the general scheme of the Board of Agriculture and Fisheries two samples of herrings each of more than 500 specimens have been examined. In the season of 1914-15 we were able to examine in such numbers only the herrings spawning near Plymouth, i.e. in the locality of Bigbury Bay. In December, 1914, a sample of 550 herrings of the shoal spawning in this area was examined in all the characters recommended by the Board, and in Jannary, 1915, a further sample of 525 fish from the same locality was investigated similarly.

In early December, 1914, a small sample of herrings from Cawsand Bay was examined for the purpose of practice and also for comparison with fish from the spawning grounds.

Along with the investigations mentioned above are submitted particulars of a sample of 84 herrings taken in the Chamel and examined by Mr. R. S. Clark in July, 1914.

## THE CHARACTERS STUDIED.

The following is the scheme of the characters studied, as authorised by the Board of Agriculture and Fisheries :-

All measurements* are to be made with the special apparatus supplied by the Board. The fish should be placed upon the board in such a way that the snont is pressed against the end board sufficiently hard to keep the mouth shut and the body of the fish should be at right angles to the end board. The measurements are to be in all cases the shortest distance from the end board to each point specified. They are to be in the order given below, and tabulated in this order on the forms supplied. A diagram of the herring is appended (Fig. 1), showing the measurements to be taken.

The measurements required are as follows : -
From the end board to
(1) Nearest point of bony orbit.
(2) Hinder edge of operculum.

[^4](3) Anterior end of dorsal fin.
(4) Base of pelvic fins.
(5) Posterior end of dorsal fin.
(6) Anterior end of anal fin.
(7) Posterior edge of hindmost scale.*
(8) Distal end of mid-caudal ray.
(9) Distal end of longest ray in dorsal fluke of caudal fin, when fluke is placed so that its dorsal margin lies parallel to line of measurement (i.e. line on board upon which snout and mid-candal ray should lie).
These measurements made, the following are counted:-
(10) Number of keeled scales on median ventral line in front of base of pelvic fins. [This character was found unreliable and was omitted.]


Fig. 1. -Diagram of Herring, showing the measurements, etc., taken by Dr. Orton, copied from the figure supplied by the Board of Agriculture and Fisheries.
(11) Number of keeled scales between base of pelvics and anus.
(12) Number of rays in right pectoral fin.
(13) Number of rays in dorsal fin.
(14) Number of rays in anal fin.

Then take
(15) Weight of fish in apparatus supplied $\dagger$ to nearest 10 gros.

Then
Take scales $\ddagger$ from neighbourhood of pectoral fins and preserve in envelopes to be examined by Hjort's method.

Then open fish and take
(16) Sex and degree of maturity (Hjort's scale).

[^5]State of sexual organs is classified in 7 stages (Publications de Circonstance, No. 53, p. 35).

Stage I. Virgin individıals. Very small sexual organs close under vertebral column. of wine-coloured torpedo-shaped ovaries about $2-3 \mathrm{~cm}$. long and $2-3 \mathrm{~mm}$. thick. Eggs invisible to naked eye. ô whitish or greyish-brown knife-shaped testes $2-3 \mathrm{~cm}$. long and $2-3 \mathrm{~mm}$. broad.
Stage II. Maturing virgins or recovering spents. Ovaries somewhat longer than half the length of ventral cavity, about 1 cm . diam. Eggs small but visible to naked eye. Milt whitish, somewhat bloodshot, same size as ovaries, but still thin and knifeshaped.
Stage III. Sexual organs more swollen, occupying about half of ventral cavity.
Stage IV. Ovaries and testes filling two-thirds of ventral cavity. Eggs not transparent. Milt whitish, swollen.
Stage V. Sexual organs filling ventral cavity. Ovaries with some large transparent eggs. Milt white, not yet rumning.
Stage VT. Roe and milt running (spawning).
Stage TII. Spents. Ovaries slack with residual eggs. Testes baggy, bloodshot.
Doubtful cases are indicated by quoting two stages, e.g. St. I-II, St. VII-II, etc.
Then attach label to fish and count
(17) Serial mumber of first vertebra having complete hæmal arch.*
(18) Total number of vertebre.

## METHOD OF WORK.

The measurements and weighings of the fish were first made and the counting of the scales and fin-rays accomplished in a second series of operations, and finally the skeletons were prepared in a third stage.

It was found possible to take the weight and measurements of only 250 fish in the first sample and 300 fish in the second sample within 24 hours of the landing of the fish, but weights and measurements of the whole samples of 550 and 525 respectively were completed within less than 36 hours of the landing of the fish. The fish not examined on the first day were kept in an ice chamber until required and remained in good preservation. It may here be noted that both the larger samples were obtained from steam-drifters, on which boats it appears that the fish are subjected to rougher handling than on sailing drifters. Some fish

[^6]were damaged with respect to one or more of the characters required, and were rejected ; apart from these damaged fish there was no other selection effected.

Both larger samples were samples from a large haul of fish and were taken at random from the catch.
The method of work in detail was as follows :-
1st series of operations.
The fish were first weighed singly and a sample of the scales taken from the region under the pectoral fin and put in a previously numbered envelope. A light metal label attached to a small safety pin was then stuck into the fish, which was passed on to be measured, the weight of the fish in the meantime being called out to the recorder. The measurements 1 to 9 were then taken - being called out and recorded successively. The sex and condition of the gonad were next determined and recorded and the fish finally labelled-by pinning the label to the skull through the orbit-and put into an ice-chest tray. Four persons were concerned in this operation-one to weigh and take scales, one to record, one to hand the fish on and assist mechanically with the measuring, and one to measure and take condition of gonad and sex. It was found that weighing and taking scales could be done on the whole rather more quickly than taking measurements and sex. In this way from about 34 to 44 fish could be examined in one hour's continnous work. The time within which a given number of fish were examined was noted and is given in the account of the examination of the different samples.

## 2nd series of operations: C'ounting.

In the large samples the counting of the keeled scales and fin rays (Characters 11 to 14) began on the third day of the investigation and was finisherd on the fourth. When four workers were available each counted the same fin or the scales - in all the fish. and handed each fish on to his or her neighbour in turn. In the early stages of the work each worker called out the count to be recorded, and later each worker kept a record to check the count called out, but in the whole of the second sample, each worker simply recorded his or her own work. When the Characters 11 to 14 had been recorded the alimentary canal was taken out and labelled with the number of the fish, and preserved for the future examination of the pyloric cæca.

## 3rd stage: Preparing skeletons.

It was found better to place the fish in cold water, to bring the water to the boil, and allow to boil only two minutes than to boil for ten minutes.

Not more than upwards to about 50 fish were boiled at a time, and a shallow tray which just fits into the fish kettle was used for containing the fish during boiling, one tray being used for boiling while the boiled fish in mother tray were being cleaned.

It was found that with one worker cleaning the fish roughly, another worker could clean up to 30 skeletons in an hour after a little practice. The skeletons of the whole sample in each case were prepared in two working days by one worker cleaning them roughly and two others cleaning them finally. All the skeletons have been kept with their own label for future reference and comparison with others. It was found important not to clean the skeletons too well in the region in front of the anterior complete hæmal arches, and to cut the vertebral artery at an early stage in the cleaning operation. The prepared skeletons were kept in shallow wooden trays.

## DISTRIBUTION OF WORK AMONG THE WORKERS.

The work in the different stages was accomplished with the help of workers who gave their services at different times. The responsibility for the method and form of the work was undertaken by Dr. Orton, but the assistance rendered by the team of helpers can best be shown in tabular form as follows :-

Weighing and taking scales Recording .

Measuring characters 1 to 9 and recording sex and condition of gonad
Counting rays in pectoral fin.
Counting rays in dorsal fin
Counting rays in anal fin

Mr. A. J. Smith.
Miss Clark, Mrs. Matthews, Dr. Allen.

Dr. Orton.
Mr. A. J. Smith, Dr. Orton.
Dr. Allen, Mr. Crawshay, Dr. Orton.
Mrs. Orton, Mrs. Matthews, Dr. Allen, Dr. Orton.
Counting keeled scales between pelvic and anal fins.

Dr. Orton.
Preparing skeletons
Dr. Orton, Mr. Smith.
Counting vertebre
Checking counting of vertebræ

Dr. Orton.
Mrs. Orton, Mrs. Matthews, Dr. Allen.

Mr. William Searle assisted in handling and labelling the fish and labelled the gut with attached pyloric cæca for further examination.

It may be mentioned that a fair amount of practice in measuring, weighing, recording, and counting was done by Dr. Orton, Mr. Smith, Miss Clark, and Mrs. Orton before the large samples were investigated.

## DESCRIPTION OF THE WORKING OF THE SEPARATE SAMIPLES.

Four samples of herrings have been investigated fully, two smal samples and two large ones. For the sake of convenience they have been numbered in chronological order.


## Sample I.

Particulars of this sample are given on the recording sheets. Characters 13 and $1 \pm$ are given as totals. This sample, being a batch of summer hervings from the Plymonth district, should be specially interesting in comparison with the winter spawning herring; it was examined by Mr. R. S. Clark, with the assistance of Mr. E. Ford and Mr. F. M. Gossen.

## Sample II.

This sample of 32 fish from a total catch of from 250 to 300 was taken on December 9. 1914, from drift nets moored in Cawsand Bay. The fish were in excellent condition and were weighed and measured during the morning of December 9.

In this sample two additional characters to those recommended by the Board were investigated, namely, (a) the position of the posterior border of the maxila in relation to the position of the eye, and (b) the number of pyloric cæca. The former necessitated two additional measurements, which were numbered " $1 a$ " and " $1 b$. . $1 a$ is the shortest distance between a line tangent to the posterior border of the maxilla taken at right angles to the long axis of the fish, and a line tangent to the tip of the lower jaw at right angles to the long axis of the fish.
$1 b$ is the shortest distance between a tangent to the posterior border of the orbit taken at right angles to the long axis of the fish, and a similar tangent to the tip of the lower jaw.

To obtain the number of pyloric cæca the gnt of each fish was taken out and preserved with a label attached bearing the same serial number as the fish.
The number of fin rays is given in each case as a total, but during the examination of the fin rays it was observed that an attempt might be
made to analyse the fin rays in the dorsal and anal fins. The analysis of the vertebræ in this sample is the same as in the larger Samples III and IV (see pp. 80 and 82).

## Sample III.

This was a sample of 550 fish examined from a catch of 22 cran, i.e. about 20,000 herrings. The fish were eanght in herring drift nets by the steam-drifter Diadem, Lowestoft, near Bigbury Bay, with Start Point bearing about E. by N. 6 miles. The sample was taken at random from the catch, and consisted of fish of various sizes, but mostly in a condition approaching ripeness. Fish which were damaged were not investigated ; otherwise there was no selection.

In the eircumstances under which the research was carried out it was possible to examine only 250 fish in measurements, weight and condition of gonad on the first day, that is within 12 hours of the landing of the fish. The fish not examined the first day were kept in ice, and were found to be in excellent preservation on the second day. when the remainder of the sample, namely 300 fish, was examined for measurements. weight and condition of gonad. The whole sample was examined within 35 hours of the landing of the fish, and a record of time was taken as the examination of each lot of 50 fish was completed. These records are given with those for Sample IV in tabular form on page 79.

## Sample II.

In this sample 525 fish out of a catch of 56 cran, i.e. about 50,500 herrings. were examined. The catch was taken by the steam-drifter G.MI.V. 1062, Lowestoft, in herring drift nets near Bigbury Bay, between a region 8 miles W.S.W. of Start Point and a position about 3 miles S.S.W. of Start Point. The fish were canght during the night of January j)-6, 1915, and landed about 10 a.m., Jamary 6 . Work was begun on the sample during the same morning, and 300 fish examined for weight, measurements and condition of gonad in the course of the day. The completion of the examination of the whole sample was effected within $33 \frac{1}{2}$ hours of the landing of the fish.

The fish were mostly in a condition almost ready for spawning, some few being spent. In this sample there were a good many damaged fish, and to obtain 525 fish from a sample of 600 it was necessary to reject about 40 to 50 fish, most of which were too badly damaged about the head to be measmred. The damage to these specimens had undoubtedly chiefly occurred in ummeshing them. No selection of specimens occurred other than that of damaged ones.

The times at which successive batches were examined for weight,
measurements and condition of gonad are shown with those for Sample III in the following table :-


## EXPLANATION OF RECORDS OF CHARACTERS 1A AND 1b IN SAMPLES II AND III.

In Sample III two characters in addition to those recommended by the Board were examined in a few fish. These characters are $1 a$ and $1 b$. Character $1 a$, as in Sample II, is the shortest distance between a tangent to the posterior border of the maxilla taken at right angles to the long axis of the fish, and a tangent to the tip of the lower jaw at right angles to the long axis of the fish. Character 16 is the shortest distance between a tangent to the postcrior border of the orbit taken at right angles to the long axis of the fish, and a similar tangent to the tip of the lower jaw.

It was found, however, that the taking of those measurements would decrease the number of fish examined within the shortest time recommended for the Characters 1 to 9 , hence it was decided at an early stage to discontinue to take the additional ones.

> EXPIANATION OF RECORDS OF CHARACTERS 13, 14, AND 17 IN SAMPLE III.

With regard to Characters 13,14 and 17 on the sheets an attempt has been made in the case of the fins (13 and 14) to analyse them, and in the case of the vertebræ with hæmal arches to give additional information. The records for these characters are given in the general form of $a+b$.

In Sample III the dorsal and anal fins (13 and 14) were analysed in the following manner : in each case the fin-rays in the anterior portion of the fin equal to or less than two-thirds the height of the longest rays were
counted separately from the fin-rays posterior to them ; thus the records take the form of $a+b$, the sum of which gives the total number of rays in the fin. A cursory examination of the records indicates that $2+17$ is the commonest form for the dorsal fin and $2+15$ the commonest form for the anal fin (Figs. 4 and 5).

In the case of Character 17, which is stated in the scheme to be the


Fig. 2.-Diagram of Tail-hones of Herring, from Williamson. A is the last vertebra counted in the present work. B is regarded by Williamson as the last vertebra. Not ! = Notochord ?
"serial number of first vertebra having complete hæmal arch," the records have been made in the form of $(a+b)$ where $b=$ the total number of vertebræ with complete hæmal arch-not, however, counting the


Fis: 3.-Vertebre, showing incomplete but "well-developed" hiemal arch.
terminal vertebra-like ossicle regarded by Williamson as the " last vertebra" (see Fisheries, Scotland, Sci. Invest., 1914, I (April, 1914) Fig. 7. B, p. 21). Williamson's figure is here reproduced as Fig. 2.

In this character (17), $a=$ the number of vertebre having an incomplete, but "well-developed " arch, and an arch was considered " well developed " if the hæmal processes were almost as large as those of the first complete arch. and if these processes possessed even the smallest trace of an internal cross-piece (see Figure 3). It should be mentioned that all inter-
mediate stages are met with between a trace of an internal cross-piece and a complete arch. It is not improbable that in the living animal these arches are closed by a cartilaginous cross-piece. Cursory examination of the records indicates that in a majority of skeletons the sum of the number of vertebre with complete hæmal arch and the number with welldeveloped (i.e. potentially complete ?) arches is 33 ; or it might be said that the commonest number of vertebræ with potentialities for complete hæmal arches is 33 ; the greatest number of such vertebræ appears to be 35 .

## EXPLANATION゙ OF CHARACTERS 13, 14, AND 17 IN SAMPLE IV.

In Number IV Sample it was thought that more information could be obtained by analysing the dorsal and anal fin (Characters 13 and 14) in a slightly different way from that adopted in Sample III.

Thus in Sample IV all the anterior fin-rays of the dorsal fin which were distinctly shorter than the longest fin-ray were counted separately from the following and recorded in the general form of $a+b$, where $a$ is the


Fis. 4.-Dorsal Fin. In sample III the above would be recorded as $2+17$; in Sample IV as $3+16$.


Fig. 5.-Anal Fin. In samule III the above would be reonded as $2+15$ : in Sample I 1 as $3+14$.
number of the smaller anterior rays and $b$ the number of rays posterior to these. In this way it is possible to reconstruct a fin to represent the commonest form which by cursory examination of the records is seen to be one having $3+16$ rays. A drawing of the type of ray is shown in Fig. .

In the case of the anal fin (Character 14) the fin was analysed in the following mamer: all the anterior fin-rays which were not subdivided at the tip or splayed out in any way were counted and recorded separately as " a" from those in which the rays were splayed out-recorded as " $b$." The commonest form of fin is seen from the records to be one recorded as $3+14$. This type of fin is shown in Fig. 5.

Character 17 in Sample IV is also recorded in a manner slightly different
from that in Sample III. In this sample (IV) it was decided to include under "well-developed " open hæmal arches those in which the hæmal processes were relatively stout to those of the first closed arch, but which processes did not necessarily possess the trace of a cross-piece on their internal faces. This change of recording has resulted in only a slight difference in the records, but in a few cases the number of vertebræ


Frif, b.- Pectoral Fin. 17 rays.
recorded in the " " " category is higher than in corresponding skeletons in Sample III.

It should be mentioned that in some skeletons the hæmal processes of the vertebræ anterior to the first vertebra with complete arch were missing, having been cleaned away; in these cases the following mark $\dagger$ is placed alongside the record.

## EXPLANATION OF THE RECORDS OF CHARACTER 18 IN SAMPLES II, III, AND IV.

The number of vertebre given in column 18 is the number of vertebre between the skull and the ossicle marked B in Fig. 2. It may be reiterated that the ossicle marked B in the figure is not included in the total given. Remarks on abnormalities or noteworthy features of particular skeletons are connected by an asterisk to explanations in the I ppendix to the Tables. It may be noted that in several skeletons two or more vertebre have apparently become fused together; as, however, such fused vertebre show uniformly only two articulations, they have in each case been counted as one vertebra, although it is most probable that most of these abnormal vertebræ are equivalent to two or more normal ones. Each case is discussed in the Appendix to the Tables.

## EXPLANITION OF RECORDS OF CHARACTERS 1 TO 9, $11,12,15$, IND 16 IN SMMPLES LII AND IV.

Characters 11 and 12 call for little comment.
In counting the keeled scales between the pelvic fin and anus (11) the adjacent scales were cleaned well away before beginning to count. In
this way the insertions of the keeled scales could be made out and their total number established with certainty. Practically no difficulty was experienced in counting the rays in the pectoral fin (12). It was noticed, however, that in fins with a large number of rays the increase in the number appeared to be accounted for by additions of small rays near the posterior border. No attempt was made to analyse this fin as in the case of the dorsal and anal fins, but it is possible that useful information might be obtained by attempting such an analysis.

The weight of the fish (15) was taken separately and to the nearest gram.

In recording the condition of the gonad (16) it was found necessary to use combinations of the numerals representing different stages, which require explaining.

In the records occur such combinations as IV-VI and VI-IV. A record such as IV-VI is put down to represent fish in which the gonad appeared to be about ripe, although it did not fill the body cavity entirely. These records, however, refer mostly to males, in which the approach to and incidence of ripeness of the gonad are not easy to differentiate. In the case of records such as VI-III or VI-IV, these indicate that the gonad is definitely ripe, but has become reduced by spawning (or compression in some cases) to the size in the stage indicated by the second numeral ; thus VI-IV indieates gonad reduced to the size of half the volume of the abdominal cavity. The numeral VII was reserved for fish which were spent or practically spent. By distinguishing spawning fish in this war it is possible to correlate to some extent the weight with the size of the fish.

With regard to Characters 1 to 9 all measurements were taken with the instrument supplied by the Board of Agriculture and Fisheries. An attempt was made to measure Character 1 to the nearest $\cdot 2$ of a millimetre in Samples III and IV.

Character 2 was measured to the nearest 9 mm . in Sample III and to $\cdot 2 \mathrm{~mm}$. in Sample IV.

Characters 3 to 9 were measured to the nearest .5 mm . in both Samples III and IV.

## DEFINITION OF CHARACTER 7.

Characters 1 to 9 are those recommended by the Board except No. 7. Character 7 is defined in the Scheme as "from the end-board, etc. . . . to the posterior edge of the hindmost scale." In preliminary investigations, however, it was found that posterior scales were either rubbed loose or missing in about one-third of the specimens examined. It was therefore
decided to use some other fixed point of more constant position. The point chosen is in all probability the one shown in the figure of the Herring supplied by the Board. It is the point from which the perpendicular 7 arises, and marks the origin of the median caudal rays from the muscular part of the tail. The muscular part of the tail is covered by an epidermis of metallic appearance, and is in nearly all cases sharply marked off from what may be regarded as the tail fin proper where this kind of epidermis is absent. The caudal fin-rays are slightly embedded in the fleshy part of the tail. Thus the point chosen for measurement may be stated shortly to be the origin of the mid-caudal rays from the fleshy part of the tail.

The origin of these rays is, however, a concave line, as indeed is shown in the Board's figure, and the point actually measured is the line at right angles to the long axis of the fish which forms a tangent to the posterior border of the fleshy part of the tail. This line is apparently the same as the perpendicular No. 7 shown in the Board's figure.

There were only a few fish in which this point was at all difficult to determine and these were among Sample IV. It is of course well known that the posterior scales extend over the mid-candal fin-rays.

## ACCURACY OF MEASUREMENTS.

Before the large samples were examined a batch of 33 fish was examined twice, in order to obtain some determination of the error in measuring under the conditions in which the samples would be examined. The fish measured were not in good condition, so that it is probable that the errors observed in this case would be the maximum error, especially as more practice in measuring was obtained afterwards. In this experiment the average difference in the two sets of readings was less than 1 mm . in all measurements except 4 and 6 , in which the average difference was $1 \cdot 3$ mm . and 1.1 mm . respectively. These 33 fish were examined in 47 and 45 minutes respectively, i.e. about the rate of 44 per hour, about the maximum rate for the large samples. After this experiment assistance was obtained in making measurements for Characters 3, 4,5 , and 6 , and there can be no doubt that the accuracy of the measurements was thereby increased. In all measurements therefore it may be confidently stated that they are correct on the average to one millimetre, and in the case of 1 the average error is probably not more than $\cdot 5 \mathrm{~mm}$. It is believed that only isolated errors of measurement occur of as much as 3 mm ., but errors would increase in frequency towards zero.

It is, however, possible that occasional errors of observation may occur of as much as 5 mm . where the 5 cm . line on the scale has been read as a
whole cm . division line, for one or two cases of this kind were actually observed in time to prevent this error. It is probably very difficult to exchude completely occasional lapses of this nature in examining large numbers of fish at the high rate of speed required.

It is unfortmate in some respects that the experimental sample mentioned above was not a fresh sample exactly comparable with a research sample. and it would probably be better in future work to re-examine a batch of the research sample in order to determine the error of measurement.

An experiment was carried out to determine how accurately the instrument would measure. A mumber of slips of paper (30) were ruled with lines parallel to one end, which was placed against and was parallel with the " end-board" of the instrument. The points measured on the ruled lines were similar to those measured on herrings, so that in measuring them it was necessary to move the instrument about in approximately the same way as when measuring the research herrings. The slips of paper represented in fact paper herrings. These 30 slips were measured twice at a rate greater than the maximum rate at which the research samples of herrings were examined. Characters 1 and 2 were read to $\cdot 2 \mathrm{~mm}$., and Characters 3 to 9 to the nearest .5 mm ., just as in the research sample. The average difference between the first and second measurements of Characters 1 and 2 was less than $\cdot 1 \mathrm{~mm}$., and in only 4 cases was the difference as much as 3 mm . The average difference between all the measurements of Characters 1 and 2 and the actual distance-as measured by a $15-\mathrm{cm}$. ivory rule divided to fifths of a millimetre - was also less than $\cdot 1 \mathrm{~mm}$.. and in only 5 cases were there differences of $\cdot 3 \mathrm{~mm}$.

The average difference between first and second measurements of Characters 3 to 9 was less than $\cdot 1 \mathrm{~mm}$., and in only one case was the difference more than $\bar{j} \mathrm{~mm}$. The difference was exactly .5 mm . in 30 cases. and in 159 pairs of measurements the results were exactly the same. In all the measurements of Characters 3 to 9 the average difference from the actual distance measured was about $\cdot 13 \mathrm{~mm}$.

In a large number of measurements, however, it is considered that the instrument may be taken as reading accurately on the average, since the plus and minus variations would tend to balance each other, although ranging between plus and minus the maximum error mentioned above. The average algebraical error of all the measurements taken in the paper-herring sample mentioned above was less than +.03 mm . in Characters 1 and 2, and +04 mm . in Characters 3 to 9 .

## REMARKS ON ADDITIONAL CHARACTERS TO THOSE RECOMMENDED BY THE BOARD.

In Sample II two additional characters to those recommended by the Board were examined, namely, the relation of the posterior border of the maxilla to the orbit, and the number of pyloric ceca. In the large sample it was found impracticable to examine the former character in addition to the Board's characters, owing to the exigencies of time, but the pyloric cera of all the fish in Samples III and IV have been preserved with their proper number, and can be examined and recorded at leisure.
The examination of these characters is considered of equal importance to those recommended by the Board, since they are characters in which Clupeat harengus differs from allied species.







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## Table II. Herring Race Investigations <br> Нati,

| Hatit. <br> Cawsand Bay (condition of fish . rery good) | SAMile 11. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Cawsand Bay (condition of fish : very good). | Number cxamiued | 32. |
| Early morning Dee. 9/14. Lauded morning of Dec. 9/14. Not known. | Quantity of fish caught | 250-300. |
| Moored drift nets. | Date examined | Dec. 9/14. | The characters are briefly: Length in centimetres from snont to (1) eye, (2) operculum efge, (3) front of rorsal fin, (4)

pelvie, (5) back of dorsal, (6) front of anal, (7) root of tail, (8) end of mid-cantal, (9) end of longest candal ray. Number of
(11) keeled suales (pelvics to anus), (12) rays in pectoral, (13) rays in dorsal, (14) rays in anal, (15) weight in grams, (16) sex and matmity, (17) vertebre with hemal arch, (18) total vertebre.

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## Table III. Herring Race Investigations.
















































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SAMPLE IV. Haut.
Start Pt. E.N.E. about 8 miles to N.N.E. about 3 miles. Number examined

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& \text { Drift-hering. }
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## IV. Herring Race Investigations.


























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N1020









## APPENDIX TO TABLES.

$\dagger$ 'This sign in all cases indicates that no lateral processes are present in the vertebræ immediately preceding the 1st vertebra with complete hæmal arch or the most anterior incomplete arch denoted in the records. The processes in these cases have been cleaned away.

* This sign on the measurements (Columm 1 to 9 ) indicates that the character is slightly abnormal in some way or that the part measured is slightly damaged. In columns 17 and 18 the asterisks refer to the following :-


## Sample III.

Fish No.
3* 12th vertebra with complete hæmal arch has two p.irs of hæmal arches, but only one extra neural process on the right, which is attached to the 11th neural arch. The vertebra itself is slightly longer than adjacent ones, but has been counted as and appears to be only one. The left hæmal process of the 15th vertebra with complete hæmal arch is attached to the 14 th hemal arch and its fellow is free. The hæmal processes of the next vertebra, the 16 th, are also free.
9 * Right portion of 11 and 12 hæmal arches fused with left division of 11 th hæmal spine. 12 th , left portion of hæmal arch free.
34 * 19th vertebra is very long and carries two pairs of neural and hæmal arches, the extra arches arising from the middle. It is recorded as one, but is apparently made up of two fused.
98 * 9th and l0th vertebræ (with complete hæmal arch) have each two pairs of neural spines, the 10th has also two pairs of hæmal spines, the abnormal pair having one limb (the left) arising from the middle of the centrum, but the other arising near the origin of the right member of the 11 th hæmal arch. These vertebræ are each recorded as one; they are of normal size, and neither appears to be composed of two vertebre fused, as is undoubtedly the case in other skeletons.

125 * 2nd vertebra with well-developed ventrolateral processes (paired).
139 * 6th hæmal arch with extra spine arising from junction of processes.
157 * Processes missing almost entirely one side and entirely on other side.
161 * Anterior group of vertebræ lost.
241 * 1st hemal arch has a supernumerary hæmal process in the middle of the vertebra on the left side.
243 * 1st hæmal arch broken, but still attached to vertebra.
267 * Incomplete arch, although nearly complete. The vertebra preceding had a complete hremal arch as noted in the record.
270 * Transverse bars nearly joined. The right-hand figure of Fig. 3 is drawn from this vertebra.
277* 10th and 11th hemal arches are joined by a bony cross-piece.

288 * 14th and 15 th vertebre have each two pairs of hæmal spines, the subsidiary pair being in the middle, but only the 14th pair has also a corresponding neural arch.
291 * 19th neural spines quite free.
299 * 24th hæmal spines free ; no loop formed.
310 * 5th neural spines are separate, and there is an extra free neural spine on the right, and the 5th, 7th, and 8th hæmal arch processes are bifurcated at the tip, and three of the 7 th are not joined together at all, that is both spines are free.
316 * 15th and 16th left rays of hæmal arches are joined up with the 15 th right hæmal arch ray. The 16 th right ray is free.
351 * In the case of high numbers as 33 and 34 the first hæmal arch is generally without the lateral processes.
352 * 11th hæmal arch, processes not fused, and right one bifurcated.
401* Atlas with pair of well-developed dorso-lateral spines.
416 * Extra spine on 16th hæmal arch, arising from junction of processes of arch.
427* Last vertebra but two is peculiar, being unusually small, and being somewhat fenestrated on the left side but normal on the right side. Otherwise the skeleton is quite normal.
435* The eleventh vertebra bears on the left a hæmal spine showing a slight bifurcation at the tip ; the hæmal spines in the anterior region in this fish were very well developed.
$453 *$ 1st arch broken, but still attached to vertebra.
462 * Less well developed than processes of anterior vertebra.
529 * The last vertebra but two is apparently made up of two fused, being almost twice as long as adjacent ones ; it bears two pairs of hæmal and neural spines, but has only an anterior and posterior articulation; the centre is distinctly fused. This is only counted as one.
546 * 1st vertebra with complete hæmal arch has a supernumerary hæmal process on the left side, and the 14th vertebra with complete hæmal arch has a supernumerary pair of hæmal and neural spines arising from middle of vertebra; both pairs of hæmal spines are joined by a cross-piece on the right side.

## Sample IV.

552 * 1st hæmal arch broken off centrum, but still attached.
580 * Extra spine from junction of hæmal spines of 23rd vertebra from posterior end.
582 * On some posterior hæmal arches are spherical concretions which appear like little beads of melted metal. This phenomenon has been noticed on other skeletons also.
588 * Atlas, 1st, and axis, 2nd, vertebre fused together ; counted as two.

631 * This one incomplete, but with an internal process on the right hæmal process. The arch of the vertebra anterior to it is complete.
664 * 7th vertebra from posterior end has two pairs of hemal and neural spines, is longer than normal and apparently equal to two fused vertebre. It is counted, however, as one.
667 * 4th, 5th, and 6th vertebre from posterior end have been broken and recovered at some period of life of the fish.
687 * The last vertebra bears three pairs of neural and two pairs of hrmal spines, it is nearly twice as long as a normal one, and has a thickening in the middle of the centrum where apparently two vertebre have fused. It is undoubtedly two vertebræ fused. It is, however, only counted as one in the table.
709 * 3rd complete arch has a tiny extra comecting hæmal process on the left.
711 * Middle tips of hæmal arches with curious concretionary appearance, just as though the arches were of metal and had been melted in parts.
740 * The right hæmal process of 28 th vertebra is joined to junction of hremal processes of 27 th vertebra; the left process of the 28 th vertebra being free.
$746 *$ 13th vertebra from anterior end is about half as long again as normal, and has ridges around its middle indicating fusion of two vertebre. It is, however, counted as one.
There is no normal articulation in the middle, but complete fusion.
767 * 9th vertebra very long and apparently two vertebre fused, similar to 704. It is combted, however, as one.

782 * It is quite possible that one or more arches are missing here ; possibly too well cleaned.
784 * Arch incomplete, though the one anterior to it is complete (broken, but still attached to centrum).
803 * 1st hemal arch broken, but still attached to vertebra.
841 * There is nothing unusual in the appearance of this skeleton.
$843 *$ 1st hæmal arch with a rib attached.
855 * 2nd, 3rd, 4th, 5th, and 6th rays of anal fin anastomising.
897 * In the region two-thirds from anterior end the hrmal and neural arches arise from abnormal positions and there are a few extra spines.
899 * Several hremal arches with processes interchanged, i.e. processes on opposite sides not joined up with fellow, but with those anterior or posterior to them.
911* 3rd hrmal arch broken, but was undonbtedly complete.
$921 * 46$ th vertebra from anterior end, 3 pairs of hæmal and $2 \frac{1}{2}$ pairs of neural spines. The centrum is abnormally long, nearly twice normal length, and is apparently equal to at least 2 vertebræ fused. It is counted as one.

925 * In Character 17 the " $a$ " portion is recorded hence first in order to avoid any bias towards making up the number to the apparent total of 33 or 34 potential arches.
$943 * 35$ th vertebra with two pairs of neural and hemal spines, nearly twice as long as normal, and apparently equals two fused. Counted as one.
962 * Arches about middle of skeleton a little abnormal.
975 * 12th vertebra nearly twice as long as normal, and apparently equal to two fused, but only counted as one. Also 30 th vertebra with $1 \frac{1}{2}$ hemal arches and spines, but otherwise of normal size. 32 nd also with abnormal hemal arch processes.
$980 * 39$ th vertebra with one hemal arch attached to arch of 38 th vertebra.
$1010 * 37$ th vertebra has one extra neural and one extra hremal spine, but is otherwise normal.
1064 * Vertebra behind 1st complete arch carries an incomplete but welldeveloped arch ; it is counted with those having complete arch.
1067* Left process of 44th hremal arch is joined up with junction of 43rd hæmal arch.
$1075 * 1$ st hæmal arch broken, but still attached to centrum.
Note.-The lateral processes of the vertebree preceding those with complete hæmal arch are sometimes long without internal processes, and at other times shorter with the internal process developing. Nevertheless, the arbitrary character chosen has been adhered to as closely as possible. There are, however, doubtful cases.

Very frequently the 4 th, 5 th, and 6 th vertebre from posterior end have the base of the hæmal arch passing diagonally across the ventral anterior half of the centrum, and in this respect are unlike the other vertebre.

# On the Amount of Phosphoric Acid in the Sea-Water off Plymouth Sound. 

By

Donald J. Matthews.

In spite of its biological importance, only a few investigators have turned their attention to the content of the sea in phosphoric acid. The older analyses by C. Schmidt (1) and Forchammer are quoted by K. Brandt (2). Schmidt found from 2.8 mg . to 5.5 mg . of $\mathrm{P}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{5}$ per 1000 grms . of water in the colder seas, and from 0.76 mg . to 1.8 mg . in warmer regions, while Forchammer found from 4.6 mg . to 12.5 mg . in the Gulf of Finland. Kriummel (4) refers to these as inaccurate, and quotes the results of analyses made much more recently by E. Raben, in connection with the International Fishery Investigations, as alone reliable. K. Brandt (3) also refers to Raben's work in various papers, but neither the present writer nor Professor Martin Kmudsen, of Copenhagen, who has very kindly made a search also, has been able to find any original paper by Raben on the subject, so that we unfortunately know nothing of his methods beyond the fact, given by Brandt, that the samples were filtered immediately after collection through Schleicher and Schull's hardened paper. This is a very necessary precaution, as there would be danger of an increase in the phosphates owing to the decomposition of suspended organic matter by bacteria. The present writer has found that even a filtered sample cannot be put aside in safety for any length of time unless previonsly sterilised, as the whole of the phosphoric acid may be removed by the growth of moulds.

Kruimmel mentions also some analyses by Sir John Murray as equally defective.

Raben's samples were collected in the Baltic and North Sea; he found as a rule less than one milligram of $\mathrm{P}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{5}$ per litre, with a minimum of 0.14 mg , to 0.25 mg . in February and May, and a maximum of 1.46 mg . in the autumn.

The present writer, in sea-water taken half a mile ontside the Breakwater at Plymouth, has found as a maximum $0 \cdot 1 \mathrm{mg}$. per litre, less than the lowest result given by any of the workers mentioned above.

The determination of phosphoric acid in sea-water falls into two parts, first concentration in small bulk, and then determination of the amount. Concentration may be effected either by precipitating, by the addition of ammonia, a portion of the alkaline earths, which carries down the phosphoric acid, or by adding an iron salt, ammonium chloride, and ammonia and precipitating a mixture of ferric phosphate and hydroxide. The estimation may be carried out either gravimetrically as ammonium phospho-molybdate, or colorimetrically by the very sensitive reaction with nitro-molybdate of strychnine described by Pouget and Chouchak (5). The writer finally adopted the colorimetric method following concentration with iron, but all four processes have been used.

From April 21 to September 13, 1915, the method was as follows: About 1500 ccm . of filtered water was precipitated, after making slightly acid and heating, with iron and ammonium chloride and ammonia. The precipitate was filtered off, dissolved in warm dilute nitric acid, and evaporated to dryness several times with further addition of acid to remove silica. The phosphorus was determined by precipitating with ammonium molybdate and weighing as anhydride. For such smail quantities, the amount of anhydride being only a few milligrams, the method camot be considered satisfactory, as there is danger of loss through some of the precipitate dissolving in the wash-waters or being carried through the asbestos of the Gooch crucible, and on the other hand there is the risk of the results being too high owing to the simultaneous precipitation of a trace of molybdic acid. With one exception the figures obtained were much higher than most of those by the colorimetric method. From April 21 to July 14 about 0.07 mg . per litre was found gravimetrically ; there was then a break in the series and the next analysis, made on September 13, showed a considerable fall to 0.04 mg . by the gravimetric method, in good agreement with that for September 21, when 0.046 mg . was found by the colorimetric method, which was adopted for all following work.

Samples for the colorimetric method were at first concentrated by precipitating 500 ccm . of filtered sea-water with 3 ccm . of pure concentrated ammonia, heating, and filtering off the voluminous precipitate of hydroxides, dissolving it in nitric acid, and evaporating on the waterbath to dryness, after which it was treated as described later. The method had the advantage that only one reagent was used for precipitation, and as a rule the solution filtered quickly and duplicate analyses agreed well, the average difference being 0.0029 mg . per litre. Its accuracy, however, was difficult to establish without making up an artificial sea-water free, or nearly so, from phosphates, and this was found to be
impossible with the purest chemicals of Merck and Kahlbanm. As an example, the artificial sea-water was found to contain 0.0143 mg . of $\mathrm{P}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{5} \mathrm{in} 500 \mathrm{ccm} . ; 0.0234 \mathrm{mg}$. was added to 500 cem . and 0.0328 mg . found, a loss of 0.0049 mg . In another experiment made on 250 cem . the loss was only 0.0007 mg . These differences are both of about the same magnitude as those found between duplicate analyses of sea-water, so the experiments are not conclusive, though it shows that the method is at any rate approximately aceurate. Comparison was also made with the method finally used ; simple precipitation by ammonia gave 0.0312 mg. per litre, against 0.0318 mg , and 0.0316 mg . by the final method. Again, precipitation by ammonia gave 0.0 .77 mg . in duplicate analyses : treatment of the filtrate from one of these by ammonia gave a further voluminous precipitate which contained no recognisable phosphates. The method is therefore probably aceurate to about 0.003 mg .

In the end, concentration by iron was found to be the most satisfactory and quickest method, duplicate determinations taking five hours or less when the water had been previously filtered. The requisites are :-

Ferric nitrate or chloride solution, nearly neutral, containing 5 to 6 mg . of iron in 1 ccm .

Nitric acid, strong and 25 per cent by volume.
Ammonia, dilute; 2 N is a convenient strength.
Ammonium chloride; about 2 N .
Pouget and Chouchalk's ratgent; two solntions are required. A: 95 grms. of molybdic acid and 30 grms. of anhydrous carbonate of soda are dissolved in $500-600 \mathrm{ccm}$. of warm water, and after cooling 141 cem . of strong nitric acid are added. The solution is made up to 1000 ccm . B : a 2 per cent solution of strychnine sulphate. For use 1 ccm . of $B$ is added to 10 cem. of $I$ and the mixture filtered and used at once. With $0 \cdot 03 \mathrm{mg}$. of $\mathrm{P}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{5}$ in 50 cem. of $3 \cdot 7$ per cent nitric acid, this reagent gives a strong opalescence at once, white 0.005 mg . will give the reaction in a few minutes. This opalescence is yellow when examined in the colorimeter ; it takes twenty minntes to attain its full strength, and after three or four hours a precipitate is thrown down, so the comparisons should be made as soon as possible after the twenty minutes have elapsed. The colour is proportional to the amount of phosphoric acid when the content in $\mathrm{P}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{5}$ lies between 0.01 mg . and 0.0 .5 mg . in 50 ccm . it is affected by variations in the amount of reagent used and by the amount of free nitric acid. Ponget and Chouchak give a number of determinations in the presence of various oxides, and show that the results are very good inless the oxides are present in very large amount; for instance, lime is without influence when there is not more present than 20,000
times the weight of the phosphorus pentoxide, while iron should not exceed 1200 times its weight. They recommend also that for the greatest aceuracy two standard solutions should be made up, one containing $0.03 \mathrm{mg} . \mathrm{P}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{5}$ for use with samples containing this amount or more, and another containing 0.02 mg . for samples containing less than 0.03 mg .

Colorimeter. The writer has used the Dubosq pattern with comparison tnbes 5 cm . in height and a swinging shade in front to cut off side light. For the comparison of phosphorus samples the model with 10 cm . tubes would probably have been better.

Filter papers should be washed with dilute nitric acid and hot water. The writer has found traces of phosphoric acid in two of the best-known hydrofluoric-acid washed papers.

Porcelain and glass should be tested before use by extraction with hot dilute nitric acid and dilute ammonia. There are some varieties which will give up several milligrams of $\mathrm{P}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{5}$ during an analysis.

Indica-rubber should not be allowed to come in contact with the acid or alkaline solutions.

The analyses have been carried out as follows: The samples were taken in glass-stoppered " Winchester quart" bottles, holding about 2700 cem . As they were collected so near to the Laboratory it was generally possible to begin the filtration within three hours, so that there was no necessity for sterilisation. Filtration was carried out by replacing the glass stopper by one of rubber through which passed two glass tubes, which projected about 6 mm . on the inner side; outside the bottle one projected about 25 or 30 mm ., the other a few millimetres less. The bottle, full to the stopper, was quickly inverted on a retort ring with the tubes projecting into the filtering fummel below the upper edge of the filter paper. Filtration then goes on without attention; as a rule it was started in the aftemoon and was finished by the following morning. Double papers were always used, sometimes Sehleicher and Schull, No. 589. " black band " inside, to catch the coarser particles, with a " blue hand" outside ; at other times Whatman's papers, No. 1 or No. 40. If there is much sediment No. 40 is almost too slow; one sample took thirty-six hours to filter.

As a rule 500 cem . was taken. The water was measured into a hard glass beaker. and 10 cem . of 2 N ammonimm chloride and 1 cem. of the iron mixture were added, with a few drops of dilute nitric acid to dissolve the precipitate. The mixture was heated to $70^{\circ}$ or $80^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$. on the waterbath and precipitated with the smallest possible quantity of dihute ammonia; the heating was contimed until the precipitate had collected
together, when it was filtered on a small washed paper and washed twice with hot water. The precipitate on the filter and adhering to the beaker was dissolved in warm dilute nitric acid and evaporated to dryness on the water-bath to remove silica. Seven cubic centimetres of $25 \% \mathrm{HNO}_{3}$ and 20 ccm . of water were added, the dish covered, and the solution heated for twenty minutes, when it was transferred to a 50 cm . graduated flask. If there is much insoluble residue the solution should be filtered. The bulk was then made up to about 47 ccm ., leaving space for 2 ccm . of reagent. The standards were prepared by making up the requisite amounts of $\mathrm{P}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{5}$ to about 47 ccm . with 7 ccm . of $25 \% \mathrm{HNO}_{3}$ and water; the writer has generally diluted the $\frac{1}{15}$-molecular phosphate solutions used in determining hydrogen-ion concentrations by the Sorensen method. Two cubic centimetres of the strychmine-molybdate reagent were then added to each flask, the bulk completed to the marls, and the whole well shaken. In twenty minutes the solutions are ready for comparison.

The writer has never been able to secure perfect equality of illumination in the two halves of the field of the colorimeter owing to the shape and setting of the window in the Laboratory, so the precaution was always taken of reversing the position of the tubes after six readings and then taking another six. The accuracy with which the readings could be made varied very much. On some days a set of six have been obtained which did not differ by more than 0.2 mm . on 40 mm ., while at other times the uncertainty was from five to ten times as great. A large sheet of ground glass between the colorimeter and the window was often of great assistance. Comparisons by artificial light were very difficult and fatiguing, but the results were satisfactory.

To test the accuracy of the method the following experiments were made :-

Part of a standard, containing 0.0237 mg ., was analysed against itself. In two experiments the results were too low by 0.0005 mg . and 0.0004 mg .

Three lots of 500 ccm . each of distilled water, to which 0.0237 mg . had been added, were analysed ; the errors were, $+0.0010 \mathrm{mg} .,+0.0041 \mathrm{mg}$., and +0.0001 mg . From another 500 ccm ., to which no phosphate had been added, 0.0036 mg . was obtained. The filtrate from this was acidified and analysed again withont adding any more ammonium chloride. The amount found was again 0.0036 mg . This value was taken as the blank instead of the mean, 0.0025 mg . The result in which an excess of 0.0001 mg . was found was probably erroneous owing to the evaporation having been carried out on the sand-bath, which might give rise to overheating and formation of pyrophosphates. An artificial sea-water was
made up and foumd to contain 0.0100 mg . To this was added 0.0150 mg ., and analysis showed a loss of 0.0008 mg . The result is not conclusive as the blank on the sea-water was so high.

To test the effect of varying bulk, two lots of natural sea-water were examined, one in its natural state, the other after evaporation to small bulk. The amounts found were 0.0318 mg . and 0.0316 mg . respectively. A third portion, precipitated by strong ammonia only, gave 0.0312 mg .

Filtrates from the iron precipitate were also examined. The amount found by analysis of two lots of a sea-water were 0.0378 mg . and 0.0391 mg . To one filtrate 0.0237 mg . was added and 0.0266 mg . found, a gain of 0.0029 mg . No more phosphate was added to the other and 0.0025 mg . was found, using a very dilute standard. In another experiment the figures for the original analyses were 0.0336 mg . and 0.0348 mg . ; 0.0237 mg . was added to each filtrate and gains of 0.0013 mg . and 0.003 mg . were obtained. These gains are all small, the average being 0.0018 mg .. half the blank on the reagents. Finally the filtrate from the sample mentioned above as having been concentrated to small bulk was examined after the addition of 0.0237 mg . The gain in this case was higher, 0.0058 mg .

The fact that the errors on the filtrates, though small, were all positive, made it seem possible that there was still phosphorus, though not necessarily phosphoric acid, unprecipitated. To test this three lots of 500 ccm . were taken ; two were analysed in their natural condition, giving 0.0336 mg . and 0.0348 mg . The third portion was boiled for three-quarters of an hour with 10 ecm . of decinormal potassium permanganate in Jena glass ; it was then acidified with HCl . and boiled for two hours longei. On analysis 0.0558 mg . was found, a gain of 0.0216 mg . Another seawater gave 0.0415 mg . and 0.0566 mg . for the natural and oxidised portions, a gain of 0.0147 mg . The filtrate from the oxidised portion was analysed without the addition of more phosphoric acid and 0.0018 mg . found. A similar experiment made earlier by the gravimetric method showed an increase from 0.082 mg . to 0.147 mg . on oxidation. In one case an untreated water was found to contain 0.09 mg . by the gravimetric method ; the filtrate was oxidised and yielded a further 0.07 mg

There are two possible explanations of this increase of the phosphates by oxidation. One is that there may be in sea-water a small quantity of organic matter which hinders but does not completely prevent the separation of the phosphoric acid by iron ; the objection to this is that the action would probably be irregular and the duplicate analyses would differ more widely than they do. The other, to which the writer inclines, is that there is a considerable amount of phosphorus present in forms
other than phosphoric acid, perhaps as phosphites or as an organic compound, which is oxidised to phosphoric acid by potassium permanganate.

The ratio of phosphoric acid found in the untreated sample to the total shows a tendency to constancy, but it has not been determined yet whether the permanganate method converts the whole of the phosphorus into phosphoric acid, and experiments on this are in progress.

The samples of sea-water, with two exceptions, were taken at the Knap Buoy, half a mile outside the lighthouse on Plymouth Breakwater. The other two were taken close to the rocks under the Laboratory.

The results are given in the following table, and also the method by which they were obtained.

The salinity was determined against the Internaional Normal Water.

SURFACE SAMPLES TAKEN AT THE KNAP BUOY.

| Date. | G.M.T. | S. \% | Method. | $\mathrm{P}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{5}$, mg. per litre. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  | Foundinduplicates. | Mean. |
| 1915 |  |  |  |  |  |
| April 21 | $10.30 \mathrm{a} . \mathrm{m}$. | - | Iron and gravimetric | - | $0 \cdot 1$ |
|  |  | - | ", ", | - | $0 \cdot 1$ |
| June 21 | $10.30 \mathrm{a} . \mathrm{m}$. | - | " | - | 0.049 |
| July 5 | noon |  | ", ", | - | 0.064 |
| " 12 | $10.30 \mathrm{a} . \mathrm{m}$. | - |  | - | $0 \cdot 09$ |
| ,, 14 | $11.40 \mathrm{a} . \mathrm{m}$. | $34 \cdot 83$ | ", ", | - | 0.08 .2 |
| Sept. 13 | $11.30 \mathrm{a} . \mathrm{m}$. | 34.92 |  | - | $0 \cdot 04$ |
| ", 21 | $10.30 \mathrm{a} . \mathrm{m}$. | 34.96 | Ammonia and colour | 0 042, 0 (1) | 0.046 |
| Nov. 24 | $11.35 \mathrm{a} . \mathrm{m}$. | 34.78 | ,, „, | $0.042,0.041$ | 0.0415 |
| -. 26 | $11.45 \mathrm{a} . \mathrm{m}$. | $34 \cdot 43$ | ", ", | $0 \cdot 040,0.034$ | 0.037 |
| , 29 | $11.10 \mathrm{a} . \mathrm{m}$. | $34 \cdot 14$ | " | $0.040,0.037$ | $0 \cdot 0385$ |
| Dec. 2 | $12.20 \mathrm{p} . \mathrm{m}$. | - | ", ", | 0.0484, 0.10435 | $0 \cdot 0460$ |
| -\% 9 | $10.30 \mathrm{a} . \mathrm{m}$. | 31.46 | ," ," | $0.049,0.047$ | 0.048 |
| \% 13 | $11.30 \mathrm{a} . \mathrm{m}$. | - | ", ", | 0.044, 0.041 | 0.0425 |
| \% 16 | 12.10 p.m. | $26 \cdot 20$ | ", ", |  | $0 \cdot 043$ |
| $1916^{20}$ | $11.25 \mathrm{a} . \mathrm{m}$. | $29 \cdot 69$ | ", ", | $0.058,0.064$ | 0.061 |
| Jan. 3 | $11.35 \mathrm{a} . \mathrm{m}$. | $25 \cdot 66$ |  | $0.057,0.057$ | $0 \cdot 057$ |
| ,, 14 | 1.55 p.m. | $33 \cdot 87$ | Iron and colour | $0 \cdot 10318,0 \cdot 0316$ | 0.0317 |
| 18 | 2.30 p.m. | 33.93 | ,, „, | $0 \cdot 0336,0 \cdot 03448$ | $0 \cdot 0342$ |
| , 24 | $11.20 \mathrm{a} . \mathrm{m}$. | $33 \cdot 42$ |  | 0.0378, 0.0391 | $0 \cdot 0384$ |
| Feb. 5 | $12.30 \mathrm{p} . \mathrm{m}$. | $31 \cdot 58$ |  | $1 \cdot \cdot 0507,0.0414$ | 0.0460 |

SURFACE SAMPLES TAKEN UNDER LABORATORY.

| $\begin{aligned} & 1916 \\ & . J \text { an. } 17 \end{aligned}$ | - | - | Iron and colour |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Feb. 11 | - | - |  | $0 \cdot 1040,0 \cdot 0972$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0.0587 \\ & 0.0414 \end{aligned}$ |

I few points come out clearly from the results.
In the first place, the results are much lower than those obtained by Raben for the Baltic and North Sea, his lowest being $0 \cdot 14 \mathrm{mg}$. per litre against $0 \cdot 1 \mathrm{mg}$., the highest found at Plymouth. The salinity at the Knap Buoy is nominally $33 \cdot 5$ per thonsand up to nearly :5, comparable with a large part of the North Sea. But the North Sea receives enough fresh water from the great rivers of Russia and Germany to keep the salinity of nearly the whole of it below : 5 per thousand, while the effect of the land drainage in the western part of the English Channel is confined to a comparatively narrow band along the coast. The effect of an increased supply of land water in increasing the phosphoric acid is seen in the results for December 20 and January 3 , when the salinity was very low ; a sudden rise occured then after the figures had been fairly constant for two months or more. This rise did not show itself till a few days after the salinity had fallen, which suggests that much of the phosphorus from the land enters the sea in an incompletely oxidised form and is then converted, by bacterial action, into phosphoric acid.

If the earlier gravimetric results are taken as correct there is a decided seasonal change, the higher values being found in spring and summer, but the writer is not inclined to place much confidence in them. The experiments are being continued and it is hoped that the next few months will settle the question.

It is unfortunate that so far it has not been possible to obtain samples at a greater distance from shore, as it may be that the inereased phosphoric acid found after oxidation is a purely littoral or estuarine phenomenon resulting from the form in which part of the phosphoric acid is carried down by land-water. It does not seem likely that it arises from diatoms or bacteria which pass through a paper filter, as the same increase was noticed on oxidising a filtrate from a solution in which iron had been precipitated by ammonia, a very efficient method of removing the finest suspended particles. The approximately constant ratio of the two forms of phosphorus is also an objection to this explanation.

## SUMDLIRI.

1. Phosphoric acid in sea-water may be determined with an aecuracy of about 0.003 mg . per litre by concentration with iron and colorimetric examination.
2. If the sea-water be previously oxidised by potassium permanganate the amount found is considerably increased.
3. From September, 1915, to February, 1916, the average amount of phosphoric acid in water collected half a mile outside Plymouth Break-
water was 0.044 mg . per litre: this showed signs of an increase when the supply of land-water rose after rain. The figures are much lower than those found by Raben for the Baltic and North Sea.
4. The amounts found by another method during the previous spring and summer are higher, but the figures camot be considered quite trustworthy.

Note.-Since the above was written, it has been found that boiling with potassium permanganate does not oxidise the whole of the phosphorus with certainty. Duplicate analyses of a sample taken on Jan. 17 th, 1916 , both gave 0.0190 mg . per litre. Two other portions were oxidised and found to contain 0.0449 mg . and 0.0569 mg . per litre.

An attempt has also been made to determine whether any of the phosphoric acid is reduced to other forms in the short interval between the collection of the water and the beginning of the analysis. A sample of water was sterilised with toluol immediately after taking. A single determination showed 0.0350 mg . per litre in the original sample, and 0.0375 mg . after oxidation. But the water for over a week had been extraordinarily clear and free from suspended matter, far more so than any of the samples given in the table, so that the experiment cannot be considered conclusive.

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## 7n MJemortam.


#### Abstract

H. C. Dannevig, Director; G. W. C. Pim, Master; C. T. HARRISSON, Biologist; and eighteen others, comprising the crew of the Australian Fishery Investigation steamer Endeavour, who were lost at sea in December, 1914.




The Department of Trade and Customs of the Commonwealth of Australia have issued a memorial number of their Report on Fisheries, giving particulars, as far as they are known, of the loss at sea of their investigation steamer Endeavour; with all on boarl, including the Commonwealth Director of Fisheries, Harald Christian Damnevig; the Biologist, Charles Turnbull Harrisson ; the Captain, George William Charles Pim, and a crew of eighteen men. The ship left Macquarie Islant on December 3rd, 1914, to return to Australia and was not heard of again. It is thought that she perished in a heary gale which was experienced on the island two days after she had left.

The work carried out by Dannevig with the Eindeavour-a steam trawler specially built for fishery investigations in Australian waters--is well known to all Marine Biologists, and ranks with the best work of the kind which has been accomplished anywhere. The sympathy of British naturalists will be extended to their Australian colleagnes, as well as to the relatives and friends of those whom the sea has claimed, in the sarl losis they have sustained.

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THE NATURAL HISTORY OF THE MARKETABLE MARINE FISHES OF THE BRITISII ISLANDS.<br>Preparm expressly for the use of thase interested in the Sea-fishing Intustries.<br>BY<br>J. T. CUNNTNGHAM, M.A.,<br>FORMERLY FELLOW OF UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, OXFORD; NATURALIST ON THE STAFF OF THE MARINE BIOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION.

(atith) preface by
E. RAY LANKESTER, M.A., LL.D., F.F.S., PROFESSOR OF COMPARATIVE ANATOMY IN TIE LTNIVERSITY OF OXFORD.

# The Microplankton of Plymouth Sound from the Region beyond the Breakwater. 

By<br>Marie V. Lebour, M.Sc.,<br>Assistant Lecturer in Zoology, Leeds University. Tomporary Naturalist at the Plymouth Laboratory.

With Figures 1-9 in the text, and Tables I and II at the end.

Throughout a complete year from September, 1915, to September, 1916, sea-water samples were taken regularly two or three times a week from beyond the Breakwater in the region of the Knap buoy, $2 \frac{1}{2}$ miles from Plymouth shore, from the surface and at 5 and 7 fathoms. The object was to supplement the existing records from the tow nets as it is well known that a very large amount of material is lost even from the finest nets, as Lohmanu has shown exhaustively (1908). So far the only plankton records from this region have been from the tow nets, and a glance at the tables given at the end of this paper will show directly. if compared with those by Gough (1903-7) and Bygrave (1911), also Cleve (1899 and 1900). the great difference in numbers of the smaller forms, or their entire absence from the tow nettings. Again, no actual numerical records have been given from this region. At the same time as the water samples were taken, tow nettings, coarse, medium and very fine, were also secured, and these were regularly examined for comparison.

The water samples were estimated by means of the centrifuge after the manner introduced by Lohmann. I water-bottle was used for the 5 and 7 fathom samples, and the surface sample was collected in a Winchester bottle. Experiment showed that there was no difference in the surface samples when collected either with the water-bottle or Winchester, and it was found more convenient for keeping as it was unnecessary always to examine it the day of collection, as was the case with the waterbottle samples. The Winchester samples keep for two or three days at a uniform temperature. If examined the day they are brought in the water-bottle samples are quite as good as the surface samples in the

[^8]Winchester for Peridiniales and Protozoa, which perhaps include the most delicate of all the plankton organisms. The samples were all examined fresh when possible ; if impossible, which was only seldom, they were preserved by adding strong Flemming's solution at the time of capture as advised by Gran (i912a). For most species this method of preservation was found very satisfactory.

For quantitative estimation a certain amount (usually 50 cc .) of the sample water was put in tubes and centrifuged. Five tubes each holding 10 ce. were examined, the tubes pointed at the end after Lohmam's pattern, so that the contents may be emptied out and leave the residue in the point ; this residue was removed carefully with a fine pipette, put on a ruled glass shide and the contents counted. The water was then recentrifuged and the process gone through again. It was found that although re-centrifuging answered very well for diatoms, Peridinium and the more sturdy organisms, it was no use for the fragile forms such as the naked Peridiniales and small Infusoria, many of which are most probably destroyed even before they are brought in.

It was found by experiment that centrifuging for ten minutes gave the best results, the largest number of gymmodinians being secured in this way. This is longer than the time taken by Lohmann, but his centrifuge made many more revolutions than ours, the number of ours not being exactly estimated.

The tow nettings were not exhaustively examined, but the most important organisms were noted and their relative abundance. The nets used were of silk with meshes 26,50 and 150 to the inch respectively, mouth 56 inches in cireumference (inside), and bottom 15 inches in circumference. Length of silk clear of the calico to which it is attached at the ends, 39 inches. Area of silk, 1382 inches. Duration of haul, 10 to 15 minntes, or in exceptional cases a few minutes longer.

The following quick method was adopted: anything large first noted with the naked eye, then a certain amount of each sample taken, and when 30 or more of any organism was present it was marked ec; if 20 but under $30, \mathrm{e}$; if 6 but under 20 , + ; if more than one but under $6, r$; if only a single specimen rr. In this way a rough estimate of what is common in the tow nets is made. In the ease of the very fine samples after stirring two separate drops with a pipette are examined and the above method applied.

On the few days when it was impossible to go beyond the Breakwater the samples and tow nettings were taken from the west channel at the side of the Breakwater. For a fortnight in April it was impossible owing to the storms to go out at all. After this, about the 25th, the increase in plankton is large. The samples were as nearly as possible
taken at the same time of day, between 11 a.m. and 1 p.m., and the state of tide, wind, and weather noted.

A great many species get through the meshes of even the finest nets. Those which are nearly always lost are the smaller Peridiniales, especially the Gymmodiniacea, the small Infusoria, with the exception of the Tintimnoidea, small flagellates (very few of which, however, appeared in our samples), Protozoa of various kinds and many of the smaller diatoms. On looking through the Plymouth records in the Fisheries Investigations we find an almost complete absence of all the very small Peridiniales, and with one exception (that of Gymnodinium lunula, which owing to its large size is conspicuous) an absolutely complete absence of Gymnodiniacece which confirms Lohmann's statement that all were lost. Prorocentrum micans is almost absent from the tow nettings, here again in agreement with Lohmann, who found a large loss. Infusoria, except the Tintinnoidea are practically absent, and among the diatoms we find records of species such as Chatoceras curvisetum, which we have found the commonest species of this genus in the plankton, only represented at the most by the sigu + , usually r or rr. At times it has appeared with us in quantity in the tow nets, but not nearly as frequently as in the water samples. Paralia sulcata is seldom to be found in the nets but is abundant in the water samples, and present nearly all the year round. In Gough's lists it is usually marked r or rr, never by either Bygrave or Gough is it marked cc.

Skeletonema costatum is another good example and one specially marked by Lohmann. Although sometimes recorded as ce for Plymouth, the few times it is thus marked bear no comparison with the numbers really contained in the water. This is a particularly abundant species here, and at Kiel it is shown to be in enormous numbers, most of which escape the net. The specics of Nitzschia are also good examples, $N$. closterium and $N$. delicatissima particularly nearly always being lost by the net.

On the other hand, a good many of the larger species do not get into the water samples in anything like a representative number. For instance, the genus Biddulphia only appears very occasionally, when really it forms a most important part of the plankton at a certain season of the year. Streptotheca thamensis is another case: this species being very abundant at times in the tow nettings and only occurring in small numbers in the water samples. The genus Rhizosolenia, although the relative abundance of the species is usually well shown in the water samples, is yet sometimes very ineffectually represented. For instance, in June Rhizosolenia Shrubsolei appeared in all the tow nets for two or three days, particularly on June 19th, especially in the medium net,
and the specimens were of very large size. These searcely got into the water samples, so that the curve taken from the numbers obtained from the water samples gives a wrong impression for this species, although the seasonal distribution is correctly, though roughly, shown.

The Metazoa in the water samples only amount to a few individuals and are of no account, so that the quantitative work practically amounts to an estimation of the unicellular organisms. Whilst counting the diatoms they were estimated, as is usual, by cells; however, for the tow mettings the chains were regarded as individuals, otherwise the method given above would not have been suitable owing to the number of cells in a chain.

The tables at the end of the paper show the average number of organisms in the water samples in 50 ce. for each week. The tow nettings are shown for comparison at the same time (marked in letters). The account of the Metazoa from the tow nettings is given without tables, and they are also taken into account in the survey for each month. I list of the dates on which the samples were taken, giving wind and weather, will be formol at the end of the paper.

The largest numbers, on the whole, are found in the surface layer, but there is not much difference, and a large amount of mixture of water seems to take place, so that it is difficult to assign to any particular species its particular habitat in depth. Skeletoneme costutum is most frequent at the surface, also (hetoceras species generally, Lauderia, Thulassiosira, and Mastigloia. The greatest fluctuations are nearly always from the surface and can usually be traced to the state of the tide, the 5 and 7 fathom layers being much more regular, as was to be expected. Shelctonema, as noticed by (iran $(1912 b)$ is rather more numerous at the surface. Paraliu sulcatr, however, shows all its maximum numbers either at 5 or 7 fathoms, but as this is naturally a bottom form often coming into the plankton, it is not surprising. Nitzschia delicatissima, and Asterionella japonica also show largest numbers at 5 and 7 fathoms. The state of the tide affects the numbers, more being taken at or just before high tide, fewest at or just before low tide usually. The highest catches usually come with S. and S.W. winds.

The unicellular organisms other than diatoms occur irregularly at all depths.

On comparing the present records with those of Lohmam at Kiel, much that he states is bome out by these results, although many of his numbers are from estimates with filter as well as centrifuge. Skeletonemu costatum, which he regards as one of the most important diatoms of the plankton, has a eurve which is wonderfully in accordance with ours,

Fig. 1 having a large spring and a small summer maximum (Lohmam, 1908 , table XII).
Of his numerical results the Peridiniales are relatively in much larger numbers than in the present records. Athough here many species are found to occur and several new species are described, the individual numbers are usually enormonsly less in these records, even when the

season of maximm number agrees. As Lohmann observed at Kiel, so here, there are several amœeæ to be found in the plankton. Ours are of three kinds, one of which is fairly common. With him Flagellata are much more numerous than with us, except Phrocystis, which is so abundant here in May and June that it interferes with everything, clogging up all the nets. Infusoria Lohmam finds numerous, and there are numerons species of them here, but they are not found in large numbers with the exception of the Timtimnoidea. The smaller forms, such as Laboea species
and Strombidium coudetum, very easily collapse and destroy themselves in a moment. Tiarina fusus we find at a larger maximmm than at Kiel. Most of the new species, both of the Peridiniales and Infusoria found in the plankton l Lohmann, are present here if not in such large quantities; thus we have Amphidinium crassum, Pouchetia parra, Cochlodinium pellucidum, Laboed strobild, and many other species hitherto not known from British seas.
'The diatoms, although usually in less numbers than Lohmann's, are in some cases more. Nearly all his diatom numbers are, however, from filter examinations, therefore not exactly comparable. One fact which is striking is the relative regularity of the yearly curve of certain species, instead of their showing a marked seasonal distribution. This we find to be the ease with Thalassiothrix nitzschioides, which is present at Kiel practically all the year romed whilst with us it is a pronouncedly winter form. The same is true with most of the Coscmodiscus species which also are winter forms here. This is perhaps to be explained by (iongh's theory of the distribution of neritic diatoms which he found occurred at certain definite times only in places near the ocean, but stayed all the year round in suitable localities far removed from it. We find much the same seasons for the above diatoms at Port Erin as we have at Plymouth (see Herdman and Scott, 1908-15).

For comparison I have taken from Lohmann's tables certain species with their maximum number in 100 litres and put side by site of these the Plymouth records of the same species in the same amount calculated from the number in 50 ece. The month of maximum is also recorded. It will be seen that in most cases his numbers are higher, in a few instances much higher, but in three cases the Plymouth numbers are higher.

| Species. Paralia sulcata | Kïl. $77,000$ | Month of max. Nov . | $\begin{aligned} & \text { I'!!mouth. } \\ & 1,000,000 \end{aligned}$ | Month of max. Nov. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Skeletonema costatum' | 778,000,000) | Jume | $2.5,000,000$ | April |
| Guinardia flaccida | 360,000 | Ilay | 20,000 | Sept. |
| Asterionella | 1,800,000) | Dec. | $3.260,000$ | . Huly (japonica) |
| Prorocentrum micans | -5,100,000 | Aug. | 128.000 | Sept. |
| G'lenodinium bipes | -2,100,000 | May | 12.000 | Aug. |
| C'eratium fusus | 300,000 | Sept. | 12.000 | \ug. |
|  |  |  | I'. crmata |  |
| Pouchetia parive. | 50,0100 | Sept. | 30,000 | June |
| Tiarine fusus | 11,000 | Oct. | 14,000 | Aug. |

As will be seen, the maxima here agree in most cases in being in the spring or antumn. As has been stated above, however, there are several
species which do not agree ; for instance, Coscinodiscus Gromii has a maximum at Kiel in August, whereas I fomm it confined to the period from November to April, when it is fairly evenly distributed. The maximum of Prorocentrum micuns in August or September seems to be well established. Ostenfeld (1913) is here also in agreement. ('eratium fusus also lias its maximum at this time, and Pyrocystis lumulu, which at Plymouth is only recorded in these months. However, I find that in many cases species having a spring maximm at Kiel have it here in the summer.

A comparison of the present results, with those of (iran (1912) is difficult as his are only for the month of May and from so many stations at various localities and many different depths. However, if we take the Dutch results from the south-western part of the North Sea, which is the nearest to us of all the localities he makes use of, and compare them with the present records for the month of May only, we find the comparison is not without interest. Gran used the centrifuge entirely and the samples were all preserved. He usually took 50 ce. of the sample and calculated from it the number of individuals in a litre. Except in certain cases mentioned below, the numbers are not extremely different. Thus we find the species of Biddulphiu present in very small numbers (only $B$. sinensis at Plymouth), a large number of several Chatoceras species in both (12 species with him. 8 with us). However, whereas there $C$. decimens and debile are the prevailing forms (maximmm numbers 11.500 and 6.500 per litre respectively) the prevailing forms here are ('. curcisehum (maximum number 39,900 per litre) and C. pseudocrinitum (maximum number 30,000 per litre). I large number of resting spores of Chetoceras species are recorded by (iran and also by Lohmann. They were not recognised and therefore not recorded in the present paper. Lauderia borealis (Gran's maximum 2,180 per litre) with us is more abmont ( 21,580 per litre). Paralia sulcala (Gran's maximum 7,180 per litre at 30 m .), with us 700 per litre at 7 fathoms. Rhizosolenia species fairly abundant :-

|  | Duteh records. | Plymonth records. |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| R. alata | $300(15 \mathrm{~m})$. | 120 surface |
| R. semispina | . | $160(20 \mathrm{~m})$. |

Thatassiosira gracida (Gran's maximum 1.760 per litre, Plymouth 6,320 per litre). Nitzschia delicatissima much more abundant at Plymonth, Nitzschin closterium more abundant in the Dutch records. Of the Silico-
flagellata Dictyocha fibula and Distephamus speculum are few in numbers as in our records, also the individual numbers of the Peridiniales which are often represented by single examples or by twos and threes. It is, however, among the Infusoria that a great difference is seen, for whereas my own records seldom show more than a few specimens in each sample, the small Infusoria are in fairly large numbers in the Dutch records, especially the specics of Laboea, which sometimes reach five figures per litre. The Metazoa agree with my records in only being represented by very few inctividuals.

Herdman's (1908-15) quantitative estimates of the plankton for Port Erin and the south end of the Isle of Man are taken from the tow nets only. These are only comparable with the present records to a certain degree, but some facts stand out as of special interest. Here we find the large spring and smaller autumn maximum for the diatoms, the seasonal distribution of certain genera and their maxima, Rhizosolenia species in June; Chatoceras, Thalussiosira and Lauderia in April and May; C'hatoceras and Lauderia again in September and October: all these agree well with our records. The species of Biddulphia agree in being almost entirely absent from Jume to August and being much the most common from November to May. Coscinodiscus again agrees in being absent in the summer and early autumn and common in winter and early spring, Rhioosolenia species being only common in summer. Thalassiosira has its maximum in May both at Port Erin and Plymouth, with a slight second maximum at Plymouth in 1916. Guinardia is slightly earlier at Port Erin than at Plymouth. Lauderia with a large spring and small autumn maximum at both places, and the same with Chetoceras. Asterionella japonica appeared in large quantities in May, 1913, at Port Frim. It Plymouth it has a maximum in July and is present on and off from April to January, common through July and Augnst. Apparently this species is irregular in its appearances, as fough records it from Plymouth as ce in May. The numbers of Peridiniales at Port Erin are enormous compared with the present results; Ceratium species and the larger Peridinium species forming the basis of the Port Erin records. However, we are in agrecment in finding the Peridiniales maximum to occur very shortly after the diatom maximm and the maximum a single one which is only in the summer, May usually at Port Erin, June this year for Plymouth, when the curve shows a conspicuous hump, gradually dwindling in September, after which month very few are present. The smaller Peridiniales are not taken into account in the Port Erin reports, and the Gymmodiniucere, which turn out to be abundant, are necessarily not noticed as they come through the nets. The same applies to the other small unicellular organisms.

## The Diatoxis.

In estimating the diatoms, we find they fall naturally into two groups ; the first and most important includes the species beginning about April and usually ending about September, the second including those having their maximum in the winter or spring and extending from September


Fifi. 2.-Curse showing average number of diatoms in 50 ce. for each month.
or October to the end of March or April and Mar. In September these groups sometimes overlap, but the two large general maxima occur about April and from Jugust to October, the diatoms of the first group thus being mainly responsible for both the spring and autumn maxima.

The curve here given (Fig. -2) shows the average number of diatoms in 50 cc. monthly throughout the year. The largest maximum is in April, although May comes very near. The autumn maximum here this year is
early and occurs in August. It is very nearly as big as the spring maximum. Also in the curve there is another maximum in October, 1915, after which the numbers are very low, until they suddenly rise enormonsly in April. The October maximum is possibly the ordinary antumn maximum occurring later in 1915 than in 1916. For the rise in April Skeletonema costatum is almost wholly responsible; in May Chatoceras species are mainly responsible, together with Vitzschia delicatissima, Thalassiosira gravida and helped by Rhizosolenia species and Lauderia borealis. For the August maximum ('hatoceras again is to the fore with Asterionella japonica, Mastigloia at times in numbers, Rhizosolenia species and Nitzschia species. The rise in October, 1915, is due to Mastigloia, Chatoceras, Lithodesmium undulatum and Skeletonema costatum.

The diatoms of the first or spring and summer group include the genera Asterionella, Chatoceras, Lauderia, Nitzschia, Rhizosolenia and Thalassiosira; those of the autumn and winter group include Biddulphia, Coscinodiscus, Paralia, Streptotheca and Thalassiothrix. One of the most important diatoms is Skeletonema costatum, which, although occuring practically all the year round, yet has certain times of total disappearance for short periods. It cannot be placed in either of the above-mentioned groups as it extends over both.

We find this year the genera Biddulphia and Coscinodiscus disappear suddenly and do not continue in small numbers through the summer, as is the case generally at Port Erin. Gough, however, has recorded Biddulphia mobiliensis in June and August from Plymouth, so it must occasionally be present; also Coscinodiscus species very rarely. Paralia and Thalassiothrix are essentially winter forms here, the latter stopping abruptly in the spring and the former being much commoner in the winter, although occurring throughout the year. The records of Bygrave and Gough are here also in agreement.

Several important species have only one maximum in the year. Monthly curves show a gradual decrease from it. Asterionella japonica (July), Rhizosolenia Stolterfothii (May), R. alatre (Jume), R. Shrubsolei (May), R. hebetata f. semispina (May), R. setigera (August), are examples ; also Biddulphia species and Coscinodiscus species (antumn to spring) the curves of which could not be exactly determined because of their presence only sparingly in the water samples. The following are some of the most important species which have two maxima: the larger in Ipril, May or Jine, usually very much exceeding the secoud in August or September : Skeletonema costatum (April and September), Chatoceras curvisctum (May and September), Lauderia borealis (April and Angust), Thalassiosira gratida (May and September). These results agree roughly very well with the previous records for Plymouth by (rough and Bygrave.

Large masses of a speries of Mastigloia in a gelatinous sheath sometimes occur at intervals and swell the number of diatoms largely. In these cases they are usually so numerous that I have estimated them in 10 cc. instead of 50 ; I have also done this with other species when very numerous.

Table II shows the average number of diatoms in 1 cc. for each month. In the following details of the species the classification of "Nordisches Plankton," Vol. III, Gran (1905) is used.
(1) Melosira Borreri Cirev. Not common. In water samples, October to March.
(2) Paralia sulcata (Ehr.). Occurs almost all the year round in small numbers, but is essentially a winter species. Common from October to April with a maximum in November, then dwindles and picks up again in August. Nearly always goes through the nets. More frequent at 5 and 7 fathoms although common sometimes at the surface. Belongs, properly speaking, to the bottom but very often comes up to be a true member of the plankton.
(3) Skeletonema costatum (Grev.). Very common for nearly the whole year, but has periods of disappearance. Rare in December and part of January, June and July. Maximum of 250 per cc. in April, when it helps largely in making the spring diatom maximum. Very numerous in August, September and October. A smaller second maximum in August, and in October, 1915, a still smaller one. Lohmann considers Skeletonema costatum the most important diatom at Kiel, where in June it reached a maximum of $780,000,000$ per 100 litres. He finds it prefers water of 10 m . depth. (iran (191:2b) shows it likes surface water, and I have found that although common in all three depths it is usually commonest in the surface samples and its maximum of 12,500 in 50 cc . is from the surface. This is one of the most important of the plankton diatoms at Plymouth, but passes through the net in quantity.
(4) Thalassiosira gravida Cleve. This is the only species of the genus found commonly in the water samples. It is abundant from the end of March to the middle of September with an interval of scarcity in July and August. May and June are the months given by Herdman for the maximum of the genus at Port Erin, which agrees well with us. It occurs at all depths, but its maximum in May of 316 in 50 ce. is from the surface.
(.5) T. Nordenskioldii Cleve. Not very common, occurring at intervals. Frequent in May.
(6) T. decipiens (Grmm.). Rare.
(7) T'. subtilis (Ostenf.). This little species with its surrounding matrix occurred only rarely in 1916, although it was frequently noticed in 1915.
(8) T. condensatu (Cleve). Very rare.
(9) Lauderin borealis Gran. An important part of the plankton from May to September, with intervals of scarcity. Helps largely in forming both diatom maxima. Rare from late autumn to early spring. Maximum in May. Its seasonal distribution agrees with Herdman's records for Port Erin. It all depths, but largest numbers at the surface. Maximum of 1,079 in 50 ce. in May from the surface.
(10) Leptocylindrus danicus Cleve. Fairly common from May throughout the summer, at other times very rare.


$$
\text { Fu: 3.-Loptocylindrus sp. } \quad \text { : } 00 .
$$

(11) L. sp. (Fig, 3). I small speeies which is like L. mimimus Gran (1912), but never twisted as he describes; oceurs fairly commonly in the summer plankton. There are seldom more than two cells in a chain and these are always quite straight. The two chromatophores, size and form agree with (iran's species.
(12) Guinardie fluccide (Castr.). Common at intervals from April to September, with a maximum in July. More common in the very fine tow nettings than in the water samples. The large numbers occurring at Port Erin in May and Jone (maximum in June) are noticeable.
(13) Ityalodiscus stelliger Bail. Fairly common from October to February; a winter species. At other times rare.

## Genus Coschnodscets Ehr.

All the species of C'oscinodiscus. we have found practically absent during the summer, which agrees well with Port Erin ; althongh they continue through the year there except sometimes for one month, they are in very much smaller numbers through the summer. From September to May they oceur at times abundantly and are common in the very fine tow nottings.
(14) Coscinodiscus excentricus Ehr. Common from September to May.
(15) C'. vadiatus Ehr. Common from September to May. C. excentrious and $C^{\prime}$. rediatus are the most abundant species.
(16) C'. sub-bulliens Jörg. Only noticed from September to December. Not very common.
(17) C. Granii Gongh. Begins in November and remains till April. Sometimes common in December, Jannary and February.
(18) Actinocyclus Ehrenbergi Ralfs. In tow nettings only. Rare. Sepo tember.
(19) Actinoptychus undulatus (Bail.). From the middle of September to the end of April, never very abundant, more frequent in tow nettings than in the water samples. Not seen at all in the summer.

## (iemus Rhizosolenia (Ehr.) Brightw.

With the exception of $R$. robusta which is the only winter form all the species of Rhizosolenia are markedly summer forms; beginning to be abundant in May they continue common until the end of September at all repths. If we compare this with the Port Erin records we find it agrees well except for the fact that at Port Erin there are very few present in August.

The curve (Fig. 4), giving the distribution of the various species, shows R. Stolterfothii as much the most abundant with a big maximum in June. As mentioned above, however, R. Shrubsolei occurred in enormous numbers in June in the tow nets, of a large size, and was not adequately represented in the water samples. The maximum of the species on the curve ought to rise very much higher. I find that $R$. Shrubsolei and Stolterfothii rm together to a great extent, although Shrubsolei almost disappears in July, whilst Stolterfothii continues common well into September. The genus is hardly represented at all from November to April. Its absence being very striking, $R$. alata follows $R$. Stolterfothii closely, although it is not so common. R. hebetate form semispina, has its maximm in May. $R$. setigera is later, beginning in June and ending in September, with a maximum in Angust; thus it is later and remains less time than any of the others. All the species are abundant in the tow nets.
(20) Rhizosolenia Stolterfothii H. Perag. Perhaps the commonest of the Rhizosolenia species. Very common from May to September, with a maximum in June; disappears entirely in December.


Fig. 4.-Curve showing average number of Rhizosolenia Shrubsolei, Stolterfothii, alata, setigera, and hebetata $f$. semispina in 1000 cc . for each month.

In the tow nettings it occurs in long spirals with many cells in each. In the water samples, however, these are broken up and only a few cells cling together, and many single cells are present.
(21) R. robusta Norman. This is the only winter Rhizosolenia here. It begins in November and, although never common, continues till April. Chiefly in the tow nettings. Very seldom in the water samples.
(22) R. Shrubsolei Cleve. Very common in May till the end of June, then dwindles and is rare in Angust, almost absent in the winter.
(23) R. setigera Brightw. Very common in July and August, when it seems to take the place of $R$. Shrubsolei; rare in spring and autumn and almost absent in winter.
(24) R. hebetata (Bail.) f. semispina (Hensen). Begins in May and is very common till the middle of August, after that is rare and disappears entirely in the winter.
(25) R. ulata Brightw. Begins to be common in June and continues till August, after that is only rarely found, although a few stragglers are present throughout the year.
(26) Corethron criophilum Castr. Most frequent in October but never common. Absent for nearly the whole summer.

## Genus Chetoceras Ehr.

Nthough seattered throughout the year, all the species occur chiefly in the spring, summer and early autumn, forming an important portion of both maxima. A very large maximum in May (Fig. 5) agrees with the Port Erin records, but the autumn maximum in August is small, not amounting to more numbers than in March. This rise in March is partly due to numbers of $C$. densum, the maximum number of that species in the water samples. This species, however, is large and, like C. boreale, does not get much into the water samples. Chetoceras curvisetum, which is much the commonest species found, shows two wellmarked maxima, a large spring and a small autumn maximum, these agreeing with the Port Erin records for the genus. The fact that on several days in early autumn no Chetoceras species were seen in the water samples brings the average for the month down.
(27) Chetoceras densum Cleve. Frequent in the tow nettings, but too large to be found much in the water samples. Present most of the year except at times in the summer.
(28) C. convolutum Castr. From spring to autumn, sometimes abundant
(29) C. danicum Cleve. Rare, at intervals through the yeai
(30) C. borcale Bail. Chiefly in two nettings. Occasionally in spring and early autumn.
(31) C. decipiens Cleve. Fairly common in spring and summer, rare in autumn and winter.
(32) C. teres Cleve. Chiefly in Febrnary and March, common in March.
(33) C'. contortum Schiitt. Occasionally in July, August and September.
(34) C'. didymum Ehr. Begins in February and continues through the spring and summer until October. Very common in Angust.


Fic. 5.-Curve showing the average number of Chetoceras in 50 cc. for each month.
(35) C. constrictum Ciran. One of the commonest species from July to the end of September with its maximum in May when it suddenly appeared and disappeared. Resting spores noticed commonly in August forming in the chains. It all depths, but the largest numbers nearly always at the surface.
(36) C. Willei Gran. Rare from June to October.
(37) C. breve Schiitt. Rare in August. This is recorded often by Gough.
(38) C. laciniosum Schiitt. Occasionally from June to October.
(39) C. diadema (Ehr.). Only seen once in August.
(40) C. pseudocrinitum Ostenf. Common in May and June, at other times rare. It all deptlis.
(41) C. curvisetum Cleve. The commonest species of Chatoceras: beginning in March it continues throughout the summer till the middle of September. Maximum of 37 per ce. at the end of May. This is certainly the most important species of Chatoceros here and helps greatly to swell the diatom maximum both in May and Angust. Largest number at the surface, although it occurs at all depths.
(42) C. debile Cleve. Not very common, May and June.
(43) Chetoceras spp. Species which could not be identified were common in July and August.
(44) Eucampia zoodiacus Ehr. Occasionally from May to October.
(45) Streptotheca thamensis Shrubs. C'ommon from September to April, otherwise rarely seen. More frequent in tow nettings than in water samples.
(46) Cerataulina Bergoni H. Perag. Fairly common in May and June.

## (ienus Biddulphia Gray.

The Biddulphia species are practically confined to the autumm, winter and early spring, being almost entirely absent in the summer. This agrees fairly well with the Port Erin records, althongh there, in small numbers only, they are found in the summer. At any rate they may be regarded as winter, or carly spring, and autumn forms. B. mobiliensis, regia and sinensis ar. all common in the early spring, winter and autumn. Whether $B$. regia and sinensis should be regarded as good species is a matter discussed at length by Herdman (1912), who has shown that intermediate forms are to be found and has figured forms from Port Erin which appear to be half $B$. sinensis and half $B$. regia or mobitiensis, his final decision being that they are probably all the same species. He therefore regards $B$. sinensis and $B$. regia as distinct forms of $B$. mobiliensis. There seems to be no doubt about the sudden appearance of the exotic species B. sinensis in numbers at Port Erin in November, 1909, and also that it suddenly appeared at the mouth of the Elbe in 1903, as is shown by Ostenfeld (1908) : having spread from the mouth of the Elbe into various places including the North-East of Seotland it was then found on the Belgian coast, Ostenfeld accounting for its presence there by imagining a reversal of the usual north-going current. Its first appearance at the mouth of the Elbe Ostenfeld thinks is probably due to its being taken there by some ship. In 1908 he predicted its discovery in the Chamnel, as up to that time it had not been found to occur there. In order to ascertain whether it was present in Plymouth in former years (it certainly is common here now) I examined a large number of old tow nettings mostly from the West Chamel, Plymouth, and all from this district. Beginning,
in 1897 I searched throngh samples of various dates. particularly autumn, winter and spring, without finding any trace of B. sinensis until October, 1909, when it suddenly became abundant and continued so within the limits of its seasonal range as is shown in these records until the pressent time. It is very distinct and easity recognised and I find it hard to believe it is not a trne species distinct from mobiliensis and regia. It occurs with them and is easily distinguished from them, and this year continues to stay longer than the others. The fact also, quoted by Herdman. that Dr. Allen and Mr. Nelson grew cultures of all three forms, which bred true for a year is strong evidence in favour of their being separate species. In some samples taken by Dr. (rarstang in 1897 P . mobiliensis and regis were common,


Fis: 6. -Vabielies of Biddulphict regia. $\times 60$.
and amongst these I found an occasional specimen which showed an approach to simensis.

The figures (Fig. 6) were drawn with the camera lucida, and are very like some of Herdman's figures. Although, however, one end is decidedly like sinensis and the cell is elongated (probably soon going to divide). I think these are varieties of regia only and not true sinensis species. It seems from this that occasionally B. regia can show varieties approaching $B$. sinensis and perhaps this is the explanation of Herdman's mixed forms. If this explanation be correct we thes find $B$. sinensis appearing at Plymonth suddenly in October. 1909, and at Port Erin in November of the same year. The difficulty as to its origin is still a puzzle.
(17) Biddulpleit mobitiensis (Bail.) Grum. Begins to be abundant in the midd'e of November, keeping up its numbers until the end of March, is scarce in April, finally disappearing at the end of the month, not to reappear until the middle of Angust and then only singly.
(4) B. ragia M. Schulze. Much the same as $B$. mobitiensis but not quite so abundant and disappears earlier.
(49) B. sinensis (irev. Not so abundant as the other two but fairly common, continnes until the end of May.
(50) B. forws (Ehr.) v. Heurck. Rare, February and April.
(51) B. alternans (Bail.) v. Heurck. Rare, October and early spring.
(5-) Bellerachia malleus (Brightw.) v. Heurck. Rare, September.
(53) Lithodesimium undulatum Ehr. Common from Angust to October. rare at other times.
(i)t) Ditylium Brightrelli (West) (irun. Appeans and disappeans periodically from January to September. In March and September very common in the tow nets.
(55) Fragillaria sp. Sometimes present in long strings in summer.
(56) Thalassiothrir nitzschioides Crum. Common from September to the end of April. A winter species In summer rare or entirely absent.
(57) Asterionella japonica Cleve. Important in the late summer. Occurs in single gromps rarely at intervals from October to the end of Jume, then suddenly becomes rery common in July, rising to over 478 per ce. at the end of the month, abundant in August and gradually dwindles through September. Present in the tow nettings as well as the water samples. This seems to be erratic in its appearance as Gough records it as č. in April and May (as A. glacialis). The largest numbers occur at $\overline{5}$ and 7 fathoms, maximum at 5 fathoms.
(58) A. Bleakeleyi W. Smith. Only occurred twice, November and December.
(59) Lycmophera Lymbergi (Kütz) Grun. Rare at intervals throngh the year.
(60) G'rammatophora serpentinu Ehr. A littoral species, rare.
(61) Acnanthes longipes Ig. Rare, in tow nettings, autumn and early spring.
(62) Nacicula membranacea Cleve. Fairly common from duly to November.
(63) N. sp. Many species of Navicula occurred through the year which were not identified.
(64) Pleurosigma sp. Several species occurred through the year.
(65) Mastigloia sp. Occurred at intervals in such numbers as to materially influence the records. The large numbers are always at the surface, although in July and August it occurs at all depths.
(66) Amphiprora maxima Greg. Rare, chiefly in antumn and winter.
(67) Amphora ostracaria Breb. Rare, only in antumn.
(68) A. sp. Rare, September and August.

## Gemus Nitzschia Hassal.

The species of Xiteschin oceur throughont the year and. unless entangled in larger organisms, get through the nets in numbers. In Phoocystis, Nitzschia species entangle themselves to a large extent, chiefly $N$. closterinm and a needle-like species which I believe to be $N$. delicatissima. However, when it is entangled it is generally single or there are two together. It is never in a chain or three or five as is often the case with this species when it is free. When not entangled it is not so common.

Fis. 7.-Nitzschia closterium $\mathbb{W}$. Sm. Long and short forms. $\times 350$.
(69) Nitsschia closterimm W. Sm. Occurs throughout the year. Never in very large numbers. Two forms are seen (Fig. 7), the long form with its ends curled slightly and a much smaller form with straight ends. Possibly the latter is the young just after division. In cultures the central part is very often much inflated. It all depths.
(70) N. seriata Cleve. Fairly abundant in Jugnst and September, rare at other times.
(71) N. delicutissima Cleve. In May and June this species plays an important part in the plankton. From July to the middle of September it is fairly common, after that occurring only occasionally. It all depths but largest numbers at 5 and 7 fathoms.
(72) N. panduriformis Grev. Very rare, September and October.
(73) Bacillaria paradoxa (imel. Never in large numbers, but ocens throughout the year both in water samples and fow nettings. Almost absent in May and early June.
(7.t) C'ampylodiseus sp. It least four species of C'ampylodiscus occur in the tow nettings occasionally. Also Surrirella fastuosa Ehr. is fairly common. Ill these are bottom forms and do not strictly belong to the plankton.

## THE PERIDINIALES.

In the microplankton the group of Peridiniales comes next to the diatoms in importance. I very large number of these go through the finest net. and practically all the smatler forms including almost the whole of the Gymmodiniucece are lost. Former tow-net records show hardly any of these. C'eratium and the larger Peridinium species have been shown to be plentiful, but there is a very marked absence of the smaller


Fir. :-Curve showing the arerage number of Peridiniales in 1000 cc . for each month.
forms. This is perhaps the group which shows the loss from the net to the greatest degree. Because of the number of new species and new records of this group I have given the systematic details in a separate paper of this journal (p. 183). Lohmann has described many new forms from the microplankton, and several of these are found to occur here. In most cases his numbers are much greater than mine; also the numbers given in Prof. Herdman's records for Port Erin are very large, but the different methods employed make the two records hardly com-
parable. Plobably many of the more delicate forms are lost, but the relative seasonal abundance is well shown by the curve (Fig. 8) which shows tune as the maximm month, thus agreeing with other observers. In this curve there is a depression in Juty which may be due to the fact that most of the samples were preserved in that month. rather than to the fact that the numbers are much less than in Angust. From September the curve falls and is very low mitil Jlay, showing an almost complete absence of Peridiniales in the winter. Even if some of the individuals are lost the results show well the relative abundance of the species. Prorocentrum micuns which is largely lost in the tow nettings is one of the few which has an autumn maximum, thus agreeing with the observations of other workers (Lohmann, 1908: Ostenfeld, 1913). Table 2 shows the average number of Peridiniales per ce. for each month. These numbers possibly do not show the real abundance of such large forms as Ceratium and the larger Peridimium species, which are often very common in the tow nettings when there are few in the water samples.

The 5 -fathom samples are found to be richer in specimens than the 7 -fathom samples. Usually they are more abundant at the surface than at $\overline{5}$ fathoms, but the species all oceur in all the depths. It is well known that the Peridiniales form a large portion of the food of many of the plankton animals. Actinotrocha which sometimes occurs in the tow nets is a good instance of this, and the species which have just been swallowed can nearly always be identified. The following list shows the contents of five specimens taken June 25th, 1915:-


FLAGELLATA.

"Nordisches Plankton," Vol. ".
Pheocystis is certainly by far the most important of the flagellates, which interferes enomously with the catches by blocking up the tow nets in the early summer and entangles in its gelatinous covering many diatoms and Peridiniales. It also serves as food for many of the plankton
organisms. I have recorded this species by colonies instead of cells, as it was practically impossible to count the latter.

Halosphara bividis comes next in importance, its swam spores occurring oftener in the water samples than the spheres themselves. The other flagellates occur sparingly but belong to the genera recorded by others from plankton and are almost entirely missed by the nets.

Oxyrthis matima I have placed with the Peridiniales; this species and a small species of C'arteria, although not often found in the water samples, multiply freely in cultures where they are often found. The mumbens obtained for flagellates, with the exception of Phorocysisis, are much smaller than Lohmam's.
(1) Phrocystis Pouchetiz (Hariot) Lagerheim. Bexins to be common in the middle of May and contimues till the middle of June, interfering with all the tow nettings. Rare at other times. Not many colonies get into the water samples. The midentified flagellates are chiefly swarm spores, probably of Pharocystis.
(2) Dinobryon sp. (cf. balticum (Schiitt) Lemm.). Rare in . lugust in the water samples in small colonies. I mimute species.
(3) ('arteria sp. A rery small species, rare, in water samples only.
(1) Trochiscin ('lerei Lemm. Rare, September and May.
(5) IIalospherara viridis Schmitz. Not uncommon from September to February. Very frequent in summer, especially the swarm spores, usually swimming freely but sometimes still in the parent sphere.

## COCOSPHAERALSAS.

"Nordisches Plankton," Vol. 2.
Pontospheere IUsleyi Lohmann. This is the only species fomme It oceurs occasionally in summer and in early autmm is sometimes abundant.

Coccoliths of other species are very barely seen.

## SHACOFLA(iELLATA.

"Nordisches Plankton," Vol. ${ }^{2}$.
The usual two species occur fairly commonly in the water samples.
(1) Dictyocha fibula Ehr. From September to December and from March to September. Commonest in September.
(2) Disteplatens speculum (Ehr.) Hacckel. Thronghout the year, except in mid-winter, rather more abundant than Dictyocha. Commonest in September and October.

## RHIZOPODA.

Amœbr, as Lohmann has pointed out, are not uncommon in the plankton. He records two forms, the largest number being 75,000 in 100 litres, but usually much less. He found July and August were the months in which they occur, and they were only found in depths of 5 and 10 m . I find them from May to October, the greatest number being 140 in a litre. However, I have seen them much commoner than this in surface samples in 1915 when they were not counted. They occur in the surface water and also from $\boldsymbol{j}$ and 7 fathoms, the greatest number being from the surface. They are to be found either by examining the water directly or keeping it for a day or two, and, I think, there is no doubt that they are really free-living and do not come from harbouring in other animals. Three forms nccur, one very much more common than the others. 1 have designated them $A, B$ and $C . B$ is very common, A and Conly occurred once each. A prominent feature of all is the form of the pseudopodia, which are all spiky when fully outstretched and in the forms $A$ and B give the anmal the appearance of a heliozoon. However, they were constantly observed to retract and were in reality perfectly soft although apparently firm.

Form A (Fig. 9, A, 1, $\supseteq$ and 3), a very minute species pale greenish brown with very long and exceedingly slender spine-like pseudopodia. Greenish and brown gramules inside. Circular even when the psendopodia are retractect.

Form B (Fig. !, B, 1, :2 and 3). V'ery common, larger than A, hyaline and perfectly colourless. Perhaps this is the same species as Lohmann's No. 2. The pseudopodia stick out in regular spikes, much shorter and thicker than in A. These move in various ways and can be completely retracted. May to October. Haximum in May.

Form (' (Fig. 9. (', 1, 2 and 3). A very clear and also perfectly colourless form with a conspicuous central nucleus. It one end only is a small frill of spiky pseudopodia. These are usually in the same position, but are capable of being changed and appearing in another place.

IIl these Imobre are entirely lost by the nets.
Heliozoa indet. Rare, only in November.
Foreminiferc indet., incluting Polystomelle sp., occurred fairly frequently in the tow nets, especially in winter when they were stirred ul from the bottom.


FIG. 9.-Amebre from the plankton. A. 500 , B and C , 350 .

## RADIOLARIA.

"Nordisches Plankton," Vols. :3 and 17.
(1) Actuthochiasma fusiforme Haeckel. It intervals throughout the year. sometimes abundant in June and October.
(2) Lithomelisst setosa Jörg. Rare, November and December.
(3) Amphimelissa setosa (leve. Rare, October to May.

## SuCTORIA.

" Nordisches Plankton," Vol. 16.
(1) Paracineta limbata Maup. Rare. November to January.
( ${ }^{2}$ ) Acenita tuberosa Ehr. v. Fraiponti (Fr.). Only once in October.
(3) Ephelota crustaceorum Haller. Once in November on the legs of a C'opepod.

## Infusoria.

" Nordisches Plankton." Vol. I5.
The Thintimoidea are much the most abmondant of the Infusoria, as Lohmam found. However, a large number of small Infusoria are lost completely by the nets, and these are fairly common in the water samples. Many of them are exceedingly fragile and very easily destroved. Prohably many of them are lost. Imong those commonly fombl is a small species of Mesodinimm allied to M. peler. which is very difficult to combt as it jumps about and collapses before it can be preserved. Species of Laboed are also common. Others midentified are many and varied.

Tintimopsis rentricose which is common in the water samples as well as the tow nettings has a maximmon of 300 in a litre in June Lohmann found its maximum was 8800 in 100 litres. However, T. beroidea at Kiel had a maximum of $1,200,000$ per 100 litres, while here its maximmm number was 460 in a litre.

Several of the species originally described by Lohmam are found to occur here and some of Leegaard's newly described species of Laboca and its allies. The abmadance of these small Infusoria as found by (iran from the Dutch waters does not agree with our records.
(1) Lachymerio sp. Only occurred once, water samples, May.
(2) (coleps sp. A small species shapert like a flower-pot with square ends. water samples, rare, ingust.
(3) Tiarima fusus ('l. and L. Fairly fommon in Augnst and September, rare in Jnly and October, chiefly in water samples.
(!) Mesodizium sp. Common in water samples.
(5) Sussulu sp. Rare from May to Ingust, water samples.
(5) Strombidium caudutum From. Rare in summer, water samples.

## Genns Laboea Lohmamn.

The species of this genms, so far as I have seen, all have a yellow colour. They are common in the summer but occur all through the year although very rare in winter. Some of the most delicate of the Iufusoria. Never found in the tow nettings.
(7) Laboea conica Lohm. The commonest species of the genus. Occurs fairly often through the summer. but never in large numbers.
(8) L. strobila Lohm. Occasionally from July to November and also in Jannary
(9) L ucuminata Leegaard. Occasionally through the year, chiefly in May.
(10) L. spiralis Leegaard. Rare, May and July.
(11) L. sp. All through the year several midentified species occurred, except for part of December and Tanuary.
(12) Lohmanniclla ociformis Leegaard. Rare, only in Iugust, water samples.
(13) Euplotes carnus O.F.M. Once only in July, water samples.
(14) E. sp. Rare, September, water samples.
(15) Tintirnus subulatus Ehr. From July to October, not uncommon, most frequent in Angust.
(16) Timimnopsis beroidea (Stein). Very common, both in tow nettings and water samples. but especially in the former early in November, middle of December, end of March and again through July and Iugnst : at other times not so frequent. Almost absent through October and the latter part of September.
(17) T. compermilu (Ehr.). Occasionally at intervals from August to March, not observed from Ipril to July. Both in tow nettings and water samples.
(18) T. ventricosa (I. and L. Common at intervals throughout the year. Commonest in September. In both tow nettings and water samples, but commonest in the water samples.
 This species is abundont cios. to the shore.
(20) ('. edentu'a Breadt. Once oaly in October, water samples.
(21) Infusoria indet. (hiefly in the summer and early antumn in numbers.

## THE METAZOA.

The Metazoa in the water samples being negligible the following is an account of the tow nettings examine as described above through the same period as the water samples and from the same locality.

## COLENTTERATA.

The meduse are chiefly confined to the coarse and medium tow nets. Begimning at the end of Jannary with Phialidim hemisphericum they continue for the rest of the year until nearly the end of November when they are absent for the winter. (tenophores and Siphonophores represented chiefly by Plentobrachia pileus ant Muggionatlantiea are common in the summer, although Pleurobrachia was not so numerous as usual this year, possibly owing to the April storms and the coldness of May and June.

The meduse are specially interesting because they cary other animals parasitically and thus serve as effective transports. Those chiefly so utilised are C'osmetira pilosella. Phiulidium hemisphericum, Obelin sp., Turris pileata and Stomoloca dinema ; perhaps the species most frequently so used. and necessarily so as they are the commonest. are Phialidium hemisphericum and Obelie sp. Phialidinm serves as host for larval trematodes. larval pyenogonids and larval Peachia. Obclia has not been noticed as a host for Peachio larra, probably because it is too heavy to be earried by so small a medusa. C'osmetire serves as host for all three. Turris pileata and Stomotoca dimeme for larval trematodes. The trematodes are alwars the late cercaria stage of Pharyngora bacillaus (Molin), which reaches maturity in the mackerel (Lebour, J.M.B.Д., 1915). This oceupies the mambrimm and mesoglea. It is interesting in this connexion that E. T. Browne (P.Z.S., 1896) notes that a species of cercaria infects the mesogloe of Phialidium temporarimm (i.e. P. hemisphericum) in Valencia Harbour, and that IIalcampa (i.e. Peachio larva) also selected this medusa, attarhing itself to the generative organs. I find that Incelcampu attaches itself to the medusa margin as well as the inside of the generative organs. The prenogonid Amphia petiolatn Kröyer lives in the larval state tighty folded up in the manubrium of Phialidium, (betio and ('osmetira (Lebour, J.M.B..1., 1915).

## Anthomedus.

"The Medusæ of the World," Mayer.
(1) Steenstrupia rubra Forbes. Begins in April and is common till the middle of June when it disappears.
(2) Hybocodon prolifer L. Ag. Begins at the end of Mareh, is common through April, very common in May up to the middle, then dwindles and disappears in the begiming of Jone.
(3) Sarsia prolifera Forbes. Rare, in Jme only.
(t) S. tuberosa Lesson. Once only in June.
(5) S. eximia Illman. Once only in September.
(6) Slabberia hatterata Forbes. Once only early in September.
(7) Stomotoca dinema L. Ig. Begins in July, is common through the month, becomes less common and disappears in November.
(8) Turris pilenta (Haeckel). Fairly common now and then in June, July and Ingust, rare in September and October.
(9) Bougaincillia brittanica Forlses. Once only in June.
(10) Rathkea octopunctuta Haeckel. Begins in the middle of February, one of the first meduse to appear, beeomes very common in April and the begiming of May, disappears in the middle of June. It, however, reappears in September as a single specimen.
(11) Willsia stellain Eorbes. Onee only at the end of Angust.

## Leitomeduse.

(12) Obelia sp. Medusæ extremely abundant. Begins at the end of February, very common from May to October, leaves off at the end of November and is absent through December, Januarr and most of February.
(13) C'osmetira pilosella Forbes. Begins in May. very common on and off from June to September.
(14) ('lytia colubilis Lamouroux. Once only in April.
(15) Phialidium hemisphericum (Gron.). Perhaps the commonest of the meduse here. Begins at the end of January, is common from May to October and continues till the middle of November.
(16) Saphenia gracilis Forbes and (ionds. Rare in May. On Jime 14th the nets were full of it and it was abundant once in Angust.

## Semeostomer

(17) Chyscuora sp. Once in November.
(18) Aurelia sp). Ephyre. One on January 2ith. (ontmuas fairly commonly from February to the begiming of April, then stops. One occurred on September 6th.

## Siphonophora.

(19) Muggien cilartica J. T. Cumn. Once at the end of January, rare in February, but continues till September, when it is very common.

## ('TENOPHORA.

(20) Plenrobruchia pileus Fab. Fairly common, February to July, and from September to November, chiefly young forms.
(21) Bolina infundibutum Fab. On June 1th the nets were full of it with Saphenia qracilis. In October. 1915, it was fairly conmons.
(2.2) Bero cucumis (Fab.). In Octoher and Novemher, 1915, and in May to August. 1915, rare.

## Zoantharia.

(23) Arachactis Boumei Fowl. Larva of ('erianthus Lloytii licsse. From Mareh to June, common.
(2-) Peachia sp. larva ( = Halcampu chrysamthellum (Peach) of Haddon), common, May and June to the middle of Jaly, on medusee.

## Platyhelminthes.

Amongst these are some interesting larval trematodes which occur in the free state, having been captured probably in the interval of rhanging hosts. Also two parasitic in meduse and in Sergittr, both of which eventually enter fish as their timal host.
(1) Pharyngoru bucillaris (Molin). What I believe to be the free-swimming tailed cercaria of this species occurred once in fair numbers on Jannary -8th, 1916. It is described in a separate paper (p. 201) of this Jommal. The late cercaria without a tail is found parasitic in medusæ and in Sagitta, besides being sometimes free in the sea at intervals throughont the year. Commonest in Jme.
(2) Derogenes caricus (O. F. Miill.). Occurs in Sagilla bipanctatu in the late cerearia stage in June. In old material of previous years it is quite common.
(:3) Turbellarian indet. Occurred oceasionally in Iugust and November.

## NEMATOD.1.

Unidentified trematodes occurred occasionally free in the autum and winter ; a larval Ascaris (described in another paper of this Journal, p. 201) is common in Sagitta bipmetate.

## INNELIDA.

E.: J. Allen, "Polycheta of Plymouth and the Sonth Devon Coast, ete.." . T.M.B.A.. 1915.

The amnelids with the exception of Tomopteris and Autolytus are all larval forms.
(1) Autolytus longiferiens De St. Joseph. Occurret once at the end of Jannary with eggs, twice with eggs at the beginning of September. and one male.
$(\underset{2}{2})$ A. rubropunctatus (firube). Once in Scptember, 1915. twice in November, once in Angust and twice in September, 1916, always with eggs.
(:i) A. pictus (Fhlers). Once in September and once in Nover*ber, 1915. Once in September, 1916, always with eggs.
(t) A. sp. These were allied to A. Edrarsi, a small species, three with eggs and one male, always in September.
(.) Polynoë sp. juv. Once in Derember and once in the end of Mareh.
(6) Spionid larva, occasionally from November to March. Narely in May and July.
(7) Magelona sp. larva. Fairly common in July and August.
(8) Pecilochatus serpens Allen, larva. Occurred in small numbers every month except December and April. Commonest in May and August.
(9) Cirratulus sp. jus. Once only early in Mareh.
(10) Terebellid larra. Present every month, but not usually in large numbers except once in November, then rare till the end of February, when it increases and is very common in May. The houses of the very yomg larvo are extremely pretty, the anmal using all sorts of small organisms to cover itself, especially
diatoms, but sometimes the case is entirely of sponge spicules. As the worm grows the house becomes transparent and hyaline.
(11) Pectinariu sp. larva. Only found rarely in October and December.
( 12 ) Amelid larva indet. Occurred occasionally but particularly from January to the end of March when they were at times abundant in very young stages.
(13) Tomopteris heligolendicus (ireef. Begins in the middle of June and is very common in July, rare in September and October. Young forms chiefly from July to September.

## ('HATOGN.ITHA.

Sragitta bipmetuta (Q. \& (1.). Present throughout the year, scarce in most of March, April, May and Jume. Very common most of the rest of the year.
POLSZO.I.

Cyphomutes larva. Fainly common from September to the end of March, rare from Ipril to Angust. Commonest at the ent of March.

## PHORONOIDEA.

Actinotrochu larra. Only seen in July and September, 1916. More common in 191.).

ROTIFERA.
Signolieta sp. Rare, September, October and March.

> CRUSTACEA.
> COPEPODA.

## Sars, (i. O., " ('rustacea of Norway, Copepoda."

(1) C'alumus finmurchicus Gunner. Common on and off from the end of April to the begimning of November, generally present in small numbers at other times.
(2) Peraculemus pervus Clans. L'musually scarce this year except at certain times. Very common in May, common parts of August. September and October. Very common for part of November. then becomes rare or absent.
(3) Pseudocalanus clongatus Boeck. Perhaps the commonest copepod here. Exceedingly common all through the year except from the middle of May to the end of Duly, when it becemes rarer and is sometimes absent.
(4) Centropages typicus Kröyer. Common in September and October, 1915. scarce or absent through the winter, rather more abundant in May, becoming rare again in Angust.
(5) C. hamatus Lillj. Common in September and October, 1915, then absent until August, when it is very common on the 16 th.
(6) Isias clavipes Boeck. Fairly common in May, rare in June.
(7) Temora longicomis Miiller. Very common all throngh the summer and in the middle of February, common in parts of November, but rather rare in winter.
(8) Anomalocera Patersoni Templeton. From September to the beginning of November; not common.
(9) Labidocera Wollastoni Lubb. Not common, in July.
(10) Candacia armata Boeck. Rare through the winter, common in July and September.
(11) Parapontella brevicornis Lubb. Common in February and March and occasionally in May, otherwise rare ; absent from October to February.
(12) Acartia clausii Giesbr. I find this species of Acartic the only one present in 1916. It is exceedingly abundant most of the year, very common on and off from May to the beginning of January and very seldom absent altogether.
(13) Longipedia Scotti G. O. Sars. Once only in Febrnary.
(14) $L$. minor Scott. Once in water samples and once in the tow nets, June.
(15) Eutcrpina acutifrons (Dana). Rare, October to December.
(16) Idyaa furcata Baird. Once only in December.
(17) Amphiascus similis Claus. Rare, September and October.
(18) Oithona similis Claus. More or less common throughout the year except from November to January. Very common in the middle of February and the middle of May.
(19) O. nana Grubb. Rare, January to May.
(20) O. plumifera Baird. Rare, from February to May, and in September.
(21) Coryceus anglicus Lubb. Present most of the year. but rarest in the summer. Through October and November it agrees with Pseudocalames in its abundance, but becomes scarce in December.
(22) Thaumaleus longispinosus Brown. Once only in September, 1915, with eggs.
(23) Culigus rapax M. Edw. Free in the tow nettings in September, December and March. On one occasion a female with eggs was present ; an unusual occurrence in the free state.

Copepod nauplii are common on and off for most of the year. It the end of Jamary they were very abundant, also at the end of May and beginning of July. Calanus and Temora are the commonest forms identified.

## Cirripedia.

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\text { "Nordisches Plankton," Vol. } 11 .
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Balanns namplii occur in the beginning of February, are very common in the middle of February and continue till the beginning of May, when they dwindle and disappear except for a straggler or two in June. In the end of July they reappear and stay till the beginning of October. Cypris stages begin in the end of April and continue until the end of May, are rarer in June and disappear in July. A few were seen in September and February. The fact that there are two seasons for these larvæ (which is borne out by other Plymouth records) probably means that the July forms are a different species, as at Port Erin only the spring larvæ occur.

Cladocera.
"Nordisches Plankton," Vol. 1.
(1) Ecadue Nordmanni Lovern. Begins in the end of April and grows very common in Hay, is common through the summer until the middle of September when it disappears.
(2) Podon intermedius Lillj. Very similar in occurrence to Evadne, but is more freguent in Angust and September.

Amphipoda.
Saris, (tr. O., "Crustacea of Norway, Amphipoda."
(1) Aphorush bispinosa (Rate). Occurred once in October and once in dantary.
(2) A. C'lerii Sars. A few specimens once in August and twice in June.
(3) C'upmellu sp. Once at the end of August.

Amphipoda indet. Rarely in April and September.

## Isoloda.

## "Nordisches Plankton," Vol. 14.

(1) Idotea viridis (Slabber). Rave in November and March.
(2) Guathia maxillaris (Mont.). Young larva, free, rare, December. Praniza larva once in the middle of May.
(3) Microniscus sp. On Copepeds, chiefly C'alemus, Acartia and Pseudocalanus, from September to December, rare in March, most frequent in September.
(4) Bopyrine sp. Rare, January and February.

## Cumacea.

> Sars, C. O., "C'rustacea of Norway, Cumacea."
(1) Psendocuma cercariu ( P . (. . van Ben). Very rare, September aud February.

## Schizopoda.

> "Nordisches Plankton." Vol. 12.
(1) Nyctiphunes Couchii T. Bell. Not common. in the begimning of May only, immature.
(2) Macropsis Slabberi! Van Ben. Rare, December only.
(3) Siriella Clausii (i. O. Fars. Once only in October.
(1) Leptonysis matiterrance (4. O. Sars. Not common, November to Jannary.

Euphausicder larvæ. Not common, October, November, March to May and August.

## Stomatopoda.

Squilla Desmaresti Risso. larva. Once only in October, 1915.

## Macrura.

These are all larval forms: starting with Carcinus maras early in January they gradually increase and are very common through the spring and early summer, and although plentiful through August and September, fall off considerably in October, being only represented by stray stragglers through the winter.
(1) Leander sp. larva. On and off from May to November. Single specimens at the end of February. Commonest in Julv.
(2) Galuthca sp. larva (Sars, (!. O., "Bidrag til Kundskaben om Decapodernes Forhandlingar," Arch. Math. Naturw., 1.3, 1889-90). Begins at the end of January and continues common till May, when it dwindles and disappears inSeptember, commonest in March.
(3) Eupegurus sp. larva (Sars, ibid., 1889-90). Very rare at the beginning of January, continues rare through March to the end of April when it is common, continues fairly common till the middle of May, rare from June to October. Older stages occasionally in the summer.
(土) Hippolyte sp. larva (Sars, " Account of the Postembryonal Development of Hippolyte varians Leach," Irch. Math., etc., 32, 1911). Common June to September, sperially abundant in September. continues into November, and was found twice in December, rare in the spring.
(5) Crangon vulyaris L. larve (Sars, "Bidrag til Kundskaben om Decapodernes Forhandlingar," Arch. Math., etc., 14, 1890). From February to September, never very common.
(6) Egeon fasciatus Risso, larva (Gurney, R., "The Metamorphoses of the Decapod Crustaceans Egeon (Crangon) fasciatus, etc.," P.Z.S., Vol. II, 1903). One specimen in January. On and off from May to September.
(i) Ceraphitus namus (Kröyer), larva (Sars, ibid., No. 14). Rare, September and October.

Crangonidæ larvæ indet. Occurred occasionally from June to October.

Other Nacruran larva indet. chiefly allied to Hippolyte, common in July and August.
(8) Jaxea noctiana, Trachilifer larva (Bouvier, J.M.B. А., X, N.S., 1913). Occurred once on August 16th. 1916. Unusual to find it so far inland.

## Brachyvra.

(9) Porcelluna sp. zoea (Sars, itid., 13). One specimen on March 23rd, then begins at the end of April and in June and July is very common, continues till the middle of October.
(10) Eurynome aspera (Penn.) zoea (Cano, (.., "Sviluppo æ Morphologia degli Oxyrhynchi," Mitt. Zool. Stat. Neapel, X, 1893). Rare, March and July.
(11) C'ancer payurus L. zoea (Pearson, J., " Memoir on ('ancer the Edible (Trab," 16th Lancs Sea Fish. Lab. Rep. for 1907). From the middle of January to Miarch, common.
(1:) Portumus sp. zoea (Williamson, C. H., "Report on Larval and Later Stages of Certain Decapod Crustacea," 28th Amm. Rep. Fish. Board Scotland, 1907). Many species, begin early in March. become very common in April and continue till September, less common from October to November, after which they disappear.
(13) Carcinus mamus Leach zoea (Williamson, C. H.. "On the Larval and Early Foung Stages and Rate of (irowth of the Shore Crab * (Carcinus mœnas Leach) 21st Ann. Rep. of Fish. Board for Scotland, 1903). The first of the Brachyura larve to appear, arrives early in January, is specially abundant in February and continues till May, after that very scarce.
(14) Corystes cassivelamus (Penn.) zoea (Gumer, R.. "The Metamorphosis of Corystes cassivelaunus (Pemn.)," Q.J.MI. ©., 1903). From the middle of February to July, fairly common, rare in September.

Brachyura zoea indet. With a long spine like Corystes fairly common in September.

Negalopa indet. Scarce, from Mar to Norember.

## PYC'NOGONIDA.

Norman, A. M., "The Podosomata ( $=$ Pycnogonida) of the Temperate, Itlantic and Arctic Oceans," J. of the Limn. Soc. Zool., Vol. XXX.
(1) Anaphia petiolata (Kröyer) jus. In Jnne, September and October free, with the hind legs not fully developed. In the larval stage living in meduse common from July to September.
(-) Pallene brevirostris Johnston. Occurred once at the end of October.

## Mollusca.

Polycera quadritineata (Miill.). Once only in September, 191.).
Larval Gustcropoda. On and off nearly all the rear, commonest in July. Rare in mid-winter.

Larval Lomellibranchiala. On and off, not very common for most of the year. Commonest in September, rare in winter.

Limacina batea Miiller retroversa (Flemm.). Common in the middle of September, 1915. Occurred occasionally from July to October. Common once in Augnst, 1916.

## ECHINODERMITA.

Holothurian juv. Rare in December and January.
Ophiopluteus. Begins in March, very common towards the end of the month, dwindles in April and disappears in May. Occurs again in August and September, common in September.

Echinoplutens. I few occurred once in the middle of November, 191.5, begins in May, not common. Very common at intervals in July and August.

Auriculariu. Rare, January and February.
Very young Echinoderm larvæ in March.

## TUNICATA.

Oikoplenter dioict Fol. Common from Febrnary to May and from August to September, otherwise not very common and occurring at intervals. Commonest in early April and early dugust.

Appendicularian indet. Rare in August till November, and in February. Fish eggs and young fish were occasionally present.

A Survey of the Plankton in each month both from waler semples and tor nets. 1915. Sepuember (21st to 30th).

Winds mainly S. and S.E. Weather fairly fine. Shows both groups of diatoms. Coscinodiseus species, Biddulphia mobiliensis and regia begimning, Phirosolenia which is amost at the end of its season not common except $R$. Stolterfothit, which is still abundant. Sheletonemu, C'hetoceras constrictum and Asterionella common, Paralia fairly common. Tery few Peridiniales cxcept Prorocentrum micums which is near its maximum and C'eratium fusus. Of the other unicellular groups Laboea species oceur in small numbers, Tintinnopsis rentricosa is abundant and Pontosphara Huxleyi occurs singly several times.

Of the Coelenterates Phialidium hemispherictum and Obelia meduse with young Pleurobruchia are common, but no other species. Amongst the Amelids Autolytus longiferiens and mbromenctutus occur singly with eggs and a few larvæ of various kinds are present. Sayitt is very common, Cyphoncutes present but not abundant.

Many copepods occur, Acertia, Calams and Psendoculanus are the commonest, also common are Centropages typicus and hamatus and Temore and Corycens is common at the end of the month. Brachyura zoeæ and the larva of Hippolyte are common, Porcellam zoex and Podon intermedius are common in the middle of the month and dwindle or
disappear at the end. Limacina balea f. retrocersa was common once in the middle of the month.

Chief forms---Asterionella japonica. Chatoceras constricium, Rhizosolenia Stolterfothii, Skeletoneme costatum. Prorocentrum micans, Phistlidium hemisphericum, Obelia sp., Sugita bipunctatn, Calanns fimmarchicus, Pseudocalamus elongatus. Acartia Clausii. Centropages typicus, Brachyura zoeæ and Hippolyte larvæ.

## October.

S.E. winds prevalent. ('hiefly fine weather. Asterionella common until the middle, then dwindles and disappears. Biddulphin species not yet common. Chatoceras species common at the beginning and fall off in numbers towards the end, Lithodesmium undulatum common until the middle, Mastigloia sp. very abundant from the middle to the end of the month.

Nitzschia closterium common. Paralia on the increase. Rhi:osolenin Stolterfothii common at the beginning but absent at the end. Sheletoneme common and Streptothece thamensis present with it nearly all the month. Of the Peridiniales Ceratium bucephalum is fairly common. ('. fusus present in small numbers, Prorocentrmm micans continually present, Peridinum divergens sometimes fairly common.

Laboea species still present in small numbers, and Tintinnopsis rentricosa, Pontosphara more frequent, very common at the end of the month. Of the Colenterates Stomotoca dincma and Turris pileata ocemr although only Phialidum hemisphericum and Turris pileatu are common. Besides Pleurobrachia which is sometimes common, Beroë and Bolina both occur. Annelid larvæ rare. Sagitta very common. Cyphonoutes continues but is rare.

Of the copepods C'alams is still common, but Pseudocalams, Temora and Acartia are the commonest ; Coryceus is also very common and seems to follow Pseudocalamus elosely in numbers, Centropuges typicus and hamatus fall oft in numbers. All the larval Crustacea are much less numerous.

Chief forms Asterionella japonica. Chatoceras constrictum, comeotutum and densum at the begimning, Mastigloia sp. from the middle of the month, Nitzschia closterium, Skeletonewa costatam. C'eratiem bucephatum, Prorocentrum micans, Phialidium hemisphericum, Obetia sp., Sagitta bipunctata, Calanus fimmarchicus, Temora Imyicomis. Pscudocalamis elongatus, Coryceus anylicus and Acartia Clausii.

## November.

N.E. winds prevalent. Mostly cold.

Asterionella much reduced in numbers. Biddulphia mobitiensis and regia both come on and are very common from the middle to the end of the month. Chatoceras species greatly reduced, almost disappearing. Guinardia common towards the end of the month, also Iyalodiscus stelliger, Mastigloia sp. in large numbers at the beginning, absent after the 8th. Paralia becomes abundant, Skeletonema very common with Streptotheca common also. Ceratium bucephalum and Prorocentrum micans much scarcer, the latter absent altogether at the end of the month. Tintimopsis beroidea very common at times through the month. Hardly any coelenterates except Phialidium and Obelic, and these disappear at the end of the month. Autolytus pictus and mbropunctutus appear with eggs. Sagitta very common, copepods abundant, Calanus becoming scarce, C'entropages ahmost absent, Paracalamus common, Acartia, Pseudocalanus and Coryeeus very common. Crustacea larvx practically absent.

Chief forms-Biddulphia species, Guinardia flaccida. Hyaludiscus stelliger. Mastigloia sp., Paralia sulcata. Sheletonema costatum, Streptotheca thamensis, Tintinnopsis beroidea, Sagitta bipunctata, Paracalanus parvus. Pseudocalames clongatus, Acartio Clausii and Coryceus anglicus.

## December.

S.W. winds prevalent. A good deal of overcast and showery weather.

Biddulphia mobiliensis very common, regia not so common, sinensis rare. Chcetoceras almost absent, Coscinodiscus species begin to be common, especially $C$. excentricus, Rhizosolenia Stolterfothii which has been dwindling in numbers disappears at the end of the month. Sheletonema common early, rare at the end of the month. All Peridiniales rare. Tintinnopsis beroidea common till the middle of the month. Copepods scarce except Pseudocalanus and Acartic, ('alamus rare and absent for a large part of the month.

Chief forms-Biddulphia mobiliensis. ('oscinodiscus excentricus, skeletonema costatum. Tintimopsis beroidea, Sagita bipunctata, Pseudocalanus elongatus and Acartia Clausii.

## 1916. January.

Nearly all S. and S.W. winds. Weather mostly fine.
Biddulphia mobitiensis and regia common. Coscinodiseus excentricus common, Paratia common, Skeletonema rare until the end of the month
when it becomes common again. Streptotheca following it in much the same abundance, Thalassiothrix common at the end of the month. Peridiniales practically absent. One specimen of Muggiace utlantica at the end of the month, one Aurelia ephyra on the 2.th. Sugittu very rommon. Copepods rare except Pseudocalanus, nauplius stages increase and are very common at the end of the month, zoea stage of Carcinus monas and C'ancer pagurus begins in the middle of the month. Galathea larva begins at the end. Young fish and fish eggs present.

Chief forms-Biddulphia mobiliensis and regia, C'oscinodiscus excentricus. Paralia sulcata, Setgitta bipunctata. Psendocalanus elongatus. copepod nauplii, Brachyura zoeæ and Galather larvæ in the second half of the month.

## February.

S. and S.W. winds at the beginning, N.E. at the end. Stormy weather mostly till the end of the month.

Biddulphia mobiliensis and regia common, sinensis more frequent. Chatoceras begins again at the end of the month, C. curvisetnin, concolutum and teres common. ('oscinodiscus excentricus common, radiatus fairly common. Parcilia common, Sheletonema and Streptotheca very common. Thalassiothrix common at the end of the month. Practically no Peridiniales. Single specimens of Phirtidium and Obelia. Rathkea octopanctata becomes common at the end of the month. Ephyree of Aurelia present on the 10th and increase at the end of the month. Pleurobrachia and MIagyiara present. Sayitta not so common, Terebellid, larvæ fairly common, Cyphonautes larvæ fairly common on the 10th.

Copepods common up to the 17 th, then scaree, probably owing to the N.E. winds coming on. Calanus rare, Temora and Oithona similis very common on the 17th, Pseudocalanus common all the month. Parapontella brevicornis at the latter end, C'arcinus manas zoea very common. Galathea larva common, Crangon vulgaris larva fairly frequent. Corystes zoea begins and Levander. Copepod nauplii fairly common and Balanus nauplii very common, beginning on the 5th. Oikopleura dioica fairly common.

Chief forms- Biddulphia mobiliensis and regia, Coscinodiscus excentricus and radiatus, Paralia sulcata, Skeletonema costatum, Streptotheca thamensis, Temora longicomis, Oithona similis, C'arcinus monas zoea, Galathea larva, Balanus nauplins and Oikopleura dioica.

Here we find a rush of larval Crustacea especially towards the end of the month.

## March.

Prevailing winds N.E. and N. with S.W. in the middle and end. Weather usually cold.

Biddulphia mobilicusis very common, regia not so common, sinensis increasing. Chretoceras currisetum very common, teres and convolutum common. Coscinodiseus excentricus common, radiatus not so common. Ditylum. Brightuelli common at times, Rhiaosoleniu Shrubsolei begins to be abundant in the middle and is very common in the end, Paralia fairly common through the month. Skelctonema and Streptotheca very common, Thalassiosira gravida begins to be fairly common in the middle and becomes very common at the end, the same with Thalassiothrix. Tintinnopsis beroidea is very common at the end of the month. I few Phialidium and Obelia medusæ present. Rathiea octopunctata occurs the whole month, getting common towards the end. Hybocodon prolifer begins in the middle and gets common towards the end. Terebellid larvæ are common throngh the month. Poecilochatus larva rare, Sagitta occurs all through the month but is not common. Cyphonantes very common at the end of the month.

Copepods not very abundant except Pseudocalanus, which is very common, Calanus rare but present throughont the month, Acartia, Temora and Parapontella fairly common, Carcinus monas zoea common at the begiming but absent towards the end, Portumus sp. zoea begins. Corystes zoea occurs through the month but is not common, Galatheci larva common at the begiming, rate towards the end, Crangon vulgaris larva through the month but not common. Copepod nauplii increase at the end of the month. Balanus nauplii very common all through the month. Larval Gasteropoda all through the month, common at the end. Larval Lamellibranchiata not so common. Ophiopluteus larvæ through the month, common at the end, Auricularia larva present once at the begimning. Oikopleura fairly common through the month. Young fish rare, fish eggs fairly common.

Chief forms-Biddulphia mobitiensis, Chatoceras curvisetum, teres and convolutum, Coscinodiscus excentricus, Skelctonema costatum, Streptotheca thamensis, Rathkea octopunctata, Terebellid larvæ, Pseudocalamus elongatus, Balanus nauplins, Ophiopluteus larvæ and Oikopleura dioica.
April.

Winds N., E. and S. South at the end. Between 10th and 25 th so strong that no samples were taken, after that S. wind and abundant plankton. All calm many days when the samples were taken after the storms.

Biddulphia mobiliensis not so common, reyia rare, sinensis more common, Lauderia common, Nitzschia delicatissima common at the end, sleletonema very common, Streptotheca very common at the beginning, rate at the end, Thalassiosira gravida common. Ceratium fusus, Peri. dinium spp. and Prorocentrum not very common but occur throughout the month. Pheoncystis very common at the end. Phiclidium and Obeliat become common at the end of the month, Steenstrupia rubra ant Clytia volubilis occur rarely, Rathkiea octopunctata very common, Arachnactis, Muygiaa and Hybocodon occur through the month but not commonly except Hybocodon at the end of the month. Terebellid larre fairly common, Sayitta rare.

Calanus very common at the end of the month, Temora and Psendocalanus very common. Portunus sp. zoea very common, copepod nauplius and Batanus nauplins very common. Cypris stage of Bulanus begins at the end of the month. Young fish and fish eggs rare.

Chief forms-Chatoceras curvisetum, Lauderia borcalis, Skeletonema constatrom. Thalassiosirt gravida, Rathkea octopunctutt, Temort lomgicornis, Pseudocalamus clongatus, Portumus sp. zoea, Balanus and copepod nauplii.

## May.

Prevailing winds S. and S.W. Sometimes E. and N.W. Weather variable, fine at the end with S. and S.W. winds.

Chatoceras species common, especially C. curvisetum and psendocrinitum, Lauderia very common at the beginning, dwindles at the end of the month. Mastigloid sp. in large numbers from the middle to the end of the month, Nitzschia delicatissima very common, Rhizosoleniu species increasing, R. Shrubsolei very common, R. Stoltcrfothii gradually increasing so that it is very common at the end of the month, $R$. hebetatu and semispina very common from the middle to the end of the month, $R$. alata occurs through the whole month but is not common. Skeletonema very common. Thalassiosira gravida common. Various Peridiniales occur but not in large numbers. Infusoria too in small numbers abound. Phoocystis Pouchetii is very common through the whole month. Amœbæ fairly common. Phialidium and Obelia are very common and various other medusæ are present. Sagitta is not common and disappears at the end of the month. Calamus, Temora, Acartia and Pseudocalanus are abundant, Paracalanus very common early in the month, several other copepods present in smaller numbers. Portunus sp. zoea is common, Megalopa stages appear in the middle of the month. Various other Crustacea larvæ are present, of these Equagurus, Porcellana and Corystes are common. Evadne Nordmanmi and Podon intermedius
are common in the middle of the month, copepod nauplii are common and Balanus nauplii very common in the beginning, the cypris stages heing commoner in the middle of the month when they abound.

Chief forms-Skeletonema costatum, Rhizosolani Shrubsolei, Stolterfothii and kebetata f. semispina, Mastigloia sp., Thalassiosira gravida, Lauderia borealis, Chatoceras curvisetum, Phrocystis Pouchetii, Phialidium hemisphericum, Obelia sp., Calanus finmarchicus, Temora longiconnis, Acartia ('lausii, Pseudocalamus elongatus, Portumus sp., zoeæ and Balanus nauplii and cypris stages.

## June.

Prevailing winds N., S. at end of month. Weather mostly cold and dull.

Ceratautina Bergoni fairly common at the beginning, Chatoceras dwindles but C. curvisetum and pseudocrinitum are still common at the beginning and an undetermined species is common through the month particularly in the tow nets. Leptocylindrus danicus is fairly common and Mastigloia is occasionally present in large numbers. Nitzschia delicatissime is very common till the middle of the month and falls of towards the end. Paralia is rare, Rhizosolenia species very common, $R$. Shrubsolei and Stolterfothii very common through the month, $R$. lebctata f . semispina very common towards the end, $R$. alata gradually increasing, to be very common in the middle and continuing so till the end of the month. Skeletonema not common. Thalassiosira gravida rare. Haximum of the Peridiniales. Amphidinium crassum begins, C'eratium fusns fairly common, Dinophysis species, Diplopsalis pillula, Glenodinium bipes. Gymnodinium rhomboides, Pouchetia armata. Spironimium spirale and glancum all at a maximm. Tarious species of Peridinum fairly abundant. Varions Infusoria occur, although never in large numbers. Phcoocystis very common till the middle of the month when it disappears. Meduse abound, especially Phiclidium and Obelia. On the 1.4th Saphenia gracilis was very abundant, and with it a large number of Bolina infundibulum. The day was cold and dull with a north wind. On the same day Spirodinizim glencum and Dinopleysis acuminuta were at a maximum. The larva of Pearhia sp. (Halcampa) was very common on medusæ. Sagitta rare.

Copepods not very abundant. C'alamus, Temora and Acartic common. Pseudocalanus very rare, Portumus sp. zoea very common, Megalopa stages fairly common, larva of Hippolyte and Porcellana very common on the 21 st. Copepod nauplii not so common, Balanus cypris stage disappears after the beginning of the month. Anaphia petiolata and larval Gasteropoda common at the end of the month.

Chief forms-Guinardia flaccida, Rhizosolenia species, Glenodinium. bipes, Gymnodinium rhomboides, Pouchetia armata, Spirodinium spirale and glaucum, Phiulidium hemisphericum, Obelia sp., Calanus finmarchicus. Temora longicornis, Acartia Clausii, Portunus sp. zoea, Hippolyte and Porcellana larvæ.
Iuly.
S. and S.W. winds prevail. Fairly fine most of the month.

Asterionella very common all the month. Chatoceras constrictum very common, (. currisetum, very common at the end of the month only. Guinatia very common in the middle, not so common at the begimning and end of the month. Rhizosolenia species very common, $R$. alata and $R$. Stolterfothii very common all the month, $R$. Shrubsolei not so common, $R$. setigera begins and gradually gets common, being very common at the end of the month. Peridiniales not so numerons. Ceratiom fusus very common in the middle of the month. Prorocentrum increasing. Infusoria fairly common, especially Tintinnopsis beroidea, which at times is exceedingly abundant. Phialidium and Obelia very common. Other medusie scarce. Calanus, Temora, Acartio and Pseudocalanus rery common. Portunus sp. zoea and Porcellana zoea very common. Copepod nauplii common. Echinopluters common at the end of the month.

Chief forms Asterionella japonica, Chatoceras constrictum. Rhizosoleniu species, ('eratium fusus, Tintinnopsis beroidea. Phialidium hemisphericum, Obelia sp., Portunus and Porcellana zoex.

## August.

Prevailing winds S., some E. and some W. Mostly fine weather.
Second diatom maximum at the begimning of the month caused chiefly by Mastigloia, Asterionella, Chatoceras, Lauderia, Rhizosolenia and Skeletonema which are all very common. Chatoceras constrictum the commonest. C. didymum very common on the 10th. Lithodesmium scarce at the begimning but very common at the end of the month. Rhizosolenia alata is very common until after the middle when it becomes scarce and very rare at the end of the month. R. hebetata f. semispina very common at the begimning, disappears at the end, $R$. setigera very common after the middle but scarce at the end, $R$. Stolterfothii very common for the whole month. Skeletonema very common for most of the month, Peridiniales fairly frequent, especially Prorocentrum micans. Infusoria fairly abundant, especially Tintimus subulatus and Tintimopsis beroidea. Dictyocha and Distephamus begin in the middle of the month, Phialidium and Obelia very common. Muggiaa atlantica becomes common at the end of the month. Copepods abundant. C'alanus, C'entropages typicus
and hamatus fairly common, Acartia and Pseudocalanus very common, C'endacia armata, Coryceus and Paracalamus common at times. Brachyura zoeæ and other cmstacea larvæ rare. Evadne Nordmanni and Podon intermedius common. Balanus nauplii very common at times. Echinoplutei very common on the 10th, Ophioplutei fairly common through the month. Oikopleura fairly common.

Chief forms-Asterionella japonica, Chatoceras constriciam, Rhizosolenia Stolterfothii, Ceratium fusus, Prorocentrum micans, Timimus subulatus, Tintinnopsis bernidea. Phialitium hemispherictm. Obelia sp., Acartia and Psendoculames, Evadue Vordmomi and Podon intermedius.

September (till the 18th).
Prevalent winds W. and N.W. Usually fine weather.
Asterionella much scarcer. Chatoceres carvisetum very common again, other Chrotocerus species not so common. Lithodesmium and Lauderia fairly common. Rhizosolenio species rare except $R$. Stolterfothii, Slicletonema still very common. Peridiniales scarce except Coratium fusus and Prorocentrum micuns which is at its maximum. Infusoria fairly abundant, especially Timtimuopsis species. Dictyocha and Distepthanus at their maximm. Few medusæ except Phiatidtum and Obetia. Muggicea very common. Sagitta common.

Copepods fairly abmodant, C'alanus and Temore common, ficartia and Psendoculanus very common. Various crustacea larve in small numbers. Evolue disappears at the beginning, Podon is common through the month. Copepod and Bultenus nauplii very common. Lamellibranchiata larwe common at times. Ophioplatei very common.

Chief forms--Chetoceras curvisetum. Rhizosolenia Stolterfothii, Skeletonema costatum, Prorocentrum micans, Tintimnopsis beroidea, Aiuggiaa atlantica. Icartia, C'lensii, Psendocalarns elongntus, Podon internedius, Ophioplutews.

The dates on which the plankton samples were taken, with wind and weather, morning tide and time at which taken. * Indicates that the samples were taken from the west chamel. P Indicates preserved samples.

| 1915. Weather. | Wind. | Greenwich time. | Morning tide. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| September 21 P fine | E. | $11.30 \mathrm{a} . \mathrm{m}$. | 1.7 |
| *23 P drizzling | S. | abt. $11 \mathrm{a} . \mathrm{m}$. | 5.38 |
| *25 P fine | S. | 12 noon | 6.49 |
| 27 P fine | N.W. | 12 noon | 7.45 |
| 29 P. showery | N. | $11.30 \mathrm{a} . \mathrm{m}$. | 8.40 |


1916.

| January | 3 P | sumny, heavy swell | S.W. | $11.30 \mathrm{a} . \mathrm{m}$. | 3.36 |
| :---: | ---: | :--- | :--- | :---: | :---: |
| $*$ | 5 P | sumny, sea mod. | - | $11.30 \mathrm{a} . \mathrm{m}$. | 5.34 |
| 8 P | fair | $\mathrm{N} . \mathrm{W}$. | $11.30 \mathrm{a} . \mathrm{m}$. | 8.5 |  |
| 11 P | dull, warm | - | $11.30 \mathrm{a} . \mathrm{m}$. | 10.45 |  |
| $* 14$ | fair | W. | $2.5 \mathrm{p} . \mathrm{m}$. | noon |  |
| 18 | swell | S.W. | $2.45 \mathrm{p} . \mathrm{m}$. | 4.3 |  |
| 24 | fine | W. | $11.25 \mathrm{a} . \mathrm{m}$. | 8.12 |  |
| *26 | nasty sea | S.W. | $11.20 \mathrm{a} . \mathrm{m}$. | 9.38 |  |
| 28 | fine | S. | $11.15 \mathrm{a} . \mathrm{m}$. | 10.39 |  |
| 31 | dull | N.E. | $11.40 \mathrm{a} . \mathrm{m}$. | 1.35 |  |



[a These samples were taken at 4 and 6 fathoms.]

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TABLE I- vantinued.




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# The Peridiniales of Plymouth Sound from the Region beyond the Breakwater. 

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The following list includes all the Peridiniales identified in the plankton throughout the year from September, 1915, to September, 1916, from the water samples, details of which will be foum in another paper in the same journal (p. 133). Also from the plankton in the tow nets in the same year and a portion of the summer 1915. As is shown in the abovementioned paper, the summer is the time for nearly all the Peridiniales, June being the maximum month. After October very few are seen in the water samples, although in the tow nettings the larger and stronger forms, such as Ceratium and Peridinium, are still present.

The new and least-known forms belong to the Gymnodiniacere, which have no cellulose sheath. Perfectly transparent and extremely thin cases, however, are often seen which may be close fitting or many times larger than the gymnodinian. Pouchetia and various species of Cochlodinium are instances of this (see Plate II, Fig. 14). The Gymmodiniacea are perhaps the most interesting of the Peridiniales, as many of them obtain nourishment holozoically and often the food can be determined. Throughout June the flagellate Phooocystis pouchetii was excessively abundant, and this furnished food for many gymnodinians (e.g. Gymnodinium rhomboides and G. triangularis, see Plate I, Figs. 6 and 7).

Division stages in this group are often seen which in the genera Gymnodinium and Spirodinium take place usually, if not always, in the free state and not in capsules as in Pouchetia and others (Pouchet, 1885 ; Dogiel, 1906).

Although no special investigation has been made closer inshore, the examination of a few samples of water show that many of the species occur near the land, such as Gymnodinium and Spirodinium species and Dinophysis, besides several species of Peridinium.

In the following list 60 species are recorded. Of these $\overline{5}$ of Gymnodinium, 2 of Spirodinium, and one of Cochlodinium are new. Twenty-one species are, I believe, new records for British seas and 28 are new records for the Plymouth area. In addition to those recorded and described there are many which I have not been able to identify. Some of these are young forms, others collapsed before they could be properly observed, and others were distorted. Among these there are probably many new species belonging to the Gymmodiniacere.

The classification adopted is that of Paulsen (1908) in "Nordisches Plankton." Those marked * are new to Plymouth, those marked N.R. are new records for British seas.

## PROROCENTRACEE.

## Genus Exutiella Cienk.

(1) * Exuviella compressa (Bailey) Ostenfeld. Occasionally in water samples in the summer.

Genus Prorocentrum Ehrenberg.
(2) Prorocentrum micans Ehrenberg. From May to October in the water samples, rarely in tow nettings. Commonest in the late summer. Its maximum early in September.

## PERIDINIACEÆ.

## Gemus Dinophysis Ehrenberg.

(3) Dinophysis acuta Ehrenberg. Fairly frequent in very fine tow nettings, not so common in the water samples. May to October.
(1) D. acuminata Cl. and L. Common in water samples, usually gets through the very fine net. There is a small form of this species which occurs more rarely than the type in the spring and early summer.
(5) D. ovum Schiitt. Occasionally in water samples.
(6) D. rotundatum Cl. and L. Common in water samples.
(7) D. homunculus Stein v. tripos Gourr. Occurred once onty in tow nettings, August, 1916.

Genus Glenodinium (Ehrenberg) Stein.
(8) * Glenodinium bipes Pauls. Common from May to September. Abundant in May and June with its maximum in early June. This species is so small that it abways gets through the very fine
net. It is exceedingly active and lives many hours in a bottle of sea-water.

## Genus Protoceratiun Bergh.

(9) * Protoceratium reticulatum (Cl. and L.). Occurs fairly commonly in water samples from May to September, commonest in Aurust.

## Genus Gontallax Diesing.

(10) * Goniaulax triacantha Jörgensen. Rare, in water samples, May to September.
(11) G. polygramma Stein. Rare, in water samples, May to September.
(12) G. spinifera (CI. and L.). This is the commonest species of Goniaulax. May to September.
(13) N.R. G. scrippse Kofoid. Occasionally in the water samples, July to September.
(14) G. polyedra Stein. Occasionally in water samples, Nay to September.

Gemus Amylax Memier.
(15) N.R. Amylax lata Memier. Occurred a few times singly. Slightly smaller than the type.

Genus Diplorsalis Bergh.
(16) Diplopsalis lenticula Bergh. Fairly common in very fine tow nettings and in water samples. May to September.
(17) N.R. D. pillula Ostf. This minute species is abundant in June in the water samples, very often with Glenodinium bipes.

## (ienus Peridiniun Ehremberg.

Sub-genus Protoperidiniua Bergh.
(18) Peridinium orbiculare Paulsen. Occurs rarely in the water samples.
(19) * P. cerasus Paulsen. This little species is one of the commonest and easily recognised. Occurs fairly frequently but never in large quantities in the water samples.
$(20, * P$. roseum Paulsen. Very like the last species but larger and flatter. Occurs rarely in the water samples.
(21) P. oratum (Pouchet). Common in late summer but rare in May and June. Specimens with broad and conspicuously striated interspaces between the plates are as common as the typical forms and are probably older, as Mangin (1913) has already noted. More common in tow nettings than in water samples.
(22) $P$. pectunculatum Schiitt. Tery rare, in water samples only.
(23) $P$. pallidum Ostf. This and the following species are both common, the present species being larger is commoner in the tow nettings.
(24) P. pellucidum (Bergh). Common in water samples.

## Sub-genus Euperidinium Gran.

(25) $P$. ocecticum Vanh. Rare in tow nettings.
(26) $P$. divergens Ehrl. Abundant in the tow nettings, especially in August and early September. Following Meunier (1910) I have reunited the $P$. depressum of the "Nordisches Plankton" with this species.
(27) $P$. crassipes Kofoid. Not very common in the tow nettings in August and September.
(28) P. conicum (Gran). This species and $P$. divergens are almost the only peridinians to be found in winter : although not abundant $P$. conicum is found throughout the year both in tow nettings and water samples. Commonest in early spring.
(29) N.R. P. Thorianum Paulsen. Rare in water samples in June. Memier (1910) gives good figures of this species. which resemble the Plymouth form more than do Paulsen's. The present specimens have small knobs conspicuously ornamenting the skeleton which are very characteristic.

Cienus Pyrophacus.
(30) N.R. Pyrophacus horologicum Stein. Occurred very rarely in tow nettings in Jugust.

## Genus Oxytoxum Stein.

(31) N.R. Oxytoxum Mitneri Murr. and Whitt. I have referred to this species, a very small Oxytoxum about hatf the size of the type but agreeing with it in form. Only one specimen was found in Angust in the water samples.

## Genus Ceratium Schrank.

(32) N.R. C'eratium platycorne V. Duday. Rare, occurred singly two or three times in the tow nettings.
(33) C'. bucephalum (Cleve). Occurred sparingly in tow nettings in early summer, more frequently in the late summer months.
(31) C'. tripos (O. F. Muill.). Occasionally in water samples and tow nettings. A variety which approaches the form lineata (Ehrb.) and which I have referred to this variety occurs more frequently (Fig. 1). This has a short and straight apical horn, the hind horn nearly straight and the right hom about one-third as long as the left. The usual markings are longitudinal striations from the apex to the girdle, sometimes also with reticulations.


Fig. 1.-Ceratium tripos (O. F. Miull.) f. lineate (Ehrb.). $\times 466$.
Although apparently nearest to the form lineatu, the apical horn is very much shorter-less than half the length from its apex to the girdle.
(35) * C'. arcticum (Ehrb.). Very rare in tow nettings, 1915.
(36) ( ${ }^{1}$. mucroceras (Ehrb.) Cleve. Rare in tow nettings.
(37) ('. furca (Ehrb.). Occasionally, in tow nettings and water samples in summer.
(38) C'. fusus (Ehrb.). The commonest Ceratium here. Occurs both in tow nettings and water samples and is often the only peridinian present in the winter. Maximum in October.

## GYMNODINLACEA.

By far the greater portion of the Peridiniales of this area belong to this group and are missed almost entirely by the tow nets, only a few of the larger forms being retained by them.

## Cenus Amphidinium Cl. and L.

(39) N.R. Amphidinium crassum Lohmann. I have referred to this species, a form between $A$. crassum and $A$. longum of Lohmann, but which is slightly larger than either of these (Fig. 2). The shape of the body is not so pointed posteriorly as in A . longum but not so broadly rounded as in A. crussum, the greatest breadth being in about the centre of the body. The nucleus is posterior as in both forms, and a coloured body, greenish, is situated just in front of the nucleus and behind the transverse groove, with small refractive bodies scattered round it. This is perhaps the remains of ingested food material. A thin transparent covering can sometimes be seen detaching itself from the body. Length


FIf. ...-Amphidinium crassum Lohmann. $\times 466 . \quad \mathrm{N}=$ nucleus.
of body 0.030 mm . The only record so far of this species is by Lohmann from Kiel.

## Genus Gymnodiniua Stein.

(40) I..R. Gymmodinium teredo Pouchet. Fairly common in July and August in the water samples in 1915, less common in 1916. This is the only gymnodinian found here in the winter months, but then only rarely. It turns up singly nearly all the year round. llany abnormalities and deformities occur and a variety of shapes is seen.
(41) N.R. G. pseudonoctituca Pouchet (Fig. 3). To this species I refer one which agrees well with one condition of the above species, but which I never saw with the long contractile tentacle described by Pouchet (1885). It only occurred twice, the first time in medium tow nettings in July, 1915, and the second time in the water samples in Jume, 1916. It is rather smaller than the type (length $0 \cdot 10 \mathrm{~mm}$.). The rentral surface on each side of the longitudinal groove is pulled out into a flap, the left flap slightly longer than the right. The bright yellow chromatophores rediate from the centre. The longitudinal groove is more marked than in Pouchet's figures. The mucleus is in the centre of the body.
(42) G. viridis 11. sp. (Fig. 4). Closely related to the last species is one also found only singly and which is less than half the size. In shape it is much like $G$. psendonoctiluca with a cap-like anterior


Fig. 3.-Gymnodinium pseudonoctiluca Pouchet. $\times 466$. $a$ side view, $b$ ventral view. $\mathrm{N}=$ nucleus. $\mathrm{C}=$ chromatophores.


Fig. 4.-Gymnodinium viridis n. sp. $\times 466$ $a$ side view, $b$ ventral view. $\mathrm{C}=$ chromatophores.
end; the longitudinal groove, however, reaches back slightly o.er the dorsal surface posteriorly so that the hind end is divided. The chromatophores are of a greenish yellow colour, not brizht yellow as in $P$. pseudonoctiluca. Length 0.06 mm . Occurred once in June
(43) G. achromaticum n. sp. (Fig. 5). Related to G. viridis but without chromatophores. Perfectly colouless and transparent, transverse groove conspicuously left-handed, longitudinal groove reaching to the extreme posterior end. Apex somewhat excentric. Body covered with longitudinal striæ. Nucleus posterior. One specimen only in July, 1915.
(44) N.R. G. rhomboides Schiitt (Fig. 6). One of the commonest in this area appears to be the species figured by Schiitt (189.), Plate XXI, Figs. 63, 1 and 2) with the above name. Apparently 110 description of it exists except the short diagnosis in " Nordisches Plankton" (p. 99). Certain aspects of my specimens agree very closely with Schiitt's figures, and I have therefore taken the name given by him rather than create a new one.


Fig. 5.-Gymnodinium achromaticum n. sip. $\times 466$. $a$ ventral view, $b$ side view. $\mathrm{N}=$ nucleus.

The species referred to by Dogiel (1906) as Gymnodinium spirale v. oblusum is from his figures certainly a true Gymnodinium and not a Spirodimime, to which now G. spirale and all its varieties have been transferred. The original figures by Bergh of $G$. spirale show it to be a Spirodinium with the ends of the transverse groove far apart, moreover Schiitt's figure of v. obtusum shows also the same character. Dogiel's species probably belongs to G. rhomboides or else some closely related form. His specimens, however, are very much larger than mine. His figures of the stages in division show it in another form which is also common with us and which I have found in division and very similar to Dogiel's figures. Schiitt's figure 63, 1 is also of this type, and apparently this is the form before and during division. These two forms I have therefore placed together as Gymmodinium rhomboides. The body is elongated. oval or rhomboidal, the transverse groove is only slightly displaced and left-handed,
the longitudinal groove is inconspicuous. The whole surface is covered with longitudinal striæ, those on the anterior portion being further apart than those posteriorly. Remains of food in


Fig. 6.-Cymnodinium rhomboides schätt. $\times 466$
a side view, $b$ dorsal view, $c$ ventral and dorsal views of older forms containing food masses of Phoocystis, d young form containing a Thalassiosire, e division. $\quad \mathrm{N}=$ nucleus. $\mathrm{F}=$ food.
a ball is often seen in the hind portion of the body. Nucleus anterior. The body colourless with no chromatophores. Its food consists very often of Phcocystis pouchetii when that flagellate is abundant, at other times of diatoms; remains of Thalassiosira and C'oscinodiscus were also found inside the body. Division takes place in the free state as described and figured by Dogiel.

This is perhaps the commonest gymmodinian and occurs close to the shore as well as beyond the Breakwater. Length of body 0.040 mm . to 0.050 mm


Fig. 7.-Gymnodinium triangularis n. sp. $\times 466$. a ventral view showing contained Phrocystix. $b$ side view. $\mathrm{F}=$ food.
(45) G'ymnodinium triangularis 1. sp. (Fig. 7). Closely related to $G$. rhomboides, but triangular in outline (the base of the triangle posterior) and without longitudinal stria on the body. Rare in water samples in May. This species had also been feeding on Pheocystis pouchetii, remains of which were recognisable inside it. Length 0.045 mm .


Fig. 8. -Gym odinizm minor n. sp. $\times 466$. a dorsal view, $b$ ventral view. $\mathrm{N}=$ nucleus.
(46) Gymnodinium minor n. sp. (Fig. 8). This little species is transparent and destitute of any sculpture. It is nearly spherical but with the posterior end slightly narrower than the anterior. Transverse groove left-handed and only slightly displaced, longitudinal groove reaching to the posterior end. Nucleus nearly
central ; green masses, probably food material, at the anterior end. Length 0.028 mm . Occasionally in water samples May to July.
(47) Gymnodinium filum n. sp. (Fig. 9). Body long and narrow, tapering to a thread-like point posteriorly. Anterior end conical. Transverse groove almost straight, longitudinal groove reaching about three-quarters of the way to the posterior end. Nucleus behind the centre. A dark brown mass (probably food remains) in front of and at the side of the nucleus. One specimen was found with no coloured body. Body clear and colourless with no striæ. Length 0.065 mm . Rare in water samples July, 1915. Very fragile and easily collapses.


Fig. 9.-Gym odinium filum n. sp. $\times 466$ $a$ side view, $b$ ventral view.

## Genus Spirodinfum Schuitt.

(48) N.R. Spirodinium fissum (Levander) Lemmermann. Occurs occasionally in August and September in water samples. Conspicuous from its yellow colour and peculiar dorso-ventral flattening. Division in the free state was noticed in September.
(49) N.R. Spirodinium spirale (Burgh) (Fig. 10). This species is exceedingly common in the water samples in many varieties. The typical form which agrees with Pouchet's description and figure ( 1885 , p. 67, Plate IV, Fig. 30) is usually much smaller than his specimens and generally colourless, although bright yellow examples are sometimes seen, such as Pouchet himself observed occasionally. The yellow examples are always blunter at the apex than the type which is pronouncedly acuminate. My specimens, including the yellow forms, measure generally 0.01 mm . to 0.06 mm ., whereas Pouched (1883-85) gives 0.10 mm . as the typical size. The longitudinal striations are characteristic,
and green remains of food are sometimes to be found inside the body, also small roundish masses of fat.

The variety acutum Schiitt (Plate XXI, Fig. 66) is also found, which seems to be close to the typical form and more nearly the size of Bergh's (1882) and Pouchet's specimens. Length of this variety 0.14 mm . One specimen which occurred in August, 1915, was coloured a beautiful carmine, the colour ramning along


Fit. 10.-Spirodinium spirale ( $\mathrm{B} \in \mathrm{r}$ h ). $\times 466$. $a$ typical form, $b$ and $c$ v. obtusum Schütt, $d$ v. acutum Schütt.
the lines of the striæ in droplets. Other specimens are quite colourless.

The variety obtusum Schütt is also common but of small size. Length 0.06 mm . usually. Characterised by its blunt apex.
(50) Spirodinium concentricum 1. sp. (Fig. 11). This species is characterised by the sculpture of concentric striæ on the borly, the longitudinal striæ being arranged concentrically round a certain point at the side or on the dorsal surface. Body colourless. Grooves and shape of the body very much like the variety obtusum of the preceding species. A large and a small form exist, the larger form being several times the size of the smaller. Both rare, only in the summer of 1915 .
(51) N.R. Spirodinium crassum (Pouchet) (Fig. 12). I have referred to this species a somewhat rare form which is definitely smaller than the type, length 0.075 mm . (type $0 \cdot 12-0.2 \mathrm{~mm}$.


Fig. 11.-Spirodinium concentricum n. sp. $\times 466$. $a$ large form, $b$ small form.

Pouchet). In shape and contour of the furrows it corresponds and has a diffuse colouring of brownish red beginning at the apex and following the transverse furrow. Faint longitudinal striæ


Fig. 12.-Spirodinium crassum (Pouchet). $\times 466$. $a$ ventral view, $b$ dorsal view.
are present; transverse furrow with its ends widely separated, longitudinal furrow weakly developed. Nucleus posterior. Interior of body full of large granules. Occurs occasionally in June.
(52) Spirodinium glaucum n. sp. (Fig. 13). This is a very common species, perhaps the commonest Spirodinium in this area. It begins in May, having its maximum in May and June and persists till October. A large yellow body posteriorly is characteristic, although this may be absent in young forms and


Fig. 13.-Spirodinium glaucum n. sp. $\times 466$.
a ventral view, $b$ dorsal view, $c-f$ division stages. $\mathrm{N}=$ nucleus.
possibly is only food remains, although it is always the same colour and in the same place. These yellow bodies are also sometimes absent in divisional stages. The body is elongated with a long anterior and short posterior portion, with a few wide apart longitudinal strie. Transverse furrow with the ends wide apart; longitudinal furrow short and with the appearance of a
three-comered bite having been taken out of the posterior end. This species is rather like $G$. teredo, with the exception of the chromatophores which are numerons in the latter species. Cell colourless except for the yellow mass. Nucleus in the region of the transverse furrow. Divisional stages are often seen in the free state, one individual pushing part of its body backward so that a chain of two is formed very much like the figure given by Ponchet of the division of S. spirale (loc. cit.). Earlier stages in division show that the longitudinal flagellum persists as is described by Dogiel in his Gymnodinium spirale v. obtusum. A growth then takes place at the side of the whole body, so that the cell is very much swollen transversely; then division takes place, beginning at the posterior end as a groove and half the cell is pushed backwards so that the chain of two individuals is formed, one attached to the side of the postcrior end of its fellow by its extreme anterior end. Mfter division the individuals are small and may


FIG. 14.-Cochlodinium pulchellum n. sp. $\times 466$.
or may not contain yellow bodies. In one case the yellow body appeared to be dividing at the same time as the cell, which perhaps shows it to be a chromatophore.

## Gemus Cochlodinium Schütt.

(53) N.R. Cochlodinium helix (Pouchet). Occurs occasionally in the water samples in August, sometimes free, sometimes enclosed in a spacious perfectly transparent covering.
(54) N.R. Cochlodinium pellucidum Lohmann. Rare. In the water samples in July and Angust.
(55) Cochlodinium pulchellum n. sp. (Fig. 14). This species was found once only in the water samples from 7 fathoms, August, 1915. It is perfectly colomless and contained in a roomy trans-
parent case in which it rotates freely on its longitudinal axis. It is fusiform in shape, and pointed in much the same way at both ends. The transverse furrow makes three complete turns and is deeply grooved. The longitudinal furrow is inconspicnous, making over one turn round the body. Nucleus nearly central. Length of body 0.05 mm ., length of case 0.65 mm . This species is very similar to Pouchetice fusus Schiitt, but without the conspicuons lens and stigma of that form.

## (iemus Pouchetia Schiitt.

(56) N.R. Pouchetia armata Dogiel (1906). This species, with its characteristic stinging capsules, is common in the water samples, especially in Nay and June. It is sometimes contained in a case, sometimes and more usually, free. Division into two within the case was seen. So far this species has only been recorded for the Mediterranean.
(57) N.R. Pouchetia parmu Lohmam. This is fairly frequent in summer. espeeially in June. The case fits very close to the body, much closer than in $P$. armuta. Division in the ease is often seen. This species is very like Pouchet's figure (1885) of $P$. polyphemus v. nigra, the pigment, however, in his species is red and this is always black.
(\%8) N.R. Pouchetia fusus Schïtt (1895). Occurs rarely in September. Conspicuous from its elongated body and large lens with dark red pigment. In one case the pigment mass was breaking up into small red spots. The specimens seen were always free.

## Gemus Polykrifos Biitsehli.

(59) N.R. Polykrikos Schuarzii Buitschli. Occurs oceasionally in tow nettings and water samples from May throughout the summer.

## PYROCYSTE A Apstein.

## Genus Pyrocystis Murray.

(60) Pyrocystis Lumula Sehiitt. Oceurs oecasionally in tow nettings in August and September in various stages of division in the semilunar cases.

## Incertae sedis.

(61) N.R. Oxymhis marima (Duj.). The position of Oxyrrhis is still a vexed question, and althongh Semn (1910) regards it as a true peridinian, the view is not universally accepted (see Klebs, 1912). In my opinion it is more of a peridinian than a true flagellate, the division
stages of Gymnodinium and Spirodinium being closely related to those of Oxyrrhis. Oxyrrhis marina occurs sparingly in the water samples, but is to be found in great abundance in cultures in the laboratory in which it thrives with the greatest ease. In cultures of Nitzschia closterium especially it flourishes in enormous numbers, the body being full of this diatom on which it feeds.

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# Some Parasites of Sagitta bipunctata. 

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With text Figures 1-6.

Sagitta has been several times noticed as a host for various parasitic worms, notably a larval nematode and several trematodes. Larval cestodes have also been seen in it. It is exceeding voracions and apparently eats almost any animal food, especially its own species and small crustacea, so that it is not to be wondered at if it forms a convenient intermediate host for many worms, and as Sagitte itself is an important fish food it naturally follows that the adults of these parasitie worms are usually found in fish as their final hosts. So far, however, the life histories of the larval forms hitherto found have not been determined, so we are pleased to be able to identify two trematodes belonging to well-known species which inhabit Sagitta as intermediate host and fish as the final host.

Buseh (1851) and Leuckart and Pagenstecher (18.58) have described several larval trematodes and a nematode from Sagitta, Ulianin (1871) a nematode and Pierantoni (1913) a nematode. The latter nematode is probably the same worm found in Sagitta in Plymouth Sound. Busch's description of a nematode in Sagitta is too vague to recognise it, and unfortunately Ulianin's paper has not been available for reference. Lenckart and Pagenstecher mention two larval trematodes from Sagitta germanica ( $=$ Sagitta bipunctate Q. and (i.), one a monostome and the other a distome. Although these are figured, they are neither described nor named. The distome (Plate XXI, Fig. 9) is probably the larval Derogenes caricus which occurs in Sayitta bipunctata in Plymouth Sound. Busch's trematode larvæ found in Sagitta cephatoptera ( $=$ Spadella cephaloptera) were identified by him as Distomum papillosum Diesing ( = Distomum beroë Will (1841)) and two new speeies, one of which he names Distomum fimbriatum and the other Distomum crassicaudatum. Distomum papillorum appears to be a larval Hemiurus, D. fimbriatume
is mot ilescmibed sufficiently to recognise, and $D$. crassicandalum seems also to be a species of Hemintus. As Derogenes is a gemus closely related to Ileminerus it is interesting to find that both inhabit Segille as an intermediate host.

In Plymouth Sound the only species of Sugitla is S. bipunctate (x. and (i. In ISAf Mr. Smith called my attention to the number of parasitic nematoxdes in it from old plankton samples. Ifterwards it was foum to ber very common in the fresh samples and guite the commonest parasite of shafille. It is a larval Ascerris, and in all pmobability is the same species as that described by Pierantoni (191:3) from Sterfilla in the Bay of Naples, and he has also found them from Villafranea, Wimerenx and Trieste. In his brief mote on the worm he suggests that it may be identical with an I Ifmememe described by Stossich from a Pam:enue, one of the Molider. The linal host of the nematorle from the Plymonth Sagille is quite mknown, but one would expect it to be something common judging from the freguency of its orembence.

This lamal Asearis ocompies the body eavity of Sayilla, lying lengthwise, and sometimes is there-guaters the length of its losst. The figure bere givon (Fig. I, Platel) is from a small specemen. The boty is colonrless amd measures is to 17 mm . in length and is very narow. The anterior end is provided with a large larval book for boring ; the orsophagus is long and prolonged behind by the side of the intestine into a blind esophageal sace: the intestine wheh oceupies nearly the whole of the hodys, since the reproductive organs are not yet present, gives off forwards a seeond blind sace, the blind intestine, which rums along by the side of the asophagns. The amms is near the tail, the latter ending in a small sharp spike. The hrain is planly seen as a broad band anteriorly rmming rombl the cosophagns, and just behime it is the excretory porn from which can be 1 wacel the thin excetery duct. A large proportion of the sagitite bronght in by the tow nets is infected with this nematode.

Two trematode larva are also common in the local Sayithe, the larva wh Derogenes varimes (O. F. Miiller) and the larva of Pheryngern bucellaris (Nolin). Both of these inhabit common fish in their adalt state.

Derofenes varicus is one of the commonest trematodes with a wide distribution, and oremrs in a number of different fish. Odhner (1900) states that abont a dozen and a hall morthem lish are recorded as its hosts. Nicoll (1914) grotes twenty-eight different fish as its hosts from the Chamol, Colms, varions Gedidee and a few Plemonertids are the common hosts. It occupies the stomach of these fistl.

Levinsen (1881) records the larval fom of this trematode from Heirmothoe imbricuta, and finds the remains of this annelid in the stomach of Cotlus. It is very interesting to find the larva in the Somd inhabiting

Sayittu, which looks as if Deroyenes curicus had a different intermediate host in the open sea than it does near the shore.

The larger larve of Derogenes caricus which are found in Sugitle have marly all the adult characters (Plate I, Fig. 2), and the smaller ones are found in intermediate stages and are easily recognised. That we have to do with the true Derogenes varicus is placed beyond a donlot by the oceurrence of a mature specimen in Staitto which bears eggs (Plate I, Fig. 4). A parallel case is found in Echiurus pullasii (dreef, 1879) which contained a mature Distomum, $D$. cchiuri (ireef, and other cases of trematode larvæ producing egegs have been recorded, although they are rare. The present specimen has only a few eggs, whereas in the ordinary adult stage in a fish they are very numerons.

A curions fact noticed is that all these larval Derogenes wariens are beset with small spines, whereas it is a characteristic of the adult that although it has sometimes a wrinkling of the skin it is marmed and usually smooth. It is possible that these wrinkles may be the remains of the spines fused together. The spines are specially distinet in the younger specimens.

These larval Derogenes zoricus are nearly always found in the region of the ovary of Sagille, and there is rarely more than one present in each individual, although one may be present at the same time as the larval Ascuris described above.

Pharyngora bacillaris (Molin), the second larval trematode found in Sagitta, is a common parasite of the mackerel in its adult state, and has heen found in the whiting and also a few other fish, except in the whiting, in an immature state. Nicoll (1914) found many thousand of the innmature form in Cyclopherus lumpus. These had prohably got in with the food and would not come to maturity. The late cercaria stage of this worm was found frequently in meclusa (Lebour, 1916) and free in the plankton (Nicoll, 1910). It was also found in ctenophores. so it is evidently not particular as to its intermediate host. Cerearix of all ages were found in Sagitte ocenpying usually the region of the ovary, as is the ease with Derogenes raricus, but sometimes it is inside the alimentary canal, which looks as if Sagitta swallows it and afterwards it migrates through the intestinal wall into the region of the ovary. What I have no doubt is the free-swimming cercaria of this trematode was found once in tow nettings on January 28th, 1916. Sagitta from the same samples contained these cercarize without their tails, and it could be traced up to the ordinary Phargigoru late cercaria stage, such as was found in the meduss and free in the plankton. The free-swimming cercaria is extremely interesting (Fig. 6). It is provided with a large tail several times the length of the body and armed with bunches of


## EXPLANATION OF FIGURES

Fic. 1.-Larval fscaris from Sagittu $\times 60$. A anus, (E œophagus. (E.S hind suc from cesophagus, B brain, I intestine, I.S blind sac from intestine, H boring hook.

Figs. 2-3.-Derogenes vericus from Sugitta $\times 60$.
Fig. 4.-Ditto containing eggs $\times 60$.
Fig. 5.-Free-swimming cercaria of Pharyngora bucillaris $\times 60$.
Fig. 6.-Cercaria of Pharyngora bacillaris from Sagitta $\times 60$. 0 oral sucker. $V$ ventral sucker, E excretory duct, E.P excretory pore, I intestine, I' pharynx, I'T vitellaria, OV ova.
long bristles placed at regular intervals and giving it the appearance of an annelid. The tail is an efficient swimming organ, and the bristles no doubt serve for keeping the whole animal floating. Two large kidneyshaped black eres are conspicuous, the oral sucker has the typical Pharyngora form which is more like a pharynx in shape, the true pharyns leading from it to a short œsophagus and intestinal cœea reaching to the end of the body. The whole body is covered with small spines. In the specimens inside Sagitta the eves have begun to show diffuse pigment as in the older specimens instead of its being in a thick black mass as in the free-swimming form.

Neither Derogenes varicus nor Pharyngora bacillaris have been found encrsted, and it is presumed that the encrsted stage is omitted as the cercariæ develop in Sagittct and the other hosts into a late form which is ready to enter its final host. The first host which presumably is a mollusk is yet to be discovered for both of these trematodes.

Two larval cestodes were also found in Sagitta from the Sound, one with four suckers and one with none. These were not identified. It is evident that we have in Sagitta an exceptionally good host for many parasites. and probably further investigation would be amply repaid.

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* Not scen by the present writer.


# Post-Larval Teleosteans collected near Plymouth during the summer of 1914. 

By<br>E. J. Allen, D.Sc., F.R.S., Director of the Plymouth Laboratory. With s Figures in the Text.

In Tolume X, No. -2, of this Journal issued in June, 1914, Mr. R. s. Clark published an account of the post-larval fishes collected during the years 1906 to 1913 with the Petersen Young-fish Trawl in the neighbourhood of Plymouth. Similar collections were continued regularly under Mr. Clark's supervision, with the assistance of Mr. E. Ford and Mr. F. M. Gossen, from April to July, 1914, and two or three hauls were made in August and September of that year. At the beginning of August. Mr. Clark joined Sir Ernest Shackleton's expedition to the Antarctic and left Plymouth in the "Endurance." The young fishes had for the most part been picked out from the general material collected by the roungfish trawl by Messrs. Ford and Gossen, and it is this collection of fomg fishes which forms the subject of the present report.

In drawing up the report I have followed closely the arrangement adopted by Mr. Clark for the earlier material, and it should be regarded throughout as being supplementary to his paper (1914). For most of the important fishes I have given a monthly summary of the number of specimens captured during the whole period 1906 to 1914, which includes both the figures given by Clark and those now added. The average number of specimens taken per haul of the trawl has also been given for each month. For many reasons, however, these arerages camot claim any great degree of accuracy, but they are, I think, useful as giving a general idea of the relative frequency in the different months. The following sources of error must be borne in mind when drawing conclusions frem the averages. The duration of the hauls has been in most cases twenty minutes, but there are a few instances where the time was fifteen minutes and a few where it was thirty minutes. The error introduced by regarding all the hauls as of equal duration will be so small that it will hardly show in the average figures given.

A more important error will be caused by the fact that the hanls are not distributed with any uniformity over the whole area. The great majority were, however. made outside the 20 -fathom line where the conditions are moderately uniform, but in calculating the averages these have not been separated from the hauls made nearer the shore and in the bays.

Some of the hauls were made at the surface, some at midwater, and some near the bottom, whilst some few are night hauls, which seem to yield larger numbers, especially at the surface, than those made during the day. These circumstances will all tend to diminish the accuracy of the averages, but they do not, I think, destroy their more general significance.

The number of hauls made in each month varles considerably, but from liay to September the totals are fairly large (Table II). The number of hauls made in the different years for any given month, as will be seen from the same table, varies so very much that it is not possible to make reliable comparisons of the frequency of any species from year to year.

Another source of error is introduced by the fact that the material of which the young-fish trawl is constructed is not altogether satisfactory, and the size of the mesh often differs considerably in different samples, so that even two new trawls may have different catching powers. With use also the material shrinks badly, the meshes become smaller and the amount of water filtered through the net (and hence the catching power) is greatly diminished. All these circumstances make the mmerical results approximate only.

T'able I gives the list of stations at which hanls were made in 1914. The Chart Area to which each haul is assigned, is that shown on the chart published in Clark's Report (1914).
TABLE 1. LIST OF STATIONS.

TABLE I. LIST OF STITIONS.

TABLE I. LIS'T OF STATIONS.

table i. hist' of stations.

| No. of haul. | Date. | $\begin{gathered} \text { Depth } \\ \text { of } \end{gathered}$ | Duration of haul in | Loocal | $\underset{\substack{\text { Total depth } \\ \text { in fathoms. }}}{\substack{\text { and }}}$ | ${ }_{\substack{\text { Chart } \\ \text { area. }}}^{\text {a }}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Levilit. | $22 . v i i .14$ | B. | 20 | Eddystone N.E. 4 miles | 37 | R. |
| LXIX. | . | s. | 20 | Eddystone N.E. by N. 6 miles | 38 | Q. |
| LXX. |  | M | 20 | Eddystone N.E. by N. 6 miles | 38 | Q. |
| Lxxi. |  | B. | $2)$ | Eddystone N. by E. 6 miles (Musquito net) | 38 | Q. |
| Lxxil. |  | B. | 20 | Eldystone N. by E. 6 miles (Mosquito net) | 38 | Q |
| Lxxilit. | 29.vii. 14 | M. | 20 | Eddystone S. $\frac{1}{4}$ mile | 20 |  |
| Lxxiv. |  | 1. | 20 | Eddystone S.E. ${ }^{\text {che }}$ E. $\frac{1}{4}$ mile | 20 | s. |
| LxXy. | , | B. | 21 | Eddystone N.E. by N. $\frac{1}{2}$ mile | 25 | s. |
| Lxxyi. |  | $\mathrm{m}^{\text {. }}$ | 20 | Eddystone N. 2 miles | ${ }^{35}$ | 1. |
| Lxxyli. | , | B. | 21 | Eddystone N. by W. 2 miles | 35 |  |
| Lextilis. |  | 1. | 21 | Eddystone S.W. $4 \frac{1}{2}$ miles. | 10 |  |
| LXXX. | , | 11. | 20 | Whitsand Bay E. . | $\angle 10$ | T.U. |
| LXXXI. |  | 1. | 20 | Whitsand Bay E. . | $\angle 10$ | т.U. |
| LXXXII. | " | 1 I | 20 | Whitsand Bay W. . | $\angle 10$ |  |
| LXXXIII. |  | B. | 20 | Rame E. by S. $3 \frac{1}{2}$ miles | 析 |  |
| LXXXIV. |  | B. | 20 | Rame E. by S. 4 miles (Mosquito net) | ${ }^{23}$ |  |
| Lxxxy. | 12.viii. 14 | II. | 20 | Rame E. by N. 5 miles | 27 | 1. |
| Lxxxyi. |  | B.--M. | 20 | Rame E. by N. 4 miles | 26 | T. |
| Lxxxvir. | 4.ix. 14 | ${ }^{\text {m }}$ | 30 | Off Penlee | ca. 12 |  |

Table II, showing the Number of Hauls made with the Young-fish Trawl in each month for each of the years from 1906 to 1914 in which investigations were carried on.


## CLUPEIDE.

As in the previons years the Clupeidæ show a very marked maximum frequency in May and the first half of Jme. A considerable number of specimens have been stained and the vertebræ counted. In all cases these have proved to be sprats, and there seems no doubt that the sprat constitutes by far the greater proportion of the specimens taken during the months in which the 1914 material was collected. This is rendered more probable by the fact that the abundance of black pigment in the neighbourhood of the anus, which Ehrenbamm considers to be one of the distinguishing characters of post-larval sprats, was observed in nearly all the specimens examined. Unfortmately in the present state of our knowledge of the early stages of the different species of Clupea, the detection of a few specimens of $C$. harengus or $C$. pilchardus amongst the large quantities of $C$. sprattus which are caught in the young-fish trawl is from a practical point of view impossible, the labour involved in staining and counting the vertebre of so many specimens being altogether out of proportion to the value of the information which would be gained.

## TABLE III.

Record of Clupea sp.

| No, of haul. V. | $\begin{gathered} \text { Date. } \\ \text { 29.iv. } 14 \end{gathered}$ | Deptlı. B. | $\begin{gathered} \text { No. } \\ 74 \end{gathered}$ | Size in mm. $7-16 \cdot 5$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| VI. | . | I. | 13 | 5.6-11.5 |
| VII. | ., | S. | 62 | 6-22 |
| VIII. (1) | 8.r. 14 | M. | Very many | $9 \cdot 5-25$ |
| VIII. (2) | ", | I. | 220 | 9-5-24 |
| IX. (1) | 15.v. 14 | M. | 54 | 9-22-5 |
| IX. (3) | , | S. | 5 | 12-16.5 |
| IX. (5) | " | B. | 80 | 6-24 |
| N1. | 19.v.14 | S. | 1 | 16 |
| XII. | .. | S. | 460 | $6 \cdot 2-20$ |
| XIII. | . | M. | 406 | $5 \cdot 5-20$ |
| XIV. | 2.5.v. 11 | 11. | Very many | 8-25 |
| NY. | .. | S. | Many thousands |  |
| XVI. | .. | S. | ", " | 9-25 |
| XVI. | 3.vi. 14 | B. | 218 | 6.7-18.5 |
| XVIII. | , | B. | 415 | 6.1-18.5 |
| XIX. | " | I. | 195 | 6-19\%) |
| XX. | 10.vi. 14 | S.-M. | Very many | $10 \cdot 5 \cdot 28$ |
| XXII. | 11.ri.14 | M.-B. | ,. .. |  |
| SXIII. | . | B. | 80 | 14-27 |
| SXIV. | 16.vi.1t | B. | 7 | 14.5-19.5 |
| XXV. | , | B. | 9 | 12.3-18 са. |
| XXVI. | " | B. | 7 | 9-17 |
| XXVII. | " | M. | 31 | 11.6-20 |
| XXIX. | 17.vi.1t | B. | 5 | 14.24 |
| SXXI. | , | 11. | 5 | 11.5-23-5 |
| XXXII. | " | S. | 6.5 | 11:5 25 |
| SXXIY. | 19.vi. 14 | II. | 3 | 8.2-13 |
| XXXV. | , | M. | 10 | $7 \cdot 2-20 \cdot 5$ |
| IXXVI. | 24.vi. 14 | B. | 10 | 7.7-14.5 |
| XXXVII, | .. | B. | 11 | 7.5-19 |
| XXXVIII. | ", | 11. | 26 | 7-16 |
| YXXIX. | .. | S. | 10 | 7-5-20 |
| XLII. | 29.vi. 14 | $B$. | 2 | $10-13$ |
| XLIII. | .. | B. | 6 | 9-13 |
| XLIV. | .. | M. | 1 | $9 \cdot 5-11 \cdot 5$ |
| XLY. | . | S. | 1 | $9 \cdot 5$ |
| XLJX. | 2. vii. 14 | M. B. | 71 | $11.5-35 \cdot 5$ |

## TABLE III. (continued).

| No. of haul. | Date. <br> 6.vii. 14 | Depth. <br> B. | No. 6 | Size in mm. $13-28 \text { са. }$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| LI. | , | B. | 9 | 11.5-19 |
| LII. | . | M. | 3 | 12-21 |
| LIII. | , | B. | 1 | 19 |
| LIV. | 9.vii. 14 | S. | 7 | 13-5-24 |
| $\mathrm{J}, ~$. | " | M. | 3 | 15-16.5 |
| LVI. | .. | B. | $\because$ | 17-19 |
| LVII. | , | B. | 1 | 20 |
| LVIII. | , | I. | 2 | $19 \cdot 5-22$ |
| LIX. | 15.vii. 14 | M. | 30 | $13-26$ |
| LX. | , | M. | 35 | 13-29 |
| LXI. | 16.vii. 14 | B. | 89 | 11-26 |
| LXII. | , | B. | 4 | $12 \cdot 5-17$ |
| LXVII. | $22 . v i i .14$ | M. | 7 | $5 \cdot 7-15 \cdot 5$ |
| LXVIII. | , | B. | 30 | 10-17 |
| LXIX. | .. | S. | 7 | 13-21 |
| LXX. | , | M. | 2 | $9 \cdot 5-14$ |
| LXXIII. | $29 . v i i .11$ | M. | 1 | 17 |
| LXXV. | " | B. | 11 | $9 \cdot 5-17$ |
| LXXVII. | , | B. | 2 | 10-10-5 |
| LXXVIII. | " | M. | 1. | 21 |
| LXXXIII. | , | B. | 1 | 19 |
| LXXXIV. | , | B. | 2 | 21-23 |
| LXXXYII. | 1.ix. 11 | 1i. | 2 | 20.520 .3 |

## SYNGN.ITHID出。

Only six specimens belonging to this family are present in the material, the small number being due to the fact that most of the hauls were made at considerable distances from the shore. The four hauls in which they occurred were made between Penlee and Rame Head and in Whitsand Bay, the total depth of water being in all cases not greater than 15 fathoms.

## T.ABLE IV.

Record of Singnathes rostellatus.

| No. of hanl. | Date. | Depth. | No. | Si\%e in mm. |
| ---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| XXIX. | 17.vi.14 | B. | 1 | $26 \cdot 5$ |
| LXIV. | $22 . v i i .14$ | B. | 1 | $17 \cdot 5$ |
| LXXX. | 29. vii.14 | M. | 2 | $2:-30 \cdot 5$ |
| LXXXI. | , | M. | 2 | $3.5-32$ |

## IMMODYTTDE.

Ill the specimens of Ammodytes appear to belong to the same species, which is probably A. lanceolatus, though as Clark (1914) points out, it is difficult to distinguish between the young stages of $A$. lanceolatus and A. tobianus. Table V. gives the records for 1914, whilst Table VI. gives the monthly totals and averages per haul for all the years 1906-1914 for which records exist. The average shows a gradual rise to a maximum in August and then a sudden drop (cf. Clark (1914). p. 340).


| No. of haul. LI. | Date. <br> G.vii. 14 | Derith. B. | No. <br> 3 | Size in mm. $12 \cdot 5-18 \cdot 5$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| LII. | " | M. | : | 23 са. |
| LIV. | $9 . v i i .14$ | S. | 1 | 18.5 |
| LVI. | " | B. | 2 | 12-17.5 |
| LVII. | " | B. | 1 | 12 са. |
| LIX. | 15.vii. 14 | II. | 7 | 10-16 |
| LX. | .. | M. | 8 | 12-23:5 |
| LXI. | 16.vii. 11 | B. | 5) | 13.7-30 |
| LXII. | " | B. | - | 15-19•5 |
| LXVI. | 29. vii. 14 | II. | 1 | 12 |
| LXVII. | , | 11. | 8 | 8-12.5 |
| LXVIII. | ., | B. | 16 | 7-14.8 |
| LXIX. | , | S. | 3 | 9-13 |
| LXXIII. | $29 . v i i .14$ | 11. | $\cdots$ | 13-15 |
| LXXIV. | ,. | II. | 1 | 12 |
| LXXV. | " | B. | 13 | (6.5)-15.8 |

T.IBLE VI.

Amodytes sp.

| Month. | Total mumber <br> of hauls <br> $1906-1914$. | Number of <br> hauls in <br> which the <br> species <br> occurs. | Number <br> of | Size inens. min. |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | | Average |
| :---: |
| number |
| per haul. |

(: ADID F.
Gadus pollachins L. (i. merlangus L. (i. minutus O. F. Miiller. G. luscus L.

Table VII. gives the records of the above species for 1914, whilst Tables VIII. to XI. show the monthly totals and averages of all the records from 1906-1914. The few specimens of $G$. pollachius taken in 1914 were nearly all taken in April and the first half of May. The maximum frequency for the whole period is in March and April. For the whiting
（ $i$ ．merlengus）the maximum is in May，whilst in June specimens of the sizes captured by the young－fish trawl are still fairly numerous．May also shows a distinct maximum for $G$ ．luscus and $G$ ．minulus．Specimens of all these gadoids are very infrequent in hanls taken after June．

## TABLE VII．

## Record of Gadus sp．

| No．of haul． | bate． |  | G．pollachius． No．Nize in mm |  | G．merlangus． |  | （i．Mischis． |  | G．minutus． |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Vo． |  | B． | － | $6-16 \cdot 5$ | $\stackrel{1}{2}$ | $6-1 i \cdot 5$ | － | － | ${ }_{6}$ | $7-14$ |
| 11. | ．． | II． | － | － | － | － | － | － | 2 | 7－5－10．5 |
| VII． | ．， | s． | 7 | 5•5－13 | － | － | － | － | － | － |
| VIII．（2） | S． S .14 | M． | － | － | 1 | 7 | － | － | 1 | $8 \cdot 5$ |
| 1X．（1） | 15．v． 14 | M． | 4 | $8-10$ | 103 | $5.5-11 \cdot 5$ | － | － | － | － |
| 1．．（3） | ，， | 心． | 6 | $7 \cdot 5 \cdot 9 \cdot 5$ | 5 | 8．5－10．2 | － | － | － | － |
| 1．5．（5） | ．． | B． | － | － | 211 | 6．5－15 | 4 | （5－8 | 1 | 7．5 |
| N． | 19．ธ． 14 | 11. | － | － | 10 | ${ }^{6} 16$ | － | － | － | － |
| XI． | ．． | 心． | 3 | 5．5．9 | 1 | 6.5 | － | － | 2 | 79 |
| NII． | ， | $\cdots$ | 3 | 9．6－13 | 4 | 7－12 | 5 | 15－9．8 | 16 | 5－4－1－2．3 |
| Nili． | ， | II． | － | － | 8 | 5．5－8．3 | 7 | 5．6－6．2 | 158 | $5 \cdot 5-15$ |
| NIV． | －5．v．14 | II． | － | － | 21 | 7．2－14 | 11 | 6．5－16 | 34 | $6 \cdot 5 \quad 16$ |
| NV． | ， | S | － | － | 4 | 8－13 | $\stackrel{2}{2}$ | 8－8．5 | 23 | （i．7－14 |
| SVI． | ， | $\therefore$ S． | － | － | 14 | 5．5－18 | i | 7.812 .7 | 89 | （i） 17 |
| NVII． | 3．vi． 14 | B． | － | － | 31 | $6 \cdot 3 \cdot 9.5$ | － | － | 4 | 5．3－8．5 |
| dvili． | ．． | B． | － | － | 24 | 6．5－11 | － | － | － | － |
| ヘ1×． | ． | 1 l | － | － | ${ }^{6}$ | 7－13 | － | － | － | － |
| XX． | 16．vi． 14 | S． M ． | － | － | － | － | 1 | $9 \cdot 3$ | － | － |
| XXI． | 11．vi．14 | 3. | － | － | 3 | $8 \cdot 5-9.5$ | 1 | 9.5 | － | － |
| XXII． | ．， | 11．－B． | － | － | 1 | 8．$\%$ | － | － | 3 | 65．5－17．7 |
| NXIII． | － | B． | － | － | － | － | 1 | 7 | \＆ | $7 \cdot 6111$ |
| SXV． | $16 . v i .14$ | B． | － | － | 1 | 6 | － | － | － | － |
| SXVI． | ．． | 1 ． | － | － | 4 | （6．2－16 | － | － | － | － |
| NXVIl． | ， | 13. | － | － | 1 | 11 | － | －－ | － | － |
| NXX． | 17．vi．14 | 11. | 1 | $5 \cdot 6$ | 2 | 8－13．5 | － | － | － | － |
| XXXIf． | ．． | 心． | － | － | 4 | $9-18$ | － | － | － | － |
| NXXV． | 2t．vi．It | B． | － | － | 1 | 14 | － | － | － | － |
| NXXV11． | ， | B． | － | － | － | －－ | － | － | 1 | 18 |
| XXSVII． | ＂ | 11. | － | － | 2 | 11－11：\％ | $\stackrel{2}{2}$ | $5 \cdot 35$ | － | － |
| NLI． | $26 . v i .14$ | 13. | － | － | － | －－ | － | — | 25 | 11－8 |
| XLIV． | 29．vi．1t | II． | － | － | 1 | 19 | － | － | － | － |
| SLVI． | 2．vii．14 | s． | － | － | 2 | 2．－31 | 1 | 1） 2 | － | － |
| LV． | 9．vii．14 | II． | －－－ | － | 1 | $7 \cdot 5$ | － | － | － | － |
| LXVII． | 22．vii． 14 | 11. | 1 | 7．2 | － | － | － | － | －－ | － |
| LXVIII． | ，． | B． | － | － | － | － | － | － | 1 | 86 |
| LXXVII． | 29．vii．14 | B． | －． | － | － | － | － | － | 1 | $12 \cdot 4$ |

## TABLE VIII.



## TABLE IX.

Gadus merlangus.
Number of
Month.

| Total number <br> of hanls <br> $1906-1914$. | Number of <br> hanls in <br> which the <br> species <br> vccurs. | Number <br> of <br> specimens. | Size in mm. | Average <br> number <br> ler hanl. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2 | 1 | 2 | $3-4$ | 1 |
| 7 | 5 | 51 | $3 \cdot 5-10$ | $7 \cdot 3$ |
| 30 | 24 | 1009 | $1-18$ | $33 \cdot 6$ |
| 106 | 66 | 584 | $3-10$ | $5 \cdot 5$ |
| 94 | 10 | 2.2 | $6-52 \cdot 5$ | $0 \cdot 2$ |
| 75 | 1 | 1 | 62 | $0 \cdot 01$ |

## TABLE X.

Gadus Luscuss.

Month.

|  | Number of |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Total number of hauls | hauls in which the | Number of | Size in mm. | Average number |
| 1906-1914. | species | specimens. |  | per hanl. |


| March | 2 | 0 | - | - |  |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | :---: | :--- |
| April | 7 | 3 | 3 | $5 \cdot 5-7 \cdot 5$ | $0 \cdot 4$ |
| May | 30 | 8 | 44 | $. j-16$ | $1 \cdot 5$ |
| June | 106 | 13 | 15 | $4-9 \cdot 5$ | $0 \cdot 14$ |
| July | 94 | 1 | 1 | $10 \cdot 2$ | $0 \cdot 01$ |
| Angust | 75 | - |  | - | - |
| September | 85 | 5 | 5 | $4-8$ | $0 \cdot 06$ |
| October | 14 | 4 | 5 | $3 \cdot 1-1 \cdot 9$ | $0 \cdot 36$ |
| November | 9 | 1 | 1 | $3 \cdot 1$ | $0 \cdot 1$ |

## TABLE XI.

## Gadus minutus.

| Month. | Total number <br> of hanls <br> $1906-1914$. | Nunber of <br> hanls in <br> which the <br> species <br> oceurs. | Number <br> of | Specimens. |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | Size in mm. | Average |
| :---: |
| number |
| ner hanl. |

## G. CDID .

Molva molva L.
During the period 1906-13, eight post-larval specimens of Molva molva were taken in May and twenty-two in Jme.

## TABLE XII.

Record of Molva molva L.

| No. of hanl. | Date. | Depth. | No. | Size iu mm . |
| ---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :--- |
| XII. | 19.v.14 | S. | 1 | $10 \cdot 3$ |
| XVI. | 2.5.v.14 | S. | 2 | $8 \cdot 6-11$ |
| XVII. | 3.vi.14 | B. | 1 | 8 |
| XXII. | 11.vi.14 | M. | -2 | $8 \cdot 5-10 \cdot 5$ |
| XXVIII. | 16.vi.14 | B. | 1 | $8 \cdot 6$ |
| XXXVIII. | 2.v.vi.14 | M. | 1 | $12 \cdot 5$ |
| XLIV. | 29.vi.14 | M. | 1 | 10 ca. |
| L. | 6.vii.14 | B. | 1 | 20 ca. |

## ( A DIDAE.

## Raniceps ranimes L.

The single specimen of the lesser forkbeard taken in 1914 was ubtained at the end of July. Previous records of post-larve of the species at Plymouth are all due to Clark who obtained eight specimens in August and September, 1913.

## TABLE XIII.

Record of Raniceps Raninus L.

| No. of haul. | Date. | Depth. | No. | Size iu mm. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| LXXIII. | 29.vii.14 | M. | 1 | 8 |

$$
\text { ( } 1 \mathrm{ADID} \not .
$$

## Onos mustelus L.

All the post-larval rocklings have been identified as $O$. mustclus. The differences between the species are not, however, very well defined, and it is possible that a few of the specimens may belong to $O$. tricirratus Bl. or to O. cimbrius L.

## TABLE XIV.

Record of Onos musteltis L.

| No. of hanl. V. | $\begin{gathered} \text { Date. } \\ 29.1 \mathrm{iv.} 14 \end{gathered}$ | I epth. <br> B. | No. <br> $\vdots$ | Size in mm $4 \cdot 8-8.5$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| VII. | .. | S. | ${ }_{6}$ | $4 \cdot 5-6 \cdot 5$ |
| IX. (1) | 1.).v. 14 | M. | 3 | $6 \cdot 6-7 \cdot 3$ |
| IX. (3) | , | S. | 1 | 6.5 |
| JX. (5) | " | B. | 1 | 6 |
| X. | 19.と.1t | II. | 5 | $5 \cdot 4-10$ |
| XII. | ,, | 心. | 3 | 6.1-11 |
| XIII. | , | II. | 5 | $5-8.5$ |
| XIV. | 25.5 .14 | M. | 7 | 5-16 |
| XV. | " | S | 5 | 6-15.6 |
| XVI. | ,. | s. | 1.1 | $6 \cdot 5155$ |
| XVIII. | 3.vi. 14 | B. | $\underline{2}$ | 7-7.5 |
| XIX. | , | M. | 1 | 6.8 |
| XXI. | 11.vi.14 | M. | 1 | 31 |
| XXII. | ,, | M.--B. | 1 | 28.5 |
| XXIV. | 16.vi. 14 | B. | 3 | 7-25 |
| XXXI. | 17.vi. 14 | M. | $\stackrel{2}{2}$ | $5 \cdot 2$ |
| XXXII. | ,. | S. | 2 | $5 \cdot 5$ |
| XXXVIII. | $24 . v i 14$ | II. | 3 | $5 \cdot 3 \cdot 6 \cdot 5$ |
| XXXIX. | ,. | S. | 1 | $6 \cdot 5$ |
| XLVI. | 2.vii. 14 | S. | 2 | 6.3-8.5 |
| XLVIII. | , | 11. | 1 | 7 |
| XLIX. | , | M.-B. | 1 | $9 \cdot 8$ |
| LIX. | 15.vii. 14 | II. | 2 | 8.8-31 |
| LX. | ,, | M. | 4 | 12-32 |
| LXXIII. | 29.vii. 14 | M. | 1 | 7.5 |

## TABLE XV.

| Month, | Onos mustelers. |  |  |  | Average number per han! |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Total numbe of hauls 1906-1914. | Number of hauls in which the species oceurs. | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Number } \\ & \text { of } \\ & \text { specimens. } \end{aligned}$ | Size in mm. |  |
| Ipril | 7 | 3 | 9 | $4.5-8 \cdot 5$ | $1 \cdot 3$ |
| May | 30 | 10 | 4.5 | - 16 | 1\% |
| June | 106 | 29 | 16 | 2.7-31 | $0 \cdot 4$ |
| July | 94 | 14 | 19 | $1 \cdot 2-32$ | $0 \cdot 2$ |
| August | Ti) | 1 | 1 | $4 \cdot 9$ | 0.01 |
| September | 8.5 | 1 | 1 | 8 | 0.01 |

SERRANID※.

## Roccus labrex L. (=Labrar lupus Cuv.)

One specimen of a larval bass 6 mm . long was obtained in Haul IX. (1), a midwater haul made in the west part of Bigbury Bay on May 15th, 1914. It is well represented by Raffaele's figure (1888 Tav. IV. Fig. 2), which is reprodnced by Ehrenbaum in Nordisches Plankton (1905) as Fig. 7.d.

## L. 1 BRID F .

## Labrus bergylta Asc. Labrus mixtus L. C'tenolabrus rupestris L.

Young stages of wrasse belonging to three different species occur in the material, but there is some slight doubt as to their correct specific determination. The most numerous of the forms is the one in which the body and the greater part of the tail is covered with many black stellate chromatophores, which, however, cease more or less abruptly behind the anal fin, leaving the hinder end of the tail unpigmented. This form has been figured by Danois (1913, p. 155) and there seems no reason to doubt that he has identified it correctly as $L$. bergylta. Holt's figure (1899, Pl. V. Fig. 49) is probably the same species. Ehrenbatum (1905, p. 7) having already pointed out that it certainly is not Ctenolabrus rupestris as Holt has named it. The just hatched larva of $L$. bergylta was described by Matthews (188\%), and it is not improbable that the larva described by Hefford (1910, Pl. I. Figs. 8 and 8a) as L. mixtus also belongs here. In the present records, as well as in those by Clark (1914), all the specimens in which the borly is deeply pigmented, but the hinder portion of the tail is quite free from pigment, have been regarded as Labrus bergylta.

A second form is Ctenolabrus rupestris. This is well figured by Ehrenbaum ( $1905, \mathrm{p} .8$ ). The body is free from pigment excepting for a large
post-anal black chromatophore on the body at the hinder end of the anal fin, and one or two chromatophores at the root of the caudal fin. I see no reason to question Ehrenbaum's identification, which is also accepted by Clark.

The third form, of which I give an illustration in Fig. 1, kindly made for me by Mr. E. Ford, has occurred not infrequently in the 1914 material. The distribution of the chromatophores is very constant and characteristic. On the dorsal edge of the body, at the base of the dorsal fin, there are on each side five large black chromatophores which remain in specimens preserved in formalin. One of these, the smatlest, lies beneath the anterior end of the dorsal fin, followed by two large ones near the middle of the fin, and finally a pair close together near its hinder end. On the post-anal, ventral edge of the body there is a large chromatophore a little way behind the anus, and two more near the posterior end of the anal fin. A single black chromatophore can generally be seen at the


Fig. 1.-Labrus. mixtus L. Length 10 mm . July $2 \mathrm{Znd}, 1914$.
base of the caudal fin. In the anterior part of the fish there are two or three large chromatophores on the top of the head, a row of small ones on the mandible, two or three on the ventral edge of the abdomen, and one fairly large one immediately in front of the anus. A line of pigment extends along the dorsal side of the abdominal cavity, extending nearly to the anus. The number of vertebre is 38 or 39, rays of dorsal fin 31 or 31 , of anal fin 14 or 1.5 . These numerical characters agree completely with those given by Day for Labrus mixtus, and amongst the British Labridx the only other species in which the number of vertebre is so high is Labrus bergylta, the roung stage of which seems to be satisfactorily known. I have little hesitation therefore in regarding Labrus mixtus as the proper name to give to the form we are considering. If that be so the larsa described by Hefford (1910) is probably L. bergylta and not $L$. mistus as he was inclined to think.

Post-larval stages of Labrus bergylta are most numerous in June and July, a few were taken in May and Angust, whilst in September they practically disappear from the yomn-fish traw material. Ctenolabrus rupestris was most abundant in July. In 1914, the only year for which the species is recorded, Labrus mixtus was distinctly carlier in appearance than ('. rupestris and was most abundant in June.

## TABLE XVI．

## Record of Labrus sp．

| No．of haul．IX.(1) | Date． | Depth． | Labrus bergyita． |  | Labrus mixtus． |  | C＇tenolabrus rupestris． |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | No． | Size in mm． | No． | Size in mms |  | ize in mm． |
|  | 15．v．14 | II． | $t$ | 5．8－7．3 | － | 兂 | － | － |
| N． | 19．＞．14 | I． | 1 | 6.5 | － | －－ | － | － |
| SII． | － | S ． | － | － | 1 | $6 \cdot 6$ | － | － |
| NIII． | ＂ | M． | 1 | 6 | － | － | － | － |
| SIV． | 25.5 .14 | 11. | 3 | $5 \cdot 6-6 \cdot 3$ | 2 | 7． $7 \cdot 2$ | － | － |
| JV． | － | S． | 4 | $5 \cdot 2-65$ | － | － | － | － |
| SVI． | ， | 心． | － | － | 1 | 8.3 | － | － |
| NVII． | 3．vi．14 | 1 B． | 13 | $5 \cdot 3-5 \cdot 5$ | 1 | （6．\％ | － | － |
| SVIII． | ．． | B． | ${ }^{6}$ | （1－7 | － | － | － | － |
| NIX． | －• | 11. | 1 | 12.5 | － | － | － | － |
| XX． | 10．vi． 14 | S．－M． | －－ | － | $\because$ | 8－5．5 | －－． | － |
| SXI． | 11．vi． 14 | II． B ． | － | － | 1 | $9 \cdot 2$ | － | － |
| NXII． | ．． | B． | － | － | 1 | 8.5 | － | － |
| SXIV． | 16．vi． 14 | 13. | 1 | 5.5 | －－． | － | －－ | － |
| NXV． | ．． | B． | 1 | 5.5 | 1 | ${ }^{6}$ | － | －－ |
| SNVI． | ．． | 13. | I | ${ }_{6}$ | $\because$ | 6.7 s | － | － |
| XXVIl． | ， | M． | 2 | 6－7．5 | － | － | － | － |
| 入X1才． | 17．vi．1t | 13. | 3 | 6：3 7 | － | － | － | － |
| － | ， | M． | 1 | 6．5 | 1 | 11．\％ | － | － |
| NXXIV． | 19．vi．14 | 11． | 1 | 7.4 | － | － | － | － |
| XXXVO． | 2 －wi．14 | 13. | － | － | 1 | 7 | － | － |
| SXXVII． | ．． | 13. | － | －－ | $\rightarrow$ | － | 1 | 6 |
| SXXVII． | ， | II． | － | － |  | － | 2 | 7．3－8 |
| SLlll． | $29.1{ }^{\text {20，}} 14$ | 13. | － | － | － | － | 1 | 8.5 |
| XLJ゙。 | 2．vii． 14 | $\cdots$ | 1 | $8: 3$ | $\because$ | 9－10 | 1 | 9 |
| NLJll． | ．． | s． | － | － | $\because$ | （i．2－10 | － | － |
| SLVII． | ， | II． | 1 | 5.7 | － | － | － | － |
| SLIX． | ． | II．－ B ． | $\because$ | $4 \cdot 5-5 \cdot 7$ | 1 | $\therefore 5$ | － | － |
| L． | 6．vii．It | B． | 2 | $5 \cdot 5-6.5$ | －－ | － | － | － |
| LI． | ．． | B． | 11 | $4 \cdot \underline{-2} \cdot 6$ | － | － | － | － |
| LII． | ， | M． | 1 | $5 \cdot 3$ |  | － | － | － |
| LIV． | 9．vii． 14 | $s$ | 10 | 5．7－6．5 | － | － | － | － |
| LV． | － | M． | 129 | ＋5．7 | － | － | － | － |
| L＇I． | ．， | B． | 1 | 5 ca． | － | － | － | －－－ |
| LLJ． | 15．vii． 14 | 11. | 2 | 7－8 | －－ | － | － | － |
| LNI． | 16．vii． 14 | B． | 1 | 7 | － | － | － | － |
| LXII． | ． | B． | 1 | 7 | － | － | － | － |
| LXIII． | 2． 2 vii． 14 | B． | 1 | 6.6 | － | － | － | － |
| LXIV． | ．． | B． | 1 | s | － | － | － | － |
| LXVIII． | ＂ | 13. | － | － | $\because$ | 7－7．7 | － | － |
| LALS． | －• | S． | － | － | － | － | 1 | 8 |
| LSXIII． | 29．vii． 14 | II． | 1 | 6 | － | － | 1 | 8.6 |
| LXXIV． | －， | II． | － | － | － | － | 1 | 9．5 |
| LXXV． | ＂ | 13. | － | － | － | － | 1 | 9．fi |
| LXXX． | ， | M． | 1 | 8 | － | － | 1 | 8.5 |
| LSXXV． | 12．viii． 14 | M． | 1 | 7.5 | － | － | － | － |
| WXXXVI． |  | B．-M ． | 3 | $9 \cdot 5-10$ | － | － | 1 | 9 |

## TABLE XVII.

Labrus bergylta.

## TABLE XVIII.

Labrus mintus.

| (1914 only.) |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Mouth. | Total number of hanls 1914 only. | Number of hanls in which the species occurs. | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Number } \\ & \text { of } \\ & \text { specimens. } \end{aligned}$ | Size in mm | Average number yer haul. |
| May | 13 | 3 | 4 | $6 \cdot 6-8 \cdot 3$ | $0 \cdot 31$ |
| June | 28 | 8 | 10 | 6.5-9•2 | $0 \cdot 36$ |
| July | 38 | 3 | 7 | 7-10 | $0 \cdot 18$ |

## TABLE XIX.

Ctenolabrus rupestris.

| Mouth. | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Total number } \\ & \text { of hauls } \\ & 1906-1914 \text {. } \end{aligned}$ | Number of hauls in which the species occurs. | $\begin{gathered} \begin{array}{c} \text { Number } \\ \text { of } \\ \text { specimens. } \end{array} \end{gathered}$ | Size in mm. | A verage number per hand |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| June | 106 | 14 | 39 | 3•-8-9•8 | 0.37 |
| July | 91 | 30 | 131 | 1-10 | $1 \cdot 4$ |
| Angust | 75 | 8 | 13 | 5.5-9 | $0 \cdot 17$ |

## CARANGIDA.

## Caramx trachurus L.

Only one specimen of the scad or horse mackerel is recorded amongst the 1914 material. This was 23.5 mm . long, with most of the adult characters developed, and was taken in Haul LXXXVII. at midwater off Penlee Point on September 4th. The previous records given by Clark (1914, p. 348) are all for July, Angust and September.

## SCOMBRID A．

Scomber somber L．
Perhaps the most interesting feature in the material collected with the young－fish trawl in 1914 is the abundance of young stages of the mackerel，which were far more numerous than in any of the previous years for which records are available，though a number of specimens were taken by Hefford（see Clark，1914．p．349）in June，1906，and June，
 May 25 位后 fun 3 rd．


June 10 th．to 2qttr． 1914

Fig．2．－Frequency curve of young mackerel from Hauls XIV．－XIX．，caught on May 25th and June Brow，1914．
Pis：3．－Frequency curve of young mackerel from Hauls XX．－XLV．，caught June 10th to 29th， 1914.

1908．These young stages were first taken on May 2．5th，when 2．2， 29 and 32 specimens were captured respectively in three successive hauls． The numbers were still considerable in the hauls on June 3rd．After that date they became less，but the young fish remained in the catches throughout June，whilst isolated specimens were captured in July．

The individual fishes were measured，and the results to the nearest

- mm . are recorded in Table XX. Figs. 2 and 3 show in graphic form the length frequencies at each successive half-millimetre for two groups of hauls, the first group comprising XIV.-XIX.. taken on May 25th and June 3rd, the second group comprising 16 hauls in which specimens occurred from Haul XX. to Haul XLV., taken between. Jone 10th and 29 th. The first group (Fig. 2 ) shows a definite mode at 6.5 mm . and the


Fig. 4.-Scomber scomber L. Length 6 mm . May 25th. 1914.


Fif. 5.-Scomber scomber L. Length 9 mm . May $25 \mathrm{th}, 1914$.


Fic. 6.-Scomber scomber L. Length 11.5 mm . May 25 th. 1914 .


Fise. 7.-Scomber scomber L. Length 16 mm . ca. July -and, 1914.
arithmetic mean is 7.15 mm . The second group (Fig. 3) has two modes, one at 6.5 mm . and another at 9.5 mm ., whilst the arithmetic mean is 8.8 mm . It is probable that the mode at 9.5 in the second group (Fig. 3) is due" to the group of fish found in the earlier hauls and represented in Fig. 2, which then showed a mode at 6.5 mm . This would indicate a growth of 3 mm . in three weeks. If this interpretation be correct then the other mode in Fig. ?, that at $6 \cdot 5 \mathrm{~mm}$.. would be most easily explainer
as being due to the offispring of a second shoal of spawning fish appearing some three weeks later than the one whose offspring are represented in Fig. 2. A more detailed analysis of the figures by taking five groups of hauls instead of two, namely, (1) XIV., XV., XVI., (2) XVII., XVIII., XIX., (3) XX., XXI., XXII., XXIII., (4) XXIV.-XXXVIII., (5) XLIII., XLIV., XLV., and noting that the fifth group comprises hauls taken more to the eastward, that is in the direction of the general Channel drift, than the hauls of groups (1) and (2) confirms the view just expressed, though I have not thought it necessary to reproduce the five curves here, the numbers of fish in each group being rather small.

In ligs. 17 are given four drawings made by Mr. E. Ford, representing four different stages in the growth of these roung mackerel. In these drawings the characteristic distribution of the black pigment, the larval teeth, and the other characters by means of which the species can be distinguished are well shown.

TABLE XX.


## TABLE XX. (contimuei).

| No. of haul. | Date. | Depth. | No. | Sizes in mm. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| XXXIII. | 19.vi.14 | II. | I | 1 at 12.5 .5 |
| XXXIV. | 19.vi. 14 | II. | 1 | 1 at 6.5 . |
| XXXYI. | 24.vi. 14 | B. | 1 | 1 at 7. |
| XXXVII. | 24.vi. 14 | B. | 1 | 1 at 7 . |
| XXXVIII. | 24.vi. 14 | II. | 11 | 1 at 6,4 at $6 \cdot 5,2$ at 7,1 at $7 \cdot 5$, 1 at 8,1 at $8 \cdot 5,1$ at $9 \cdot 5$. |
| NLIII. | 29.vi. 14 | B. | 2 | 1 at 8.5, 1 at 9.5. |
| XLIV. | 29.vi. 14 | I. | 3 | 1 at $6 \cdot 5,2$ at $9 \cdot 5$. |
| XLV. | $29 . v i .14$ | S. | 12 | $\begin{aligned} & 1 \text { at } 8 \cdot 5,2 \text { at } 9,2 \text { at } 9.5 .4 \text { at } 10 \text {, } \\ & 2 \text { at } 10 \cdot 5,1 \text { at } 12 . \end{aligned}$ |
| LX. | 15.vii. 14 | II. | 1 | 1 at $9 \cdot 5$. |
| L.VVIII. | 22.vii. 14 | B. | 1 | 1 at 16. |
| L.XIX. | 2.2.vii. 14 | S. | 1 | 1 at $8 \cdot 5$. |

## ZEID ※.

## Zeus faber L .

One specimen only, 12 mm . long, was taken, this being found in Haul LXXXIV., a bottom haul made on July 29th. 1914. For 1913 Clark (1914) has recorded a number of specimens in August and September.

## PLEURONECTID E.

## Pleuronectes limanda L.

Post-larval dates are exceptionally well represented in the 1914 material. Already at the end of April when the collection began 29 and 37 specimens were obtained in one haul. The maximum abundance was reached in May, and in three hauls taken off the Eddystone on May 25 th, 290,276 , and 508 individuals were captured. It is worth noting that these three hauls were taken during the dark hours of the might, between 10.25 p.m. and midnight. During June the numbers obtained fell off rapidly and after the 2nd July no more specimens were obtained. During June also the most prolific hauls were made at night. The details of the captures for 1914 are shown in Table XXI., whilst Table XXII. gives monthly summaries of the hauls made during the period 1906-I4.

## Pleuronectes microcephalus Donov.

Although no young merry-soles were taken until May 15 th the captures reached a maximum before the end of that month, falling off during

June and July, when chiefly the larger sizes were taken. The figures for 1914 are given in Table XXI., and the monthly summaries for 1906-14 in Table XXIII.
The species is more abundant in hauls taken beyond the 20 -fathom line. In Table XXIII. this is shown by the figures given for the month of Nay. The average mumber of individuals per haul for all the hauls is $6 \cdot 6$. whilst the average for the hauls at and beyond the 20 -fathom line is 12.2 .

TABLE XXI.
Record of Pleuronectes sp.

| No. ofHaul.V. |  |  | P. limanda. |  | P. microcephalus. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Date. | Depth. | No. | Size in mm. | No. | Size in mm. |
|  | 29.iv. 14 | B. | 36 | $5 \cdot 5-11 \cdot 5$ | -- | - |
| VI. | „, | II. | 29 | $4 \cdot 5-9 \cdot 2$ | - | -- |
| VII. | " | S. | 6 | $5 \cdot 5-10 \cdot 5$ | - | - |
| V1II.(-2) | ,. | M. | 3 | $6 \cdot 2-8 \cdot 5$ | -- | - |
| IX.(5) | 15.v. 14 | B. | 23 | $5-12 \cdot 6$ | 3 | $9 \cdot 5-11 \cdot 2$ |
| S. | 19.v.14 | M. | 5 | $8 \cdot 5-14 \cdot 3$ | 37 | 5-11 |
| XI. | " | S. | 8 | 9-13.8 | 22 | $6 \cdot 5-10 \cdot 5$ |
| XII. | " | S. | 35 | 4-14.8 | 21 | 6.8-10.6 |
| XIII. | , | M. | 70 | $4 \cdot 7-12 \cdot 0$ | 5.5 | 6-15 |
| SIII.a | $2.2 . \mathrm{v} 14$ |  | 46 | 6.5-13 | - | - |
| SIV. | 25.v.11 | M. | 290 | $5 \cdot 7-15$ | 25 | 7-14.7 |
| AV. | ,, | S. | 276 | 5.5-12.5 | 7 | $9 \cdot 6-13 \cdot 5$ |
| SVI. | , | S. | 508 | $5-12 \cdot 6$ | 12 | 7.5-14.5 |
| XVII. | 3.vi. 14 | B. | 45 | $6.5-11.5$ | 5 | 7-9 |
| XVII. | " | B. | 9 | 6-8 | 8 | $5 \cdot 2-7 \cdot 5$ |
| XIX. | " | II. | 4 | 6.7-8 | 1 | 6 |
| XX. | 10.vi. 14 | S.-M. | 22 | $8 \cdot 2-14 \cdot 5$ | 3 | $9 \cdot 5-16$ |
| XXI. | 11.vi.1t | M. | 14 | $8-14 \cdot 2$ | 3 | 10.6-14 |
| XXII. | ,, | M.-B. | 31 | 8.5-17 | 11 | $10-15 \cdot 6$ |
| XXIII. | , | B. | 32 | $9-15 \cdot 6$ | 22 | 9-14 |
| XXVI. | 16.vi.14 | B. | 3 | 10.5-11.6 | - | - |
| XXVII. | " | II. | 1 | 10.5 | - | - |
| XXVili. | ," | B. | 1 | 12.5 | -- | - |
| XXXI. | 17.vi.14 | M. | 2 | 8.7-11 | - | - |
| XXXII. | ," | S. | - | - | 1 | 7 |
| AXXVII. | 24.vi. 14 | B. | 1 | $10 \cdot 2$ | 3 | 8-12 |
| XLJII. | 29.vi.14 | B. | 1 | 10.5 | - | - |
| XLJI. | 2.vii. 14 | S . | 8 | $6 \cdot 5-17 \cdot 3$ | 2 | $12 \cdot 4-12 \cdot 7$ |
| NLJiI. | ,, | $S$ | 1 | 8.5 | 3 | $11 \cdot 5-15 \cdot 2$ |

T.IBLE XXI. (contimued).

| No of Hanl. XLTIII | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Date. } \\ & \text { ?..vii. } 14 \end{aligned}$ | Depth. II. | P. limanda. |  | P. microcephalus. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | No. | Size in mm. | No. | Sizc in mm. |
|  |  |  | 3 | $15 \cdot 5-16$ | 3 | $9-18.5$ |
| NLIX. | :. | M. - B. | 2 | $15 \cdot 5-16 \cdot 6$ | - | - |
| LVI. | 9.rii. 14 | 1. | - | - | 2 | $9 \cdot 2-11 \cdot 5$ |
| LTH. | , | B. | - | - | $\because$ | $9-9 \cdot 5$ |
| LXVIII. | 2-.vii. 14 | B. | - | - | 1 | 8 |
| LXNTII. | -9.vii. 14 | II. | -- | - | 1 | 8 |

Pleuronectes flesus L. occurred in the following hanls:-V. I spec. 7 mm ., VII. 3 specs. $65-5.5 \mathrm{~mm}$. VIII. (1) 2 specs. $8-8.5 \mathrm{~mm}$.. VIII. $(2) \quad 2$ specs. $8-8.5 \mathrm{~mm}$., IX. (1) 1 spec. 9 mm ., IX. (2) 33 specs, $5.5-10.5 \mathrm{~mm}$.

## TABLE XXII.

## Plecuonectes limianda.

| Month. | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Total number } \\ & \text { of hauls } \\ & 1005-1914 . \end{aligned}$ | Number of hanls in which the species occurs. | $\begin{gathered} \text { Number } \\ \text { of } \\ \text { slecimens. } \end{gathered}$ | Size in mm. | Average number per haul. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| April | - | 5 | 86 | $4.5-11 \cdot 5$ | 12.3 |
| May | 30 | 20 | 1371 | 4-15 | 15.7 |
| . June | 106 | 28 | 199 | 1-59-15 | 1.9 |
| July | 91 | 5 | 17 | $6 \cdot 5-12$ | $0 \cdot 18$ |

## TABLE XXIII.

Plelronectes mitrocephalus.


[^9]
## PLEURONECTID E.

Sub. fam. Botirnes.
Armoglossus sp.
The records for 1914 are given in Table XXIV. By far the greater number of specimens taken belong certainly to the species Arnoglossus laterva. There were a certain number of doubtful cases, but in no instance was I able to feel sure that the specimen should be attributed to 1. Thori or A. imperialis.

The monthly summaries for the whole period 1906-14 given in Table XXV. show a maximum frequency in September with an average of $8 \cdot 3$ per haul. The average for August $6 \cdot 8$ is also ligh. It may be noted, however, that the post-larval Arnoglossus seems to have been more abundant in June, 1914, than it was in that month of previous years, the average for the month being 8.4 in 1914, whilst for the whole period it is ouly $2 \cdot 3$.

## TABLAE XXIV.

Record of Irnoglossus sp.

| No. of haul. XI. | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Date. } \\ & \text { 19.v.14 } \end{aligned}$ | Depth. | No. | Size in mm. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| NII. |  | $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{S} \\ & \mathrm{y} \end{aligned}$ | 1 | 5.5 ca. |
| XII. | " | M. | 1 | $5 \cdot 6$ |
| XIV. | 25.v. 14 | I. | 5 | $5-8 \cdot 3$ |
| XV. | " | S. | 7 | $6 \cdot 5-8 \cdot 3$ |
| XVI. | " | S. | 12 | $5 \cdot 6-7 \cdot 6$ |
| XVII. | $3 . v i .14$ | B. | 11 | $5 \cdot 5-7 \cdot 5$ |
| XVIII. | , | B. | 18 | 1-8 |
| XIX. | " | II. | 1 | $5 \cdot 2$ |
| XX. | 10.vi. 14 | S. - II. | 17 | $9 \cdot 5-11 \cdot 7$ |
| NXI. | 11.vi. 14 | II. | 28 | $6 \cdot 5-11 \cdot 2$ |
| XXII. | " | II.-B. | 27 | 7-11 |
| XXIII. | , | B. | 47 | $7 \cdot 5-12 \cdot 3$ |
| SXV. | 16.vi. 14 | B. | 1 | 7 |
| XXVI. | " | B. | 10 | 3:5-7.3 |
| NXTH. |  | M. | 3 | 6.3-9 |
| XXX. | 17.vi.11 | M. | $\stackrel{-}{2}$ | $6 \cdot 5$ |
| SXXI. | " | M. | 18 | $5 \cdot 5-10$ |
| XXXI. |  | S. | 3 | 6-10 ca. |
| SXXIV. | 19.vi.14 | II. | 5 | $6 \cdot 4-10 \cdot 8$ |

TABLE XXIV. (continued).

| No. of haul. | Date. | Depth. | No. | Size in mm |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| SXXV. | 19.vi. 14 | M. | 3 | 6.5-12.3 |
| XXXVI. | 24.vi. 14 | B. | 6 | $6 \cdot 5-14$ |
| XXXVIT. | " | B. | 1 | $10 \cdot 5$ |
| XXXVII. | " | M. | 10 | - |
| SLII. | 29.vi. 14 | B. | 2 | 9-14.5 |
| ILIII. | : | B. | 14 | 8.5-18.5 |
| NLIV. | , | M. | 5 | 5-17.5 |
| SLV. | ,. | S. | 3 | 6.5-9 |
| SLVI. | 2.vii. 14 | S. | 4 | 8.2-13 |
| SLVII. | ,. | S. | 1 | $15 \cdot 5$ |
| XLVIII. | ,. | M. | 4 | 11-18 |
| NLIX. | , | M. - ${ }^{\text {. }}$ | 3 | 6.5-15 |
| L. | 6.vii. 14 | B. | 1 | $18 \cdot 3$ |
| LI. | " | B. | 4 | $4 \cdot 5-18 \cdot 5$ |
| LII. | ," | M. | 1 | 17 |
| LV. | 9.vii.14 | M. | 2 | 12-5-16.5 |
| LTI. | ., | B. | 6 | 11-17.5 |
| LVII. | " | B. | 1 | 13 |
| L.VIII. | , | M. | 1 | $19 \cdot 5$ |
| LIX. | 15.vii. 14 | M. | 29 | 13.5-22 |
| LX. | " | M. | 11 | 13-4-20.3 |
| LXI. | 16.vii. 14 | B. | 2 | 13-16 |
| LXII. |  | B. | 6 | 15-21 ca. |
| LXIII. | 22.vii. 14 | B. | 1 | $7 \cdot 2$ |
| LXVII. | " | II. | 7 | 7.2-19.5 |
| LXVIII. | " | B. | 5 | 7-20.5 |
| LXX. | ," | M. | 2 | 18.7-21.2 |
| LXXIII. | 29.vii. 14 | M. | 10 | 6.3-20.5 |
| LXXY. | " | B. | 4 | $8 \cdot 2-20 \cdot 5$ |
| LXXVI. | ,, | M. | 5 | 17-20.5 |
| LKAVII. | , | B. | 1 | 20 |
| LXXVIII. | " | M. | 14 | 10-23.5 |
| LXXXIII. | " | B. | 3 | $9 \cdot 5-20 \cdot 5$ |
| LXXXV. | 12.viii. 14 | M. | 2 | $24 \cdot 5-25 \cdot 6$ |

## Table XXV.

| Arxoglossus sp. |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Month. | Total number of hauls 1906-1914. | Number of hauls in which the species occurs. | $\begin{gathered} \text { Number } \\ \text { of } \\ \text { specimens. } \end{gathered}$ | Size in mm. | Average number per haul |
| May | 30 | 5 | 26 | 5-8:3 | 0.87 |
| June . | 106 | 30 | 249 | 3.5-18.5 | $2 \cdot 3$ |
| [June, 1914 | 29 | 22 | 2.j) | 3.5-18.5 | 8.4] |
| July | 94 | 41 | 232 | 3.5-23.5 | 2.5 |
| August | 75 | 47 | 507 | $3-28 \cdot 5$ | $6 \cdot 8$ |
| September | 8.5 | 62 | 709 | 4-31 | $8 \cdot 3$ |
| October | 14 | 2 | 2 | 7 | (0.14 |

Sub-fam. Rhombine.
Rhombus maximus Will. R. laevis Rond.
Seven specimens of $R$. lueris were taken in 1914 between May and August, and one specimen of $R$. maximus in July. These records support the conclusion reached by Clark that the spawning season of the brill is earlier than that of the turbot.

## TABLE XXVI.

Record of Rhombus sp.

|  |  | R. maximus. |  |  | R. laevis. |  |
| ---: | ---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| No. of hatl. | Date. | Depth. | No. | Size in mm. | No. | Size in mm. |
| XIV. | 25.v.14 | M. | - | - | 2 | $9 \cdot 8-11 \cdot 5$ |
| XV. | 25.v.14 | S. | - | - | 2 | $6 \cdot 8,6 \cdot 8$ |
| LXX. | 22.vii.14 | M. | - | - | 1 | $6 \cdot 2$ |
| LXXVI. | 29.vii.14 | M. | 2 | $7 \cdot 7-8 \cdot 5$ | - | - |
| LXXVIII. | 29.vii.14 | M. | - | - | 1 | 7 |
| LXXXV. | 12.viii.14 | M. | - | - | 1 | 13 |

Scophthalmus norvegicus Gthr.
The records for 1914 (Table XXVII.) give a distinct maximum of the post-larval stages in Nay. The numbers remain fairly large until June 11th, after which only a few specimens were taken. This would indicate that the maximum spawning season is a little earlier than Clark (1914) suggests, being probably in April. The hauls containing the largest number of individuals were made south of the Eddystone, where the depths were from 37-39 fathoms. The monthly summary for the period 1906-14 shows an average number of 14.6 individuals per haul for May, and of $5 \cdot 4$ for June (Table XXVIII.).

## TABLE XXVII.

Record of Scophthalaus norvegicus.

| No. of haul. X. | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Date. } \\ & \text { 19.v. } 14 \end{aligned}$ | Depth. <br> II. | $\begin{gathered} \text { No. } \\ 69 \end{gathered}$ | Size in mm. $4 \cdot 2-11$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| XI. | " | S. | 44 | 4-12 |
| XII. | " | S. | 68 | $4 \cdot 5-12$ |
| XIII. | " | II. | 84 | $4-11 \cdot 7$ |
| XIII.a | 22.v. 14 | - | 2 | 6-6.6 |
| XIV. | 25.v. 14 | M. | 5 | 5.5-10 |
| XV。 | " | S. | 1 | 9.5 |
| XVI. | ., | S. | 6 | 6.5-10.5 |
| XVII. | 3.vi.14 | B. | 45 | $4 \cdot 0-8.0$ |
| XVIII. | , | B. | 31 | 4.5-8 |
| XIX. | " | M. | 1 | 7 |
| IX. | 10.vi. 14 | S.-II. | 5 | 6-8 |
| XXI. | 11.vi.14 | M. | 11 | $5 \cdot 5-8 \cdot 5$ |
| XXII. | " | M.-B. | 16 | $6-8 \cdot 7$ |
| XXIII. | , | B. | 27 | 6-8.7 |
| XXVI. | 16.vi. 14 | B. | 1 | 5.5 |
| XYX. | 17.vi. 14 | II. | 1 | 6 |
| XLVI. | 2.vii. 14 | S. | 1 | $9 \cdot 7$ |
| LVI. | 9.vii.14 | B. | 1 | $7 \cdot 3$ |
| LIX. | 15.vii. 14 | M. | 1 | 6 |
| LXVIII. | 22.vii. 14 | B. | 1 | $7 \cdot 2$ |

## TABLE XXVIII.

## SCOPHTHALMUS NORVEGICUS.

| Month. |  |  | Number of  <br> Total number hauls in <br> of hauls <br> which the <br> $1906-1914$. species <br> occurs. |  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Number } \\ & \text { of } \\ & \text { specimens. } \end{aligned}$ | Size in mm. | Average number per haul. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| May |  | . | 30 | 14 | 438 | 4-12 | $14 \cdot 6$ |
| Jume . |  | . | . 106 | 39 | 576 | $3 \cdot 5-12 \cdot 2$ | $5 \cdot 4$ |
| July . | . | - | 94 | 16 | 33 | 4-11 | $0 \cdot 35$ |

## Zeugopterus unimaculatus Bnp.

Fourteen specimens of post-larvæ one-spotted topknots were taken in 1914. The only previous records are those of Clark, who found three specimens in June and July, 1913. The 1914 records are of specimens taken in May and the early part of June. The species is easily distinguished from the other topknots.

## Table XXIX.

Record of Zeugopterus unimaculatus Githr.

| No. of haul. | Date. | Depth. | No. | Size in mm. |
| ---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| XI. | 19.v.14 | S. | 1 | 8 |
| XIII. | 19.v. 14 | M. | 1 | $5 \cdot 5$ |
| XIV. | 25.v.14 | M. | 1 | $6 \cdot 5$ |
| XV. | 25.v.14 | S. | 1 | $8 \cdot 7$ |
| XVI. | 25.v.14 | S. | 1 | 8 |
| XVII. | 3.vi.14 | B. | 3 | $6-6 \cdot 5$ |
| XVIII. | 3.vi.14 | B. | 2 | $6-6 \cdot 2$ |
| XXI. | 11.vi.14 | M. | 1 | $8 \cdot 6$ |
| XXII. | 11.vi.14 | M. | 1 | $9 \cdot 3$ |
| XXIII. | 11.vi.14 | B. | 2 | $8-9 \cdot 4$ |

Zeugopterus punctutus Blainv.
In 1914 the post-larvæ were much more frequent in May than in June, indeed they practically disappeared after the begimning of the latter month. The maximum frequency for the whole period 1906-14 occurred in April, though the figure is based on too few hauls to be very reliable. It is clear, however, that the species must have its maximum spawning period in the early months of the year.

## TABLE XXX.

Record of Zeugopterus punctatus Bl.

| No. of haul. | Date. | Depth. | No. | Size in mm. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :--- |
| IX.(5) | 15.v.14 | B. | 1 | 7 |
| X. | 19.v.14 | M. | 7 | $5-8$ |
| XI. | 19.v.14 | S. | 1 | $6 \cdot 5$ |
| XII. | 19.v.14 | S. | 2 | $8 \cdot 5,8.5$ |
| XIII. | 19.v.14 | M. | 4 | $6.5-8.5$ |
| XIII.a | 22.v.14 | - | 10 | $5 \cdot 5-7$ |
| XIV. | 25.v.14 | M. | 1 | $7 \cdot 5$ |
| XV. | 25.v.14 | S. | 1 | 8 |
| XVI. | 25.v.14 | S. | 7 | $8 \cdot 5-10 \cdot 2$ |
| XVII. | 3.vi.14 | B. | 2 | $6 \cdot 5-6 \cdot 7$ |
| XVIII. | 3.vi.14 | B. | 1 | $7 \cdot 3$ |
| XIX. | 3.vi.14 | M. | 1 | 6 |
| XXII. | 11.vi.14 | M. | 1 | $7 \cdot 6$ |


| Month. | TABLE XXXI. |  |  |  | A verage number per haul |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Zeugopterus punctatus. |  |  |  |  |
|  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Total mumber } \\ & \text { of hauls } \\ & 1906-1914 . \end{aligned}$ | Number of hauls in which the species occurs. | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Number } \\ & \text { of } \\ & \text { slecimens. } \end{aligned}$ | Size in mm. |  |
| April | - 7 | 3 | 16 | 3-6 | $2 \cdot 3$ |
| May | 30 | 13 | 44 | $5-10 \cdot 2$ | $1 \cdot 5$ |
| June . | 106 | 14 | 27 | $5 \cdot 5-11 \cdot 69$ | $0 \cdot 25$ |

## Sub-fam. Soleine.

Solea vulgaris Quens.
The majority of the specimens of post-larvæ of the common sole were taken in May. The number captured was, however, not large and was below that of the thickback sole ( $S$. variegata).

## Solea variegata Don.

These were taken in considerable numbers during May and a few were also present in June. The maximum number taken in one haul was 48 , in marked contrast to $S$. vulgaris, of which only one specimen occurred in a haul, except in two cases where there were 2 and 4 specimens.

## Solea lascaris Risso.

Only two specimens were found in the 1914 material, taken on the 22nd July. Previous records made by Clark in 1913 are in July, August, and September.

## Solea lutea Risso.

Not a single specimen of $S$. lutea was recognised in the 1914 material, although in 1913 Clark found a fair number in June, a month which is well represented in the 1914 hauls.

## TABLE XXXII.

## Record of Solea.

| No. of haul. | Date. | Depth. | No. | vulgaris. <br> Size in mm. | No. | variegata. <br> Size in mm. |  | caris. <br> in m |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1. | 29.1 iv .14 | B. | I | 5.7 | - | - | - | - |
| VI. | ., | I. | 1 | 7.5 | - | - | - | - |
| IN.(5) | 15.v. 14 | B. | 1 | 7 | - | - | - | - |
| X. | 19.г.14 | M. | 1 | 6.9 | 33 | 4-8.2 | - | - |
| XI. | ," | S. | - | - | 41 | 4-9.5 | - | - |
| XII. | , | S. | - | - | 21 | $5 \cdot 5-9.2$ | - | - |
| XIII. | ", | M. | - | - | 48 | +5-10.2 | - | - |
| XIII.(a) | $22 . \mathrm{v} \cdot 14$ | - | 1 | $6 \cdot 4$ | 11 | $4.5-8.5$ | - | - |
| XIV. | 25.v. 14 | II. | 1 | $6 \cdot 6$ | 43 | 4.2-12.3 | - | - |
| XV. | ," | s. | 2 | $6 \cdot 6,7 \cdot 7$ | 3 | $9.2-9.8$ | - | - |
| XVI. | ", | S. | 4 | 6.2-8.7 | 9 | $5-9 \cdot 5$ | - | - |
| XVII. | 3.vi. 14 | B. | - | - | 5 | 5.3-7.5 | - | - |
| X THIL . | ," | B. | 1 | 5 | - | - | -- | - |
| XXII. | 11.vi.14 | M. | - | - | - | 6.4-7 | - | - |
| XXIII. |  | B. | - | - | 6 | 6.5-8.5 | - | - |
| xxixil. | $24 . \mathrm{vi} 14$ | B. | - | - | 2 | 3.6-5.6 | - | - |
| LXIV. | 22.vii. 14 | B. | - | - | - | - | 1 | $10 \cdot 3$ |
| LXV. |  | B. | - | - | - | - | 1 | $9 \cdot 6$ |

## TABLE XXXIII.

## Solea vulgaris.

| Month. | Total number <br> of hauls <br> $1906-1914$. | Number of <br> hauls in <br> whicht the <br> species <br> occurs. | Number <br> of | Specimens. |
| :--- | :---: | ---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | Size in mm. | Average |
| :---: |
| number |
| per haul. |

## TABLE XXXIV.

Solea variegata.

Month.
May .
June . . . 106
July . . . . 94
August

| Total mmber of hanls 1906-1914. | Number of hauls in which it occurs. |  | Size in mm. | Average number jer haul |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 30 | 11 | 288 | 1-12\% | 9.6 |
| 106 | 26 | 170 | 3-11 | $1 \cdot 6$ |
| 94 | 3 | 4 | 1.5-10 | $0 \cdot 04$ |
| 75 | 4 |  | 1-8.5 | $0 \cdot 0$ ? |

## GOBIIDÆ.

Gobius sp. Crystallogobius nilssoni Diib. and Kör. Aphya pellucida Nardo.
Table XXXV. gives the record of all the gobies which have not been specifically determined, and the list probably includes many young stages of both Crystallogobius nitssoni and Aphya pellucida. The larger specimens, probably chiefly belong to Gobius minutus Pall., though other species may be included.

Tables XXXVI. and XXXVII. give the records of those specimens, chiefly the larger ones, of Crystallogobius and Aphya which could be determined with some certainty. The separation of the different species has been too incomplete to make it advisable to draw conclusions as to seasonal distribution.

| TABLE XXXV. |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Record | of Cob | s Sp. |  |
| No. of haul. | Date. | Depth. | No. | Size in mm. |
| NI. | 19.v. 14 | S. | 1 | 13 |
| XII. | " | S. | 2 | 9.5-12.5 |
| XIII. | ,, | II. | 5 | 10-12.5 |
| XIII. a | 22.v. 14 | - | 63 | 8-14, 24 |
| XIV. | 25.v. 14 | II. | 13 | 9.6-13.3 |
| XV. | ," | S. | 3 | 7-11.5 |
| XVI. | , | S. | 18 | $6 \cdot 5-15$ |
| XX. | 10.vi. 14 | S.-M. | 1 | 14.5 |
| XXII. | 11.vi. 14 | M.-B. | 6 | 12.6-14 |
| XXIII. | " | B. | 5 | $12 \cdot 5-15$ |
| XXV. | 16.vi. 14 | B. | 1 | 7 |
| XXVIII. | , | B. | 1 | 7 |
| XLIV. | 29.vi. 14 | I. | 3 | 10-14 |
| XLVI. | 2.vii. 14 | S. | 73 | 7-29.6 |
| XLVII. | ," | S. | 87 | 6-19.5 |
| XLVIII. | , | M. | 59 | 7-18 |
| XLIX. | , | M.-B. | 17 | 10-16 |
| LI. | 6.vii. 14 | B. | 3 | 6-7.5) |
| LIII. | 6.vii. 14 | B. | 1 | $10 \cdot 2$ |
| LIV. | 9.vii. 14 | S. | 3 | 5-7 |
| LV. | ., | M. | 1 | 5 |
| LVI. | ,. | B. | 1 | 5 |

TABLE XXXV. (continued.).

| No. of haul. | Date. | Depth. | No. | Size in mm |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| LIII. | 9.vil.14 | B. | 5 | $4 \cdot 5-11$ |
| LIX. | 15.vii.14 | II. | 83 | (6-19 |
| LX. |  | M. | 52 | 7-19 |
| LXI. | 16.vii. 14 | B. | 82 | 6.7-18.6 |
| LSII. | " | B. | 11 | $5 \cdot 7-27$ |
| LXV. | 22.vii. 14 | B. | 3 | $10-11 \cdot 5$ |
| LXVII. | ", | M. | 1 | $6 \cdot 6$ |
| LXVIII. | " | B. | 7 | $3 \cdot 2-8 \cdot 5$ |
| LXXI. | , | B. | 6 | 7.5-12 |
| LXXIII. | 29.vii. 14 | M. | 1 | 10 |
| LXXYII. | ,. | B. | 6 | 7-10 |
| LXXVIII. | , | M. | 1 | 6 |
| LXXXI. | " | I. | 3 | 10-11.6 |
| LXXXII. | . | B. | 1 | 12 |
| LXXXVII. | 4.ix. 14 | M. | 1 | 14 |

## TABLE XXXVI.

Record of Crystallogobius nilssoni.

| No. of haul. | Date. | Depth. | No. | Size in mm. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| TX.(5) | 15.v. 14 | B. | 2 | $9-11 \cdot 5$ |
| XII. | 19.v. 14 | S. | 6 | 24-27 |
| NIII. | " | M. | 150 | 17-36 |
| YIV. | 25.r.14 | II. | 40 | 18-31 ca. |
| OV. | , | S. | 11 | 10-27 |
| XVI. | " | S. | 3 | 11.5-28 |


| XXII. | 11.vi. 14 | M.-B. | 4 | $26 \cdot 5-37$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :--- |
| XXXII. | 17.vi. 14 | S. | 1 | Fragment of large | one.

XLIII. 29.vi. 14 B. 3 25 са.-30

LJI . 9.vii. 14 B. 1
LVII. . B. 2 22-28
LIX. 15.vii.14 M. 12 27-37.5
LX. 15.vii. 14 M. 20 8-29.5
LXI. 16.vii. 14 B. 18 26-29
LXXI. 22.vii. 14 B. 8 22-38
LXXIII. 29.vii.14 M. 12

## Table XXXVII.

Record of Aphya pellucida.

| No. of haul. | Date. | Depth. | No. | Size in mm. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| XIV. | 2.5.v. 14 | M. | 2 | 8, 13 |
| XV. | , | S. | 3 | 6.6-13 |
| XVI. | , | S. | 1 | 11.5 |
| XVIII. | 3.vi. 14 | B. | 2 | ( $9-6 \cdot 2$ |
| NX. | 10.vi. 14 | S.-M. | 3 | 13:5-15 |
| XXI. | 11.vi. 14 | I. | 3 | 11:5-16.5 |
| XXII. | 11.vi. 14 | MI.-B. | 3 | $13 \cdot 2-15 \cdot 3$ |
| SXIII. | 11.vi. 14 | B. | 4 | $7 \cdot(\mathrm{y}-16$ |
| XXXVII. | $24 . v i .14$ | B. | 3 | $6 \cdot 5-8 \cdot 5$ |
| XLIII. | 29.vi. 14 | B. | 2 | 10 ca.-12 |
| LXIII. | 22.vii. 14 | B. | 50 | 7.5-11 |
| LXIV. | $22 . v i i .14$ | B. | 1 | 10 |
| LXV. | " | B. | 6 | $10 \cdot 5-12 \cdot 5$ |
| LXVI. | , | II. | 1 | 10 |
| LXXV. | 29.vii. 14 | B. | 1 | 11 |
| LXXXI. | " | II. | 1 | 11 ca. |
| LXXXVI. | 12.viii. 14 | B.-II. | 1 | 11 |

## CYCLOPTERIJ)Æ.

## Cyclopterus lumpas L.

One specimen of the lump sucker was obtained in the young-fish trawl in 1914. It was found in Haul XLI., $3 \frac{1}{2}$ miles S.W. by W. of the Eddystone, a bottom haul made on June 26th, 1914. The length of the specimen was 16.5 mm . Clark records one specimen 18 mm . long in 1913.

## TRIGLID风.

## Trigla gurnardus L. T. hirundo Bl.

The characters by means of which post-larval stages of $T$. gurnurdus and $T$. hirundo may be distinguished have been pointed out by (Jark (1914) in his report on the post-larval teleosteans of Plymouth. The specimens which were most numerous in the 1914 matcrial belong to the T. gurnardus type, with long pectoral fins which are pigmented chiefly on the posterior half of the fin. From specimens of this type young $T$. hirundo with short, broad pectorals pigmented over the whole surface, are easily and definitely distinguishable.

Clark refers to specimens appearing in August and September which he thinks are quite distinct from $T$. gurnardus and $T$. hirundo, and have very little pigment. These he regards as probably belonging to the species $T$. lineata. I few specimens amongst the 1914 material, which I have included under the gurnardus type, very closely approach the forms which Clark thus regards as $T$. lincata, the amount of pigment on the pectoral fins being small, although the fins are long. The variation in the amount of pigment seen in preserved material, especially when the preservation is not very good, is considerable, and seems to me to make it impossible to assign every specimen to a particular species with any degree of certainty until some more definite character can be used for purposes of investigation.

It must be bone in mind too that the species which as an adult is perhaps the most numerous on the grounds in the neighbourhood where most of the hauls have been made is T. cuculus, and so far as I am aware the young stages of that form have never been recognised. It is possible, therefore, that this species may be inchuded amongst the forms with long pectorals pigmented on the posterior half, which are here included under Trigld sp., and amongst those which Clark recorded as $T$. gurnardus. A fourth species, T'. Tyra, is occasionally found in the western part of the English Chamel, concerning the young stages of which nothing is known.

Unfortunately the numerical characters, such as number of fin rays and vertebre, of these gumards are all so similar that they cannot be used for discriminating the species in these young stages.

## TABLE XXXVIII.

Record of Trigla sp.

| No, of hanl.IX.(5) | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Date. } \\ & \text { 1.5.r. } 1 \mathrm{t} \end{aligned}$ | Depth. B. | $\begin{array}{r} \text { No. } \\ 3 \end{array}$ | Trigla sp. Size in mm. $7 \cdot 5-9 \cdot 5$ | T. hirundo. <br> No. Size in mm. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  |  | - | - |
| N. | 19.v. 14 | M. | 53 | $4 \cdot 5-11 \cdot 7$ | - | - |
| NI. | " | S. | 39 | 6-9.5 | -. | - |
| XII. | ", | S. | 8 | $5 \cdot 1-10$ | - | - |
| N111. | , | M. | 13 | 6-8.2 | --- | -- |
| XIII. a | $29 . \mathrm{v} 14$ | - | 9 | 7.5-10 | -- | - |
| XIV. | 2.).v. 14 | M. | 45 | 5.5-13 | - | - |
| NY. | $2.5 . \mathrm{v} .14$ | S. | 33 | $7 \cdot 2-12 \cdot 5$ | - | - |
| NVI. | ," | S. | 41 | $5 \cdot 5-12 \cdot 7$ | -- | - |
| XVII. | $3 . \mathrm{vi} 14$ | B. | 77 | $5-11 \cdot 5$ | - | - |
| XVIII. | " | B. | 63 | $5 \cdot 5-18$ | 1 | 18 |
| SIX. | " | M. | 15 | $6-11 \cdot 5$ | -- | - |

## TABLE XXXVIII. (continued.).

| No. of laul. | Date. |  |  | Trigla sp. | $\mathrm{No}^{\text {T. }}$ | hirundo. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| XX. | $\text { 10.vi. } 14$ | S.-II. | 4 | 9-10.8 |  | , |
| XXI. | 11.vi.14 | II. | 9 | $8 \cdot 7-10 \cdot 5$ | - | -- |
| XXII. | , | M.-B. | 12 | $8 \cdot 2-1.5$ | - |  |
| XXIII. | , | B. | 24 | 7-11.5 | - | - |
| XXIV. | 16.vi.14 | B. | 2 | 8, 8.5 | -. | - |
| XXY. | , | B. | 1 | 10 ca. | -- | - |
| NXYI. | , | B. | 19 | 5.6-16.5 |  |  |
| XXYII. |  | M. | 5 | 7-9 |  | - |
| NXX. | 17.vi. 14 | II. | 2 | 7.7-8.5 | \% | - |
| XXXI. | ," | II. | 2 | 7.5-8.4 | --- | - |
| NXXV. | 19.vi.14 | M. | 2 | 12-13 | - | - |
| XXXVI. | $24 . v i .14$ | B. | 1 | 7.7 | 1 | 10.5 |
| Nxxili. | ., | B. | 3 | 6.8-7.7 |  | - |
| xxatili. | , | M. | 1 | 11 | 1 | 7 |
| NLII. | 29.vi. 14 | B. | 1 | 10.5 | - | - |
| XLIII. | , | B. | 7 | $6 \cdot 5-12$ | - | - |
| XLIV. | : | 11. | 2 | 9-13:5 |  | - |
| NLV. | " | - | - | - | 1 | 12 ca |
| XLVI. | 2.vii.14 | S. | 5 | $9 \cdot 5-10 \cdot 5$ | - | - |
| XLV'II. | 2.vii. 14 | S. | 1 | 10.8 | - | - |
| LVIII. | 9.vii.14 | II. | 2 | 13-16 | - | - |
| LX. | 15.xii. 14 | M. | 1 | 12 | -- | - |
| LXYIII. | $22 . v i i .14$ | B. | - | - | 2 | 8-10 |
| LXIX. |  | S. | - | - | 1 | 95 |
| Lexilit. | 29.vii.1.f | 11. | 1 | 11 | - | - |
| LAXIV. | ,, | 11. | - | - | 1 | 11 ca |
| LAXT. | " | B. | 1 | 10 | - | - |
| LXXYI. | , | 11. | 1 | 11.7 | - | - |
| Lextime | ," | II. | 2 | 9-19 | - | - |
| IAXXY. | 12.viii. 14 | M. | 5 | 13.5-19 | - | - |

## TRACHINID※.

Trachinus vipera Cuv.
The 1914 records are given in Table XXXLX. and monthly summaries for the period 1906-14 in Table XL. In 1914 no specimens were observed during May and the first half of June, the first record being on June 16th. Over the whole period the average number per haul is highest in July and August, being slightly though perhaps not significantly higher in August than in July. In September there is a rapid disappearance of specimens in the hauls.

No specimens of Trachimus draco were recognised in the 1914 material. Clark obtained four specimens of this species in August and September, 1913.

TABLE XXXIX.
Record of Trachints ripera.

| $\begin{gathered} \text { No. of haul. } \\ \text { XXV. } \end{gathered}$ | Date. $\text { 16.vi. } 14$ | Depth. B. | $\begin{gathered} \text { No. } \\ 3 \end{gathered}$ | Size in mm. $5 \cdot 2-7$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| XXVI. | ," | $B$. | 2 | $5 \cdot 6-8 \cdot 2$ |
| XXXIV. | 19.vi. 14 | M. | 3 | $6 \cdot 6-8.5$ |
| NXXV. | ", | M. | 3 | $6 \cdot 5-7 \cdot 5$ |
| SXXVI. | $24 . v i .14$ | B. | 1 | 7 |
| SXXVII. | " | B. | 1 | 7.5 |
| XXXVIII. | , | I. | $\because$ | 5.6-6.5 |
| XXXIX. | " | S. | 1 | 9 |
| L. | 6.vii. 14 | B. | 4 | all 5 mm |
| LI. | ,, | P. | 9 | $4 \cdot 5-7 \cdot 5$ |
| LII. | :" | II. | 7 | - 6 |
| LV. | 9.vii. 14 | II. | 2 | 6-7 |
| LIX. | 15.vii. 14 | M. | 8 | $5 \cdot 5-7.8$ |
| LSI. | 16.vii. 14 | B. | 1 | $5 \cdot 5$ |
| LXII. | " | B. | 2 | 5-7 |
| LXVII. | $22 . \mathrm{vii}$. | M. | 5 | $6 \cdot 5-8$ |
| LXVIII. | ," | B. | 6 | $5 \cdot 2-9 \cdot 3$ |
| LXIX. | " | S. | 7 | $4 \cdot 3-8 \cdot 3$ |
| LNX. | " | M. | 1 | 5.5 |
| LXXIII. | 29.vii. 14 | II. | 1 | $11 \cdot 6$ |
| LXXIV. | " | II. | 3 | $6 \cdot 5-7 \cdot 5$ |
| LXXV. | ", | B. | 1 | 8.5 |
| LSAYI. | " | I. | 1 | 11.5 |
| LXXVIII. | ", | II. | 4 | 6.2--10.7 |
| LxXXIII. | , | B. | 2 | 5. $5-8 \cdot 7$ |
| LXXXVI. | 12. viii. 14 | B.-M. | 1 | 7 |

## TABLE XL.

Trachinus vipera.

| Month. | Total number of hauls 1906-1914. | Number of hauls in which it occurs. | $\begin{gathered} \text { Number } \\ \text { of } \\ \text { specimens. } \end{gathered}$ | Size in mm. | Average per haul. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| April | 7 | 1 | 1 | $3 \cdot 5$ | $0 \cdot 1$ |
| May | 30 | 1 | 1 | $3 \cdot 5$ | $0 \cdot 0.3$ |
| June | 106 | 22 | 80 | 2.5-9 | 0.75 |
| July | 94 | 45 | 335 | 3-11.6 | $3 \cdot 6$ |
| August | 75 | 52 | 292 | 2.7-18 | $3 \cdot 9$ |
| September | 85 | 26 | 42 | $3 \cdot 5-18$ | $0 \cdot 5$ |

## CALLIONYMIIDÆ.

## Callionymus lyra L.

Post-larval dragonets are more constantly met with in the hauls and occur in greater numbers than any other species of teleostean, being specially abundant in May and June. The 1914 records are given in Table XLI., and the monthly summaries in Table XLII.

## TABLE XLI.

## Record of Callionymus lyra.

| No. of haul. | Date. | Depth. | No. | Size in mm. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| V. | $29 . \mathrm{iv} .14$ | B. | 5 | 4-7 |
| VI. | " | M. | 4 | 5-7 |
| VII. | " | S. | 5 | 3-6 |
| VIII. (1) | 8.v. 14 | M. | 1 | $6 \cdot 3$ |
| IX. (1) | 15.v. 14 | M. | 67 | 5-7.5 |
| IX. (5) | ", | B. | 108 | 4-7 |
| XII. | 19.v. 14 | S. | 5 | 5-10.5 |
| XIII. | , | II. | 20 | 4.5-11 |
| XIII.a | 22.v.14 | -- | 34 | 5-9 |
| XIV. | $25 . v .14$ | II. | 4 | $5 \cdot 5-7$ |
| XV. | " | S. | 4 | 8-10.5 |
| XVI. | " | S. | 3 | $5 \cdot 5-6$ |
| XVII. | 3.vi. 11 | B. | 105 | 4-7 |
| XVIII. | , | B. | 59 | 3:5-7 |
| XIX. | , | II. | 15 | 4.5-8 |
| XX. | 10.vi. 14 | S.-II. | 2 | $5 \cdot 5-6 \cdot 3$ |
| XXI. | 11.vi. 14 | M. | 9 | $5 \cdot 2-11$ |
| XXII. | ,, | \I.-B. | 16 | 6-12 |

TABLE XLI. (continued).

| No. of haul. XXIII. | Date. <br> 11.vi. 14 | Depth. <br> B. | $\begin{array}{r} \text { No. } \\ 41 \end{array}$ | Size in mm 5-13.5 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| XXIV. | 16.vi. 14 | B. | 2 | 6.7-10.2 |
| XXV. | ,, | B. | 27 | 3.8-8 |
| XXVII. | " | M. | 1 | 7 |
| XXIX. | 17.vi. 14 | B. | 1 | $7 \cdot 3$ |
| XXX. | " | M. | 14 | $3 \cdot 7-8 \cdot 3$ |
| XXXI. | " | M. | 30 | 3-9 |
| XXXII. | " | S. | 17 | 4-6 |
| XXXIII. | 19.vi. 14 | M. | 1 | 7.7 |
| SXXIV. | ," | M. | 1 | 7 |
| XXXV. | ,, | M. | 10 | $5 \cdot 5-8 \cdot 7$ |
| XXXVI. | 24.vi. 14 | B. | 2 | 3.2-6.6 |
| XXXVII. | ,, | B. | 54 | 4.5-8 |
| XLII. | 29.vi. 14 | B. | 11 | 7-8.5 |
| XLIII. | " | B. | 37 | $5 \cdot 5-8 \cdot 7$ |
| XLIV. | " | M. | 13 | 5.5-8 |
| XLV. | ", | S. | 1 | 6 |
| XLVI. | 2.vii. 14 | S. | 165 | 6-12 |
| XLVII. | " | S. | 98 | 5.5-12.2 |
| XLVIII. | " | M. | 94 | 4-12.2 |
| XLIX. | " | M.-B. | 47 | $5 \cdot 5-11 \cdot 5$ |
| L. | 6.vii. 14 | B. | 2 | 10-13.5 |
| LI. | ,, | B. | 2 | 7-5-9 |
| LIV. | 9.vii. 14 | S. | 2 | 6-6.5 |
| LV. | " | M. | 1 | $5 \cdot 3$ |
| LVI. | " | B. | 1 | 6 |
| LVII. | " | B. | 3 | 6.7-7.1 |
| LIX. | 15.vii. 14 | M. | 6 | 6.5-8.5 |
| LXI. | 16.vii. 14 | B. | 4 | 7.5-11 |
| LXII. | , | B. | 2 | 5-6 |
| LXVII. | 22.vii. 14 | M. | 1 | 6.5 |
| LXVIII. | " | $B$. | 10 | 4.5-7.3 |
| LXIX. | " | S. | 1 | 6.5 |
| LXX. | ,, | M. | 1 | 6 |
| LXXIII. | 29.vii. 14 | M. | 8 | 6.5-8 |
| LXXIV. | ,, | M. | 3 | $6 \cdot 5-7 \cdot 5$ |
| LXXVI. | " | M. | 2 | $9 \cdot 2$ |
| LXXVII. | " | B. | 4 | 6.5-8.5 |
| LXXXIV. | ., | B. | 1 | 8 |


| TABLE XLII. |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| CALLIONYMUS LYRA. |  |  |  |  |  |  |

## GOBIESOCIDÆ.

Lepadogaster.
Eighteen post-larval specimens were obtained in 1914, thirteen of which occurred in July. According to Clark's records (1914) specimens may occur from June to September.


## BLENNIIDE.

Probably two species at least are represented in the material, Blennius pholis L. and Blennius ocellaris L., but I have not succeeded in separating them with certainty. The records are shown in Table XLIV.

[^10]

FIg. 8.-Lophius piscatorius L. Length $6 \cdot 2 \mathrm{~mm}$. July 16 th , 1914.

## PEDICULATI.

## Lophius piscatorius L.

One specimen of an early stage, $6 \cdot 2 \mathrm{~mm}$. long was found in Hanl LXII., taken near the bottom 7 miles west of Rame Head on July 16th, 1914. 1 figure of this specimen drawn by Mrs. Sexton is reprodnced as Fig. 8. The great resemblance of this figure with Emery's figure, which is reproduced by Ehrenbaum in Nordisches Plankton, p. 303, Fig. 108, b, and ascribed by both authors to Macrumes, may be pointed out. It seems to me very probable that that figure should really be assigned to Lophius.

The larva of Lophius piscutorius is figured by Danois (1913, p. 164, Fig. 319). Ehrenbaum (1905-9) reproduces Agassiz and Whitman's figures of American specimens.

## SUMDIARY.

Table XLV. is perhaps of interest, as showing the composition of the catch obtained with the young-fish trawl at different times of the year. It has been obtained by combining certain groups of hauls made in 191 t in the offshore waters outside Plymouth, all of them being beyond the 20 -fathom line. As far as the conditions are concemed therefore the different groups are fairly comparable. The figure given for each species is the average number of specimens per hanl for the group. It will be seen that after June the number of species present as well as the average number per haul are both very much reduced.

## TABLE XLY

Averages per Haul in Difeerent (troups of Hauls.


TABLE XLV. (continued).


## LITERATURE.

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1913. Danors, E.-Contribution à l'étude systématique et biologique des poissons de la manche occidentale. Paris. Masson et Cie.
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# On the Amount of Phosphoric Acid in the Sea-Water off Plymouth Sound. II. 

By

Donald J. Matthews.

With one Figure in the Text.

In a previous paper* the writer gave the results of the determination of the phosphates in sea-water, by means of Pouget and Chouchak's reagent, on a number of samples collected between September 13, 1915, and February 5, 1916, at the Knap Buoy, half a mile outside the breakwater at Plymouth.

The analyses have been continued so as to cover a period of sixteen months and show a large seasonal variation.
The method is described in detail in the previous paper, and consists in throwing down the phosphoric acid with iron and an alkali, treating with nitric acid, and determining the amount colorimetrically in the Dubosq apparatus after adding nitromolybdate of strychnine. A few modifications have been made and are described below.
In the first place, as the pressure of other work made it impossible to examine all samples immediately after collection, they were sterilised as soon as taken with toluol or chloroform. Toluol was perfectly satisfactory, but the chloroform in some cases threw down a precipitate on standing, and the absence of figures for July, August, November and December, 1916, is due to the loss of samples from this cause. If the sample is allowed to stand without previous sterilisation the phosphates decrease and may be entirely removed in a few weeks.
The standard phosphate solution contained 0.003 mg . of $\mathrm{P}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{5}$ in one cubic centimetre, and was made up in approximately decinormal nitric acid to prevent the growth of moulds.
For the precipitation of the iron, sodium carbonate was used instead of ammonia and ammonium chloride; 1 ccm . of 2 N solution for 1 ccm . of iron solution was sufficient to more than neutralise the excess acid of the latter.

In some instances the iron precipitate was greasy and was difficult

[^11]to dissolve off the paper completely, so the following method was adopted. Five cubic centimetres of strong hydrochloric acid were poured into the beaker in which precipitation had taken place and distributed over the walls to dissolve any iron ; then 10 ccm . of water were added, the beaker was warmed for a few minntes, and the hot dilute acid was allowed to drop on to the filter paper by means of a small pipette provided with a rubber-teat head. The beaker and paper were well washed and the latter incinerated in a platinum crucible: the ash was dissolved in a little strong hydrochloric acid and added to the rest of the solution, which was then evaporated to dryness on the water-bath ; the chlorides were converted to nitrates by evaporation to drymess with 10 ccm . of the dilute nitric acid, taken up in more nitric acid, using 7 ccm . of $25 \%$ by volume if the final bulk was to be 50 ccm . The analysis was then carried out as described in the previous paper. In an extreme case the dirty residue on the paper was found to contain $0 \cdot 0024 \mathrm{mg}$. of $\mathrm{P}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{5}$. The origin of the greasy matter is unknown : it may be due to the drainage from the port, or, on the other hand, it may be the volatile oily substance which so often renders the distillate turbid when sea-water is boiled with an alkali for the determination of ammonia.

It was mentioned in the earlier paper that the amomnt of phosphates found was increased if the water was previously oxidised with a permanganate. Attempts to find a suitable method for determining this excess phosphorus have been only partly successful. It is necessary to use strong oxidising substances which do not interfere with subsequent operations and are easily purified. In the end the following process was adopted. From 200 ccm . to 400 ccm . of the water were evaporated in a porcelain basin holding nearly 200 ccm . until the bulk of the salts had separated; then 10 ccm .or 20 cc . of strong nitric acid were added, according to the amount of sample taken, the dish was covered, and heating continned until the evolution of brown fumes had ceased. The cover was removed and the evaporation was contimued to dryness ; the dish was then heated over an argand burner until the salts were in gentle fusion and the nitrates of the earths were decomposed with evolution of brown fumes.

The dish was allowed to cool and the salts were dissolved by warming for an hour with 150 ccm . of water and 1 ccm . of strong hydrochloric acid. Iron was added and 5 (cm. of 2 N sodinm carbonate solution and the analysis completed as before. There is danger of the porcelain being attacked unless it is very carefnlly heated, and unless it is certain that it gives up no phosphates under this treatment it would probably be better to use fused silica basins.

The blank on the reagents used in the analyses reported in the previous

Phosphates In Water at Knap Buoy, Plymouth Sound
paper was 0.0036 mg . of $\mathrm{P}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{5}$. A repurification of the iron, acids, alkali and water reduced it to 0.0026 mg , and a second purification to 0.0021 mg . The blank on the amounts required for the estimation of total phosphorns was at first 0.0066 mg . and afterwards 0.0061 mg . The blanks were determined both by carrying out analyses on distilled water, to which 0.0300 mg . of $\mathrm{P}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{5}$ had been added, and also with small amoumts of water, the final solution being made up to 10 ccm . and compared in a special small colorimeter tube holding only 10 ccm . The results agreed excellently.

The determination of the small amounts of phosphoric acid fomnd during the summer presented considerable difficulty. Making the final volume 10 ccm . gave rather discordant results, and it was subsequently found that the closest agreement was obtained between duplicates if enough of the standard solution was added to the sample to bring the content up to about 0.035 mg . of $\mathrm{P}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{5}$ per litre, the final volume being 50 ccm . This gives a strong colour in a depth of 40 mm . and at the same time avoids the errors which arise when very small volumes of liquid are to be manipulated.

The whole of the results obtained by the colorimetric method are given in the following table, and those for phosphoric acid are plotted in the curve; the figures for February 17th, 1915, have not been used in this case as the sample was by an oversight allowed to stand unsterilised for six days.

## SURFACE SAMPLES TAKEN AT THE KNAP BUOY.

| Date.1915 | G.M.T. | $\mathrm{S} . \mathrm{O}_{\mathrm{o}}{ }^{\mathrm{Ph}}$ | osphates. $\mathrm{P}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{5} \mathrm{mg}$. | tre. Mean. | Total P calculated to $\mathrm{P}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{5}$ mg. per litre |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Sept. 21 | $10.30 \mathrm{a} . \mathrm{m}$. | 34.96 | - | 0.046 | - |
| Nov. 24 | $11.35 \mathrm{a} . \mathrm{m}$. | 34.78 | $0 \cdot 042, \quad 0.041$ | 0.0415 | - |
| ,, 26 | $11.45 \mathrm{a} . \mathrm{m}$. | $34 \cdot 43$ | $0.040, \quad 0.034$ | 0.037 | - |
| 29 | 11.10 a.m. | $34 \cdot 14$ | $0.040,0.037$ | 0.0385 | - |
| Dec. ${ }^{2}$ | 12.20 p.m. | - | $0.0484,0.0435$ | $0 \cdot 0460$ | - |
| 9 | $10.30 \mathrm{a} . \mathrm{m}$. | $31 \cdot 46$ | $0.049, \quad 0.047$ | 0.048 | - |
| , 13 | 11.30 a.m. | - | $0 \cdot 044,0.041$ | 0.0425 | - |
| , 16 | 12.10 p.m. | $26 \cdot 20$ | - | 0.043 | - |
| , 20 | $11.25 \mathrm{a} . \mathrm{m}$. | $29 \cdot 69$ | $0.058, \quad 0.064$ | 0.061 | - |
| 1916 |  |  |  |  |  |
| Jan. 3 | $11.35 \mathrm{a} . \mathrm{m}$. | $25 \cdot 66$ | $0.057, \quad 0.057$ | 0.057 | - |
| , 14 | 1.55 p.m. | $33 \cdot 87$ | $0.0318,0.0316$ | $0 \cdot 0317$ | - |
| , 18 | 2.30 p.m. | 33.93 | $0 \cdot 0336,0.0348$ | 0.0342 | - |


| Date. | (i.M.T. | Phosphates |  | lean. | Total P calculated to $\mathrm{P}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{4}$ mg. per litre |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Jan. 24 | $11.20 \mathrm{a} . \mathrm{m}$. | 33.42 | $0.0378,0.0391$ | 0.0.384 |  |
| Feb. 5 | $12.30 \mathrm{p} . \mathrm{m}$. | 31.58 | $0.0507,0.0414$ | 0.0460 |  |
| , 17 | $10.45 \mathrm{a} . \mathrm{m}$. | - | $0.0190,0.0190$ | (0.0190) | $0 \cdot 0.323$ |
| 25 | 11.0 a.m. | 33-30 | $0.0371,0.0343$ | $0 \cdot 0.357$ |  |
| Mar. 1 | $11.40 \mathrm{a} . \mathrm{mm}$. | $33 \cdot 8$. | - | $0 \cdot 0350$ | $0 \cdot 039$ |
| , 8 | $11.15 \mathrm{a} . \mathrm{m}$. | $34 \cdot 54$ | (0.0201, 0.0115 | 0.0158 | - |
| ,, 21 | $11.50 \mathrm{a} . \mathrm{m}$. | $34 \cdot 54$ | $0.0101,0.0122$ | 0.0111 | $0 \cdot 050$ |
| 29 | $11.45 \mathrm{a} . \mathrm{m}$. | $3 \cdot \cdot 18$ | $0.0104,0.0148$ | 0.0126 | $0 \cdot 045$ |
| April 6 | $11.55 \mathrm{a} . \mathrm{m}$. | $34 \cdot 40$ | $0.0160,0.0180$ | $0 \cdot 0170$ | 0.016 |
| ,, 24 | $11.10 \mathrm{a} . \mathrm{m}$. | $34 \cdot 40$ | - - | 0.0056 |  |
| 28 | - | $34 \cdot 40$ | $0.0117,0.0124$ | 10.0120 | 0.035 |
| May 9 | $10 \cdot 50 \mathrm{a} . \mathrm{m}$. | $34 \cdot 16$ | $0.0158,0.0130$ | 0.0144 | $0 \cdot 046$ |
| , 24 | $11.45 \mathrm{a} . \mathrm{m}$. | $34 \cdot 60$ | $0.0053,0.0064$ | 0.00 .98 | - |
| June 19 | $10.45 \mathrm{a} . \mathrm{m}$. | $34 \cdot 90$ | $0.0185,0.0184$ | 0.0184 | 0.036 |
| ,, 27 | $11.45 \mathrm{a} . \mathrm{m}$. | - | $0.0230,0.0248$ | 0.0239 | 0.038 |
| Sept. 13 | noon | - | $0.0277,0.0198$ | $0 \cdot 0238$ | $0 \cdot 0.4$ |
| Oct. 19 | $10.45 \mathrm{a} . \mathrm{m}$. | 33.93 | 0.0194, 0.0155 | 0.0174 | $0 \cdot 029$ |
| 1917 |  |  |  |  |  |
| Jan. 10 | 12.30 p.m. | $33 \cdot 62$ | $0 \cdot 0435,0.0448$ | $0 \cdot 0442$ | $0 \cdot 049$ |

In the first place it is clear that the results given in the previous paper which were obtained by precipitating the phosphorus with iron and then weighing as phosphomolybdic anhydride are seriously in error, and it was found that molybdic acid was thrown down at the same time.

The data of the present table show that there is a large seasonal variation, the maximum being more than ten times as large as the minimum. At first it was expected that the curve would agree with that for the phytoplankton inverted, but this is not the case. Miss Lebour* has made counts of the diatoms at the surface, 5 fthms. and 7 fthms. on 330 samples taken on 110 days at the Knap Buoy from September 21, 1915, to September 18, 1916. The average number in 1 ccm . for October, 1915, was 17, and in November 9, while in December and in January, February and March, 1916, there were only one or two. The maximum number for the year, 38, occurred in April, 1916, the high value being due to the last week of the month, 45 being counted on the 25 th and 137 on the 27 th. Then a decline set in, with 30 per cubic centimetre in May and only 9 in June. In July there was a rise to 21 and a secondary

[^12]maximum of 31 in August, followed by a fall to 17 in September. The curve shows that the maximum value for phosphates, 0.061 mg . of $\mathrm{P}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{5}$ per litre, coincided with the smallest number of diatoms, and also with the shortest days of the year. The phosphates then commenced to fall at once, irregularly at first it is true, to a minimum, of less than one tenth of the maximum, at the end of April, which coineides with the diatom maximum for the year. The number of diatoms fell off at the beginning of May, while the phosphate minimm continued to the last week of the month. It this period, however, the alga Phcooystis appeared in emormous quantities. It was first abundant on April 25, reached its maximum on May 9 th and 12 th, then declined, and was absent after June 12th. If the deerease in phosphates is to be attributed to their removal by alga, as the writer considers to be the ease, some other factor must be sought in addition to the phytoplankton. This is probably to be found in the larger algæ, such as Fucus, Laminaria and others. Well grown young plants of these are to be found in February, and must by that time have already abstracted considerable quantities of phosphorus from the water. The mareh of events would then be somewhat as follows. Is soon as the young plants of the fixed algæ begin to increase the amount of phosphates in the water falls off, and this decline is further hastened by the sudden inerease of diatoms at the end of April. In May the diatoms decrease, but the phosphates are kept at a minimum value by the appearance of Phoocystis, and increase at once when this disappears in June. The want of data for phosphates in July and August prevents a further comparison with the figures for diatoms, but another minimum might be expected in August. Phosphate valnes are also missing in November and December. 1916, but the records for 1915 show an agreement with what might be expected from the diatom figures, that is, a rise from November to December.

On January 10th, 1917, the amount of phosphates present was very nearly the mean of the first two figures for the month in the previous year.

The Admiralty regulations have made it impossible to obtain water at a distance from the shore. It is by no means improbable that in mid-Chamel, beyond the influence of the fixed weeds, the decrease in the phosphates wonld not be large until much later in the year when the phytoplankton begins to inerease.

The last column of the table contains some figures for the total dissolved phosphorus, calculated to $\mathrm{P}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{5}$. It is not claimed that they are accurate, but they certainly show that what may be ealled for the present " organic phosphorus" is often high even when the phosphates are at a minimum, though it varies from month to month. The figures for June 27th, 1916, and January 10th, 1917, are probably the most
accurate, and as the two samples were analysed side by side they are fairly comparable. They show that the total phosphorus may be as high in summer as in winter, but that in summer only a very small part of it may be present as phosphoric acid. The analyses as a whole however, do not allow more to be stated with certainty than that there is a soluble phosphorus compound present other than phosphoric acid, that it is probably not a lower acid of phosphorus owing to the comparative difficulty with which it is oxidised, and that it is probably an organic compound.

The nature and origin of this "organic phosphorus " is, of course, quite unknown. At first it was thonght that it might be due to minute organisms which pass through a filter paper, and an attempt was made to filter it out by means of candles such as are used for bacteriological work, but this proved impossible as both Doulton and Chamberland filters gave up a considerable amount of phosphates to distilled water passed through them. It is, however, unlikely that it is due to solid particles, as if iron and a relatively large amount of ammonia are added to sea-water so as to produce a bulky precipitate of hydrates of iron, lime, and magnesium, which would almost certainly entangle and stop any suspended matter, the filtrate from this still shows a considerable amount of phosphate after oxidising.

## SUMMARY.

The amount of phosphoric acid in sea-water off Plymouth was at a maximum of 0.06 mg . per litre of $\mathrm{P}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{5}$ at the end of December, 1915, after which it fell irregularly to a minimum of less than 0.01 mg ., which extended from the last week of April to the latter part of May; it then increased again and in Jamary, 1917. reached the same value as the average for the first part of the month in the previons year.

This seasonal variation is probably to be attributed to the removal of the phosphates from solntion. at first by the fixed algæ, and later in the spring by the diatoms and for a short time by Pherocystis. There is also present in sea-water taken near Plymouth another soluble compound of phosphorus which can be converted into phosphoric acid by oxidising agents.

# Abstract of Memoir <br> RECORDING WORK DONE AT THE PLYMOUTH LABORATORY. <br> The Development of Alcyonium Digitatum, with some notes on the Early Colony Formation. By Annie Matthews, M.Sc. 

Quart. Journ. Mier. Sci., Tol. 62, Part 1, New Series, 1916.

The above paper is a record of the successful rearing of Alcyonium larse in tanks at the Plymonth Laboratory.

Ripe male and female specimens collected near the Eddystone during the breeding seasons of 1912-13 and 1913-14 spawned in the tank water, and fertilised eggs were collected from which eventually young colonies were obtained.

Segmentation gave rise in varions ways to a morula, followed by the pre-planula and planula stages. The pear-shaped free-swimming planula eventually settled by the broad anterior end, and the mouth arose at the narrow posterior end subsequent to a general flattening of the settled planula along the long axis.

The characteristic eight mesenteries grew out into the coelenteron on the second day of fixation, followed by the appearance of spicules and eight hollow circumoral tentacles which alternated in position with the mesenteries. Free entrance of food was permitted on the fourth day, after the degeneration of the base of the cosophageal invagination. On the fifth and sixth day of fixation respectively the ventral and dorsal mesenteric filampnts were formed, the two being of homogeneous origin, i.e. consisting of endodermic and ectodermic portions developed in different degrees.

At the end of the third week the first bud grew as an outgrowth from the basal stolon formed by the solitary polyp.

Very young fixed stages were fed with fine plankton, but colonies of two or three individuals or more were successfully fed on larve and single adults from Leptoclinum and Botryllus colonies. The early buds are arranged in circles round the pareut, but in colonics of thirty-two individuals budding took place irregularly.
A. M.

# Marine Biological Association of the United Kingdom. 

## Report of the Council, 1915.

## The Council and Officers.

Four ordinary meetings of the Council were held during the year, at which the average attendance was nine. During the Easter Vacation a Committee of the Council visited and inspected the Laboratory at Plymouth.

The Association has suffered a great loss during the year through the death of Mr. J. A. Travers, who was for eighteen years its Honorary Treasurer. During his term of office Mr. Travers worked hard in the interests of the Association, and his advocacy of the practical value of the scientific fishery work which was being undertaken did much to ensure the continued progress of our investigations.

The Council elected Mr. George Evans, lately Prime Warden of the Worshipful Company of Fishmongers, to succeed Mr. Travers as Honorary Treasurer.

The Council desires to express its thanks to the Royal Society for the use of the Rooms at Burlington House in which its meetings have been held.

## The Plymouth Laboratory.

The buildings, fittings and machinery at Plymouth have been kept in a state of efficient repair, but owing to the war all expenditure has been kept at the lowest possible limit. It has been necessary, however, to effect some repairs to the Shone's ejector, which pumps water from the sea, and the small gas-engine used for circulating sea-water through the Aquarium and Laboratory tanks has been fitted with a new piston and cylinder liner.

## The Boats.

The steamer Oithona has not been put in commission this year. All the collecting work which has been possible has been done with the small sailing boat built for the Association two years ago. The motor boat given to us by Colonel G. M. Giles was sold early in the year for the sum of $£ 35$, as there was little prospect of making use of her for some time to come.

## The Staff.

Dr. J. H. Orton and Mr. L. R. Crawshay have joined His Majesty's Forces for the war, making with Mr. E. W. Nelson and Mr. E. Ford, who joined last year, and Mr. R. S. Clark, who accompanied Sir Ernest Shackleton's Antarctic Expedition, five members of the staff who have been absent this year. Of the old staff, in addition to the Director, Dr. E. J. Allen, only Mr. D. J. Matthews remains, he being employed by the Association for half his time.

Miss M. V. Lebour, M.Sc., lecturer in Zoology of the University of Leeds, has been appointed a temporary Naturalist for the period of the war and the Comncil is indebted to the Senate of the University for granting Miss Lebour the necessary leave of absence. Mrs. D. J. Matthews, II.sc., has also been engaged for part of her time in carrying out fishery researches for the Association.

Mr. D. W. Cutler, B.A., now Lecturer in Zoology at Manchester University, was employed for some months last summer in assisting with fishery work.

Those members of the staff who have joined His Majesty's Forces are being paid by the Association the differences between their salaries and. service pay.

## Occupation of Tables.

The following Naturalists have occupied tables at the Plymouth Laboratory during the year :-
W. De Morgan, Plymouth (Protozoa).

1r. E. S. Goodrich, f.r.s., Oxford (Myxosporidia).
Mrs, Goodrich, b.sc., Oxford (Parasitic Protozoa).
Miss M. Irwin, b.A., Cambridge (Embryology of Elasmobranchs).
W. O. R. King, ma, Leeds, Ray Lankester Investigator (Temperature coefficient of development of Echinus miliaris).
Mrs. W. O. R. King, Leeds (Enzymes of Echinoderm gonads).
D. C. Lillie, b.a., Cambridge (Antarctic Plankton).
J. H. Lloyd, Biminghan (Larve of Nematode of the Common Dogfish in Curcinus meenas).
Mrs. Matthews, m.sc., Plymonth (Development of Alcyonium).
Mrs. E. W. Sexton, Plymonth (Amphipoda and Polycheta).
Dr. C. Shearer, m.a., Cambridge (Dinophilus).
The usual Easter Vacation Course in Marine Biology for University students was not held this year.

## General Work at the Plymouth Laboratory.

The number of the Journal issued during the year (Volume X, No. 4) contains a report by Mr. L. R. Crawshay upon his experiments in the keeping of Plankton animals under artificial conditions. Since this paper was written Mr. Crawshay has. after a careful study of the different factors involved, succeeded in rearing Calamus finmarchicus, one of the most typical of the Plankton Copepods, through all stages from the egg to the adult form, under critical experimental conditions.

In the same number of the Journal the Direetor lias published a revised list of the Polychæta of the Plymouth District and of the South Devon Coast, with records of the localities in which these annelids have been found. The list contains many new records for the English Channel and several for the British area.

The Direetor has beeti engaged for a portion of the year in examining a large collection of larval and young stages of fishes made by Mr. Clark and Mr. Ford in the summer of 1914, by the use of Petersen's young-fish trawl. This work will form the subject of a report on similar lines to those followed by Mr. Clark in his account in the Journal of the youngfish collections of 1913.

In connection with a scheme drawn up by the Board of Agriculture and Fisheries for the study of the different races of herrings found around the British coasts, Dr. Orton, with the help of a number of other workers. has examined two large samples of the Plymouth winter herrings, each containing over 500 fishes. This investigation involved the measurement and enumeration of some eighteen characters on each fish. The figures have been sent to the Board of Igrieulture and Fisheries for comparison with those obtained from other localities, and in order to make them generally available they are also being published in the Journal of the Association.

A series of experiments has been commenced by Mr. D. W. Cutler, with a view to studying the growth of the scales of fishes kept in the Laboratory tanks under different conditions, especially as regards temperature. It is hoped that these experiments may throw some light upon the causes which produce the differences in the lines or markings on the seales now generally used in determining the age of fishes. Mrs. Matthews has taken charge of an investigation on the nutrition and growth-rate of fishes living under Aquarium conditions.

Mr. Matthews has been making determinations of the phosphates in samples of sea-water collected at about intervals of one week outside Plymouth Breakwater, in order to study seasonal changes. A considerable number of analyses have been made, and the results will be published in the next number of the Journal. The hydrographic work he was previously doing for the Fisheries Branch of the Department of Agriculture, etc. (Ireland), is in abeyance for the present, and since the latter part of October last he has been assisting in the chemical side of the investigations into cerebro-spinal meningitis which are being carried out at the Military Hospital at Stonchouse. The chemical work has been done in the Laboratory of the Association.

Miss M. V. Lebour has taken up the study of Plankton, especially that of the most minute organisms which escape from the ordinary silk towNEW SERIES. - VOL, XI. NO. 2. MAY, 1917.
nets, but can be obtained by centrifuging samples of sea-water. The samples examined have been taken at frequent and regular intervals during the year by means of a water-bottle, which has been worked at several different depths, generally near the surface, about mid-water and near the bottom, at the entrance to Plymouth Sound. A numerical estimate has been made of the mumber of organisms of each kind in the individual samples. Miss Lebour has also undertaken the examination of a series of samples obtained by means of tow-nets during the last few years, at fortnightly intervals, at the Seven Stones Light Vessel, midway between Land's End and the Scilly Islands.

Mr. W. O. R. King, assisted by Mrs. King, spent some time at the Laboratory as Ray Lankester Investigator. and continued his work on the temperature coefficient of development of Echimus.

Mrs. E. W. Sexton has completed a paper on the Mendelian inheritance of eye-colour in the Amphipod, Gammarus chevrenxi, which is being published in the next number of the Joumal.

## Published Memoirs.

The following papers, either wholly or in part the outcome of work done at the Laboratory, have been published elsewhere than in the . Journal of the Association :-

Drury, A. N. The Eosinophil Cirl of Trleostem Fish. Journ. Plysiology, vol. 49, 1915, pp. 319-36f.

Ciray, J. Note on the Fielution of sipmomatosoa to Electrolytes and its beering on the Iroblem of Fertilizution. Quart. Jonri. Micr. Sci., vol. 61, 1915, 1p. 119-126.

Orton, J. H. An American Einmy of the Enmlish Oyster Former. Trans. Plymonth Hist., vol. 15, 1912 1:3 (1915), pp. 247261.

Pixell-foodrich, H. L. MI. One the Life-Mistory of the Sporocom of sputenumids, with Ohservetims on some Allien Forms. Quart. Dourn. Micr. Sci.. vol. 61, 1915, 114. 81-104.
 $1915,11.445-457$.
 Account of the l'hrmmenon of Aserual Ruproduction in Phyllorturtopterus and the Description of Tho New Speriss of Chutupterithe from the Atlantic. Proc. Zool. Soc., 1914, 1'p. 955-994.

Svedelus, N: Zytulogisch-Enturchlungsyeschädhliche Stmlien inber Scinain furcelluta. Ein Beitray sur Fraye Ner licdulitionsteituny der nisht Tetrasporenbildemen Floridten. Nova Acta Reg. Soc. Sc. L'1s., Ser. iv., rol. 1, no. 4, 1915.

## The Library.

The thanks of the Association are due to mmerous Govermment Departments. Universities and other institutions at home and abroad for copies of books and current numbers of periodicals presented to the Library. The list is similar to that published in the Reports of Council of former years. A number of anthors have been good enough to send reprints of their papers for the Library and to these also thanks are due.

## Donations and Receipts.

The receipts for the year include a grant from H.M. 'Treasury of dono, being on account of the war one-half of the sum granted in recent years, a grant from the Board of Agriculture and Fisheries, Development Fund ( $£ 500$ ), and one from the Fishmongers' Company ( $£ 600$ ). In addition to these grants there have been received Ammal Subseriptions (£136), Composition Fee (£15), Rent of Tables in the Laboratory, including $£ 25$ from the University of London and $\mathfrak{£} 20$ from the Trustees of the Ray Lankester, Fund (£49) ; Sale of Specimens ( $£ 324$ ) and Admission to Tank Room (£99).

## Vice-Presidents, Officers, and Council.

The following is the list of gentlemen proposed by the Council for election for the year 1916-17 :-

## President.

> Sir E. liay Lankester, k.c.b., Ll.d., f.r.S.
> Cice-Presidents.

The Duke of Bedford, K.G
The Earl of Ducie, fr.r.s.
The Earl of Stradbroke, c. Y.o., C.B.
Lard Montagu of Beaulaeu.
Lord Walsingham, f.r.s.
The Right Hom. A. J. B.lleour, M.1', F.R.S.

## Members of Council.

E. T. Browne, Eng.
L. W. Byrne, Eiy.

Prof. II. J. Fleure, i.sc.
E. S. Goodrich, Esif., I.sc., FRs. Sir Eustace (iurney.
Prof. J. P. Hill, D.se., r.r.s.
E. W. L. Holt, Esif.

The Right Hon. Austen ('hambrerLaIN, M.1'.
IV. Astor, Esif., M.p.
G. A. Boulenierb, Eif., F.r.s.
A. R. Steel-Malthanly, Firl., M.l. liev. (amon Norman, d.c.l., v.i.s. Edwin Watelhouse, Liol.
H. (土. Maurice, Esif, C. B .

Dr. P. Chalmers Mitcheli., f.R.s.
C. ('. Morley, Eisi.
F. A. Potts, Eirl.
( . Tate Recian, Esq.
Prof. I'Arec W. Thonheon, dib.

> Chuirmuen of Conucil.
> A. E. Shipley, Esif., w.Sc., F.R.s.
> Mom. Trousurer.
> Georee Evans, Esil., 1 Wood Street, London, E.C.
> Mon. S'ecretury.

E J. Allen, Esq., D.Sc., f.r.s., The Laboratory, Citadel Hill, Plymouth.
The following Governors are also members of the Conncil :-
G. P. Bidder, Esig., Sc.D.
W. P. Haskett Nsith, Esq. (Prime Warden of the Fishmongers' Co.).
The Earl of Portsmouth (Eishmongers' Company).
Sir Richard Martin, Bart (Fishmongers' Company).
The Hon. Nathaniel Charles Rothschild (Fishmongers' Company).

George Evans, Esq. (Fishmongers Company).
Prof. G. C. Buurne, d.Sc., f.r.s. (Oxford University
A. E. Shiplet, Esif., D.sc., F.r.s. (Camlridge University).
Plof. W. A. Herdman, d.Sc. F.r.S. (British Association).

刃r
Statement of Receipts and Payments for

| To Balance from Last Year:- |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Cash at Bankers . | 720143 |  |  |
| Cash in hand | 131011 | 734 | $5 \quad 2$ |
| , Current Receipts:- |  |  |  |
| H. Il. Treasury for the year ending 31st March, 1916 | $500 \quad 0 \quad 0$ |  |  |
| The Worshipful Company of Fishmongers ........... | 600 0 0 |  |  |
| Ammal Subscriptions | 135 S 0 |  |  |
| Rent of Tables (including Ray Lankester's Trustees, $£ 20$; University of London, £25) | 4 S 150 |  |  |
| Interest on Investments ................................. | 14110 | 1,298 1 | 140 |
| ,, Extraordinary Receipts:- |  |  |  |
| Donation, G, H. Fox | 0106 |  |  |
| Composition Fee | 15150 |  |  |
| Board of Agriculture and Fisheries, Grant from Development Fund for year ending 31st March, 1916... | $500 \quad 0 \quad 0$ | 516 | 56 |
| ,, Laboratory Boats aml Sumlry Receipts :- |  |  |  |
| Sales of Apparatus | 7199 |  |  |
| ,, ,, Splecimens | 323141 |  |  |
| , , Boats, Nets, (lear', etc. | $55 \quad 7 \quad 2$ |  |  |
| Rebate of Insurance, S. Y. "Oithona" | 30131 |  |  |
| Other Items | 110 | 1081 | 144 |

[^13]
## OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.

## the Year ending 31st December, 1915.

| By Salaries and Wages- |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Director |  | 300 | 00 |
| Hydrographer |  | 150 | 0 0 |
| Senior Naturalist |  | 91 | 9 |
| Additional ," | . | 138 | 14 |
| Temporary ,, |  | 97 | 11 |
| Assistant , |  | 61 | 010 |
| ", " | (temporary) | 52 | 9 |
| Salaries and Wages |  | 479 | 2 |

, Travelling Expenses
Less Duplicates sold ... ........... . ............................ 019 0
$83 \quad 5 \quad 2$
, Journal.................................................................. 107 . 6 9
Less Sales................................................................... 1716 1
$89 \quad 10 \quad 8$
,. Buildings and Public Tank Room-
Gas, Water, and Coal ........................................ 14716 4
Stocking Tanks and Feeding .................................... $33 \quad 211$
Maintenance and Renewals ...................................... 156 S 11
Rent, Rates, Taxes, and Insurance............................. $4614 \quad 0$
Less Admission to Tank Room, etc. ..................... 107131
$276 \quad 9 \quad 1$

Balance:-
Cash at Bankers ........................................................ 85.202
Cash in hand ............................................................ 17 12 10
869130
犬゙2,95719 0

# Marine Biological Association of the United Kingdom. 

## LIST

OF

## Gobernors, dounders, and itlembers.

1st May, 1917.

* Member of Council. $\dagger$ Vice-President. $\ddagger$ President. Amm. signifies that the Member is liable to an Ammal Sulscription of One Guinea. C. signifies that he has paid a Composition Fee of Fifteen Ginineas in lien of Anmal Subscription.


## I.-Governors.

The British Association for the Advancement of Science, Burlinyton House, IF ..... $£ 500$
The University of Oxford ..... £500
The University of Cambridge. ..... £500
The Worshipful Company of Clothworkers, 11, Minciny Lane, E.C. ..... $£ 500$
The Worshipful Company of Fishmongers, Loulou Bridge, E.C. ... £12,505
Bayly, Robert (the late) ..... む1000
Bayly, John (the late) ..... $£ 600$
Thomasson, J. P. (the late) ..... £970
C. P. Bidder, Esf., Sc.1., Curendish Corner, Cumbridye ..... \&1500
II.-Founders.
1884 The Corporation of the City of London ..... $£ 210$
1884 The Worshipful Company of Mercers, Mercers' Hall, Cheapside ..... む3415s.
$188 \pm$ The WVorshipful Company of Goldsmiths, Goldsmiths' Hull, E.C. ..... $£ 100$
$188 \pm$ The Royal Microscopical Society, 20, Henover Siqure, $W^{T}$. ..... $£ 100$
1884 'The Royal Society, Burlington House, Piccalilly, $I V$. ..... £350
$188 \pm$ 'The Zoological Society, Regent's Puri, Lomdon, N. W'. ..... $£ 100$
1884 Bulteel, Thos. (the late) ..... $£ 100$
1884 Burdett-Contts, W. L. A. Bartlett, 1, Strutton Street, Piccudilly, IV. ..... £100
$188 \pm$ Crisp, Sir Frank, Bart., Treas. Lim. Soc., 17, Throgmorton A venue, E.U. ..... $£ 100$
1884 Jaubeny, Captain Giles A. ..... $£ 100$
$188 \pm$ Eddy, J. Ray, The Gromye, Corlaton, sliepton ..... £100
1834 Gassiott, Joln L'. (the late) ..... \&100
$\ddagger 188 \pm$ Lankester, Sir E. Ray, K.C.B., F.R.S., 29, Thurlue Place, Ȧouth Kensinyton, S.W. ..... $£ 100$
1884 The Rt. Hon. Lord Masham (the late) ..... $£ 100$
1884 Moseley, Prof. H. N., F.R.S. (the late) ..... $£ 100$
1884 The Rt. Hon. Lord Avelury, F.R.S. (the late) ..... £100
1884 Poulton, Prof. Edward B., M.A., F.R.S., WYyketum House, Oxforl . ..... £100
$188 \pm$ Romanes, (. J., L.L.D., F.R.S. (the late). ..... £100
1884 Worthington, James (the late) ..... £100
188.) Derby, the late Earl of ..... £100
1887 Weldon, Prof. W. F. R., F.R.S. (the late) ..... £100
1888 Bury, Henry, M.A., Muyfield House, Farnhum, Surrey. ..... $£ 100$
1888 The Worshipful Company of Drapers, Drapers' Hull, E.C. ..... $£ 315$
1889 The Worshipful Company of Crocers, Poultry, E.C. ..... $£ 120$
1889 Thompson, Sir Henry, Bart. (the late) ..... £110
1889 Revelstoke, The late Lord ..... $£ 100$
1890 Riches, T. H., B.A., Kitwells, Shenley, Herts ..... £230
1902 Gurney, Robert, Ingham Old Hull, Statham, Norfolk: ..... \&105
1909 Harding, Colonel W., The Hull, Madingley, Cambrityp? ..... £100
1910 Murray, Sir John, K.C.B., F.R.S. (the late) ..... £100
1912 Swithinbank, H., F.R.S.E., F.R.G.S., Denham Court, Denlum, Bucks. ..... £100
1913 Shearer, Dr. C'resswell, 30, Thompson's Lame, Cambridye ..... £100
III.-Members.
1913 Adams, Alfred, M.B., B.Ch., Oxon., Looe, Cormoull ..... Ann.
1897 Adams, IV. R., 11, Windsor Roud, Demmatk Hill, Gumberuell, Loudon, S.E. ..... Ann.
1900 Aders, Dr. WT. M., Zunzibur, Eust Africu ..... Ann.
*1895 Allen, E. J., D.Sc., F.R.S., The Leborutory, Plymonth ..... Ann.
1889 Alward, G. L., Enfuld Villu, Humberstone Avemue, IT 'lthum, (írimsby ..... An11.
1910 Ashwortl, J. H., D.se., The Üvirersity, Edinburgh ..... Ann
+1911 Astor, W., M.P., 4, St. James's Squere, London, IF. ..... C'
1910 Atkinson, G. T., 43, I'(elliment Sitreet, Lomlon, S. IV . ..... Ann.
1902 Baker, R. J., 89, Alexundre Rocul, Plymonth ..... Ann.
1884 Balfour, Prof. Bayley, F.R.S., Royal Botunic Gatlens, Edimburyh ..... C.
*1884 Bayliss, Prof. W. Maddock, D.sc., F.R.s., st. C'uthbert., West Heuth Roud, Humpstend ..... Ann.
1884 Bayly, Miss Anna, Seven Tirees, Plymouth ..... £50
188.) Beck, Conrad, 68, Cornhill, E.C. ..... C.
1884 Beddington, Alfred H., 8, Corncall Terrace, Reyput's I'urli, N. $\boldsymbol{I}^{\text {r }}$. ..... C.
$\dagger 1907$ Bedford, His Grace the Duke of, K. (i., Endsleigh, Turistock: ..... C.
1903 Bidder, Major H. F., Líavensbury Menor, Mitcham ..... Aun.
1910 Bidder, Mrs. M. G., Carondish Comer, Cumbridue ..... A1⒈
1912 Bles, E. J., D.Sc., Elterholm, Mulingley Roul, C'ambiridye. ..... A111.
1910 Bloomer, H. H., 40, Bemutt's Hill, Birminughem ..... Am11.
1910 Borley, J. O., M.A., 43 , Purliament S゙treet, London, s. IV. ..... Ann.
*1881 Boume, Prof. (iilleıt C., M.A., F.R.N., Surile House, Mansfichd Fioud, Oxford ..... Ann
1898 Bowles, Col. Henry, Forty Hall, Enfield ..... Ann
1910 Bradford, Sir J. Rose, K.C.M.(i, M.1., D.Sc., F.R.S., 8, Menchester Square, London, II. ..... AIn.
1902 Brighton Pablic Library (Henry D. Roberts, Chief Librarian) ..... Ami.
1836 Brooksbank, Mrs. M., Leigh Pluce, Godstone, Surrey ..... C.
1834 Brown, Arthur W. W., 62, Curlisle Mensions, Centisle Pluce, London, S.IV. C.
*1893 Browne, Edward T., B.A., Anglefield, Berkhamsted ..... Ann.
1892 Browne, Mrs. E. T., Anglefiehd, Berlhamsterl ..... Ann.
*1897 Byrne, L. W., B.A., 7, New Square, Lincoln's Inn, London, W.U. ..... Ann.
1908 Calman, Dr. W. T., British Museum (Natural History), Cromwell Roart, S.I. Amn.
1912 Cavers, Dr. F., Goldmiths' College, New Cross, London, S.E. ..... Ann.
1913 Childs, Christopher, M.D., Bosearne, Looe ..... Ann.
1911 Chilton, Prof. C., Conterbury College, Christchureh, New Zealund. ..... Ann.
1884 Christy, Thomas Howard ..... C.
1911 Clark, Dr. J., Techricel School, Kilmarnock, N.B. ..... Amn.
1910 Clarke, G. S. R. Kitson, Meanvoodside, Leends ..... Ann.
1887 Clarke, Rt. Hon. Sir E., K.C., 5, Essex Court, Temple, E.C. ..... £25
1886 Coates and Co., Southside Street, I'lymorth ..... C.
1885 Collier Bros., George Street, Plymouth ..... C.
1912 Cotton, A. D., The Herbarium, Royal Gurdens, Kew ..... Ann.
1909) Crawshay, L. R., M.A., The Laboratory, l'lymouth ..... Ann.
1916 Delphy, J., Laborutoire Maritime de Tatihou, par St. Vaust-la-Houque (Munche), France ..... Ann.
188.) Darwin, Sir Francis, F.R.S., 10, Mutinyley Road, Cambridye ..... $C$.

* 1906 De Morgan, W. C., c/o National Provincial Benk, Plymouth ..... Ann.
1908 Dendy, Prof. A., F.R.S., Vale Lodge, Hampstead Heath, N.W. ..... Ann.
1884 Dewick, Rev. E. S., M.A., F.G.S., 26, Oxford Square, Hyde Park, $I^{*}$... ..... $C$.

1915. Dick, G. W., J.P., c/o P.O. Box 28, The Point, Durban, Natal ..... $C$.
1915 Director of Agricnlture and Fisheries, Travancore, Quilon, S. India... Ann.
1885 Dixey, F. A., M.A. Oxon., F.R.S., W adhem College, Oxford £265s. and Ann.1910 Dobell, C. C., M.A, Imprerial College of Science and Teehnology, SouthKensington, S.IV.Ann.
1890 Driesch, Hans, Ph.D., Philosophenwey 5, Heidelberg, Germany ..... C.
$\dagger 1889$ Ducie, The Rt. Hon, the Earl of, F.R.S., Tortworth Court, Falfield, R.S.O. £5015s.
1910 Dıncan, F. Martin, 71, St. Leonard's Road, East Sheen, S. W. ..... Ann.
1884 Dumning, J. W., 4, Talbot Square, London, W. ..... £26 5s.
1884 Dyer, Sir W. T. Thiselton, M.A., K.C.M.G., F.R.S., The Ferns, Witcombe, Gloncester. ..... C.
1908 Elwes, Maj. Ernest V., c/o Hon. Secretary, Torquay Natural History Society, The Museum, Torquay. ..... Ann.
1885 Ewart, Prof. J. Cossar, M.D., F.R.S., University, Edinburgh ..... £25
1894 Ferrier, Sir David, M.A., M.D., F.R.S., 34, Cavendish Square, W. ..... Ann.
1884 Fison, Sir Frederick W., Bart., Boarzell, Hurst Green, Sussex ..... C.
*1913 Fleure, Prof. H. J., D.Sc., University College of W"ales, Aberystuoyth ..... Ann.
1897 Foster, Richard, Windsworth, Looe, R.S.S.O. ..... Ann.
1885 Fowler, G. Herbert, B.A., Ph.D., The Old House, Aspley Guise, Belfordshire ..... Ann.
1884 Fry, George, F.L.S., Carlin Brue, Berwick-on-Tweed ..... £21
1912 Fuchs, H. M. de F., Zoologicul Depurtment, Imperial College of Science and Technology, South Fensington, S.W. AIII.
1907 Gamble, Prof. F. W., D.Sc., F.R.S., The University, Edmund Street, Birmingham Ann-
1906 Cardiner, Prof. J. Stantey, M.A., F.R.S., Cuius College, Cambrilge ..... Am.
$190^{7}$ Garstang, Prof. W., D.Sc., 2, Ridye Mount, Cliff Lioed, Healingley, Leed.s Ann.
1910 Gooding, H. C., Ipsuch Street, Stowmurket ..... Ann.
*1910 Goodrich, E. S., F.R.S., Merton Colleye, O.efore? ..... Ann.
188.5 Gordon, Rev. J. M.. T, Moreton Gerdens, London, S.IV. ..... AIn.
1912 Gray, J., King's College, C'tmbridye ..... Ann.
1899) Gumiess, Hon. Rupert, Elceden, Thetford ..... £ 35 15s.
1916 Guitel, Prof. F., Laboratoire de Zoologie, Liennes, France ..... AIn.
1900 Gurney, Sir Eustace, Stmonston Hall, Norwich ..... Ann.
1884 Halliburton, Prof. W. D., M.D., F.R.S., Church Cottuge, 17, Marylebone Roul, London, IV. ..... Ann.
1884 Hannah, Robert, 82, Addison Roud, Kensington, W. ..... C.
188. Harmer, S. F., D.Sc., F.R.S., British ITuseum (Natural IIistory), Crom- well Rood, S.IV. ..... C.
1888 Haselwood, J. E., 3, Riehmond Terrace, Brighton ..... C.
1884 Haslam, Miss E. Rosa, Rutenswood, Bolton ..... $\mathfrak{£} 20$
1884 Head, J. Merrick, F.R.G.S., J.P., Pennsylourine Custle, Iste of I'ortlund, Dorst AIII.
1884 Heape, Walter, F.R.S., 10, King's lieneh Wulk, Tomple, Lomlon, E.C. S.
1910 Hefford, A. E., B.sc., Rigyside, Śtmlend, WThitby, Yorks ..... Ann.
1908 Hepworth, Commander M. II. Cimpbell, C.B., R.N.R., Meteoroloyical Office, South Kensinyton, London, S.IV. ..... Ann.
*183t Herdman, Prof. W. A., F.R.S., The Zoology Depertment, The University, Liverpool ..... Aun.
1913 Heron-Allen, E., F.L.S., F.R.M.心., F.(x.s., 33, Humilton Teruee, London, N.IV. ..... C.
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## The Loss of the Eye-pigment in Gammarus cheureuxi.

## A Mendelian Study.

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With Plates I to VII at the emr.

## CONTENTS.

Section I. Albino Jmperfect Eye ..... 274ace
Cross A. Albino Female AC $\times$ Red Male R. 2 . Plate I
275
275Cross B. Alhino Female AC $\times$ Black Male K. A.
278
('onstitntion of Blacks II, III, IV and V ..... 278
Reds II. HII, IV and $V$ ..... 284
, $\quad \mathrm{F}_{2}$ Albinos ..... 286
Sibetion II. All-white Perfect Eye ..... 287
('ross C. Albino Female AB $\times$ White Male R.I. ..... 287
Hypotheses 1 and II ..... 288
('mstitution of Blacks V'1, Cross ('. ..... 291
Cross-matings ..... 303
Constitution of Reds ..... 307
Albinos, ..... 317
Experiments with the Original Stock ..... 324
The Part-White Eye ..... 325
section 1II. No-white Eve. III ..... 326
Section IV. Colourless Eye ..... 330
(ross between Coloured No-white and Albino ..... 330
Independent Origin of Coloured No-white and Albino No-white or Colourless eyes ..... 336
Constitution of the Colourless eye ..... 338
section V. Oxe-Sided No-whites ..... 339
sicmimary ..... 341
Gexeral Coxsiderations ..... 348
Explavation of Plates ..... 350

In a paper by Sexton and Wing (Journ. MI.B.A., Vol. XI, No. 1, pp. 18-50) a mutation occurring in the Amphipod Gammarus cherreuxi Sexton, was described and figured (Pl. I, Fig. 3) in which the usual black
pigment of the eye was replaced by a bright red pigment.* It was shown that these red eyes behaved as a pure recessive in accordance with Mendel's law, the hybrid between red-eved and pure black-eyed animals being black. Certain other mutations which had just occurred were also described and figured in that paper, and it is to a study of these and of others that have since appeared that the present paper is due.

Our thanks are due to Miss A. R. Clark, who has given valuable help in the care of the broods and in the examination of the young animals for eye-colour.

The system employed for designating the different broods and the individual animals in each brood is as follows: The two original Albino females from which the experiments started are called $A B$ and $A C$. The five broods obtained from AC are numbered I to $V$, the one brood from $A B$ is numbered VI. Each animal which came to maturity in each of these broods is designated by a capital letter. A, B, C. etc. Each brood derived from one of these females is numbered by an arabic numeral, and each animal in the brood is denoted by a small letter, a, b, c, etc. Thus I.E.3.a. means the first individual (a) in the third brood (3), of female E from brood I of the original female AC. (See Plate I.)

In the plates the colour developed in the eye of each animal is shown by the large circles, and the constitution of the animal in regard to the factors for eye-colour, when known, by the character and position of the small circles. The V -shaped mark indicates that the presence or absence of the factor usually represented in the position where the mark stands has not been proved.

In the text the colours are represented by capital letters. A means albino, B black, R red and $\mathrm{N}^{\top}$ no-white. The first letter in a formula in black type gives the visible colour of the eye, the remaining letters the constitutional factors which are carried. Thus $\mathbb{B}+\mathrm{R}+\lambda$ means a blackeyed animal, carrying the factors for red and albino. $\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{N}$ means a black-eyed animal carrying the factor for no-white. BN and RN mean black and red no-white respectively.

## SECTION I. THE ALBINO $\dagger$ IMPERFECT EYE.

The shape of the normal eye of Gammarus cherreuxi is reniform, with the margin entire. (Plate VII. Fig. 2.) The eve is raised above the surface of the cephalon, and much rounded, and is composed of numerous

[^14]ommatidia arranged in regular rows, each ommatidium being surrounded by pigmented retinular cells, the pigment being black in the normal eye, red in the mutation. On the surface and around the upper portion of the ommatidia, a chalky white extra-retinal pigment is found, the "accessory pigment," which gives the reticulated appearance to the ommateum. In the albino eye only this extra-retinal pigment is developed. (Plate VII. Fig. 4.) The ommateum is much altered. is reduced considerably in size, and is very variable in shape, even the eyes of the same animal often differing widely in form, and in the size, shape, number and arrangement of the ommatidia. The surface of the ere is flat, not convex as in the type, with a few ommatidia sparsely scattered, generally around the margin, and with some occasionally lying beyond it. Especially portions of the extra-retinal chalk-white pigment tend to become detached, causing white spots to appear in more or less definite positions on the head. A more detailed study of these spots is still in progress.

The Albino eye appeared in the $\mathrm{F}_{2}$ generation from a mating of Pure Black with Pure Red. The young $\left(\mathrm{F}_{1}\right)$ of this mating all had normal black eyes. The 15 which survived to maturity were kept together in one bowl to breed, each female when ovigerous being removed to a separate bowl until her young were hatched, and then returned to the broodbowl to mate again. The forty-second brood $\left(\mathrm{F}_{2}\right)$ obtained from this family consisted of 7 Black-eyed young, 1 Red-eyed and 4 with neither black nor red pigment, the Albino eye just described. The total number of young recorded from all the broods was 745 , of which 559 were blackeyed, 182 red-eyed and 4 albino-eyed. The four albinos reached maturity, one male and three females, but only two females survived to produce offspring, the AB and AC (Plate II) of the following experiments.

All the albino-eyed animals used in the experiments are descendants of these, and there has been no other case observed of an independent origin of this mutation. The stock from which these two females came was kept for a further period of eighteen months, and no more albino eves occurred in it.

## Cross A.

## Cross between the albino fenale AC and a pure Red male R.2. (Plate I.)

One of these females ( AC ) was mated with a male from Pure Red stock (R.2), the resulting offspring being 3 black and 6 red-eyed young. This at once suggests that colour is dominant to absence of colour, and that the albino eve, in which only white accessory pigment appeared, contained the factors for both black and red retinal pigment.

Following Bateson and Pumnett we may assume a colour factor C, which with its absence c forms an allelomorphic pair. In the absence of C the factors for black and red in the retinal pigment do not produce any visible effect. The constitution of the pure red male would then be $\begin{gathered}C R \\ C R\end{gathered}$ and of the albino female $\begin{gathered}c ~ B \\ c R\end{gathered}$ where $B$ and $R$ are the factors for black and red respectively.

The mating of these should give in $\mathrm{F}_{1}$ : -
C' c B R , a black carrying the factor for "red " and also the factor for " albino ";* C c R R , a pure red carring the factor for " albino."

## F.1. Generation. Black $\times$ Black.

The three black-eyed young of this $F_{1}$ generation were 2 females and 1 male (Pl. I: I.A.B.C.). The male was mated with the females in turn and three broods were obtained from each. The total number of young was 119, of which 61 were black-eved, 28 red-ered, and 30 albino-eved.

Theoretically the cross

$$
(\text { c } B R \times \text { ç } B R
$$

gives gametes CB
CR
c B
c R
which with chance meetings would give zygotes:-

| $C B$ | $C B$ | $C B$ | $C B$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $C B$ | $C R$ | $c B$ | $c R$ |
| $C R$ | $C R$ | $C R$ | $c R$ |
| $C B$ | $C R$ | $c B$ | $c R$ |
| $c B$ | $c B$ | $c B$ | $c B$ |
| $C B$ | $C R$ | $c B$ | $c R$ |
| $c R$ | $c R$ | $c R$ | $c R$ |
| $C B$ | $C R$ | $c B$ | $c R$ |

That is out of every 16 youmg there are 9 Black-eyed, viz. :-


[^15]3 Red-eyed, viz. :-

> I with constitution $(C \cdot R R$
> $2 \quad$ C

4 Albinos, viz. :-

| 1 with constitution c c B B |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | , | .. |
| 2 | c c R R |  |
| 2 | , | c c B R |

For 119 specimens the numbers should be according to theory 67 black, 22 red, 30 albino.
whilst those found by experiment were 61 black, 28 red, 30 albino. a sufficiently close agreement.

$$
\text { F.1. Generation. Red } \times \text { Red. }
$$

The six red-eved young of the $\mathrm{F}_{1}$ generation were 4 females and 2 males (Plate I: I.D.E.F.(i.H.J.). The males were mated with the females and 875 young were obtained. including a brood of 17 not examined within 48 hours of extrusion.*

According to theory the parents all had the constitution CcRR , and these mated together should give : -

3 Red-eyed, viz. :-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 1 \text { with constitution ( ( } 1 \text { R R } \\
& \underset{\sim}{2} \text {, , (! } \quad \text { R R }
\end{aligned}
$$

Experiment gave 658 red-eyed and 217 albino, $\dagger$ theory requires $65 \%$ red-eyed and 219 albino.

## F.I. Generation. Black $\times$ Red.

I cross between a red-eyed female and black-eved male of the $\mathrm{F}_{1}$ generation (Pl. I : I.B. and D.) gave in three broods 9 black-eyed, 15 redeyed and 8 albino. Theory requires the proportions 3 black, 3 red. .2 albino, which for 32 young would be 12 black, $1 \cdot 2$ red, 8 albino.

[^16]
## Cross B.

Cross between the albino feniale AC. and black hybrid male K.a. (i.e. a black carrying red). (Plates I and II.)

The albino female that was used in Cross A was also crossed with a black hybrid male, the son of a pure black father by a pure red mother. The result was 7 black and 2 red offspring in the first brood.

If the constitution of the albino female is c $^{c} \mathrm{P}$ ? and of the hybrid black male $\begin{gathered}C B \\ C\end{gathered}$, the result of the cross should be 3 blacks (one pure and two hybrid) and 1 red, all of them carrying the factor for albino.

Three further broods were obtained from this cross, the total numbers for all four broods being 75 black, 15 red, a proportion 5:1 instead of $3: 1$, but three of the broods were not counted until some days after extrusion, which probably accounts for the small proportion of reds.

## F.1. (ieneration. Blacks.

Of the 75 black-eyed young, 49 reached sexual maturity, 27 being males and 22 females. Of these it was possible to test 33 from Broods II, III and IV by mating them together or with mates of known constitution, and 21 proved to be hybrids, i.e. carried both the factors $B$ and R, whilst 12 were pure black. All without exception had albinos amongst their immediate offspring, or transmitted the character to their descendants, showing that both parents possessed the factor c. (Plate I: Broods II, III, IV, V.)

The following list gives the constitution of each individual animal and the different matings made to prove that constitution ; these constitutions are shown in detail on Plates I and II.
II..1. Male, Black carrying Red and Albino (Plate II).

Matings :- (1) with female D of the same brood $(\mathbf{B}+1)$; 88 young, 65 Black, 23 Albino ;
(2) with female VI.A ( $\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A}$ ) ; 79 young, 49 Black, 15 Red, 15 Albino;
(3) with a female $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R})$ (from a mating Pure Black with Pure Red) ; 26 young, 18 Black, 8 Red.
II.C. Male, Black carrying Red and Albino (Plate II).

Matings :-(1) with female VI.C. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{R}+\mathrm{A}) ; 115$ young, it Black, 15 Red, 26 Albino ;
(2) with Red No-white female from No-white Stock (previously mated with male VI.A.t.) ; 34 young, 18 Black, 16 Red.
II.D. Female, Black carrying Albino only (Plate IL).

Matings: (1) with male A of the same brood ( 89 young, 66 Black, 23 Albino).*
III.A. Male, Blach carrying Red and Albino (Plate I).

Mating: (1) with female K of the same brood $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+$ A); 61 young, 30 Black, 14 Red, 17 Albino.
III.B. Male, Black carrying Albino only (proof obtained by mating the offispring).
Matings :- (1) with female $L$ of the same brood $(\mathbf{B}+\boldsymbol{\lambda})$; 33 young, 20 Black, 13 Albino.
The first brood of this pair were mated together, and also with Red mates; the resulting young numbered 153, 115 Black and 38 Albino (see Pl. III, Fig. 3, for an example). Black young of the first brood of these were mated together, and gave 19 Black, 3 Albino ; mated with Reds they gave 52 young, all Black.
dccording to these matings both male B and female L are Blacks carrying the Albino factor only.
III.C. Male, Black carrying Albino only (probably).

Matings :- (1) with female $M$ of the same brood $(\mathbf{B}+\boldsymbol{A}$, Red factor not known) ; 78 young, 57 Black, 21 Albino.
One of this pair is certainly a $(\mathbf{B}+\lambda)$, the constitution of the other is not known.
III.D. Male, Black carrying Albino only.

Matings:-(1) with female $N$ of the same brood, $(\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{A})$; 115 young, 78 Black, 37 Albino;
${ }^{(2)}$ ) with female VI.B.2.e. $(\mathbf{R}+\lambda)$; ( 19 young, 11 Black, 8 Albino) ;
(3) with female IV.X. ( $\mathbf{R}+\mathrm{A}$ ) ; 429 young, 329 Black, 100 Albino.
III.E. Male, Black carrying Albino. Red not proved.

Matings :- (1) with female $\mathbf{O}$ of the same brood, $(\mathbf{B}+$ $\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A})$; 5 young, 4 Black, 1 Albino.
III.F. Male, Black carrying Albino only (probably).

Natings:- (1) with female P of the same brood; 69 young, 53 Black, 16 Albino.
One of this pair is certainly a $(\mathbf{B}+\boldsymbol{A})$, the constitution of the other is not known.

[^17]III.t. Male, Black carrying Red aml Albino.

Matings :- (1) with female $R$ of the same brood, $(\mathbf{R}+\mathrm{A})$; 2 young, 1 Black, 1 Red;
(2) with female $\mathbf{O}$ of the same brood, $(\mathbf{B}+$ $\mathrm{R}+1)$; $3: 3$ young. 22 Black. 2 Red. 9 Albino.
III.H. Male, Black carrying Red and Albino.

Matings : - (1) with female Q of the same brood, ( $\mathbf{B}+$ $\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A})$; 111 young, (66 Black, 26 Red, 19 Abino.
III.J. Male, Black carrying Red and Ilbino.

Matings :-(1) with female (from wild stock, referred to on p. 329) Black no-white ; 92 young, all Black ;
$(2)$ with female 14.b. (of the same stock as male R.1. on Plate II, see p. :32t), Pure Red; 14 young, 5 Black, 9 Red.

One black-eyed male from mating (1) was mated with an albino female. The first brood of 6 young consisted of 2 black and 1 albino. Hence III.J. must carry albino.
III.K. Female, Black carrying Red and Albino.

Matings :--(1) with male A of the same brood, $(\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{R}+$ A) ; (61 young, 30 Black, 11 Red, 17 Albino).
III.L. Female, Black carrying Albino only.

Matings :-(1) with male $\mathrm{B},(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{A})$; (33) young. 20 Błack. 13 Albino).
Proof of male B and this female was olbtained by mating broods (see under" "Male III. B ").
III.M. Female. Black carryiny Albino. Red not known.

Matings :--(1) with male C of the same brood (see note to that animal); (78 young. 57 Black, 21 Albino).
III.N. Female. Black carrying Albino.

Matings :-(1) with male D of the same brood, $(\mathbf{B}+1)$; (115 young, 78 Black, 37 Albino):
$(2)$ with male VI.A.3 $11,(\mathbf{R}+1)$; ( 4 ? young, 32 Black, 10 Albino).
III.O. Female, Black carrying Albino.

Matings : (1) with male $\mathbf{E}$ of the same brood. $(\mathbf{B}+\Lambda)$; (5 young, 4 Black, 1 Albino) ;
$(\underset{)}{(2)}$ with male (f of the same brood, $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+$ 1) ; (33 roung. -2 Black, 2 Red. 9 Albino).
III.P. Female. Black carrying Albino. Red factor not proved.

Matings :- (1) with male F of the same brood $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{A})$; ( 69 young, 53 Black. 16 Albino).
III.Q. Female, Black carrying Red and Albino.

Matings: (1) with male H of the same brood. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+$ A) ; (111 young, 66 Black, 26 Red. 19 Albino) ;
$(\underset{)}{(3)}$ with a male from the same brood. ( $\mathbf{B}+$ $\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A}$ ) ; 19 young, 10 Black, 6 Red, 3 Albino.
The one remaining Black-ered animal, a male, died without mating.
IV.A. Male, Black carrying Red and Albino (Plate I).

Matings :-(1) with female N of the same brood, $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{A})$ : 6 young, 2 Black, 4 Albino ;
(2) with female T of the same brood. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+$ A) ; 108 young, 64 Black, e21 Red, 23 Albino.
IV.B Male, Black carrying Albino. Red not known.

Matings :- (1) with female $\mathbf{O}$ of the same brood, $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{A})$; 91 young, 70 Black, 21 Albino.
IV.C. Male. Black carrying Red and Albino.

Matings :-(1) with female P of the same brood, $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+$ A): 61 young, 38 Black, 9 Red, 14 Albino.
IV.D. Male, Black carrying Red and Albino.

Matings :-(1) with female Q of the same brood, ( $\mathbf{B}+$ $\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A}$ ) ; 40 young, 22 Black, 8 Red. 10 Albino.
IV.E. Male, Black carrying Red and Albino.

Matings :- (1) with female R of the same brood, $(\mathbf{B}+$ $R+A)$; 49 young, 28 Black. 7 Red, 14 Albino;
$(2)$ with female Y of the same brood, $(\mathbf{R}+\Lambda)$; 19 young, 10 Black, 5 Red, 4 Albino.
IV.F. Male, Black carrying Albino. Red not known.

Matings :-(1) with female $S$ of the same brood, $(\mathbf{B}+\Lambda)$; 57 young, 40 Black, 17 Albino.
IV.(: Male, Black carrying Red and Albino.

Matings :- (1) with female T of the same brood. $(\mathbf{B}+$ $\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A}$ ) ; 61 young, 33 Black. 15 Red, 13 Albino.
IV.H. Male, Black carrying Albino only.

Matings :- (1) with female U of the same brood, $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{A}$, Red not proved) ; 72 roung, 54 Black, 18 Albino.
IV..J. Male, Black carrying Red and Albino.

Matings :- (1) with female X of the same brood, $(\mathbf{R}+\boldsymbol{A})$; 12 young, 3 Black, 4 Red, 5 Albino ;
(2) with female VI.A.3.q. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A})$; (3.3 young, 19 Black, 7 Red, 7 Albino).
IV.K. Male, Black carrying Red and Albino.

Matings : (1) with female $V$ of the same brood, $(\mathbf{B}+1)$; 80 young, 63 Black, 17 Albino ;
(2) with female VI.B.1.g. (Pure Red) ; (9 young, 2 Black, 7 Red).
IV.L. Male, Black carrying Red (and Albino).

Matings :- (1) with female $Y$ of the same brood, $(\mathbf{R}-1)$; 2 young, I Black, 1 Red.
IV.M. Male, Black. Constitution not known.
IV.N. Female, Black carrying Albino only.

Matings:-(1) with a Black male of the same brood; 5) young, all Black.
(8 young were produced from the matings of this brood with Pure Red, 7 Black, 1 Albino.)
(2) with male $A$ of the same brood, $(\mathrm{B}+\mathrm{R}+$ A) ; ( 6 young, 2 Black, 4 Albino).
IV.O. Female, Black carrying Albino only.

Matings :-(1) with male $B$ of the same brood $(B+A$, Red not known) ; (91 young, 70 Black, 21 Albino) ;
(2) with a Black male of the same brood, $(\mathbf{B}+$ $R+\lambda)$; 32 young, 26 Black, 6 Albino ;
(3) with male VI.A.1.m, (Pure Red); (39 young, all Black).
IV.P. Female, Black carrying Red and Albino.

Matings : (1) with male C of the same brood, $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+$ A) ; (61 young, 38 Black, 9 Red, 14 Albino).
IV.Q. Female, Black carrying Red and Albino.

Matings :- (1) with male D of the same brood, $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A})$; (40 young, 22 Black, 8 Red, 10 Albino).
IV.R. Female, Black carrying Red and Albino.

Matings : (1) with male E of the same brood, $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+$ A) ; (49 young, 28 Black, 7 Red, 14 Albino).
IV.S. Female, Black carrying Albino only.

Matings :- (1) with male F of the same brood, $(B+A$, Red not known) ; (57 young, 40 Black, 17 Albino);
(2) with a Black male of the same brood, $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A}) ; 14$ young, 11 Black, 3 Ilbino ;
(3) with male VI.B.1.d ( $\mathbf{R}+\mathrm{A}$ ) ; (18 young, 13 Black, 5 Ilbino).
IV.T. Female, Black carryiny Red and Albino.

Matings :- (1) with male (t of the same brood, $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+$ A) ; (61 young, 33 Błack, 15 Red, 13 Albino) ;
(2) with male $A$ of the same brood, $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{I})$; (108 young, 64 Black, 21 Red, 23 Albino).
IV.U. Female, Black carrying Albino. Red not proved.

Matings:- (1) with male H of the same brood, $(\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{A})$; (72 young, 54 Black, 18 Albino).
IV.V. Female, Black carrying Albino only.

Matings :- (1) with male $K$ of the same brood, $(\mathbf{B}+$ $\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A}$ ) ; ( 80 young, 63 Black, 17 Red) :
(2) with a Black male of the same brood, either J., K. or M.; 6 young, 3 Black, 3 Albino.
(3) with male VI.A.3.t, $(\mathbf{R}+\mathbf{1})$; ( 12 young, 10 Black. 2 Albino).
Brood V. This brood was unhealthy, only a few surviving to mate : the Blacks were not tried for the Red factor.
V.A. Male, Black carryiny Albino. Red not known.

Matings : (1) with female D of the same brood, (B+A only, probably); 17 young, 1』 Black, 5 Albino.
I.B. Male, Black carrying Albino. Red not known.

Matings :--(1) with female E of the same brood, $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{A}$ only, probably); 8 young, 6 Black, : ${ }^{2}$ Albino.
I.C. Male, Black. Constitution menown.
V.D. Female, Black carryiny Albino only (probably).

Matings :--(1) with a male of the same brood ; 5 young, 4 Black, 1 Albino ;
(2) with male I of the same brood; (17 young, 12 Black, 5̇ Albino).
V.E. Female, Black carrying Albino ouly (probably).

Matings:- (1) with a Black male of the same brood; 3) young, all Albino ;
(2) with male B of the same brood; (8 young, (5 Black. 2 Albino).
Y.F. Female, Black. Constitution unknown.
V.G. Female,
V.H. Female,
Y.J.

## F.1. (ieneration. Reds.

Of the 15 Red, 4 males and 6 females reached matmity. (Plate I.) Hated in the same brood they all gave some albino offispring, showing that they contained the factor $c$.

The following list shows the matings made to prove their constitutions:II.B. Male, Red carrying Albino (Plate II).

Matings :- (1) with female VI.B: $(\mathbf{R}+\mathbf{1}) ; 101$ young. 76 Red, 25 Albino:
(2) with female 14.a. from the original stock of all-white male R.1. (see p. 324);

29 voung, all Red (one of these was mated with female VI.C.3.s.) ;
(3) with female 14.b. from same brood as $14 . \mathrm{a}$; 30 young, all Red (see p. 324 ) ;
(4) with female VI.A.2.k. : $(\mathbf{A}+\mathrm{B}+\mathrm{R})$; (146 young, 3.3 Black, 44 Red, 69 Mlbino) ;
(5) with female VI.A.1.p. ; $(\mathbf{R}+1)$ : 90 young, 66 Red, 24 Albino (Plate I ${ }^{\prime}$, Fig. 12).
III.R. Female, Red carrying Albino (Plate I).

Matings :- (1) with either male E or male F of the same brood, $(\mathbf{B}+1)$ : ( 6 young, 3) Black. 3 Albino) ;
(2) with male (i of the same brood, ( $\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+$ A) ; (2 young, 1 Black, 1 Red).
IV. W. Male. Red carrying Albino (Plate I).

Matings :- (1) with female da, of the same brood, ( $\mathbf{R}+1$ ) ; 7-) young, 5t Red, 18 Albino;
$(2)$ with female $Z$ of the same brood. $(\mathbf{R}+\lambda)$; 154 young, 127 Red, 27 Ilbino:
(3) with a female (from Brood 1 of III.C.), $(\mathrm{A}+\mathrm{B}): 50$ young, 29 Black, 27 Albino.
IV.X. Female, Red currying Ilbino.

Matings :- (1) with male .J of the same brood, $(B+R+$ I) ; ( 12 young, :3 Black, 4 Red, 5 . Albino) ;
(2) with male VI.I.I.e., $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A})$; (111 young, to Black, 4: Red, 27 Albino) :
(3) with male III.D. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{A})$; ( 429 young, 329 Black, 100 . Ilbino).
IV.Y. Female, Red carrying Albino.

Matings: (1) with male $L$ of the same brood, $(\mathrm{B}+\mathrm{R}+1)$; ( 2 young, I Black. 1 Red) :
(2) with male $E$ of the same brood, $(B+R+\lambda):(19$ young, 10 Black. . $)$ Red, 4 . Ilbino) :
(3) with a male (Brood 1 of III.B.) ; ( $A+B$ ); (16 young, 1:2 Black, I Abino).
I Y.Z. Female. Red carrying Albino.
Jatings :- (1) with male $\mathbb{W}$ of the same brood, $(R+\Lambda)$; ( 154 young, 127 Black, 27 Albino):
$(2)$ with a male (Brood 1 of III.B.), $(A+B)$ : (65) young, .31 Black, 34 Albino) (Plate III, Fig. B).
IV. Aa. Female, Red carrying Albino.

Matings: (I) with male $\mathbb{W}$ of the same brood, $(\mathbf{R}+\boldsymbol{\lambda})$; ( 72 young, ist Red, 18 . Ilbino).
V.K. Male, Red. Constitution not proved.
V.L. Male, Red carrying Albino, mated with female M ; 8 young, if Red, 2 Albino.
V.M. Female, Red currying Albino.

## F.2. Generation. Albinos.

In the $\mathrm{F}_{2}$ generation the most interesting feature for study is the constitution of the albino offspring. These were mated together successfully in fifteen instances, and without exception gave albino young, the total number of young examined and recorded being 140. (For an example see Plate III, Fig. 1.) One of these young, in addition to having no black or red retinal pigment, also lacked the white accessory pigment and was quite colourless. This specimen is again referred to on p. 339.2. In addition to these separate matings, the albino young of III were put together in a jar to breed, producing 15 young, all Albino. Two others were mated with albinos from VI, and had 138 young, all Albino.

The albinos may carry either (1) pure black, (2) pure red or (3) both black and red. Amongst the $\mathrm{F}_{2}$ offispring belonging to this section the constitution has been proved in the following cases :-
(1) Albino carrying pure black.

One male (II.D.1.k.) mated with a red no-white gave 38 young, all black-eyed.
One male (Brood 1 of III.B.) mated with a red female from the same stock (carrving albino) gave 12 black and 4 albino.
One male (Brood 1 of III.B.) mated in the same way gave 31 black and 34 albino (Plate III, Fig. 3).
One female (Brood 1 of III.C.) mated with a red male (IV.W.) from the same stock (carrving albino) gave 29 black and 27 albino.
(2) Albino carrying red.

One female (from a brood of female I.(.). mated with a pure red male of the same brood gave 12 all red young (Plate III. Fig. 4).
Another similar female (from the same brood as above) mated with a male of the same brood (red carrying the factor for albino) gave 7 red and 10 albino young (Plate III, Fig. 5).
(3) Albino carrying black and red.

One male (II.D.1.j.) mated with a red no-white gave 42 black and 38 red young (Plate III, Fig. 6).
The original albino female AC was like this.

## SECTION II. THE ALL-WHITE PERFECT EYE.

In the former paper (p. 45 and Fig. 8) a second form of white eye, i.e. one of perfect form but with no black or red retinal pigment, and with only the extra-retinal chalk-like white accessory pigment, was described and figured. This occurred in the pure red stock and the details of the origin of the only two indviduals of the kind that were seen are given in the paper referred to. Only one individual, a male, survived to produce offispring. The stock has not since produced any more of them.

## Cross C.

('ross between albino mperfect-eyed female AB. and "allwhite" perfect-eyed male R.1. (Plate VII, Figs. 4 and 7 ; Plate II.)
The male just referred to was mated with an albino imperfect-eyed female ( $A B$ ) from the degenerate-eyed stock described on p. 275. There resulted 2 black and 3 red-eved offspring all normal eyed as regards form, and the male died in moulting without mating again (Plate II). The fact that two parents, neither of which showed any coloured pigment, produced all coloured-eyed offspring seemed to make this case specially interesting and some pains have been taken to investigate it thoroughly. Since the male came from pure red stock, and some black-eyed offspring were obtained it seems clear that the black came from the female which must, since both black and red offspring were produced, have contained the red factor also. This female was therefore an albino carrying both black and red, like the sister from the same brood whose offspring we have already studied in Cross A.

There seem to be two possible ways of regarding this case, in which two albino parents produced coloured offspring. Following Bateson and Punnett we may endeavour to explain it by supposing that the factor for red has been lost in the perfect-eyed male, whilst a "colour factor," which must be present if colour is to appear, has been retained in the male, but is absent in the female. If we represent the colour factor by C and its absence by c , the constitution of the male would be ${ }_{C}^{\mathrm{C}}$, that of the female $\begin{aligned} & c \quad B \\ & c R\end{aligned}$. On the other hand, it may be that the absence of colour in the male is a somatic and not a germinal character, and is not inherited at all. Breeding experiments carried on to the fourth generation have shown that this second supposition is the true one, and that the " all-white" male from the pure red stock behaves, as regards its offispring, exactly as if it were a pure red.

Of the offspring of the cross between the "all-white " perfect-eyed male and the albino imperfect-eyed female, three only survised until they were mature, 2 black-eyed and I red-eyed, all being females. Of the $F_{1}$ offspring of the cruss between the imperfect albino and the hybrid black already dealt with (Cress B) there were four survivors of the first brood (II). one black female, one red and two black males, as already (lescribed. It this stage of the investigation it was important to increase as quickly and with as little risk as possible the stock of albino-ered animals. This could be most easily done by crossing the two broods. which soon gave us large numbers of albino-eved offspring. This crossing of the two broods has somewhat complicated the analysis necessary for the determination of the germinal constitution of the perfect-eyed "all-white" male, but the result nevertheless appears to be definite and not without interest.

The following matings were made, the offispring of Cross $\mathbf{C}$ being designated VT, those of Cruss B being II (Plate II) : -
(1) VI.I. (Black female) $\times I I .$. . (Black male). The offspring were black, red and albino. hence both male and female were hybrids, carrving factors for black, red and albino.
(2) VI.C. (Black female) $\times$ II.C. (Black male). Again the offspring were black, red and albino, and both male and female therefore hybrids.
(3) I'I.B. (Red female) $\times$ II.B. (Red male). Offspring red and albino.
(1) and (-2) being quite similar crosses their offspring may be added together. In three broods from each, examined immediately the young were extruded, there were 91 black. 26 red and 37 albino, a total of 151 young.

In the cross of the two reds (3), out of 101 young there were 76 red and 25 albino.

We must now proceed to consider the analysis of these matings according to the two hypotheses for the constitution of the perfect-eyed " allwhite " male already mentioned, in order to determine which, if either. of the two hypotheses is correct.

Taking first the cross between the two blacks, we have:
Hypothesis I. On the first hypothesis the constitution of the allwhite perfect-eyed male will be ${ }_{( }^{( }$, that of the albino female carrying black and red $\begin{aligned} & \text { e B } \\ & \text { e R }\end{aligned}$. The gametes for the mate will therefore be C only, for the female e $B$ and $c R$. The $F_{1}$ zygotes resulting from the mating of these two will be C c B and C'c R, giving black and redeyed animals in equal numbers.

The constitution of the albino imperfect-eyed female is c $\quad \begin{gathered}B \\ c\end{gathered}$ as already seen on p. $2 \overline{7} 6$, that of the hybrid black male with which it was mated is C B
C
R . The gametes are therefore for the male C B and C R, for the female $c B$ and $c R$. The $F_{1}$ zygotes resulting from the mating of these two will be one C c B B , a black earrying albino, two CeBR , blacks earrying red and albino, and one $\mathrm{C} e \mathrm{R} \mathrm{R}$, a red earrying albino.
If we now cross an $F_{1}$ black from the first of the above matings with an $\mathrm{F}_{1}$ hybrid black from the second, we have :-

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { VI.A. } q \times 3 \text { II.A. } \\
C \mathrm{cB} \times(\mathrm{cBR}
\end{gathered}
$$

| Female gametes :Male | $\begin{aligned} & C^{\prime} B, \\ & C B, \end{aligned}$ | U, $\mathrm{C} R,$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { с } B, \\ & \text { с } B, \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { e } \\ & \text { e R } \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Male <br> $\mathrm{F}_{2}$ Zygotes | (1) B | C | c B | e |
|  | ( B | C B | C B | C B |
|  | ( ${ }^{\text {B }}$ | ( | e B | c |
|  | ( R | ( R | CR | CR |
|  | ( ${ }^{\text {B }}$ | C | c B |  |
|  | c B | c B | c B | c B |
|  | ( ${ }^{\text {B }}$ | ¢ | c B | c |
|  | c R | c R | e R | c R |

That is 9 black, 3 red and 4 albino.
Hypothesis II. On the second hypothesis the all-white perfect-eyed male is constitutionally a pure red, but the non-appearance of the red is a pathologieal condition which is not inheritable. Its constitution may then be represented as ${ }_{C}^{C} R$, and if it is mated with the albino female carrying black and red we shall have :-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& C R \quad c B \\
& C R \times R
\end{aligned}
$$

The gametes for the male will therefore be ( R only, for the fema'e c $B$ and e $R$.

The $\mathrm{F}_{1}$ zygotes resulting from the mating of these two will be $\mathrm{C}_{\mathrm{C}} \in \mathrm{B} \mathrm{R}$ and C c R R, giving black and red-eyed animals in equal numbers.

If one of these $F_{1}$ black-eyed animals (VI) is mated with a black from Jrood II, carrying red, we shall have :-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { YI.A. } q \times \hat{o} \text { Il.A. } \\
& \text { CeBR CeB R }
\end{aligned}
$$

Female ( ametes C B, C R, c B, c R
Male ,. the same as the femate.
$\mathrm{F}_{2} Z_{y \mathrm{yg} \text { otes }}$

| $C B$ | $C B$ | $C B$ | $C B$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $C B$ | $C R$ | $c B$ | $c R$ |
| $C R$ | $C R$ | $C R$ | $C R$ |
| $C B$ | $C R$ | $c B$ | $c R$ |
| $c B$ | $c B$ | $c B$ | $c B$ |
| $C B$ | $C R$ | $c B$ | $c R$ |
| $c R$ | $c R$ | $c R$ | $c R$ |
| $C B$ | $C R$ | $c B$ | $c R$ |

That is 9 Black, 3 red and 4 albinos.
It will be seen therefore that according to either theory the visible result should be exactly the same in the $\mathrm{F}_{2}$ generation, viz. :-
9 Black, 3 Red, 4 Albino. The experimental result was 91 black, 26 red, 37 albino and theory requires 87 , 29,388 , which is a good agreement.

The germinal constitution will however be different according to which hypothesis is true. We will consider the different colour classes separately.

Under Hypothesis I there would be six different kinds of black-eyed animals, which in every sixteen animals would occur on the average as follows:-
one normal pure black, without the albino factor ; ( C C B B) ;
two , , , with , , , (CcBB) ; one pure black, with one dose of black only instead of two, and without the albino factor; ( C C B ) ; two ., ,. with one dose of black and with the albino factor; (Ce B) ;
one black carrying red, without the albino factor ; (C C B R): two ,. ., , with .. .. .. (CeBR).

Under Hypothesis II there would be only four different kinds of blackeyed animals, viz. :-
one normal pure black, without the albino factor ; (C C B B) :
two ., ,. , with .. ,. .. (Cc B B) :
two black earrying red, without .. ., ,. (CCBR); four ., ., "with .. ., , (CcBR).

The difference between the results given by the two hypotheses is that under II there are no blacks with one dose of black only, their place being taken by additional hybrid blacks.

One means of testing the hypotheses, therefore, will be to find out
by further breeding experiments whether or not the $\mathrm{F}_{2}$ offspring contain blacks with one dose of black. If a one-dose black be mated with another one-dose black the offspring will be all black, if mated with a two-dose black they will be all black, but if mated with a hybrid black (black carrying red) the offspring will contain some red, as we have seen in considering the cross VI.A. $\times$ II.A.

If we mate together the blacks of the $\mathrm{F}_{2}$ generation we obtain in $\mathrm{F}_{3}$ some broods which contain red-eved animals, others which contain only blacks. The parents of the broods containing red eyes will either be two hybrids, or a hybrid and a one-dose black, if the latter exists. If we cross-mate the parents of a number of such broods, in as many different ways as possible, we ought eventually to bring two one-dose blacks together, in which case we should get all black offspring.

A second test will be as follows. If a one-dose black be mated with a red it will, according to theory, give blacks and reds in equal numbers, behaving in exactly the same way as a hybrid black. If therefore we take blacks which give red offspring when mated with red, and mate them together, we ought, if the one-dose black exists, to obtain some broods which give all black as the result of two one-dose blacks coming together.

By mating together blacks tested with reds in this way, and blacks tested with other blacks and giving red in their broods, we have a further opportunity of bringing together two one-dose blacks (if they exist).

These tests have been applied, but we have not been able to find any one-dose blacks, all those tried proving ordinary hybrid blacks, giving both red and black offspring. (See list of cross-matings, p. 303.)

## Cross C. F.z. Generation. Blacks.

The following lists show (1) the constitutions of all the blacks of these broods which have been tested (see Plate II, VI.A and VI.C) ; and (2) the results of the cross-matings made with blacks which had given some red offspring when mated with either red or black mates:-
(1) The Black-eyed young, showing their constitution and the matings by which they were proved.
VI.A.1.a. Male, Black carryiny the factor for Red only (Plate IV, Figs. 2, 4 and 5).
Matings :--(1) with female from Pure Red Stock; 8 young, 5 Black, 3 Red :
$1(2)$ with female 1 of its own brood, $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+$ A) ; 61 young, 49 Black, 1 - Red ;
(3) with female of VI.C.1.d. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A})$; 42 young, 30 Black, 12 Red.
VI.I.1.b. Male, Black carrying Red only.

Matings:-(1) with female from Pure Red Stock; 15 young, 5. Black, 10 Red;
(2) with female $g$ of its own brood $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{I})$; 27 young, 23 Black, 4 Red;
(3) with female $f$ of its own brood, $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A})$; 2.5 young, 17 Black, 8 Red.
V.i.l.c. Hale, Pure Black (Plate IV, Figs. 7 and 8).

Matings:- (1) with female from Pure Red Stock, 16 young, all Black;
(2) with female $q$ of its own brood, $(\mathbf{R}+\mathrm{A})$; 45 young, all Black.
V1.1.1.d. Male, Black carrying Red and Albino.
Matings:- (1) with female from Pure Red Stock: 10 young, 3 Black, 7 Red.
(2) (3) (4) (5) with four other females. Which it ate ;
(6) with female VI.B.…. $(A+R)$; 24 young, 1 Black, 3 Red, 20 Albino*;
(i) with female II.A.3.q. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\hat{1})$; 16 young, 10 Black, :2 Red, 4 Albino.
M.A.1.e. Male, Bluck corrying Red and Albino.

Matings:-(1) with female from Pure Red Stock; 18 young, 11 Black, 7 Red;
(2) with female VI.C.1.h. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{R})$; 88 young, (6) Black, 28 Red;
(3) with female IV.S. $(\mathbf{R}+1)$ : 111 yomng, 12 Black. $1 \cdot$ Red, 27 Albino.
Vi.A. 1.f. Female, Black crorying Red und Albino.

Matings:- (1) with male from Pire Red Stock; 12 young, \& Black, 8 Red;
( 2 ) with male VI.C.1.m. $(\boldsymbol{R}+1)$; 71 young, 31 Black, 18 Red, 22 Albino ;
(3) with male b of its own brood: (2.) young, 17 Black, 8 Red) ;
(4) with male VI.A.3.c. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A})$; j) young, 2 Black, 1 Red, 2 Albino.

[^18]VI.A.1.g. Female, Black ctrrying Red and Albino.

Matings: (1) with male from Pure Red Stock: 10 young. 5 Blank, 5 Red :
$(2)$ with male b , of its own brood : (27 young. 23) Black, 4 Red) ;
(3) with male VI.C.1.m. $(\mathbf{R}+1)$ : $2 \cdot 2$ young. 10 Black, 8 Red, 4 Albino.
VI.A.1.h. Female, Black carrying Red and Albino.

Matings :-(1) with male from Pure Red Stock ; 7 young. 3 Black, 4 Red ;
(2) with male o of its own brood, Pure Red; 31 young, 17 Black, 14 Red.
That the female carried the factor for Albino was proved by mating the young of the first brood, when Black, Red, and Albinn eyes appeared in the offspring ( 207 young, 89 Black. 106 Red. 1:2 Albino). One Red male was also mated with female VI.C.3.e. and one Red male with female VI.B.I.f. and a Black female with male Y1.B.2.t.

## VI.A.1.j. Female, Black carrying Red, albinism not known.

Mating :- (1) with male from Pure Red Stock ; 19 young, 7 Black, 12 Red :
VI.A.1.k. Female, Black carrying Red only.

Mating :-(1) with male from Pure Red Stock; 17 young. 8 Black, 9 Red.

Of the young of this brood 11 survived to maturity; from their matings in the bowl 77 young have been obtained, 38 Black, 39 Red. but no albino-eved young have appeared.
VI.A.1.1. Female, Black carrying Red and Albino (Plate IV. Figs. 1, 2 and 3).
Matings:-(1) with male from Pure Red Stock; i:3 young, 39 Black, 34 Red :
$(2)$ with male a of its own brood: (61 young. 49 Black, 12 Red) ;
(3) with male VI.C.1.o. $(\mathbf{R}+1)$ : 82 young, 37 Black, 24 Red, 21 Albino (and 21 other: not examined).
Three other black-eyed young were hatched, two died, immature, and the third. a female, which reached maturity was eaten by its mate.
VI.1.2.a. Male, Black carrying Red and Albino.

Matings :-(1) with female $k$ of its own brood, $(\mathbf{A}+\mathrm{B}+\mathrm{R})$; 7 young, 2 Black, 1 Red, 4 Albino :
(2) with female VI.B.3.e. (Pure Red): 20 young, 8 Black, 1? Red.
VI.A.2.b. Male, Black, fuctors carried not knoun.

Mating:- (1) with Red female VI.B.3.g.; 5 young. all Black.
Both male and female died before mating again ; constitution therefore of both mannown.
VI.A.2.c. Female, Black carrying Red only.

Mlatings:-(1) with male VI.A.3.h. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{A})$; 46 young, all Black;
(2) with male VI.B.2.d. $(\mathbf{R}+\lambda) ; 27$ young, 16 Black, 11 Red;
(3) with male VI.A.3.d. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R})$; 43 young, 29 Black, 14 Red.
VI.A.2.d. Female, Black carrying Albino.

Mating :-(1) with male V.A.3.aa. $(\mathbf{A}+\mathrm{R})$; 18 young, 8 Black, 10 Albino.
VI.A.2.e. Female, Black carrying Albino.

Mating :-(1) with male VI.A.3.aa. $(\mathbf{A}+\mathrm{R})$; 29 young; 13 Black, 16 Albino.
II.A.2.f. Female, Black carrying Albino.

Mating :-(1) with male VI.A.3.aa. $(\mathbf{A}+\mathbf{R})$; 30 young, 12. Black, 18 Albino.

11 others; 9 died immature; one male and one female which reached maturity, died withont mating.
VI.I.3.a. Male, Black, Red not kmorn. No Albino.

Matings :--(1) with female $k$ of the same brood $(\mathbf{B}+\lambda)$; 18 young, all Black.
(Chance matings amongst these 18 black young gave 29 young, all black.)
(2) with female YI.A.1.l. Eggs laid. but female died before they were hatched.
VI.A.3.b. Male, Black carrying Albino.

Matings :-(1) with female 1 of the same brood $(B+A, R$ not proved) ; 4 young, all Black;
$(2)$ with female bb. of the same brood $(A+B+$ R) : 14 young, 2 Black, 12 Albino:
(3) with female I.D.2.d. $(\mathrm{A}+\mathrm{B}+\mathrm{R})^{*}$; 7 young, 3 Black, 4 Albino.

[^19]MI.A.3.c. Male, Black currying Red and Albino.

Hatings :-(1) with female $m$ of the same brood, $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+$ A) ; 28 young, 18 Black, 6 Red, 4 Albino ;
(2) with female VI.A.1.f. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A})$; ( 5 young, 2 Black, 1 Red, 2 Albino);
(3) with female VI.C.I.d., $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A})$; 71 young, 36 Black, 15 Red, 20 Albino;
(1) with female VI.C.3.d. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R})$; 11 young, 9) Black, 2 Red.
VI.A.3.d. Male, Black carryiny Red omly.

Matings : (1) with female $n$ of the same brood $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+$ A) ; 46 young, 11 Black, 5 Red;
(2) with female VI.C.1.d. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A})$; 115 roung, 91 Black, 24 Red ;
(3) with female VI.A.2.c. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R})$; ( 43 young, 29 Black, 14 Red) ;
(4) with female VI.C.3.e. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A})$; 56 young, 46 Black, 10 Red.
MI.I.3.e. Male, Pure Black.

Matings :- (1) with female of same brood, $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{A}, \mathrm{R}$ not proved) ; 9 young, all Black;
$(2),(3),(4),(5)$ with 4 other females, which it ate ;
(6) with female VI.B.2.r. $(\mathbf{A}+\mathrm{R})$; 19 young, all Rlack.
YI.A.3.f. Male, Black carrying Red and Albino.
Matings :-(1) with female p of its own brood, $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+$ A) ; 13 young, 6 Black, $\supseteq$ Red, : A Abino.
VI.A.3.g. Male, Black carrying Albino.

Natings :-(1) with female $q$ of its own brood, $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+$ A) ; 5. young, 3.5 Black, 20 Albino ;
( 2 ) with female III Q. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A}) ; 37$ young, 27 Black, 10 Albino.
VI.I.3.h. Male, Black carrying Albino.

Matings :-(1) with female VI.A.2.c. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R})$; (46 young, all Black) ;
(2) with female II.B.2.v. $(\mathbf{A}+\mathrm{R})$; 92 young, 52 Black, 40 Albino.
VI.I.3.j. Male, Black. Constitution not known.

Matings:-(1) with female s of the same brood: 1 young Black.
VI.A.3.k. Female, Black carryiny Albino.

Matings :- (1) with a Black male of the same brood: 6 young, 5 Black, 1 Albino:
(2) with male a of the same brood ; ( 18 young, all Black) ;
(3) with male VI.C.1.p. $(\mathbf{R}+1)$; 38 young. 27 Black, 11 Albino.

YI.A.3.1. Female. Black carrying Albino. Red not proved.
Matings :-(1) with a Black male of the same brood; is young, all Black;
$(2)$ with male $b$ of the same brood, $(\mathbf{B}+A)$ : ( 4 young, all Black).

Only one young survived to maturity, and was mated with a Red female carrying albino ; 19 offspring were proctuced, 8 Black and 11 Albino.

YI.A.3.m. Female, Black carryiny Red and Albino.
Matings:- (1) with a Black male of the same brood, 1 young. Black;
(2) with male c of the same brood, $(\mathbf{B}+$ $\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A}$ ); (28 young, 18 Black, 6 Red. 4 Albino).
VI.A.3.n. Female. Black carrying Red and Albino.

Matings :-(1) with male d of the same brood. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R})$ : (46 young, 41 Black, 5 Red).

From the matings of these, 73 young were produced, 69 Black, 2 Red and 2 Albino.
VI.A.3.o. Female, Black carrying Albino. Red factor not proved.

Matings :- (1) with a Black male of the same brood; 5) young, + Black, 1 Albino ;
(2) with male e of the same brood, (Pure Black) ; (9 young, all Black).
As these roung all died before reaching maturity, it was not possible to test the brood for Reds.
VI.A.B.p. Female. Black carrying Red and Albino.

Matings :-(1) with a black male of the same brood; 6 young, :3 Black, 3 Albino;
$(\stackrel{3}{ })$ with male $f$ of the same brood. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A})$; (1:3 foung, 6 Black, 2 Red, 5 Albino).
V.A.3.q. Female, Black carrying Red and Albino.

Matings :- (1) with male of of the same brood, $(\mathbf{B}+1)$; (5.) young, 3:5 Black, 20 Albino) ;
(2) with male IV.J. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+1)$; 3:3 young. 19 Black, 7 Red, 7 Albino;
(3) with male VI.A.I.d. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{R}+\mathrm{I})$; (16 young, 10 Black, 2 Red, 4 Albino).
YI.A.3.x. Female, Black carrying Red and Albino.
Matings :-(1) with a Black male of the same brood ; 7 young, $\&$ Black, 3 Albino ;
$(2)$ with male VI.C.3.a. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{I}): 8$ roung, 3 Black, 2 Red, 3 Nbino.

YI.A.3.s. Female, Bluck. Coustitution not proved.
Matings :-(1) with a Black male of the same brood: 1 young, all Black:
(2) with male j of the same brood: (1 young, Black).
VI.C.1.a. Male, Black carrying Albino.

Matings :-(1) with a female from Pure Red Stock: 66 yomg, all Black:
(2) with an Albino female I.D.2.d. ; 49 young, 24 Black, 25 Albino.
VI.C.1.b. Male, Black carrying Red and Albino.

Matings:-(1) with female $f$ of the same brood $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+$ A); 74 young, 41 Black, 15 Red. 18 Albino (Plate IV. Fig. 15) :
(2) with female k of the same brood $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{A})$; 27 young, 20 Black, 7 Mbino (Plate IV, Fig. 14).
VI.C.1.c. Male, Black carrying Red and Albino.

Matings:-(1) with a female from Pure Red Stock ; 53 young, 33 Black, 20 Red;
$(2)$ with female 1 of the same brood $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+$ A) : 17 young, 12 Black, 3 Red, 2 Albino.
VI.C.I.d. Female, Black carrying Red and Albino.

Matings:-(1) with male $n$ of the same brood $(\mathbf{R}+\mathrm{A})$; 96 young, 37 Black, 35 Red, 24 Albino;
(2) with male $o$ of the same brood, $(\mathbf{R}+\mathrm{A})$; 39 young, 12 Black. 16 Red, 11 Albino (Plate IV, Fig. 6) ;

Matings:- (3) with male VI.A.1.a. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{R})$; ( 12 young, 30 Black, 12 Red) (Plate IV, Fig. J) :
(4) with male VI.A.3.d. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R})$; ( 80 young, 62 Black, 18 Red) ;
(5) with male VI.A.3.c. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{N})$ : (71 young, 36 Black, 15 Red, 20 Albino).
VI.C.1.e. Female, Purc Black.

Matings :-(1) with male o of the same brood $(\boldsymbol{R}+1)$; 4.2 young, all Black;
$(2)$ with male 11 of the same brood. $(\mathbf{R}+1)$; 49 young, all Black.
VI.C.1.f. Female, Black carrying Red and Albino.

Matings :-(1) with male b of the same brood $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A})$; (74 young, 41 Black, 15) Red, 18 Albino) (Plate IV, Fig. 15) ;
(2) with male $p$ of the same brood $(\mathbf{R}+1)$; 78 young, 32 Black, 23 Red, 23 Albino (and 11 others not examined).
VI.C.1.g. Female, Black carrying Red and Albino.

Matings:- (1) with a male of the same brood (either b or c), $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+1) ; 17$ young, 8 Black, i) Red, 4 Albino.
VI.C.1.h. Female, Black carrying Red only.

Matings :-(1) with male $p$ of the same brood $(\mathbf{R}+\mathrm{A})$; 40 young, 16 Black, 24 Red;
(2) with male Vi.A.1.e. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\boldsymbol{1})$; ( 88 young, 60 Black, 28 Red);
(3) with male VI.C.3.b. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+1)$; 12 young, 8 Black, 4 Red.
VI.(.1.j. Female, Black carrying Red only.

Matings :-(1) with a male from Pure Red Stock: 58 young, 2.5 Black, 33 Red.
These broods were mated together on reaching maturity; 64 young were produced, Black and Red, no Albinos.
VI.C.1.k. Female, Black carrying Albino only.

Matings:-(1) with a male from Pure Red Stock; 82 young, all Black (Plate IV, Fig. 13) ;
$(2)$ with male b of the same brood $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A})$; (27 young, 20 Black, 7 Albino) (Plate IV, Fig. 14).
II.C.1.I. Female, Black currying Red and Albino.

Matings:-(1) with a male from Pure Red Stock; 10 yomng, 18 Black, 2.2 Red;
$(2)$ with male c of the same brood $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A})$; (17 young, 1:2 Black, 3 Red, 22 Albino).
VI.C.2.a. Male, Black carrying Red and Albino.

Matings :-(1) with female f of the same brood $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+$ 1); 18 young, 7 Black, 2 Red. 7 Albino, (and 2 others eaten).
VI.C.2.b. Male, Black carryiny Red and Albino.

Matings :-(1) with female $g$ of the same brood ( $\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+$ A); 21 young, 10 Black, 4 Red, 7 Albino.
V.C.2.c. Male, Black carrying Albino only.

Matings :- (1) with female $h$ of the same brood, Black carrying Albino only probably; 8 young, (6) Black, 2 Albino;
(2) with female VI.B.3.f. $(\mathbf{R}+\mathrm{A})$; 6 young, 5 Black, 1 Albino.
VI.C.2.d. Male, Pure Black:

Matings :- (1) with female j of the same brood ; 67 young, all Black;
(-2) with female VI.B.2.g. (Pure Red) ; 23 young, all Black;
(3) with female VI.B.2.v. $(\mathbf{A}+\mathrm{R})$; 21 young, all Black.
VI.C.2.e. Male, Black carrying Red and Albino.

Matings :- (1) with female $k$ of the same brood $(\mathbf{B}+$ $R+A) ; 8$ young, 7 Black, 1 Albino ;
$(2)$ with female 1 of the same brood $(B+$ $\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A})$; 27 young, 15 Black, 3 Red, 9 Albino.
VI.C.2.f. Female, Black carrying Red and Albino.

Matings :-(1) with either male $b$ or male $e$ of the same brood $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A})$; 12 young, 4 Black, 1 Red, 7 Albino ;
(2) with male a of the same brood $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A})$; (18 young, 7 Black, 2 Reds, 7 Albino and 2 others eaten).

IT.(.2.g. Female, Black carrying Red and Albino.
Matings :--(1) with a male of the same brood (probably male d Pure Black ); 6 young, all Black;
$(2)$ with male $b$ of the same brood $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A})$; (21 young, 10 Black, 4 Red, 7 Albino).
VI.('.2.h. Female, Black currying Albino only (probably).

Matings :- -(1) with a male of the same brood (probably male d, Pure Black); 8 young, all Black ;
(2) with male $c$ of the same brood $(\mathbf{B}+A)$; (8 young, 6 Black, 2 Albino).
Only three of this brood came to maturity, 1 male and 2 Black females. The male mated with one female and had 4 young, 2 Black and 2 Albino. The females were mated with Red males, and gave (1) 2 Black and (2) 2.5 Black and 4 Albino: no Reds.
II.('.2.j. Female, probably Pure Black (other factors not proved).

Matings :-(1) with a Black male of the same brood; 7 young, all Black;
(2) with male d of the same brood, (Pure Black) : ( 67 young, all Black).
Of these young, only two males survived to maturity; mated with Albino females $(\mathbf{A}+\mathrm{R})$ they gave 10 young, all Black.
VI.C.D.k. Female, Black carrying Red and Albino.

Matings : - (1) with male b or e of the same brood ( $\mathbf{B}+$ $\mathrm{R}+1$ ): 13 young, 7 Black, 2 Red, 4 Albino ;
(2) with male e of the same brood; $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A})$; (8 young, 7 Black, 1 Albino);
(3) with male 11 of the same brood $(\mathbf{A}+\mathrm{R})$; 21 voung, 17 Black, 1 Red, 3 Albino.
11.(.2.l. Female, Black currying Red and Albino.

Matings: (1) with a Black male of the same brood; 4 young, 2 Black, 2 Albino:
(2) with male ef the same brood, $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A})$; ( 27 young, 15 Black, is Red, 9 Albino).
The remaining one, a male, died before its constitution was proved.
M.c.3.a. Male, Black carrying Red and Albino.

Matings:-(1) with female VI.A.3.r. $\quad(\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{R}+\mathrm{A})$; $(8$ young, ? Black, 2 Red, 3. Albino).
VI.C.3.b. Male, Black carrying Red and Ilbino.

Matings: (1) with female VI.B.e.e. $(\mathbf{R}+\mathrm{A})$ : 38 youms. 15 Black, 12 Red, 11 Nlbino ;
(2) with female YI.C.1.h. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R})$; ( $1 \cdot 2$ roung. 8 Black, 4 Red) ;
(3) with female $g$ of the same brood, $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R})$ : 18 young, 13 Black, 5 Red.
VI.C.3.c. Male, Black cerrying Albino only.

Matings :-(1) with female VI.A.3.w. ( $\mathbf{R}+\mathrm{A}$ ) ; ( 17 ronns. 1.5 Black, 2 Albino).
II.C.B.d. Female, Black carrying Red only.

Matings: (I) with male $n$ of the same brood (Red, albinism not known); 16 young. 13 Black, 3 Red;
(2) with male VI.A.3.t. ( $\mathbf{R}+1$ ) : (2.) young. 12 Black. 13 Red);
(3) with male VI.A.3.c. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A})$ : (11 young, 9 Black, : 2 Red).
VI. C.3.e. Female. Black carrying Red and Albino.
llatings:- (1) with a male, Pure Red (from the same stock as R. 1 on Plate II, see page 32:); ¡ young, 5 Black, 2 Red ;
$(2)$ with male $\mathrm{YI} . \mathrm{B} \cdot 2 . \mathrm{t} .(\mathbf{A}+\mathrm{R}):-28$ young, 13 Black, 4 Red, 11 Albino:
(3) with a male from Brood 1 of female VI.A.1.h. (Pure Red); 34 young, 2? Black. 12 Red:
(4) with male V1.A.3.d. ( $\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}$ ) ; ( -96 young, 46 Black, 10 Red).
I I.C.3.f. Female, Black carrining Albino only.
Matings: (1) with male VI.B.?.b. $(\mathbf{R}+1)$; 2. young. 21 Black, 4 Albino.
VI.C.3.g. Female. Black carrying Red only.

Matings :-(1) with male VI.C.2.u. $(\mathbf{A}+\mathrm{R})$; (28 young, 13 Black, 15 Red) ;
(2) with male $b$ of the same brood $(\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{R}+\mathrm{A})$; (18 young, 1:3 Black, ; Red).
VI.C.3.h. Female, Pure Black:

Matings :--(1) with male VI.A.2.g. $(\mathbf{A}+\mathrm{R})$ : ( 29 roung. all Black).
VI.C.3.j. Female, Black carrying Albino omly. Matings :- (1) with male p of the same brood $(\mathrm{A}+\mathrm{R})$; :3] young, 14 Black, 17 Albino;
(2) with a male (from Broorl 1 of male V1.(..2.p.) $(\mathbf{A}+\mathrm{R})$; 9 young, 1 Black, ;) Albino.
II.C.3.k. Female, Black carrying Albino. Red not known.

Matings:- (1) with a Black male of the same brood; 6 young. 3 Black, 3 Albino.

This brood died before reaching maturity, and could not therefore be tested for Reds.
(ㄹ) with male VI.A.2.j. Died.
II.C.3.l. Female, Black. Constitution not proved.

Matings:- (1) with Red male I.E.1.a.; 2 young, Black.
These died without mating.
T'o sum up, 69 animals were tested, 28 males and 41 females; 58 of these gave conchsive results, while six others are marked "doubtful," either because the number of offspring obtained was not considered quite sufficient, or because the animal after being proved for one factor, red or albino, died before the presence or absence of the second factor conld lee definitely established. The remaining five gave no definite results.

The proportions should be, according to Hypothesis II, 1:2:2: 4 , which for 64 would be $7: 14: 14: 28$.

The actual figures counting the " doubtfuls" are $7: 17: 10: 30$. They were divided as follows:

Pure Blacks, 5, three males and two females. -2 others, male and female, "doubtful," i.e. showing neither the red nor the albino factor in their young nor in the matings obtained from these.

Black carrying Albino only, 14, six males and eight females, 3 others, females, "doubtful," i.e. no proof of the red factor.
Black carrying Red only. 9, three males and six females, 1 other. female, "doubtful," i.e. no proof of the albino factor.
Black carrying Red and Albino, 30, thirteen males and seventeen females. In all, 3,137 young were obtained from these matings, 32 of which were not examined for eye-colour.

The matings Black by $\mathbf{R}$; by $\mathbf{R}+\mathrm{A}$; by $\mathbf{A}+\mathrm{R}, 2 \mathfrak{2}$ young all Black.
Black by $\mathbf{B} ;$ by $\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{A}$; by $\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A}, 121$ all Black.
Black currying Albino, by $\mathbf{R}$; 148 all Black: by $\mathbf{R}+1$ : 53 Black and 16 Albino: by $\mathbf{A}+\mathrm{R}, 103$ Black, 106 Albino.

Black currying Albino, by $\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{I}, 92 \mathrm{Black}$, 45 . Ibino: by $\mathbf{A}+\mathrm{B}+\mathrm{R}$, 29 Black, 41 Abino: by $\mathbf{B}+1$, 15 Black, 8 Albino: by $\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}$, il all Black.

Black carryiny Red, by R, and $\mathbf{R}+1.95$ Black. 105 Red.
Black carrying Red, by B + R. 29 Black, 14 Red: by $\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A}$, :38 Black, 114 Red

Black carrying Red and Albino, by R. 168 Black, 147 Red: by $\mathbf{R}+$ I, こ16 Black, 178 Red, 14:3 Albino: by $\mathbf{A}+$ R, 31 Black, 8 Red, :34 Albino.

Black carrying Red and Albino, by $\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A}$, 205 Black, 72 Red, 104 Albino: by $\mathrm{A}+\mathrm{B}+\mathrm{R}, 2$ Black, 1 Red, 4 Albino.
[In the $\mathrm{F}_{3}$ generation proceeded with for proof 450 young $\left(\mathrm{F}_{4}\right)$ were produced. $27 \cdot 2$ Black, 117 Red and :31 Albino.]
(2) List of the cross-matings made with the black-eyed animals which had given some red offspring when mated with reds or other blacks:-
VI.A.1.a. Male $(\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{R})$ : tested with Red : 5 Black, 3 Red.
(1) crossed with female VI.A.1.l. (B+R+A); 4.) Black. 11 Red ;
(2) crossed with female VI.C.1.d. $\quad(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A})$ 30 Black, 12 Red.
VI.I.1.h. Male $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R})$ : tested with Red: 5 Black, 10 Red.
(1) crossed with female VI.A.l.g. ( $\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{I}$ ); 23) Black, 4 Red :
(2) crossed with female VI.A.1.f. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{I})$; 17 Black, 8 Red.
VI.A.1.d. Male $(\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{R}+1)$ : tested with Red: 3 Black, 7 Red.
(1) crossed with female VI.A.3.q. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{R}+1)$; 10 Black, ᄅ R Red, 4 Albino.
Mi.I.1.e. Male $(\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{R}+1)$ : tested with Red : 11 Black, 7 Red.
(1) crossed with female VI.C.1.h. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R})$; 60 Black, 28 Red.
VI.I.1.f. Female $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathbf{I})$ : tested with Red : 4 Black, 8 Red.
(1) crossed with male b, see above ;
(2) crossed with male VI.A.3.c. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A})$; 2 Black, 1 Red, :2 Albino. 11 Red.
(1) crossed with male VI.A.3.d. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}) ;: 9$ Black, If Red.
VI.I.3.c. Male $(\mathbf{B}+\boldsymbol{R}+1)$.
(1) crossed with female VI.A.3.m. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{R}+\boldsymbol{A})$; 18 Black, 6 Red, 4 Albino:
$(\stackrel{2}{2})$ crossed with female VI.A.1.f. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{I})$; see above ;
(3) crossed with female VI.C.1.d. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathbf{1})$ : 36 Black, 15 Red, 20 Albino
(4) crossed with female VI.C.3.rl. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R})$ : 9 Black, 2 Red.
VI..I.3.d. Mate $(\boldsymbol{B}+\mathrm{R})$.
(1) crossed with female VI.A.3.n. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A})$; 11 Black. 5 Red ;
(2) crossed with female VI.C.1.d. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+1)$; 91 Black, 2 4 Red;
(3) crossed with female VI.I.2.c. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R})$; see above:
(4) crossed with female \I.C.3.e. $(B+R+1) ; 16$ Black, 10 Red.
*IT.I.3.f. Male ( $\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A}$ ).
(1) crossed with female VI.A.3.p. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{R}+1)$; (i) Black. :2 Red, 5 Albino.
*VT.A.3.m. Female $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{I})$.
(1) crossed with male VI.A.B.c. $(B+R+1)$ : see above.
*VI. A.3.p. Female ( $\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{I}$ ).
(1) crossed with male VI.A.3.f. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{R}+1)$; see above.
*VI.A.3.q. Female $(\mathbf{B}+\boldsymbol{R}+\boldsymbol{A})$ : tested with a male $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A}): 19$ Black, 7 Red. 7 Albino.
(1) crossed with YI.A.I.d. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{I})$; see above.
*VI.1.3.r. Female $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+1)$.
(1) crossed with male VI.C.3.a. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{R}+1)$ : 3 Black, 2 Rel. 3 Albino.
＊VI．C．1．b．Male $(\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{R}+1)$ ．
（1）crossed with female VI．C．1．f．$(\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{R}+\boldsymbol{A}) ; 41$ Black， 15 Red， 18 Albino．
VI．C．1．c．Male $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+1)$ ：tested with Red ：：33 Black， 20 Red．
（1）crossed with female VI．C．1．l．$(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A}) ; 12$ Black， 3 Red， 2 Albino．

VI．C．1．d．Female $(\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{R}+\mathbf{1})$ ：tested with Reds carrying Albino ； 49 Black， 51 Red， 35 Albino．
（1）crossed with male VI．A．1．a．$(\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{R})$ ；see above ；
$(\underset{ }{2})$ crossed with male VI．A．3．d．$(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R})$ ；see above ：
（3）crossed with male VI．A．3．c．$(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+1)$ ；see above．

II．C．I．f．Female $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{I})$ ：tested with Red carrying Albino；32 Black， 23 Red， 23 Albino．
（1）crossed with male VI．C．1．b．$(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{I})$ ；see above．
＊VI．C．1．g．Female（ $\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{I}$ ）．
（1）crossed with male from VI．C．I．$(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A})$ ； 8 Black，广 Red，I Ilbino．

VI．（＇．1．h Female（ $\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}$ ）：tested with Red： 16 Black， 24 Red．
（1）crossed with male VI．I．1．e．$(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+1)$ ；see above．
（2）crossed with male VI．C．3．b．$(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+1) ; 8$ Black． 4 Red．

VI．C．1．l．Female $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+1)$ ：tested with Red： 18 Black． $\mathfrak{2}-2$ Red．
（1）crossed with male YI．C．1．c．；see above．
＊\T．C．2．a．Male（ $\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{I}$ ）．
（1）crossed with female V1．C．2．f．$(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A}) ; 7$ Black， 2 Red， 7 Albino．
＊VI．C．2．b．Male $(\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{R}+1)$ ．
（1）crossed with female VI．C．2．g．$(\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{R}+1) ; 10$ Black， 4 Red， 7 Albino．

VI．C．2．e．Male（ $\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{R}+\boldsymbol{I}$ ）．
（1）crossed with female II．（．2．k．$(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{I})$ ； 7
Black， 1 Albino；
（2）crossed with female VI．C．2．l．$(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+1)$ ；15 Black，：3 Red， 9 Albino．
VI.C.2.f. Femate (B+R+A).
(1) crossed with a male from T1.C.2. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A})$; 4 Black, 1 Red, 7 Albino ;
(2) crossed with male VI.C.2.a. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A})$; see above.
*V1.C.2.g. Female ( $\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A}$ ).
(1) crossed with male VI.C.2.b. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A})$; see above.
VI.C.2.k. Female $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A})$ : tested with Albino carrying Red; 17 Black, 1 Red, 3 Albino.
(1) crossed with male from VI.C.2: $(\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{R}+\mathbf{A})$; 7 Black, 2 Red, 4 Albino ;
(2) crossed with male VI.C.2.e. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{R}+\mathbf{A})$; see above.
*YI.C.2.l. Female (B+R+A).
(1) crossed with male VI.C.2.e. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A})$; see above.
*VI.C.3.a. Male ( $\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A}$ ).
(1) crossed with female VI.A.3.r. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A})$; see above.
VI.C.3.b. Male $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A})$ : tested with Red carrying Albino: 15. Black, 12 Red, 11 Albino.
(1) crossed with female VI.C.1.h. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R})$; see above ;
(2) crossed with female VI.C.3.g. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}) ; 13$ Black, 5 Red.
VI.C.3.d. Female $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R})$ : tested with Reds : 2.5 Black, 16 Red.
(1) crossed with male YI.A.3.c. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A})$ : see above.
VI.C.3.e. Female $(\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{R}+\mathbf{A})$ : tested with Reds; 27 Black, 14 Red.
(1) crossed with male VI.A.3.d. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R})$ : see above.
VI.C.3.g. Female $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R})$ : tested with Albino carrying Red; 13 Black, 15 Red.
(1) crossed with male YI.C.3.b. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{I})$; see above.

* The animals marked with an asterisk had not been previously tested.

In each of the above instances some red youny were produced, showing that the parents were all blacks carring red and not one-dose blacks.

These tests therefore are in farour of IIypothesis II being the correct one.

## Cross (1. F. 2. (ieneration. Reds.

Turning now to the Red $\mathrm{F}_{2}$, according to Hypothesis $I$ these are of two kinds, one with only one dose of red and no factor for albino (C C R ), and two with only one dose of red and with the factor for albino ( C c R ).

There are three possible ways in which these reds could be mated together and these matings would give the following :-
$C \mathrm{CR} \times \mathrm{CCR}$
Male (fametes:-
CR and C
Female ,
$\mathrm{C} R$ and C
Zygotes
CRCR
CR C
CR C $\mathrm{C} C$
that is one CCRR, two CCR, one CC
,, ,, 3 reds and 1 albino.
(2)
Male Gametes
Female ",
Zygotes
$\mathrm{CcR} \times \mathrm{CcR}$
CR, C, eR, c
CR, C, cR, c

| $\begin{aligned} & C R \\ & C R \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{C} \\ & \mathrm{C} R \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { c R } \\ & \text { C R } \end{aligned}$ | $\stackrel{\mathrm{c}}{\mathrm{C}} \mathrm{R}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| C R | C | c R | c |
| C | C | C | C |
| C R | C | c R | c |
| c R | c R | c R | c R |
| CR | C | c R | c |
| c | c | c | c |

That is 9 reds and 7 albinos.
(3)

Male Cametes
Female ,
Zygotes
$\mathrm{CCR} \times \mathrm{CeR}$
CR and C
CR. C, cR, c

| CR | C | $\mathrm{c} R$ | c |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| CR | CR | $\mathrm{C} R$ | CR |
| CR | C | $\mathrm{c} R$ | c |
| C | C | C | C |

That is 6 reds and 2 albinos.
It will be seen that in each case, that is to say, in whatever way the
reds in this generation are mated. there would be albinos in the offspring. Further, in each case, in addition to the usual imperfect-eyed albinos c $\mathrm{R} \quad$ c B с B $c R, \quad$ e $B, \quad e R$, all-whites of the same hypothetical constitution as the original "all-white" male from red stock ${ }^{C}$ should oceur, and if these resemble the original parent they will have perfectly formed eyes.

According to Hypothesis I/ the Reds ean also be mated in three different ways. The results would be:-

$$
\begin{equation*}
C \mathrm{CRR} \times \mathrm{CCRR} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Cametes all C R
Zygotes all C C R R.
That is, all red.
(2)

$$
\mathrm{CeRR} \times \mathrm{CeRR}
$$

Male Cametes
( R , e R
Female ,, ( R , с R
Zygotes CCRR, CeRR, CeRR, e eRR
That is, 3 reds and 1 albino.

$$
\begin{equation*}
C C R R \times C \text { c } R R \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Male Gametes
Female
7yyotes

CR
$\mathrm{C} R$ and e R
CCRR and CeRR

That is, all red.
In two of the instances therefore the offspring wonld be all red-eyed. in one instance there would be albinos in the brood.

Experiment has shown that when reds of the $\mathrm{F}_{2}$ generation are mated together some broods consist cntirely of red-eyed young, whilst others consist of reds and albinos. Further, the abbinos when they oceurred were of the usual imperfect-eyed type. Hypothesis II is therefore in agreement with the experimental facts, whilst Hypothesis I is not.

The following list shows the Red-eyed young and the matings made to prove their constitution.
II.A.1.m. Male, Pure Red (Plate II).

Matings: - (1) with female $p$ of its own brood, $(\mathbf{R}+\Lambda)$; i2 young, all Red (Plate 1V. Fig. 11) ;
$(2)$ with female q of its own brood, $(\mathbf{R}+\mathrm{I})$; :32 young, all Red (Plate IV, Fig. 10) ;
(3) with female IV.O $(\mathbf{B}+1)$; 39 young, all Black;
(1). (.) mated with -3 Abino females: ate them.
VI.A.1.n. Male, Red carrying Albino.

Matings:-(1) with female $q$ of its own brood, $(\mathbf{R}+\mathrm{I})$; 63 young, 5. Red, 11 Albino (Plate IV. Fig. 9) ;
$(2)$ with female VI.B. $(\mathbf{R}+\mathrm{A}) ; 69$ young. 50 Red, 19 Albino.
VI A.1.o. Male, Pure Red.
Matings : (1) with female $h$ of its own brood $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{\lambda})$; (31 young, 17 Black, 14 Red) ;
${ }^{(2)}$ with female $p$ of its own brood, $(\mathbf{R}+\Lambda)$ : 40 young. all Red.
VI.A.1.p. Female, Red carrying Albino.

Matings :- (1) with male $m$ of its own brood ; (72 young. all Red) (Plate IV, Fig. 11) ;
(2) with male II.B. ( $\mathbf{R}+\mathrm{A}$ ) ; ( 90 young, 66 Red. 24 Albino) (Plate IV, Fig. 12) ;
(3) with male o of its own brood ; ( 40 young, all Red) ;
(4) with male VI.B.1.b. $(\mathbf{R}+\mathrm{A})$; 17 young. 16 Red, 1 Albino.
VI.A.1.q. Female, Red carrying Albino.

Matings :--(1) with male 11 of the same brood ; ( 63 young, 52 Red, 11 Albino) (Plate IV, Fig. 9) ;
(2) with male $m$ of the same brood; (32 young, all Red) (Plate IV, Fig. 10) ;
(3) with male c of the same brood, (Pure Black) ; (45 young, all Black) (Plate IV, Fig. 8).
Brood 2 of VI.A.
The 4 Red hatched died immature.
VI.A.3.t. Male, Red carrying Albing.

Matings :-(1) with female VI.A.2.l. $\quad(\mathrm{A}+\mathrm{B}+\mathrm{R}) ; \quad 6$ young, 1 Red, 5 Albino ;
(2) with female VI.B.3.g.; ate it ;
(3) with female IV.V. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{A})$; 12 young, 10 Black, 2 Albino ;
(4) with female VI.C.3.d. (B+R); 25 young, 12 Black, 13 Red.
VI.A.3.u. Male, Red carrying Albino.

Matings :- (1) with female $w$ of the same brood, $(\mathbf{R}+\mathrm{A})$; 48 young, 36 Red, 12 Albino ;

Matings:-(2) with female x of the same brood, (Pure Red) ; 10 young, all Red ;
(3) with female III.N. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{A})$; 42 young, 32 Black, 10 Albino.
VI.A.3.v. Male, Red carrying Albino.

Matings :-(1) with female x of the same brood, (Pure Red) ; 28 young, all Red;
(2) with female w of the same brood, $(\mathbf{R}+\Lambda)$; 16 young, 10 Red, 6 Albino.
VI.A.3.w. Female, Red carrying Albino.

Matings :--(1) with male $u$ of the same brood, $(\mathbf{R}+\mathrm{A})$; (48 young, 36 Red, 12 Albino) ;
(2) with male v of the same brood, $(\mathbf{R}+\mathrm{A})$; ( 16 young, 10 Red, 6 Albino) ;
(3) with male VI.C.3.c. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{A})$; 17 young, 15) Black, 2 Albino.
VI.A.3.x. Female, Pure Red.

Matings :-(1) with male $u$ of the same brood, $(\mathbf{R}+A)$; ( 10 young, all Red) ;
(2) with male $v$ of the same brood, $(\mathbf{R}+\mathrm{A})$; ( 28 young, all Red) ;
(3) with male VI.C.2.1. $\quad(\mathrm{A}+\mathrm{B}+\mathrm{R})$; 34 young, 22 Black, 12 Red.
VI.C.1.m. Male, Red carrying Albino.

Matings:-(1) with female YI.A.1.f. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A})$; (7l young, 31 Black, 18 Red, 22 Albino) ;
$(2)$ with female VI.A.1.g. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A}) ;(22$ young, 10 Black, 8 Red, 4 Albino).
VI.C.1.n. Male, Red carrying Albino.

Matings :-(1) with female d of the same brood, $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A})$; ( 96 young, 37 Black, 35 Red, 24 Albino) ;
(2) with female e of the same brood, (Pure Black) ; (49 young, all Black).
VI.C.1.o. Male, Red carrying Albino (Plate IV, Figs. 3 and 6).

Matings:-(1) with female e of the same brood, (Pure Black) ; (42 young, all Black) :
(2) with female d of the same brood, $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+$ A) ; (39 young, 12 Black, 16 Red, 11 Albino) ;
(3) with female VI.A.1.l. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{R}+\mathbf{A})$; (82 young, 37 Black, 24 Red, 21 Albino).
VI.C.1.p. Male, Red carrying Ilbino.
llatings :- (1) with female h of the same brood, $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R})$; (40 young, 16 Black, 2. 1 Red);
$(2)$ with female f of the same brood, $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+$ 1) ; (78 young, 32 Black, 23 Red, 2:3 Ilbino) ;
(3) with female VI.A.3.k. $(\mathbf{B}+1)$; ( 38 young, $2 \bar{i}$ Black, 11 Albino).
VI.C.2.m. Male, Red carryiny Albino.

Matings :-(1) with female $n$ of the same brood, $(\mathbf{R}+A)$; 5) young, 2 Red, 3 Albino.
VI.C.2.n. Female, Red carrying Albino.

Matings :- (1) with male $m$ of the same brood; ( 5 young, 2 Red, 3 Albino) ;
$(2)$ eaten by mate.
VI.C.2.o. Female, constitution unknown.

Matings :-(1) with male $m$ of the same brood $(\mathbf{R}+\mathrm{A})$; eleven batches of eggs were laid, but no young were hatched; female died.
VI.C.3.m. Male, Red carrying Albino.

Matings:-(1) with female o of the same brood, (Pure Red) ; 48 young, all Red;
(2) with female $r$ of the same brood, $(\mathbf{A}+\mathrm{R})$; 381 young, 181 Red, 200 Ilbino.
VI.C.3.n. Male, Red. Albinism not known.

Matings :-(1) with female d of the same brood, $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R})$; (16 young, 13 Black, 3 Red).
These young all died immature, and it was therefore not possible to test the brood for albinism.
VI.C.3.o. Female, Pure Red.

Matings :-(1) with male $m$ of the same brood, $(\mathbf{R}+\Lambda)$; (48 young, all Red) ;
(2) with male $q$ of the same brood, $(\mathbf{A}+\mathrm{R})$; 36 young, all Red.
VI.B.I.a. Male, Pure Red.

Matings :-(1) with female $f$ of the same brood, $(R+A)$ : 29 young, all Red ;
(2) with female j of the same brood, (Pure Red) ; 37 young, all Red;
(3), (4) with a Black female and an Albino female, both of which it ate.
VI.B.1.b. Male, Red corrying Albino.

Matings :-(1) with female $g$ of the same brood, (Pure Red) ; 49 young, all Red;
(2) with female VI.A.1.p. ( $\mathbf{R}+\lambda$ ) ( 17 young, 16 Red, 1 Albino).
VI.B.1.c. Male, Red carrying Albino.

Matings :- (1) with female $h$ of the same brood, $(\mathbf{R}+1)$; 21 young, 17 Red, 4 Albino ;
$(2)$ with female $g$ of the same brood, (Pure Red) ; 11 young, all Red.
VI.B.1.d. Male, Red carrying Albino.

Matings:-(1) with female j of the same brood. (Pure Red) : 5.5 young, all Red;
(2) with female $f$ of the same brood, $(\mathbf{R}+1)$; 51 young, 37 Red. 14 Albino;
(3) with female IV.S. $(\mathbf{B}+1)$; 18 young, 13 Black, J Albino.
VI.B.l.e. Male. Red. Albinism not known.

Matings :-(1) with female from the same stock as R.l. male (see Plate II and p. 324). (Pure Red) : 16 young, all Red.
Only two of these survived to maturity and were mated with Albino females; 33 young were produced, 19 Black, and 14 Red, no albinos.
VI.B.1.f. Female, Red carrying Albino.

Matings :-(1) with male a of the same brood. (Pure Red) ; ( 29 young, all Red) ;
$(2)$ with male $d$ of the same brood, $(\mathbf{R}+\boldsymbol{\lambda})$; ( 51 yomg, 37 Red, 14 Albino);
(3) with a male (from Brood 1 of VI.A.l. female h), $(\mathbf{R}+\Lambda): 2 \overline{7}$ young, 15 Red, 12 Albino ;
(t) with male e of same hrood ; ate it.
VI.B.l.g. Female, Pure Red.

Matings :-(I) with male b of the same brood, $(\mathbf{R}+\mathrm{A})$; (49 young, all Red) ;
(2) with male $c$ of the same brood, $(\mathbf{R}+1)$; (11 young, all Red) ;
(3) with male IV.K. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{I})$ : 9 young, 2 Black, 7 Red.
VI.B.1.h. Female, Red corrying Albino.

Matings:--(1) with male $c$ of the same brood, $(\mathbf{R}+\mathrm{A})$; ( 21 young. 17 Red, 4 Ilbino).

V1.B.1.j. Female, Pure Red.
Matings :--(1) with male $d$ of the same brood. $(\mathbf{R}+1)$; (55 young, all Red) ;
(2) with male a of the same brood. (Pure Red) ; (37 young, all Red).
VI.B.1.k. Female, Red. Ilbinism not known.

Matings :-(1) with male $m$ of the same brood, $(A+R)$; four months in the bowl, six matings. no young hatched, female died.
V1.B.1.1. Male, Red. Albinism not known.
Put with a female from the same stock as R.1. male (Plate II), no mating.
VI.B.2.a. Male, Red carrying Albino.

Matings :-(1) with female $f$ of the same brood, $(\mathbf{R}+1)$; 8 young, all Red;
( 2 ) with female p of the same brood. (Red, albinism not known) ; -. young, Red;
(3) with female e of the same brood, $(\mathbf{R}+\lambda)$; 8 young, 6 Red, 2 Albino ;
(4) with female $v$ of the same brood, $(\mathbf{A}+\mathrm{R})$; 38 young, 35 Red, 3 Albino;
(5) with female $u$ of same brood, $(\mathbf{A}+\mathrm{R})$; 48 young, 24 Red, 24 Albino (Plate IV, Fig. 18).
II.B.2.b. Male, Red carrying Albino.

Matings :--(1) with female $g$ of the same brood, (Pure Red) ; 87 young, all Red;
${ }^{(2)}$ with female w of the same brood, $(\mathbf{A}+\mathrm{R})$; 22. young, 118 Red, 104 Albino.
VI.B.2.c. Male, Red carrying Albino.

Matings :-(1) with female $h$ of the same brood, $(\mathbf{R}+\lambda)$; 11 young, 7 Red, 4 Albino;
(2) with female $g$ of the same brood, (Pure Red) ; 21 young, all Red.
VI.B.2.d. Male, Red cerrying Albino.

Matings:-(1) with female r of the same brood : 7 young, all Red ;
$(2)$ with female e of the same brood, $(\mathbf{R}+\mathrm{A})$; 2.5 young, 21 Red, 4 Albino;
(3) with female VI.A.2.c. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R})$; ( 27 young, 16 Black, 11 Red).

V1.B.2.e. Female, Red carryiny Albino.
Matings :- (1) with male a of the same brood. $(\mathbf{R}+1)$; ( 8 young, 6 Red, 2 Albino) ;
$(2)$ with male $d$ of the same brood, $(\mathbf{R}+\lambda)$; (2.) young, 21 Red, 4 Albino);
(3) with male III.D. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{A})$; 19 young, 11 Black, 8 Albino;
(4) with male VI.C.3.b. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{R}+1)$; (38 young, 1.5 Black, 12 Red, 11 Albino);
(5) with male V1.B.1.m. $(\mathbf{A}+\mathrm{R})$; ( 87 young, 50 Red, 37 Albino).
VI.B.2.f. Female, Red carrying Albino.

Matings :-(1) with male a of the same brood, $(\mathbf{R}+\mathrm{A})$; (8 young, all Red) ;
$(2)$ with male VI.C.2.q. $\quad(\mathbf{A}+\mathrm{B}+\mathrm{R})$ : yoming, 6 Black, 5 Red, 9 Albino).
V1.B.2.g. Female, Pure Red.
Matings :-- (1) with male b of the same brood, $(\mathbf{R}+\mathrm{A})$; (87 young, all Red);
$(2)$ with male c of the same brood, $(\mathbf{R}+\mathrm{A})$; (21 young, all Red) ;
(3) with male VI.C.2.d. (Pure Black); (23 young, all Black);
(1) with male from Brood 1 of male III.B. $(\mathbf{A}+\mathrm{B})$; jt young, all Black.
VI.B.2.h. Female, Red carrying Albino.

Matings :-(1) with male c of the same brood, $(\mathbf{R}+\lambda)$; (11 young, 7 Red, 4 Ilbino).
VI.B.2.j. Female, Pure Red.

Matings:--(1) with male VI.1.2.g. ( $\mathbf{A}+\mathrm{R}$ ) ; ( 26 young, all Red).
VI.B.2.k. Female, Red carrying Albino.

Matings:-(1) with male VI.A.2.j. $(\mathbf{A}+\mathrm{R})$; (38 young, 22 Red, 16 Albino) ;
(2) with male VI.A.2.h. $(\mathbf{A}+\mathrm{B}+\mathrm{R})$; (16 young, 6 Black, 2 Red, 8 Albino).
VI.B.2.l. Female, Red currying Albino.

Matings :-(1) with male VI.C.2.p. $(\mathbf{A}+\mathrm{R})$; ( 6 roung, 3 Red, 3 Albino);
(2) with male VI.C.2.1. ( $\mathbf{A}+\mathrm{R}$ ); (1 young, Albino).

V1.B.2.m. Female, Red carrying Albino.
Matings :--(1) with male VI.C.2.s. $(\mathbf{A}+\mathrm{B}+\mathrm{R})$; (9 young, 3) Black, 2 Red, 4 Ilbino).
VI.B.2.n. Female, Pure Red.

Matings: (1) with male VI.A.3.z. $\quad(\mathbf{A}+\mathrm{B}+\mathrm{R})$; young, 10 Black, 5 Red).
V1.B.2.o. Female, Pure Red.
Matings :- (1) with male VI.A.3.aa. ( $\mathbf{A}+\mathrm{R}$ ) ; (12 young, all Red).
YI.B.2.p. Female, Red. Albinism not known.
Matings :-(1) with male a of the same brood, $(\mathbf{R}+\mathrm{A})$; ( 2 young, Red).
VI.B.2.q. Female, Red. Mbinism not known.

Matings :-(1) with male VI.A.3.y. $(\mathbf{A}+\boldsymbol{B})$; ( 1 young, Black).
YI.B.2.r. Female, Red. Albinism not known.
Matings :-(1) with male $d$ of the same brood, $(\mathbf{R}+1)$; ( 7 young, all Red).
One male, mated with female v, and 5 females which reached maturity and mated, were eaten by their mates. One died immature.
VI.B.3.a. Male, Red carrying Albino.

Matings :-(1) with female VI.C.3.n. $(\mathbf{A}+\mathrm{B}+\mathrm{R})$; ( 47 young, 15 Black, 13 Red, 19 Albino) ;
(2) with female YI.A.2.m. $(\mathbf{A}+\mathrm{B}+\mathrm{R}) ; 3.3$ young, 6 Black, 14 Red, 13 Albino.
VI.B.3.b. Male, Red carrying Albino.

Matings :- (1) with female VI.C.3.w. ( $\mathbf{A}+\mathrm{R}$ ) ; (31 young, 19 Red, 12 Albino) ;
(2) with female VI.C.3.f. $(\mathbf{B}+1)$; ( 25 young, 21 Black, 4 Albino).
VI.B.3.c. Male, Red carrying Albino.

Matings:-(1) with female VI.C.3.x. $(\mathbf{A}+\mathrm{B}+\mathrm{R})$; (19 young, 7 Black, 4 Red, 8 Albino).
MI.B.3.d. Male, Red. Not proved.

Matings:-(1) with Albino female VI.C.3.t. ;
(2) with Red female of the same brood;
(3) with Albino female I.G.l.c. ; all of which it ate ;
(4) with Albino female VI.A.2.m. Died.
VI.B.3.e. Female, Pure Red.

Matings:-(1) with a Red male of the same brood; 2 young, Red ;

> Matings: (2) with male VI.A.2.a. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A}) ;$ young, 8 Black, 12 Red$)$;
> (3) with male VI.C.2.u. $(\mathbf{A}+\mathrm{R}) ;(24$ young, all Red $).$
VI.B.3.f. Female, Red carrying Albino.

Matings:- (1) with male VI.C.2.c. $(\mathbf{B}+1)$; ( 6 young, $\bar{y}$ Black, I Albino).
II.B.3.g. Female. Red. Vet proved.

Matings: - (1) with Black male VI.A.2.b. ; (5 young, Black) ;
(2) with a Red male MI.I.3.t. ; was eaten.

4 others, females. reached maturity, mated and died ; one died immature.
I'I.B.4.a. Male, Red currying Allino.
Matings :-(1) with Black female (from Brood 1 of female IV.N.) ; 8 young, 7 Black, 1 Albino ;
$(2)$ with female $c$ of the same brood, $(\mathbf{R}+\lambda)$; 2.2 young, 17 Red, 5 . Ilbino.
II.B.4.b. Male, Red currying Albino.

Matings :- (1) with female d of the same brood, (Pure Red) ; 13 young, Red;
$(2)$ with female ${ }^{2}$ of the same brood, $(\mathbf{A}+\mathrm{R})$; 132 young, 71 Red, 61 Albino.
II.B.t.e. Female, Red carryiny Ilbino.

Matings :- (1) with male a of the same brood, $(\mathbf{R}+1)$; ( 22 young, 17 Red, j Ilbino).
VI.B.t.d. Femate, Pure Red.

Matings:- (1) with a Red male of the same brood; 1 young, Red;
$(2)$ with male b of the same brood; (13) young, Red) ;
(3) with a Red male (from Brood 3) of female III.(Q) ; 5] young, all Red.
VI.B.A.e. Female, Red. Constitution unknown.

In all, 3,43 , young were produced. The numbers from the different matings are as follows:-

Red by $\mathbf{R}: \mathbf{R}+\mathrm{A}$ : and $\mathbf{A}+\mathrm{R}$ : 709 young, all Red.
Red curryiny Ilbino by $\mathbf{R}+\mathrm{A}$ : and $\mathbf{A}+\mathbf{R}$; 883 Red, 58.3 Ilbino.
Red and $\mathbf{R}+1$ by Black ; 258, all Black.
Red and $\mathbf{R}+1$ by $\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{R}$; 135) Black, 115 Red.

Red carrying Albino by $\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{A}$ and $\mathbf{A}+\mathrm{B} ; 141$ Black, 44 Ilbino.
Red carrying Albino by $\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A}$ and $\mathbf{A}+\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}$; 217 Black, 177 Red. 182 Ilbino.

To sum up, 60 red-eyed animals were testerl, 49 gave definite results, 36 proving to be Red with the albino factor, and 13 Pure Red. Theory demands $36 \cdot 6$ Red with albino, $12 \cdot 2$ Pure Red.

These results are in full agreement with Hypothesis $I I$ and not in agreement with Hypothesis I.

## Cross C. F.2. (ieneration. Albinos.

A final test of the two hypotheses would be obtained by testing the $\mathrm{F}_{3}$ albinos got by crossing $\mathrm{F}_{2}$ coloured parents. Amongst these $\mathrm{F}_{3}$ albinos animals with the constitution ${ }_{\text {C }}^{C}$ like the original all-white male parent should occur if Hypothesis $I$ were true. If therefore we make many crosses amongst the albinos of this generation we ought to find some pairs which would give all coloured offispring. If these are not produced it will be an additional proof that Hypothesis $I I$ is the right one. We have made 18 matings of this character. and they yielded a total of 588 young, all of them albino.*

[^20]Mated among themselses the chances of Ppzygotes coming together are 16 in 64 , i.c. 1 in 4, and in such cases "all-white" eyes shonld appear in ratio 1:3. Amongst the blacks 109 such matings have been made, amongst the reds 40 , and amongst the albinos 27, making a total of 176 snch matings, and no "all-white" eyes of perfect form appeared. Hence Hypothesis I is not valid here.

The Albinos of VI.A. may be taken as a fairly aceurate record of the proportions found, most of them, 13 out of 15 , having survived to maturity. Of these 3 carried Black mly, 3 Red only, and 7 carried both Black and Red.
VI.A.1.r. Male, Albino carryiny Black only.

Matings : (1) with female V1I.C.3.a. (Plate V) (Red no-white) ; 36 young, all Black (Plate IV, Fig. 17) ;
(2) with female VI.A. (its female parent) ( $\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A})$; I young, Black;
(3) with female from the Pure Red Stock; 23 young, all Black (Plate IV, Fig. 16).
VI.A.1.s. Male, Albino carrying Black only.

Matings :- (1) with female VII.C.3.b. (Plate V) (Red nowhite) ; 57 young, all Black.
M.A.1.t. Male, Albino carrying Black and Red.

Matings :-(1) with female from No-white Stock (Red no-white) ; 34 young, 17 Black, 17 Red ;
(2) with female VI.C. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{I})$; 14 young, 8 Black, 6 Albino.
VI.A.2.g. Male, Albino carrying Red only.

Matings :-(1) with female VI.B.2.j. (Pure Red); 26 young, all Red ;
(2) with female VI.C.3.h. (Pure Black); 29 young, all Black.
VI.A.2.h. Male, Albino carrying Black and Red.

Matings :-(1) with female $m$ of the same brood, $(\mathbf{A}+\boldsymbol{B}+$ R) ; 25 young, all Albino ;
(2) with female VI.B.2.k. $(\mathbf{R}+\lambda)$; 16 young. 6 Black, 2 Red, 8 Albino.
VI.A.2.j. Male, Albino carrying Red only.

Matings :-(1) with VI.B.2.k. $(\mathbf{R}+\lambda) ; 38$ young, 26 Red, 16 Albino ;
${ }^{(2)}$ ) with female m of the same brood, $(\mathrm{A}+\mathrm{B}+$ R); 1 young, Albino.
VI.A.2.k. Female, Albino carrying Black and Red.

Matings :- (1) with male a of the same brood, $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A})$; ( 7 young, 2 Black. 1 Red, 4 Albino) ;
$(2)$ with male VI.A.3.aa. $(\mathbf{A}+\mathbf{R})$ : 42 roung. all Albino ;

Matings: (3) with male 11.B. $(\mathbf{R}+\mathbf{A}) ; 146$ young, 33 Black, 44 Red, 69 Albino.
VI.A.2.1. Female, Albino carrying Black and Red.

Matings :-(1) with male VI.A.3.t. $(\mathbf{R}+1)$; ( 6 young, 1 Red, 5 Ilbino).
The female died after extruding this brood ; the proof of her constitution was obtained by mating the young, when mature, together and with mates of proved constitution. The red one was a male, the albinos were one male and four females. The Albino male and one female mated; 9 young, all Abino. The female was then mated with the Red male, and gave in 38 young, 13 Black, 8 Red, 17 Albino. (The albino male mated with a Pure Red female had 31 young, all Red.)
VI.A.2.m. Female, Albino carrying Black and Red.

Matings:-(1) with an Albino male of the same brood; 5 young, all Albino ;
(2) with male h of the same brood, $(\mathrm{A}+\mathrm{B}+$ R) ; ( 25 young, all Albino) ;
(3) with male $j$ of the same brood, $(A+R)$; (1 young, Albino ;)
(4) with male VI.B.3.d. ; no results ;
(5) with male YI.B.3.a. $(\mathbf{R}+\mathrm{A})$; (33 young, 6 Black, 14 Red, 13 Albino).
VI.A.3.y. Male Albino carrying Black only.

Matings :-(1) with female VI.B.2.q. (Red, albinism not known) ; 1 young, Black;
(2) with female I.E.2.f. $(\mathbf{R}+\mathrm{A})$; 15 young, 3 Black, 12 Albino.
VI.1.3.z. Male, Albino carrying Black and Red.

Matings :-(1) with female VI.B.2.n. (Pure Red) ; 15 young. 10 Black, 5 Red.
VI.A.3.aa. Male, Albino carrying Red only.

Matings:-(1) with female VI.B.2.o. (Pure Red); 12 young, all Red ;
(2) with female VI.A.2.k. $(\mathbf{A}+\mathrm{B}+\mathrm{R})$; ( 42 young, all Albino) ;
(3) with female VI.A.2.d. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{A})$; ( 18 young, 8 Black, 10 Albino) ;
(1) with female VI.A.2.e. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{A})$; (29 young, 13) Black, 16 Albino) ;

Matings :-(5) with female VI.A.2.f. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{A})$; (30 young, 12 Black, 18 Albino).
VI.A.3.bb. Female, Albino carrying Black and Red.

Matings:-(1) with male I.E.2.a. $(\mathbf{R}+1)$; 12 young, 3 Black, 2 Red. 7 Albino;
$(\underline{2})$ with male $b$ of the same brood $(\mathbf{B}+1)$; (14 young, 2 Black, 12 Albino).
VI.C.1.q. Male, Albino carrying Red only.

Mating:-(1) with female I.E.2.d. (Red); 13 roung, all Red.
VI.C.2.p. Male, Albino carrying Red only.

Matings:-(1) with female VI.B.2.l. $(\mathbf{R}+1)$ : 6 young, 3 Red, 3 Albino.
Five of these voung came to maturity. Red, one male and one female, and Albino, two males and one female; these were mated together to see if the Mbinos carried the Black factor ; 20: young were produced, 116 Red, and 87 Albino; no Black appeared. (One of the Albino males was mated with female VI.C.3.j.)
VI.C.2.q. Male, Albino carrying Black and Red.

Matings:-(1) with female VI.B.2.f. $(\mathbf{R}+1) ; 20$ young. (5 Black, j) Red, 9 Albino.
VI.C.2.r. Nale, Albino ctrrying Black and Red.

Matings: -(1) with female I.f.i.c. (A) ; 49 young. all Albino;
(2) with female IT.A.3.x. (Pure Red); (34 young, 2.2 Black, 12 Red).
VI.(C.2.s. Male, Albino carrying Black and Red.

Matings :-(1) with female VI.B.D.m. $(\mathbf{R}+1)$; 9 young, :3 Black, 2 Red, 4 Ilbino.
V.(1.2.t. Male, Albinn carrying Black and Red.

Matings:- (1) with two Red females which it ate;
$(\because)$ with female I.E.2.e. (Pure Red); $\quad \underset{\sim}{-}$ young, 1\% Black, 1: Red.
VI.C.2..n. Male, Albinu currying Red only.

Matings: - (1) with Red female which it ate ;
$(:)$ with female $k$ of the same brood, $(\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{R}+\mathbf{1}):(21$ young. 17 Black, 1 Red, .3. Ilbino) ;
(3) with female IT.B.e.l. $(\mathbf{R}+1): 1$ fomg, Ilbino:

Natings:-(1) with female VI.B.3.e. (Pure Red); 24
young, all Red;
(5) with female VI.C.3.g. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R})$; 28 young, 13 Black, 15 Red.
One other reached maturity, a female, which died before its constitution could be tested.
II.C.3.p. Male, Albino carrying Red mly.

Matings :-(1) with female $r$ of the same brood, $(\mathbf{A}+\mathrm{R})$; 11 young. all Albino ;
(2) with female j of the same brood, $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{A})$; (31 young, 14 Black, 17 Albino) :
(3) with female VI.B.2.j. (Pure Red); 17 young, all Red).
VI.C.3.q. Male, Albino carrying Red only.

Matings :-(1) with female $u$ of the same brood, $(A+B+$ R) ; 11 young, all Albino ;
(2) with Albino female $v$ of the same brood (constitution unknown) ; 30 young, all Albino ;
(3) with female $t$ of the same brood, (A) 1t young, all Albino ;
(4) with female o of the same brood, (Pure Red) ; (36young, all Red).
VI.C.3.r. Female, Albino carrying Red only.

Matings :-(1) with male $p$ of the same brood $(\mathbf{A}+\mathrm{R})$; (11 young, all Albino) ;
(2) with male $m$ of the same brood, $(\mathbf{R}+\mathrm{A})$; 381 young, 181 Red, 200 Albino.
II.C.3.s. Female, Albino carrying Red only.

Matings:--(1) with a male descended from the same stock as R.1. (see male II.B. p. 284) (Pure Red) ; 5 young, all Red.
VI.C.3.t. Female, Albino. Constitution unknown.

Matings :-(1) with male $q$ of the same brood, $(\mathbf{A}+\mathrm{R})$; ( 14 young, all Albino) ;
(2) with Red male VI.B.3.d. ; eaten.
II.C.3.u. Female, Albino carrying Black and Red.

Matings :-(1) with male $q$ of the same brood $(\mathbf{A}+\mathrm{R})$;
(11 young, all Albino) ;
(2) with male VI.B.3.a. $(\mathbf{R}+\mathrm{A})$; 47 young, 15 Black, 13 Red, 19 Albino.
VI.C.3.v. Female, Albino. Constitution unknown.

Matings :- (1) with male $q$ of the same brood. $(A+R)$; (30 young, all Ilbino).
All the young died without mating.
VI.C.3.w. Female, Albino carryiny Red only.

Matings:-(1) with male VI.B.3.b. $(\mathbf{R}+\boldsymbol{1}): 31$ young, 19 Red, 12 Ilbino.
VI.(.3.x. Female, Albino carryiny Black and Red.

Matings :-(1) with male VI.B.3.c. $(\mathbf{R}+1)$; 19 young. 7 Black, 4 Red, 8 Albino.
VI.B.1.m. Male, Albino carryiny Red.

Matings :--(1) with female $k$ of the same brood; no results ;
(2) with female VI.B.2.e. $(\mathbf{R}+\lambda)$; 87 young, 50 Red, 37 Ilbino.
II.B.n.s. Male, Albino.

Matiugs:-(1) with Abino female w of the same brood: 38 young, all Albino.
VI.B.D.t. Male, Albino carryiny Red.

Matings:-(1) with Nlbino female 11 of the same brood; 70 young, all Albino:
$(2)$ with a female I.E.2.e. (Pure Red): 50 young, all Red ;
(3) with female VI.C.3.e. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{R}+\mathbf{N})$; ( $\because 8$ young, 13 Black. 1 Red, 11 Albino) ;
(4) with a female of brood 1 of female VI.A.1.h $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R})$; 23 young, 7 Black, 16 Red;
(5) with a female (from a mating in the first brood from male II.D.1.k.) (Colourless) ; 90 young, all Jibino.
VI.B.2.n. Female, Albino carrying Red.

Matings:- (1) with male $t$ of the same brood; 70 young, all Albino ;
$(2)$ with male a of the same brood. $(\mathbf{R}+1)$; (48 young, 24 Red, 24 Ilbino) (Plate IV. Fig. 18).
(3) with male VI.A.1.d. $(B+R+1):(24$ Yoming. I Black, 3 Red. 20 Albino).
MIB.2.v. Female, Albino carying Red.
Matings:--(1) with male from Pure Red Stock; 19 young, all Rod;

Matings:-(2) with male a of the same brood, $(\mathbf{R}+1)$; (38 young, 35 Red, 3 Albino) ;
(3) with a Red male of the same brood which it ate ;
(4) with male II.A.3.h. $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{A})$ : ( 92 young. 52 Black, 40 Albino) ;
(5) with male VI.A.3.e. (Pure Black): (19 young, all Black) :
(6) with male VI.(C.2.d. (Pure Black): (21 young, all Black) ;
(7) with a Black male from a brood of VI.C.2.d× j. ; 2 young, Black.

IT.B.2.w. Female, Albino carrying Red.
Matings :--(1) with male s of the same brood ; (38 young. all Albino) ;
${ }^{(2)}$ with male $b$ of the same brood $(\mathbf{R}+1)$, ( 222 young, 118 Red. lot Albino).
VI.B.3.h. Female, Albino.

Matings:--(1) with an Albino male I.C.2.d. : one brood. all Ilbino; two survived and mated, producing 228 young, all Albino.
VI.B.t.f. Female, Albino.

Matings:- (1) with an Albino male (from Brood 3 of male VI.C.2.r.); eggs laid: female eaten.
II.B.A.g. Female, Albino carrying Red.

Matings :-(1) with an Albino male. a, from Brood 2 of male VI.C.1.b. ;
(2) with male $b$ of same brood $(\mathbf{R}+1)$ : (132 young, 71 Red, 61 Albino).

## Class:s in $F_{2}$ Generation.

According to Hypothesis II, which has proved to be in agreement with the facts so far ascertained, there should be in the $F_{2}$ generation. resulting from the mating of two blacks both carrying red and abino, the following different kinds in the proportions shown :-
Blacks.
Pure Black
Black carrying Nlbino
Black carrying Red
Black carrying Red and Albino

| Constitution. | Number. |
| :---: | :---: |
| C C B B | 1 |
| C c B B | 2 |
| CCB R | 2 |
| Cc B R | 1 |

Reds.
Pure Red
Red carrying Ilbino

| Constitution. | Number. |
| :---: | :---: |
| CCRR | 1 |
| C c R R | 2 |

## Albinos

| Albino carrying Black | c e B B | 1 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Albino carrying Red | c c R R | 1 |
| Albino carrying Black and Red | c c B R | 2 |

Is a result of breeding tests, made either within the generation, or by crossing with known pure reds, all these classes have been proved to exist amongst the offspring of this generation, the actual numbers obtained for the blacks, reds and albinos being given on pp. 302, 317 and 318 respectively.

The results recorded in this section afford further proof of the fact set out in Section I that the imperfect albino eve behaves in inheritance in accordance with the theory formulated by Bateson and Pumnett for coatcolour in mice, etc., which assumes in addition to the factors for the individual colours the existence of a factor (C), which must be present if the colour characters are to become visible.

## Experiments with the Original Stock (p. 287).

The fact that the absence of coloured retinal pigment in the "allwhite "perfect-eyed animals derived from red stock is a somatic character and not hereditary receives some slight support from further breeding experiments which were carried out with the original stock from which the animals came. These experiments give no indication that the abnormality is latent in the stock.

The two all-white specimens had occurred in two succeeding broods from a pair of red-eyed animals (see former paper, p. 45), all the other oflspring of which were normal red-eyed animals. Two of these redeyed offspring survived and 3 young (which reached maturity) were obtained by mating them together. These three were one male and two females, and their eyes, though distinctly red, were much paler in colour than usual, and in other ways not quite normal. The male mated with both the females. Altogether 21 young were obtained, all with normal bright red eyes, and from their matings 17 similar young were produced in the next generation. The 2 females were also mated with the male II.B. (p. 284), a red carrying allino. One female (14.a.) had 29 normal red-eyed yomg, and the other (14.b.) had 30. Two pairs of these roung were mated together ; the one pair had a brood of 17 red, and 5 albino all of the usual imperfect form, and the other pair had

39 red-eyed young in three broods. The experment was not carried further.
The "Part-white" Eye.

The "Part-white" anmals referred to in the former paper. p. 4: (Fig. 7), were also investigated, as it appeared probable that the abnormality might be related to that of the " Ill-white" perfect eye.

In the "part-whites," the eye was of perfect form, the chalk-white accessory pigment was always present, and most of the ommatidia were normal, with black or red retinal pigment developed; some of the ommatidia, however, were quite colourless, thus giving the effect of a patch of white on the eye.

The brood in which the "part-whites" first appeared consisted of 21 young, 13 black and 8 red. Of the red, 4 survived to maturity. 2 being part-white, male and female. The left eye of this male was figured (Fig. 7 in former paper), in the right eye two or three ommatidia were colourless, and on the imner side two ommatidia were separated from the ommateum, one pigmented and one unpigmented. The other "part-white," a female, had a cluster of 9 colourless onmatidia in the right eye and 5 in the left. These two mated several times, but no eggs were laid, and the female died. The male was then mated with a normal red-eyed female and had 30 young, all normal red-eyed animals. These died before reaching maturity.

The male was then mated with a Pure Black female, also a partwhite, with a large patch of white on the upper side of the ommateum of the left side, and a small patch in the same position on the right side. This female came from wild stock brought in on July 11, 1915, and left to breed till February 11, 1916. When examined on that date, 60 young were found, 59 normal black-eyed, and the "part-white" female just mentioned.

The result of the mating was a brood of 22 young, all black-eyed. They were left to mate together and on October 3, 1916, 44 young were found, 22 black and 22 red, all normal-eyed.

These young were left to mate together and on Febrnary 22nd, 1917, the pots were examined. There were then present 73 young, 36 black and 37 red, all normal-eyed.

It seems certain therefore that the "part-white" character is not inherited.

# GETTON III. THE NO-WHITE EYE 

(Plate V').
Is was mentioned in the former paper ( $\mathrm{p}, \stackrel{2}{\mathrm{l}}$ ) a mutation ocemred in which the superfieial chalk-white, extra-retinal pigment that forms a reticulation in which the ommatidia lie was entirely absent. This was walled the " no-white" ere, and a black one was figured (Plate 1. Fig. 6). I red one is figured in llate VII. Fig. .). of this patper.

The chalk-white extra-retinal pigment is much less resistant to alcohot and formalin than the black or red retimal pigment, quickly disappearing when placed in either of these liguids. It may be noted here also. that the red retimal pigment is more easily dissolved by alcohol than the black, the latter being practically insohble.

Inimals ocem in which the white pigment is present in the eye on one side and absent in that of the other. For details of experiments with these see p. 3ter.

Origin of Enpermentah Stock.
The " no-whites" with which most of the experiments have been made had the lollowing histor?:

I pure black male from Chelson Deadows. which had been tested by mating with two wild females and with two other red females, and had given nomal resulto. was mated with a pure red female (a descendant of the fourth brood of Female $I$ of the former paper, $p . .20$ ) and had a large family (Family K, in former paper, p. 3l). Of this family ol survived, omales and $\ddagger 9$ femates, all normal-eved hybrid blacks: the young from their matings are now ealled "VII." It least is of these females when mated with males from the sa ne fandy gave some " no-white " foumer both blate and red. Detabis are given in the former paper. p. Ht

Proof that " ro-white," i.e. the absence of white ploment, behayes As a Mendeldan recescive to the preaence of white phament.

One of the red "no-whites " from kimily (VII, I).) was mated with a black make from the ordmarr hebrid stoek (Plate V, Fig. o). There were 29 goung. 1ㄹ black and 17 red. all normal-eved, showing that the presence of white pigment is dominant, and its absence in the " no-white " eve is recessive.

An $\mathrm{F}_{2}$ brood got hy mating together two of the red young ones from the first brood (male cand female g) gave ? " no-whites " to 13 normal, showing that the abommality behaved in a Mendelian way and bot h the red-eyed ammals carried the factor for no-white. In other broods, which
were not examined immediately on extrusion. (1) red mated with red (male e and female f) gave 11 normal reds and 2 no-white reds : ( 2 ) red mated with red (male e with females $f$ and $g$ ) gave 12 normal reds and 5 no-white reds ; (3) two black females, 3 red femates, and 2 red mates belonging to this $\mathrm{F}_{2}$ generation from the second brood (VII.D.2), left together in the same bowl gave

$$
7 \text { normal blacks, } 4 \text { no-white blacks. }
$$

$$
11 \text {.. reds } 3 \text {.. ., reds. }
$$

The proportions are here however not significant, as red may have materl with red, as well as red with black.

Two other experiments give direct evidence of the dominance of normal white pigment over its absence in no-white eres.
(1) A Red male (V'I.E.) with both eves no-white (RN.), from K family was mated with a Black carrying the factor for red $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R})$, and there resulted a brood of 14, all normal-eyed, 7 black $(\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{R}+\mathbf{N})$ and 7 red $(\mathbf{R}+\mathbf{N})$. When the young ones were mated together. " no-whites " both red and black appeared in the next generation.
(2) A Black male (UII.J.) carrying the factors for Red and Albino was mated with a Black no-white female (pp. 250, 32! and had 92 young in four broods, all normal black-eved.

That these no-white animals behave as simple recessives is illustrated by further matings which will now be described.

A brood resulting from the mating together of two of the hybrid blacks ( $\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}$ ) of K family (Plate V. Fig. 1) consisted of 9 normal black-eyed young. 1 normal red-eved and 5 black no-whites (VLI). Three of these survised to maturity. 2 normal black-eyed females and one black nowhite male. The male A mated with each female (B and (') in turn. With female (' there were 26 young in three broods, 18 black and 8 red. The blacks eonsisted of ? normal blacks, and 9 with no-white on both sides. The 8 red were -2 normal and 6 no-white on both sides.

From this it follows that both the male $I$ and the female ( were hybrids as regards red and black.

The male when mated with female B gave 42 young in four broods, all with black eves, 2.5 being normal-eyed and 17 being no-whites. Female $B$ is therefore pure black as regards retinal colour.

Both female C and female B in these matings behave as though they were hybrids for the character " no-white." Their no-white offispring when mated together give all no-white young. Thus a male and a female Black no-white (in brood B.1.) gave ?3 black no-whites, a similar pair (in brood B.2.) gave 10 black no-whites. A male and a female, both Red no-whites (in brood (.2.) mated together gave 11 red no-whites.

I Black no-white male mated with a Red no-white female in the same brood (C.2.) gave 13 black no-white yomg. (This Black no-white therefore did not contain the factor for red.)

Brood C.l.b.l., the offspring of a black no-white male (b) with a red female (c) both from brood C.1., gave 1 normal black, 3 no-white blacks, and 2 no-white reds, which is explained by supposing that the black nowhite male carries red, and the red female carries the factor for " nowhite."

Other illustrations are the following :-
(1) The Red no-white male VII.E. (already used in Experiment (1) referred to on p. 327 , where it was mated with a hybrid black female) was mated with a Red no-white female VII.E. of his own stock (Plate V', Fig. 3) and had 26 young in three broods, all red nowhites.
(2) The Red no-white female III.F. was then mated with the Black no-white male (VII.A., see Fig. 1. Pl. V) and hact two broods, with 63 in all, 34 being Black no-whites and 29 Red no-whites. This confirms the hybrid $(\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{R})$ character of the no-white male, which had already been shown in Fig. 1.
(3) A Black male (BN.) and a Red female (RN.), both no-whites, out of the same brood from K stock (V1I. ( i and H), gave in one brood 26 voung, 13 Black no-whites and 13 Red no-whites.

## Further instances of " No-white" Eyes arisinct.

In the case of the animals already described with which most of the experiments on the inheritance of no-white eyes were made, the mutation appeared in the hybrid stock. Another instance of a similar origin also oceurred and was referred to in the former paper, p. 44. In the A family 7 animals out of 93 surviving produced some no-whites amongst their young. Altogether there were 277 of these young, and of these 126 showed some abnormality in the white extra-retinal pigment. In five cases (four black and one red) it was entirely absent in both eyes; in five other cases (four black and one red) it was entirely absent from the eye of one side only, being normal in the other eye. In the other 116 the white pigment was very much reduced in amount and the reticulation was much broken up. In extreme cases there were only a few bars of white remaining. This gradual disappearance of the white pigment is an interesting feature, and might with advantage be studied further by means of definite breeding experiments. Other instances of a similar kind will be mentioned later.

No-white eyes have also originated independently of those deseribed
above, from wild stock which had not been crossed with red-ered animals.

From a number of animals brought in from Chelson Meadow on Feb inary 11, 1915, certain pairs already mated in the open were put in separate finger-bowls. In the descendants of two of these pairs. no-white eyes have occurred. The pairs and their offspring will be considered separately.
(1) Pair V. In this pair the female had the white pigment very much reduced, the reticulation was perfect but the lines of white were very thin and thread-like. She was mated with a normal-eyed male, and had a fairly large brood which was not examined when young. Of this hrood four reached maturity, three males and one female. One of the males mated with the female. The eyes of this male were examined and the white reticulation though perfect was so thin that it required microscopical examination with a l-inch power to trace it. The eyes of the female were not examined, the male having devoured her after the extrusion of the brood. The brood numbered $13 ; 5$ had a white reticulation which could just be seen under a hand-lens ; 6 had eves like the male parent, in which the reticulation could only be seen with a microscope; 2 had no reticulation and were typical no-whites. All the individuals of this brood were left together in the same finger-bowl, where they remained for some months. At the end of the time 6 very small young were found, all the other animals having died as the conditions in the bowl had become unhealthy. Of the 6 young ones, three had no-white eyes on both sides, one had no-white on the left side and very faintly marked reticulation on the right. The other two were quite normal in appearance. One of the no-whites, a female, was mated with male III.J. (p. 280).

For the mating of the one-sided no-white female see p. 340.
The male referred to above, with very thin white reticulation in the eye, was also mated with a normal red-eyed female. There were 17 black-eyed young, in 45 of these the white reticulation was very much reduced, varying from complete but very thin lines to a few scattered flecks of white, and in many cases more reduced in the eye of one side than in that of the other. In the other two of the 47 young ones the white was completely absent from the eyes of both sides. This result is unexpected because the reduction of the white pigment appears to be dominant over normal white pigment, whereas the absence of white pigment has in other cases always behaved as a recessive.
(2) Pair IV. The parents had normal black eyes, and gave 66 young. all normal. These young were left together for six months, and the vessel in which they were living then contained 28 survivors, three large
ones, 1 male and 2 females, and 2.5 young. The white pigment in the eyes of both the large females was very much reduced. Twenty-three of the young were black-eyed, half-grown animals, with normal extraretinal pigment and $\stackrel{2}{ }$ very small ones, just extrulded, one of which had no-white eves.
(3) A mumber of the animals brought in on February 11, 1915, were examined and all had normal eyes. They were kept together in one large bell jar, which was not examined until April 5, 1916. The bell-jar then contained 20 animals, all having black eyes with the white normal, excepting in one instance. This was a young animal and there was so little white pigment in the eves that it required examination with the microscope ( 1 inch) to detect it.

For another instance of the independent origin of no-white eyes see p. :336.

## SEC'TION IV. THE COLOURLES' EYE.

## (Ross between coloured No-white and Ilbino (Plate VI).

The " albino" eye shows neither black nor red retinal pigment. and is irregular and imperfect in shape, the ommatidia being few in number and merpual in size. The "coloured no-white " eye lacks only the white extra-retinal pigment, the black or red pigment, as well as the shape of the eye, the number, the size, and the arrangement of the ommatidia being nomal. When animals with eyes of these two kinds are mated together what is lacking in one is compensated by its presence in the other, and the offspring ought to be quite normal in appearance, since the three defects, lack of coloured pigment, lack of white pigment, and imperfect form are all recessives.

The theoretical analysis is as follows for the case of the albino earrying black and red crossed with a red no-white : -

If $W$ represents the factor for the presence of white pigment and w that for its absence, the other letters being used as before : -

$$
W W \text { ceBR<wwCORR }
$$

Ilbino carrying Black and Red Red no-white
Dale liametes $\mathrm{W}^{T}$ e B and $\mathrm{W}^{\mathrm{c}} \mathrm{R}$
Female diametes w ('R

Black with the white normal but carving red, albino and no-white.

Red with the white normal carrying albino and no-white.

Similarly if we cross an albino carrying black with a red no-white, we should get all black-eved offspring, the animals having the same constitution as the above, viz. black with the white normal, carrying red, albino and no-white.

If we cross an albino carrying red with a red no-white, we should get all red-eyed offspring with the white normal but carrying alloino and no-white.

For the next generation, if we mate together two of the black hybrids we should get:-

$$
W_{W} \mathrm{CeBR} \times \mathbb{W} \mathrm{CcBR}
$$

Black with the white normal, carrying red, albino and no-white. The gametes are (male and female being the same) : -
WCB, WCR, WeB, WeR, wCB, w C R , we B, weR Zygotes:


That is, out of every 64 animals there should be :-



This may be summarised as follows :-
27 Black-eyed, 9 Black no-white, 9 Red-eyed, 3 Red no-white, 12 Albino-eyed, 4 Albino no-white or Colourless.

From the above it will be seen that four of the no-whites out of each 64 offspring should be also albinos, that is to say, they should show neither white, black nor red pigment, and should therefore be quite colourless. It the time the analysis was made no animals having a quite colourless eye had been seen, and it was a great satisfaction to us to find
that the first brood of grandchildren got by mating together two blackeved children of the cross albino by red no-white, consisted of two normal black-eved animals, one black no-white, and two quite colourless. Since then a number of others with colourless eves have been bred. The full details of the experiments made may now be given.

## Parent Gieneration.

1. Albino carrying black and red mated with Red No-white $(\mathrm{A}+\mathrm{B}+\mathrm{R} \times$ RN ).

A mating of this kind is illustrated on Plate III. Fig. 6, where the male * (II.D.1.j.) is Albino and the female "No-white" (from Family K. Plate V). Eighty young were obtained of which 42 were normal black-eved animals and 38 normal red-eyed.

Another mating of this kind gave 34 young, 17 normal black-eved and 17 trpical red-eyed young.
2. Albino carrying black mated with Red No-white $(\mathbf{A}+\mathrm{B} \times \mathbf{R N})$.

The male II.D.1.k. (Plate II) was mated with a female red "No-white" from Family VII (Plate V') and gave 38 young, all being normal blackeyed animals. (Two of these 38 young which were mated together gave in the first brood 1 colourless young one, which is referred to as C .27 , p. 338.)

From several matings of this kind including the one mentioned a total of 1.58 young was obtained, all normal black-eyed animals. One of these matings is illustrated in Plate IV, Fig. 17 (cf. p. 349).
3. Albino carrying red mated with Red No-white $(\mathbf{A}+\mathrm{R} \times \mathbf{R} \mathbf{N})$.

From the matings of this kind there resulted 137 young. all typical red-ered animals.

## F.1. Generation from $\mathbf{A}+\mathrm{B}+\mathrm{R} \times \mathbf{R} \mathbf{N}$.

Three typical experiments are illustrated on Plate VI, Figs. 1, 2 and 3, the ancestry of the animals used being shown on Plate III, Fig. 6.

Black with Black.
Fig. 1 (Plate VI) shows the result of mating together two black offspring (Plate III, Fig. 6, II.D.I.j.2.) of Ilbino carrying black and red crossed with Red No-white (see Parent generation above, Section I). The first five broods given in the figure consisted of 80 young.

The numbers of each category required by the theory (see p. 332) for 80 young are given below, and those actually obtained are placed beneath them :-

|  | Notmal Blarks. | Black No-wlites. | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Nomal } \\ & \text { Reds. } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { Red } \\ \text { No-whites. } \end{gathered}$ | Normal Albinos. | Colourless (Albino No |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Theory | 31 | 11 | 11 | 4 | 15 | 5) |
| Experiment | 38 | 11 | 10 | 3 | 14 | 4 |

Since the Plate was made further broods have been obtained from this pair and the figures now stand as follows, the total number of young being 117 :-

| 边 | Normal Blacks. | Black <br> No-whites. | Normal Rerls. | $\begin{gathered} \text { Red } \\ \text { No-whites. } \end{gathered}$ | Normal <br> Albinos. | $\begin{gathered} \text { Colourless } \\ \text { (Albino No- } \\ \text { whites). } \end{gathered}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Theory | 176 | 58 | 58 | 20 | 78 | 26 |
| * Experiment | 185 | 57 | 54 | 27 | 75 | 19 |

In addition to the family illustrated in Fig. 1 (Plate VT) a number of other matings have been made of blacks carrying red belonging to Parent Generation $1(A+B+R \times \mathbf{R N})$. Adding together all the fignres for the young obtained from these matings we have a total of 666:3 distributed as follows :-

|  | Normal <br> Black. | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Black } \\ & \text { אo-white. } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Normal } \\ & \text { Reil. } \end{aligned}$ | Red No.white. | Normal <br> Albino. | Albino NoWhite (or Colomless). |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Theory | 278 | 92 | 92 | 30 | 123 | 41 |
| Experiment | 278 | 93 | 89 | 50 | 118 | 3.) |

Red with Red.
Fig. 2 (Plate V1) shows the result of mating together two red offspring (Plate III. Fig. 6, II.D.1.j.2.) of Jibino carrying black and red crossed with Red No-white. See Parent (ieneration $1(\mathbf{A}+\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R} \times \mathbf{R N})$.

Theory requires that out of 16 animals, 12 should show white pigment, 9 of them being red and 3 albinos, and 4 should show no-white, 3 of them being red and 1 colourless.

Fig. 2 shows the first 5 broods with a total of 84 young, and the numbers of each category required by theory for this number are given below, with the numbers actually obtained beneath them.

|  | Normal lieds. | $\begin{gathered} \text { Red } \\ \text { No-whites. } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Nomal } \\ & \text { Altinos. } \end{aligned}$ | Colourless (Albino No-white). |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Theory | 47 | 16 | 16 | ) |
| Experiment | 18 | 16 | 16 | 4 |

Since the plate was made further broods have been obtained and the total number of young is 141 . distributed as follows:-

|  | Normal | Rem | Xommal | Colmulese (Allino |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Rechs. | Nowhites. | Allinos. | No-white). |
| Theory | 79 | $\because 6$ | 26 | 9 |
| Experiment | 79 | 26 | 21 | 12 |

In addition to the family illustrated in Fig. -2 (Plate VI) a number of other matings have been made of red with red belonging to this genera-
tion. Adding together all the fignres for the young obtained from all the matings of this generation we have a total of 600 distributed as follows :

|  |  |  | Normal | Colourless (Allin Nowhite) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Theory | 338 | 112 | 112 | 38 |
| Experiment | 346 | 111 | 10:5 | 38 |

Black with Red.
Fig. 3 (Plate VI) shows the result of mating together a black and a red offspring (Plate III, Fig. 6, II.D.1.j.1.) of Abino carrying black and red crossed with Red No-white. See Parent Generation I ( $\mathbf{A}+\mathrm{B}+\mathrm{R}$ RN).

In this case theory requires that out of 32 young. 9 should be normal blacks, 9 normal reds, 3 black no-whites, 3 red no-whites, $;$ normal albinos and 2 colourless (albino no-whites).

Fig. 3 shows the first 5 broods with a total of 100 young, the theoretical and experimental numbers for the categories being :

| Normal <br> Blacks. | Black <br> No-whites. | Normal <br> Reds. | Rei <br> No-whites. | Normal <br> Albinos. | Colourless <br> (Althino No <br> whites). |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Theory . . . . . | 28 | 9 | 28 | 9 | 18 | 6 |
| Experiment . . | 28 | 15 | 30 | 4 | 20 | 3 |

Since the plate was made further broods have been obtained, and the total number of young is 491, distributed as follows :-

|  | Normal <br> Blacks | Black No-whites. | Normal Rells. | Red No-whites. | Normal <br> Albinos. | Colourles. <br> (Albino N゙owhites). |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Theory | 138 | 16 | 138 | 46 | 02 | 30 |
| Experiment | 109 | 33 | 157 | 45 | 104 | 23 |

## F.1. Generation from $\mathbf{A}+\mathrm{B} \times \mathbf{R N}$.

The young belonging to this generation were mated together and produced 434 young, classified as follows:-

|  | Normal <br> Blacks. | Black N o-whites. | $\begin{gathered} \text { Normal } \\ \text { Reels. } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { Rerl } \\ \text { No-whites. } \end{gathered}$ | Normal Abinos. | Colomilens <br> (Albino Nowhites). |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Theory | 184 | 61 | (6) | 20 | 82 | 27 |
| Experiment | 164 | 60 | 619 | 27 | 91 | 23 |

## F.1. Generation from $\mathbf{A}+\mathbf{R} \times \mathbf{R N}$.

The young belonging to this generation were mated together and produced 220 young, classified as follows:-

|  | Red. | Red No-white. | Albino. Allino (Colourless) |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Nowhite. |  |  |  |

Independent Origin of C'oloured No-white and Albino No-white or Colourless Eyes.

In the last section colourless-eyed animals were described amongst the grandehildren of the cross Albino eve by No-white eye, and it was shown that these were to be expected according to theory. These animals always had the eye colourless on both sides of the head.

Instances of colourless eyes have also occurred in two families amongst the offspring of our original Albino female mated with a pure Red male (Cross A) (Plate I).
(1) The Red-eved male (I.F.) mated with the Red female (I.E.) had a very large number of young, 780 in twenty-six broods, 589 red eyes and 191 albinos (Plate I). Amongst the reds there was a small number of individuals in which the white extra-retinal pigment had become reduced or entirely disappeared, giving rise to the typical Red No-white eve. In 24 animals the white had almost but not entirely disappeared from one or both eves, only a few small specks of white being discovered with a l-inch power, four on right side, eight on left side, and twelve on both sides. In 14 animals the eye on one side had $n o$ white pigment ( 12 on the right side, 2 on the left), that on the other was normal. In 5 animals the white pigment had completely disappeared from both eyes, the eyes being typical Red No-whites.

I similar state of things oceurred amongst the Albinos. In seven animals the white pigment had entirely disappeared from the eye of one side ( 5 on the left side and 2 on the rigbt side), and was present as usual in the eye of the other side. In one animal the white pigment was absent from both eyes. which therefore were quite colourless (see pp. 286 and 339.2).

The following are the details of the No-whites in the successive broods :-
In Brood 1, one Red-eyed animal had the right eve affected, there being only a fleck or two of white : when mature the eye was completely no-white. It died without offspring. Another had very thin reticulation in both eyes. (Several of the next generation hat hardly any white pigment in their eyes.)

In Brood 2, one Red-eyed animal had the right eye completely no-white.
In Brood 3, one Albino-eyed animal had the right eye small, and the left eye no-white, i.e. Colourless. (From the mating of two albinos of this Brood 3. 12 young were produced, one of which was Colourless on the right side, and one was Colourless on both sides. In the next generation again. 10 young were obtained from the mating of two of the normal albinos, and one of these again showed the no-white strain, having the right eye Colourless.)

In Brood 4, the animals were all normal-eved. One Albine, a femate, was mated with the lied male from Brood 1, which had very thin white reticula-
tion in both eyes, and in their offspring the no-white strain appeared. (Out of 76 young produced by this pair 38 were Red-eyed, e9 with normal eyes, 3 with one eye normal and the other no-white, and 6 no-white on both sides; 38 Albinos, 22 of which were nomal-eyed and 16 no-white, i.e. Cokourless. Two of these young alhinos have mated, and had 41 young, 33 normal Albino-eyed and 8 Colourless, which is the usual 3: 1 ratio. The Colourless have also had offspring, 8 all Colourless.)

In Brood 5, one Red-esed had the right pye practically no-white, with only a fleck or two of white pigment, left eve normal. (Examined again at maturity the right eye was found to have developed the normal white reticulation, cf. p. 340.4.) One Albino had the left ere Colourless. (In the first brood of 13 roung of the next generation one Red-eyed had the left eye no-white, and very little white pigment in the right eye.)

In Brood 6, one Red-eyed animal had the right eye no-white, and one Albino had the left eye Colourless. (ln the next generation one Red had the left eye no-white, and very little white pigment in the right eye.)

In Broods 7 and 8 , which were not examined for some dars after extrusion, the animals were all normal-eyed.

In Brood 9 three Red-eyed animals were affected, one with the right eye, one with the left eye, and one with both eyes no-white; and two Albinos, one having the right eye and one both eyes no-white.

In Brood 10, all the animals were normal-eyed.
In Brood 11, one Albino had the left eye no-white.
In Brood 12, two Reds had both eyes practically no-white.
In Brood 13, one Red had both eyes practically no-white.
In Brood 14, three Red-eyed were affected, two had the right eye and one had both eyes no-white.

A number of other Reds in Broods 10 to 14 showed a tendeney for the white reticulation to break down.

In Brood 15 two Red-eyed had the right eye no-white, and one of the two had the reticulation much broken on the left side. Two others had the reticulation so much broken, one on the right and one on the left, as to be practically no-white, and in many others the reticnlation was very thin. One Albino had the right eye affected, there being only one spot of the white pigment at the upper end of the eye.

In Brood 16, two of the Red-eyed had the left eye practically no-white.
In Brood 17, three Red-eyed were affected, one with the right eve, and two with the left practically no-white.

In Brood 18, one Red-eyed had the right eye no-white, and one Albino had the right eye no-white, and a very small eye on the left side.

In Brood 19, one Red-ered was no-white on both sides.
In Brood 20, all the animals were normal-eyed.
In Brood 21, one Red-eved had the right eye and one had the left eye nowhite.

In Brood 2.2, two Red-eyed had hardly any white pigment in the eyes, and one Albino had the left eve Colourless.

In Brood 23 all the Red-eyed animals had the red pigment much reduced, giving a yellow appearance to the eyes, and two had the left eye practically no-white. This brood is breeding and has given so far, normal Reds, Red no-whites, one-sided Red no-whites and Albinos.

In Brood 24, the red pigment was greatly reduced, only 2 out of 19 Redeved showing a faint pink tinge, the others were of a pale yellow tint. Seven of them had hardly any white pigment, and in one of them the right eye was practically no-white. One Allino had the right eye very small.

In Brood 2.5 , the coloured pigment in the Red-eved animals was the normal bright red tint, one had very thin reticulation on the left side, one had the right eye no-white, and very thin reticulation in the left, one had the right eye no-white, with no red pigment in the centre of the ere, two had both cyes no-white.

The last Brood, 26, consisted of only three animals, Red-eyed, with the red pigment much reduced.
(2) The same Red-eyed male (I.F.) was mated with another Red-eyed female (I.(i.) from the same brood as the last and had in 3 broods 46 red-eyed and 18 albino-eyed young (Plate I). The 3rd brood consisted of 25 red and 12 albino-eyed young. These were left together in one bowl, and 15 young were obtained from their chance matings, 4 red, 8 albino and 3 with colourless eyes on both sides.

Two of these colourless ones survived, a male and a female (Plate I', Fig. 5). For details of offspring, see p. 339.3.

## Constitution of the Colourless Eye.

That these colourless eyes, whether obtained by breeding together no-whites and albinos (see p. 330) or having an independent origin, behave as recessives to white and to colour is shown by the following results :-

1. (a) A female with both eyes Colourless (C.27. see p. 333), belonging to the $\mathrm{F}_{2}$ generation from the mating Iibino carrying black crossed with Red No-white, was mated with an Ilbino male (Plate II, VI.B.2.t.) and produced 108 young in 5 broods all with the usual albino eyes.

Two of these broods have reached maturity and from their matings 218 young have been obtained, 163 with the usual albino eyes, and 50 albino no-whites. Theory demands for this number $16 t$ albinos and 54 albino no-whites (Colourless).

Some of the albino-eyed young of this second generation have just become mature, and when mated together gave 19 albino-eved and 5 allino-no-whites (Colourless).
(b) From another mating of this kind, Colourless female with Albino male, one brood of 18 young resulted, all with normal allino eyes. These
mated together have given 106 young. 85) Albino-eyed and 21 Albino no-whites.
(c) The first $\mathrm{F}_{3}$ brood from $\mathrm{F}_{2}$ albinos $(\mathrm{A}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{N} \times \mathbf{A}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{N})$ from the family described on p. 336 numbered 55 , 45 usual-eyed albinos and 10 albino no-whites, i.e. Colourless. Theory requires 41 albinos and 14 Colourless.
2. A female with both eyes Colourless ( $\mathbf{A N}+$ R) (Plate VTI, Fig. 6) (whose parents are shown on Plate I, viz. I.E.3.I. of and I.E.B.o. of, and whose ancestry is discussed on p. 336), the colourless character having originated independently, was mated with a Red No-white male $\mathbf{R N}$ descended from Family VII. The resulting broods are charted on Plate V, Fig. 4, there being 177 young, all with Red No-white eyes.

The offspring obtained by mating together individuals from the first brood of these young ones are shown on the plate. In the ten broods figured there were 124 young, 89 Red No-whites $(=\mathbf{R N}+\mathbf{A N})$ and 35 Colourless $(\mathbf{A N}+\mathrm{R})$. Altogether in this generation we have obtained

481 young, 359 Red No-whites and 122 Colourless. Theory requires 361
, 120
From the mating of the first two $\mathrm{F}_{2}$ young which matured, a Red Nowhite male with a Colourless female, 24 young were obtained, $\mathbf{R N}+$ $A N 14$ and $A N+R 10$. The first mating from the next generation $F_{3}$ $(\mathbf{R N}+A N \times \mathbf{R N}+A N)$ produced $14 \mathbf{R N}+A N$ and $3 \mathbf{A N}+\mathrm{R}$.
3. Of the three Colourless-eyed young referred to on p. 338, which arose independently, two survived, a male and a female. These two mated together and the three first broods are shown on Plate V, Fig. 5. Altogether they produced 85 young, all Colourless $\left(\mathrm{F}_{1}\right)$. The first brood of these has reached maturity, and mated together these have produced 386 young all with colourless eyes $\left(F_{2}\right)$. The first two of these broods are shown on the Plate. Some of these $F_{2}$ broods have just reached maturity, and in chance matings within the brood have produced 10 young, all Colourless ( $\mathrm{F}_{3}$ ).

## SECTION V. ONE-SIDED NO-WHITES. ANIMALS WITH ONE EYE NORMAL AND THE OTHER ABNORMAL.

A number of instances have occurred in which the eye on one side of the head was normal, whilst that on the other was either a coloured " no-white" eye or a colourless eye, i.e. an albino " no-white."

In most cases these animals died before maturity, so that up to the present, we have never had males and females mature at the same time, to breed together.

We have therefore mated the few one-sided no-whites which survived with normal-eyed animals and with typical no-whites. The details of the experiments are as follows :

1. Red female, No-white on the Left side, the white reticulation rather broken on the Right side, mated with a Red no-white male (Plate IT, Fig. 4).

This female is descended from the $\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{R}+\Lambda$ female, VI.A.1.h. (p. 293), which was mated with a Red male from Pure Red Stock, and gave a brood of 7 young, 3 Black and 4 Red, hatched on May 18. 1916. On examining the brood, August 18, 1916, two Black females and three Red males were found with 25 young ( 6 Black and 17 Red), 23 of which were normal-eyed, and two, a Red and a Black (see 4), were no-white on the Left side.

The Red one was again examined on reaching maturity and the Left eye was found unchanged, still no-white. It was mated with a Red nowhite male (i.e. one practically normal eye, to three no-white eyes), and produced 20 young, all with normal Red eyes $(\mathbf{R}+\mathbf{N})$.

These young were mated together and gave a total of 490, 365 Redeyed, and 125 Red no-whites. In each animal both eyes were of the same type. The results therefore are in full agreement with the Mendelian theory of the dominance of the white pigment, the numbers required by the theory being 367 Red-eyed to 122 Red no-white.
2. A Black female from Pure Black stock (p. 329) with the Left eye no-white, and very little white reticulation in the Right eye, mated with a No-white male from the same stock and had 1.5 yomg. all with normal Black eyes.
3. An Albino female with the Loft eye no-uhite, i.e. Colourless. Parentage, Albino male carrying Black $(\mathbf{A}+\mathbf{B})$ from Brood 1 of III.B (p. 279) and Red female IV.Y (p. 285). The female was mated with an Albino male, the eyes of which were very small and the shape of the head abnormal on both sides; 271 young were produced, all with the usual Albino eyes and head shape normal. From 3 pairs of these young mated within the brood 122 offspring were obtained, 121 being normal albinos and 1 being colourless on the left side and normal albino on the right, exactly resembling the grandmother.
4. It may be interesting to add here the account of the young Black female referred to in paragraph 1, above, and of the same parentage as the Red female described.

When hatched the Left eye was no-white, and the Right ere had only whe streak of white in it. It was examined again at maturity and it was
then found that the Right eye had developed the normal white reticulation, and the left eye had the upper half with the white reticulation, the lower half no-white. Mated with a Red no-white male, it had 64 offspring $\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{R}+\mathbf{N} 31$ and $\mathbf{R}+\mathbf{N} 33$, all with normal eyes.

Two pairs of these have produced young ; the first pair, Black with Red, had 83 young, 15) Black, 4 Black no-white, 24 Red, 10 Red nowhite ; and the second pair, Red $(\mathbf{R}+\mathbf{N})$ with $\operatorname{Red}(\mathbf{R}+\mathbf{N})$, gave 5:3 young, 39 Red. 14 Red no-white, none showing any variation from the normal types.

These Red $\mathrm{F}_{2}$ young are now mature, and their matings Red no-white by Red no-white have given 13 Red no-white, and $\operatorname{Red}(\mathbf{R}+\mathrm{N})$ by Red no-white have produced 26 young, 11 Red and 15 Red no-white.

## SUMMARY.

Sections I and II. Amongst the stock of Gammarus cherreuxi which had been kept under Laboratory conditions for at least two years a small number of animals appeared in which the coloured retinal pigment was absent, whilst the white extra-retinal pigment remained. The experiments described in the present paper have shown that these eyes were of two different kinds.

Eyes of the first kind were derived from a stock which originated in a cross between Black-eyed and Red-eyed animals, and were degenerate and irregular in shape. Four animals of this kind appeared in one brood, and such eyes have since been seen only in direct descendants from these. Eyes of this kind were found to behave as simple Mendelian recessives to eyes showing coloured retinal pigment, whether that pigment was red or black. and they are referred to in this paper as "albino" eyes.

Eyes of the second kind were derived from a pure red-eyed stock, and were perfect in shape. The absence of coloured pigment has been shown not to be inherited, and the one animal of the kind experimented with, when mated with a female of the first kind, gave all coloured offspring. By a study of the descendants of these coloured offspring it has been shown that the parent anmal behaves in inheritance exactly as if it were one with normal red eyes.

In the course of this investigation all possible crosses have been made between Black-eyed, Red-eyed and Albino-eyed animals. In this way 4 different kinds of black-eyed animals were produced, viz. pure black, black carrying albino, black carrying red, and black carrying red and albino; 2 different kinds of red-eyed animals, viz. pure red and red carrying albino ; 3 different kinds of albinos, viz. albino carrying black, albino carrying red, and albino carrying black and red.

The figures given below show the number of offspring obtained in our experiments by mating together animals of the constitutions specified in each heading. These are summary figures, giving the totals for all crosses of each particular kind, and include many cases which are not referred to in the previous sections of the paper. The figures demanded by theory are placed below those given by our experiments. The total number of animals of which both eves were examined for eve-colour to Sept. 8th, 1917, is 26,553 .

The figures are arranged in the following order under the different eye-colours :-

1. The matings giving offspring all of one colour ;

2 . Those giving offispring of two colours in the proportion 3:1;
3. Those giving oftspring of two colours, half of one and hatf of the other ;
1.-7. Those giving offspring of three colours.

1. Matings giving normal-eyed* offspring all of one colour.

Black, offspring all normal-eyed Black in appearance, in agreement with theory. Kumher of youg, Black-cyen.

| $\mathbf{B} \times \mathbf{B}$ | 27.5 |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\mathbf{B} \times \mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}$ | 146 |

$\mathbf{B} \times \mathbf{B}+\mathrm{A} \quad 87$
$\mathbf{B} \times \mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{I}$
$\mathbf{B} \times \mathbf{R} \quad ; 18$
$\mathbf{B} \times \mathbf{R}+\mathbf{1} \quad 126$
$\mathbf{B} \times \mathbf{A}+\mathbf{B} \quad 18$
$\mathbf{B} \times \mathbf{A}+\mathbf{R}$
$\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{R} \times \mathbf{B}+1 \quad 46$
$\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{R} \quad 251$
$\mathbf{B}$ (half no-white) $\times \mathbf{B N} \quad 15$
$\mathbf{B N} \times \mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{I} \quad 92$
$\mathbf{A}+\mathrm{B} \times \mathbf{R} \quad 87$
$\mathbf{A}+\mathbf{B} \times \mathbf{R N} \quad 1.58$ Total, 2015.
Red. offspring all normal-eyed Red in appearance, in agreement with
theory.

Numbrer of young, Red-eyed.
$\mathbf{R} \times \mathbf{R} \quad 1525$
$\mathbf{R} \times \mathbf{R}+\mathbf{1}$
$\mathbf{R} \times \mathbf{A}+\mathrm{R} \quad 259$
$\mathbf{R} \times \mathbf{R N} \quad \quad \geq 4$
$\mathbf{R N} \times \mathbf{A}+\mathrm{R} \quad 137$
$\mathbf{R}$ (half no-white) $\times \mathbf{R N} \quad 20 \quad$ Total, 2644.

* In this section the word "normal-eved" is used in the sense that the chalk-white extra-retinal pisment is present.

Albino, offspring all the usual-eyed Albino in appearance, in agreement with theory.

| Number of young, Alhino-eyed. |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\mathbf{A}+(?) \times \mathbf{A}+($ ? $)$ | 1157 |  |
| $\mathbf{A}+\mathrm{R} \times \mathbf{A}+\mathrm{R}$ | 225 |  |
| $\mathbf{A}+\mathrm{R} \times \mathbf{A}+($ ? ) | 330 |  |
| $\mathrm{A}+\mathrm{R} \times \mathrm{A}+\mathrm{B}+\mathrm{R}$ | 103 |  |
| $\mathbf{A}+\mathrm{R} \times \mathrm{AN}$ | 126 |  |
| $\mathbf{A}+($ ? $)($ half no-white) $\times \mathbf{A N}$ | 271 | Total, |

2. Matings giving normal-eyed offspring of two colours in the proportion 3:1.
Black.
Number of young.
$\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R} \times \mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}$
Black-eyed. Red-eyed.
$\begin{array}{llll} & \text { Experiment } & 735 & 249 \\ & \text { Theory } & 738 & 246\end{array}$
$\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R} \times \mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A} \quad$ Experiment $300 \quad 90$
$-292-97$
$\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R} \times \mathbf{A}+\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R} \quad$ Experiment $\quad 7 \quad 2$
B R $\times$ (? )
$\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{R} \times \mathbf{A}(?) \quad$ Experiment $13 \quad 7$
Theory $15 \quad 5$ Total, 1403.

| $\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}+\mathbf{A}$ | Black-eyed. |  | Albino-eyed. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :---: |
|  | Experiment | 468 | 156 |
| $\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}+\mathbf{R}+\mathbf{A}$ | Expery | 468 | 156 |
|  | Experiment | 144 | 59 |
| $\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{R}+\mathbf{A}$ | Theory | 153 | 51 |
|  | Experiment | 481 | 158 |
|  | Theory | 480 | 160 | Total, 1466.

Red.
$\mathbf{R}+\mathrm{A} \times \mathbf{R}+\mathrm{A}$

Red-eyed.
Experiment 1408
Theory 1408

Albino-eyed.
471
470 Total, 1879.
3. Matings giving normal-eyed offspring of two colours in the proportion 1:1.

| Black: | Number of young. <br> Black-eyed. |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :---: | :---: |
| $\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{R} \times \mathbf{R}$ | Experiment | 403 | 410 |
|  | Theory | 406 | 406 |
| $\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{R} \times \mathbf{R}+\mathbf{A}$ | Experiment. | 44 | 48 |
|  | Theory | 46 | 46 |
| $\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{R} \times \mathbf{R N}$ | Experiment | 50 | 57 |
|  | Theory | 53 | 53 |
| $\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{R} \times \mathbf{A}+\mathbf{R}$ | Experiment | 71 | 95 |
|  | Theory | 83 | 83 |


7. Matings giving normal-eyed offspring of three colours in the proportion 3: : 3 : - .2.

Number of young.
Black-eyed. Red-eyed. Albino-eyed.
$\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\boldsymbol{\Lambda} \times \mathbf{R}+\mathrm{A} \quad$ Experiment $\quad 235 \quad 169 \quad 14$
$\begin{array}{llll}\text { Theory } & 205 & 205 & 137\end{array}$
It will be noticed that in both this and the preceding instance the proportion of total coloured (red and black combined) to albino is in good agreement with the Mendelian theory. In each case, however, the experiment gives a great excess of blacks over reds, whereas theory requires equality in each case. The numbers are fairly large and it is possible that this result may have some significance.

Section III. Animals occurred in which the chalk-white extra-retinal pigment of the eres was absent. These we have called "no-whites." This mutation appeared independently in several different stocks, and there is evidence that it may be produced in a series of steps or stages, the white pigment being gradually reduced in amount. In some cases the two eyes of the same animal differ in respect to the presence or absence of white pigment, or in the amount of white pigment. The " nowhite " eve behaves in inheritance as a simple Mendelian recessive to the presence of white.

The following numbers are derived from the experiments made with these animals. including also the experiments made with the Ilbino no-whites (AN) or Colourless, described in the next Section.

1. Matings giving no-white-eyed offspring all of one colour.

Black; offspring all Black no-white in appearance, in agreement with theory.

Number of young, Black no white.

| $\mathbf{B N} \times \mathbf{B N}$ | 13 |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\mathbf{B N} \times \mathbf{R} \mathbf{N}$ | 13 |

Red. offspring all Red no-whites in appearance, in agreement with theory.

Red no-whites.

| $\mathbf{R N} \times \mathbf{R N}$ | 61 |
| :--- | ---: |
| $\mathbf{R N} \times \mathbf{A N}+$ R | 177 |

Albino, offspring all Albino no-white in appearance, in agreement with theory.
2. Matings giving No-uchite offspring of 2 kinds in the proportion 3:1. Number of young.
Red no-whites. Allino no-whites.

| $\mathbf{R N}+\mathbf{A} \mathbf{N} \times \mathbf{R N}+\mathbf{N}$ | Experiment | 373 | 125 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | Theory | 373 | 125 |

3. Matings giving No-uhite offspring of 2 kinds in the proportion 1:1.

Number of young.
Black no-whites. Red no-whites.

| $\mathbf{B N}+\mathbf{R} \times \mathbf{R} \mathbf{N}$ | Experiment | 47 | 42 |
| :--- | :--- | :---: | :---: |
|  | Theory | 44 | 44 |
|  |  | Red. | Albino. |
| $\mathbf{R N}+\mathbf{N} \times \mathbf{A N}+\mathrm{R}$ | Experiment | 14 | 10 |
|  | Theory | 1.2 | 12 |

4. Natings of normal-eyed amimals carrying the factor for No-white, the offspring of crosses between normal-eved and no-whites.
(a) Those which give normal and no-white eyes of one colour in the proportion of 3 normal to 1 no-white, i.e. $3: 1$.

Black.
$\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{N} \times \mathbf{B}+\mathrm{N}$

Red.
$\mathbf{R}+\mathbf{N} \times \mathbf{R}+\mathbf{N}$

Albino.
$\mathbf{A}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{N} \times \mathbf{A}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{N}$
$\mathbf{A}+\mathbf{N} \times \mathbf{A}+\mathbf{N}$

|  | Number ofBoung. <br> Black. <br> Bo-whites. <br> Experiment <br> Theory 24 |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |


|  | Red. | Rell no-whites. |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Experiment | 440 | 149 |
| Theory | 441 | 147 |

Alhino. Albino no-whites.

| Experiment | 45 | 10 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Theory | 41 | 14 |

Experiment $246 \quad 72$
Theory $238 \quad 79$
(b) Those which give normal and no-white eyes in two colours in the proportions 9:3:3:1.

| $\mathbf{R}+\mathbf{A}+\mathbf{N} \times \mathbf{R}+\mathbf{N}+\mathrm{N}$ | Normal Red. | $\begin{gathered} \text { Red } \\ \text { No-white. } \end{gathered}$ | Normal <br> Allino. | Colourless <br> (Albino No white). |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Experiment | 173 | 149 | 147 | 51 |
| Theory | 461 | 153 | 15.3 | 51 |
| $[\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{N} \times \mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{N}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { Normal } \\ \text { lied. } \end{gathered}$ | Black No-white. | $\begin{gathered} \text { Normal } \\ \text { Red. } \end{gathered}$ | $\underset{\substack{\text { Red } \\ \text { ro-white. }}}{\text { and }}$ |
| Experiment | 73 | 24 | 18 | 6 |
| Theory | 67 | 23 | 23 | 7 |

Note.--This is the K family VII, referred to on p. 326 in which the No-white mutation arose independently.]
(c) Those which give normal and no-white eyes in two colours in the proportions 3:1:3:1.

| $\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{N} \times \mathbf{R}+\mathbf{N}$ | Normal <br> Black. | Black <br> No-white. | Normal <br> Red. | Red <br> No-white |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Experiment | 4. |  |  |  |

(d) Those which give normal and no-white eyes in three colonrs in the proportions 9:3:9:3:6:2.

| $\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A}+\mathrm{N}$ | Normal | $\begin{gathered} \text { Black } \\ \text { No-white. } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Normal } \\ & \text { Red. } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { Red } \\ \text { No-white. } \end{gathered}$ | Normal Albino. | Colourless <br> (Albino No |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Experiment | 109 | 53 | 157 | 45 |  | white). |
| Theory | 138 | 46 | 138 | 46 | 92 | 30 |

(e) Those which give normal and no-white eyes in three colours in the proportion 27:9:9:3:12:4.

| $\begin{aligned} & \mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A}+\mathbf{N} \times \\ & \mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A}+\mathrm{N} \end{aligned}$ | Normal Black. | $\begin{gathered} \text { Black } \\ \text { No-white. } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Normal } \\ & \text { Red. } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { Red } \\ \text { No-white. } \end{gathered}$ | Normal Albino. | Colourless <br> (Albino No. white). |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Experiment | 442 | 153 | 155 | 77 | 212 | 58 |
| Theory | 461 | 154 | 154 | 51 | 205 | 68 |

5. Matings of animals, one normal-eyed carrying no-white, the other no-white.
(a) Those which give normal and no-white eyes in one colour in the proportion 1: 1 .

| $\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{N} \times \mathbf{B N}+\mathbf{R}$ | Experiment | Normal Black. | Black No-white. |
| :--- | :--- | :---: | :---: |
|  | Theory | 20 | 12 |
|  |  | 16 | 16 |
| $\mathbf{R}-\mathbf{N} \times \mathbf{R N}$ | Experiment | Normal Red. | Red No-white. |
|  | Theory | 11 | 15 |
|  |  | 13 | 13 |

(b) Those which give normal and no-white eyes in two colours in the proportions 3:3:1:1.

| $\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathbf{N} \times \mathbf{B N}+\mathrm{R}$ |  | Normal Black. | $\begin{gathered} \text { Black } \\ \text { No-white. } \end{gathered}$ | Normal Red. | $\begin{gathered} \text { Rerl } \\ \text { Mo-white. } \end{gathered}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Experiment |  | 21 | 3 | 10 |
|  | Theory | 22.5 | 22.5 | $7 \cdot 5$ | $7 \cdot 5$ |

Section IV. By breeding together "albinos" and "no-whites" a certain proportion of offspring are produced in which both the coloured retinal pigment and the white extra-retinal pigment are absent. The
eyes of these are quite colourless. The figures for these are given under Section III, Summary (pp. 346 and $347, \mathrm{~b}, \mathrm{~d}$ and e).

In addition to the colourless-eyed animals obtained by crossing albinoand no-whites, the colourless eye has arisen independently as a mutation.

Colourless-eyed animals mated together give all colourless-eyed offspring. The figures for these are given under Section III, Summary (p. 315. AN $\times \mathbf{A N}$ ).

## GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS.

The phenomena described in the present paper show a progressive degeneration of the eve of Gammarus, taking place in a series of definite steps or stages, each of considerable magnitude. In the end we see the entire loss of the eye-pigment, together with a broken and irregular arrangement of the ommatidia and a great reduction in their number. We only need to imagine the continnation of this process for a few further steps, and we should reach the complete absence of eyes found in those blind genera of Amphipoda, which live in subterranean waters.

There is no direct proof that the change from the black eye-pigment of the wild animal to the red pigment, which occurred as a mutation in the eyes of the animals first used in the experiments, is due to the loss of a factor, but it seems not improbable that this may be the case. It is clear, at any rate, that these degenerative changes the change from black pigment to red pigment, the entire loss of the coloured retinal pigment, the loss of the white extra-retinal pigment, and the degeneration in the form of the eye-all take place in exact conformity with Mendel's Law. The only feature which may at first sight seem to show a divergence from this law is the more gradual process of degeneration of the white extra-retinal pigment, which gives rise to what we call the " nowhite " eyes described in Section III. This, however, may perhaps be capable of explanation by supposing that the loss of the pigment takes place in a series of steps, instead of in one single step.

The experiments recorded throw little or no light on the question of the conditions under which mutations arise or of the causes which give rise to mutations. The mutation of red eye-pigment has arisen once only in the whole course of the work and then after the animals had been kept under Laboratory conditions for only 2 generations.

The complete loss of the inter-retinal colonred pigment, giving rise to the " albino" eye, was first seen in one brood belonging to a particular family as described on p. 275. the female parent being from stock which had been living under laboratory conditions for over 3 years, and the male parent also from stock which had been in the laboratory for several generations. Out of 733 offspring of the same family, 4 with albino eyes
oceurred, all in one brood, two of which survived to produce offspring. All the animals used in the experiments were descendants of these two and the mutation has never occurred again.

The loss of the white, extra-retinal pigment, on the other hand, has originated apparently independently on several occasions. It is discussed in detail on p. 336. There seem to be some grounds for concluding that the loss of this pigment occurs when animals have been allowed to remain together for long periods and to interbreed promiscuously under somewhat unfarourable conditions as regards the quantity of water in which they are kept and the amount of food available. The loss of this pigment too, as already mentioned, seems sometimes to occur rather gradually and not suddenly as in the case of the change from black to red or the loss of the red.

Quite colourless eyes have arisen independently from albinos by the loss of the white extra-retinal pigment, just in the same way that nowhite eyes have arisen from normal red and black eyes. Cases of this kind have been discussed on pp. 336-338.

A point of general interest which is somewhat strikingly illustrated by experiments described in this paper is the way in which the offspring of two abnormal, in this case degenerate. parents may themselves be quite normal in their characters, but are nevertheless capable of transmitting the abnormatities to their children. Such a case is that described on p. 333 (paragraph 2), where an Albino male (i.e. a male whose ere contained only the white extra-retinal pigment but neither black nor red inter-retinal pigment) was mated with a female Red No-white (i.e. one whose eyes contained only red inter-retinal pigment) with the result that all the young were black-eyed animals, normal in form and colour and indistinguishable on inspection from their wild ancestors (Plate VII, Figs. 4 and j; Plate IV, Fig. 17). When, however, these or black-eyed animals of similar constitution are mated together the essential difference between them and the wild form comes out at once, all the abnormalities of the grandparents being reproduced in the grandchildren, and these abmormalities may even be combined in such a way that some of the grandchildren are more abnormal than the grandparents from whom they sprang. In the particular case mentioned the offispring consist, on the average, of 27 normal blacks, 9 black nowhites, 9 normal reds, 3 red no-whites, 12 normal albinos and 4 colourless (albino no-whites). (Cf. Plate V1, Fig. 1.)

Other results of a similar kind are recorded on p. 333 and the following pages.

## ENPMANATHON OF PLATES.

## Plate I.

F1s. 1.- Explanation of the signs employed in the diagrams.
Sormal Black: i.e. with both the black retinal and the white extra-retinal pigments present.
Bluck no-white, with the black retinal pigment present. the white pigment absent. Red normal, with both the red retinal and the white extra-retimal pigments present. Red no-uhite. with the red retinal pigment present, the white pigment absent.
Formul Albino, with the white pigment present, the coloured retinal pigment absent.
Albino no-uhite or Colourless, with both the coloned retinal and the white extraretinal pigments absent.

A black spot attached outside the large circles indicates that the animal carries the factor for Black. Similarly, a red spot indicates that the factor for Red is carried, a small black circle the factor for Albino, and a small red circle the factor for No-white.

The small $V$-shaped sign outside the large circles means that it has not been determined whether the factor usually indicated in the position where the sign is placed is present or absent.

Fis. 2.-The matings of the Albino female A.C. (Albino carrying the factors for Black and Red) with a Red male and a Black male.
Cross A. (p. 275) with the male R.e from l'ure Red Stock.
One brood, 1, and the young from their inter-matings.
Cross B. (p. 278) with the male K.A. Black earrying the factor for Red from Family K (1). 326 and Plate $\mathrm{V}^{\circ}$ ).

F'our broods, 1F, III, IV and V.
Many of the young died before reaching maturity. The constitution of those which survived to be tested is shown when known.

## Plate II.

Cross C. The mating of the Albino female A.B. (Albino, carrying the factors for Black and Red), with the All-White male R.I. ; the brood resulting from this mating is designated VI.
Cross B . The mating of the Albino female A.C. (from the same brood and of the same constitution as A.B.) with the male K.A. from the family K, shown on I'late $V$. Fig. 1, Black earrying the factor for Red : the brood from this mating is designated II. The number of the offspring resulting from the (ross-mating of Brood VI, with Brood 11, together with the sex, and eonstitution when known, of the surviving animals, are shown below. Animals to which no letter is attached could not be tested for constitution.
11. D 1, $2,3,4$, are broods from the mating of two animals of Brood II. The number of young is shown. and the sex of those which reached maturity, but not the constitution, as, except in two or three instances, they were not tested for the factors carried.

## Plate III.

F1t: 1.-Mating of Albino with Albino; offspring all Albino-eyed.
The male (h) and the female (1) are both from the second brood of 11.1). (p, 279, Plate 11).
Fic: : 2.-Mating of Albino carrying the fuctor for Black with Pure Red: offspring all Black-eyed.

The mate $(\mathbf{A}-\mathrm{B})$ is from the first broorl of 111.B. (p, 279, Plate 1): the female ( $\mathbf{R}$ ) is VI.B.2.g. (p. 314, Plate II).

F1s: 3.--Mnting of Albino currging the juctor for Black with Red carrying the fuctor for Ilbino: half the offispring Black-eved. half Albino-eved.

The male $(\mathbf{A} B)$ is from the same brood as the male of Fig. 2 (pp. 27! and $2 \mathrm{~s}(\mathrm{i})$, the female ( $\mathbf{R}$ A) IV:Z. (1. 285, Plate I).
Fig. 4.-Mating of Albino carrying the juctor for Red with Pure Red; offipming all liedeyed.

The male ( $\mathbf{R}$ ) and the female ( $\mathbf{A} \quad \mathbf{R}$ ) are both from a brood of the female 1.1:. of Cross A (1. 286).

Fia. 5.- Mating of Albino carrying the factor for Red with Red carrying the fuctor for Alhino ; half the offspuring Red-eyed, and half Allino-eyed.

Both the male ( $\mathbf{R} A$ ) and the female $(\mathbf{A} K)$ are from the same hrood as the pair of Fig. 4 (p. 286).
Fus. 15.-Mating of Albino carrying the factors for Black and Red with Red No-urhite: half the offspring, Black-eyed, earrying the factors for Red, Allino and Nowhite, and half Red-eyed, earrying the factors for Albino and No-white.

The male $(\mathbf{A}+\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{R})$ is $11 . \mathrm{D} .1 . \mathrm{j}$. on llate 11 (p. 333) ; the female is a Red no-white from Family $\mathfrak{K}$ (1’late V, Fig. 1).
some of this brood came to maturity, lut died before their constitution could be proved; their sex is shown in the diagram, but no distinctive letters have been given them.

## Plate 11.

Fus. 1.-IIating of Black cotrying the factors for Red and Albino with Pure Red; half the offspring Black-eyerd, half Red-eyerl.

The female $(\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{R}+\mathrm{A})$ (also in Figs. 2and 3) is VI.A.1.I. (p. 293. Plate IJ); the male ( $\mathbf{R}$ ) came from the Pure Red Stock.
Fis: ..-. Mating of Black carrying the factors for Red and Albino with Black carrying the factor for Red only : affispring in the proportion of 3 Black-eyed to 1 Red-cyed.

Both animals from the one brood: the same female $(\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{R}+\mathbf{A})$ as in Fig .1 materl with the male ( $\mathbf{B} \cdot \mathrm{R}$ ) VI.A.1.a. (p. 291. Plate Il).
Fic:, 3.-Ilating of Black carrying the factors for Red and Alhino with Red corrying the jactor for Alhino; offispring should consist of Black-eyed. Red-eyed and Alhinoeyed animals.

The same female ( $\mathbf{B} \quad \mathrm{R}-\mathrm{A}$ ) as in the two previous figures mated with the male $(\mathbf{R}-\mathrm{A})$ V'I.C.l.o. (p. 310, l'late ll).
Fite. 4.-Mating of Black carrying the jactor jor Red only with Pure Red; half the offspring Blaek-eyed, and half Red-eyed.

The same male ( $\mathbf{B}-\mathbf{R}$ ) as in Fig. ${ }^{2}$. mated with a female ( $\mathbf{R}$ ) from the l'ure Red Stock.
Fle. J.-Mating of Blach carrying the factor for Red only with Black carrying the factors for Red und Albime: offspring in the proportion of 3 Black-eyed to 1 Redeyed.

The same male ( $\mathbf{B}-\mathrm{R}$ ) as in Figs. 2 and 4 , mated with the female $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A})$ Vl. ('.1.d. (p. 297, Plate 11).
Fita. 15.-Wating of Black carrying the factors jor Rod and Albino with Red carrying the factor for thino; offspring should consist of Black-eyed, Red-eyed and Albino-eyed animals.

Both animals from the one brood: the same female ( $\mathbf{B}: \mathrm{A}$ ) as in Fig. 5 ; the male $(\mathbf{R}$ A) as in Fig. 3.
F'u. T.—Mating of Pure Black with Pure Red; offspring all Black-eyed.
The male (B) VI.A.I.c. (p, 292, Plate II) ; the female (R) from the Pure Red Stock.

Fig. 8.-Mating of Pure Bluck with Red carrying the factor for Albino; ofisping all Black-eyed.

Both animals from the one brood; the same male (B) as in Fig. 7: the female $(\mathbf{R}+\mathrm{A})$ VI.A.1.q. (p. 309, Plate 11).
Fig. 9.-Inting of Red carrying the fuctor for Albino with Red currying the fuctor for Albino; offspring in the proportion of 3 Red-eyed to 1 Albino-eved.

Both animals from the one brood: the male $(\mathbf{R}+\mathrm{A})$ II.A.1.n. (p. 309, llate 11); the female ( $\mathbf{R}$ A) VI.A.l.q. (also in Figs. 8 and 10).
Fit. 10.-Mating of Red carrying the factor for Albino with Pure Red; offspring all Redeyed.

Both animals from the one brood; the same female $(\mathbf{R}+\mathrm{A})$ as in Figs. is and 9 ; the male (R) V1.A.1.m. (1). 308, Plate 1I).
Fin. 11.-Mating of Red carrying the factor jor Albino with Pure Red; offspring all Red-eyed. Botl animals from the one hrood; the same male ( $\mathbf{R}$ ) as in Fig. 10: the female ( $\mathbf{R}-$ A) VI.A.I.p. (p. 309. Plate 11) (also in Fig. 12)
Fic: 12.-Muting of Red carrying the fuctor for Albino with Red carrying the fuctor for Alhino: offspring in the proportion of 3 Red-eyed to 1 Albino-eyed.
The male $(\mathbf{R} \mid$ A) is 11.B. (p. 28t, Plate 1I): the female $(\mathbf{R}+\mathrm{A})$ II.A.I.p. (also in Fig. Il).
Fus. 13.-Mating of Blach carrying the factor for Albino only with Pare Red; offspring all Black-eyed.

The femake (B-A)V1.C.I.k. (p. 298, Plate II); the male $\mathbf{R}$ from the Pure Red Stock.
Fig. 14.--Mating of Black carrying the fuctors for Red and Albino with Black carrying the fretor for Alhino ouly: offspring in the proportion of 3 Black-eyed to 1 Albinoeyed.

Both animals from the one brood : the male ( $\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{R}+\mathrm{A}$ ) V1.C.1.b. (p, 297, Plate 11) ; the femate (B A) VI. (.I.k. was used in the presions figure.
Fir. 15.-Mating of Black carrying the factors for Red and Albino with Blach carrying the fuctors for Red and Allino; offspring in the proportion of 9 Black-eyed to 3 Red-eyed to 4 Albino-eyed.

Both animals from the one brood; the male $(\mathbf{B}+\mathrm{R}+\mathrm{A})$ was used in the previous figure; the female ( $\mathbf{B}+\boldsymbol{R}+\mathrm{A}$ ) VI.C.1.f. (p. 298, Plate 11).
Fici. Iti.-Ilating of Albino currying the factor for Black only with lure Red ; offispring all Black-eyed.

The male ( $\mathbf{A}$ B) VI.A.1.r. (p. 318, llate 11) ; the female ( $\mathbf{R}$ ) from the Pure Red Stock.

Fig. 17.-Mating of Albino carrying the fuctor for Black only with Red No-uthite: offspring all normal Black-eyed.

The same male $(\mathbf{A}+\boldsymbol{B})$ from the presions experiment-Fig. 16 : the female ( $\mathbf{R}$ N) V'll. (.3.a. (p. 333) is an $\mathrm{F}_{3}$ from the Family VII figured on Plate $V$ V.
Fic. 18.-IItting of Albino carrying the fuctor for Red only with Red carrying the fuctor for Albino; half the offipring Red-eyed and half Albino-eyed.

Both animals from the one brood; the male ( $\mathbf{R}+\mathrm{A}$ ) VI.B.a.a. (p. 313, llate II): the female (A R) VI.B.2.1. (p. 322, Plate II).

Plate V.
Fis: 1.-The origin of K. Family, in which the No-mhite Mutation firat occurred.
Parent Ceneration. Pure Black mated with Pure Red. F Generation, 24 survivors, all Black earrying the factor for Red. The No-whites appeared in some of the broots of the $\mathrm{F}_{2}$ generation. One of these broods is figured here, with the offspring $\left(\mathrm{F}_{3}\right)$ resulting from the inter-mating in the J,ord : some of the F, gencration are aloo shown.



 VB. 2 ab edefghjkl mnof ${ }_{g}^{\dagger} \underset{r}{q}$


VIB. 4 $\begin{array}{ll}a b \\ b & \text { a }\end{array}$ $f g h$
 E.J.A. and E.W.S. deT.

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Fig. 3.
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Fig. 4. $\mathrm{d}^{4 \times} \times$
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Fig. 15.

## Fig. 9

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7

All-White.
6
Colourless.
Normal Albino.


2

Normal Black.

3
Normal Red.

5
E.W. Sexton del.

As the yomm in this figure (and in Fig. $\boldsymbol{2}$ ) were not all examined immediately on extrusion, the proportions given of normal-eyed to no-white-eyed cannot be regarded as exact.
Fig. -.-- Mating of " normal Black chroying the factor for Red with a Rrd No-uhite female (VII.W) from a $K$ Family broorl not figured; with their $F_{1}$ and $F_{2}$ offispring (1). $32(\mathrm{i})$.

Fin: 3.-Matings of Red and Black No-uhites; Red male (RN) VII.E; with Red female (RN) VII.F; the same Red female with Black male ( $\mathbf{B N}+\mathbf{R}$ ) VII.A. of Fig. 1 (p. 32S). VII.E. and VII.F. are from broods from K Family which are not figured.
Fit. 4.-Mating of Red No-uhite with Albino No-uhite; F ${ }_{1}$ offispring all Red No-whiste; $\mathrm{F}_{2}$ offispring in the proportion of 3 Red No-white to 1 Albino No-white. The figure shows the first ten $\mathrm{F}_{2}$ brouds from the inter-mating of the first $\mathrm{F}_{1}$ brood. (Sce also p. 339.)
Fis. 5.-Mating of Albino No-uhite or Colourless uith Albino No-uthite; offspring all Albino No-white.

For details of this mating, see pp. 338 and 339.

## Plate VI.

Hlbino carrying the factors for Black and Red crossed with Red Nounthe (see also Plate 1II, Fig. (i, p. 333) ; the Black offispring earry the factors for Red. Abbino and Nowhite; the Red offspring the factors for Allino and No-white.
Fif. 1.-Mating of two of the Black offispring from the second brood of the above cross ; male a and female j ( p .333 ).
Fif. 2.-Mating of two of the Red offspring from the second brood; male $n$ and female $x$ (p). 334).

FIt: 3.- Ilating of Black and lied offerming from the first brood of the above cross : male a and female b, (p. 33.5).
Fit. 4.-Mating of " Red helf So-white with Red No-white; all the offispring nomal Red-eyed (p. 340).

The male is a red no-white descended from If Family.
The female is an $F_{2}$ from the first mating of VI.A.1.h. ( $\mathbf{B} \quad R-A$ with $\mathbf{R}$ ) (p. 293). Out of 25 young of the $\mathrm{F}_{2}$ generation, two, a Red and a Black, were partly no-white when hatched. The Red one, figured here, had the Left eye no-white, the Right eve with the white reticulation present but thin ; this did not alter throughout its life. The Black one, when hatched, had the Left eye no-white. and only one streak of white in the Right eye. Two months later, it reached maturity, a female, and it was then found the Right eye had developed the perfect white reticulation all over, and the Left eye had also developed it over the upper half of its surface.

## Plate VII.

All the figures from living specimens.
Fis. 1.-Gammarus checreuxi sexton. Male. From a wild specimen. х $\quad$.
Fic. 2.-Normal Black Eye. B. $\times 58$.
Fic. 3.-Normal Red Eye. R. $\quad 58$.
Fif. 4.-Normal Albino Eye. A. from Female AB. (See p. 287.) Figured November 16th, $1915 . \times 58$.
Fil:。5.-Red No-white. RN. $\times 58$.
FIt. 6.-Colourless (Albino No-white. AN+R. See p. 339 for ancentry). $\times 58$.
Fis: 7.—All-white perfect Eye. (See p. 287.) $\times 58$.

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# Heredity in Plants, Animals, and Man. 

Being the Presintential Address detivered luefore the Plymouth Institution, Octoler 13th, 1916.

By

E. J. Allen, D.Sc., F.R.S., Director of the Plymouth Laboratory.

[Reprinted from the Transactions of the Plymouth Institution.]

With Diagrams 1-11 in the Text.

Of the many branches of biological enquiry which have occupied the attention of naturalists during the last twenty years the one which has perhaps yielded the most striking results, from a theoretical point of view, has been the study of heredity in plants and animals-the study of the laws according to which the characters of parents are transmitted to their descendants.

The practical achievements of the farmer, the gardener, and the animal breeder in obtaining and fixing immmerable varieties of cultivated plants and domesticated animals had made everyone familiar with the general facts that variations occur, and that these variations sometimes are and sometimes are not transmitted from parent to offspring. Common observation of the men, women, and children with whom we come in contact shows us that human beings also exhibit similar phenomena. Amongst a family of children several quite distinct types of feature, of build, of colour of hair or eye are found, and it is often quite plain from which parent, or from the family of which parent, a particular characteristic has been derived. The same thing is sometimes clearly true of mental and moral traits.
(harles Darwin, especially in his work "On the Variations of Animals and Plants monder Domestication," bronght together a great collection of facts bearing on this subject, which formed the basis upon which his theory of natural selection was built up. Aromed the question of the cause or origin of such variations much discussion has centred. Darwin hinself was inclined to favour the view generally associated with the
name of Lamarck, that variations were brought about by the direct action of the environment- of the conditions under which the life of the animal or plant was carried on - and that variations originating in this way were capable of being inherited. Changes of structure brought about by the use or disuse of organs were considered of particular importance in this connection. Especially when the environmental conditions had remained the same for many generations did the characters produced by them become, it was thought, permanently fixed in the species as part of its hereditary constitution. This view was strongly attacked by Weismann, who held that variations produced by external conditions, and especially by use and disuse of parts, were not hereditary, and the characters of the germ plasm as received from the parents were transmitted to the offspring without change. Weismann's view has been considered the more probable by the majority of biologists since he wrote, though by a minority it has always been subjected to vigorous criticism.

With the question of the causes that give rise to variations capable of being inherited, it is not however my intention to deal to-night. Accept ing the fact, which camot be disputed, that such variations do occur, and recognising that characters of the parent sometimes do and sometimes do not appear in the offspring, when parents with different characters are mated together, we shall consider the system or law in accordance with which the hereditary transmission of characters takes place.

What is now recognised as the epoch-making pioneer work in this subject was carried out by Gregor Mendel, Abbot of Briinn, a small town in Austria, and published by him in the Proceedings of the local natural history society at Briunn in 1865. This work unfortunately escaped attention for many years, and it was not until 1900 that the importance of Mendel's paper was recognised by de Tries. Correns and Tschermak, who all three about the same time brought it into notice. The work has since been repeated and extended by Bateson, Pumett and many other workers in this country, on the Continent, and in America, and to-day there is a very extensive literature dealing with heredity on Mendelian principles in plants, animals, and man.

Mendel chose the common garden pea for the purposes of his experiments, a plant which exists in a number of well-marked varieties, capable of being crossed easily one with the other. The nature of his experiments and the character of the results which he obtained will perhaps be made clear by the description of a simple example. There is one variety of the pea plant that produces seeds, which when the pods are fully ripe and dry are of a uniform yellow colour. Another variety, on the other hand, produces peas which when they are ripe and dry are green.

It will be well known to you that in order to produce a ripe seed, which
shall be capable of germination and growth, the mion is necessary of two elements which occur in the flower. These elements are the ovule, which lies at the base of the flower, and the pollen, which generally takes the form of a fine dust or powder, and is formed by the stamens. The pollen is the male element, the ovnle the female element; both are single cells, and together with the corresponding elements in animals they are called by the general name of gametes. The union of the ovule and pollen. which results in the formation of the ripe seed, is known as fertilisation. The general term applied to the ripe seed, the adult plant or the adult animal, which results from the union of the male and female gametes, is zygotethat which is yoked together. Two gametes or germ cells unite to form a zygote.

If plants of the variety which produces yellow peas are fertilised with the pollen from their own flowers or from flowers of the same varicty, the seeds produced will all be yellow in colour, exactly resembling the parents. The variety breeds true to colour, and for however many gencrations the breeding is continued the colour remains the same, provided both parents in every case belong to the same variety.

Similarly the green-coloured variety, when the flowers are fertilised with their own pollen or with that from similar plants, produces pods which contain only green-coloured peas.

What Mendel did was to cross one of these varieties with the other. The ovules of a plant normally producing yellow-coloured peas were fertilised with pollen from a plant which produced green-coloured peas, or cice versat. In this way a hybrid between the two varieties was obtained.

The hybrid peas resulting from this cross are all yellow in colour, and the result is the same whichever way the cross is made. The rellow colour is therefore said to be dominent to green, and green is said to be recessice.

This is illustrated in Diagram 1, in which the black dises represent yellow peas, the rings represent green peas.

The hybrid yellow seeds were then sown, and the resulting plants produced flowers. These flowers were allowed to fertilise themselvesthat is to say, the ovules were fertilised with pollen from the same flower, so that hybrid was mated with hybrid. The pods produced by these plants were found to contain both yellow and green peas. The recessive form - the green - therefore, which was lost in the first hybrid generation, appears again in the sccond generation.

As the result of a large number of experiments Mendel found that the proportion of yellow to green seeds amongst the offspring of the hybrids was 3:1, there were three times as many yellow as green.

The seeds from this generation were collected and separately sownThe plants from the green seeds, when self-fertilised, produced all green seeds, and when these were again sown plants producing all green seeds again resulted. The pure recessive green variety had, therefore com-


Diatir.im 1.
pletely segregated, or separated out from the hyrid, and the pure strain was eompletely recovered.

The yellow seeds, on the other hand, behared differently. Two kinds of plants were produced, one kind whieh on self-fertilisation gave all yellow seeds, the other kind which gave both green and yellow, the two colours being in the proportion of three yellow to one green. There were twice as many plants which gave both green and yellow seeds as there were plants which gave only yellow. Peas from the kind which produced only yellow peas, when sown, produced plants whieh again gave all yellows, and this contimed in suceeding generations. The pure dominant yellow variety, like the green recessive, had completely separated out and was re-established.

What happens will be clear from the diagram.
The fact that one of a pair of characters is dominant and the other recessive is not, however, a primary or essential feature of the scheme of Mendelian inheritance. When one character is dominant the hybrid has the appearance of the parent which bore that eharacter, but in other eases the hybrid appears quite different from either parent. This is well illustrated by the case of the Andalusian Fowl figured in Diagram :2. The Blne Andalusian is a variety well known to the poultry fancier. It was known that the strain was not pure, and that when bred together the birds gave not only blues, but also some blacks and some splashed whites a white with splashes of dark colour on the feathers. After the rediscovery of Mendel's work this case was investigated by Bateson and Pmontt,
who found that the blue bird was really a hybrid between the black and the splashed white. Both the blacks and the splashed whites are pure strains ; blacks bred together give all blacks, whites bred together give all whites. When black is bred with white the birds obtained are all blue. The


THE BLUE BIRD IS A HYBRID BETWEEN BLACK AND SPLASHED WHITE BLACK BY BLACK CIVES ALL BLACKS, WHITE BY WHITE ALL WHITES
D)AG1iAM 2.
blue birds bred together give blacks, blues and splashed whites in the proportions of one black, two blues, one splashed white.

When the blues of this seeond generation are bred together they give offspring in the same proportions: one black, two blues, one splashed white.

The diagram showing these relations should be compared with that representing the yellow and green peas. It will be seen that the seheme of imheritance is really exactly the same in the two cases, the apparent difference being due to the fact that whereas the hybrid pea takes on the character of the dominant yellow parent, the hybrid Andalusian has an appearance intermediate between the two parents.

That the yellow hybrid pea has a different constitution from its yellow parent, although its appearance is the same, is shown when hybrid plants are self-fertilised or bred together. Is we have seen, the offspring are one pure yellow, two hybrid yellow, and one pure green. A further means of testing the hybrid character of this yellow pea is to fertilise the plant grown from it with pollen from a pure recessive plant grown from a green pea. Hybrid yellow crossed with green gives green and yellow peas in equal numbers.

Similarly a blue Andalusian mated with a splashed white gives blue hyrbids and splashed whites in equal numbers, or a blue crossed with a black gives blues and blacks in equal numbers.

What I have deseribed so far are the experimental facts, which have been repeatedly confirmed on these and many other plants and animals,
and can be seen for himself by anyone who will take the trouble to carry out the necessary experimental work, taking all precantions to prevent false crossings by insects or false matings.

Mendel himself experimented also on a number of other characters in peas, and formd that they followed the same scheme. Tall plants were dominant to dwarfs, and when the first tall hybrids were self-fertilised ther gave tall and dwarf plants in the proportion of $3: 1$. Coloured flowers were dominant to white, but the whites reappeared again in the next generation.

In order to explain his results Mendel put forward a simple theory, the correctuess of which all subsequent work has tended to confirm. Before attempting to explain this theory I must ask you to regard plants and animals from a point of view somewhat different from that which we usually take-from the point of view of the race or species rather than from that of the individual life. The plant withers, the flower fades, the ereature dies, but still the race continues,
"So caraful of the type she seems, So careless of the single life."

How is this continuity of the race preserved ? That is the fundamental question which the physiology of heredity must seek to answer. What we know is that the germ cell, the germ plasm as Weismann called it. passes on uninterruptedly from generation to generation, increasing in bulk by the absorption of nourishment, dividing and subdividing, but apparently only seldom or extremely slowly undergoing any essential modification of its structure. The permanent, essential feature for the species is this germ plasm ; the body of the individnal plant or animal is an elaborate but purely temporary home for its protection and nourishment. Is Samuel Butler puts it in his quaint way " a hen is merely an egg's way of producing another egg." "The germ plasm, according to this view," says Darbishire " is immortal; the excrescence, the body, is mortal."

It is in the gametes or germ cells - the ovule and the pollen of the plant and the corresponding structures of the animal - that the germ plasm is carried on. In the higher plants and anmats this transmission is generally, though not always. complicated by the introduction of the phenomenon of sex, the mion of the germ cells from two indivithats of the species, or at least of germ cells of two different kinds.

In formulating his theory to account for the scheme of the hereditary transmission of characters which has been described. Mendel directed his attention primarily to the germ cells. Every gamete, that is to say every ovule and every grain of pollen, must contain something by means of
which each character of the offspring is determined. What this something is, whether a material particle, a definite chemical substance. or some special arrangement of the molecules, we have no idea. For want of a better name it is usuał to call it a "factor." Thus we should say that each ovule and each pollen grain of the ereen pea contains a "factor" for green colour : each ovule and each pollen grain of the pure yellow pea contains a "factor" for vellow colour. When he had to deal with two alternative characters in a plant, such as green and yellow colour, Mendel assmmed that any particular gamete was able to contain the factor for only one of these characters. In the same gamete the two characters are mutually exclusive. Each gamete must be pure for one or other of the factors. In the zygote, the individnal produced by the mion of two gametes, on the other hand. the factors for the two characters can both have place.

Let us see how this conception can be applied to the case of the yellow and green peas. In Diagram 3 the factor for yellow colour is representer

YELLOW AND GREEN PEAS.
DOMINANT CROSSED WITH RECESSIVE.

by Y. that for green colour by G. The pure yellow peas never produce anything but yellow ; we may therefore represent their constitution by $\left|\begin{array}{l}\mathbf{Y} \\ \mathbf{Y}\end{array}\right|$, one factor having been derived from each parent. Similarly, pure green will be $\begin{aligned} & \mathbf{G} \\ & \mathbf{G}\end{aligned}$. These will prodnce gametes

Y male, Y female, in the one case,
G mate, $G$ female, in the other, and no other kinds are possible.
If we cross the two, the onty possible combination is $\left|\begin{array}{l}\overline{\mathbf{Y}} \\ \mathbf{G} \\ \mathbf{G}\end{array}\right|$. which will represent the constitution of the Ist Hybrid generation. What Mendel's
theory lays down is that when gametes are formed by these hybrids with the constitution $\left|\begin{array}{l}\bar{Y} \\ \mathbf{G}\end{array}\right|$. only one of the factors ean enter into the same gamete, so that we have gametes of two kinds, the first containing the $\mathbf{Y}$ factor only, the sceond containing the $\mathbf{G}$ factor only.

If the gametes from a male and a female individual of these hrorids are now allowed to unite together they ean do so in four different ways. and in four ways only. Amongst a large number coming together by chance equal numbers of each combination will result.

The combinations are :


We have therefore in the second hybrid generation (F.亡.)

$$
1 Y Y \quad 2 Y G \quad 1 G G
$$

that is 1 pure yellow, $\because$ hybrid yellow, 1 pure green.
This result agrees exactly with the faets as determined by experiment. Mendel's theory of the purity of the gametes is, therefore, in this ease in complete accord with the facts.

We may test it further by seeing the result of crossing a hybrid yellow pea with a pure green pea, as illustrated in Diagram 4.

HYBRID CROSSED WITH RECESSIVE

F.l Zrc. $\left.\begin{array}{l}\mathrm{Y} \\ \mathbf{G}\end{array}\right] \begin{aligned} & \mathbf{G} \\ & \mathbf{G}\end{aligned}$
hybrids and recessives in equal numbers.

Diderinm 4.
The hybrid yellow eontains the factors for both yellow and green, its constitution being $\left|\begin{array}{l}\overline{\mathbf{Y}} \\ \mathbf{G}\end{array}\right|$, and it produces gametes $\mathbf{Y}$ and $\mathbf{G}$ in equal numbers.

The constitution of the green pea is $\begin{aligned} & G \\ & G\end{aligned}$, and it produces gametes of one kind only, namely $\mathbf{G}$. If we unite equal numbers of $\mathbf{Y}$ and $\mathbf{G}$ with $\mathbf{G}$ only, we get equal numbers of $\left|\begin{array}{l}\overline{\mathbf{Y}} \\ \mathbf{G}\end{array}\right|$ and $\begin{aligned} & \mathbf{G} \\ & \mathbf{G}\end{aligned}$, that is equal numbers of the yellow hybrid and of the pure green. This result is again in accordance with experiment.

So far we have considered in each case only one pair of alternative characters. There are of course often a number of such pairs existing at the same time, each pair of which behaves in accordance with Mendel's law. This gives us a result which perhaps appears at first sight to be more complex than it really is. Diagram j) (p. 364) represents a case studied by Mendel in peas, in which two pairs of characters are involved. First we have the two colours, yellow and green, which have already been considered. It the same time, some of the peas are round in shape, whilst others are very much wrinkled, the wrinkling being really dependent upon the character of the starch grains which constitute the bulk of the pea. In the diagram yellow is represented by a broad black line, green by a broad white line, wrinkled by a broken line.

If we cross-fertilise flowers from a plant bearing pure yellow, wrinkled peas with those of one bearing green round ones, we get in the first hybrid generation yellow round peas. Yellow is dominant to green, as we ahready know, and round is dominant to wrinkled, which is recessive.

Plants grown from such double hybrid peas were allowed to selffertilise and four kinds of peas were produced: yellow round, yellow wrinkled, green round, and green wrinkled. Mendel's figures for this cross are shown below, the figures recquired by theory being placed underneath them:

|  | Yellow round. | Yellow wrinkled. | (ireen round. | Green wrinkled. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Mendel's Experiment | 31.5 | 101 | 108 | 32 |
| Theory | 313 | 101 | 101 | :3.) |
|  | 9 | 3 | 3 | : 1 |

The combination which contained two dominants, yellow and round, was most mmerously represented, that containing two recessives, green and wrinkled, was least numerous.

The theoretical analysis of the case is as follows :
Let $\mathbf{Y}=$ yellow, $\mathbf{G}=$ green, $\mathbf{R}=$ romnd, $\mathbf{W}=$ wrinkled.

The constitution of the original parents will be

| $\mathbf{Y} \mathbf{W}$ <br> $\mathbf{Y ~ W}$ | GR <br> $\mathbf{G R R}$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| Yellow | (ireen |
| wrinkled. | round. |

Ciametes :- YW. GR.
The Hybrid must therefore be $\quad \mathrm{Y}$ W G R

The (iametes from this hybrid are:


The second (F.2.) generation will therefore give (see Diagram 5) :-

| Y W | Y R | G R | G W |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Y W | Y W | Y W | Y W |
| Yellow | Yellow | Yellow | Yellow |
| wrinkled. | round. | round. | wrinkled. |
| Y W | Y R | GRR | G W |
| Y R | Y R | YR | Y R |
| Yellow | Yellow | Yellow | Yellow |
| round. | round. | round. | round. |


| $\mathbf{Y} \mathbf{W}$ | Y R | G R | G W |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\mathbf{G R} \mathbf{R}$ | G R | GR | G R |
| Yellow | Yellow | Green | Green |
| round. | round. | round. | round. |


| Y W | Y R | G R | G W |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| G W | G W | G W | G W |
| Yellow | Yellow | Green | (treen |
| wrinkled. | round. | round. | wrinkled. |

That is 9 Yellow round, 3 Yellow wrinkled.
3 (ireen round, 1 Green wrinkled.
It will be seen by an examination of Diagram 5 that the yellow romnds of the second hybrid generation have not all the same constitution. Some of them carry a factor for green, which being recessive does not appear in the visible result of the experiment ; some carry a factor for
wrinkled, which also is recessive. That these factors are actually present ean be proved by continuing the experiment to the next generation. Similarly the yellow wrinkled and the green rounds are mot all the same.


DIagilam :5.
In the case of the green wrinkled. on the other hand the double recessive one constitution only oecurs, and these peas would all breed true for however many generations the breeding were contimed.

From what has been said already you will I hope have got a clear idea of the simple law, first emunciated by Mendel, which often governs the hereditary transmission of characters from parent to offspring. I propose now to commmicate to you some results of the study of a particular instance of Mendelian inheritance, which has been worked out during the last two or three years in comnection with the Marine Biological Laboratory. One paper, describing the earlier portions of the work, has been published already in the Journal of the Marine Biological Association, bearing the title " Experiments on the Mendelian Inheritance of Eyecolour in the Amphipod Gammerns cherrexi, by E. IV. Sexton and M. B. Wing." I have now in preparation a further paper (see page 273 of this Joumal) dealing with the later investigations, the experimental work comnected with whieh has been carried out by Mrs. Sexton.*

[^21]Giommarus cherreuxi is a small shrimp-like animal, belonging to the Crustacean order, Amphipoda. It is about $\frac{1}{2}$ inch long, and lives in great abundance in the brackish-water ditches at Chelson Meadow, just above Laira Bridge. It has never been found anywhere else. I drawing of the animal is shown on Plate VII, Fig. 1, which accompanies the preceding paper by Allen and Sexton in this number of the Journal.

The animals are kept alive easily in glass finger-bowls and feed freely on dead leaves, especially on elm leaves. The eggs are carried by the female in a brood pouch until they are hatched. As soon as one batch of eggs is hatched and the young liberatect from the pouch, another batch is laid. A batch may contain as many as 50 eggs, so that a large number of young can be obtained altogether from one pair of animals. The eggs take 14 days to hateh at a temperature of about $60^{\circ} \mathrm{F}$. The young grow rapidly and reach maturity in about 36 days at summer temperatures. Hence from 5 to $(6$ generations can be obtained in the course of a year. a fact which makes the animal specially suitable for the study of the problems of heredity.

The eye of Gammarus, like that of all crustaceans and insects, is of the compound type. It is made up of a considerable number of single elements, the ommatidia, each provided with a simple lens and receiving a nerve-fibre from the optic nerve.

In the normal animal each ommatidium is surrounded by 5 pigment cells, which lie deeply in the tissue of the eye, and are filled with pigment of a jet-black colour. Just below the surface of the cuticle or skin and surrounding the black pigment there is a quantity of milk-white or rather chalk-white pigment. This gives the whole eye, when looked at directly in the living animal, a honeycombed appearance, the white pigment forming a kind of network in which the romd, black ommatidia are enmeshed. (See Plate VII, Fig. •2. of preceding paper.)

Whitst the habits and development of this animal were being studied, there appeared amongst the descendants of a pair of nomal black-eyed Gammarus brought in from (helson Meadow in June, 1912, in the thirt generation, that is amongst the grandchildren, a small number of young ones which had bright red eyes. The usual black pigment was replaced by red pigment, the network of chalk-white remaining as in the ordinary eyes. (Plate VII, Fig. 3, of preceding paper.) From this family a race of red-eyed animals was established, which has been used in these experiments. It is only in this one family that red eyes have ever appeared, and although very many thousands of specimens from the natural habitat have been examined, and many thonsands more have been bred from pure black-eyed parents, no other case of the sudden appearance of a red eve has been met with.

Sudden and unexpected changes in a character of a pure race have been known by naturalists, as well as by practical breeders, to occur from time to time in both animals and plants, and are called in popular language "sports." Sometimes, no doubt, these sports are due to the reappearance of a latent or hidden character, which existed in the ancestry of the organism : at other times the so-called sports may be due to a sudden change in the constitution of the individual or of the germ cell from which it sprang, so that the character may be said to originate in the particular individual, instead of being inherited from its ancestors. To new characters which originate suddenly in this way the name mutation has been given. The red eye of Gammarus may be described as a mutation, appearing in the third generation of a wild animal which had been subjected to the artificial conditions of captivity.

The red-eye is transmitted from parent to offspring. and it behaves quite in a typical Mendelian way, red eye-colour being recessive (like the green pea), and black eye-colour dominant (like the yellow pea). For use in the hybridisation experiments a pure black stock. obtained from Chelson, was kept and thoroughly tested. The stock was maintained for over three years, the offspring and descendants being all examined at different seasons of the year, and in no single case has one with red eyes been found amongst them. Numbers of pairs of red-eyed animals, also, have been bred together, each pair being kept in a separate vessel. The foung have all been examined for eye-colour, and the experiment has been continued to the fifth generation and beyond. well over a thousand young having been recorded. A black-eyed animal was never once found amongst them. Both the wild, black-eyed Gammarus, therefore, and the red-eved variety. which arose in the Laboratory, breed perfectly true to type.

Red-eyed animals were mated with pure black, the cross being made in both ways, red female with black male, black female with red male. In the early experiments 3,779 young ones were examined and recorded. Without exception the eyes were black. Clearly, therefore, black is dominant and red recessive.

The black-eyed hybrids obtained from the cross between black and red were mated together. They produced altogether 4,393 young. of which 3,327 were black-eved and 1,066 were red-eyed. (See Diagram 6.1.) This is a very close approximation to the $3: 1$ ratio. There are 32 reds too few on a total of 1.066 reds. This may be due merely to chance, or it may be due to the fact ascertained during the course of the experiments that the red-eyed animals are not quite as vigorous and healthy as the black-eyed. The deficiency in the number of reds may therefore mean that more red than black failed to survive whilst the eggs were developing in the brood-pouch of the mother.
6. RED carrying albino $\times$ RED carrying albino.

|  | Reds. |  | Albinos |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| Experiment | 1,408 |  | 471 |
| Theory | • | 1,409 | 470 |
|  |  | 3 | 0 |

Diagrimin 6.
Eye-colour of Gammarus. Results of rarious crosses.
Hybrid blacks were mated with red-eyed recessive animals. (Diagram (6. .2.) 4,255 young were obtained and examined as som as extruded from the brood-pouch. 2,176 were black-ered, and 2,079 were red-eyed, which is very close to the equality which Mendel's theory demands. There is again a slight deficiency of red-eves, namely 49.

This cross of the hybrid with the recessive, which we have already studied in the yellow and green peas, is a specially important one to anv-
one investigating problems of inheritance, because its result emables us to distinguish the pure dominant from the hybrid which in appearance resembles it. We have seen that the pure black mated with red gives all black oftspring. If, therefore, when a black and a red are mated together we get some red-eyes amongst the children, we know that it is a hybrid black that we are dealing with.

One other mating of these two varieties remains to be considered. When hybrid blacks are mated with pure blacks, the dominant asserts itself completely, and all the offispring are black-eyed. The total umber of young obtained in our earlier experiments from crosses of this kind was 379 all with black eyes.

In one family, belonging to the first generation of hybrids got by crossing the red-eyed Gicmmarus with the pure black-eyed one, a second sport


$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { DIAGnam } 7 \text {. } \\
& \text { A Black dise with white centre represents a black-eyed animal. } \\
& \text { A Black dise with white cross represents a red-eyed animal. } \\
& \text { A black ring represents an abino-eyed animal. } \\
& \qquad \delta=\text { male. } \quad \%=\text { femake. }
\end{aligned}
$$

or mutation appeared. The brood in which this mutation occurred consisted of 7 black-eyed young, 1 red-eyed and 4 in which neither black nor red pigment could be seen, and only the network of chalk-white pigment was left. (Plate VII, Fig. 4, of preceding paper.) The eye was also very irregular in shape and altogether of a degenerate character, the number of ommatidia being very few. These degenerate eyes, with only white pigment, we shall speak of as " albino" eyes.

Ln order to determine the constitution of these degenerate albino eyes, and to find out whether or not the condition was hereditary, one of the animals, a female, was mated first with a pure red male, and then with a known hybrid black one.

The result of these matings is shown on Diagram 7 , and will probably
surprise you. Abino-eyed female mated with pure red-eyed male gave 6 red-eyed and :3 black-ered roung. Abino-eyed femate mated with hybrid black gave in four broods 75 black-eyed and 1.5 red-eyed young.*

In the grandehildren from both crosses, however, you will spe that the albino-eyed form reappears.

From this it follows :
(1) that the factor for albino eye is transmitted from parent to offspring, but that colour is dominant and albino recessive, for when albino is mated with coloured eye no albinos occur in the first generation of offispring ;
$(2)$ that the original albino-eyed female must have contained the factor for black, since black offispring were produced when it was mated with pure red, which we know from the previous work contains no black;
(:3) that the albino-eyed female must contain the factor for red, and this for two reasons: in the first place, if it had contained black only we should have got only black offispring when it was mated with red, for we know that black is dominant to red ; in the second place, and again because black is dominant to red, if the albino had contaned black only, when mated with the black hybrid we should have had only black offspring, whereas we obtained 7.5 blackeyed and 15 red-eyed. We know that when the hybrid, containing red and black, is mated with another hybrid of the same kind the resulting offspring should be 3 black to 1 red.

We must now look more closely at the grandchildren of the original albino-eyed female. which were all obtained by mating together her immediate offspring of the F .1 generation. When two blacks were mated together in F. 1 two kinds of broods resulted, some in which only black and albino-eyed young occurred, others in which black, red. and albino were present. When two F. 1 reds were mated together the broods contained red-eyed and abbino-eyed yomg. (See Diagram 7.)

This resembles closely what is found in coat colour in animals such as rabbits, mice, and rats, which has been worked ont by Bateson, Pumett, and others. To explain the phenomena these anthors assume that in order that the colonr in the coat of an animal may be visible it is necessary that at least two factors should be fresent, one factor representing the colour itself say black or brown. as the case may be and a second factor which must be present in order that the colour may show itself. In the absence of this latter factor, which they call the colour factor, the

[^22]anmal will be white, thongh it may still retain the power of transmitting a particular colour to its offspring. The hack or brown factor is present in the animal's constitution, but in the absence of the colour factor the black or brown does not appear.


Dhamams.
Fyenolone of tiammarus. Constitutions of some of the different kinds. Crepresents the factor for colour, e the alsmice of this factor.
B represents the factor for black, $\mathbf{R}$ that for red.
w represents the factor for absence of white pigment.
Animals of the first nine constitutions shown on the diagram all prosess the white pisment, and this might have been imbenter by adding $\mathbf{W}$ to the fonmula in rath case.
A similar hypothesis will explain the present case. Diagram \& shows the constitutions on this hypothesis of some of the rarieties of (temmerms
which have been obtained in the experiments. The colour factor is indicated by $\mathbf{C}$, the absence of this factor by $\mathbf{c} . \mathbf{C}$ is dominant to $\mathbf{c} . \quad \mathbf{B}$ and $\mathbf{R}$ represent the factors for black and red-eye respectively.

Just as we worked out on Mendel's theory the result to be expected from the crossing of yellow-wrinkled and green-round peas, so in this case we can work out the result from mating together animals with any two of these various constitutions. This has been done for all possible combinations. and the results of the experiments are in good agreement with theoretical expectations, as may be seen from a study of Diagram 6, which gives the numbers actually obtained from several of these matings, as well as those which the theory requires.

The black-eved children of the original albino-eyed female mated to the hybrid male, all of which carry the factor for albino, or, to put it more accurately, lack one colour factor, can be crossed in three different ways:
(1) Pure black $\times$ Pure black.
(2) Pure black $\times$ Hybrid black (Black carrying red).
(3) Hybrid black $\times$ Hybrid black.

If we work out the theory for these crosses, just as we worked it out for the peas, we find that altogether amongst the offspring, that is amongst the grandchildren of the original parents, there will be animals of nine different constitutions of eye-colour (compare Diagram 8), namely :-

4 kinds of black-eyed animals . Pure black.
Black carrying albino.
Black carrving red.
Black carrying both red and albino.
2 kinds of red-eyed animals

3 linds of albino-eved animals

Pure red.
Red carrying albino.
Abino carrying black.
Albino carrying red.
Albino carrving black and red.

In the actual experiments we have been able to prove that animals of all these nine kinds occur, and the numbers also in which they are found are in sufficiently good agreement with the theoretical expectation to satisfy ins of the correctness of the theory.

In Diagram 9 the actual results of a number of matings in which the albinos take part are shown, as these results are specially interesting.

Mated together the albinos give all albino olfspring, whatever their constitution, since neither parent contains the colour factor, which we have indicated by great $\mathbf{C}$, which enables the colour to appear.

GAMMARUS. ALBINO $\sigma^{\prime} \times$ OLBINO EYE COLOUR ठठठठठठ心कीतुणकठठठणठठठठठ
albino carrying. black $)^{2} \times$ RED,NO White ס000000000.00000000000000000

## 


SARRYINC BLACK AND RED $\bigcirc \times \because$ PURE RED


Dमалим 9.
(Signs a- in Diawnat.)
Mated with pure red, albinos give three kinds of broods:
(1) All black-eyed young. In this case the albino contains the factor for pure black, which is dominant to red.
(2) All red-eyed yomg. In this case the albino contains pure red.
(3) Black-eyed and red-eyed young in equal numbers. The albino is then hybrid as regards colour. containing factors for both black and red.

There is still another sport or mutation which has occurred in the eye of Cicmmurus. This is the entire absence of the chalk-white pigment which lies near the surface between the ommatidia. (Plate VII, Fig. I. of preceding paper.) These we call " no-white " eyes.

Inimals with eres like this may be either black-eyed or red-eyed. and the black-eyed ones may be either pure black or hybrid black containing red. By aross-breeding we have obtained all threo kinds.

The character "no-white " is transmitted to the offispring in strict accordance with Mondel's law, the presence of white pigment being dominant and its absence recessive. If an animal therefore which porssesses the white pigment is mated with me which does not possess it the offepring in the first gencration all have the white pigment - their eyes are guite normal. If males and females of this first generation are mated together, in theit offspring in the grandchildren of the original pair" 1 !o-whites " reappear.

At this stage of the investigation a very interesting question arose. What would be the result of crossing the " no-whites" with albinos, and mating together their offspring ?

We may represent the factor for white pigment by $\mathbf{W}$, and its absence by w. These two factors behave as an alternative pair, according to Mendel's law. The constitutions of the black and the red "no-whites" will then be wC $\begin{aligned} & \text { w B } \\ & \text { w C B }\end{aligned}$ and $\begin{aligned} & \text { w CR } \\ & \text { w C R }\end{aligned}$

If we cross these with albinos and work out the theory, as in the case of the peas, we find that in the first generation we get all normal-eyed offspring, the "no-whites" provide the colour factor, the albinos provide the white.
The result of such a cross obtained in an actual experiment is shown in the Diagram 9 (the second brood shown on the diagram). The young are all nomal-eyed blacks. They, however, differ in constitution from any black-eyed animals previously obtained, for they carry not only the factors for black and red but also the factors for both "albino " and "no-white," and are capable of transmitting all four factors to their children.

When these animals are mated together, according to the theory, which we can work out in the usual way, there should be, out of every 64 ofispring, 48 with white pigment present, and 16 with no white pigment. Of these 16 with mo white pigment 4 should be also albino, that is to say they should, according to the theory, show neither white, nor black, nor red pigment. The eyes should be quite colourless.

Animals with quite colourless eyes we had never seen when the theory for this cross was first worked out. Would they be produced when an actual experiment was made? I pair of these black-eyed hybrids was mated. The first brood hatched was a small one, but our pleasure was naturally great when we found that it consisted of 2 with normal black eyes, 1 black with no white, and 2 quite colourless, with no eye-pigment risible at all. Since then other broods have been obtained, and there is no doubt that the facts agree with the theoretical analysis.

Looked at from a general point of view the cross of the "no-white" with the albino-eye is of great interest, and is particularly instructive. We here took the two most degenerate and abnormal types of eye that were known, and mated together the animals which carried them. In the first generation the offspring have all perfectly normal characters and are indistinguishable, as far as their own visible structures are concemed, from the perfect wild creatures. The factors lacking in one parent were supplied by the other parent and perfect children resulted. The
defects, however, persist in a latent condition in the germ plasm of these children, and if they are mated with those of like constitution the defective characters all reappear in the grandchildren. The factors may even combine in such a way that some of these grandchildren are more defective than the defective ancestors from which they sprang. They unite the defects which were borne separately by the two grandparents. This no doubt explains some of the ill-effects which result from too close inbreeding. We should remember, too, that if here defects have been mited, in other cases it would be equally possible that the excellences of different ancestors should be combined in some of their descendants.

With Gommarus, however, what we have actually observed has been a degeneration of the eye, taking place step by step as one factor after another has been lost. Bateson, in his presidential address to the British Association in Australia in 1911, emphasised the fact that most, though perhaps not all, the Mendelian cases studied up to the present can be explained rather by the loss of factors than by the introduction of new factors. Since that address was delivered there has been, shall we say, in the air for no one has ventured, I believe, to declare himself a complete adherent to it a theory of a kind of inverted evolution, starting with a highly complex primitive protoplasm or germ plasm, which by the loss of factor after factor has given rise to the endless varieties of plants and animals that we know. These factors are conceived of as being for the most part restraining or inhibiting factors, whose loss, one by one, in the course of ages has allowed the full powers and glories hidden in the primitive plasm to unfold themselves a process which still goes on. What the final excellence or final catastrophe is to be, when all the bonds are broken and all the restraints are lost, no one, as far as I know, has ventured to suggest. When, however, we take into consideration the whole range of facts upon which our conceptions of organic evolution are based we find little to support such a view.

The cases of Mendelian inheritance which I have so far discussed have been of a simple character, following exactly the law which Mendel first laid down. Sometimes, however, the phenomena are more complicated. We saw that the albino-eye of Gammorus was ahrays imperfect in shape. Absence of colour and imperfect form are here always united and remain united in inheritance. Characters which behave in this way are spoken of as linked characters, and the factors in the germ cells from which they originate are also said to be linked. There is often also a special comnection between a particular character and the sex of the animals which transmit and inherit it. This is known as sex-linkage and is well illus-
trated by eye-colour in the American fruit fly Drosophila. The wild fly has red eyes, and a sport or mutant is known which has white eyes. If a white-eyed male is mated with a red-eyed female all the oftspring are redeyed, and males and females occur in equal numbers. When these hybrids are mated together there result three red-eyed flies and one with white eyes the usual Mendelian proportions. The white-eyed flies, however, in this generation are all males, like the grandfather. If however we make the original cross in the opposite way, mating a red-eyed male with a white-eved female a different result is obtained. Instead of having all red-eyed children, males and females in equal numbers, we have equal numbers of white-eyed males and red-eyed females. In the next generation also the result is different, for when one of these red-eyed females is mated with a white-eyed male the offspring are red-eyed females. redeyed males, white-eyed females and white-eyed males in equal numbers. It would carry us too far were I to attempt to give the explanation which has been put forward to account for this, so I shall content myself with stating the facts to show that the simple Mendelian law may at times seem to give highly complex results.

That knowledge gained by Mendelian investigations may be of great value to practical agriculture is shown by Prof. Biffen's work on the varieties of wheat. The wheats usually grown in England produce heavy crops, but the flour obtained from them is not satisfactory from a baker's point of view. A loaf made from this flour does not rise well when baked. In order to correct this it is usual to mix the English flour with flour from a so-called " hard" foreign wheat. which contains a larger proportion of gluten. English wheats, also, are very liable to a disease known as " rust," which is caused by the growth of a fungus on the plants. Prof. Biffen was able to show that good cropping power, hardness, and ability to resist rust are all characters which behave in a Mendelian way. By a long series of experiments in crossing different varieties of wheat he was able to produce a variety which possessed good cropping powers. the hard qualities of foreign wheat, and also a complete power of resisting rust. This wheat can be grown quite successfully in the English climate and it has kept its special qualities unchanged for a number of years.

And now for a few minutes we will direct our attention to the question in connection with this subject of Mendelian heredity, which is perhaps of more interest to us than any other. In the hmman race does inheritance take place in accordance with Mendel's law ? There is considerable evidence that certain characters do follow this law and that the same thing is true of certain diseased conditions.

The inheritance of eye-colour is a striking instance, which was investi-
gated in this country by Hurst and in America by Davenport. Hurst examined the eyes of children in a Leicestershire village, and also the eyes of their parents and grandparents. where that was possible.

The iris, the part of the eve in which the colour is situated, owes its colour to two separate lavers of pigment. a deep-seated layer which gives the effect of blue, and a layer near the surface which contains yellow and brown pigment. When the brown pigment of the surface layer is fully developed it hides completely the bhe undermeath it, and the eyes are dark brown in colour. If the brown pigment is entirely absent we get the true blue eye, and such an eye Hurst calls simplex. Eyes with both blue and brown pigment he calls duplex. and these duplex eyes are of two

kinds. Finst, those in which the brown completely covers the iris and hides the blue, the so-called self-coloured or whole-coloured eye, and second, eyes in which the brown pigment forms a ring round the black pupil in the centre of the eye, whilst the greater part of the blue layer can still be seen. Such duplex eyes are called "ringed." The details of distribution of eye-colour in two of the families examined by Hurst are shown in Diagram 10.

These and other results which were obtained showed that whole-coloured hrown eves were always dominant to ringed and also to blue. Ringed eyes were also dominant to blue. The bhe simplex eves were pure reces-
sives, and whenever father and mother both had such eyes all the children also had eyes of the same kind.

The dominant self-coloured and ringed eyes, on the other hand. might be either pure dominants, or hybrids containing the factor for recessive bhe eres. Several instances of these hybrids are seen in the diagram.

The next diagram (Diagram 11), which is extracted from a much larger pedigree illustrated by Bateson in his book on "Mendel's Principles of Heredity, " shows a portion of the pedigree of a family living in a chuster


## NIGHT BLINDNESS IN MAN. <br> ALL MARRIED NORMALS EXCEPT O

## Diagrim 11.

The black discs represent the affected individuals, the rings those who did not suffer from the disease. In the exceptional case (black dise with white efntre) both parents were affected. The arabic figures indicate numbers of maffected children. Nine generations (I-1N) are illustrated.
$\delta=$ males,$q=$ females.
of rillages in the south of France, in which many members have suffered from what is known as night-blindness, the affected persons being quite unable to see in a dim light. The pedigree commences with one Jean Nougaret, born in 1637, and has been followed through ten generations. In this family the disease has always behaved as a Mendelian dominant, though not a simple one, and it has alwars been inherited from an affected parent. Unaffected parents have never had affected descendants.

In another disease, hæmophilia, there is a curious relation with sex.

The symptom of the disease is that the blood refuses to clot. and hence there is great loss of blood from even a very slight wound, such as a seratch. The peculiarity about its inheritance is that only the male members of a family are affected, but the disease is usnably transmitted through the females, who do not themselves develop it. An apparently healthy daughter belonging to such a family will transmit the affection to her sons, and her danghters will be capable of handing it on to their children.

If we pass from a consideration of man's physical nature and ask ourselves whether and to what extent the principles we have been discussing are applicable to his moral and intellectual qualities, we enter a field of speculation of the very highest interest. In his work on " Hereditary Genius," published in 1869, Francis Galton bronght together and analysed a great mass of information which proved conclusively that excellence in many intellectual and moral qualities occurred in particular families with a frequency out of all proportion to that in which it was found in the general poputation. No one will, I think, dispute the fact that musieat ability is inherited in certain families, and the same seems to be true of mathematical genius, though by no means all the nearly related members of the families possess the exceptional powers. (ialton gives a list of 36 men who took the place of senior classic at C'ambridge between 1824 and 1869. In this list of 36 , the name Kennedy occurs four times, three of the men being brothers and the fourth a nephew of the others. The name Lushington occurs twice, the men being brothers, whilst a third brother was fourth classic of his year.

Mendel's law was unknown to Galton when this book was written, but a consideration of his data certainly suggests that some at least of the exceptional mental and moral attributes with which he deals may follow the general principles of inheritance which Mendel first made clear. The question is one which may well repay further investigation. And if the future should reveal to us with certainty the fundamental principles according to which human qualities, both physical and mental, are handed on from generation to generation, shall we not have reached a real landmark in the progress of the human race towards well-being? It is not that one contemplates direct interference with the liberty of the individual, excepting perhaps in extreme cases of physical or mental disease, but we may, I believe, look forward to a gradual incorporation in the traditions and social usages of the people, of such knowledge as shall come to stand on a certain and indisputable seientifie basis. The immense power of such traditions and customs on the life of the general population camot be denied. (iradually, too, as the new facts become firmly established, religious teachers will lend their aid, and ethical
thinkers will submit that a high standard of morality demands that the welfare of unborn generations shall not be sacrificed. Han, it is true, is prone to follow desire rather than reason : but all these influences should not be without effect in producing a dofinite progressive improvement in the inborn qualities of the race. Such at least would seem to be the possibilities opened up by the detailed study of the laws of heredity.

## Food from the Sea.

B-in!, the Presidential Address delivered lufore the 17ymouth Institution, October 14th, 1915.

## By

E. J. Allen, D.Sc., F.R.S., Director of the Plymouth Laboratory.

[Reprinted from the Transactions of the Plymouth Institution.]
. . . Passing now to the special subject of my address to-night, I will ask your attention in the first place to some general aspects of our Sea Fisheries as a source of national food supply and to the general scientific investigations which have been undertaken in the hope that the yield of the harvest of the sea may be still further increased. In the second place a more detailed account will be attempted of some particular researches bearing upon these matters, which happen to have formed during the past few years the subject of my own special work. If in the course of my remarks you may seem to be asked to follow me in excessive detail into some of the more remote corners of the problems which arise, my excuse must be that. even at the risk of upsetting the balance of the picture as a whole, it is probably possible to speak to more purpose and with a better prospect of stimulating others to fresh efforts, by describing researches with which I have been personally concerned, than by a more general and better proportioned, but necessarily more superficial treatment of the whole subject.

Is a direct consequence of our geographical position. our immediate proximity to large areas of shallow sea, our extended coast-line, with its many fine harbours and serviceable fishing coves, lying at distances not too remote from the large centres of population, and of our well-dereloped railway systems, the sea fisheries of Great Britain have become of much greater relative importance as a source of food supply than has been the case in alnost any other country of the world. The statistics for the year 1913, the last complete year for which normal figures are available, show that $]_{\frac{1}{4}}$ million tons of fish were landed in England, Scotland and Ireland, having a value at the port of landing of some 1.5 million pounds.

By way of comparison, and to give you some idea of the relative importance of the industry, similar figures for one or two other sources of our food supply may be of interest. In the same year $19913,1 \frac{1}{2}$ million tons of wheat were grown in the United Kingdom, as against the $1 \frac{1}{4}$ million tons of fish landed. the wheat being valued somewhere about 13 million pounds, as against 1.5 million pounds for the fish. Imported wheat was $5 \frac{1}{4}$ million tons, valued at 44 million pounds. lmported beef was valued at 16 million pounds, imported mutton at 11 million.

It should be added, however. that one-third of the total value of the fish landed is attributable to herrings. which were salted and exported chiefly to Germany and Russia, the sum received for these fish being ;) million pounds.

It is interesting to compare the value of fish landed in the United Kingdom with that of fish landed in other European countries. Of the total value of sea-fish landed in Europe in 1910. $47 \frac{1}{2}$ per cent (very nearly one-half) stands to the eredit of British fisheries, other countries showing France, 19 per cent; Norway, 10 per cent ; Cermany, i per cent ; Holland, 7 per cent; Sweden, 3 per cent; Denmark, 3 per cent; Belgium, 1 per cent ; Russia, 1 per cent.

From these figures you will see what a preponderating part our islands take in the total yield of the fisheries.

Now the two pressing questions which present themselves, from the practical point of view, are : Do we at present make the best possible use of the harvest of the fishing grounds? Ind how can the vield of human food in the form of fish be increased ?

As a matter of fact from year to year. for many years past, the total quantity and the total value of the fish landed in this country have both shown a steady and continuous increase. Eren since the year 1890, when the industry of steam-trawling was already in fult swing, the total landings have doubled both in quantity and in value. This inerease has been brought about entirely by increasing the number and the power of the fishing vessels and extending the areas over which the have worked. To-day the region worked by the steam-trawlers, which hring their fish in ice to the English market, extends northwards to the Barent's Sea. off the north coast of Russia the so-called White sea grounds to Iceland and the Faroes, and southwards through the Bay of Biscay to the banks off the coast of Morocco, trawling being carried on to a depth of 200 fathoms or even more. Doubtless this process of increasing the power of fishing vessels and extending the area over which they fish will still continue. Trawlers have already made experimental voyages to the Banks of Newfoundland, and halibut from the Pacific Coast of Canarla has been sent in a frozen state to the London market. This kind of develop-
ment of the fisheries may well be left to the energy and euterprise of the fishing industry. The only useful help which the scientific expert might give. would be in making preliminary explorations of more distant grounds. (iovernment has, however, never thought it right to provide public funds for work of this character, and it is probably better to leave it to the trade and the practical fishermen.

The subject with which fishery science is called upon to deal is rather, whether the best possible use is being made of the resources of food which the sea is capable of yielding in those waters in which fishing is already extensively and exhaustively carried on. British researches have dealt chiefly with the North Sea, the Irish Sea, the English Chamnel and the waters around the Irish coast. Are the methods of fishing now employed in these areas umecessarily wasteful of fish life or could the total amual landings be made more valuable by a more rational regulation of the methods of capture? Are there other means, analogous to the cultivation of the land, which might be adopted to improve the yield of the fishing grounds and to what extent could such means be profitably employed?

It must be at once admitted that, except to a very limited extent, we are not at present in a position to give definite answers to these questions. We camot assert with confidence that any attempted regulation of the fisheries upon a considerable scale has been followed by marked and definite improvement. In matters of cultivation also, excepting as regards some of the fisheries for shell-fish, such as oysters and mussels, we are unable to point with certainty to any success upon a large scale, when dealing with sea fish.

And the reasons for this comparative inability to obtain favourable practical results are not far to seek. In the first place, the sea is so vast and so powerful are its elemental forces, that control by human agency must always be immensely difficult. We should not forget, however, that the evidence is now almost conchusive that human agency has been powerfuł enough to exert a marked adverse influence upon many of the hest and most productive fishing grounds, and if destruction can be wrought by man, it should not be beyond his power to do something to repair the damage he has caused.

In the second place, our knowledge of the many complex factors with which we have to deal is still very imperfect. It is, indeed, only very slowly approaching a point wheu proposals for practical measures can be made with any hope of foreseeing what the actual effect of those proposals would be. In this direction much further enquiry and study will be reguired. Notwithstanding all that has been done in the way of restarch during the last thirty or forty years the gaps in our knowledge
on many of the most fundamental points are very great. Until more adequate means can be secured for carrying ont actual experimental work at sea progress cannot possibly be rapid. and many of the problems camot be studied in a satisfactory way.

Slowly, however, we are building up a true science of the fisheries. The direction and velocity of the currents, the differences in temperature and salinity of the water, and the variations in these factors from season to season and from year to year upon which the fluctuations in the aboudance of fish must very largely depend, are being gradually worked ont and understood. The effects of wind and weather and of the varving amonnt of sunshine falling on the water in different years are questions which are being studied. Then again, the natural history of the fishes themselves is the subject of much research; their habits and food, when and where they spawn, the characters of the larval fishes and when and where their younger stages are to be found, all fall under this head.

Many of the results of investigations on these lines have ahready from time to time been described and discussed at the meetings of our institution, and for that reason I will not to-night dwell upon them, important --indeed, essential-as they are for an adequate understanding of the problems which have been put forward. It is to a more general aspect, of the matter that I would especially refer -the question of how the primary or fundamental food supply of the sea is built up. Suppose that during the late summer or autumn we capture in the waters of Plymonth Sound, a mackerel. The body of that mackerel represents some 8 ounces of excellent hmman food. What is the ultimate source from which that food has been produced? If we examine the stomach of the mackerel, we shall probably find it filled with small fishes, chiefly sprats and quite young herrings. with perhaps a certain number of those small. shrimp-like creatures which are known as Copepods. The young herrings and sprats have themselves fed largely upon Copepods of a similar kind. We conchnde, therefore, that the body of the mackerel has been formed either directly, or indirectly, through the young lierrings and sprats, from the organic substance contained in the bodies of the shrimplike Copepods. Then if we carry the problem a stage further back and enquire how the bodies of the Copepods have been built up, we find with the aid of a microscope that their food consists in large measure of minute plants, chiefly belonging to the class of diatoms.

We have here a particular and perhaps exceptionally simple and straightforward example of the general principle, applicable equally to land and sea animals, that the organic substance which constitutes their Hesh is always derived either directly or indirectly from vegetable life.

The amomnt of animal life, therefore, which a given area of sea or land can support. depends upon the amount of plant life ou which the animal life can feed.

When we push the enquiry further back we find, as you know, that the bulk of the plant substance consists, in addition to water, of compounds of the element carbon, which are known under the general name of organic compounds. This carbon is derived entirely from the carbonic acid gas present in the air or dissolved in the water, the gas being split up and the carbon assimilated by the plant in the presence of sunlight. The source of the energy by means of which all organic matter is built up is the light of the sum, whilst the great mass of the solid substance contained in the bodies of both animals and plants is derived ultimately from carbonic acid gas, obtained in the case of land plants from the air, in the case of sea plants from gas dissolved in the water. In addition to carbon and water the plant requires a number of other substances, chiefly inarganic salts, but the quantities of these which are necessary are comparatively small. In the case of land plants these salts are obtained from the soil, in the case of sea plants from the water in which they are dissolved.

It may be interesting here to eompare the vield of organic substance derived from a given area of sea or fresh water with that from a similar area of land, to compare the harvest of the sea with the harvest of the land.

It has been calculated by Brandt, from the catches of fishermen in an enclosed harbour, that the annual yield was 89 lbs. of fish per acre. In Continental carp ponds, where the culture has been carefully carried on, 95 lbs of fish per acre per year have been obtained.

Making a similar caleulation for the North Sea from the statisties of fish landed, we get, as we should expect, a much lower annual yield, namely, 15 lh s. of fish per acre. The average value of this is only $1 \mathrm{~s}, 6 \mathrm{~d}$. per acre per year.

Beds of shellfish give a very much higher yield, but they of course in reality, owing to the tidal currents which pass over them, draw their fond supply from a much greater area of water than that of the sea-floor to which they are attached. Johnstone finds for the meultivated mmssel beds of Morecambe Bay, on the Lancashire coast, a rearly production of 86 cowts. (or nearly $10,000 \mathrm{lbs}$.) per acre, valued at $\$ 1416 \mathrm{~s}$. per acre.

For comparison with these figures here is one taken from agricultural statistics. Yomng bullocks fed on cultivated land give an average anmal vield of 73 lhs. of beef per aere.
l'utting the figures side by side we have first the mussels from More-
cambe Bay, with a yearly production of 10,000 lbs. per acre ; then in quite a different category :


It will be seen, therefore, that although the figures for the open sea are far below those for cultivated land, more restricted areas of water are capable of producing a considerably greater weight of crop. Especially the figures for the mussel beds seem to indicate that much larger returns from the sea might be possible, if sufficient knowledge of the complex conditions of marine life could be successfully obtained.
The possibilities of a still greater yield have recently been suggested by Prof. Benjamin Moore of Liverpool, from observations made in the Irish Sea. This author has calculated from measurements of the change in alkalinity of the water, that under the action of sumlight there is an anmual production of two tons of dry organic matter per acre, which would be equivalent to at least ten tons of moist vegetable substance. This is a preliminary estimate to which it would be unwise to attribute too great exactitude at present, but it does seem to confirm the view that we are as yet a very long way indeed from making full use of the organic food substance which the seas around our coasts are capable of producing.
And this leads me to ask your attention in a little more detail, to the particular aspect of the conditions upon which marine life depends, to which my own researches have recently been directed.
The marine vegetation, which constitutes the fundamental food supply of the sea, may be divided into two principal groups. All round our shores we find attached to the sea-floor the green, red and brown seaweeds. These form a fringe in the shallow water around the coast, but do not extend to a greater depth than about 15 fathoms, owing to the fact that sufficient light to enable them to grow does not penetrate through the water below this depth. Many animals feed upon these seaweeds as they grow, and recent researches by Danish naturalists seem to show that when the weeds die and decay the organic fragments into which they break up constitnte an important source of food for many other animals, which in their turn serve as food for fish.
Outside this coastal fringe, however, the plant life of the sea consists of minute organisms, microscopic in size, which float freely in the water, and live and grow in the upper layers from the surface to a depth of 100 or 200 fathoms, or even deeper. Amongst these microscopic plants NEW SERIES. - VoL. X1. No. 3. DECEMBER, 1917.
one of the most important and prolific groups is that of the diatoms. These plants possess a delicate and often very elaborately constructed skeleton of silica, and contain a brown colouring matter, which like the green chlorophyl of land vegetation is able in the presence of sunlight to assimilate the earbon from carbonic aeid gas.

It has formed an interesting subject of research to endeavour to ascertain as exactly as possible the conditions necessary for the growth of these diatoms, and to find out by means of experiments in the laboratory how the amome of growth may be increased. In order to carry out such experiments with exactitude and to obtain precise and definite results it is necessary to work with cultures of a diatom which are as nearly as possible pure, that is to say, cultures which contain 110 other living organisms excepting the single species of diatom upon which the experiments are being made. If two or more living organisms are present in the experimental cultures the results at once become complicated, since a second organism not only uses up the different constituents in the culture solution, but it also excretes waste products of its own, which become dissolved in the water and may affect either favourably $\omega^{\prime}$ infarourably the growth of the diatom which is being experimented uрои.

The experiments had, therefore, to be conducted as nearly as it was possible under sterile conditions. The wlass flasks in which the cultures were marle, after being carefully cleanel, were baked in an oven, and all the culture solutions were boiled before being used.

The particular diatom upon which the experiments were made is one that is found in the Plankton, that is to say amongst the large number of microscopie organisms which float freely in the waters of the sea, and are drifted about at the merey of wind and current. Such organisms are collected by dragging through the water a bag-shaped net, made of muslin or fine-meshed silk, which strains them out. This form of net is generally known as a tow-net. The organisms collect in a tin or bottle attached to the end of the net, and can be brought alive to the laboratory in a bottle of sea-water.

The species of diatom used in the experiments is ealled Thalassiosira graridu. Each diatom cell consists of two flat, cup-shaped valves, fitting one into the other and enclosing the protoplasmic substance of the cell. The whole cell of Thatussiosira looks something like a flat, shallow pillbox. I number of these cells are joined together by threads, which rum from the middle of one cell to the middle of the next, so that long chains are formed. These chains of diatoms have much the appearance of a number of luttons strung on a thin wire, with a considerable interval between successive buttons. This chain formation is of some importance
in the experments, because the length of the chains which are formed gives a good indication of the healthiness of the culture.

In order to obtain a pure culture of a Plankton diatom two methods may be used. The first--which, however, does not give very satisfactory or certain results in practice is to pick out mader the microscope, by means of a very fine glass pipette, a single cell or short chain of the diatom and put it in a flask containing a suitable culture solution.

The second method, which is the one I have more often used, is as follows: I glass flask, containing abont 2 litres (say, half a gallon) of suitable culture solution, the nature of which I shall describe presently, is brought to the boil in order to kill off any animals or plants which may be present in it, and then allowed to cool. We then take some seawater containing a mixture of Plankton animals and plants, which have been collected with a fine silk net in the way already described, and add just one or two drops of it to the flask containing the half-gallon of cold culture solution. The flask is shaken up, and the living organisms, which were present in the two drops of sea-water, become evenly distributed through it. The water in the flask is then divided up, by pouring it into. say, forty or fifty tiny flasks, and these small flasks are put to stand in a north light and kept at an even temperature. After a week or: ten days a brownish growth appears in many of the flasks, and if the experiment is successful, that is to say if our one or two drops of water containing the mixture of organisms has been sufficiently divided up, we shali find in perhaps two or three of our fifty small flasks a pure culture of one of the Plankton diatoms. I culture once obtained in this way can be kept as long as we wish, by continually inoculating new flasks of sterile culture solution, transplanting to one new flask after another as often as may be desired. I have kept cultures alive in this way for six or seven years.

Such cultures are, however, not quite perfect. They always contain in addition to the diatoms some bacteria, and these are very difficult to get rid of ; indeed I have never really succeeded in entirely eliminating them. They may be greatly reduced by a process of differential poisoning. By adding to a series of culture flasks gradually increasing doses of chlorine gas, it is possible to hit off a strength of the poison which will kill most of the bacteria without killing the diatoms. In this way a culture of the diatom Thalassiosira was obtained in which there remained only one kind of micro-organism, or at least only one kind that conld be detected in the ordinary way by growth on agar-agar plates. The experiments to be described were made chiefly with this culture. Its growth was very rapid and healthy under favourable conditions, and very long chains of diatoms were formed.

Previous work dealing with the culture of diatoms had been done mainly by the French bacteriologist Miquel. Niquel himself investigated principally fresh-water diatoms, but he showed that the methods he employed could be used also for marine forms, his experiments in this direction having been made chiefly with shore and bottom species. My own work, in which during the earlier stages I received much assistance from my colleague, Mr. E. W. Nelson, has dealt mostly with the floating or Plankton diatoms, which are much more delicate organisms to deal with than the fresh-water or marine bottom forms.

Niquel showed that fresh-water diatoms could be most successfully grown when to the water there was added a very small quantity of certain inorganic salts, together with a small proportion of soluble organic matter, prepared by making an infusion or maceration of straw. bran or some other vegetable substance.

The inorganic salts, which Miquel considered necessary, were the following:

> Magnesium sulphate
> Sodium chloride
> Sodium sulphate
> Ammonium nitrate
> Potassium nitrate
> Sodium nitrate
> Potassium bromide
> Potassium iodide
> Sodium phosphate
> Calcium chloride
> Ferric chloride

Of these salts the most important were found to be the nitrates, the phosphate and the iron salt, a result which agrees with what we know of the requirements of plant-life in general. These three substances, especially the nitrates and phosphate, are as is well known largely used by farmers as artificial mamures.

In order to grow marine diatoms, Miquel added to sea-water the same salts which he had used for growing fresh-water diatoms. Our experiments have shown, however, that it is by no means nccessary to add all these salts to sea-water in order to get good cultures. Quite as good results can be obtained by the addition only of Potassium nitrate, Sodium phosphate and Iron chloride, the two latter being made into solution with calcium chloride and hydrochloric acid, according to a special method described by Miquel.

If sea-water which has been obtained near the coast is used as the
basis for the culture medium it is not necessary to add an infusion of organic matter.
The actual quantities of inorganic salts added to the sea-water are really very small, those emploved in our later experiments being in 100.000 parts of sea-water :-


When the culture solution has been prepared it is first boiled in order to kill off any organisms it may contain, and a precipitate which forms is allowed to settle. The clear water is then poured off into small flasks, in which the experimental cultures are made, a second boiling being carried out before the flask is inoculated with the diatom culture. The diatoms grow best at a temperature of about $60^{\circ} \mathrm{F}$., in a good north light. They must not be exposed to direct sunlight, as in the small flasks used this is found to kill them.
The culture solution just described has sea-water for its basis. Now sea-water is a very complex solution containing both inorganic and organic substances, and althongh it is true that the relative proportions of the predominating salts are remarkably constant everywhere in the sea, there are present in it also, often in very minute quantities, many other important substances which are subject to considerable variation from place to place and from time to time. These varying substances are in many cases just those which are of special importance to the living plant. They occur often in such minute traces that it is practically impossible to measure accurately by means of chemical analysis the quantities in which they are present.

In order, therefore, to study the effect on the growth of the diatoms of very small quantities of various substances a different method of procedure was adopted. Instead of using natural sea-water as the basis for the culture solutions, an artificial sea-water was built up by dissolving in pure distilled water the purest chemicals that could be obtained. The distilled water was made specially pure by distilling it a second time in all-glass apparatus, so that it did not come in contact with any metal such as tin or copper. Further. when being distilled for the second time, the water was boiled with bichromate of potash and sulphuric acid in order to destroy as far as possible any volatile organic matter what it might contain. By taking the right proportions of the pure chemicals and dissolving them in this doubly distilled water an artificial
sea-water was made having as nearly as possible the composition of natural sea-water. It was, of course, also possible to make up artificial sea-waters of different compositions, one or other of the constituent salts being increased or diminished in amount, or omitted altogether.

What we may call the normal artificial sea-water, that is, the one with a composition as nearly as possible that of natural sea-water, had the following constitution :--


To this there was added in some of the experiments a trace of Potassium iodide and Potassium bromide. but the results did not seem to be affected by this addition.

There is another substance which requires careful consideration when we are dealing with diatom cultures. The skeleton of a diatom is composed of Silica, so that to get a healthy growth that substance must be supplied. An Austrian botanist, Richter, has shown that when cultures are made in glass ressels, enough silica dissolves from the glass to supply the diatoms with all they require. In my experiments I found that the addition of silica in other forms to the culture solutions appeared to make no difference to the growth. We may therefore in what follows disregard the silica, remembering that all the needful supply of it could be obtained from the glass of the Hasks in which the experiments were made.

Haring made the artificial sea-water in the way described the essential constituents of Miquel's solutions - Potassimm nitrate. Sodium phosphate and iron-were added. After boiling and cooling. the flasks containing the solution were inoculated by adding a small quantity of a culture of the diatom Thatussiosire, which was already growing in natural seawater. The flasks were then placed in a grod light and the cultures given an opportunity to develop.

In the early experiments the results were very uncertain and difficult to understand. In most cases there was an entire failure of growth. but every now and then quite a good growth was obtained. It was noticed also that a good growth more frequently resulted when a flask which had failed was inoculated a second or a third time. It remained for a long time a puzzle why the cultures should generally fail but occasionally succeed. until it occurred to me that the quantity of natural sea-
water transferred to the artificial sea-water when the latter was being inoculated was not always quite the same, and that when a culture was inoculated two or three times a much larger quantity of natural seawater was introduced than when it was inoculated only once. Was it the addition of this increased quantity of natural sea-water that enabled the diatoms to grow in the purely artificial solutions? Definite experiments were made to determine this point. and it soon appeared that the previous irregularity of the results could be accounted for in this war. It was found that if the inoculations were always made by adding only a very small quantity of the liquid from which the living culture was taken, say, by adding just one or two drops of culture to a flask containing 75 cubic centimetres of artificial sea-water. only a very slight growth, if any at all, took place. If, however, before the artificial water was inoculated in this way, and also before it was sterilized by boiling, as little as 1 part in 100 of natural sea-water was added to it, the diatoms grew well and excellent cultures were obtained. With 4 per cent of natural sea-water added to the purely artificial solution the cultures were quite as good as. if not better than the best that were got when natural sea-water was used entirely as the basis of the culture solution.

This result is somewhat remarkable because it seems to show the absolutely essential importance to the growth of the diatoms of an extraordinarily minute trace of some substance which exists in the natural sea-water. In the artificial water all the salts were included that occur in natural sea-water in any quantity above a mere trace a trace so small that it is hardly capable of accurate measurement. Yet when this trace of substance is diluted down by adding 1 part of it to 100 parts of artificial sea-water. there is still enough of it introduced to make a vigorous and abundant growth possible where no growth at all was possible without it. This substance can hardly itself be regarded as a food substance. Its real action can only be conjectured. but we may think of it as a growth stimulant without the aid of which the plant is unable to build up its structure out of the real food substances.

In the course of further experiments it was shown that, provided this small quantity of natural sea-water were present, the composition of the artificial sea-water could be altered to an extraordinary extent without much if any effect being prodnced on the culture. In the first place the density of the artificial water could be changed within very wide limits without affecting the cultures appreciably. The solution might be diluted to one-half the normal strength or even below, or it might be concentrated so as to increase the density by as much as 50 per cent.

All the Potassium chloride might be omitted or the amount of Potas-
sium chloride might be doubled. Similarly the Magnesium suiphate could be omitted or doubled without detriment. In the case of the Calcium chloride, also, the amount of permissible variation was very great, though not quite so great as with the Potassium chloride and Magnesium sulphate. These results were a little surprising, as it had generally been assumed that the Plankton diatoms were particularly sensitive to changes in the composition of the medium in which they live. It is clear, however, that provided all the essential substances are present, in some cases even excessively minute quantities being sufficient, the composition of the medium can be very greatly altered without affecting the organisms.

Incidentally, the facts which I have been describing would appear to have an important bearing upon all theoretical questions concerning the relation of the orqanism to its enviromment. If such a minute change in the emviromment as is involved in the addition of 1 per cent of natural sea-water to the artificial solutions can make all the difference between reproduction and no reproduction of the diatom, can we be said in the case of any organism whatever to have an adequate conception of what the effective enviromment really is? Clearly we are very far indeed from appreciating or understanding how intricate and varied are the many factor's upon which the life of even the simplest plant or animal depends.

But this is a digression. Let us return to the diatom cultures. and ask what is the chemical nature of the essential substance, a trace of which must be present in the artificial culture solution before the diatoms can flourish. Lp to the present I have been mable to give any final or adequate answer to this question. Certain hints and suggestions have, however, been obtained which give us an indication of the lines upon which the answer to the question is to be sought. Some of the experiments which have given rise to these suggestions may be of interest to you.

To a flask containing some of the artificial sea-water, which had been treated with nitrate, phosphate and iron, a small fragment of the green seaweed Llea was added and the liquid boiled for a few minutes. I slight infusion of seaweed in the artificial sea-water was thus made. The piece of Che was removed and the liguid allowed to cool. It was found that good cultures of the diatom could then be made in the solution. The slight infusion of vegetable matter therefore performed the same function as the 1 per cent of natural sea-water, which had been arded in the previous successful experiments.

When, on the other hand, instead of making an infusion of the seaweed
as a whole, a piece of the seaweed was burnt and the resulting ash added to the artificial solution, the diatoms did not grow.

These two experiments together make it probable, though they do not completely prove the point, that it is an organic extract of the seaweed, and not some inorganic salt dissolved out of it, which has made the artificial solution a suitable medium for diatom growth

In other experiments it was found that if instead of adding a small quantity of natural sea-water from the open sea, the same quantity of sea-water taken from the tanks of the Aquarim were added, the resulting diatom cultures were larger and more vigorous. The Aquarium water seems therefore to contain more of the substance whose nature we are trying to determine than the water from the open sea. Now in the Aquarium animal life is more concentrated than in the sea outside. and one chief difference between Aquarium water and that brought in from outside is that the former contains more of the waste products of animal life. The suggestion here again is that the substance we are seeking is an organic substance, a substance produced by some living organism in this case a waste product of the living fish.

It must. however. be one of the more stable organic substances. for it was found that if some of the Iquarimm water was evaporated to dryness and the remaining salt heated to a comparatively low temperature. say, to $200^{\circ}$ ( 1. and then again dissolved in distilled water, the solution thus obtained was practically as effective as natural sea-water in promoting diatom growth. The effective substance therefore can be dried and heated to at least $200^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$. without being destroved. When. however, the heating was carried further, until a dull red glow was produced. the substance was destroyed or so altered that it ceased to stimulate growth.

Again we have the suggestion that the growth stimulant is probably an organic substance rather than a mineral salt. Further than this it has not up to the present been possible to carry the matter. In addition to small quantites of many inorganic salts, traces of a mumber of organic substances have been tried, amongst them being asparagin, calcinm succinate, calcium malate, theobromine, trrosine, urea and uric acid, but in all cases the results were negative.

An observation recorded by my colleague Mr. L. R. Crawshay is of much interest in comection with this point. Mr. Crawshay was carrying out experiments in which he tried to keep alive in the Laboratory some Copepods belonging to the species Calanus finmarchicus, which he was feeding on the diatom Nitsschia. He found that in the vessels containing the animats the diatoms grew and multiplied rapidly. If, however. the diatoms were put into similar vessels in which no ammals were pre-
sent. and kept moder precisely the same conditions, very much less growth took place. Here again it looks as if some substance excreted by the ammals helpet to produce a luxmriant growth of the plants. The analogy seems complete with what we are all familiar with on land, the beneficial effect of animal manure upon plant life. A particular interest, however, attaches to C'rawshay's work, beeause he did not get the increased diatom growth with other species of Copepods which he tried, but on! y with C'alanus finmarchicus.

The outstanding feature then of the experiments which I have been describing to yon on the growth of marine plankton diatoms, is the essential importance for the vigorous growth of these plants of some specifie substance which is present in exceedingly minute quantities in natural sea-water and without which energetic growth does not take place. This substance, which acts as a growth stmmulant, is, we have reason to suspect. a somewhat stable organic compound produced by other living organisms.

And now perhaps yon will pardon me if I appear to wander into subjects which may seem far removed from my immediate purpose, but I hope I may succeed in showing how intimately the most diverse branches of scientific enquiry are often interwoven one with the other, and what mexpected light may be thrown upon a problem by investigations which at first sight look very remote.

Much striking work has been done recently on the subject of animal nutrition. It Cambridge Dr. Hopkins has shown that young rats do not grow when fed on an artificial diet composed of pure protein, starch, cane sugar, lard and inorganic salts, although such a diet, which we might almost call an artificial milk, contains all the generally recognised constituents of a perfect food. If, however, quite a small quantity of natural milk is added to this artificial food the roung rats thrive. I minute trace of some substance present in the natural milk makes all the difference between growth and no growth.

Imongst the natives in some parts of Eastern Isia a very troublesome disease known as beri-beri has been prevalent in recent years, and has caused considerable mortality. It has been shown that the disease is direetly cansed by a too exclusive diet of polished rice. In the process of polishing, the outer husk or skin of the rice is entirely removed, and with the removal of the husk some substance is taken away which is essential if the rice is to be a sufficient food. The disease is at once cured by putting the patients on a suitable mixed diet.

The disease is also produced in pigeons if they are fed entirely on polished rice, and some interesting results on the cure of birds suffering from it have been obtained by Drs. Cooper and Casmir Funk. These
investigators were able to extract from rice polishings a definite chemical substance, an organic compound of a highly complex character, which when added in exceedingly mimute quantities to the diet of polished rice very rapidly eured the birds of the disease. To this substance, which is present in minnte quantites in the husk of the rice, they gave the name of citaminc. They were able to isolate the same curative substance or vitamine from yeast, from milk and from bran. Another instance of a similar character concerns us more nearly in this country. In the preparation of fine white flour, from which our ordinary white bread is made, the outer layers of the wheat are entirely removed. It appears, however, that in these onter lavers there is an active principle which is of essential importance to the value of the wheat as food material. In experments carried out by Dr. Leonard Hill it was found that young rats and mice would not live when fed exclusively on white flour and water. whilst those fed on wholemeal flour did much better. Pigeons fed on a diet consisting only of pure white bread all died, but if to the white bread was arded an extract of bran and sharps, that is an extract of the outer husks of the grain. the pigeons lived quite healthily. Here again we have to do with minute traces of the so-called vitamines, which are essential to healthy mutrition. In an ordinary mixed diet, such as is usually adopted in this country, the use of white bread made from refined flour is probably not very harmful, as the small quantity of vitamine required will be obtained from other constituents of the food, such as milk or fresh vegetables. Amongst some of the poorer classes of the population. where white bread is often the principal food, there is a distinct danger of mahnutrition, especially in growing children.

It seems probable that scury, a disease so dreaded by the deep-sea sailors of former days and one which has proved so disastrous to our Irctic and Antarctic explorers, is due to the absence from the diet of accessory substances similar in their nature to vitanines. These substances are present in minute quantities in lime juice, fresh vegetables and fruit, the addition of which to the diet has a curative effect on the disease.

I connection between the study of the growth of marine diatoms and the study of the cause and cure of cancer may at first sight seem remote but some recent work in connection with that disease certainly suggests that the two studies may be mutually helpful. In cancer we have a rapid and uncontrolled growth of certain tissues, and the work of H. $1 \therefore$ Ross and others is directed to show that this rapid growth is due to the production in the body of the patient of minute quantities of certain complex organic substances, which act as growth stimulants and
bring about the rapid and abnormal proliferation of the tissue cells. These growth stimulants have been termed auxetics, and it is not improbable that they resemble in their action, if not in their chemical constitution, the vitamines which cure the disease of beri-beri and the potent substance occurring in natural sea-water, the merest trace of which is capable of producing a luxmiant growth of diatoms in an artificial solution, which in its absence is mable to sustain growth at all.

A still closer parallel to what occurs in the case of the diatom cultures has recently been brought to light in connection with agricultural research. I refer to the investigations of Prof. Bottomley, of King's College, London, on certain substances derived from Sphagnum peat. Sphagnum peat consists of the partly decayed remains of the Sphagnum. moss, which occurs so commonly in moorland bogs, as for example in much of the bogland of Dartmoor. Prof. Bottomley found that when Sphagnum peat was subjected to the action of certain bacteria obtained from soil, a kind of fermentation took place which resulted in the formation of a substance which, when fed to growing plants, stimulated and accelerated their growth to a quite surprising extent. This substance was soluble in water and was effective in very small quantities. Prof. Bottomley states that "Dr. Rosenheim, of King's College, found that seedlings of Primula malacoides potted up in loam, leaf-mould and sand, and treated twice with a water extract of only two-tenths ( $0 \cdot 18$ grams) of a gram of bacterised peat, were after six weeks' growth, double the size of similar untreated plants, and it was noted that flower production and root development were promoted equally with increase of foliage."

By using methods similar to those which had been employed in separating vitamine from rice polishings, Bottomley was able to separate the active substance from the bacterised peat and to test its effect upon the growth of wheat seedlings. Some seedlings were allowed to grow in a solution containing only pure food salts (nitrates. phosphates, and so 0 m ), whilst others were grown in the same solution to which one part in three millions of the active substance from bacterised peat had been addet. During the first fortnight both sets of seedlings grew at about the same pace. Ifter that those to which no active substance had been ferl began to dwindle, and at the end of fifty days their weight had actually diminished by $8 \cdot 1$ per cent. Those seedlings. on the other hand, which had received the one part in three millions of active substance from the bacterised peat, continued to grow and at the end of the fifty days their weight had increased by jos per cent of the original weight.

Bottomker's observations are of great practical interest, since they seem to explain in an intelligible way the beneficial effect upon erops of farmyard and organic mannres. It is not sufficient to add to the soil
only artificial fertilizers, since without a supply of the necessary accessory organic substances, which act as growth stimulants, the crops are unable to make use of the food supply which these artificial fertilizers provide. The accessory substances are, however, produced in the minute quantities reguired when a certain proportion of organic manure is also employed.

But it is time for me to return to the conditions which prevail in the sea, although I hope that these digressions into animal nutrition, into the canses and cure of certain diseases, and into the treatment of agricultural crops have been of some service in throwing light upon the subject in hand. What is the source from which the sea obtains the food substances necessary for the growth of its plant life - the phosphates, nitrates and other inorganic salts and the organic substances of the nature of growth stimulants? There is clearly within the sea itself a continuous cycle of these plant foods, and we may to that extent regard the sea as a selfcontained whole. The plant makes use of the food substances dissolved in the water and is then itself eaten by some animal. The animal, cither directly as the product of its own vital activity or indirectly through the action of putrefying bacteria when it dies, returns the plant foods to the sea.

In addition. however, to this food cycle within the sea itself, there is another source of supply, the importance of which is probably very great, though up to the present it has not been studied with all the attention it deserves. This source of supply is the material carried into the sea by drainage from the land, the great bulk of it being, of course, brought down by the rivers. The subject has recently been discussed in an important memoir by Prof. Gran of Christiania. It has long been known that life in the sea is specially abundant in the neighbourhood of the coasts and in regions which are under the influence of currents containing a great admixture of river water. The study of the distribution of the plankton, or floating life of the sea, has helped greatly in throwing light upon this question. The quantity of plankton in coastal waters is very much greater than that found in the open ocean far from land. The proportion has been estimated at $50: 1$.

Prof. (iran maintains that this can only be explained by supposing that the coastal waters are richer in nutritive or food substances, and these mutritive substances must have been supplied by drainage from the land. It has been found that the development of the plankton, especially of the plant plankton, commences in the inshore or coastal waters and from thence spreads out gradually into the ocean. All the great fishing areas are found in regions where coastal water predominates and where the admixture of river water is large. The North Sea, the most productive
area of the British fisheries, receives the waters of the Rhine, the Elbe, the Thames, and many other rivers. The great cod fisheries off the coast of Norway take place in waters which are derived in large part from the Baltic current. The Bristol Channel and Irish Sea are other examples upon a smaller scale.

On the other hand, over the vast areas of the open ocean far from the coasts, where the influence of land drainage is not felt and where the quantity of minute life in the water is small, no important fisheries are carried on. As far as we seem to understand the conditions of the problem at present, it does not appear likely that any great fisheries can be developed in these open waters. Just as the desert areas of the land, notwithstanding the abundant energy of smnlight which falls upon them, are mable to support vegetation from lack of water, so it seems these great ocean wastes fail in making nse of the sun's power for the production of organic life from lack of substances which only the land can supply. If this be a true view of the case, when, as will probably happen sooner or later, the fisheries of the coastal banks have reached the maximum extent of their capacity, we shall have to look for any further increase of the supply of tish for food purposes to an extended practice of fish culture, a method at present confined almost entirely to fresh-water fishes. The extension of fish culture to marine fishes. which are much more delicate and difficult to rear than those which live in fresh-water. is by no means an easy matter, and much further knowledge will be necessary before successfuł results can be obtained. The researches which I have described to you to-night were commenced largely with a view to obtaining information about some of the fundamental problems upon which any scientific practice of fish culture would need to be based. The investigation has at the present time reached only an carly stage. but the results obtained are unexpected and not without interest. There seems reason to hope that a further extension of the work may be of some practical importance.

For a more detailed account of the researehes referred to in this address see:
Mllex, E. J., and Nelson, E. W., On the Artificial Culture of Marine Plankton Organisms, Quart. Journ. Micr. Sci., Vol. 55, p. 361, 1910, and Journ. Mar. Biol. Assoc., VIII, p. 421, 1910.
Allen, E. J.. On the Culture of the Plankton Ditutom Thalassiosira granida Clere, in Artificial Sea-uater, Jomm. Mar. Biol. Assoc., X, p. 117, 1914.

# The Age of Fishes and the Rate at which they Grow. 

Beiny the Presidential Adrlesss heliverent hefore the Dexonshire Association for the Atrancement of science, Literature and Ait at the Plymouth Meetim:, 1Sth July, 1!1t\%.

By
E. J. Allen, D.Sc., F.R.S.
lirector of the I'lymouth Laboretory.
[Reprinted from the Transactions of the Devonshire Assoriation.]
With Fignres 1-9 in the Text.
It a time like the present, when the Empire we have inherited stands facing a crisis of its fate, when indeed the whole structure of civilization as we know it has seemed to sway. when that which generations of earnest thinkers have dreamt of as the progress of the race recoils before the forces it has itself unchained, it is difficult to restrain a feeling of incongruity in discussing any subject that has no obvious bearing on the greater problems of the hour. But I am convinced that we are following the right course in carrying on, with such help as remains available, the work of this Association, whose object is the advancement of Science. Literature and Art. In the short, swift cataracts of war, mo less than in the gentler, steadier flow of peace, these matters of the mind have still their power.

In selecting a subject upon which to address you it has seemed to me best not to attempt to travel beyond the limits of that branch of Science with which my own studies have been chiefly concerned, and the science of Marine Biology is one which has special claims on a Devonshire Society. The work of Colonel Montagu at the begiming of the nineteenth century, which gave us the first descriptions of so many of our British marine animals, and by the acuteness and accuracy of its observations laid the foundation of future knowledge of their habits and life-histories, was practically all carried out in the Salcombe and Kingsbridge estuaries. Dr. Leach, the pioneer in the study of British Crustacea, was born at Hoe Gate Honse, within a few yards of Plymouth Hoe, and some of his collections still find a home in the museum of the Plymouth Athenæum. Philip Gosse studied the shore life of our Devonshire coast at Torquay and at Ilfracombe, and his book on those British Anemones, which he
found in such profusion at both these spots, remains a classic. It was at Plymouth that Spence Bate first followed the remarkable transformations that occur in the development of the common crab of our shores. and it was here that he procured a large part of the material upon which was based the monograph on British Sessile-eyed Crustacea, which he wrote in collaboration with Westwood.

It was due to the wealth of marine life discovered by these and many other local naturalists, that when in 1881 an Association, chiefly under the influence of the biologists connected with the Universities of Oxford, Cambridge and London, was founded for the study of marine life and particularly for the study of marine fishes, the site of the first Laboratory was fixed at Plymouth. The researches which have been carried out at that Laboratory have fully confimed the view that we possess off the Devon coast a fauna as extensive and as remarkable for the variety of its forms as is to be found anywhere in northern Europe.

The sea fisheries of Devonshire occupy also a unique position in the history of British Fisheries, for it was the trawl fishermen of Brixham who, gradually pressing eastwards, extended their industry to Dover. Ramsgate and Yarmouth, until finally at Grimsby and Hull they laid the foundations of that immense trade, which with the coming of the steam trawler has taken toll of the most distant waters, from Iceland and the White Sea in the north to the coast of Morocco in the south.

You will, I think, agree that it is fitting that I should here, in passing, pay a tribute to the sturdy character and indomitable courage of the men of our steam fishing fleets. The Brixham traditions have survived. Those of us who had known the men and had sailed with them in times of peace knew already something of their worth, but the cool daring and patient bravery of their work since the war began has surpassed all expectations. It is not too much to say that to them, as much as to any men, we owe the protection of our commerce from the ruthless warfare of mine and submarine.

It is now many years since the first attempts were made to apply scientific methods to the study of problems connected with sea-fisheries, and the subject has developed into what is almost a distinct department of marine biology. Were I to attempt to deal even with all the many branches of modern fishery research, it would be impossible within the limits of a single address to give more than a very superficial account of each of them. It will, I think, he more useful and offer a better prospect of securing your interest in the subject, if I confine myself to one limited guestion which has received in recent years a considerable amount of attention from fishery naturalists. The subject about which I propose to speak is that of the age of fishes and the rate at which they grow. It
requires no elaborate argument to prove that the study of this matter is of the first importance if we are to give a rational account of the possible productiveness of a fishery, of the rate at which the fishery can be replenished, and of the intensity of fishing which may be prosecuted without endangering its future prospects as a means of profit to the fishermen and a source of food supply for the people.

To begin at the beginning, I need hardly remind you of the now wellknown fact that the egus of the majority of our marketable marine fishes are small, transparent, spherical bodies, which are buoyant and float freely in the sea. The fact that the eggs of a fish are of this character, which we describe as pelagic, was first discovered by (i. O. Sars in Norway, in 1864, whose observations were made on the Cod. It was discovered independently in Cornwall in 1871, in the case of the Pilchard, by that enthusiastic fisherman-naturalist and acute observer, whose name will be well known to you, the late Matthias Dumn, of Mevagissey. The only important British sea-fish which is an exception to this rule of having pelagic eggs, apart from the skates and dogfishes, whose rate of growth I propose to leave out of consideration altogether, is the Herring, the spawn of which is deposited on the sea floor and attached to shells, stones and gravel.

The time occupied in the development of the eggs of different fishes, from the time ther are spawned to the time of hatching, was shown by Dammevig (5) to be dependent upon the temperature of the water in which they float, the increase in the rate of development being in direct proportion to any increase of temperature.

The following table compiled by Dannerig shows the average number of days occupied in the development of the eggs of certain species of fish at different temperatures :

| Temperature in Centigrade Cod | 1 | +3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | $\times$ | 10 | 12 | $1 \dagger^{\prime}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| (G6edus morrhur) | 42 | 23 | 20.1 | $17!$ | 1.5! | 12; | $10 \frac{1}{2}$ | $9 \frac{3}{3}$ | 81 |
| Whiting <br> (Gícluss merlumins) | - |  | - | 15. | 13. | 101 | 8 | $6{ }^{1}$ | 5 |
| Haddock <br> (ficulıs: vglefinus:) | 42 | 23 | 2013 | 17 | 1.) | 13 | $10 \%$ | $9 \%$ | 83 |
| Plaice <br> (Pleminnectes plutrasis) |  | - | -- | - | 181 | 14! | 12 | 103 |  |
| Flounder <br> (Ill. Ar:s/s) |  | - | - |  | 6i] | 51 | 43 | 3\% |  |

These results have since been confirmed by Johansen and Krogh (16), working with more elaborate and accurate apparatus, and they have illustrated the relation between temperature and growth rate shown by Daunerig's figures by means of a graph, ${ }^{1}$ in which the loci of the different

[^23]observations for each kind of fish lie very nearly in a straight line, which means that the increase in rate of development, over the range of temperature examined, is directly proportional to the increase in temperature.

It follows, therefore, that the actual time, under natural conditions in the sea, which an egg takes to develop, from the time it is spawned until it is hatched, is by no means constant. There are, I believe, no actual observations on the point and direct evidence as to the time occupied would not be easy to get. If we suppose that temperature is the only factor that need be considered, it is possible to deduce from the data given by the laboratory experiments the time taken in particular instances. Thus, in the waters off Plymonth. Plaice spawn from December to March. Taking the temperature at $9^{\circ} \mathrm{C}^{\circ}$., which is the mean for February, the coldest of the four months, the Plaice egg would, according to Dannevig's figures, ${ }^{1}$ take thirteen days to hatch. In the southern part of the North Sea, on the other hand, which is a great spawning-ground for Plaice, the mean temperature for February is $7^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$., at which temperature the eggs would take about sixteen days to hateh.

When they first emerge from the egg, the young fishes are small, transparent larvæ, whose form is very different from that of the adult fish, and the next points to consider are the time occupied by the period of transition from the larval to the adult form and the increase in size which aceompanies this change of form.

In treating of this period of the life-history we will consider separately the ordinary round fishes such as Cod, Whiting, Mackerel and Herring, and flat-fishes like the Plaice, the Sole and the Turbot. In the case of the round fishes it is a little difficult to draw a sharp line of demarcation between the end of the larval and the commencement of the adult life, since both as regards structure of body and habits of life the one passes very gradually into the other.

The time occupied by the larval period may be illustrated by one or two examples. The principal spawning time of the Cod in the North Sea begins in January and is at its height in Febmary and March. The larve when first hatched have a length of about 4 mm ., the length after absorption of the yolk being 4.5 mm . It a length of 2.5 mm . the adult form has practically been reached. Little cod of this size begin to appear. often hiding under the bell of a jelly-fish, from the middle of May onwards, that is to say about four months after the beginning of the spawning in January. We may say therefore with some confidence that these small cod of 25 mm . or 1 inch in length are from three to four months old.

Some observations on larval mackerel taken off Plymouth in the stmmer of 1914 will illustrate the method, a somewhat laborions one, it
${ }^{1}$ Cf. Apstein (1, p. 366). Aecorling to Apstein's figures the time would be nearer formend dass at 90 and serentem daysat $7^{\circ}{ }^{\circ}$.
is true, by means of which the rate of growth of these young stages may be investigated. During May, June and July a large net of fine mesh the Petersen young-fish trawl was used at frequent intervals, chiefly between Whitsand Bay and the Eddystone, for the purpose of collecting young stages of fish. Young Mackerel first appeared on the 2.5th of May and they continued to be caught fairly regularly until the end of June, whilst in July only three specimens of these early stages were found during the whole month. All the specimens captured were preserved and subsequently measured. The numbers taken at any one time were small, thirty-two being the largest number in a single hanl of the net, but if we combine the figures obtained from the different hauls into two groups, certain interesting features appear. The following diagram represents the figures in a graphic form, the measurements being in millimetres ${ }^{1}$ and each fish being represented by a dot:-

size in mun.
5 . . . 3
. 3
1914.
May 25th
to June 3rd.
6 Haurs.
Average Size
Fotle 6.5 mm .
10. . .
11
1
12
.) . . 2
(; . . 2
i . . . . . i
June 10th-29th.
8 . . . 3
! . . . . . . . 7
10 . . . . . .)
11... 3
1-2. . 2
13

Fig. 1.-Lurval. Mackered.
${ }^{1}$ A table showing the relation between liritish and Metric measures will be found on 1. 424.

In the first group of hauls, which we may call the end of May group. the size of greatest frequency is $6 \cdot 5 \mathrm{~mm}$. and the numbers form a fairly regular curve about this mode, the average size of all the measmrements being $7 \cdot 1.5 \mathrm{~mm}$. In the second group of hanls, the middle of June group. the numbers range themselves round two centres of frequeney or modes. one at 6.5 mm ., the other at 9.5 mm . Nthough the numbers are not perhaps sufficiently large to be conclusive, they at least suggest that these 9.5 mm . fish belong to the same batch of larve as the 6.5 mm . fish of the end of Hay group, whilst the smaller fish represent a new bateh of young, derived presumably from another shoal of spawning Maekerel. If this be so, we should. I think, be not far wrong in concluding that a growth of :'mm. took place in the three weeks' interval from the middle of the period May erth to Jume :3rd and the middle of the period June 10th to June 29th.

I give this actual instance from our own observations merely as an illustration of the way in which the problem of the rate of growth of larve in the sea under natural conditions may be attacked. To arrive at perfectly certain and definite results a much larger number of speeimens would be necessary, and confirmation in different years would be required.

The Cod and the Hackerel, whose larval growth we have just been considering, are typical instances of ordinary round fishes. We will now look for a moment at the flat-fishes in which a distinet and rapid change both in structure and habit of life takes place at the end of the larval period. The roung fish abandons its pelagic existence, during which it swam freely through the mass of the water snapping here and there at the small floating ereatures upon which it feeds, and takes to lying on its side on the sand at the bottom. feeding on small worms, shellfish and crustaceans which the sand contains. This change of habit is accompanied by a twisting of the whole structure of the skull, in such a way that both eyes come to lie near together on one side of the fish. (o) the coloured side which is uppermost as the fish rests upon the sand.
[ I series of slictes showing the metamorphosis of a flat-fish was shown.]
This change in structure and habit gives us a fixed point in the lifehistory of the fish, and for the purpose in hand we require to know for what length of time the free-swimming larval stage is contimed, from the time that the larva leaves the egg until it settles down as a little flatfish adapted to life on the sand. Unfortunately the evidence a vailable is not sufficiently detailed to enable us to fix this time with the degree of accuracy which we should desire, though an approximate estimate of it:s duration can be made for certain species. For instance, the Plaice in the southern part of the North Sea commences to spawn in Jannary ;
spawning is at its height in February and contimues into March. The youngest bottom stages of the Plaice, immediately after the transformation, are found in quite shallow water along the margins of sandy bays and are often taken by shimpers, working with push nets on the shore. According to the researches of Dutch naturalists (Redeke, 20. p. 40) these small Plaice appear at the begiming of April on the Dutch coast and they become numerous in May. If, therefore, we allow two to three weeks for the eggs to hatch. we are left with about ten weeks for the larval stages. It must be admitted that this is a very indefinite statement. but it is, I think, as near as we can get on the evidence at present available. The times will dombtless vary considerably in different localities and also in different years, owing to differences of temperature and of the food-supply available.

In the case of the Sole, which was reared by Fabre-Domergue and Biétrix (6) in the laboratory at Concarneau, the pelagic larval stage lasted about seven weeks, but this of course does not give us a reliable figure for the time taken under natural conditions in the sea.

The length at which the transformation is complete and the bottom life commences is in the case of the Plaice from $11-1.5 \mathrm{~mm}$. for the sole it is 10.11 mm . The sizes at the time of hatching are $6-7.5 \mathrm{~mm}$. for Plaice, $3 \cdot 2 \mathrm{~mm}$. for the Sole.

We may say in general, then, that the adult characters in most fishes are established at the end of about three months from the time of spawning, and when the length is from a quarter to half an inch.

In order to determine the rate of growth subsequent to this period varions methods have been employed and for some vears past considerable attention has been given to the subject. It is possible of course. to study the matter directly by keeping fishes in confinement and measnring them from time to time. But we can get little really valuable infomation in that way, as it is soon seen that the rate of growth depends very largely on the conditions in which the fish are placed, on the rolume of fresh seawater supplied to the tanks, on the temperature of the water. and on the amome and nature of the food which is supplied. This is an interesting study in itself, and from some points of view may prove to be of practical importance, but it really tells us little or nothing as to the rate at which the fishes grow under natural conditions in the sea, which is the point of main importance.

Dr. Petersen of Copenhagen was the first natmalist to place the study of the subject on a somed scientific basis (Petersen, 19) and the method he employed is still perhaps the most useful for dealing with the first one or two years of a fish's life. It consists simply in making a large and representative collection of the fish to be studied, from a particular
locality and as nearly as possible at the same time, measuring the length of each individual fish and then plotting the measurements in the form of a graph or curve.

The following curve [cf. Hjort and Petersen (11), Plate IV] in which $8046 \mathrm{Cod}^{1}{ }^{1}$ caught off the East Coast of Iceland in July, 1904, are graphically represented (Fig. 2), illustrates the method. Each fish was measured and the numbers found at each centimetre are plotted. It will be seen at once that the fish group themselves around certain definite lengths. The smallest sized fish in the collection was 3 cm . long, and of this size there were 6 fish. It 4 cm . there were 65 , and at 5 cm . 189 . The mmbers then begin to fall. there being only 43 at $6 \mathrm{~cm} ., 8$ at 7 cm ., and but one fish at 8 cm . Then they rise again until another maximm occurs at 12 cm ., with 139 fish. At 17 cm . the number has fallen to 12 , after which another rise occurs until at 22 cm . we have 107 . In this way the fish fall naturally into the six groups $\mathrm{O}-\mathrm{V}$. This division into size groups is due to the fact that the spawning season of the Cod in each year is a limited one, extending over only two or three months at the begiming of the year-January, February and perhaps March. By July the fish born at that time will have reached about 5 cm . in length. The next maximum at 12 cm . represents the fishes born the year previously, and the difference between 12 cm . and 5 cm . i.e. 7 cm ., expresses the growth in length during the year. Then at 22 cm . we have the fish which have completed two full years, these fish in . July when the samples were taken being two and a half years old.

Since all the fish were caught in 1904 we are able to say in what year each group was born, the $V$ group, with a maximmm frequency at 88 cm . being Cod born in 1899.

Now, although this method is satisfactory for the early years, the distinction between the groups becomrs much less marked as the fish grow older, until finally the different year-groups rum into one another and become indistinguishable. Fortunately, however, other methods have been discovered which enable us to attack the problem of age and rate of growth with even greater precision.

In the year 1898 Hoffbauer (13) published a paper in which he showed that the age of a fresh-water carp could be determined by an examination of the markings on the scale. In 1902 Stuart Thompson (22) published an account of some work carried out at the Plymouth Marine Laboratory in which be showed, for the first time, that a similar method was applicable to sea-fisheries, his researches having been made upon fishes of the Cod family the (Gadidx-especially on Whiting and Pollock.
${ }^{1}$ The nmmins of fish at 45 cm . has been taken at forty-seven instead of ninety-seven given by Hjort, which appears to he misprint. Forty-seren agrees with what is shown in the staphand is in accordance with expectation.


Fig. 3 is from a drawing of the scale of a coal-fish (fradus rirens). The surface of the scale appears covered with a series of concentric rings or ridges. When growth is proceeding rapidly there is a considerable space between succeeding ridges, when growth becomes slow the ridges crowd


closely together. But the fish grows most rapidly during the summer months, when the water is warm and food is plentiful, whereas during the winter growth becomes slower and slower. and even ceases altogether. It is during this winter period of very slow growth that the concentric ridges on the scale become crowded together and give the appearance of a darker ring on the surface of the seale. On the scale figured there are two such winter rings and the growth of the thind smmmer is well adranced.

That this explanation of the appearance presented by the scale is the correct one has been proved by the examination of scales taken from fish caught at different times of the year. I fish captured in summer. such as the one illustrated, has the ridges far apart at the margin of the scale, whilst in fishes eaptured as the season advances towards winter the ridges round the margin become crowded together.

In the case of the Cod family these markings on the scate are especially distinct and the examination of a few scales is generally sufficient to fix the age (Winge. 25). The number of winter rings formed by the crowding together of the ridges tell us at once the number of years of life which the fish has completed. It must be remarked, however, that the appearance of these winter rings is not in the case of each individual fish as clear and definite as that shown by the scale illustrated, and in a large batch of fish a certain number will be doubtful and the exact age a little uncertain.

By examining large samples these exceptional instances cease to have any importance, as they are not sufficiently mmerous to alter the average values obtained.

The Salmon is one of the fish the age of which is often well shown on the scale, and a good deal of work has been done upon it (Masterman, 18). The Herring is another case which I shall consider in more detail presently.

In certain other fishes. as for example the Plaice, the scales. although they show indications of similar winter rings, are not marked sufficiently clearly to make them easily a vailable for age determination. Fortunately. however, other structures of the fish have been found which show in a very definite way alternating rings expressing different rates of growth, which enable us to estimate age with great accuracr: These structures are (1) the otoliths or ear-stones, and $(\underline{2})$ certain of the bones of the fish. In the Plaice the fish to which this method has been chiefly applied. the age of the younger fishes up to about six or seven years old is hest seen on the otolith, that of older ones on the bones.

The otoliths or ear-stones (Fig. t) are small. oval. calcareons bodies which lie in the cavity of the imer ear. Ther can be remorel easily for


Fit: 4.-Otoliths of mature male Maice. Upler mow-Otoliths of Plaice from the West Bay (English Chamel). Lower row-Otoliths of Plaise taken in the sonthern deep water of the Nosth sea, near the dahburd Light Vessel. (After Wallace.)
examination from the dead fish by making a single incision in the head in an appropriate direction, and an inspection with a simple lens generally suffices to make an age determination (ef. Reibiseh. 21).

Is will be seen from the figure, alternate white and dark rings are seen, when the otolith is examined by reflected light. The white rings are
formed in spring and early summer, the dark rings in late summer and autum. During the winter practically no growth of the otolith takes place. The first white ring is formed in the spring following the year of birth, that is when the fish is just one year old, and the total number of white rings will therefore give us the number of years of life which the fish has completed.

As the Plaice gets older. however, the rings at the edges of the otoliths are so crowded together that it becomes impossible to count them. For these older fishes Heincke (9) has shown that an examination of the bones, after special treatment, gives the information required.

It is clear that if we can determine the age of individual fishes, and if we do this on sufficiently large samples, we at once obtain some information as to their rate of growth, for if, say, the average size of the two-yearold Plaice in a particular locality is 20 cm . and the average size of the three-year-olds is 25 cm . We shall not be far wrong in concluding that a Plaice of 20 cm . will grow about 5 cm . during the next year of its life. This conclusion, however. assumes that the conditions of growth are the same each year. and from information now a vailable we know that this is not always true, but that some years are more favourable for growth than others. (irowth in different localities, also, even though they may not be very distant from each other, may differ greatly. What we can obtain by the use of the methods already described. if the observations are repeated for a number of years, is the acerage rate of growth for each year of age.

There are, however, other methods by means of which we can get an idea of the actual rate of growth in a particular area at a particular time. The one which has been most used and has yielded the most reliable results is the method of marking experiments. In these experiments a healthy fish is measured soon after being caught and a small metal label is attached to it, generally at the base of the dorsal fin. The label is numbered and the fish is returned to the sea. When it is subsequently caught again by the fishermen it can be identified by its number and measured a second time. The actual amount of growth will then be known. A great many experiments of this kind have been made on both Plaice and Cod. and large numbers of the fish have been caught and returned by the fishermen to the various laboratories. Even these experiments, however, which were carried out primarily to give information as to the migrations of the fish, are subject to at least one possibility of error, owing to the fact that the future growth of a fish may be considerably retarded by any slight injury it may have sustained when it was first caught. This source of error has to some extent been overcome by keeping the fish in tanks of rmming sea-water for some time before
they are measured and marked, and only using such fish as appear to be quite uminjured and full of vigour.

We must now pass on to consider some of the conclusions which have resulted from the use of these methods of investigating age and growth rate. In the case of the Plaice, the researches of Dr. Wallace, which were carried out at the Lowestoft Laboratory of the Marine Biological Association. are amongst the most important. The method he employed was the study of the otoliths, his results being based on a total of 20,000 fish, each of which was measured and its age determined. In addition to this Wallace makes use of the records of the otoliths of another 20,000 measured Plaice collected by the Board of Agriculture and Fisheries (24). These numbers will give some idea of the extent of the investigations which have been made.

The following table embodies the result of the analysis as regards age of two series of samples of Plaice trawled by Wallace along a line nearly at right angles to the Dutch coast, from Texel to the Leman Banks, commencing about three miles from the shore and ruming out some eighty or ninety miles into the North Sea. The samples were taken in May and September, 1905. (Wallace, 23, Rep. II. Pt. I, p. 26.)

1. Males.

The I group averaged $9 \cdot 4 \mathrm{~cm}$. in May and 14.9 cm . in Sept.

| $"$, | II | , | $16 \cdot 2 \mathrm{~cm}$. | , | $19 \cdot 9 \mathrm{~cm}$. | , |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $"$ | III | $"$ | $22 \cdot 2 \mathrm{~cm}$. | ,. | $2.5 \cdot 4 \mathrm{~cm}$. | , |
| $"$ | IV | $"$ | $27 \cdot 2 \mathrm{~cm}$. | ,. | $29 \cdot 3 \mathrm{~cm}$. | . |
| $"$ | V | $"$ | $31 \cdot 6 \mathrm{~cm}$. | , | $33 \cdot 7 \mathrm{~cm}$. | , |
| $"$ | VI | $"$ | 34.8 cm. | ,. | 34.5 cm. | ., |

2. Females.

The I group averaged 10.3 cm . in May and $15 \cdot 2 \mathrm{~cm}$. in Sept.

| $"$ | II | , | 16.8 cm. | $"$ | 20.9 cm. | , |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $"$ | III | $"$ | 23.6 cm. | $"$ | 2.5 .8 cm. | , |
| $"$ | IV | $"$ | 28.3 cm. | $"$ | 30.9 cm. | $"$ |
| $"$ | V | $"$ | 34.3 cm. | $"$ | 37.7 cm. | $"$ |
| ". VI | , | 38.5 cm. | , | $41 \cdot 3 \mathrm{~cm}$. | , |  |

[A number of diagrams were also shown illustrating Wallace's results.]
The samples of fish from which these figures were derived were taken, as already stated, upon a line extending from the Dutch coast seawards to a distance of eighty or ninety miles. Wallace was the first to point out that if we are to obtain really accurate values for the average size of the Plaice belonging to any particular age-group in a given locality, we can only do so by collecting samples uniformly in this way at different
distances from the shore. In order to make it clear why this is so, it will be necessary to give a short account of the distribution of the Plaice according to size, and for this purpose we will consider its distribution in the North Sea.

When we were dealing with the larval stages of the Plaice, you will recollect that we left the earliest bottom stages inhabiting the margins of the sandy shores in quite shallow water. During the first year of their life the young Plaice remain close to the shore in depths under ten fathoms. Is they grow larger they move further and further seawards


Fig. 5.-Plaice. Catch per hour of the III Gromp. (After Wallace.)
$D=$ May, 1906 (Covered Beam Trawl).
$\square=$ September, 1905 (Otter Trawl).
away from these nursery grounds, and in the North Sea it may be taken as a general rule that the arerage size of the Plaice becomes largor the further out into the open sca we get.

This is well illustrated by the charts published by (iarstang (8) showing the distribution of Plaice in the North Sea according to average size.

This seaward movement. it is important to note, depends upon the size of the fish rather than upon their age, so that the larger individuals of any year class are found further out to sea than the smaller ones. If we now look at the next Chart by Wallace (Fig. 5), which illustrates the catch per hour of Plaice of the III (iroup, that is fish between three and four years old, on the line rumning out from the Dutch coast from Texel to the Leman Bank - we shall see that this group is taken along the whole line. It is most abmodant near the coast, where the a verage size of the fish is small, and the numbers captured gradually diminish as we move seawards, the size of the fish at the same time becoming larger. The chart also shows that between May (represented by the circles) and

September (the squares) there has been a distinct shifting of the group of fish seawards as they have grown larger.

It will be clear, therefore, that if the fish are distributed in this way according to size, we must take uniform samples all along the line in order to obtain the true average of those belonging to any age-group. If, for instance, in the case of this III (troup we took samples only near the coast we should miss all the larger fish belonging to the group, whereas if we took samples only at the seaward end of the line we should miss all the small ones. In the latter case our average would be far too high, in the former case it would be far too low. Wallace therefore is quite justified in maintaining that samples of Plaice for age determination must be taken upon such radial lines, if accurate average sizes for the different years of age are to be obtained.

One of the points which has come out most clearly in the course of these studies is the great differences in rate of growth which are found, firstly at different seasons of the year, secondly in different years, and thirdly in different localities.

As regards seasonal differences we may say that in the North Sea the year's growth begins in the spring, about the month of Ipril: it goes on vigoronsly during the summer until September, slows down in October, and from that time until the following April there is practically no growth at all, at any rate in the shallow water near the coasts. In the central portions of the North Sea, for example on the Dogger Bank, a certain amount of growth does seem to take place in the winter.

The evidence for differences in the rate of growth of Plaice in difierent years is chiefly based on the work of the Danish naturalist Johansen (14). who has studied the question by means of marking experiments carried out off the North Sea coast of Demmark. Thus the average annual growth for specimens of 20 to 29 cm . liberated in the Hom Reef area in 190:3 was only about 4 cm ., whilst in $1904,190.5,1906$ and 1907 it was from 6 to $7 \cdot 5 \mathrm{~cm}$. In this connection Johansen notes the interesting fact that in 1543 , when the growth was abnormally low. there was an musually rich stock of under-sized fish on the Horn Reef grounds, which suggests that the rate of growth may depend, amongst other things, upon the density of the Plaice population (Johansen, 14. III, p. 37).

It is possible. therefore, that a certain amount of fishing on grounds overcrowded with young fish may tend to increase the rate of growth of the fish that remain.

That the rate of growth of Plaice differs widely in different localities may be inferred from the fact that the average length of the different age-groups is different in different areas, provided always that the samples on which the figures are based are adequately distributed or at least
properly comparable. Thus Wallace's samples show that Plaice of the II Group in August, that is fish two and a half years old, average 6 cm . longer in Tor Bay on the South Devon Coast than those in deeper water on the Leman Banks in the North Sea, and 11 cm . longer than those from the shallow water off the coast of Lincolnshire, the Devon fish being thus from one to two full years ahead of those from the North Sea.

This rapid growth of the Devon fish is elearly reflected in the structure of the otolith, as will be seen from Fig. 4. The broad white rings are in marked contrast to the narrow rings of the North Sea fish (Wallace, 23, Rep. III, p. 142 a, Figs. 6 and 7).

The following table (p. 415) summarizes Wallace's results as to the average size of Plaice of the different age-groups in different localities.

From this table it is possible also to compare the difference in rate of growth of males and females. It will be seen that on the whole females grow more rapidly than males, and that this difference tends to increase as the fish grow older.

The great differences which may occur in the rate of growth of Plaice on different gromnds are strikingly shown by the results of the transplantation experiments carried ont by Garstang and Borley in the North Sea [Garstang (7), Borley (2), Lee and Atkinson (17)]. Small Plaice


Fig. 6. -Showing growth of fish transplanted to the Dogger Bank in the combined experiments of the years 1904-8 compared with that shown by the Danish marking experiments in the Horn Reef area in the years 1903 5. (After Borley.)
caught on the sinallow young-fish murseries off the Danish and Dutch coasts were carried in sea-water tanks to the Dogger Bank, which lies in the middle of the North Sea. They were then measured, marked with
AVERAGE SIZES OF THE PRINCIPAL AGE GROUPS OF PLAICE FROM
DIFFERENT FISHING GROUNDS.
From Wallace [23], Report III, Tables 11 to 16, pp. 136-141. Length in centimetres.

| Age Groups. | Males. |  |  |  |  |  | Feriales. |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | I | 11 | III | IV | V | V1 | I | II | III | IN | V | VI | III |
| Texel to Leman Banks. September, 1905. 7 -17 fms. | 14.9 | $20 \cdot 0$ | 25.4 | $29 \cdot 3$ | - | - | $15 \cdot 1$ | $20 \cdot 9$ | 25.8 | $30 \cdot 9$ | - | -- |  |
| Texel to Leman Banks. May. 19\%6. 1:3-17 fins. | - | $14 \cdot 6$ | $21 \cdot 3$ | 97.3 | $30 \cdot 9$ | - | - | $14 \cdot 9$ | -3) | 28 | 32.9 | - | - |
| Scheveningen and Sonthern Deep Water. Nay, 1906 . I2 e2; fms. | - | 16.5 | $21 \cdot 9$ | 27.7 | $31 \cdot 1$ | - | - | 17.7 |  | 29.1 | $32 \cdot 1$ | -- | - |
| South Dogger and Flamboro off. Winter (Oct. March) | - | - | $29 \cdot 1$ | $34 \cdot 1$ | 37.17 | 38.1 | - | - | 30.4 | $36 \cdot 6$ | 41.0 | $44 \cdot 1$ | 47.5 |
| Great W̌est Bay (English Chammel). Winter (Nos. Perb.). : 7 fims., $17-30 \mathrm{mms}$. | 218 | $27 \cdot 1$ | 31.0 | $3 \times 3$ | - | - | $20 \cdot 1$ | 28.3 | 31\% | 3,5\% | - |  |  |
| For Bay and start Bay. August, 1909. 3-8 Ims. | 18.3 | 27.9 | 313 | - | - |  | $18 \cdot 4$ | 27.7 | 335 | $37 \cdot 4$ | 41.3 | - |  |

numbered labels and liberated. The transplantation was carried out in Nay, and during the following year large numbers of the marked fishes were returned by the fishermen. The amount of growth shown by the following autumn and winter was very remarkable. Small, under-sized fish of little or no market value had become fine Plaice, of good size and in excellent comelition. The preceding diagram (Fig. (i) shows the growth of these transplanted fish, compared with the growth of fish of the same size which had remained on the inshore grounds. Taking the figures for, say, the following Jannary, whereas the average length of the transplanted fish was 11 cm . the size of those left on the Horn Reef ground was about 5.5 cm .

If instead of considering the length of the fish we take the percentage increase of weight the result is even more striking. Whereas by the following spring the fish that remained on the Danish Horn Reef ground had increased in weight by 100 per cent., that is to say, had doubled their weight, those put out on the Dogger had increased their weight by 400 per cent., that is to say, they were five times as heary as they were originally.

Since well-gown Plaice command a much higher price per lb. than small ones this increase of weight means that the value has increased to perhaps sevell times the original value.

These results of investigations on the age of Plaice and their rate of growth have several important practical aspects, apart from the suggestion of a direct improvement of the fishery by the transplantation of roung fish from crowded nursery grounds to rich feeding grounds such as
 seem that the most profitable fishery would result from concentrating the fishing as much as possible on Plaice of the Age (iroups IV, I and II, that is to say. on fish in the fifth. sixth and seventh years of their life. Before this they are small, but capable of rapid growth and rapid increase in value. After the seventh year the growth gets slower, and as long as a sufficient supply of mature fish is allowed to remain to ensure an adeyuate amount of spawn for the perpetnation of the race, it would appear that from a commercial point of view it is of greater advantage to put the seven year olds on the market rather than to allow them to remain in the sea. They would increase in value very little compared with the amount of nourishment ther would consmme, whilst when they are removed the food they would have eaten becomes available for the younger fishes, which grow in size and value at a much more rapid rate.

In this comection the uye at which the majority of Plaice mature for the first time is important. Aceording to Wallace (24. p. 40) for femate Plaice this "age of first maturity" in the Southern North Sea is five
vears, in the middle North Sea six years, and further north seven years. In the English Chanmel, on the other hand, the bulk of the females reach maturity at four years of age. The average age for the males may be a year earlier than for the females.

We have now perhaps devoted sufficient attention to the Plaice, and will pass on to consider certain investigations into the age of the Herring, which bring out very clearly another application of a knowledge of the age of fishes, which may have an important practical bearing. These investigations we owe especially to the energy and enterprise of Norwegian naturalists under the leadership of Dr. Johan Hjort.


Fis. 7. - growth zones of herring seales compared with size of ush.
(After Hjort.)

As with most marine fishes, the growth of the Herring comes practically to a standstill during the winter. This winter rest is clearly indicated by a ring-like mark on the surface of the scale, these rings being often rery definite and precise.

That each ring really does represent the cessation of growth during the winter has been proved by Lea, by examining samples of Herrings month by month during the year (12), in the same way as was done by Wallace with the otoliths of the Plaice. It was possible to follow the band of summer growth becoming wider and wider, until as winter came on it ceased, and the darker ring was found at the margin of the scales. This being so it is obvions that an examination of the scale can tell us a good deal more about a fish's history than merely its age. We can indeed infer the length of the fish at the end of any particular year of its life, for it has been possible to show that the length of the fish is always proportional to the length of a particular scale. If, therefore, we magnify the scale until its total length from the median transverse line to the edge is equal to the length of the fish, the distance from this lime to each of the winter
rings will be the length which the fish had at the time the ring was formed. This will be clear from the diagram Fig. 7.

Fig. 8 illustrates the composition of three samples of Norwegian Spring Herring taken in March, 1907, and analysed by Dahl (3), by an examination of the scales, into age groups. It will be seen that the majority of


Fut. 8. - Analysis of three samples of Norwegian spring Herring taken in Mareh, 1907, into age gromps. (After Dahl.)
the fish belong to the IV, V, VI, VII and VIII year-classes, the bestrepresented class being IV. The position of the apex of each curve gives us the size of fish most frequently found in each age group.

Samples of Norwegian Spring Herring have been examined in this way every year since 1907 and the results obtained are given in the following table ( p .419 ), the number of fish belonging to each year-class being expressed as a percentage of the whole sample (Hjort, 12, p. 219. Table I).

An examination of the figures in this table reveals a very remarkable fact. If we commence with the year 1908, we see that 34.8 per cent. of the fish belong to the year-class $I V$, that is to say, they are fish which were bom in the year 1904. We see further that no other year-class is nearly as well represented, the next in order being the IX year-class, of which the sample contains 14.4 per cent. Now look at the percentages for the year 1909 ; the best represented class is the $I$ year-class, with 43.7 per cent. But in 1909 the I year-class is composed of fish born in

THE AGE OF FISHES AND THE RATE AT WHICH THEY GROW, 119

1904. In 1910 the VI year-class, with $77 \cdot 3$ per cent., completely dominates the others ; still the fish born in 1904. In 1911 the VII year-class, in 1912 the YIII year-class, and in 1913 the IX year-class still form from 64 to 70 per cent. of the whole population, the fish in each case being those born in 1904. In 1914 these fish still form $54 \cdot 3$ per cent. of the whole. Thus it will be seen that for six or seven years this one year-class of 1904 dominates the fishery. If we look at the figures still more closely we shall see further evidence that a particular year-class may be of special importance over a series of years. In 1910 the fish of year-class V formed $9 \cdot 9$ per cent. of the sample, being the second largest of the rear-classes present. These fish were born in 190.5. In 1911 these 190.5


Fif. 9.- Vield of the Norwegian spring herring fislheries for the years 1896-1913. $15=1, \therefore 00,000$ hectolitres. 1 hectolitre $=22$ gallons. $\quad($ After Hjort. $)$
hom fish belong to the VI class, and again they are second in importance with $17 \cdot 3$ per cent. The class occupies the same position in 1912 and in 191.3, when the fish are seven and eight years old respectively. Similarly the fish born in 1899 form the VIII group in 1907, the IX group in 1908, and the X group in 1909, the group in each case being present in considerably greater numbers than fish of the adjacent groups.

The herring fishery is one which is subject to very great Huctuations from year to year, and to those who have watched the fishery for many years it is a well-recognized fact that bad and good years often rum in
series. Ifter a number of poor or average years the fishing begins to improve and remains successful for three or four years in succession. In the case of the Norwegian Spring Herring fishery the years from 1909 to 1913, when the fish of the 1904 class predominated, were exceptionally good years. with a very high yield, the year 1913 especially being the best fishery during the whole period from 1896 to 1913 (Fig. 9).

We are furnished, therefore, with what appears to be a distinct step in adrance in our attempts to find a rational explanation of the fluctuations in the fisheries. I season occurs in which the contitions are exceptionally favourable for the production of young fish, either owing to an exceptional supply of nourishment upon which the larva and fry can feed, or to the absence of enemies, or to some other cause which at present has not been traced. Is these fish grow up they year by year come to form a more important factor in the yield of the fishery and the abundance of fish caught increases. In the case we have considered the Herrings born in 1904 dominated and rendered fruitful the fishing of the six years from 1909 to 1914 . How much longer their influence will be felt remains to be seen.

What appears to be an exactly parallel case oceurred in the North Sea Haddock fishery, and curiously enough it was again fish of the year 1904 that were exceptionally abondant. The young fish of 1904 began to show in the catches in 190.5, and in 1906 ther were present in extraordinary numbers (Helland-Hansen, 10, p. 33). Nlthongh the case has not been worked out in the same detail as for the Herring, the statistics show an exceptional quantity of medium-sized Haddock in 1907. and of large Haddock from 1907 to 1910. This is just what we should expect from the gradual growth of the fish born in 1904, which were so exceptionally abundant in 1906.

For the Plaice also it has been shown that the abundance of the young brood on the mursery grounds varies greatly from year to year (Johansen, 14. Pts. III and VI), and there is little doubt that the same sequence of events occurs in the case of this fish. though it has not up to the present. been followed in detail.

These investigations, then, seem to give us one of the keys necessary for a proper understanding of much in relation to the fluctuations of the fisheries which was previously difficult to understand. Horeover, they offer a prospect of enabling us to predict the probable course of the fishery some years ahead, for when the exceptional abundance of the young fish of any year has been discovered, we shall be able to say, from a knowledge of the growth-rate of the fish. in how many years these fish will reach marketable size and if all goes well with them give rise to an abundant fishery. Information of this kind, intelligently applied, ought
to be of some use to the practical fisherman. To those whose duty it is to study the fisheries from the point of view of legislative or administrative control, it is of course of the very greatest importance.

As was explained at the begimning of this address, I have attempted to lay before you some account of one single branch of fishery research, and as I have proceeded you will no doubt have felt that a subject which at first sight seemed fairly straightforward and simple developed quite unexpected complexity, and yielded in the end quite unexpected results. This is indeed only the common experience of those who break new ground or explore new territories in any branch of knowledge whatever, but in the case of marine research the difficulties are perhaps exceptionally great and the calls on the patience and perseverance of the investigator are almost unlimited. But those who have been most intimately associated with this research and have followed it in greatest detail are the most convinced of its promise of fruitful result. We must look to the growing intelligence of the larger public, grown wiser, may we hope, in the stern school of war. for that appreciation which will enable it to be continued with the means and resources which its difficulties demand.

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British and Metric Measures.
To comvert millimetres to inches multiply by -039.
centimetres .. .. .. 39.
The following eguivalents will be useful in reading this paper :-
$1 \mathrm{mma}={ }_{2}$ inch.
3 .. $=\frac{1}{10}$,
6 .. -1.
$13 . .=\frac{1}{2}$.

|  | cın. $={ }_{\bar{j}}$ inch. | $25.4 \mathrm{cm}=$.10 inches |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2 | .. $=1$ | 30.5 | $=12$ | , |
| 5 | ,$\%=2$ inches. | 35.6 | $=14$ | , |
| 10 | .. $=1$ | $40 \cdot 6$ | $=16$ | , |
| 15 | $\therefore=6$ | $50 \cdot 8$ | $=20$ | , |
| 20. | $=8$ | 100 | $=39$ |  |

# Marine Biological Association of the United Kingdom. 

## Report of the Council, 1916.

## The Council and Officers.

Four ordinary meetings of the Comeil have been held during the year, at which the average attendance was nine. A Committee of the Council visited and inspected the Ilymonth Laboratory during the Easter Vacation.

The Conncil has to record with regret the (leath of Sir Richarl Martin, Bart., who for a number of years was a Governor, representing the Worshipful C'ompany of Fishmongers.

The meetings of the Comncil have been held in the liooms of the Royal Society, and the thanks of the Association are due to the Society for its hospitality.

## The Plymouth Laboratory.

It has been fom necessary to replace the gas engine used for circulating the sea-water through the tanks of the Aquarimu and of the upstairs Laboratory. The old engine had worked continnonsly, for practically twenty-four hours a day, for fifteen years, so that good service had been rendered. A new engine was obtained from Messrs. Crossley Bros., fitted with the latest improvements. The other machinery has been maintained in working order, and the buildings are in a satisfactory state of repair, thongh expenditure under these heads has been kept as low as possible on account of the war.

## The Boats.

The steamer Githon" is still laid up at Hooe Lake and it is not proposed to put her in commission at present. The eighteen-foot sailing-boat has been used for such collecting work as has been
possible in the immerliate neighbourhood of I'lymouth Sound. As in former years many specimens have been obtained from the local fishermen.

## The Staff.

The salaried staff has consisted of the Director (Ur. E. J. Allen, F.R.S.), Mr. D. .J. Matthews, Miss M. V. Lebomr, and Mrs. Matthews.

The Conncil is glat to be able to report that Mr. I. S. Clark, who left the Laboratory in 1914 as biologist to Sir Ernest Shackleton's Antarctic Expedition, has returned safely and in good health to this country, after forming one of the party who remained on Elephant Island.

Dr. Allen was appointed President of the Devonshire Association for the Advancement of Science, Literature and Art for the meeting held in Plymonth in July, 1916, and delivered an address on the age of fishes and the rate at which they grow.

## Occupation of Tables.

The following Naturalists lave occupied tables at the Plymouth Laboratory during the year :-

Miss Crump, London (Oscarella).
W. De Morgian, Plymouth (Protozoa)
H. א. Holiex, m.sce, Nottingham (Marine Algre).

Mrs. E. W. Sexton, Plymouth (Gammarns)
1)r. C. Shearer, f.r.S., Cambridge (1)inophilus).

The usual Easter Vacation Course in Marine Biology for University students was not held this year.

## General Work at the Plymouth Laboratory.

In the number of the Journal issned during the year Miss M. V. hebour has pulbished a description, with detailed illustrations, of the different stages in the life history of the Copepod, C'alanus finmarchirus. The material upon which this description is based was obtained by Mr. L. I. Crawshay, who reared the animals from the egg, under experimental conditions in the Laboratory.

In the same number of the Journal Dr. Orton gave an aceomnt of the researches which hall been carried out in the Laboratory on races of herrings, and Mr. D. J. Matthews reported on the amount of 1'hosphoric Acid found in sea-water off Plymouth Somml. Two further

1apers by Miss Lebour dealt with the life history of the sea-spider Anophict petiolut", the larvee of which are carried about by medusse, and also recorled the fact that medusæ act as hosts for larval Trematoles, the adult form of the worm found in the jelly-fish being known to oceur in the mackerel.

A paper by Mrs. Sexton and Miss Wing gave an account of a lengthy series of experiments on the inheritance of eye-colour in the Amphipod Gemmerus cherreuri, which was found to be in accordance with Mendel's law.

Huring the year the Director has completed a report upon the postlarval stages of fishes collected off Plymouth in 1914. A number of interesting stages not previously known have been found.

The experiments on the growth of the scales of fishes kept in the Laboratory tanks under different conditions, especially as regards temperature, were continued until the autumn of 1916 . The material is being examined and reported upon by Mr. D. Wr. Cutler.

Mrs. Matthews' experiments on the rate of growth of fishes kept in the Laboratory and fed with food of different kinds have been continued and extended, and a considerable number of data have been brought together, which will, it is hoper, yield results of importance.

Mr. Matthews, working half-time, has completed his determinations of Phosphorie Acid in the sea off P'lymonth. The results extend over a period of sisteen months, showing a large seasonal variation, ant will be published in the next number of the Journal. He has also continned his experiments on the methods of determining nitrates in sea-water. The other half of his time has been given to investigations into cerebro-spinal meningitis for the Medical Researeh Committee, the chemical work being carried out in the Laboratory of the Association.

Miss M. I'. Lebour has carried ont for a complete year the periodical examination of the micro-plankton found at the mouth of Plymouth Sound. The material has been obtained by centrifuging samples of sea-water taken at different depths, and the results have been worked out quantitatively. At the same time samples of plankton taken with ordinary silk tow-nets have been examined. Miss Lebour's work has added greatly to our knowledge of the smallest plankton organisms and many new records have been obtained, especially amongst the Peridinidæ. A full accomnt of this work has been prepared for publieation in the Jommal.

Niss Lehour has since commenced to study the actual food found in larval and post-larval fishes, which feed upon plankton organisms. This is largely a new field of investigation, which is already giving promise of results of considerable interest.

Mr. W. De Morgan has been again engaged in studying the marine protozoa, and Mrs. E. W. Sexton has extended and developed the studies on the Mendelian inheritance of eye-colonr in Ciammarus referred to above.

## Published Memoirs.

The following papers, either wholly or in part the onteone of work done at the Laboratory, have been lmblished elsewhere than in the Jomrnal of the Association :-

Dutcas, F. Mabetis. Studies in Murine Biology. Journ. Roy. Micr. Soc., 1916, 11. $257-261$.

Kramp, 1. L. Spontaneous Fission in Hylroids. Vidensk. Meddel. fra Danske naturl. Foren., Bl. 67, 1915, 1p. 211-219.

Milmews. A. The Derelopment of Alcyonium digitatum, with some notes on the Early ('olony Formution. Quart. Jour. Micr. Sci., vol. 62, 1916, 11). 43-94.

## The Library.

The thanks of the Association are due to numerons Government Iepartments, Universities and other institutions at home and abroad for copies of books and eurrent numbers of periodicals presented to the Library. The list is similar to that published in the Reports of Comucil of former years. A number of authors have been good enough to seml reprints of their papers for the Library, and to these also thanks are due.

## Donations and Receipts.

The receipts for the year inchude a grant from H.M. Treasury of $£ 500$, being on account of the war one-half of the sum granted in recent years, a grant from the Board of Agriculture and Fisheries' Development Fund ( $£ 400$ ), and one from the Fishmongers' Company ( $\mathcal{L} 600$ ). In addition to these grants there have been received Annual Subseriptions ( $£ 104$ ), lient of Tables in the Laboratory, including $£ 25$ from the University of London and £20 from the Trustees of the Ray Limkester Fund (£50); Sale of Specimens (£313) and Admission to Tank Roon (£89).

## Vice-Presidents, Officers, and Council.

The following is the list of gentlemen proposed by the Council for election for the year 1917-18 :-

President.
Sir E. Ray Lanke.ter, k.c.b., ll.d., f.r.s.
Vice-Presidents.

The Duke of Bedford, k.
The Earl of Decie, f.r.s.
The Earl of Stradbroke, c.v.o., c.b.
Lord Montagu of Beaclieu.
Lord Walsingham, f.r.s.
The Right Hon. A. J. Balfour, m.p., f.r.s.

The Right Hon. Austen ('hamberhaln, mit'.
W. Astor, Esif., 3. P.
G. A. Boulenger, Es!., f.r.s.
A. R. Steel-Mattland, Esq., M.p.

Rev. C'anon Norman, d.c.l., f.r.s.
Edwin ITaterhouse, Esq.

## Members of Council.

Prof. If. M. Bayliss, f.r.s.
E. T. Browne, Esq.
L. IV. Byrne, Esi.
IV. C. De Morgan, EnI.

Prof. H. J. Fleure, d.ss.
E. S. Goodrich, Esq., D.sic., F.r.s.
E. W. L. Holt, Es!.

Prof. E. W. MacBride, f.r.s.
13. (i. Matrice, Risi., cob.
P. Chalmers Mitchell, Esq., d.sce, E.R.s.
C. (. Morley, Esil.
F. A. Potts, Esq.
( $\because$ Tate Refian, Riq., f.r.s.
Prof. D'Arcy Wh. Thompsen, c.b., f.r.s.

> Thuirman of Council.
> A. E. Shipley, Esfl., d.sc., f.r.s.

Hom. Ticusurer.
George Evans, Esq., 1 Wood Street, London, E.C. 2.

## Hon. Secretary.

E. J. Allen, Esf., D.sc., f.r.s., The Laboratory, Citadel Hill, Plymouth.

The following Governors are also members of the Council :-
G. P. Binder, Esq., Si:d.

Sii Matthew I. Joyce (Prime Warden of the Fishmongers' Company).
The Earl of Portsmoutit (Fishmongers' Company).
The Hon. Nathaniel Charles Rothschild (Fishmongers' Company).
T. T. Grea, Esf. (Fishmongers' Co.).

George Evans, Esq. (FishmongerCompany).
Prof. G. C. Bourne, d.Sc., f.r.s. (Oxford University).
A. E. Shiplex, Esif., D.Sc., f.r.s. (Camhridge University).
Prof. W. A. Herdman, d.sc., f.r.s. (British Association).


## OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.



# The Food of Post-Larval Fish. 

By<br>Marie V. Lebour, D.Sc.<br>Niturulist at the PTymouth Laborutory.

## With Figures $1-7$ in the Text.

## CONTENTS

page
Introduction ..... 434
Labrus bergylta ..... 439
Caranx trachurus ..... 439
Scomber scomber ..... 439
Trachinus vipera ..... 440
Lophius piscatorins ..... 440
Cottus bubalis ..... 440
Trigla gurnardus ..... 440
Agonus cataphractus. ..... 440
Blennius galerita ..... 441
Blennius gattorugine ..... 441
Gobius minutus ..... 441
Gobius sp. (a) ..... 411
Gobius sp. (b) ..... 441
Crystallogobius Nilssoni ..... 442
Callionymus lyra ..... 442
Cyclogaster Montagui ..... 442
Cyclopterus lampus ..... 442
Lepadogaster Candollei ..... 442
Lepadogaster gouani ..... 443
Rhamphistoma belone ..... 443
Pleuronectidze ..... 443
Solea rulgaris ..... 445
Solea lascaris ..... 446
Solea variegata ..... 446
Pleuronectes limanda ..... 450
l'leuronectes flesus. ..... 450
Pleuroncetes microcephalus ..... 451
Arnoglossus sp. ..... 451
Rhombus maximus ..... 452
Rhombus levis ..... 452
Zengopterus punctatus ..... 452
Zeugopterus unimaculatus ..... 452
Scophthalmus norvegicus ..... 453
Gadictæ ..... 454
Gadus morrhua PABE ..... 454
Gadus merlangus ..... 4.5
Gadus luscus ..... $\ddagger 55$
Gadus pollachius ..... 455
Gadus minutus ..... 4.5
Onos mustela. ..... 456
Ammodytes tobianus ..... 456
Ammodytes lanceolatus ..... 456
Gasterosteus spinachia ..... 456
Syngnathus acus ..... 456
Syngnathus rostellatus ..... 457
Nerophis lumbriciformis ..... 457
Clupea harengus ..... 457
Clupea sprattus ..... 459
Literature ..... 460
Table of Post-larval fish from tow-nets ..... 461

Although much investigation has been made on the food of adult fish the information as to the food of the very young is scattered and fragmentary. It is the purpose of this paper to report on the food of a number of post-larval fish which have been examined fresh from the tow-nettings through the year 1917 from Plymouth Sound within the Breakwater and outside as far as the region of the Panther and Knap Buoys (about $2 \frac{1}{2}$ miles from the shore) and occasionally from (awsand Bay. The food of a number of preserved post-larval fish has also been investigated which were taken in the Young Fish Trawl in 1911 and reported on by Dr. Allen (1917). These latter were mostly examined as mounted and cleared preparations, the food usually being plainly seen. Others from this lot were examined by dissecting out the alimentary canal-a method not so satisfactory for preserved material although answering very well for the fresh fish which were all examined by this latter method.

A systematic examination of post-larval fish from tow-nettings was made by A. Scott (1906), who used the above methods, but the number examined was not large. Herdman (1893-1898) had also previously noted the contents of the alimentary canal in several young fish, chiefly those beyond the post-larval stages. Petersen $(1894,1917)$ also notes the food of young fish, especially Pleuronectida. Other records have chiefly to do with the food of artificially reared fish, when the food picked out by the post-larval fish from plankton given to them is noted.

In all these records it is found that the Copepoda form the chief food of nearly all larval and post-larval fish with other Entomostraca and Mollusk larvæ. It now seems to be a well established fact that the majority of young fish eat the small animals from the plankton more than the diatoms and other unicellular organisms, except in cases of some of the very young fish which have been found to eat diatoms before taking to animal food (Kyle (1898) found Dab from 10 to 16 mm . with
stomachs full of diatoms), and in the few exceptional cases of fish which are true vegetarians. As examples of these latter cases Herdman (1912) shows that post-larval plaice first feed on diatoms before taking animal food; Dannevig (1897 and 1898) also found that the young plaice first took diatoms and in some cases Infusoria. The Grey Mullet which is herbivorous, with its mouth-parts adapted for browsing, eats in its post-larval stage according to Cunningham (1890) chiefly diatoms, although A. Scott (1898) has found that the older young eat Copepods as well as diatoms. Professor S. A. Forbes (1882-1884) shows that the young Whitefish (Coregonus clupeiformis) in a tank with only regetable food nearly all died, whilst they fed eagerly on Entomostraca. Even before the yolk is absorbed a pair of small teeth are developed, well adapted for seizing animal food such as these small Crustacea (chiefly Copepods). Young herring take Mollusk larvæ before the yolk is absorbed, as do also the pipe-fish, Nerophis lumbriciformis, which hatched in a jar in the laboratory. Mollusk larvæ seem often to be taken very early, even before Copepods.

That a certain amount of selection of food takes place is evident from previous records and from our own observations. Dannevig (1897) states that only one species at one time was eaten by the baby plaice although different individuals might eat different species. It seemed as though one individual got used to a certain food and stuck to it for a time. Petersen (1894) shows that the Dab, living with the Plaice, selects Copepods of other species from those chosen by the latter fish, and Herdman shows that the natural food of fish is often that which is not most frequently present, so that the fish must hunt for it.

The following records show that certain fish undoubtedly prefer certain food; frequently two or three fish will like the same kind. For instance, Solea variegata and the few Solea vulgaris examined like the same food as the Dab, e.g. chiefly Podon, Temore and Euterpina, so that it may well be that the very abundant Dab takes away, in its very young stages, the food from its more valuable relatives. It is to be noted, however, that whereas Solea eats Crustacea as big as Temora almost at once, the Dab, Pleuronectes limanda, has a period up to about 5 mm . when no Crustacea are found in its alimentary canal, so that it most probably first eats softer food. It is not in the least the case that all Pleuronectids eat the same food, for one of the Top-knots, Scophthalmus norvegicus, specially eats Pseudocalanus, which is only very rarely found in the Soles and Dab, and Arnoglossus although not eating Copepods for some time also likes Pseudocalanus. Podon, probably P. intermedius, is a favourite with many young fish, and is often taken by the very young ones before Copepods; probably it is more easily digested. It heads the list of the food of post-larval fish in these records.

As regards the Copepods, we naturally find that the fish with the smallest mouths eat the smallest forms, both large and small being eaten by those with large mouths. Thus Arnoglossus up to about 20 mm . having a small mouth does not take larger forms than Psendocalanus, whereas Solea variegata at 4 mm . can eat full-grown Temora, and Scophthalmus norvegicus at 4.5 mm . can eat full-grown Metridia lucens. It is a striking fact that Colomus finmarchicus, which is abundant, is eaten very little by these post-larval fish. It is apparently too large for any but the fair-sized young ones. The nauplii are seen oftener as food for the small ones, and probably are frequently among the unidentifiable Copepod remains. Fish canght in the act of swallowing Copepods always show the tail sticking out of the mouth, so that they are swallowed head first.

The commonest food in order of frequency is the following : Podon (probably intermedius), Pseuloculanus elongatus, Temora longicornis and Euterpina acutifrons in the proportion of $6: 4: 3: 2$, Metridia lucens and Balamus nouplii coming next, and afterwards other Copepods such as Oncaa sp., Acartia sp. Corycaus anylicus, Centropages typicus, Calanus finmarchicus in order, with nanplii especially of Temora and in very few cases Microsetella norvegica, Harpacticus uniremis, Longipedia Scotti, Isius claripes, Idya furcata, Oithona similis and Anomalocera pattersoni. Cypris stayes of Butanus occurred at certain times and Evalne sp. Podon and Evadne are not found in the winter but most of the fish that had eaten Podon were in summer hauls, and the Balamus nauplii which swarm in spring, begimning in February, were chiefly taken by young herring. The Copepods most frequently taken as food are amongst the commonest in the ordinary tow-nettings, although the Harpacticid Euterpina acutifrons oceurs much more frequently in fish than in the tow-nettings, and the Oncaa (probably media) has not been taken with the tow-nets here. These two and Metridia lucens are evidently commoner outside, and the hauls in which the fish were taken which had chiefly eaten these were from the region of the Eddystone and Rame Head, the other common forms, Podon, Temora and Pseudocalanus also evidently abounding there. Besides Copepods and Cladocera small ova were frequently found in the fishes, especially the Pleuronectids and Herring ; these were spherical and usually measured about 0.2 mm . in diameter. The very young fish frequently contained only these.

Very few unicellular organisms besides these ova were found in the Toung fish. Diatoms when present were sometimes in the Copepods eaten or in their frecs. but not very often free in the alimentary canal. In one instance a perfect specimen of a Coccosphera was found in a Pouting, Gadus luscus. On another occasion a young Ammodytes contained several Rhizosolenia Shrubsolei.

To show that a certain amount of selection clues take place a list was made of the food inside the fish from 2 hauls, and the food of each fish noted. For this purpose Hauls XIII and XIIIa were selected, both with the Young Fish Trawl, 1914. Haul XIII May 19th, 11.35 p.m. Midiwater, Eddystone, N. $6 \frac{1}{2}, 39$ fins. Haul XIIIa May 22nd, Eddrstone. S.W. 3 miles, 28 fms.

Haul XIII.

Contained the following fish :-
406 Cluper sp.
1 Ammodytes sp.
8 Gadus merlangus.
7 G. luscus.
158 G. minutus.
5 Onos mustela.
1 Labrus beryylta.
70 Pleuronectes limanda.
55 P. microcephalus.
These contained the following food :-

Diatomacee.
Paralicu sulcata.
Pleurosigma sp.
NTavicula sp.
Guinardia flaccida.
Lauderia boreatis.
Peridiniales.
Dinophysis sp.
Diplopsalis lenticula.
Prorocentrum micans.
Peridinium ouatum.
P. pallidum.
$P$. cerasus.
$P$. sp.
Infusoria.
Tintinnopsis rentricosa.

1 Arnoylossus sp.
8t Scophthalmus norvegicus.
1 Zengopterus umimaculatus.
4 Z. penctatus.
48 Solea viarieyata.
5) Gobius sp.
1.50 C'rystallogobius Nillsoni.

13 Trigla sp.
20 C'ellionymus Tyra.
('irripedia.
Balames nauplii and cypris stages.
('ladocera.
Podon (cf. intermedius).
C'opepoda.
Calanus firmarchicus.
Pseudocatanus elongatus.
IIetridia lucens.
Paracalanus parvus.
Temora longicomis.
Acartia (cf. Clausi).
Oncea (cf. media).
Coryceus anglicus.
Euterpint acutifrons.
Also ova.

The Diatoms and Peridiniales were nearly all inside the (inpepods. The Copepods chiefly taken were Pseudocalanus, Temora, Euterpinu and Metridia. Solea variegata and Plewroncetes limanda ate chiefly Podon and Temora, Solea also eating Euterpina, Oncaa, Coryctus and Balanus larvæ, neither containing Pseudocalams. On the other hand Pseudocalanus was the chief food of Scophthutmus norvegicas, which hardly ever took Temora, but in addition to Pseudocalanus contained

Metridia and occasionally Podon, Acartia, Paracalanus, Oncaa and Euterpina. Pseudocalanus was also almost the only food of Gadus minutus and $G$. merlangus. The Clupea were all empty and no food was found in Pleuronectes microcephalus. Those of the Crystallogobius examined (not all as they were almost adult) contained Culamus finmarchicus, showing that it was present although not taken by the other fish. Ca'lionymus lyra eats almost anything. Besides the above food, many of the fish contained ova.

Haul XIIIa.
Contained the following fish :-

45 Pleuronectes limanda.
11 Solea variegata.
1 S. vulgaris.
10 Zeugopterus punctatus.
2 Scophthalmus norvegicus.

59 Gadus sp.
8 Trigla sp.
1 Labrus bergylta.
1 Ammodytes sp.
31 Callionymus lyra.

The fish contained the following food :-

Peridiniales. Peridinium ovatum. P. sp.

Infusoria. Tintinnopsis ventricosa. Cladocera. Podon (cf. intermedius).

Copepoda.
C'alanus finmarchicus.

Pseudocalamus elongatus.
Paracalanus parvus.
Temora longicornis.
Centropages typicus.
Acartia (cf. Clausi).
Oncara (cf. media).
Idya furcata. Euterpina acutifrons.

## Amphipoda.

Apherusa (ef. Clevei).

Thus the two hauls contain very similar food. Again we find that Solea variegata ate chiefly Temora, also Eutcrpina and occasionally Oncrea and Acartia but no Pseudocalanus. Solea vulgaris ate Temora and Eutcrpina and Pleuronectes limanda chiefly Temora and Podon but not Pseudocalanus. Zeugopterus punctatus ate chiefly Temora but also Calams. Oncaa and Euterpina. Again Scophthalmus norvegicus ate chiefly Pseudocalanus, although Paracalanus, Euterpina and Temora are present. Pseudocalamus is also eaten by the Gadus sp. with several other Copepods including occasional Calanus. and by Trigla and Ammodytes. Again Callionymus lyra eats a variety, including Apherusa. From these notes it will be seen that certain fish do undoubtedly take certain foods in preference to others, and this is specially well shown in Solea and I'leuronectes limanda, which like Podon and Temort, and almost entirely pass over Psendocalamus although present in abundanee.

## Labrus Bergiluta Asc. Ballan Wrasse.

Thirty-nine specimens were examined which came in the tow-nettings from both outside and inside the Breakwater, from June to September, and were examined fresh. They measured from 2.5 mm . to 11 mm . the small specimens being somewhat contracted so that they naturally were longer. The smallest were either empty or contained indistinguishable green food remains, those from 4 to 5 mm . containing almost entirely Copepod nauplii. especially Tcmora, with occasional remnants of diatoms (Naricula) and peridinians, with green food remains. At 6 mm . Copepods and Copepod nauplii were taken, one specimen containing the following :-

| 10 Cittarocyclis denticulata. | 2 Prorocentrum micans. |
| :--- | :--- |
| 1 Temora lonyicornis. | 6 Peridinum sp. |
| 3 Euterpina acutifrons. | 1 Lithomelissa setosa. |
| 1 Copepod indet. | 1 Tintimopsis beroidea. |

The larger specimens contained Copepod remains including Temora and Pseudocalemus, and also Podon. Altogether 20 out of the 39 contained ('opepod nauplii or young copepodid stages. so that evidently this, with small planktonic organisms, is their chief food in the post-larval state.

## Carañ trachurde L. Horse Mackerel.

Four specimens of young Horse Mackerel were examined, from inside and outside the Breakwater and Cawsand Bay.* in September and October, measuring 30 to 40 mm . Ther all contained Crustacea, chiefly Copepods including Calanus, Centropages typicus ( 15 in one specimen), Temora and many Harpacticids, including Idya furcata. Crab zoeæ and Porcellana larve were also present.

## SCOMBER NCOMBER L. Mackerel.

Twenty-five Mackerel were examined fresh from the tow-nettings, measuring 3 to 16 mm . from inside and outside the Breakwater from the end of July to the middle of September. The very smallest either contained nothing or green food remains, but one of $3 \cdot 5 \mathrm{~mm}$. contained 2 Temora nauplii and another a larval gastropod. Nine specimens contained nothing, the remainder contained green food remains and Copepod remains which seemed to be almost entirely Temora nauplii. The specimen of 16 mm . with remains of Copepods in its alimentary canal had in its mouth (swallowed head first) 4 adult Temora longicomis which it had probably taken after capture.

[^24]
## Trac'Hinus VIPERA Cuv. Lesser Weaver.

Three specimens examined fresh from the tow-nettings from outside the Breakwater, 2 of 22 mm . in September, 1 of 5 mm . in October. One big one contained indistinguishable Copepod and other Crustacea remains, the other contained one Pseudocalunus elongatus and one Anomalocera Pattersoni. The small one contained 3 Pseudocalams elongatus and one Temora nauplius.

## LOPHIUS PISCATORIUS L. Anciler.

Six specimens from ontside the Breakwater were examined fresh from the tow-nettings in July, measuring 4 to 8.5 mm ., 1 contained nothing, the other 2 indistinguishable Copepod remains.

## ('OTTUS BUBALIS Euph. Father Lasher.

Twenty-two specimens, fresh, from the tow-nettings, were examined in March and April from inside and outside the Breakwater, measuring 4.5 to 10 mm . The smallest were however contracted and probably: really were longer. The specimen of 10 mm . contained no food, one of 7 mm . contained a Temora longicomis ; all the rest, exchang 4 containing nothing, contained green remains, 'rnstacea remains, diatoms or Balumus nauplii. The Batanus nauplii were in 7 specimens, and were in the smallest specimens. Evidently Cottus bubalis takes a mixed diet. One of 4.5 mm . contained the following :-
$\because$ larval yastropods.
1 Biddulphia regia.
1 Coscinodiscus radiatus.
15 Thalassiosira gravida.
Another specimen also contained Thalassiosira, so that here we have one of the post-larval fish which does take diatoms as food.

## TrigLa GURNARDUS L. Grey Gurnard.

Only one specimen of 8 mm ., from tow-nettings in the West Chamel, contained one Podon.

## AGONUS CATAPHRAC"TUS L. Armel Bullhead.

Two specimens, one from inside and one from outside the Breakwater in February and March, examined fresh from the tow-nettings. One contained nothing, the other one C'oscindiscus excentricus.

## BLENNIUS GALERITA L. Montagu's Blenny.

One specimen from the White Patch, 17 mm . long, fresh from townettings, July, contained 5 Temora lonyicomis.

## BLENNIUS GATTORUGINE Bloch.

One specimen from the west end of Breakwater, fresh from townettings, Angust, contained remains of crab zoeæ and Crangon larva.

## GOBIUS MINUTUS Pall.

Twenty-four specimens, from both inside and outside the Breakwater, from fresh tow-nettings from July to September, were examined, measuring 2 to 14 mm . The smallest and most of those from 4 to 5 mm . contained no food, but one of 4 mm . contained remains of Copepod nauplii and one of 4.5 mm . contained a Temora nanplins. Those of 6 mm . contained Copepod remains including Calamus nauplii. From 65 mm Pseudoculanus was eaten and was in 3 specimens, one of which ( 14 mm . long) contained 3 Pseudocalanus and 4 Temora. Another of 14 mm . contained 3 Acartic sp. (probably A. Clausi).

The other Gobius species have not been identified. I have designated them Gobins sp. (a) and Gobius sp. (b). A third, rery small and with orange and yellow pigment, contained no food.
GOBIUS SP. (a).

Nineteen specimens, from both inside and outside the Breakwater, fresh from tow-nettings, measuring 2 to 4 mm ., in March and April. Ten contained nothing, one of 3 mm . contained a larval bivalve, one of 3.5 mm . a Bulanus nauplius. One contained a Coscinodiscus and the remainder had green food remains in them.

## GOBIUS SP. (b).

This is very like the larva of Gobius miger but with less pigment, and possibly may be (i. paganellus. Nine specimens were examined from both inside and outside the Breakwater, in August fresh from the townettings, measuring 11 to 13 mm . Two contained no food, one the remains of diatoms, including skeletonemu costutum, 2 contained $\underline{\text { eren }}$ food remains and one a Balanus nauplius. The rest contained Copepods, all identified being Temora, adult, young and nauplii.

## CRYSTALLOGOBIUS NILSSONI v. Düb. \& Kor.

One fresh specimen from tow-nettings outside the Breakwater, October, ineasuring 21 mm . contained nothing. Twenty-eight preserved specimens from Haul XIII Y.F.T. 1914, all contained Crustacea, 13 contained Podon, and 2 C'alrnus finmarchicus, many remains probably representing the latter species. The specimens measured from 26 to 37 mm .

## CALLIONYMUS LYRA L. Dragonet.

Fortr-six fresh specimens from the tow-nettings were examined, from both inside and outside the Breakwater from March to October, from $1 \%$ to 8 mm . Up to 2 mm . yolk was present but diatoms or green food was sometimes present. Coscinodiscus excentricus and C.sp. Paralia sulcata, Naviculu sp. and Pleurosigma sp. Were present, at 3 mm . Euterpina was eaten. Balanus nauplii occasionally. Many of these small ones were empty.

222 preserved specimens from the Young Fish Trawl 1914 were examined, from 3 to 13 mm . At 35 mm . Pseudoculanus is eaten. After that a variety of Copepods including Oncaca. Euterpina, Corycaus, Temora, Idya. Paracalanus, Calanus and C'entropages, with occasional Podon and Apherusa, also ova. The commonest Copepods taken are Pseudocalanus and Euterpina. Temora coming next. Callionymus lyra is thus a very miscellaneous feeder, begimning with diatoms when very young and soon teeding almost exclusively on Copepods.

## CYCLOGASTER MONTAGUI Donov.

Four specimens from both inside and outside the Breakwater, March and April, $3 \cdot 5$ to 4.5 mm . Two contained nothing: one, diffuse brownish food remains, and one, remains of Crustacea.

## CYCLOPTERUS LUMPUS L. Lump Sucker.

'I'wo specimens from amongst the Zostera ontside the Breakwater in July and August, 15 and 18 min . That of 15 mm . contained 5 Amphipoda indet., and 1 Harpacticus uniremis, the other contained remains of Eupuyurus larve and other larval decapods.

## LEPADOG_ASTER CANDOLLEI. Risso.

Nine specimens from both within and outside the Breakwater, July and Augnst, 4 to 8 mm . One of 4 mm . contained two young Temora, all the others (except one with nothing in it) contained remains of Copepods, including Temora nauplii and Harpacticids.

## LEPADOGASTER GOUANI Lacep.

Five specimens from outside the Breakwater, August and October, 4 to 6 mm . The largest contained 1 Centropages typicus and 2 Pseudoculanus elongatus, 2 contained nothing, and the others Copepod nauplin and Harpacticids.

RHAMPHISTOMA BELONE (L.). Gar-fish.
Sixteen specimens from both within and without the Breakwater, July and August, from amongst Zostera, 10 to 29 mm ., 6 contained nothing, 6 contained Harpacticus uniremis, the rest greenish food remains and 1 Pleurosigme sp.

## PLEURONECTIDE.

Very few Pleuronectids were obtained fresh from the tow-nettings, but a large number from the Young Fish Trawl, 1914, were examined in a preserved state for food and show some interesting features. Thus tre find they fall into two groups according to the form of the alimentary canal. which influences the food taken in the young forms. In the first group we may place those with a large mouth and a thick and short sullet and stomach; to this group belong Soleu variegata, S. vulgaris, S. lascaris, Pleuronectes limanda, Rhombus maximus, R. levis, Zeuyopterus punctatus, Z. unimaculatus and Scophthalmus norvegicus. With this character goes the habit of taking such food as small Copepods and Cladocera at an early stage, so that the newly hatched fish very soon, and in some cases almost immediately, takes this food. The Plaice Pleuronectes platessa would probably be included in this group although in the very first stages after hatching it is known to eat diatoms and larval mollusks, soon however taking to Copepods and other small Crustacea, especially Entomostraca. The nearest to the Plaice in this respect is the Dab. P. limanda, which seems not to begin to eat Copepods until about 5 mm . in length, although it hatches under 3 mm . On the other hand Solea variegata hatches at about 2.5 mm . and at 4 mm . it may contain a fairly large Temora measuring 1.5 mm . Scophthalmus norvegicus hatches at about 2.5 mm . and still has yolk at 3.27 mm ., but at 4.5 mm . it can eat a Metridia 2 mm . long. In these cases Copepods must be eaten very soon after hatching.

In the second group we may include Pleuronectes flesus, P. microcephalus and Arnoglossus laterna which have a long and narrow gullet and stomach, and these apparently do not eat Copepods or any Crustacea untrl a greater size is reached-the alimentary canal in the small specimens being either empty or showing indications of a diet of unicellular
organisms, ova, diatoms or other microscopic plants. Thus in Pleuronectes microcephalus Copepods were only found in very few and these of the smallest kind in the larger fish, ova occured in many, and diatoms (Navicula and Pleurosigma) and Peridinians in a few. In Arnoglossus


Fig. 1.-Post-larval solen rurieguta 12 mm . long, from balsam preparation. Eyes seen through from left side.
only in those over 8 mm . were there any Copepods (Psendocalamus). Pleuronectes flesus from 55 to 10 mm . had nothing inside larger than diatoms, but often diffuse masses which were apparently remains of micellular organisms. Thus we have a great contrast between the two groups and a correlation between a large mouth with a broad, short grllet and stomach and an early diet of Entomostraca, and between a
small mouth with a long and narrow gullet and stomach and an early more or less vegetarian diet, only going on to Entomostraca at a much later stage. (See Figs. 1-6.)

The large-mouthed forms do not all take the same kind of C'rustacean food, but certain groups seem to do so. Thus Solea variegata, S. vulyaris and S. lascaris, Pleuronectes limanda, Zeugopterus punctatus and Z. unimaculatus take much the same sort of food, but Scophthalmus norvegicus differs in taking Pseudocalamus and Metridia chiefly, forms hardly


Fig. 2.-Post-larval Pleuronectes limandu, 12 mm . long, from a balsam preparation. Right eye seen through from left side.
taken at all by those mentioned above, Pseudocalanus on the other hand being the chief food of the larger post-larval Arnoglossus.

## solea YULGiRIS Quexsel. Cominon Sole.

Fourteen specimens examined, preserved, from Foung Fish Trawl. 1914. 5.5 to 9.5 mm . The smallest contained Copepod remains, 3 contained nothing, 2 were indistinguishable and 2 contained ova. The rest contained Copepods (Temort and Euterpina and Oncta), Balames crpris stage and one contained a Prorocentrum micans. A. Scott (1906)
found in a Sole of $7 \cdot 5 \mathrm{~mm}$., Longipedia minor. Ectinosoma Sarsi and $E$. Normanni, all littoral Copepods. Holt and Byrne (1905) state that between 7 and 11 mm . they feed largely on the larvæ of other fishes.

## sole. Lascaris Bonap. Lemon Sole.

Two specimens only, preserved, from Young Fish Trawl, 1914, 9•z and 105 mm ., one indistinguishable, the other containing Temora and Euterpina.


FIt: 3.-Post-larval Scophthalmus norregicus, 12 mm . long.

## sole.i Variegata Donov. Thickback.

2.21 specimens of the "Thickback" were examined, from the Young Fish Trawl. 1914, preserved. They varied in length from 4 mm . to 11.5 mm ., and as it hatches at about 2.5 mm . some of them must be very
young. Twenty-two contained nothing, but the remainder had a good deal of food inside them, the smallest eating the same as the largest. Nearly all the food was Crustacea and small ova of two kinds, one with a tough sheath, the others without, and perhaps being ova of Copepods. The majority of the Crustacea were Copepods, Cladocera (Podon) coming next in abundance, and the cypris stage of Balanus. Of the Copepods the


Fic. 4.-Post-larval Pleuronectes microcephalus, 12 mm . long. Right eye seen through from left side.

Harpacticid Euterpina acutifrons is the most frequent, occurring in 60 out of the 221 specimens, as many as 5 or 6 often being found in one individual. From May 22nd they are particularly abundant in Hauls XIII to XVII (for particulars of the hauls see Allen (1917) both from the region of the Eddystone and Rame, evening and morning, midwater and surface, and occur in fish from 4 mm . to $10 \cdot 5 \mathrm{~mm}$. long, very often
with Temora longicomis and Podon (probably intermedius). Temora, as many as 6 in one individual, occurs in 51 out of 221 specimens, in all hauls except XVII and XXII (only one Solea variegata in the latter). They also are contained in the smallest ( 4 mm .) and the largest ( 11.5 mm .). A specimen of 4 mm . can swallow a Temora 1.5 mm . long. Other Harpacticids occurring rarely are Longipedia Scotti and Microsetella norvegica. Oncua (cf. media) occurs fairly frequently, as many as 4 together, male and female, female the commonest. Oncat media is a species not hitherto


Fig. 5.-Port-larval Pleuronectes flesus, 10 mm . long. Right eye seen through from left side.
recorded from Plymouth; the iength of the body is less than it is in O. mediterranea and $O$. venusta and the candal furca are different. It occurs in 2.5 ont of 221. C'orycous anglicus occurs rarely, Acartia (ef. Clumsi) and Pseudocalanus elongatus occur once only, singly, and evidently not liked by the fish, as they certainly occur in the hauls and are taken ly other young fish (e.g. Scophthatmus).

Padon intermedius occurs in 76, thus it is the form most frequently taken. It occurs in specimens from most of the hauls, in the smallest. and also in the largest.

Bulanus cypris stages occur in 9 specimens. Larval gastropods occur only oceasionally. Besides the ora, minute organisms such as Infusoria,

Peridimiales and diatoms occasionally occur, generally contained in diffuse masses, which may be from the alimentary canal of the Crustacea eaten. They apparently form an imimportant part of the diet. Tintinnopsis ventricose is the only Infusorian, Peridinium sp. and Prorocentrum micans the only Peridinians and Paralia sulcata, Navicula sp. and Pleurosigma


Fit. 6.--Post-larval Arnoglossus laterna, 12 mm . long.
sp. occur among the diatoms, especially chains of Paralia sulcata. Small bodies, possibly spores, also occur.

Apparently the smallest and the largest specimens feed on the same kind of food, as no difference was found. Also in May and June the months when the hauls were taken, no difference is found. Although so few specimens of Sola vulgaris and S. lascaris were examined, the evidence seems to point to their taking the same kind of food as S. variedata.

## PLEURONECTES LIMANDA L. Dab.

1353 specimens of the "Dab" were examined, preserved, from the Young Fish Trawl, 1914. These measured from 4 to 17 mm . in length. 416 contained no food, chiefly the smaller specimens; in those from 4 to 4.5 mm . no food could be detected, the food taken at this stage probably being very minute. Remains of small Copepods first occurred in those of 5 mm . Fairly large Copepods, such as Temora, occurred from 7 mm . upwards, but not in those of a smaller size. Nearly all the food recognized was Crustacea or ova.

Of the Crustacea recognizable Podon (cf. intermedius) was the commonest, occurring in 427. Those from Hauls V to X and XVII to XLVIII did not contain Podon, which looks as if Podon if present in numbers is preferred, but certain Copepods may be taken instead.

Copepods, Copepod nauplii, Copepod remains and fæces occurred in 382, Crustacea remains, indistinguishable, in 91. Temora longicornis is the commonest Copepod, occurring in 170 from 7 mm . long upwards. Other Copepods were Harpacticids in 52, 46 of which were Euterpint acutifrons, the others being unrecognizable. Other Copepods occurring rarely are Pseudocalanus (in 10), Oncaa (in 7), Metridia lucens (in 3) Coryccus anglicus (in 3). The only other Crustacea recognizable were the Cypris stages of Balanus in one specimen.

Ova occurred in 198 specimens, spores (?) in 10, larval Mollusks in 2. Diatoms, Peridinians, Infusoria and Distephanus speculum occurred occasionally. Diatoms in 13, 6 of which were Paralia sulcata, 1 Pleurosigma sp., 1 Fragillaria sp., 1 Coscinodiscus sp. The only Infusoria were Tintinnopsis ventricosa in 6. Two Distephanus speculum occurred in one of 6 mm . Kyle (1898) examined 30 out of 300 young Dabs measuring 10 to 16 mm ., and found they only contained diatoms (Coscinodisous and others) although Copepods were resent in the water. The present records certainly show that Crustace are taken earlier.

## PLEURONECTES FLESUS L. Flounder.

Two fresh post-larval Flounders were examined from the tow-nettings, one from inside and one from outside the Breakwater in May. The first, 8.5 mm . contained nothing, the second, 10.5 mm . which occurred on May 31st, when the tow-nettings were full of the flagellate Phoocystis, had its alimentary canal full of Phcoocystis spores. Forty-two preserverd specimens from the Young Fish Trawl, 1914, were examined, $5 \cdot 5$ to 10.5 mm ., 15 of which contained nothing, the rest diffuse remains almost,
certainly vegetable, one containing Paralia sulcata and Fragillaria sp. Not one contained any Crustacea remains, and here we have a very distinct difference between the Flounder and Dab and the various species of Solea. The gullet and stomach of the Flounder is long and narrow and the mouth small, which go with its method of feeding.

## Pleuronectes Microcephalus. Donov. Merry Sole.

Only one fresh specimen was obtained from the tow-nettings, West Channel in April, but it was very small, 4 mm . with yolk sac and no food.

247 preserved specimens from the Young Fish Trawl, 1914, were examined, 5.5 mm . to 18.5 mm . Of these 195 contained no food, 35 contained ova; only one Copepod was distinguished, Euterpina acutifrons, in a specimen 10 mm . long. Podon (cf. intermedius) occurred in $3,8 \cdot 5$ to 10 mm . long. Sixteen contained remains of Crustacea, 5 of which were recognizable as remains of small Copepods. One Peridinium sp. occurred and diatoms (Navicula and Pleurosigma) occurred in 3.

Thus the food of the "Merry Sole" is much more like that of the Flounder, than of the Dab and Sole, and its mouth and alimentary canal are of the small and narrow type which seems to go with a vegetarian diet, or at any rate a diet of small and soft organisms other than Crustacea.

## ARNOGLOSSUS SP. (Walb.).

These are chiefly A. laterna. 288 specimens, preserved, were examined from the Young Fish Trawl, 1914, 3.5 to 22.5 mm . long. Nearly all the smaller specimens were from the early hauls (XIII to XXXVI). Most of the larger specimens being from the later hauls (XLII to LXXXIII). The almmentary canals of all the small specimens up to 8 mm . (except one ovum in a specimen of 5 mm .) were empty ; one of 8.5 mm . contained Pseudocalanus, but with that single exception those measuring 8.5 to 10 mm . were empty. From 10.5 mm . to 22.5 mm . some specimens contained Copepods, but very many were empty. 241 out of 288 were empty, and of these 208 were from the early hauls in which only 3 contained anything, one of 5 mm . containing an ovum, and 2 specimens of 14 mm . in Haul XXXVI containing Pseudocalanus, which is the earliest appearance of a Copepod in any of the specimens. Twenty-five contained Copepods, 18 of which were Pseudocalanus (as many as 15 in one specimen $19 \cdot 5 \mathrm{~mm}$. long), one contained Paracalanus parvus and one Euterpina acutifrons. From this it seems that the smaller specimens do not eat Copepods and the larger specimens only eat the small species. Only a
very few diatoms occurred, Paralia sulcata once and Navicula spp. in the Copepod fæces. Here again we have with the small mouth and narrow gullet and stomach an absence of Crustacea food in the young and only small Copepods in the older forms.

## RHOMBUS MAXIMUS L. Turbot.

Two specimens were examined fresh from tow-nettings from within and outside the Breakwater in August, 11.5 and 14 mm . The first contained 15 Temora lonyicornis, the second 2 Balanus nauplii and 3 Centropages typicus. One preserved specimen (mounted) from the Young Fish Trawl was too much pigmented for the food to be distinguishable.

## RHOMBUS L.EVIS Rondel. Brill.

Two specimens were examined fresh from the tow-nettings within and outside the Breakwater in July and August, 14 and 18 mm . long. The first contained Copepod remains indistinguishable, the second contained 7 Temora longicornis, 3 Centropages typicus, 3 Brachyura zoeæ, 9 Hippolyte larvæ and a Nematode probably parasitic. Five preserved specimens from the Young Fish Trawl, 1914, were also examined, all of which contained Podon (cf. intermedius) and one also contained Centropages. Cumningham (1890) found that young Brill of $2 \cdot 2$ to 2.5 cm . ate the young Flounders of 12 mm . and he thinks that they probably naturally prey upon young fish at that stage, when they are nearly completely metamorphosed.

Both the young Turbot and Brill have a very large mouth with a thick gullet and wide stomach.

## ZEUGOPTERUS PUNCTATUS (Bl.).

Thirty-five specimens examined, preserved, from the Young Fish Trawl, 1914, 5 to 10.5 mm . long. The smallest contained ova, but at 6 mm . a specimen contained 4 adult Temora longicornis. They appear to feed very much like Solea, 23 contained Temora, 10 contained Euterpina acutifrons, 2 contained Oncaa (cf. media). Calanus finmarchicus occurred in one and Metridia lucens in one. Ova were frequent. A good many of the Copepod remains were indistinguishable.

## ZEUGOPTERUS UNIMACULATUS (Risso).

Fifteen specimens, preserved, were examined from the Young Fish Trawl, $1914,4.5$ to $9 \cdot 5 \mathrm{~mm}$. long. The food content was not easily seen,
but all except 2 contained Crustacea. One of 4.5 mm . contained remains of Crustacea but indistinguishable. Temora longicornis occurred in 3, Euterpina acutifrons in one, Podon (cf. intermedius) in 3. Paractlanus parvus and Pseudocalanus elongatus occurred in one specimen.

These two Zeugopterus have large mouths and short and thick gullets and the food is much like Solea and Pieuronectes limanda.

## SCOPHTHALMUS NORVEGICUS (GTHr.).

404 specimens, preserved, were examined from the Young Fish Trawl, 1914, 35 to 12 mm . long. There were only 2 of 12 mm . and neither of them contained any food. Thirty-six contained nothing, 34 contained ova only, two were indistinguishable and the rest contained Crustacea, chiefly Copepods, Podon occurring in several. Copepod remains which were indistinguishable were in 55 specimens of all sizes. The smallest ( 3.5 mm .) contained Copepod remains (probably Pseudocalanus) so as Scophthalmus norvegicus hatches at about 2.5 mm . it must take Copepod food almost directly. A specimen 45 mm . long contained a Metridia lucens 2 mm . long. One of 4 mm . contained a Paracalanus parrus, so there is no evidence that the smaller specimens eat anything difierent from the larger specimens, the same sort of food being found in all of them in these samples. A very few contained diatoms (Paralia sulcata and Navicula sp.), which very likely come from the alimentary canal of the Copepods. One specimen of 4 mm ., which contained Copepod remains, contained also Peridinium ovatum, Prorocentrum micans and remains of other Peridinians. One contained Tintinnopsis ventricosa. Spores occurred once. Much more food was found in the specimens from Hauls X to XVI and little food in those from the later hauls.

Ova occurred in 34 specimens without anything else and in 65 specimens altogether. They are more abundant from the later hauls. Apparently when many Copepods are eaten these are not taken so much. All sizes eat them, but they are commonest in the smaller specimens of from 4 to 5.5 mm .

Copepods are evidently the favourite food and are found in 334 specimens. The favourite is certainly Pseudocalanus elongatus, which occurs in 158 specimens, as many as 6 at once and in all sizes from 4 to 11.5 mm ., one of 3.5 mm . probably containing it also. It is very abundant, especially from Hauls X to XVI, absent from XVIII to XXVI.

The next favourite is Metridia lucens, which occurs in 75 specimens, up to 3 in one specimen, in all sizes from 4.5 mm . upwards, in the same hauls as Pseudocalanus elongatus. Next come Acartia (cf. Clausii) in 49, Oncrea (cf. media) in 26, Paracalanus parvus in 25, Euterpina acutifrons
in 20, Temora longicornis in 6 only, and Temora nauplii in 4. Calanus finmarchicus (juv.) in 2 and Corycaus anglicus in one.

It is thus seen that a variety of Copepods is taken, but Pseudocalanus markedly predominates.

Seventy-one specimens were in Haul X and these contain almost entirely Copepods, chiefly Pseudocalanus and Metridia, Acartia also being fairly frequent. Euterpina and Oncaia not common and Podon oceurs a few times, Temora only once. Comparing this with Solea variegata from the same haul we find Solea has chiefly eaten Temora and Podon, so that selection of food must take place. It is the same in Hauls XI, XII and XIII. In XIII Pleuronectes limanda has also selected chiefly Podon and a few Temora. In Haul XVII large Copepods seem rare and in XXIII the fish have eaten little.

## GADIDÆ.

The Whiting, Gadus merlangus, is the commonest gadoid in the townettings, the Pouting, G. luscus, coming next. From the Young Fish Trawl a number of $G$. merlangus and $G$. minutus were examined, the Whiting not showing the food well in the preserved material. Pseudocalanus appears to be the favourite food of all the post-larval gadoids except the very young specimens.

## GADUS MORRHUA L. Cod.

Only one specimen from inside the Breakwater, fresh from the townettings in May, 19 mm . This contained one Calanus finmarchicus and one Temora longicornis.

## GADUS MERLANGUs L. Whiting.

Twenty-seven specimens examined fresh from the tow-nettings, April to July, from both inside and outside the Breakwater, from 4 to 34 mm . The first obtained on April 2nd and 4th were 4 mm . long; one had nothing inside, the other had 2 nauplii of Calanus finmarchicus and one Coscinodiscus Granii ; one of 2.5 mm . ca. contained no food, but one of i3 mm. contained Copepod remains. The rest, excepting 3 which were empty; contained Copepod remains, of which 11 contained Pseudocalanus elongatus (from 1 to 3), "2 contained Paracalanus parvus and the rest were indistinguishable. The specimen of 34 mm . contained indistinguishable Copepods.

At 4 mm . nauplii are eaten and at 5 mm . full-sized Pseudocalemus.
171 preserved specimens from the Soung Fish Trawl, 1914, were also
examined, but the contents were very difficult to identify. Size 6 to $11 \cdot 5 \mathrm{~mm} ., 49$ contained nothing, 7 contained only ova, 2 contained Evadne. and the remainder contained Copepods. Except one Oncera, all those identified were Pseudocalanus, and those not identified were probably Pseudocalanus.

## GadUS LUSCUS L. Pouting.

Sixteen small specimens were examined fresh from the tow-nettings from both within and outside the Breakwater, from January to April, 1.5 to 7 mm . long. In October 2 more were obtained and one in November. The yolk sac was present in those up to 2.5 mm ., and these contained no food, 2 of 3 mm . contained nothing, 2 contained green food remains and one (from the region of the Knap Buoy) contained a Coscinodiscus and a Coccospharasp. (cf. atlantica) in perfect condition. In October one of 4 mm . contained a Pseudocalanus elongatus and one of 7 mm . contained 2 Pseudocalanus, one Acartia clausi and one live Calanus finmarchicus just swallowed, with its tail sticking out of the mouth, apparently having been caught after the fish had been captured.

From the small amount of material available it would appear that the character of the food is changed at about 4 mm ., those of a smaller size eating microscopic food and after that changing to a Copepod diet.

## gadus Pollachius L. Pollack.

Eleven preserved specimens from the Young Fish Trawl, 1914, wele examined, 55 to 24 mm . The smallest contained Copepod remains, 2 contained nothing and the rest Copepods mostly indistinguishable, but 3 contained Acartia (cf. Clausi) and one Temora longicornis and Euterpina acutifrons.

## gadus minutus 0. F. Müll. Bib.

140 preserved specimens from the Young Fish Trawl, 1914, were examined, from 6 to 14 mm . Of these 4 contained nothing, one contained ova, one a Dinophysis sp. and all the rest contained Copepods. 6 of which were indistinguishable, but all the rest contained Pseudocalanus elongatus. Podon, Acartia, Euterpina and Metridia each occurred once with Pseudocalanus. It is quite evident that Pseudocalanus is the favourite food of Gadus minutus and it occurs in those of all sizes examined.

## onos mustela L. Rockling.

Thirteen fresh specimens from the tow-nettings were examined, from both inside and outside the Breakwater, from 2 to 26 mm . long, from March to August. The small ones below 3 mm . had a yolk sac and contained no food, but in one of 3 mm .2 Temora nauplii were present. One of 5 mm . contained ova and one of 5.5 mm . Temora nauplii, 2 of the others contained nothing and the rest contained indistinguishable Copepod remains.

## ahimodytes tobianus l. Lesser sand Eel.

Twelve specimens were examined fresh from the tow-nettings from both inside and outside the Breakwater, from 4.5 to 6.5 mm . from February to March and again in October. The smallest contained no food, but those from 5 mm ., except one which was empty, all contained green food remains.

## ammodytes Lanceolatus Lesaur. Larger Lauxce.

Thirty specimens were examined fresh from the tow-nettings from both inside and outside the Breakwater, from 7 to 14 mm ., from July to October. Twenty-one contained no food, one of 8 mm . contained green food remains, the rest contained Copepods, 4 indistinguishable, Acartiu clausi, Pseudocalanus elongatus, Oithona sp. and Copepod nauplii being recognized. One of 10 mm . contained Copepod nauplii and 5 Rhizosolenia Shrubsolei, the only time that diatom was seen in a fish.

## GASTEROSTEUS SPINACHIA L. 15-Spined Stickleback.

Three 15 -spined Sticklebacks were examined fresh from the townettings, from among Zostera, both inside and outside the Breakwater in August and September, 7.5 to 8.5 mm . Two contained no food, the other contained remains of Amphipods and many Harpacticids.

## SYngnathus acus L. Greater Pipe Fish.

Five specimens were examined fresh from the tow-nettings from among the Zostera from both inside and outside the Breakwater, August to October, 2.5 to 6.5 cm . long. One contained nothing, one contained remains of Temora nauplii and Pseudocalanus elongatus, one contained 9 Centropages typicus, one contained many Pseudocalanus, one Temoru,

2 Acartia Clausi, one Corycers anglicus and the remains of Centropages typicus, the last contained 2 Temora, 4 Centropages typicus, many Pseudocalanus and 2 Paracalanus parvus.

## SYGNathus rostellatus Nilss.

Three specimens examined fresh from the tow-nettings, from among Zostera, both inside and outside the Breakwater, August and September, 4.5 to 10.5 cm . Two contained remains of Decapods, the third contained 3 crab zoeæ, one Acartia sp., 8 Pseudocalanus elongatus and other Crustacea remains.

## NEROPHIS LUMBRICIFORMIS Yarr.

Three specimens examined fresh from the tow-nettings from both inside and outside the Breakwater, August and October, 10 to 40 mm . 2 contained nothing, the third a young Copepod and 3 Copepod nauplii.

The voung begin to feed almost at once. A male with eggs from Wembury was put in a glass jar and kept at a uniform temperature by immersing in a tank and the eggs hatched. Plankton was given at once, and after the first day, when a large yolk sac was present, the little fish ate Halosphera viridis, larval Mollusks and small Copepods.

## CLUPEA HARENGUS L.

1795 larval and post-larval Herrings were examined fresh from the townettings, from both inside and outside the Breakwater, from January to March and again in October, measuring $5 \cdot 5$ to 18 mm . The yolk sac was present in all those from 5.5 to 8 mm ., but it may remain up to 12 mm . in exceptional cases. However, even with the yolk present, from $\bar{i} \mathrm{~mm}$. food may be taken. The yolk seems to stay longer in some lots, as though there were a shortage of food in certain areas with a consequent lengthening of time in keeping the yolk. The smallest specimen with any food inside measured 7 mm ., and that was only green food remains. At 8 mm . Harpacticids may be taken and larval Mollusks.

On January 30 th, 589 specimens from 7 to 12 mm . (mostly 7 to 10 mm .) were taken and all of these, except one of 12 mm ., contained no food, the exception containing one Euterpina acutifrons. Those measuring from 7 to 10 mm . all had the yolk sac still present. On February 1st another lot of 431 , measuring from 8 to 10 mm . all had the yolk sac still present except one of 10 mm ., but 35 contained food, 16 of these containing larval gastropods, 2 larval bivalves, 12 green food remains, one a Harpacticid, one a Copepod nauplius, one 2 Peridinians (Prorocentrum micans and
(ronyaulax spinifera), one a diatom (Paralia sulcata). Green food remains are in the smallest, then larval Mollusks, Copepods coming next. On February 6th, 120 specimens taken are much like the last, even those 11 mm . long. Most of them contain no food, but green food, larval gactropods, larval bivalves, Temora nauplii, ova and Harpacticids were present. On February 9th it is the same sort of thing, but on February 13 th, when evidently the Balanus nauplii hed just appeared, they were taken by several of the young herring. Out of 234 specimens from 7 to 12.5 mm . long, most of those above 8 mm . had lost the yolk, 46 contained Balanus nauplii, 2 contained Pseudocalanus elongatus, 4 contained Euterpina acutifrons, one contained Oithona similis, several contained larval gastropods, larval bivalves and green food remains. It seems that with the coming of abundance of food the yolk sac disappears much earlier. On February 22nd Balanus nauplii were again frequently eaten, Onccea sp. once, Evadne Nordmanni once (peculiarly early for this Cladoceran). Up to March 15th the same kind of food is present and then the Herrings stop, not appearing again until October 17th, when from that date to the middle of December they were caught in small numbers measuring from 8 to 18 mm . but not containing any food.

The earliest caught Herring, January 10th to 23rd, were further advanced than those taken late in January and early in February. Several from $9 \cdot 5$ to 13 mm . containing Euterpina acutifrons, Pseudocalanus elongatus (one of 12 mm . containing 5 Pseudocalanus), Oithona simitis, Corycous anglicus and Copepod nauplii, Pseudocalanus being the most frequent.

A few contained sand grains, others diatoms amongst which were Campylodiscus sp., Hyalodiscus stelliger, Coscinodiscus sp. and Paralia sulcata. The flagellate Halosphara viridis was contained in 3, and possibly spherical bodies sometimes present are Halosphcera. The frequent presence of sand grains and the character of the diatoms, which are all bottom forms although often present in the plankton, suggests that the young herring sometimes feeds on the bottom.

From the above records it is seen that the larval herring eats before the yolk sac has gone, the earliest food being green food, afterwards larval Mollusks, both gastropods and bivalves, small Copepods and ('opepod nauplii, Balanus nauplii and occasional diatoms and Halospluta viridis. This agrees well with records by H. A. Meyer (1880) when feeding young Herring reared artificially. He found the greenish matter, larval gastropods and bivalves, Copepods and nauplii, the Copepod diet increasing as the fish grew. MeIntosh (1889) has also noticed the green food remains in the very young Herring.

## CLUPEA SPRATTUS L.

164 specimens were examined fresh from the tow-nettings, from both inside and outside the Breakwater, from January to May and from July to November, the bulk from January to April, measuring 3 to 27 mm . Those from 3 to 4 mm . have no eye pigment, a large yolk sac and no food. From 4.5 mm . the eye is pigmented and, although yolk may still be


Fig. 7.-Plan of Plymouth Sound. B B = Batten Bay. CB=Cawsand Bay. D I = Drake's Island. $\quad \mathrm{DR}=$ Duke's Rocks. J B = Jennyeliff Bay. $\mathrm{K}=$ Knap Buoy. N $G=$ New Grounds. $\quad Q G=$ Queen's Grounds. $\quad \mathbf{P}=$ Panther Buoy. $\mathrm{P} P=$ Penlee Point. $\mathrm{R} R=$ Reny Rocks. W $\mathbf{P}=$ White Patch.
present, green food remains occur and also in the larger specimens. A spherical body which may be Halosphcera was present in one. From $4 \cdot 5 \mathrm{~mm}$. and upwards the yolk sac disappears, but green food remains are still present, probably from diatoms, as 6 Thalassiothrix nitzschioides were present in one of 5 mm . Not until July, in a specimen of 8 mm ., is any crustacean food present, and this specimen contained 2 Temora nauplii
in addition to green food remains. On October 3rd a speeimen of 27 mm . contained 2 Pseudocalanus elongatus.

It thus appears that green vegetable food is taken chiefly, although at 8 mm . small Crustacea may be eaten. An examination of preserved material showed poor results, although Pseudocalanus was present in a few specimens and also larval Mollusks. A. Scott (1906) records Pseudocalanus elongatus from 2 Sprats of 15 mm ., so it is evidently a farourite food of the larval Sprat.

The tow-nettings were taken with ordinary coarse and medium nets, and sometimes with a bigger net, which although not giving much better results, caught the fish from the Zostera, which evidently were feeding there. These included Rhamphistoma belone, various pipe fish and Cyclopterus lumpus. A small plan is given showing the various localities from which the tow-nettings were taken. (Fig. 7.)

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## RECORD OF LARVAL AND POST-LARYAL FISII FROM THE TOW-NETTINGS.

| Date <br> Jan., | Locality. $1917$ | Fish. | No. | Size in mm | . Food 1 resent. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 10 | West end of Breakwater | Clupea harengus | 15 | $9 \cdot 5-11 \cdot 50$ | Oithone similis, Pseudo calanus elongatus, Eu terpina acutifrons, Copepod nauplii. lar val bivalves. |
|  | Knap | " | 8 | 11-12 $\quad P$ | Pseudocalenus clongu tus, Euterpina acuti frons, Corycceus anglicus, young Har pacticids. |
| 16 | Off White Patch |  | 2 | 10.5-11 $P$ | Pseudocalanus elongatus. |
|  |  | Gadus luscus | 1 | $P$ | Pseudocalanus elongatus. |
|  | West end of Breakwater | Clupea harengus, | 5 | 11.5-12 | No food. |
|  | West Channel | , | 4 | 10-12 $P$ | Pseudocalanus elongatus. |
|  | Knap | ," |  | 5.5-12 N | No food. |
| 18 | West Channel | " | 10 | 5.5-13 $P$ | Pseudocalanus elongatus. |
|  | Off White Patch | ," | 3 | 5.5-12 | Oithona similis. |
|  |  | Clupea sprattus | 1 | $3 \cdot 5 \quad$ No | No food. |
|  | Breakwater | Clupea harengus | 5 | 9-14 Cor | Copepod remains. |
|  | New Grounds | - | 14 | ${ }^{6-13} \quad P$ | Pseudocalanus elongatus, Harpacticids, Copepod nauplii. |
|  | Knap | " | 4 | 10-13 $\quad$ | Pseudocalanus elongatus, Oithona similis, Euterpina acutijrons. |
|  |  | Clupea sprattus | 5 | 3.5-3.6 N | No food. |
| 23 | Batten Bay | Gadus luscus | 1 | 4 | " |
|  |  | Clupea harengus | 1 | $11 \cdot 5$ | , |
|  | Off White Patch |  | 2 | 9-12 | ," |
|  | Inside Breakwater |  |  | 11 |  |


| Date. |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 30] | Inside Breakwater | Clupea harengus | 205 | 7-12 | - |
|  |  | Clupea sprattus | 1 | +-4.5 | No food. |
|  | Off White Pateh |  | 7 | 3-19 | Green food remains. |
|  |  | Clupea harengus | 111 | 7-10.5 | No food. |
|  | Jennycliff Bay | ," | 41 | 7-10.5 | ., |
|  | West Channel | , | 231 | (i-9 |  |
| Feb.$1$ |  | Clupea sprattus | 5 | 4-5 | Green food remains. |
|  | West (hannel | Clupea harengus | 147 | 8-10 | Larval gastropods, green food remains. |
|  |  | Clupea sprattus | 3 | $3 \cdot 2-5 \cdot 5$ | No food. |
|  | Off White Patch | ('lupea" harengus |  | $\begin{aligned} & 4 \\ & 8-11 \end{aligned}$ | Green food remains, |
|  |  |  |  |  | larval gastropords, larval bivalves, Puralia sulcatu, Harpacticids, Prorocentrum micans, Gonyaulax spinifera, Copepod nauplius. |
| ti | dennyeliff Bay | " | 41 | 9-12 | Larval gastropods, Temora nauplius. |
|  | Batten Bay | , | 29 | 9-11 | Larval gastropods |
|  |  | Clupea sprattus | 1 | $3 \cdot 5$ | No food. |
|  | Middle of Breakwater | Clupea harengus | 16 | 9-12 | Larval gastropods. |
|  | Breakwater | " | 34 | 10-12 | Green food remains, larval gastropods, Temora nauplii. |
| 9 | New Grounds | , | 79 | 7-10 | Green food remains, larval gastropods. |
|  | White Patch | ('ottus bubalis. | 1 | 5 | No food. |
|  |  | Clupea harengus | 54 | 7-10 1. | Larval gastropods, ova, green food remains. |
|  |  | Clupea sprattus | 3 | 4 | No food. |
|  | Jennycliff Bay | Clupea harengus | 45 | 8-10 | Larval gastropods, ova. |
| 13 | W'est ( Irannel | ," | 56 | 7-12.5 | Pseudocalanus clongatus, Euterpina acutifrons, Copepod remains, Balanus nauplii, green food remains, larval gastropods, larval bivalves, Hulosphera viridis, Coscinodiscus radiutus. |
|  | Breakwater | Clupea sprattus | 4 | $4 \cdot 5-5$ | Green food remains. |
|  |  | C'lupea harengus | $\begin{array}{r} 1 \\ 60 \end{array}$ |  | Green "food "remains, |
|  |  | - |  |  | Balanus nauplii, larval gastropods, larval hivalves. ('ampylodiscus sp. |
|  | Off White Pateh | " | 30 | 8-11 | Balemus nauplii, larval bivalves, ova, green food remains. |
|  |  | Clupea sprattus | 1 | $3 \cdot 5$ | No food. |
|  |  | Cottus bubalis | 1 | 5 | Crustacea remains. |
|  |  | ( Sobius sp. | 1 | 3.5 N | No food. |
|  | tenuycliff | ( 'lupea harengus | 88 | 8-12 | Green food remains, Balames nauplii, ova, larval gastropods, larval bivalves, Euterpinu acutifrons, Hyalodiscus stelliger. |
|  |  | (lupea sprattus | 1 | $4 \cdot 5$ | No food. |

Date.

| Feb. | Locality. | Fish. | No. | Size in 11 | m. Food present. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 20 | Off White Pateh | Clupea harengus | 6 | 10-12.5 | Bulanus nauplii. |
|  | Duke's Rock | ," | 20 | 9-12.5 | Bulanus nauplii, ova. |
|  | Jennycliff Bay | " | 2 | 11 | No foorl. |
|  | New Grounds | :. | 19 | 8.5-14 | Balanus nauplii, Copepod nauplii, larval gastropods. |
| 22 | Knap | " | 35 | 9-12 | Green food remains, larval gastropods, larval bivalves, Balanus namplii, Onccer sp., Coscinodiscus sp., Hyalodiscus stelliger. |
|  |  | Clupea sprattus? <br> Agonus cataphractus | 4 1 | $4.5-5$ 8.5 | Green food remains. No food. |
|  | Panther | Clupea harengus] | 32 | S-10 | Green food remains, Balunus nauplii, larval gastropods, larval bivalves. |
|  |  | Clupea sprattus | 1 | 5 | Green food remains. |
|  | Penlee |  | 1 |  | No food. |
|  |  | Clupea harengus | 12 | 8-10.5 | Balanus nauplii, larval gastropods, Evadne nordmanni. |
|  | Cawsand | " | 8 | 10-13.5 | Balanus nauplii, larval bivalves, Halosphora viridis. |
| 27 | Panther | Clupea harengus | 2 | 8.5-10 | Bu'ranus nauplii, green food remains. |
|  |  | Clupea sprattus | S | 3:5-5 | Green food remains. |
|  |  | Cottus bubalis | - | 5 | Balamus nauplii. |
|  | Breakwater | Clupea sprattus | 5 | 3-5 | Green food remains. |
|  |  | Ammodytes tobianus | 2 | $4 \cdot 5$ | No food. |
|  | Off White Pateh | Clupea harengus | 1 | $8 \cdot 5$ | , |
|  |  | Clupea sprattus | 5 | 3-5 | Green food remains. |
| Mar |  | Gobius sp. | 1 | $3 \cdot 5$ | " " " |
| 1 | Off White Pateh | Clupea sprattus | 1 | 5 | Green food remains. |
|  | Breakwater |  | 1 | $3 \cdot 5$ | No foot. |
|  |  | Clupea harengus | 1 | 10 | , |
|  | Knap | Clupea sprattus | 2 | 4 |  |
|  |  | Ammodytes tobianus | 1 | 4.5 | Green food remains. |
|  | Panther | Clupea harengus | 1 | 6 | No food. |
|  |  | Clupea sprattus | 4 | $\pm .5$ |  |
|  | Batten Bay |  | 1 | 5 | Green food remains. |
|  |  | Clupea harengus | 1 | 9 | No food. |
| 12 | Breakwater | Clupea sprattus | 3 | 5 | Green food remains. |
|  |  | Cyelogaster Montagui | 1 | 4 ca. | Crustacea remains. |
|  |  | Ammodytes tobianus | 2 | $4 \cdot 5-5 \cdot 5$ | Green food remains. |
|  |  | Cottus bubalis | 2 | $4 \cdot 5$ | No food. |
|  | Knap-Penlee | Clupea harengus | 1 | 11 | Balomus nauplii, larval bivalve. |
|  | West Channel | Clupea sprattus | 5 | 3-5.5 | Green food remains. |
|  |  | Ammodytes tobianus | 1 | 4.5 | ,. ,. ,, |
|  | Off White Patch | Cottusbubais ", | 1 | $4 \cdot 5$ | ,, ,. ," |
|  |  | Cottus bubalis | 1 | 5 | ., ., ", |
| 15 | Panther | Ammodytes tobianus | 1 | $5 \cdot 5$ | ,. , , , |
|  |  | Cottus bubalis | 1 | $4 \cdot 5$ | 1-1 |
|  |  | Clupea harengus | 3 | 10.5-11 | No food. |
|  |  | Gobius sp. | 2 | 2.5-3 | ,. |
|  |  | Callionymus lyra | 1 | 2 ea. |  |
|  | Knap | Cottus bubalis | 3 | 5 | Baldurs nauplii. |
|  |  | Gobius sp. | 5 | 3-3.5 | No food. |
|  |  | Ammodytes tobianus | 1 | $5 \cdot 5$ | ,, |
|  |  | Clupea sprattus | 1 | $3 \cdot 6$ | , |

Date.



| Date. July | Locality. | Fish. | No. | Size in mn | . Food present. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | White Pateh | Labrus bergylta |  | $6$ | Cittarocyclis denticuluth, Temora longicornis, Euterpina acutifrons, Copepod indet., Prorocentrum mictens. Peridinium sp., Lithomelissa setosa. Tintianopsis beroidea. |
|  | Knap | Calionymus lya | 2 | 7 | Belunzs nauplii. |
| 23 | Breakwater | Rhombus levis | 1 | 18 | Temore longicornis, Contropages typicus. Bruchyura zoæa, Ilippolyte larve. |
|  |  | Rhamphistoma belone | 13 | 10-28 | Green and brown food remains. Harpucticus: uniremis, Plourosigma sp. ova. |
|  |  | Onos mustela | 3 | $15-26$ | (opepod remains. |
|  | Off White Patch | Cadus merlangus | , |  |  |
|  | Panther | Rhamphistoma belone | 2 | 1217 | Green food remains, Harpacticus uniremis. |
|  |  | Cyelopterus lumpus | 1 | 15 | Amphipod remains. <br> Herpacticns unircmas. |
| 25 | Panther | Clupea sprattus | 1 | T | No food. |
|  |  | Gobius minutus | 1 | 1 | Crlanus nauplii. |
|  |  | Labrus bergylta | 1 | $4 \%$ | T'emora nauplii, Nariculd sp. Peridinian remains. |
| 27 | Kıap | Lophius piseatorius | 5 | 45 | Copepod remains. |
|  |  | Labrus bereylta | 1 | 3 | Green foord remains. |
|  |  | Onos mustela | , | 3 ca. | Temora natupli. |
|  |  | Seomber seomber | 3 | $3 \cdot 5-4 \cdot 5$ | Green food remams. |
|  | Off White l'ateh | Labrus bergylta | 3 | $2 \cdot 5-4$ | Temore nauplii. |
|  |  | Callionymus lyra | $\because$ | 38 | No food. |
|  |  | Cobins minutus |  | 4 | Copepod nauplius remains. |
|  | Breakwater | Labrus bergylta | $\because$ | 2.5 | Green food remains. |
|  |  | Lepadogaster Candollei | 1 | 4 | No food. |
| 30 | Knap |  | $\stackrel{2}{2}$ | 4.5-6i | Copepod remains. |
|  |  | Labrus bergylta | 14 | 4-i | Green food remains, Copepod and Copepod nauplii remains. |
|  |  | Callionymus lyra | 1 | 8 | Copepod remains. |
|  |  | Onos mustela | , | 6.5 |  |
|  |  | Scomber seomber | 3 | 5-7 | Brown and green food remains, Copeporl nauplii. |
|  | Panther | Scomber scomber | 2 | 3-5 | Brown and green food remains. Copepod nauplii. |
|  |  | Labrus bergylta | 7 | 46 | Green food and Copepod nauplii remains. |
|  |  | Onos mustela | 1 | 6.5 | Copepod remains. |
|  |  | Callionymus lyra | 1 | 7 | , |
| Aug | gust. |  |  |  |  |
| 1 | Knap | Labrus bergylta |  |  |  |
|  | Panther | " | 2 | $46$ | roung Temora longicornis and Temora nauplii. |
|  |  | Scomber scomber | 1 | 7 | Temora nauplii. |
| 7 | Panther | Onos mustela | 1 | $5 \cdot 5$ | Young T'emora longicornis. |


| Date. <br> August |  | Fish. | No. | Size in mu | in. Food present. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 10 | Knap | Syngnathus acus | $1$ | $25$ | Temore nauplius remains, I'seudocalanus elongatus. |
|  |  | Scomber scomber | 4 | 3-4 | Green food remains. Copepod nauplii, larval gastropods. |
|  |  | Labrus bergylta | 1 |  | Pseudocalanus elongatus. |
|  |  | Lepadogaster gouani | 4 | 4-5.5 | Copepod nauplii, Harpacticids indet. |
|  |  | Lepadogaster Candollei | 3 | 5-6.5 | Young Temora longicornis, Copepod nauplius remains, Harpacticids indet. |
|  | Panther | Labrus bergylta | 1 | 7 | Temora longicornis. |
|  |  | Cyclopterus lumpus |  | 18 | Larval Eupagurus, Decapod larvæ remains. |
| 13 | West Channel | Lepadogaster Candollei | 1 | $7 \cdot 5$ | Copepod remains. |
|  |  | Gobius sp. | 1 | 11 | Remains of diatoms, Skeletonema costatum. |
|  | Breakwater | " | 3 | 12-13 | Green food remains. |
| 14 | West End of Breakwater | , | 2 | 12 | Temora longicornis. Balanns nauplus. |
|  |  | Lepadogaster Candollci | 1 | 8 | Copepod remains. |
|  |  | Blennius gattorugine | 1 | 22 | Remains of crab zoæa and Crangon larvæ. |
| 15 | Breakwater | Gobius sp. | 1 | 11 | No food. |
|  |  | Cobius minutus | 1 | 7 | Pseudoculanus elongatus. |
| 20 | Breakwater | Labrax bergylta | 1 | $7 \cdot 5$ | Podon intermedius, young Temora longicornis, Temora nauplii. |
|  |  | Lepadogaster Candollei | I | $4 \times$ | Young Temora longi. cornis. |
|  |  | Scomber scomber | 6 | 3.5-8.5 | Tcmora nauplii, Copepod remains. |
|  |  | Nerophis lumbriciformis | 1 | 10.5 | Young Copepods, Copepod nauplii. |
|  |  | Rhamphistoma belone | 1 | 29 N | No food. |
|  | Panther | Syngnathus rostellatus | 1 | 105 I | Decapod larve remains. |
|  |  | Rhombus lævis | 1 | 14 C | Copepod remains. |
|  |  | Gobius sp. | 1 | 13 | " |
|  |  | Labrus bergylta | 1 | 10 | , ", ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |
|  | Off White Patch | Scomber scomber | I | $5 \cdot 5 \quad$ T | Temora nauplii, remains of young Copepods. |
| 22 | Breakwater | Rhombus maximus | 1 | $14 \quad 1$ | Balanus nauplii, Centropages typicus. |
|  |  | Syngnathus aeus | 1 | 31 N | No food. |
|  |  | Gasterosteus spinachia | 2 | 75-79 A | Amphipod and Harpaetieid remains. |
|  | Knap | Rhombus maximus | 1 | 11.5 | Temora longicornis. |
|  |  | Nerophis lumbriciformis | 1 | 10 N | No food. |
|  |  | Gobius sp. | 1 | 12 Y | Young Temora and Temora nauplii. |
| 30 | Breakwater | Syngnathus rostellatus | 1 | 45 | Crab zoæа, Acartia sp. Pseudocalanus elongatus, other Crustacea remains. |
|  | Knap | Onos mustela | 1 | 2 N | No food. |
| Sep3 |  | Gobius minutus |  |  |  |
|  | Off White Patch | Gobius minutus | 1 | 2 No | No food. |



| Date. Oct. | Locality. | Fish. No | No. | Size in n | m. Food present. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 19 | Knap | Gadus luscus | 1 | 7 | Pseudocalanus elongatu*, Acartia clansi, Calanus finmarchicus. |
|  | Panther | Callionymus lyra | 1 | 2 | No food. |
| 22 | Knap | Clupea sprattus | 1 | 6 | Green food remains. |
|  | Breakwater | , | 1 | 5 | Tintinnopsis ventricosu. |
| 23 | Cawsand | Caranx trachurus | 1 | 40 | Idya furcuta, Harpacticids indet. Temorı longicornis, crab zowa. |
| 26 | Breakwater | Clupea harengus | 1 | 8.5 | No food. |
| Nov. |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1 | Breakwater | Callionymus lyra | 1 | 2 | No food. |
| 5 | Off White Patch | Clupea harengus | 4 | 11-18 | , |
|  |  | Clupea sprattus | 1 | ${ }^{1}$ |  |
|  |  | Syngnathus rostellatus | 1 | 45 | Pseudocalanus elongatus, Copepod remains, ova. |
|  | Panther | Crystallogobius Nilssoni | i | 21 | No food. |
| 6 | West End of Breakwater | Clupea sprattus | 1 | $5 \cdot 5$ | " |
|  |  | Ammodytes tobianus | 1 | 5 | Copepod nauplii. |
|  | Breakwater |  | 1 | 5 | No food. |
|  |  | Clupea liarengus | $\underline{\square}$ | S-13 | ,, |
|  |  | Clupea sprattus | 1 | 5 | ", |
| 19 | Off White Patch | Ammodytes tobianus | 1 | 4 | :. |
| 20 | Off White Patch | Clupea sprattus | 1 | ${ }^{\text {i }}$ |  |
|  | Panther | ", | $l$ | 5 | Thellassiothrix vitzschoides. |
|  |  | Clupea harengus | 1 | (i) | No food. |
|  | Breakwater | Gadus luscus | 7 | 4 |  |
|  |  | Clupea sprattus | 7 | (1-8.5 | Green food remains, Copepod nauplii remains, Pleurosigma sp. |
| 23 | Off White Patch | Clupea harengus | ${ }^{6}$ | 6-5-9 | No food. |
|  | Panther |  | 1 | 6 |  |
| 26 | Panther | " | 1 | (1) | , |
| Dec. |  |  |  |  |  |
| 11 | Off White Patch | " | 1 | 7 | " |

# A Preliminary Account of the Production of Annual Rings in the Scales of Plaice and Flounders. 

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With Figures 1-10 in the Text, and Tailes I to VI at the end.

It is only within comparatively recent times that it has been proved that the otoliths and scales of certain Teleostean fish can be used for the determination of their age.

Rings of growth, as they are called, are produced on these structures, and it is by counting the number that the age is ascertained, in much the same way as the approximate age of a tree may be determined by counting the amnual rings.

In May, 1915, I was appointed as a temporary assistant naturalist to the Marine Biological Association at Plymouth, and at the suggestion of Dr. Allen decided to devote my time to an investigation of the otoliths and seales of Flounders and Plaice. My work on the otoliths I hope to publish at a future date.

It has often been asserted that the scales of these fish are of little or no value as age determiners. Thus Cunningham in 1905 stated that though summer and winter lines of growth are visible, yet " in most cases the zones are somewhat difficult to distinguish, and it would be by no means easy to form a confident judgment of the age of the fish by examination of the scales alone. The conclusion drawn from the scales must be confirmed or tested by examination of the otolith."

This preliminary account of my work is divided into two parts : in the first I hope to show that it is possible to ascertain the age of Flounders and Plaice by an examination of their scales, just as accurately as by the otoliths, in fact that the otolith growth rings and those found on the scales give identical results.*

[^25]The second part will deal with experiments which were performed with a view to solving the problem of what are the conditions necessary to the production of these annual rings.

## PART I.

## METHODS.

A very few observations were sufficient to convince me that it was impossible to detect with any certainty rings on the scales of either Flounders or Plaice by the ordinary methods of examination. The sclerites, that is the thickened cells covering the scale, were apparently of such a uniform width that it was almost impossible to differentiate hetween the wide ones formed in the summer and the narrow winter ones.

In 1915 Winge published a paper on the scales of the cod, and described a new method which he had employed for his investigation.

His method was as follows: " A microscope stand with mechanical stage and ocular micrometer, and an objective haring a focal diameter of about 8 mm . form the best combination. . . . One or more scalesfresh scales are especially suitable on account of their transparency-are placed on the object glass, their longitudinal axis about parallel with the longitudinal direction of the object glass itself. The micrometer is turned so as to fall parallel with the scales. . . . In order to obtain a curve for one of the scales the instrument is focussed to the centre of the one selected. and all sclerites in the longest radius of the scales then measured. . . . In order to provide a survey of the values thus obtained, the units are noted down on square-ruled paper. A horizontal axis is drawn, from which the measurements of the calcareous plates are marked off in a perpendicular direction, one by one, against each perpendicular line on the paper. On joining up the points thus obtained by straight lines, a curve is produced, which gives a distinct view of the variations in the lreadth of the sclerite rings from the centre of the scale towards its periphery. Where the curve is low, the sclerites have been small, where it lies high, they have been large. A glance at the horizontal axis will show how many sclerites in all the scale contains, as also the number situate between each minimum, and the next. The growth rings are thus shown graphically as an alternation of maxima and minima."

The method given above is broadly the one which I employed in my investigations. The scales were examined in fresh water. The proportional width of successive sclerites is obriously the important factor to determine, thus making the absolute width of each sclerite of little importance. I used the distance between two degrees marked on the micrometer as the unit, each division being 10 u .

The values so obtained were then plotted on squared paper as described above, ten units of the paper in a vertical direction, representing one division of the micrometer ; thus fractions of a unit are easily plotted.

By this method small differences in the widths of successive sclerites


Fig. 1. -Scale curves from two fish, a Plaice and a Flounder. Four curves are drawn for each fish. Note the great resemblance between the four scale curves of each series.
are easily detected, and by it I found that growth rings on Plaice and Flounder scales are as distinctly shown as in the scales of other fishes.

## SCALE INVESTIGATIONS.

The total number of fish examined was 137 , of which 85 were Flounders and 52 Plaice. In order to determine if there were any marked


Fig. 2.-Scale curves of one year old fish. The letters refer to Table I.: the figures indicate the first winter's growth.


Fig. 10.-Partial curves of scales from fish in bad condition.
$\mathrm{A}=$ abundant tank.
$\mathrm{S}=$ scanty tank.
$\mathrm{H}=$ hot tank.
The numbers indicate the fish in the corresponding tables.

IN FIGURES 2 To 10 THE DOTS ON THE CURVES REPRESENT THE WIDTIIS OF THE SCLERITES OF THE SCALE. THESE ARBITRARY WIDTHS ARE GIVEN AT THE SIDE OF EACH CURVE.

IN FIGURES $5,6,7,8,9$ THE FIRST DOT ON TIIE CURVES INDICATES THE WIDTH OF THE LAST SCLEIITE ON THE SCALE BEFORE THE FISH WAS EXPERIMENTED UPON; THE SECOND DOT INDICATES THE WIDTII OF TIIE FIRST SCLERITE PLODUCED UNDEI ARTIFICIAL CONDITIONS.

IN EACH FIGURE THE LINE DIVIDING A CURVE INTU TWO PARTS IS THE LINE OF DEMARCATION BETWEEN TWO PERIODS OF THE EXPERIMENT.
variation between scales taken from different parts of the body, four scales from various regions were examined in 45 cases. It will be seen by reference to Fig. 1 that, apart from minor variations, the scales from the


Fir. 3.-Scale curves from 2 and 3 year old fish. The letters indicate the same scales in Table I.; the numbers the successive winter zones.
same fish are very constant. The personal error was eliminated as far as possible by measuring these scales on different days, no reference being made to any previous measurements before the whole series had been completed.


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Fig. 4.-Curves from the sclerites of 4 and 5 year old fish. The letters refer to those given in Table I: the numbers indicate the succesive winter zones of growth.

Miss Esdaile from her examination of salmon scales found that those taken from various regions of the body invariably show great changes in the number of the sclerites formed. This moubtedly occurs in the Plaice and Flounder, but by no means to the same extent; when it is found there is a correlation between the number of sclerites and the size of the scale, the longest scale having the greatest number of sclerites. Winge found that in the cod there were considerable variations in the breadths of corresponding sclerites of different scales. I have not had the same experience in either Plaice or Flounder scales. It is obvious, therefore, that the growth of a big scale does not consist in making broad sclerites, but in increasing the number.

The scales from fishes of different ages have been examined, and in all cases I have found that the growth rings which they exhibit are identical with those which were seen on the otoliths. Scale curves exhibiting these rings are given in Figs. 2, 3 and 4. Fig. 2 shows curves from five first year fish: six curves from two and three year old fish respectively are seen in Fig. 3: while Fig. 4 represents six curves from three four and three five year old fish respectively.

It will be noted that the periods of maximum and minimum breadth forniation in the sclerites are very clearly shown.

It will also be seen that the first sclerite of the scale, that is the one nearest to the centre is always broad, the succeeding ones becoming narrower as the distance from the centre increases. This is of interest in connection with the view that I hold, that the width of the scale primarily depends on the temperature of the surrounding water. The young of the Plaice and Flounder are usually born alsout the end of April: scales are, however, not produced until a month or six weeks later, thus the scale growth is not begun until the temperature of the water is relatively high. At this period the temperature of the sea at Plymouth is usually between $13^{\circ}$ and $13.5^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$., as compared with about $9^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$. in March. The same fact was noted by Winge for the cod scales which he examined from the Faroes.

Although the maxima and minima of the curves are quite sharply marked out, yet in many scales one notes minor depressions or elevations as in the scales D Fig. 4 or H Fig. 3. These secondary maxima and minima, as they have been called by Winge, are very common and are due, I think, to local variations of the conditions in which the animal was living. A short period of lowered temperature being sufficient to account for a secondary minimum : the converse conditions bringing about a secondary maximum.

In Table I. (p. 491) I have given the details of some of the fish which I have examined. The first column gives the age as determined by the otolith, the second the length as measured from the tip of the snout to the


Fic. 5.-Partial curves of scales from control fish. The number over each scale curve indicates the corresponding scale in Table II.
end of the tail, and the third the number of annual rings which the scale exhibited. The figures in brackets are the number of sclerites produced towards the last and incomplete annual ring. In the fourth column is noted the number of sclerites formed during each year's growth.

The first point of interest arising from this table is the great variations in length that occur between fish of almost the same age ; thus the length for second year fish varies from $7 \cdot 9$ to 9.6 cm ., increasing as the fish enters on its third year of life, so that in one case a fish of 255 cm . in length was found to be but 23 years old. Again, I have enumerated fishes in their third year of life with lengths, 15.5 cm ., $25 \mathrm{~cm} ., 27 \cdot 3 \mathrm{~cm}$., and $32 \cdot 1$ cm . respectively.

It is true that in the normal conditions there would in all probability not be these enormous differences in the lengths of fish of the same age, because the external conditions would be more or less uniform for the fish of the same district. This condition has not been fulfilled, for a few of the animals in the Table, for experimental reasons, have been subjected to temperature variations and changes in the amount of food. In many cases, where the length is great in proportion to the age the animals have probably received more food than one would expect them to get from their normal habitat.

A further point to be observed is that the number of sclerites formed in the scale seems to be correlated with the condition and length of the fish ; thus of the third year fish, marked $\dagger$, the one 15.5 cm . long had but 28 sclerites, while of the others those with lengths 32 cm . and $32 \cdot 1 \mathrm{~cm}$. had 62 , and 75 sclerites respectively. The three fish selected exhibit this phenomenon very clearly, but in practically all cases the same condition obtains. Thus I feel that I am right in stating that on the whole the sclerite formation and the growth in length are correlated.
J. Stuart Thomson, in his paper on the scales of the Gadidæ (p.74), comes to the conclusion that intensive growth favours the production of a small number of selerites.

To illustrate this he takes the case of a pollack three years of age and 27.62 cm . in length. Examination of the scales showed the following number of sclerites for each year : year I, 13 ; year ir, 13 ; year in, 18 . From this he goes on to say: "We have evidently here to deal with a rapidly grown fish, and this fact has expressed itself in the formation of the scale, in the small number of lines of growth for the first and second year. The more intensive the growth the smaller the number of the lines of growth. To compare with this we might take the case of a slower growing pollack, $44 \cdot 40 \mathrm{~cm}$. The scale of such a pollack shows the following lines : year 1,21 ; year II, 29 ; year ini, 18 ; year Iv, 2."
I do not quite understand this statement because, according to Thomson's Table, the first fish mentioned, of length $27 \cdot 62$, was small


Fig. 6.-Partial curves of scales from fish living in hot water tank. In this and the following figure the vertical lines passing through some of the scales are the lines of demarca. tion between two periods of the experiment. The figure over each curve indicates the corresponding scale in Tables III. and IV.


Fig. 7.--Partial curves of scales from fish living in cold water tank.
for its age, while the second one, of length 44.4 cm . was about normal, thus it seems to me as though the first fish instead of showing an intensive growth rather exhibited a slow one. If this is so the conclusion Thomson arrived at is practically reversed, and rather is in accordance with my results.

Cases are often seen where a fish is in good condition, but the total number of sclerites is somewhat small as is also the length; such a one is the $4 \frac{1}{2}$ year old fish of length 27.8 cm ., the scale curve of which is seen in Fig. 4 A . The condition when examined was excellent, and one would have thought the length would have been greater. The number of sclerites formed during each year of growth is, however, instructive; during the first year there were nine, the second eleven, but during the two following years this number was increased to twenty-four for the third and twenty for the fourth year. I should interpret this as meaning that during the first two years of life the conditions for growth were unfavourable, but that they improved later on. This is borne out by the four-year-old fish, of length 26.8 cm ., whose scale curve is seen in Fig. 4 X . The condition of the animal was poor when examined and the total number of sclerites very few, thirty-four. During the first year only four were produced, and but six and five for the third and fourth years respectively. The number sixteen for the second year seems to indicate a period of more favourable conditions.

A summary of the first part of my investigations is that the age of Plaice and probably Flounders can be accurately ascertained by the examination of the scales without reference to the otoliths. Having seen that two distinct breadths of sclerites are produced during each year, the problem arises as to what are the factors concerned in their production, and it is with the experiments which I performed in order to ascertain this, that the next part of the paper deals.

## PART II.

Previous workers on fish scales have assumed that the annual rings are produced either by seasonal variations in the temperature of the water, or by fluctuations in the food supply. I therefore resolved to ascertain by experiment what part these two factors actually played in scale growth.

## IIETHODS

Four tanks at the Plymouth Laboratory were placed at my disposal and into each of these from 12-16 fish were placed; both Plaice and Flounders being used.


Fic. 8.-Partial curves of scales taken from fish which had been fed abundantly. The number over each curve indicates the corresponding scale in Table V.


Fig. 9.-Partial curves of scales taken from fish which had been scantily fed. The number over each curve indicates the corresponding scale in Table VI.

Before putting the fish into the tanks scales were taken from the regions just above the pectoral fin and examined and scale curves made from each specimen.

The length of each fish was recorded and the animal marked. This was done by tying pieces of various coloured silks round the tail.

The experiments started about the middle of July, 1915. On January 9 th, 1916 , each fish was re-examined and scales taken from the same region as before, the length also being recorded.

The fish were then allowed to remain undisturbed until the following May, when about half a dozen from each tank were killed by chloroform, and scales again taken. This method of procedure was necessary because of my having, during the course of the experiments, removed from Plymouth to Manchester and I was unable to go to Plymouth in order to remove the scales from the living animals. The remaining fish were kept under experimental condition until the beginning of October, 1916, when they were killed, measured, and scale samples sent to me.

The experimental conditions under which the animals lived were as follows: the temperature of the water in two of the four tanks was varied, one being kept at a temperature as high or higher than the normal summer temperature of the sea water in the tanks at Plymouth, while the temperature of the other was kept as low as possible.

The remaining two tanks were used for feeding experiments, the temperature being that of the sea water in circulation in the tanks at Plymouth.

## HOT AND COLD TANKS.

The temperature in the hot tank was obtained by running in sea water that had previously been heated. During the first part of the experiment, that is from July to January, the results were not very satisfactory, because the heating apparatus was turned off during the night and the tank water allowed to cool. Although it never reached the normal temperature yet there was a difference of $3-4^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$. between the night and day temperatures. After January, however, a new apparatus was kindly devised by Mr. Matthews which maintained the water at a constant temperature day and night.

The artificial cooling of the cold tank was done by running sea water through glass tubes, which were surrounded by ice. This apparatus was quite successful in cooling the water, but as the ice was not renewed during the night the temperature of the tank rose a little. The result of this was a slightly fluctuating temperature, which was, however, not sufficient to nullify the experiments, the fluctuations not being more than $3^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$. in the summer, and between $1^{\circ}$ and $2^{\circ}$ for the winter and autumn.

I give below the average temperature for each month of the hot and cold tanks, together with that of the sea water in the tanks at Plymouth.


It will be seen that as regards the hot tank the temperature throughout was practically as high or higher than the highest temperature recorded for the normal sea water. Also the temperature was fairly constant from month to month.

As I have already indicated the cold tank records are not as satisfactory : in every month the temperature was below that of the normal, but in some cases it was above the winter temperature of the normal sea water. It was, however, in all cases far below the corresponding one for the hot tank.
"ABUNDANT" AND " SCANTY" TANKS.

These two tanks were the ones in which feeding experiments were conducted and the temperature was undisturbed. In the abundant tank the fish were fed excessively, that is to say, twice a day they were given as much food as they would take. The food was varied, sometimes squid, at other times worms, etc.

The fish in the scanty tanks were by no means so well treated: they were given very little at a time and never more than once a day: it was common to feed every other day.

In January control fish were started whose scale growth was investigated in exactly the same way as the others.

These fish were kept in an aquarium tank together with other species and were treated in exactly the same way, being fed once a day neither abundantly nor scantily.

## RESULTS OF THE EXPERIMENTS.

In Tables II, III, IV, V, VI (p. 494), I have given the details of the fish experimented upon: the ages as computed from both otolith and scale are found in column two; and it is worth noting here, that the age was first determined from the scales and then confirmed by the otolith at
the end of the experiments. In no case was there any discrepancy between the two results.

In the next column are given the details of the scale growth for the periods between the examinations. First there is the number of sclerites formed during each period, followed by the maximum and minimum breadth of the sclerites. Finally I have given the increase in length of the animals during the periods and their general condition.

Figures of partial scale curves are reproduced, the portion figured being that part of the scale produced during successive periods of experimental conditions. The micrometer unit employed was the same as that for the curves in Part I.

CONTROL FISH.
The control tank, Table II, shows how uniform was the growth of both scale and fish during the two periods of the experiment. With the exception of those fish whose condition was not very good the increase in length from January to May is remarkably constant, as is also the number of selerites formed. Also the maximum breadth is between 0.9 and 1.1 and the minimum between 0.8 and 0.6 . Fig. 5, which represents the scale curves of some of these fish, is interesting in showing how closely the curve follows the temperature changes. They all start with a relative breadth for the sclerites of 0.9 or 0.8 , which falls to a minimum in about the middle of the curve, then gradually rises to either 0.9 or 1.1 When we remember that the temperature $n$ January was $11 \cdot 8^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$. falling to $9 \cdot 7^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$, in March and gradually rising to $13^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$, by Hifar, these curves seem very significant.

The growth during the period from May, 1916, to October, 1916, is equally interesting. The increase in length is a little greater than during the previous portion of the experiment, as would be expected. Is regards the sclerites we note that the maxima and minima are greater in accordance with the higher temperature during these months. The scale curves also follow very closely expectation, if we assume that temperature is the directive agent in the production of wide or narrow sclerites.

In the curves of scales figured for the period, January to October, I have drawn a line through the portion where the growth up to May ended. This procedure I have followed in all the scale curves reproduced in the figures.

## HOT AND COLD TANKS.

At the commencement of the experiment great trouble was encountered in keeping the animals in the hot tank in good condition, and several times the experiment had to be restarted owing to the fish either dying or getting into extremely poor condition. This was possibly due to the daily rise and fall of the temperature caused by the imperfect apparatus
employed, because, after January, when the new apparatus had been installed this difficulty was not encountered, the fish in most cases appearing in quite normal condition. On account of this the results of the experiments between July, 1915, and Jannary, 1916, have not received much attention, and although scale curves were made from each fish they have not been reproduced. This is not because they at all contradict the results of subsequent experiment, but because in most cases the fish had not lived long enough to exhibit much scale growth.

Of the six fish which did survive through the whole period, only three were at ali in good condition, the others being much emaciated (see Table III).

From January to May the increase in length was in most cases a little greater than in the control tank, though the number of sclerites produced was practically the same. What is of great interest and importance, however, is the difference in the maximum and minimum breadths as compared with the controls. In no case was the maximum below $1 \cdot 2$ and the smallest minimum was 1 . Further, the difference in breadth between the maxima and minima is small, in only two cases exceeding $0 \cdot 4$. This is of course as it should be, as the difference in temperature during the period was never greater than $1^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$.

The scale curves, Fig. 6 (p. 479), are interesting in showing great similarity ; there is for all a sudden rise from below the 1 unit standard to a breadth of from 1 to $1 \cdot 2$. This width is maintained for a number of sclerites until a second rise is observed near the end of the period. These two rises, I think, synchronise with the increased temperature : first from $11.8^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$., the normal for January, to $16.9^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$. ; and secondly, between the end of March and beginning of April when the temperature was raised $1^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$.

A further point which must not be overlooked is that at this period of the year, fish living in untreated water would be forming narrow sclerites, and their scale curve would be one showing a minimum, not a maximum. This I have shown to be the case with the control fish; a comparison of their scale curves with those of Fig. 6, exhibits this in a striking way.

Of those fish that remained alive until October, the width of the sclerite formed at the end of the May period is maintained constant until a still greater width is attained at the margin of the scale. This, I believe, was due to the water in the tank rising from $17.9^{\circ}$ to $19.7^{\circ}$ between July and August.

The part of the table dealing with this period of experiment for the hot tank is almost a repetition of that for January to May.

I should like to call attention at this point to the two scales No. 12 and No. 15. The first of these shows an abnormally high width, while
the second, though normal as regards the width of its sclerites, is remarkably deficient in them.

The fish to which scale No. 12 belonged was in very good condition and young : this was not the case with the fish from which No. 15 was taken. I attribute these peculiarities to nutriment, but will deal especially with this aspect of the problem in a later part of the paper.

The growth of the fish in the cold tank was, on the whole, very good. Table IV, which deals with the details of the fishes experimented upon, seems to show that the increase in length was slightly greater than that of the animals in the hot tank. There are, however, possibilities of error, such as faulty measurements and the small number of fish experimented upon, which make it impossible to draw any definite conclusions.

The figures of the maxima and minima for the sclerites for each period are, however, striking when compared with those of the corresponding periods for the hot tank animals. The figures are also lower than those for the control tank, though the difference is not very marked. This is, however, to be expected when it is remembered that it was only possible to keep the temperature of the cold tank a few degrees below the normal.

The scale curves, Fig. 7 (p. 479), are very interesting in showing the marked difference between them and those of the hot tank for the period of January to May. In all cases, and this was found in scales not figured, the curve never rises above unity, while in the hot tank it never falls below that width.

For the period January to October, the curves have a tendency to rise; there is an increased width of sclerites for the months July to September, but the greatest width does not approach that of the hot tank fish for the same months.

Compared with the control scale curves, there is similarity, but we find that the widths are more uniformly low.

When considered in relation to the temperature for each month the curves follow very closely the varying changes in the degree of heat, which the water possessed in which the animals lived.

As in the case of the hot tank scale curves we note that these curves also follow one another very closely, only differing in minor degrees.

The results of the experiments on the scales of fishes living in artificially heated and cooled water seems to indicate clearly that the temperature of the water has a very marked effect on the width of the sclerites produced. It is well to remember in connexion with this that the feeding of the fish in the two tanks was exactly the same.

## AbUNDANT AND SCANTY TANKS.

As I have already said in these two tanks the temperature of the water was not altered. The only difference in the way the fish were treated
was as regards the amount of food given to them. As the experiment in the case of these two classes of animals progressed satisfactorily from the very beginning, that is from July, 1915, until October, 1916, I have included scale curves in the figures for the period, July, 1915, to January, 1916.

As regards the sclerites the Tables V and VI shows a uniformity among the fishes of the abundant tank which were in good condition; of those in a bad condition at the end of the experiment I shall treat later.

Figs. 8 and 9 (p. 481) are scale curves of abundant and scanty fed fish respectively. They are very alike in their general aspect as regards the type of curve, and in each set the maxima and minima are produced at approximately the same time and in accordance with the rise or fall of temperature at that time. Further it will be noted that there is correspondence between the course of these curves and those of the control fish scales of the same period.

If food were the predominating cause of the winter and summer rings of the scales, the expectation would be that the scales from the two sets of fish would have been remarkably different : this, however, we see is not the case.

The increase in length of the fish, as shown in the table, is very different, the scantily fed animals not increasing to any great extent. Also the number of sclerites produced by the abundantly fed fish is in excess of those produced by the animals in any of the other tanks.

Figs. 8 and 9 show very clearly the great difference between the number of sclerites produced for a given period by fish in the two tanks.

The last scale figured, No. 13 of Fig. 8, is interesting in this connexion : the condition of the animal was never very good, and at the end of the experiment the increase in length was only 1 cm . ; that is, for a period of nine months this animal had only added 1 cm . to its length. In accordance with this we note that but 13 new sclerites had been added to the scale; thus though the animal had been given the opportunity for feeding well it had for some reason not availed itself of it, and had thus become comparable with the fish of the scanty tank.

The converse of this occurred once or twice with the scantily fed fish, in that some of the more vigorous animals managed to obtain more than their share of the food given to them ; with the result that they increased in length much more than did their fellows and developed many more sclerites. Most examples of this have been omitted from the table, but scale No. 14 for the period of May to October exhibits the condition to a small extent.

In Fig. 10 (p. 473) are seen a few curves of the scales of fish from various tanks which were in bad condition. The first two curves are from two fish from the abundant tank, No. 8 and 9 in the table. In February,

1916, they both died in an apparently exhausted condition. The same applies to the scales S. 8, S. 10, being from fishes 8 and 10 of the scanty tank. It will be seen that the curves show the salient features of all those for that period taken from fish living in unheated water. They are characteristic, however, in showing the possession of very few sclerites, and in having the width of the sclerites slightly less than is usual.

Scale curve H. 15 is the most interesting in showing the predominance of temperature over mutrition in regard to sclerite form. It is a curve of a scale from a fish living in the hot tank, No. 15. From January to May the animal was in fairly good condition and produced 10 broad sclerites: from May to October, however, its condition was bad, but in spite of this six sclerites were produced and instead of being narrow, as might have been expected if food were the cause of width variation, they retained the broad width of $1 \cdot 3$.

In all cases the same effect is seen, that the lower nutrition, leading to a poor condition, results in the lessening of the number of sclerites produced, but does not affect the breadth.

Reference to the tables will show that where the condition of a fish is reported as poor, very thin, etc., the number of sclerites produced is small, but the maximum and minimum widths remain similar to those for fish in good condition.

## CONCLUSIONS.

The conclusions which I draw from the result of these experiments on the scale growth of fish is, that the broad summer bands, which are caused by the sclerites formed during that period being wide, and the narrow winter bands, produced by narrow sclerites, are due to changes in the temperature of the water in which the animals are living. High temperatures, such as are found in the summer months, lead to the formation of broad sclerites, while the narrow ones are called forth by low winter temperatures.

Owing to the temperature of the water varying from month to month, or even from week to week, the scale curves do not show a continuous rise and fall, but exhibit at certain places secondary elevations or depressions, which I have termed secondary maxima and minima. These, I believe, to be due entirely to the above-mentioned variations in the monthly temperatures.

The amount of food which the fish consumes and its general condition does not affect the production of summer and winter bands: the only effect which poor nutrition seems to have on the scales is a tendency for the production of few sclerites. High food consumption leads to a high sclerite formation.

Thus the number of sclerites formed seems to follow hand in hand with the general metabolism of the animal.

Little experimental work on the cause of the appearance of winter and summer rings has been done. Winge came to the conclusion that external conditions were the causative agents, because of the identical appearance of the scales of cod captured off the Faroes.

On August 11th. 1911, six cod were captured and samples of seales taken. They were then liberated and were recaptured simultaneously nine months later. Of these, three fish of approximately the same size were selected, and from each fish five scales were taken, measured and a curve made. It was found that all the scale curves thus drawn were exceedingly alike, so much so as to include peculiar deviations in the course of the curves. Winge argues from this that external conditions were responsible for the form of the curves, because the fish must have lived together for the nine months before recapture, and must therefore have been subjected to similar external conditions, such as temperature and salinity. The supply of nourishment in the water must also have been the same for the three animals.

This experiment certainly indicates that it is the environment which controls the course of scale growth, but it does not show what particular factor is the principal agent.
J. Stuart Thomson in his paper on the scales of Gadidæ (p. 100) states that in his opinion it is the amount of food supply, rather than variation in temperature, which brings about the formation of annual rings in scales. His reasons for coming to this conclusion are two: The first rests upon the evidence afforded by a whiting which was kept in captivity in a tank at Plymouth from May, 1902, until July, 1903. The water in the tank was not treated in any way, and the animal was fed daily. When in July, 1903, the scales were examined the sclerites appeared of the same width, and no winter or summer rings were detected. The sclerites also seemed to be narrower than is the case with fish captured from the sea.

This result is in direct opposition to that which I have obtained, for my fish in the two tanks when the water was not artificially cooled or heated all showed distinct rings.

Also if food were the determining factor one would have expected that a fish fed daily, and which increased in length from $10-20 \mathrm{~mm}$. to 21.5 cm . in fourteen months as Thomson records, would have exhibited broader, or at any rate as broad, sclerites as fish of the same age captured from the sea. Yet this is not so, the sclerites were narrower.

Again the total number of sclerites produced was about 50, but whiting from the sea of the same age showed about 43. This indicates that the animal experimented upon was in good condition and corresponded to my fish which were abundantly fed.

The second piece of evidence (p. 57) that Thomson adduces for his opinion is that deep-sea fishes are not exposed to seasonal variations of temperature and should not, therefore, show annual rings on their scales. In order to determine if this were so he examined scales from a haddock captured from 8-14 fathoms depth of water, and compared them with others taken from a haddock from $60-80$ fathoms. The annual rings were as clearly marked in the latter as in the former.

It should be pointed out that $60-80$ fathoms is not really deep water, and that seasonal variation does not disappear until a depth of 100 fathoms is reached. Indeed according to some oceanographers the variation would seem to extend to a slight extent to much greater depths.

In conclusion I wish to express a great gratitude to Dr. Allen for the interest he has taken in my work and for the many suggestions he has made to me: also for the facilities he has given me to enable the experimental part of the work to be carried out. I must also express my thanks to Mr. D. J. Matthews for suggestions regarding the apparatus used for the heating and cooling of the water in the tanks. My thanks are also due to Mr. A. J. Smith for the feeding and care of the fish during the period when I was away from Plymouth.

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Date scale
was taken
from fish.
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Jan., 1916
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Jan., 1916
May, 1915
$\quad,$,
Sept., 1915
Jan. 9,1916
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June, 1915
May, 1916
June 12,1915
July, 1915
May, 1915
June 12,1915
May, 1915
June, 1915
May, 1915
Aug., 1915
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Sea

TABLE I-continued.


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| $4 \frac{1}{2}$ | $27 \cdot 8$ | $4(+6)$ | 9 | 11 | 24 | 20 | - | - | Plaice | excellent | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Jan., } 1916 \\ & \text { Sept.., } 1915 \end{aligned}$ | captured |
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| 43 | 28 | $4(+8)$ | 8 | 10 | 15 | 16 | - |  | Flounder | good | Sept.. 191. | , |
| $4 \frac{1}{2}$ | 28.5 | 4( $1+5$ ) | 6 | 14 | 7 | 15 |  |  | " | ", | May, 1915 | , |
| $1 \frac{1}{2}$ | 29.4 | $4(+15)$ | 8 | 20 | 20 | 19 | - |  | , | very good | $\text { Aug., } 1915$ | , |
| $4 \frac{1}{4}$ | $29 \cdot 5$ | 4 | 12 | 30 | 16 | 24 | - | - | , | excellent | Sept.. 1915 | " |
| $4 \frac{1}{4}$ | 30 | $4(+5)$ | 10 | 12 | 16 | 18 | - | - | " | good | June, 1915 <br> Sept 1915 | H. July-Sept., 1915 |
| 4 | 30 | 4 | 13 | 10 | 13 | 31 | - |  | P", | very good |  |  |
| $4 \frac{1}{2}$ | $30 \cdot 5$ | $4(+6)$ | 19 | 10 | 9 | 34 | - | - | Plaice |  | June, 1915 | captured |
| 4 | $30 \cdot 6$ | $4(+4)$ | 18 | 12 | 12 | 17 | - | - | Flounder | good | May, 1915 | " <br> A. July, 1915-Jan., 1916 |
| 4 | $30 \cdot 6$ | $4(+6)$ | 14 | 10 | 15 | 8 | - | - | Plaice | " | Jan., 1916 | captured |
| 4 | $30 \cdot 6$ | $4(+5)$ | 18 | 18 | 22 | 22 |  | - | , | very good | Aug., 1915 | S. July, 1915-Jan., 1916 |
| 4 | 33 | $4(+7)$ | 4 | 23 | 18 | 14 | - | - | Flounder | very good | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Jan., } 191 \\ & \text { Sont } 19 \end{aligned}$ |  |
| $4 \frac{3}{4}$ | $33 \cdot 5$ | $4(+10)$ | 8 | 24 | 30 | 14 | - | - | Plaice | good | Sept., 1915 | C. July, 1915-Nept.,1915 |
| F4 | $35 \cdot 6$ | $4(+10)$ | 12 | 17 | 18 | 25 | - | - | " | exce | May 28, 1915 | captured |
| X4 | $26 \cdot 8$ | $4(+3)$ | 4 | 16 | 6 | 5 | - | - | " | poor | Jan. 9, 1916 | ," |
| $5 \frac{1}{4}$ | $30 \cdot 5$ | $5(+3)$ | 10 | 8 | 10 | 12 | 15 | - | " | fair | " | " |
| E5 | $31 \cdot 2$ | $5(+3)$ | 8 | 15 | 24 | 18 | 16 | - | Flounder | good | " | " |
| D5 | $32 \cdot 5$ | $5(+15)$ | 12 | 17 | 14 | 18 | 17 | - | Plaice | " | May 28,1915 | " |
| B5 | 35 | $5(+7)$ | 5 | 10 | 30 | 9 | 18 | - | , | very good | " | " |
| $6 \frac{1}{2}$ | $34 \cdot 5$ | 6 | 6 | 8 | 7 | 7 | 12 | 6 | Flounder | fair | " | , |

[^26]
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TABLE IV
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| 17 | 1-6 | $1 \cdot 3$ | 27-3-29 | 1.7 |
| 6 | 1-3 | $\cdot 9$ | 17•6-18.5 | $0 \cdot 9$ |
| 15 | $1 \cdot 3$ | 1 | 27-29•1 | $2 \cdot 1$ |
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TABLE V
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SCANTY TANK


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 No. of January, 1916-May, $\begin{gathered}\text { Increase } \\ \text { In } \\ \text { in } \\ \text { Length }\end{gathered}$


# A List of the Maritime, Sub-Maritime and Coast-frequenting Coleoptera of South Devon and South Cornwall, with especial reference to the Plymouth District. <br> \author{ By 

}

James H. Keys, F.E.S.

## PREFATORY REMARKS.

It may perhaps be well to say that by maritime species are meant those Beetles whose habitats are covered br the sea for a considerable time during the flow and ebb of the tide. By sub-maritime species are meant the diwellers at high-tide mark or thereabouts, subjected to occasional wettings by the sea, and the species imhabiting brackish pools and wet places in salt-marshes. The coast species comprise individuals living under stones and rejectamenta, as a rule sate from the reach of high tide. and those peculiar to the roots, leaves and flowers of plants attached to the coast, as well as inhabitants of wooden piles on the shore and the denizens of the ooze of fresh-water trickles on the cliffs-excepting species equally obtainable inland.

The Maritime Beetles included in the list comprise eight species, and are preceded by a double dagger ( $\ddagger$ ) for the sake of distinction; the Sub-Maritime amount to fifty-four species and are preceded by a single dagger ( $\dagger$ ) ; the Coast Species number eighty-nine, and are preceded by an asterisk (*).
The Plymouth District has been regarded as including any locality which in a day conveniently admits of four or five hours' collecting, in addition to the journey thither and back. Roughly speaking this embraces the coast line from Slapton Ley on the east to the Seaton Valler (Downderry) on the west.

The writer is fully conscious of the fact that his mork necessarily falls considerably short of being a complete catalogue of the species indigenous to the district, as much of the extensive coast line has never been examined by any collector, whilst his own work at the foreshores of the several estuaries and at the numerous tidal creeks has been limited to a few localities of easy access. A large proportion of the country still awaits the attention of the Coleopterist. That it would repay careful
research there need be little donbt, as the writer has seldom ventured into a locality previously unknown to him without having been rewarded by the capture of one or more species new to the district.

The obscure and unobtrusive habits of Bectles must in this connection be remembered. These characteristics, taken in conjunction with the fact that many species abundant in a favourable season may not be discoverable at all in the following year, render it desirable that likely places should receive frequent visits at suitable intervals, if the local Coleopterous Fauna is to be completely enumerated.

The absolute failure of the compiler to secure in the Plymonth area even a single exponent of the genus Bledius-and consequently of the genus Dyschirius which preys upon it-the ubiquitous D. globosus exceptedhas long been a source of regret to him, and he cannot but think that they will yet be found in one or other of the creeks in the district, and particularly so as more than one member of both the genera have been taken in numbers at Dawlish Warren on the one side, and at several places in Cornwall on the other side of Plymouth.

Of the truly Maritime and Sub-Maritime Coleoptera there is little doubt as to the species which should be included in such a list as the present; but with respect to coast species the matter is not so readily determined. The main cause of doubt lies in the fact that the life-histories of so many beetles are not yet understood, and experience seems to show that species peculiar to the coast in one district are equally at home inland in another. A hard and fast line of demarcation in the matter of habitat is therefore not yet possible. But inasmuch as it is desirable to have authority in support of ones ruling, the writer, in the main, has adopted Fowler's Coleoptera of the British Isles as the guide for the inclusion of the coast species. A little discretionary power has been reserved however, and a few interesting species which oceur with us only on the coast have been inserted in the list, although not definitely asserted by Fowler to be of that habit.

One must not omit to record the successful work of Commander J. J. Walker, R.n., at Whitsand Bay in the seventies and early nimeties. With him rests the honour of having first discovered there such rarities as Harpalus tenebrosus and Psammobius porcicollis, as well as a long list of other uncommon Coleoptera, and the writer heartily acknowledges his obligation to Commander Walker for kindly having shown him the habitats of those species. In later years Mr. Philip de la Garde, r.n., did splendid work in the South Devon District, and several additions were made to the British List by him ; but perhaps his most notable contribution to the local fauna was the capture at Dawlish of the much-desired Arena octavii. It will be long ere the lamentable breach caused by his untimely death can possibly, if ever, be filled.

In conchusion the writer wishes to acknowledge his indebtedness for the assistance he has received in compiling this catalogue to an incompleted manuscript list of the Devonshire Coleoptera, the work of his late lamented friend. Mr. Philip de la Garde, R.n., and he also has to thank his friend, Mr. E. A. Newbery, for valued suggestions and help.

October, 1917.

## GEODEPHAGA.

## *Cicindela germanica L. Seaton, June, 1895̃, de la Garde.

$\dagger$ Dyschirius arenosus Steph. (thoracicus Rossi). Exmouth Warren, Parfitt, not uncommon; de la Garde, three specimens iv $/ 07$, common vii/09.
$\dagger$ D. salinus Schaum. Exmouth Warren, Parfitt, very rare; de la Garde iv/07 and viii/07. Dawlish, G. C. Champion, August-September, 1907. Par, Vic. Hist. Corn.
*Panageus bipustulatus Fab. (4-pustulatus Sturm.). Whitsand Bay, May, 1890, one under stone on the slopes; Tregantle, March, 1905, one. Penlec Point, May, 1902, one rumning on pathway, E. E. Lowe. Dartmouth, spring, 1908, H. St. J. K. Donisthorpe. Shaldon, April, 1909, one in moss, de la Garde.
*Chlenius vestitus Payk. Slapton Ley; Wembury Beach, June, 1898, several by the rivulet; Lipson Marsh, April, 1900 ; Compton Fields, 1901. Shaldon, de la Garde, one under the cliff. Has not occurred to me at inland marshes.
*C. nigricornis F. and var. melanocornis Dej. Slapton Ley. The latter a single specimen only.
*Broscus cephalotes L. Whitsand Bay.
*Bembidium concinnum Steph. Abundant on the shore near Puslinch estuary of the Yealm, August, 1900 ; several examples on the shore, Newton Ferrers, June, 1916 ; in great abundance in the bed of the river near the mouth of the Tavy, 1917.
$\dagger$ B. saxatile Gyll. Shaldon, de la Garde. Exmouth, G. C. Champion.
$\dagger$ B. varium O1. Downderry, August, 1900 ; Lipson Marsh, May, 1910.
$\dagger$ B. minimum F. Exminster, Parfitt; muddy places by the Exe. Topsham, de la Garde, April and August, 1912.
$\dagger$ B. normannum Dej. Wivelscombe Creek, June, 1915, six examples. Dawlish Warren, in numbers, March, 1907, de la Garde (a small form).
$\dagger$ Limneum nigropiceum Marsh. Rare. Batten, December, 1888, one; August, 1889, one ; August, 1890, one; September: 1890, two,
deep in the shingle. Rame Head, April, 1902, three examples. Shaldon, one, de la Garde. Torcross, August-September, 1907, G. C. Champion. Side of the Exe, rare, Parfitt.
$\ddagger$ Cillenus lateralis Sam. Millbrook Creek and mouth of the Yealm, in numbers. Wivelscombe Creek and Bere Ferrers, a few specimens. Dawlish Warren, one example, February, 1908, de la Garde.
$\dagger$ Tachys parvulus Dej. Four specimens, in shingle just below high water, about half a mile beyond Bovisand, June, 1905.
$\ddagger$ Aepus marinus Ström. Generally distributed all along the coast from the Yealm to Cremyll, also found in the estuaries at Wivelscombe, Bere Ferrers, etc. Some seasons abundant. At Batten, October, 1909 , quite 200 under one boulder, 70 were captured. Once only I found them in numbers in the roll of rejected seaweed at high-water mark at Millbrook Creek, their usual habitat being under stones embedded an inch or two in clayey shores. They occur practically all the year round and their larvæ may often be taken with them. In 1888 the insect could be obtained at Tinside and in coves between the rocks under the Citadel. Shaldon, de la Garde and G. C. Champion, August-September, 1907.
$\ddagger$. robinir Laboulb. This species is very like the preceding, but, besides its well-known specific differences, is of more robust build. It occurs all along the coast and may be taken in company with marinus, but I have not found it in the estuaries.

In 1889 and 1890 this species occurred to me more commonly than did A. marinus.

Probably there are alternating but gradual periods of abundance and scarcity in the occurrence of the two species; and I indeed noted that, in 1909, when marinus could be obtained in greater numbers than ever I saw it before, robinii did not occur to me at all. It is not easy to appreciate the cause of a definite struggle for existence between these two species, because, although occasionally met with together, the natural habitat of robinii seems to be much nearer the Laminarian zone than that of marinus. It was in the domain of the latter species that the submarine Hemipteron Aëpophitus was first discovered, and it has always been in that region that I have taken it in any quantity at Batten. In my experience it will be only by the lucky capture of stray individuals that Aëpophilus will be obtained where marinus abounds, i.e. in the upper reaches of the shore. below high-water mark.

Note.-Professor Miall, in his Natural History of Aquatic Insects, 1895, p. 376 , speaking of Aëpus, says: "The eyes are very curious. A chitinous plate protects and almost entirely covers them, leaving
only a small round central hole. The form of this plate suggests that it may be employed as a kind of pin-hole camera. Mr. Hammond, who called my attention to this peculiarity, has drawn it in Fig. 114." I have never been able to find this protecting cover to the eyes in any of the Plymouth examples, and recently (in 1916) I called the attention of my friend, Mr. R. J. Baker, to the subject. Hedissected out the eyes of several specimens and very soon presented me with a pin-hole plate mounted in balsam on a slide. At the same time he called my attention to the fact that this plate was at the back of the eye and not in front, as the description in Miall would lead one to suppose; and pointed out that the illustration of the eye in section in the work in question depicted the plate at the extreme back of the eyc. If, therefore, Mr. Baker is right in assuming the drawing to be correct and the text not so, the supposed curiosity is nothing more than the ordinary optic foramen found probably in all beetles with organs of vision.
*Perileptus areolatus Creutz. Two specimens, Stoke Bay, June 10th, 1917, in shingle by a rill of fresh water. It was in quantity, but I did not recognize it. July 15th, very scarce at the rill, but I discovered it in numbers nearer the sea, where the shingle ended and the rocks commenced, by throwing the shingle into pools formed by the rill, and in which the seaweed Enteromorpha intestinalis (kindly named for me by Mr. T. V. Hodgson) was growing. This species is not usually considered a coast insect, but its occurrence under the conditions noted appears to warrant its inclusion in this list. Dr. Cameron, r.N., tells me that "Perileptus is common in shingle stream banks in the Eastern Mediterranean right down to the coast." The beetle is rare in England.
$\dagger$ Trechus fulvus Dej. (lapidosus Daws). Three specimens on the beach at Rame Head, April, 1902 ; one, Bovisand, July, 1905.
*T. subnotatus Dej. Introduced by Mr. Newbery as British on a single specimen taken by de la Garde, at Shaldon. The insect was shaken out of a tuft of grass evidently dislodged from the cliffs and lying on the beach. Ent. Mo. Mag., Vol. XLVI. (1910), p. 131.
$\dagger$ Pogonus chalceus Marsh. Mouth of the Erme, September, 1906; Wivelscombe Creek, June, 1915; Budshead Creek, Tamerton, June, 1916. Dawlish Warren, abundant, de la Garde.
*Harpalus tenebrosus Dej. This rare species was first discovered in the Plymouth district by Mr. J. J. Walker at Whitsand Bay in 1875, who showed me the exact locality, where it may still be obtained in spring and autumn. Batten, one male, April, 1904. Slapton Ley, Wollaston, 1852.
*H. tardus Panz. Mothecombe, September, 1905, three females. Dawlish, de la Garde.
*H. attenuatus Steph. One specimen, Whitsands, June, 1902, but abundant in the following August. One only Millbrook Creek, July, 1902. Dawlish Warren, April, 1907, one only, de la Garde.
$\dagger$ Dichnotrichus obsoletus Dej. Three near Cargreen in rejectamenta on the shore, October, 1912.
$\dagger$ I) pubescens Payk. Near mouth of the Erme, September, 1906, in abundance. Cargreen, October, 1912, one only. Wivelscombe Creek, June, 1915, several. Dawlish, de la Garde.

* Amara ofata F. Whitsand Bay, not rare. Downderry, E. A. Newbery. Woodbury Common, scarce, Parfitt.
Ab. adamantina Kol. Tregantle, one specimen, August, 1902. Apparently the only British record of this brilliant variety.
* A. lucida Duft. Whitsand Bay. Frequent.
*Calatius mollis Marsh. Torcross, August, 1895. Dawlish, de la Garde.
$\dagger$ Lionycius quadrillum Duft. The first record of this rare species for Devonshire was made by Mr. T. V. Wollaston, who discovered it at Slapton Ley. In The Zoologist, 1851-2, p. 3619, he says: "Its habits are very remarkable . . . it selects the driest and most barren shingle at a distance from the beach, so loose and bare that even weeds are unable to exist upon it-where the insect may be seen darting from beneath in the clear sunshine, and as suddenly disappearing. . . . It is difficult to speculate on what a voracious insect like the present can feed in such a position; for the smaller animals in a pebble ridge, so dry and shifting as to refuse nourishment to even a blade of grass, and having more the appearance in fact of a recently opened gravel-pit than anything else, cannot be very numerous." I have several times searehed for the insect in the shingles on the marine side of the Ley in vain ; but I have taken it on two or three occasions in the shingle, close up to the rocks on the shore from Toreross to the Beesands, in the months of August and May. The examples were almost entirely the aberrant forms, none was a well-marked typical quadrillum.

In May, 1915, I discovered Lionychus at Downderry, Comwall, darting about amongst the shingle at the foot of the sloping slaty rocks at high-tide mark. Seven typical forms, six with the posterior pair of spots very small, one with the latter just discernible, and two aberations were taken. Remembering Wollaston's remarks, I watched the behaviour of the insects very carefully. They not only
appeared and disappeared with rapidity in the gravel, but also darted abont like flashes of light in the sunshine on the rocks close above it. When hard pressed in the chase, they made for joints in the slate in a way which convinced me they were quite familiar with the shelter to be obtained between the layers; and it was not always easy to dislodge them without injury when once they had reached their goal. It was not convenient for me to visit this locality again until August, 1916, when a most careful and prolonged search for some hour and a half failed to reveal a single specimen ; but, by opening up the lamellæ of the slate rock below high-tide mark, I secured some half-dozen mature examples. There is little doubt that these specimens had bred there.
$A b$. bipunctatus Heer. Slapton, Wollaston; Torcross; Downderry. $A b$. unicolor Schill. Torcross.
*Microlestes (Blechrus) maurus Sturm. Bovisand; Wembury ; Whitsands.
*Dromius nigriventris Thoms. Dawlish, May, 1906, one only.
*D. vectensis Rye. On the shore between Torcross and Beesands, one only, May, 1901 ; at roots same locality, G. C. Champion and myself, about a dozen examples, Angust, 1907. Seaton, Power.

## HYDRADEPHAGA.

* Celambus inequalis F. Common. Lipson Marsh: Chelson Meadows; Downderry : Slapton Lev.
*Bidessus minutissinus Germ. Slapton Ley. in quantity at times. First recorded by Wollaston.
*Hydroporus (Deronectes) Assnimlis Payk. Slapton Ley, de la Garde one only, October, 1907.
*H. lineatus F. Exminster, de la Garde.
* Agabus conspersus Marsh. Plentiful in a pool by the mouth of the R. Seaton, near Downderry.
* (iyrinus elongatus Aubé. Slapton Ley.
*G. marinus Gyll. Powderham, Parfitt.


## PALPICORNIA.

$\dagger$ Helophorus mulsanti Rye. In numbers by the R. Teign, near Teignmouth, June, 1909, de la Garde and myself.
$\dagger$ Ochthebius marinus Payk. In numbers in salt marsh, Insworke Barton, near Millbrook, June, 1909 ; Slapton Ley, April, 1913. By the R. Teign, de la Garde.
*O. viridis Peyr. Botusfleming, one specimen, ex coll. Rev. T. A. Marshall. Downderry, in swarms, edges of muddy pool, August, 1900 ; again in Angust, 1916.
$\dagger$ O. Lejolisi Muls. et Rey. In brackish pools on the rocks between Penlee Point and Rame Head, 55 specimens, September, 1901.
*O. pygneeus F. Slapton Ley, April, 1897, in abundance: by the Teign, June, 1909, one only.
*O. impressicollis Lap. (bicolon Steph.). Lipson Marsh, May, 1899, one only, May, 1910, in swarms ; Chelson Meadow, Augnst, 1907: Hay, 1908, one specimen caught in sweep net, Cawsand to Rame. By the Teign, abundantly, de la Garde.
*O. metallescens Rosenh. var. poweri Rye. Seaton, Dr. Power, one specimen, the original capture of this species. One specimen only, in fresh-water trickle on face of rocks on the shore at Bovisand, July, 1912. Subsequent search has failed, both in spring and autumn. Exmouth district, G. (C. Champion, a single example in the summer of 1915 ; later in the year, having discovered the habits of the insect, he took it in some numbers. Vide Ent. Mo. Mag., Vol. LI., pp. 309-10.
*Laccobius purpurascens Newbery. Discovered by de la Garde, May, 1906, crawling in swarms among the slimy ooze where water had trickled down the red sandstone clifis at Shaldon. Exmouth, G. C. Champion.
$\dagger$ Cercyon hittoralis Gyll. Generally abundant in the line of rejected seaweed at high-tide mark on the shore.
Var. Binotatum Steph. Frequent, with the type form.
$\dagger$ C. Depressus Steph. Found with the above, and not uncommon at Batten and other places in the Plymouth district. De la Garde records it from Shaldon only in the Teigmmouth and Dawlish districts.

## BRACHELYTRA.

$\dagger$ Aleochara grisea Kr. Batten; Jennyeliff ; Bigbury Bay; Tregantle; Shaldon ; but I never met with it in numbers. Dawlish Warren and Shaldon, de la Garde.
$\dagger$ A. algarum Fauv. Common in decaying seaweed all around the coast.
$\dagger$ A. Obscurella Er. With the above, but not so common.
*Oxypoda exoleta Er. Downderry, October, 1900, a single specimen.
*Heterota (Allanta) plumbea Wat. Under seaweed; occurs with us from Wembury to Tregantle, but is not common. Exmouth, very rare, Parfitt. Shaldon, de la Carde. Abundant, August-September, 1907, G. C. Champion.
*Atheta thinoboides Kr. (longula Heer). Slapton Ley, in the wet shingle and sand at edge of the water, sometimes in profusion; Wembury beach, several specimens, June and July, 1916 ; Downderry; Stoke Bay, June, 1917. Mount Edgcumbe shore, E. A. Newbery. Shaldon, de la Garde.
$\dagger$ A. vestita Grav. Very common under seaweed on the coast, and often in the estuaries, in small numbers.
$\dagger$ A. flavipes Thoms. (halobrectha Shp.). Common under seaweed and in shingle.
*A. puncticeps Thoms. (alge Hardy). A single specimen at Downderry, October, 1900. Shaldon, de la Garde.
*A. triangulum Kr. Slapton Ley; Cremyll ; in seaweed. Shaldon, de la Garde.
*A. indubia Sharp. Millbrook Creek, several, May, 1906.
*A. fungi var. orbata Er. Burrow Island, May, 1911, one specimen at roots. Dawlish, de la Garde.
$\dagger$ Myrmecopora brevipes. Butl. In seaweed and shingle, generally distributed around the coast, and also in the estuaries; often in quantity. Shaldon and Dawlish Warren, de la Garde. It appears to replace $M$. uvida Er. with us and was considered to be that species until separated by MIr. E. A. Butler, who observes: ". . the two insects do not overlap, but M. brevipes belongs to Devon and Cormwall, while $M$. uvida extends along the rest of the south coast from Hants to Kent and the estuary of the Thames. The area of M. brevipes therefore stands at present as Brittany, Jersey and the two south-western counties of England, while $1 \mathbf{M}$. uvida is generally distributed."-Ent. Mo. Mag., XLV. (1909), p. 30.
$\dagger$ M. sulcata Kies. Of similar habit to the above, but occurs in greater numbers.
$\ddagger$ Actocharis marina Fauv. (readingi Shp.). Originally found at Plymouth by Mr. J. J. Reading. I searched in vain for years for it in the Batten district, which I understood was its liabitat. It was rediscovered by Dr. MI. Cameron at Millbrook Creek, in October, 1900, who obtained several specimens under seaweed. A few days later by carefully examining the shingle we together obtained some

40 specimens. July, 1901, 23 specimens ; July, 1902, 9 specimens. The species is gregarious, but its minute size, $1 \frac{1}{2} \mathrm{~mm}$., makes it easily overlooked. Mr. J. J. Walker has taken it on several occasions at Falmouth.
†Sipalia testacea Bris. Batten beach under stones below high tide, and Millbrook Creek in the shingle at roots of rushes at high-tide mark. I have taken this rare species from March to September.
$\ddagger$ Arena octayif Fauv. Dawlish Warren, de la Garde, April, 1907, one specimen under dry tidal rubbish, and a few specimens in later years.
$\dagger$ Phytosus spinifer Curt. Tregantle in April and May and again in Angust, occasionally in considerable numbers ; Bovisand, one only, July, 1912, and one only, May, 1913 ; Stoke Bay, June, 1916, one only. De la Garde, Shaldon, February; Dawlish Warren, April. G. C. Champion, August-September, 1907.
$\dagger$ P. balticus Kr. Under seaweed and in the sand below it with the above species, often in numbers, at Tregantle. Dawlish Warren, plentiful, March, 1907, and later years, de la Garde. AugustSeptember, 1907, G. C. Champion.
$\dagger$ P. nigriventris Chevr. With the above at Tregantle, but not so abundant. Dawlish Warren, de la Garde, March, 1907, and later years.
$\ddagger$ Diglotta mersa Hal. Batten, once only, a single specimen in April, 1892 ; under stones much below high water, Millbrook Creek, very sparingly, in May, 1900, 1907, 1909. De la Garde has taken it freely at Dawlish Warren. In June, 1909, at the latter locality I obtained a large specimen, $2 \frac{1}{2} \mathrm{~mm}$. long, possessed of fully developed wings, the length of each being 2 mm . with a maximum breadth of 1 mm . Apparently this form is extremely unusual. Vide (1. C. Champion's remarks thereon, Ent. Mo. Mag., Vol. XXXV., pp. 264-5.
$\dagger$ Heterothops binotata Er. Jennycliff; Batten; Downderry. Shaldon, de la Garde.
*(Quedius umbrinus Er. This uncommon species, which Fowler (Col. Brit. Isles, Vol. II., p. 241) says : "Appears to be chiefly found in wooded and hilly or mountainous districts," I once found in considerable numbers at Millbrook Creek in the little salt marsh beyond Palmer's Point in August, 1900. G. C. Champion also records it from damp places on the cliffs, Shaldon (Ent. Mo. Mag., 1908, p. 33).
*Q. Semieneus Steph. Slapton; Tregantle; single specimens frequently, Millbrook Creek; by the Yealm. Shaldon, de la Garde.
*Ocypus ater Grav. Bovisand; Batten; Millbrook Creek, in some numbers; Tregantle. Shaldon, de la Garde. Looe, Vict. Hist. Corn.
*Pillonthus cruentatus Gmel. Batten and probably all along the coast.
*P. punctus Grav. Slapton Ley (where it was first discovered by Mr. Wollaston) in May and June, in sundry years. G. C. Champion, August-September, 1907, very rarely. Mr. Bridgman's record in Fowler is an error, although he looked for it continuously for some years, as he told me, in lit., Oct., 1897.
$\dagger$ C'afius fucicola Curtis. In decaying seaweed; as a rule, local and rare ; abundant with us at Batten and Jennycliff, Millbrook Creek, Tregantle. Dawlish district, one record by Mr. Rendel. A largeheaded form of the male occurs commonly. In fine specimens the head is as wide as apex of elytra.
$\dagger \mathrm{C}$. xantholoma Grav. All around the coast, very common.
「ar. variolosus Shp. Not uncommon with the type form in the Plymouth district ; Shaldon, de la Garde.
I'ar. variegatus Er. Batten, Jennycliff, etc., not uncommon.
$\dagger$ C. sericeus Holme. Generally distributed with the above, but much less abundant. Shaldon, de la Garde.

Note.-The Cafii may be found almost thronghout the year and larvæ with them.
*Scopeus mininus Er. (ryei Woll.). In April, 1897, in numbers at Slapton Ley, its only British locality, under smallish flat stones amongst herbage several yards from the edge of the Ley towards the sea, but I have not again met with it. Mr. Wollaston took it originally in May, 1869. G. C. Champion, August-September, 1916.
$\dagger$ Medon pocofer Peyr. Batten, two specimens only ; Torcross, one only in May, 1901. -
$\dagger$ M. ripicola Kr. Batten, July, 1890, two in February, 1897, and in the following May I secured it in quantity in rotting seaweed at Jennycliff ; August, 1902, one only on the beach beyond Bovisand.

* Astenus (Sunius) filiformis Latr. Whitsand Bay, single specimens occasionally; Tregantle; Downderry, August, 1900, six examples, and at various times since ; Bigbury Bay, two specimens, May, 1911. Dawlish, one only, de la Garde.
*Stenus atratulus Er. Downderry, Angust, 1905, E. A. Newbery and myself.
$\dagger$ Bledius spectabilis Kr. One specimen, Dawlish, de la Garde.
$\dagger$ B. unicornis Germ. Dawlish Warren, de la Garde.
$\dagger$ B. secernendus Joy. Dawlish Warren, in quantity, de la Garde. This species appears in our latest List as a synonym of the var. subniger of Schneider, but as he considered his insect to be nothing more than a monstrosity, Joy's name must probably stand.

Note.-It is apparently strange that in the immediate neighbourhood of Plymouth the genus Bledius should be unrepresented. Dyschirius, which preys upon the larvæ and pupæ of Bledius, is, however, also as far as I can discover almost absent, its sole exponent being the widely distributed and common little D. globosus. Suitable habitats both on the coast and in the estuaries are still perhaps awaiting investigation.
$\dagger$ Oxytelus perrisi Fauv. (maritinus Thoms.). In spring and autumn at Tregantle. First taken there by Mr. J. J. Walker. In May, 1902, the var. with testaceous elytra occurred in some numbers. Dawlish, de la Garde.
*O. complanatus Pand. Batten, Millbrook, etc.
$\ddagger$ Trogophleus halophilus Kies. Millbrook Creek, two only, May, 1900 ; in June, on the South Down side, in numbers; July, 1916, several between lamellæ of slate on the shore, creek at Brixton.
$\dagger$ T. unicolor Shp. (anglicanus Shp.). This species was extra-European, being known from New Zealand only, until I found the first specimen under a stone at about half-tide near Palmer's Point. Millbrook Creek; after much search my second example was found on the opposite bank of the creek, near South Down, in a similar situation. In July Dr. M. Cameron, R.n., captured two specimens in the roll of seawred at high tide near my original locality, and in August we together took 17 specimens in the seaweed. The insect has persisted in the locality to the present time, occurring frequently in considerable numbers; in July, 1905, for example, it was swarming, and I secured 180 specimens in an hour and a half! My second specimen, noted above, cost me 40 hours' work grubbing for it!

There was considerable difference of opinion amongst authorities as to the probable origin of this Staphylinid in England. MI. Fauvel held that the species was identical with that from N.Z. Dr. D. Sharp inclined to the " opposite opinion, and to the conclusion that we have here to do with two species almost identical in structure and general character, produced independently in the two antipodes of the world, but under very similar conditions." He also stated: "As, however, $T$. anglicanus belongs to one of the most neglected and umattractive groups of Coleoptera, I shall not be surprised to hear of
its discovery elsewhere on the coasts of Western Europe " (Vide Ent. Mo. Mag., Vol. XXXVI., pp. 230 et seqq.). In 1908 Mr. Horace Donisthorpe recorded the capture of two examples of this species, one under seaweed at Bembridge and another on the sea wall at St. Helens, Isle of Wight (Ent. Mo. Mag., Vol. XLIV., p. 2.j5).
*Lesteva fontinalis Kies. First discovered by de la Garde in wet moss on the face of the cliffs at Shaldon in February, 1908, and added to the British List by Newbery (Ent. Mo. Mag. XLVI (1910), p. 109). Exmouth, July-August, 1916, G. C. Champion.
$\ddagger$ Micralyma marinum Stroem. (brevipenne Gyll.). Yealm, Batten, Millbrook Creck, and Wivelscombe ; one specimen by the R. Teign in June, 1909. In July, 1897, at Batten with Mr. Newbery and his nephew, the latter called attention to Micralymma crawling amongst the Acorn Barnacles, and by scraping these oft the rocks we secured a considerable number of the beetle. In June, 1900, at Millbrook Creek, I took 20 examples, with Podura maritima, between slates used in an old landing-stage. Again at Batten in September and October, 1907, I found Micralymma with larvæ and numbers of Podurce by scraping off the rocks little patches of lichen (Lichina pygmora-teste E. II Holmes). There is considcrable superficial resemblance between Micralymma and Podura, and as they are so commonly found in association, it would be interesting to ascertain the reason.
$\dagger$ Homalium leviusculum Gyll. Seaweed, common.
$\dagger$ H. riparium Thoms. With the above, common.

## CLAVICORNIA.

*Ablattaria (Silpha) levigata F. Bovisand ; Tregantle, at roots. I have found it in single specimens only.
$\dagger$ Brachygluta (Bryaxis) waterhousei Rye. Slapton Ley: in rejectamenta on the shore near Cargreen, October, 1912. On the shore, Hooe Lake, near Radford, A. V. Mitchell.
$\dagger$ Ptenidium punctatum Gyll. Generally distributed from Bigbury Bay to Downderry, in great profusion at times under large stones on or close to decaying seaweed, at Batten in particular. Dawlish Warren, de la Garde.
*Corylophus sublevipennis Duv. One specimen only at roots in the sand, Downderry', August, 1905. Slapton, August-September. 1907. G. C. Champion.
*Micraspis 16-punctata L. Wivelscombe Creek, June, 1915. The only locality in the Plymouth district at which this species has occurred to me. Dawlish, de la Garde.
*Subcoccinella (Lasia) 24-punctata. Frequently met with on the coast, but in August, 1916, I found it in numbers, both pupæ and mature insects, at the roots of Silene on the shore at high-tide mark at Downderry.
*Carcinopis minima Aubé. Slapton Ley in April, 1900, and May, 1901, by sifting debris near the water's edge.
$\dagger$ Pachylopus (Sappinus) Maritimus Steph. Tregantle under seaweed and in the sand, sometimes in numbers. Dawlish Warren, de la Garde.
$\dagger$ Acritus punctum Aubé. Tregantle, in May, 1902, in some numbers; of late years single specimens only have occurred to me. First taken there by J. J. Walker. Exminster, one example, de la Garde.
*Meligethes exilis Sturm. Tregantle, on Armeria, etc. First taken there by J. J. Walker.
*Corticaria crenulata Gyll. Batten, at roots on the beach, once only ; abundant at Slapton Ley. Dawlish, de la Garde.
*('. impressa Ol. (denticulata Gyll.). Penlee Point, on gorse attacked by the dodder, May and June, 1910 ; Whitsand Bay, Slapton Ley, Dawlish.
*Dermestes undulatus Brahm. Slapton Ley, not uncommon at times in small carrion.
*Georyssus crenulatus Ross. (pygmeus F.). In the trickles of water in the cliff face, July-August, 1916, Exmouth, G. C. Champion.
$\dagger$ Heterocerus flexuosus Steph. Exmouth Warren, Parfitt, rare; Dr. Allen, July, 1900.
*H. fenestratus Thun. (levigatus Pz.). Slapton Ley, August, 1890, and June, 1897.

## LAMELLICORNIA.

*Aphodius nitidulus F. Dawlish Warren, rare, Parfitt. Whitsands, near Rame, in numbers, July, 1890 ; very abundant, July, 1899.
*Psammobius porcicollis Ill. Tregantle, apparently the only British locality, where the species was discovered by J. J. Walker. I have obtained it in March, August, and September in various years.
$\dagger$ Egialia arenaria F. Whitsands, not common. Dawlish Warren, a single specimen, de la Garde. Exmouth Warren, "plentiful in dung of animals, etc.." Parfitt.

## IIALACODERMATA.

*Psilothrix cyaneus Ol. (nobilis Brit. Cat.). Slapton Ley, often in abundance.

## PHYTOPHAGA.

*Chrysomela banksi F. Generally distributed throughout the Plymouth district.
*C. hemoptera L. Whitsand Bay.
*Psylliodes marcida Ill. Bovisand; Tregantle, on Cakile maritima. First discovered there by J. J. Walker. Dawlish Warren, a single specimen, de la Garde.
*Cassida vittata Vill. Millbrook Creek, one only, May, 1900. Exmouth, Parfitt.
*C. nobilis L. On July 21st, 1917, A. V. Mitchell took a specimen of a Cassida apparently referable to this species on the underside of a pebble amongst low plants on Wembury Beach, just at high-tide mark but well within range of a stormy sea, and on showing it to me we together searched carefully for some considerable time. eventually securing about a dozen specimens each as well as the fully fed larvæ and pupæ. Dwarfed plants of a species of Atriplex seemed to me to be a likely food plant, and the perfect insects ate this quite readily in captivity until the end of September, when they ceased feeding, and at the time of writing are resting on the sides of the plaster cage in which they are confined.

## RHYNCOPHORA.

*Apion levicolle Kirby. Whitsands, April, 1900. Bank of the Exe, near Topsham, two specimens, August, 1912, de la Garde.
*Apion schönherri Boh. One specimen, Bovisand, July, 1902.
*A. ononicola Bach. (bohemanni Thoms.). On Ononis, Tregantle, August, 1902, several examples.
*A. confluens Kirby. Tregantle, J. J. Walker, on Matricaria on the slopes above high-water mark. I have occasionally taken it in numbers.
*A. hookeri Kirby. With us on the coast only, on Matricaria.
*A. atomarium Kirby. Whitsand Bay, J. J. Walker, at roots of thyme, sometimes in quantity.
*Otiorrhynchus atroapterus De G. Bigbury Bay, May, 1911. Dawlish Warren, de la Garde.
*O. rugifrons Gyll. Batten, single specimens in July, 1890, and June, 1895 ; Tregantle, often in numbers. Dawlish, April, 1895, J. J. Walker ; one, de la Garde, June, 1907. Torcross, G. C. Bignell, May, 1885.
$\dagger$ Polydrusus chrysomela Ol. Several examples, Wivelscombe Creek, 10th June, 1915, by sweeping the banks just above high water. The specimens were rather abraded.
*Cneorrhinus plaglatus Schall. (geminatus Fab.). Burrow Island, May, 1911, in abundance, but did not find it on the mainland ; Tregantle, common. Dawlish, de la Garde.
*Sitones waterhousei Walt. Batten, at roots of low plants, September, 1897; near Yealmpton, May, 1911 ; Whitsand Bay, frequently, in spring and autumn. First recorded therefrom by J. J. Walker.
*Gronops lunatus L. Dawlish Warren, de la Garde, one example, August, 1908. Woodbury Common, July-August, 1916, G. C. Champion.
*Tychius schneideri Herbst. Recorded in Fowler's Col. Brit. Is. as occurring at Whitsand Bay.
*Rhinocyllus conicus Fröh. Seaton, Major J. N. Still, May and June, 1895, on the slender thistle (Carduus pycnocephalus) in some numbers, but in a very restricted area.
*Smicronyx jungernannie Reich. Abundant in some years on the dodder of the gorse at Penlee Point, in May and June ; also at Tregantle.
*Sibinia sodalis Germ. Dawlish, on flowers of Armeria. First discovered there by Felix A. Newbery, and afterwards taken in some numbers by de la Garde.
*Mecinus circulatus Marsh. Tregantle, at roots of low plants in April and May in various years. First recorded therefrom by J. J. Walker.
*Ceuthorrhynchus terminatus Herbst. Bovisand, August, 1902, one specimen at roots on the shore ; one specimen, Tregantle, June, 1905. Shaldon, de la Garde.
*C. dawsoni Bris. Bovisand, Batten, Whitsands; often in abundance on Plantago.
$\dagger$ Lininobaris t-album L. This weevil is not a recognized salt-marsh species. Fowler says (Col. Brit. Is., Vol. V., p. 379) : "Marshy places on aquatic plants; also by general sweeping ; local but not uncommon in many districts." It has occurred to me in some
numbers at Wivelscombe (reek, June, 1915, and on the shore at Bere Ferrers, June, 1916, by sweeping sedges, etc. As both of these localities would be covered with salt water for a brief period at springtides, and as there are as yet no other records of the capture of this species in Cornwall or Devon, its habit with us seems to render its inclusion in our list desirable.
$\dagger$ Codiosoma spadix Herbst. Batten, in an old wooden pile on the shore, May, 1892 ; South Down, in old piles stuck into the mud flats, larve and perfect insects in numbers, May, 1909.

Note.-In July, 1917, amongst a considerable quantity of beetles collected at random, by my friend Mr. N. Micklewood, in the Lizard district, where he was spending a holiday, and given to me, I detected an example of a Cathormiocerus which will probably prove to be new to Britain. The species camot mfortunately at present be determined, but the insect has been submitted to Mr. G. C. Champion, who observed, " It is certainly a Cathormiocruts. . . . It seems to come nearest to curvisc.pus Seidl. The thorax is abnormally shaped and vestiture (except setae) abraded, so I doubt if you will make much of it." Further examples of the Weevil are therefore desirable.

## HETEROMERA.

*(ryppticus Quisquilius L. Lizard district, July, 1917. several specimens, collected by N. Micklewood.
*Phylan (Heliopathes) gibbus F. Whitsand Bay, frequent. Dawlish Warren, de la Garde.
*Hopatrum sabulosum Gyll. Whitsands; Downderry.
*Microzoum tibiale F. Looe, —. Thomas, Vic. Hist. Corn.
$\dagger$ Phaleria cadaverina F. Tregantle, often abundant; Downderry. Dawlish Warren, three examples, April, 1907, de la Garde.
*Cteniopus sulphureus L. Budleigh Salterton, July- $\wedge^{u} u_{c}$ inu, 1916 , G. C. Champion. Plentiful in the Lizard district and about Hayle. Vic. Hist. Corn.
*Anoncodes (Nacerdes) melanura Schmidt. Cattedown, one specimen, caught in the road; three specimens bred from old timber from a cellar at Stonehouse.
*Mordellistena parvula var. inequalis Muls. Tregantle, July, 1900, three specimens.
$\dagger$ Anthicus angustatus Curt. Bigbury Bay, April 1st, 1907, abundant under seaweed at high-tide mark, under stones and in the sand; I obtained 96 specimens. In the shingle, Blackpool, Slapton, AugustSeptember, 1907, G. C. Champion.

# A Trematode Larva from Buccinum undatum and Notes on Trematodes from Post-Larval Fish. 

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## With Figures 1 to 7 at the end.

Os Hay 30th, 1916, a number of large Buccinum undatum were brought in from the trawling grounds; 40 of these were examined and 34 were found to contain larval Trematodes. Another lot in the spring of 1917 contained about the same percentage of infected Mollusks. Two species of Trematodes were present, both contained in the digestive gland, which was absolutely riddled with them.

The first, which was in 4 out of 40 Buccinum, was identified as Cercaria neptuni Lebour (1912), previously found in both Neptunea antiqua and Buccinum undatum from the Northumberland coast. This is a thicktailed cercaria contained in long colourless rediæ which are tightly packed in the digestive gland and give to this organ a characteristic sickly grey appearance quite unlike its ordinary healthy state, so that infected specimens can easily be recognized by cutting a small aperture in the spire of the shell and examining the portion of digestive gland exposed. The further life history of this cercaria is unknown.

The second species occurs much more commonly and was found in 30 out of 40 Buccinum examined. The colour of the infected digestive gland is this time an unhealthy pinkish yellow, which is characteristic. The cercarix are contained in sporocysts which occupy almost the whole of the spire of the shell.

The anatomy of this cercaria shows it to be almost certainly a larval stage of Zoogonus viviparus (Olsson), the life history of which is so far unknown (Odhner, 1902). This Trematode in the adult state lives in the intestine of many common fish. It has been recorded from 11 different. species, 9 of which are from the Channel-Zeus faber, Blennius gattorugine, Blennius ocellaris, Solea vulgaris, Solea variegata, Pleuronectes limanda, Pleuronectes microcephalus, Pleuronectes platessa and Callionymus lyra. Nicoll (1914) regards Callionymus lyra, Pleuronectes spp. and Solea spp. as undoubtedly their chief hosts, all of these being common on the trawling grounds where the Buccinum were caught.

An intermediate host has not yet been identified, but from the structure of the cercaria, which is able to modify the posterior end of its body as a sucker-like organ, it is probable that the intermediate host is an actively swimming animal, as in all probability the sucker is used by the cercaria for fixing the hind end of its body whilst the free part waves about in order to catch a host. The stylet on the head and its glands opening beside it show that the cercaria bores into its host.

## STRUCTURE OF SPOROCYST AND CERCARIA.

The sporocyst is faintly yellow in colour and measures from 0.5 to 1 mm . in length and is from 2 to 4 times as long as it is broad. Inside the sporocyst are germ cells and cercariæ in various stages, from 1 to 8 in each sporocyst (Fig. 1).

The full grown cercaria is colourless and transparent, measuring 0.33 mm . to 0.48 mm . in length according to the extent of contraction or expansion (Figs. 2 and 3). The anterior end is rather more rounded than the posterior end and usually the greatest width is in front of the oral sucker, although when the body is greatly extended the width is nearly equal for the whole length, a great amount of extension being possible. The oral sucker is a little more than half the width of the ventral sucker. Oral sucker 0.06 mm ., ventral sucker 0.10 mm . Both are well developed and conspicuous. The whole surface of the body is covered with minute spines which enlarge towards the posterior end and are greatly elongated round that portion which is capable of forming the round disc in the middle of which opens the excretory bladder. The posterior end can, however, change its shape so that the disc is not alwars present (Fig. 6).

The oral sucker bears at its anterior end dorsally a thick stylet, 0.015 mm . long, with a long central and two small lateral points. On each side of the spine opening dorsally are situated a pair of long curved ducts (Fig. 5) connected with a mass of large gland cells on each side, the stylet glands, which occupy the space between the oral and the ventral sucker. The oral sucker has a large circular aperture ventrally placed near the anterior end of the body which leads to a short pre-pharynx, which in the expanded state may be as long as the pharynx but is usually much shorter. Then follows a conspicuous muscular pharynx, 0.03 mm . long, a thin-walled œsophagus and short intestinal diverticula reaching to about the centre of the ventral sucker. In transverse section the tubes of the diverticula are seen to be composed of very few cells, sometimes only two, with large nuclei (Fig. 7).

The ventral sucker is large and muscular with a somewhat oval centre. Immediately behind it and to the sides are the testes, which are well
developed compact oval masses of cells with large nuelei. Ovary and vitellaria are not as yet differentiated, although masses of nuelei probably represent these in the process of formation.

The excretory vesicle is an oblong sac with very thick walls composed of large cells. It is conspicuous at the hind end of the body reaching to about the level of the posterior margin of the testes and opening at the extreme hind end in a small papilla.

These features show it to be very like the structure of Zoogonus viviparus (see Lebour, 1908), allowing for growth and development especially of the region behind the ventral sucker and of the reproductive organs. The fact also that it is the only really common fish Trematode of these parts with such short intestinal diverticula supports the view. The relationship of this cerearia to the stumpy-tailed forms seems obvious, the stumpy tail in this case being replaced by the peeuliar sucker-like dise. The thick-walled exeretory vesicle is common to this species and to all in the group and also the boring spine and glands. Exeept for the peeuliarly modified hind end it fits very well into Dollfus' group (1914) of Cotylocercous cercariæ, which are all developed in sporocysts in marine gastropods. None of their life histories are so far known.

I have to thank my colleague, Miss G. E. Webb, for making the sections which were used in working out the structure of the cerearia in order to determine points not easily seen in the living material.

## TREMATODES IN POST-LARVAL FISH.

Whilst investigating the food of young fish a number of Trematodes were found. Some of these were immature, others adult and containing ova. Those most frequently fomnd were Derogenes varicus and Pharyngora bacillaris. Derogenes varicus is a common parasite of many fish, notably the Pleuronectids, and in an immature state was found in several fish, particularly Arnoglossus and Scophthalmus norvegicus. The only intermediate hosts so far known for this species are Sagitta and Harmothoë, so it is somewhat difficult to say how the worm enters the small fish as they almost certainly do not eat these worms. The most likely explanation seems to be that by the death of the worm host the young Trematode is set free and is then swallowed along with other food by tiny fish in which it afterwards matures.

Derogenes varicus was found in the following fish:-

| Arnoglossus sp. | 23 | Solea variegata | 4 |
| :--- | ---: | :--- | :--- |
| Scophthalmus norvegicus | 18 | Gadus minutus | 2 |
| Pleuronectes limanda | 11 | Gadus merlangus | 1 |
| Pleuronectes microcephalus | 4 | Callionymus lyra | 1 |

Pharyngora bacillaris, which inhabits the Mackerel and a few other fish in the adult state, when immature is found abundantly in the townettings both free and in Medusx, Ctenophores and Sagitta. It is the only common Trematode of the plankton and might casily be swallowed by small fish. It occurred in a lew sprats, in 3 Onos mustcla and in one Rhombus lavis.

Podocotyle atomon, another common fish Trematode, occurred in 3 specimens of Gusterosteus spinachic, and in all cases contained ova.

An encysted Trematode occurred in the peritoneum of 2 specimens of Syngnathus rostellatus.

The Horse Mackerel, Caranx trachurus, on one occasion contained a mature Trematode, probably Lecithaster sp.

## LITERATURE.

1914. Dollfus, R. "Cercaria pachycerca Diesing, et les cercaires à queue dite en mignon." IX Congrès Int. de Zool. Monaco.
1915. Lebour, MI. V. "Fish Trematodes of the Northumberland Coast." North Sea Fish. Rep. for 1907.
1916. -. "I Revision of the Marine Cercariæ." Parasitology, No. 4.
1917. Nicoll, W. "The Trematode Parasites of Fishes from the English Chamel." Jonru. Mar. Biol. Assoc., N.S., X., No. 4.


## EXPLANATION OF FIGURES.

Fig. 1. Sporocyst containing cercarix from the digestive gland of Buccinum undutum
2. Cercaria somewhat contracted.

3 Cercaria expanded.
4. Side view of cercaria.
5. Head of cercaria bent forward to show stylet and glands.
6. Spiny dise at posterior end of cerearia.
7. Transverse section of cercaria through the ventral sucker and intestinal diverticula.

# Marine Biological Association of the United Kingdom. 

## Report of the Council, 1917.

## The Council and Officers.

The Council has met four times during the year, the meetings having been held in the Rooms of the Royal Society. The Council desires to express the thanks of the Association to the Royal Society for the accommodation provided. The average attendance at the meetings has been nine, and a Committee of three members of the Council visited and inspected the Laboratory at Plymouth.

The Council has to record with regret the death of the Earl of Portsmouth, who for a number of years was a Governor, representing the Worshipful Company of Fishmongers. Lord Portsmouth showed much interest in the work of the Plymouth Laboratory.

## The Plymouth Laboratory,

The new gas-engine supplied last year by Messrs. Crossley Bros., for circulating sea-water through the tanks, has worked smoothly and continuously, but unfortunately has consumed considerably more gas than the old engine. This, at the present high price of gas, has led to a marked increase in our working expenses. With a view to more economical working, it will be advisable, when conditions are more favourable after the war, to reconsider the whole of our pumping arrangements and try to reach greater efficiency.

## The Boats.

The steamer Oithona has again not been used this year. The vessel, however, has just been requisitioned by the Admiralty for service in connection with the war. What collecting work was possible under the restricted conditions imposed by the naval and military authorities has been done with the eighteen-foot sailing boat Anton Dohrn,
and many specimens have been obtained from the commercial fishing boats.

## The Staff.

The Council regrets that Mr. D. J. Matthews, who has been employed by the Association for part of his time since the International Investigations were transferred to the Board of Agriculture and Fisheries in 1910, left the service of the Association early in the year.

Miss M. V. Lebour has been granted the degree of D.Sc. by the University of Durham, and has been appointed a permanent member of the Laboratory staff.

Miss G. E. Webb, of Oxford, has been appointed an Assistant Naturalist for the duration of the war, and commenced work at the Laboratory in August.

Messrs. E. W. Nelson, L. R. Crawshay, J. H. Orton, R. S. Clark, and E. Ford are still serving with H.M. Forces.

## Occupation of Tables.

The following Naturalists have occupied tables at the Plymouth Laboratory during the year :-

> TV. De Morgan, Plymouth (Pomatoceros).
> Mhis. E. W. Sexton, Plymouth (Gammarns).
> Dr. C. Shearer, F.B.S., Cambridge (Dinophilus).

The Easter Vacation Course in Marine Biology for University students was not held this year.

## General Work at the Plymouth Laboratory.

Dr. Allen, the Director of the Plymouth Laboratory, has been engaged during a considerable part of the year in carrying out special experiments for the Idmiralty Board of Invention and Research. Since his return to the Laboratory he has been continuing his work on the conditions necessary for the successful growth and reproduction of certain marine plants and animals under experimental conditions.

Following on her researches on the plankton and microplankton of the Plymouth district, Dr. Lebour has made the central feature of her work for the year a study of the food actually eaten by fishes in their larval and youngest stages. This is a subject which has been but little studied and results of great interest have keen obtained. A report on these
appears on page 433. General work on the plankton has also been continued by Miss Lebour, who has been assisted in this by Miss Webb.

Two numbers of the Journal have been published during the year. The first. which was issued in May, contained three papers by Miss Lebour on the microplankton of Plymouth Sound, on the Peridiniales of Plymouth and on some parasites of Sagitta. The first of these papers contained the results obtained from the examination of centrifuged samples of sea-water taken at regular intervals during one complete year, so that seasonal variations are shown. In the same number appears Dr. Allen's report on the larval and young stages of fishes collected during the summer of 1914 , this report being a continuation of work carried out for 1913 by Mr. R. S. Clark and reported upon by him in an earlier number of the Journal. Mr. D. J. Matthews contributes the second part of his paper on the amount of phosphoric acid in the sea-water off Plymouth Sound, in which the seasonal variations in the amount of that substance are recorded.

The second number of the Journal, issued in December, contains a detailed report, by Dr. Allen and Mrs. E. W. Sexton. of experiments on the inheritance of eye-colour and the loss of the eye-pigment in the Amphipod Gammarus chevreuxi. Three papers of a general character by Dr. Allen, in which the results of work done at the Laboratory are set forth in a more popular form. complete the number. These papers are entitled, "Heredity in Plants, Animals, and Man," "Food from the Sea," and "The Age of Fishes and the Rate at which they Grow."

## The Library.

The thanks of the Association are again due to numerous Government Departments, Universities, and other institutions at home and abroad for copies of books and current numbers of periodicals presented to the Library. The list is similar to that published in the Reports of Council of former years. Thanks are due also to those authors who have sent reprints of their papers for the Library.

## Donations and Receipts.

The receipts for the year include a grant from H.M. Treasury of $£ 500$, and one from the Fishmongers' Company ( $£ 600$ ). In addition to these grants there have been received Amnual Subscriptions (£123), Rent of Tables in the Laboratory, including $£ 25$ from the University of London, and $\mathfrak{f} 20$ from the Trustees of the Ray Lankester Fund (£45); Sale of Specimens ( $£ 371$ ) and Admission to Tank Room (£84).

## Vice-Presidents, Officers, and Council.

The following is the list of gentlemen proposed by the Council for election for the year 1918-19:-

President.
Sir E. Ray Lankester, k.c.b., Ll.d., f.r.s.

## Vice-Presidents.

The Duke of Bedford, k.g.
The Earl of Ducie, f.r.s.
The Earl of Stradbroke, c.v.o., c.b. Lord Montagu of Beaulieu.
Lord Walsingham, f.r.s.
The Right Hon. A. J. Balfour, m.f., F.R.S.

The Right Hon. Austen Chamberlain, M.1'.
W. Astor, Esqi, M.p.
G. A. Boulenger, Esi., f.r.s.
A. R. Steel-Mattland, Esq., M.p. Rev. Camon Norman, d.c.l., F.r.s. Edifin Waterhouse, Esq.

## COUNCIL.

Elected Members.

Prof. W. M. Bayliss, d.sc, f.r.s.
L. A. Borradaile, Esif.
E. T. Browne, Esq.
W. C. De Morgan, Esq.

Prof. F. W. Gamble, d.sc., f.r.s.
E. S. Goodrich, Esq., d.s.e, E.r.s.
S. F. Harmer, Esq., Sc.D., F.r.s.
E. IV. L. Holit, Esq.

Prof. E. W. MacBride, d.Sc., T.R.S.
H. G. Maurice, Esq., c.b.
P. Chalmers Mitchell, Esq., D.Sc. F,R.S.
F. A. Potts, Esy.
C. Tate Regan, Esq., f.r.s.

Prof. D'Arcy W. Thompson, c.b., f.r.

Chairman of Council.
A. E. Shipley, Esq., D.Sc., F.r.s.

Hon. Treasurer.
George Erans, Esq.

Hon. secretary.
E. J. Allen, Esq., D.Sc., F.r.S., The Laboratory, Citadel Hill, Plymouth.

The following Governors are also members of Council :-
G. P. Bidder, Esq., scid.
R. L. Towgood, Esq. Prime Warden of the Fishmongers' Company).
T. T. (irfa, Esq. (Fishmongers' Company).
The Hon. Nathaniel Charles Rothschild (Fishmongers' Company).

George Evanss, Esq. (Fishmonget Company).
Prof. (4. C. Bourne, d.s.., f.r.s. Oxford University).
A. E. Shipler, Esi., D.sé, F.R.s. Cambridge Lniversity.
Prof. W. A. Herdmax, d.sc., f.r.s. (British Association).

An
Statement of Receipts and Payments for

| To balance from Last Year :- |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Cash at Bankers | 927 | 16 | 6 |  |  |  |
| Cash in hand | 11 | 0 | 2 | 938 | 16 | 8 |
| Current liecoipts:- |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| II. M. Treasmry for the year ending 31st March, 1918 | 500 | 0 | 0 |  |  |  |
| The Worshipful Company of Fishmongers | 600 | 0 | 0 |  |  |  |
| Annual Subscriptions | 123 | ${ }^{6}$ | 8 |  |  |  |
| Rent of Tables (incluling Ray Lankester's Trustees, £20: University of London, £25) | 45 | 0 | 0 |  |  |  |
| Interest on Investments | 12 | 6 | 4 |  |  |  |
| , 1)emoxit | 3 | 16 | 7 | 1,290 | 9 | 7 |
| , Extraordinary Receints:- |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Donation, (i, H. Fox | 0 | 10 | is |  |  |  |
| Naval liank - lividend | 1 | $1!$ | 10 | 2 | 0 | 4 |
| ,, Lahoratory lionts anl sumbry liecejpts:- |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Sales of $\Lambda_{\text {pluaratus }}$.......... ........ .................. | 3 | 19 | 4 |  |  |  |
| ,, ", Silecimens | 371 | 4 | 2 |  |  |  |
| ,, ; Nets, (iear, etc. | 13 | 4 | 8 |  |  |  |
| Other Items |  | 10 | 0 | 388 | 18 | 2 |


| the Year ending 31st December, 1917. | $\mathfrak{t r}$. |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  |
| Director | 30000 |  |  |
| Hydrographer | 62100 |  |  |
| Senior Naturalist | 5112 is |  |  |
| Additional ", | 131156 |  |  |
| ," ", ........................... .......... | 16566 |  |  |
| Assistant ,, ........................................ | $13: 6$ |  |  |
| ", ", (temporary) | 12133 |  |  |
| ," ", " | 50 7 0 |  |  |
| , $\quad$, $\quad$,........................$~$ | 10 0 0 |  |  |
| Salaries and Wagres | $427 \quad 4$ | 1,224 | 114 |
| , Traveling Expeuses |  |  | 1211 |
| , Library............... | 12127 |  |  |
| Less Sale of Duplieate | 160 | 11 | 67 |
| Jomrnal... | 211102 |  |  |
| Less Sales. | 7110 | 201 | 84 |
| Buildings and Public Tank Room- |  |  |  |
| Gas, Water, and Coal | 235171 |  |  |
| Stocking Tanks and Feeding | 2786 |  |  |
| Maintenance and Renewals ... | 1304 |  |  |
| Rent, Rates, Taxes, and Insurance | $47 \times 10$ |  |  |
| Less Admission to Tank Room | $\begin{array}{rrr} \hline 35314 \\ 81 & 12 & 10 \end{array}$ | 269 | 111 |
| Laboratory, Boats, and Sumlry Expenses- |  |  |  |
| Glass, Apparatus, and Chemicals. | $50 \quad 1 \quad 1$ |  |  |
| Puchase of Specimens ...... | $51 ; 411$ |  |  |
| Maintenance and Renewal of Boats, Nets, ete. | $99 \quad 9 \quad 4$ |  |  |
| Boat Hire and Collecting Expenses | 61611 |  |  |
| Stationery, Oflice Expenses, Carriage, Printing, etc. | 8046 | 292 | 169 |
| ,, Balance:- |  |  |  |
| Cash at Bankers | 56881510 |  |  |
| Cash in hand ............................................ | 711 | 575 | 1611 |
|  |  | \&2, 620 |  |

## INDEX.

## A

Ablattariu (Silpha) laeviyatu, n09
Acurthochiasma fusiforme, 158
Acertiut clausii, 165, 170-8, 435-56

- sp., 436, 437, 457

Acineta tuberosa, 158
Acnunthes longipes, 151
Acritus punctum, 510
Actinocyclus Ehrenbergi, 145
Actinoptychus umbulatus, 145)
Actinotrochu, 154, 164
Actochuris marinu, 505
.Egeon fusciutus, 168
Egialit arenaria, 510
Aёpophilus, 500
Ä̈pus marinus, 500
-robinii, 500
Agubus conspersus, 503
Agonus cataphructus, 440
Alcyonium digitatum, development of, 258
Alencharu ulgarum, 504

- obscurella, 504
- grisea, 504

Amaru ademantinu, 502

- lucida, 502
- ovata, 502

Ammodytes sp., 216, 436-56
Ammodytidae collected near Plymouth, 216
Amoebae, 156, 175
Amphicsirus similis, 165
Amphilinium cressum, 138, 176, 188
Amphimelissu setose, 158
Amphiprora masima, 152
Ampheri" ostracaric, 152
— sp., 1.52
Amylax latu, 185

Anaphiu petiolutu, 169, 176; notes on the life-history, 51
Amnelid larvae, 164
Annual Rings in the scales of Plaic and Flounders, 470
Anomalocera Patersoni, 165, 436, 440
Anoncoles (Nucerdes) melemuru, 513
Anoploductylus petiolutus, 51

- mygmueus, 51

Anthicus angustutus, 513
Apheruse bispinosu, 166

- Clevei, 166, 438
- sp., 442

Aphodius mitidulus, 510
Aphy" pellucid", 239
Apion utomarium, 511

- confluens, 511
- hookeri, 511
- luericolle, 511
- ononiroli, 511
- schönherri, 511

Arachnactis Bournei, 162, 175
Arena octuvii, 498,506
Arroglossus sp., 232, 443, 449, 451 ;
containing Trematodes, 516
Asceris, 163 ; in Sagittu, 202
Astenus (S'mius) filiformis, 507
Asterionella Bleakeleyi, 151

- japonica, 136, 151, 171-8

Athetu furipes, 505

- fungi, var. orbettu, 505
- indubia, 505
-- puncticeps, 505
- thinoboides, 505
- triangnlum, 505
- vestitu, 505

Aurelie sp., 162, 173
Auricularia, 170, 174

Autolytus longiferiens, 163, 170

- pictus, 163, 172
- rubropunctatus, 163, 170, 172
- sp., 163


## B

Bucillaria paradoxa, 152
Balance sheets, 264, 430, 524
Balanus, 166-78, 436-58
Bellerochio malleus, 151
Bembidium concinnum, 499

- minimum, 499
- normannum, 499
- suxatile, 499
- varium, 499

Berö̈ систиіs, 162, 171
Biddulphia, 135, 139, 142

- ulternums, 151
- fuvers, 151
- mobiliensis, 142, 149, 170-5
- regic, 149, 170-5, 440
- sinensis, 149, 173-5
- sp., 171

Bidessus minutissimus, 503
Bledius secernendus, 508

- spectabilis, 507
- unicornis, 508

Blemiidae collected near Plymouth, 247
Blemius grleritu, 441

- guttorngine, 441 ; host of Zoogonus, 514
- sp., 247
- ocellaris, host of Zoogonus, 514

Bolina infundibulnm, 162, 171, 176
Ropyrime sp., 167
Bongainvillia hrittemica, 161
Brachelytra, 504
Brachyghuta (Bryaxis) waterhousei, 509
Brachyura zoea, 169, 170, 452
Broscus cephalotes, 499
Buccinum undatum containing Trematodes, 514
C

Cufius fucicole, 507

- sericeus, 507
- xautholoma, 507
- var. variegutus, 507
- var. variolosus, 507

Culunus finmarchicus, 164, 170-8, 436 55

- stages in the life-history, I

Culathus mollis, 502
Celigus raprex, 166
Callionymidae collected near Ply mouth, 245
Cellionymus lyru, 245, 437-42; host of
Zoogonus, 514; of Derogenes, 516
Cumpylodiseus sp., 152, 458
Cancer pagurus, 168, 173
Candacia armatu, 165, 178
C'aprella sp., 166
Carangidae collected near Plymouth, 225
Gurenst truthurus, 225, 439, 517
Corcinopsis minimu, 510
Curcinus maenus, 169, 173, 174
Certeriu sp., 155
Cussida nobilis, 511

- vittuta, 511

Cathormiocerns, 513
Centropages hamatus, 165, 170, 171, 178
-typicus, 165-77, 436-56

- sp., 172, 442, 452

Ceuthorrhynchus duwsoni, 512

- terminutus, 512

Ceraphilus numus, 168
Ceratantinat Bergoni, 149, 176
Cerutium arcticum, 187

- bucephatum, 171, 172, 187
- furcer, 187
- fusus, 138, 139, 170-7
- mucroceras, 187
- pletycorne, 187
- sp., 153, 183, 187
- tripos, 187

Cercariu neptumi, 514
Cercyon depressus, 504

- littoralis, 504

Chatoceras, 136-49, 171-5

- boreale, 148
- breve, 148
- constrictum, 148, 170, 177
- contortum, 148
- convolutum, 147, 173, 174
- curvisetum, 135-48, 173-8
- denicum, 147
- debile, 139, 149
- decipisns, 139, 148

Chatoceres densum， 147
－diudema， 148
－didymum，143， 177
－laciniosnm， 148
－psendocrinitum，139，148， 175
－teres，148，173，174
－willei， 148
Chlomius miyricornis and var．melemu－ comis， 499
－vestitus， 499
Chryscorte，sp．， 162
Chrysomela banksi， 511
－heemoptere，． 111
Cicindelat yermanirt， 499
Cillenus laterelis， 500
Cirrutules（Audoninia），tentierulatus， cecology of， 60
Cimatulus，sp．， 163
Citterocyclis denticulata，160， 439
－edentute， 160
Clavicornia， 509
C＇lupeu sp．，213，437；age and rate of growth， 417
－herengues， 457
－sprettus， 459
Clupeidae collected near Plymouth， 213
Clytice volubilis，161，17．）
C＇neorrhinus plagiutus，－12
Corcosphera，436，4．5．）
Cochlodinium helix， 197
－vellucidem，138，197
－pulchellum，197
Codiosomu spudix，513
Ceelambus incequelis，．503
Coleoptera of South Devon and South Cornwall， 497
Coleps，sp．， 158
Corticariu crenulatu， 510
－impressu， 510
Coryceus englicus，165，170－8，436－58
Corylophus sublevipenmis， 509
Corystes cassivelaumus， $169,173-5$
Coscinodiscus，138，139，142，170，172， 441－58
－eccentricus，145，173，174，440，442
－Grumii，145， 454
－rudiutus，145，173，174，440
－sub－bulliens， 145
Cosmetiry piloselle．161；containing

Anaphice petiolatu，51 ；Pharyngore
bacillaris，57， 160
Cottus bubalis， 440
Grangon vulyaris， 1 ti8，173， 174
Crypticus quisquitius， 513
Crystallogolitas milssoni，239，437， 442
Cteriopus sulphurens，513
Ctenolabrets rupestris， 222
Cycloguster Montagui， $4+2$
Cyclopteridæ collected near Ply－ mouth， 241
Cyclopterus lumpus，241，442， 460
Cyphoneutes larva，164，170－4

## D

Dermestes undulutus， 510
Merogenes curicus， 163 ；in Sagitti， 201 ； in fishes， 202,516
Diatoms，culture of，385
Dichirotrichus obsoletres，502
－－pubescens， 502
Irictyoche fibulu，140，155，177，178
Diglotta mersu， DOG
I＇inobryen，sp．， 150
Dinophysis acuminnta， $154,176,184$
－＂cutre，18t
－hommeulus，v．tripos， 184
－ov七七т，184
－Totmmelutum， 184
－sp．，176，437，45\％
IDiplopselis lenticulu，18．5，4．37
－pilluln，176，18．
Ifistephumis sperulum，140，155，177． 17s，tin 0
Ditylium Briyhtwelli，151，17t
Iromins nigriventris，：003
－rectensis，503
$D_{y s c h i r i u s ~ a r e n o s u s, ~}^{499}$
－selinus， 499

## E

Echimoplutens，170，177，178
Endeis spinosus，52
Ephelotu crustuctorum， 158
Eucampit 云orliucus， 149
Eupuyzrus，＂p．，168，175，442
Euphansicdae， 167
Euplotes sj＇．，159
－rummis，159

Eurynome «sреге, 168
Euterpina cecutifrons, 165, 435-58
Evcerme Nordmumi, 166, 175, 178, 458

- sp., 436, 455

Ermiellu comprcssa, 184

## F

Fishes, age and rate of growth, 399 ; food of post-larval, 433
Flounders, scale investigations, 470
Food from the sea, 380
Foraminifera, 156
Fragilluriu, sp., 151, 450, 451

## G

Gadide collected near Plymouth, 217; rate of growth, 402
Gudus lusens, 217, 436, 437, 455
-merlengus, 217, 437, 4i4

- minutus, 217,437 , 15 F
- morrhua, 454
- pollachius, 217. 45
- sp. 438; containing Trematodes, 516
(iehthethers ip., 16世, 173, 174
titmmerts cherrouxi, Mendelian inheritance of eye-colour, i9; loss of ere-pigment, 273
fiusterostens spinuchin, 45f; containing Podocotyle, 517
Georlephaga, 499
Georyssus cremulutus, 510
Glenodinium bipes, 138, 176, 184
(imethies maxilleris, 167
Gobiesocidae collected near Plymouth, $24 i$
Gobiidee collectel near Plymouth, 239
Gubius, sp., 239, 437, 441
Gonyoulux polyedru, 185
- polygramma, 185
- scrippsace, 185
- spinifcra, 185, 458
- triucanthe, 185

Grammatophoru serpratinu, 151
Gronops lenutus, 512
Geinardiue flaccide, 138, 144, 172, 177, 437
Gymnodiaizom whromaticum, 190

- filum, 193

Gymnodinium lunula, 135

- minor, 192
-- Isemenoctiluer, 188
- Thomboites, 176, 183, 190
- teredt, 188
- triunguluris, 183, 192
- ciridis, 189

Gyrinus elongatus, 503

- marinus, 503


## H

Holcompa chrysenthellum, 162
Halosphere rividis, 155, 457, 458
Harpacticus univemis, 436, 442, 443
Harpalus attemuatus, 502

- turtus, 502
- tenebrosus, 498, 501

Heliozoa, 156
Helophorws mulstuti, 503
Iferedity in Plants, Animals and Man, 354
Herrings, researches on races of, 71
Heterocerus fenestritus, 510

- flexhosus, 510

Heteromera, 513
Heterotu (Aliunter) plumber, 505
Heterathops binotutu, soG;
Hippolyte, sp., 168, 170. 176, 452
Homalison leveiusculum, 509

- riparium, 509

Hop"trum sulumusum, 513
Hyclodisens stelliyer, 144, 172, 458
Hybocodon prolifer, 161, 174, 175
Hydradephaga, 503
Hylroparus (Ineronctes) assimitis, 503
-- limeatus, 503

## 1

Idutea vividis, 167
Ityu furcutu, 165, 436-42
Infusoria, 158, 160
Isius cluripes, 165, 436
J
Juxeu noctiunu, 168
L
Lubidocera Wollustoni, 165
Laboa acuminata, 159

Labea conict, 159

- sinurulis, 159
-..sp., $138,140,159,170,171$
- strobilu, 134, 159

Labride collected near Plymouth, 222
Labr"!s brity!la, 222, 437-39

- mixtus, 222

Laccobius propuruscens, 504
Lachymaria, sp., 158
Lamellicornia, 510
Lauderiu, 136, 175, 178

- borealis 139, 142, 144, 437

Leunler, sp., 167
Lepadoyester camlollei, 442

- gouani, 443
- sp., 247

Leptocylindrus dunicus, 144, 176
-sp., i4t
Leptomysis mediterrente, 167
Lesteva fontinulis, 509
Limucime belect, 169, 171

- retrocersa. See bulea

Limmeи!и nigropicelи, 499
Limenobaris T-elbum, 512
Lionychus bipmuctetus, 503

- quadrillum, 502
- unicolor, 503

List of Members, 266
Lithodesmium undulutum, 142, 151, 171-8
Lithomelisorn setose, 158, 439
Lohmunmiellu oviformis, 153
Lomyiperlia minor, 165
— Scotti, 165, 436, 448
Lophius piscutorius, 249, 440
Lyrmophore Limberyi, linl

## II

Mucropsis Slabberin, 167
Megelone, sp., 163
Malacodermata, 511
Maritime Coleoptera, 497
Mustigloiu, 136, 142, 143, 151, 171-6
Mecinus cirmlatus, 512
Medon pocofer, 507

- ripicolu, 507

Medusie containing Pyenogonids, 5l, 160

- as hosts for larval Trematodes, 57, 160

Meliyethes exilis, 510
Melosira Borreri, 143
Mendelian inheritance in Ciammarus, $18,273,364$; in plants, animals, and man, 3.) 4
Mesolinium, sp., 15!)
Metridia lucens, 436-55
Micralymma marinum, 509
Micruspis 16-punctata, 510
Microlestes (Blechrus) maurus, 503
Micromiscus sp, 167
Microplankton of Plymouth Sound, 133
Microsetella norvegica, 436, 448
Microzoum tibiule, 513
Molve molvu, 220
Morelellistemu purvulu, var. incequalis, 513
Muggice uthentira, 162, 173-8
Myrmecoporce brevipes, 505

- sulcute, 505


## N

Nassula, sp., 159
Nuvicula membruинсеи, 151

- sp., 151, 437-53

Nerophis lumbriciformis, 457
Nitzschiu closterium, 135, 139, 152, 171

- delicatissima, 135, 136, 139, 142, $152,175,176$
- pendriformis, 152
- seriutu, 152

Nyftiphumes Couchii, 167

0
Obelice, s1', 161, 170-8; containing Anaphin petiolater, 51; Pherryngore bacilluris, 57, 160
Ochthebius impressicollis, 504

- lejolisi, 504
-marinus, 504
- metallescens, 504
- pygmeets, 504
- viridis, 504

Ocypus ater, 507
Oikopleura dioica, 170-8
Oithoule natu, 165

- plumiferce, 165
- similis, 165, 173, 436, 458
— sp., 456

Oncet, :s., 436-58
Onos mustelus, 221, 437, 456; containing Pharimgora, 517
Ophiopluteus, $170,174,178$
Otiormynchus atroupterus, 512
— ruyifrons, 512
Oryporle exolet", 505
Oryrrhis merina, 155, 198
Oxytelus complumutus, 508

- perrisi, 508

Oxytoxum Milneri, 186

## $P$

Puchylopus (S'artimus) muritionus, 510
P'uilene brevirostris, 169
Palpicornia, 503
Penageens bipostulutus, 499
Perectulenes parens, 164-78, 437-57
P'aracineta limbate, 158
Puratiu sulcutu, 135-42, 170-6, 437-58
Parupontella lrevicornis, 165, 173, 174
Petchiut sp., 162, 176
Pectinuria sp., 164
Pediculati collected near Plymouth, 249
Peridiniales of Plymonth Sound, 183
Peridinium cerusus, 185, 437

- сонісит, 186
- crassipes, 186
- divergens, 171, 186
- oceanicam, 186
- orbiculare, 185
- ocatum, 154, 186, 437-9
- pullidum, 154, 186, 437
- pedunculutem, 186
- pelluridum, 154, 186
- rosenm, 185
- sp., 153, 154, 175, 176, 183, 437-51
- Thorianum, 186

Perileptus "reolutus, 501
Pheocyst is, 137, 152, 154, 176, 450

- Pouclutii, 175, 183

Phulerio cadaverimu, 513
Iharyngore lueillaris, 57, 162; in Sugitta, 202 ; in other hosts, 203 ; in fishes, 517
Phiulirlinm hemisphericum, 161, 170-8

- containing Arupher petiolutu, 51; Phuryngorn bucillaris, 57 ; Peachiu. 160

Phitonthus critentutus, 507

- munctrs, 507

Phosphoric Acid in sea-water, 122, 251
Phylan (Itelioputhes) gilbus, 513
Phytophaga, 511
Phytosus bultictes, 506

- migriventris, 50 G
- spinifer, 506

Plaice, scale investigations, 470
Pleurobruchio pileus, 162, 170-3; host of Phuryngore bucillais, 57
Pleuroncetes Alesus, 443, 450

- limendu, 229, 435-50; containing Trematodes, 514, 516;
— microcephulus, 229, 437, 443, 451; containing Trematodes, 514, 516
- pletesst, 443 ; containing Trematodes, 514
Plemronectids collected near Plymouth, 229, 443 ; age and rate of growth, 404
Pleurosigmu sp., 151, 437-51
Pollocotyle utomom, in Gusterosteus, 517
Podon intermedius, 166-78, 435-55
Poecilochretus serpens, 163, 174
Pogonus clalcens, 501
Polycem quedrilineutı, 169
Polychaetes possessing a heart-borly, 65
Polydrusus chrysomelu, 512
Polykrikns Schworzii, 198
Polyıö́, sp., 163
Polystomella, 156
Poutospher" Huxleyi, 155, 170, 171
Porcelluna, sp., 168-77, 439
Portınиs, sp., 169, 17t-7
Post-larval Teleosteans collected near Plymouth, 207
Pouchetive urmeta, 154, 176, 198
- fusus, 198
— pervor, 138, 198
Prorocentrum micuns, 135-9, 154, 170-8, 184, 437-57
Protoreratium reticulatum, 185
Pstrmmobius porricollis, 498, 510
Pseudoculanus plongutus, 164-78, 43559
I'semdocumue crentin, 167
I'siluthri.e cyeneus, 511
P'sylliodes murcida, 511

Ptenidium punctutum, 500
Pyrocystis luuula, 139, 198
Pyrophacus horologicum, 186

## 4

Guedius semiermeus, 506

- umbrinus, 506


## R

Raniceps raninus, 220
Rathker octopmenteta, 161, 173, 174
Report of Comucil, 2.59, 425,519
Khumphistoma belone, 443,460
Rhinocyllus comirus, 512
Rhizosolemict clutu, 139, 142, 170-7

- hebetata form semispiou, 139, 142, 176
- robusta, 145, 147
- setiger , 142, 147, 177
- Shrubsolei, 135-47, 174, 436; 456
- sp., 142, 175-7
-Stolterfothii, 139, 142, 1400, 170-8
Rhombus leveis, 234, 443, 452 ; containing Phuryrgorn, 517
- murimus, 234, 443, 452

Rhyucophora, 511
Roccus lubrur, 222

## S

Sugittu bipunctuta, 164, 170-8; parasites of, 201
Saphenia gracilis, 161, 176
Sarsia eximia, 161

- molifers, 161
- tuberosit, 161
scomber scomber, 2:26. 439 ; rate of growth, 403
Scombride collected near Plymouth, 226
Scopeeus minimus, 507
Scophthalmus norvegicus, 234, 435-53; containing Trematodes, 516
Serranidxe collected near Plymouth, 222
Sibinia sodutis, 512
Sipuliu testacer, 506
Siriellu Clousii, 167
Sitones waterhousi, 512

Skeletonema costretum, 135-42, 170-8, 441
Slabberiu hulterreter, 161
Smicronys jungermumice, 512
Solea luscoris, 237, 443-6

- luter, 237
-vuriegutu, 237, 435-48; containing Trematodes, 514, 516
- vulguris, 237, 435, 438, 443, 445; containing Trematodes, 514, 516
Spirodinium acutum, 194
- concentricum, 194
- crotesum, 195
- fissmm, 193
- gletucum, 176. 19);
— obtus"ни, 194
- spicale, 176, 193

Squill" Hesmaresti, 167
Steenstrupuir rubra, 161, 175
Stenus cetrutulut, 507
Stomotocu dineme, 161, 171 ; containing Anuphin petiolute, 51 ; Phuryngor" bucilluris, 160
streptothece themensis, 135, 142, 149, 171-5
Strombidium crudutum, 138, 159
subeocincll" (Lasia) 21-punctut", 510
S'urvivelle fustuose, 152
Symchetr, sl', 164
Syngnathidæ collected near Plymouth, 215
Syngrathus weus, 456

- rostellutus, 215, 457, 517


## T

Tuchys purvulus, 500
Temore longicornis, 16.)-78, 435-59
Terebellid larva, 163
Thulessiosire, 136

- condensutce, 144
- decipiens, 144
- gruvidt, 139, 142, 174-6, 440
- Nordenskioldii, 143
- subtilis, 144

Thalussiothrix nitischioiles, 138, 151, 459
— sp., 142, 173, 174
Thaumulens lonyispinow, 166
Tiarinu fusus, 1:38, 158

Tintinnopsis beroidea, 158, 159, 172-7, 439

- campanula, 159
- sp., 178
- ventricose, 158, 159, 170, 171, 43753
Tintinn"s subulutws, 159, 177
Tomopteris heligolandicus, '164
Trachinida collected near Plymouth, 244
Trachinus vipere, 244, 440
Trechus fulvus, 501
- subnotatus, 501

Trematode larva from Buccinum, 514
Trematodes in post-larval fish, 516
Trigle gremurdus, 241, 440

- hirundo, 241
- sp., 437, 438

Triglidæ collected near Plymouth, 241 Trochiscia Clevei, 155
Trogophlneus halophilus, 508
-unicolor, 508
Turvis pileate, 161, 171; containing Anuphiu petiolute, 51; Pharyngora bacillaris, 57, 160
Tychius schneideri, 512

## W

Willsiu stellutu, 161

## Z

Zeidæ collected near Plymouth, 229
Zeugopterns punctatus, 236, 437-52

- uimuculutus, 235, 437-52

Zers fuber, 229 ; host of Zoogonus, 514
Zoogonus viripurus, 514
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[^0]:    NEW SERIES.-VOL. XI. NU. 1. MAliCH, 1916.

[^1]:    * Pair I produced no young, the female throwing off the eggs; the male was then paired with three other females, two Black from the dredging, and one Red from the old stock; all laid eggs, but no young were hatched, and the male died.

[^2]:    * Only one specimen has been recorded from freshly captured animals, a male, with the left eye affected.

[^3]:    * This is a synonym of Anoplodactylus petiolatus Kröyer). See Norman, 1908, p. 202.

[^4]:    * Measurements are all given in centimetres.

[^5]:    * See p. 83.
    $\dagger$ Each fish was weighed singly to the nearest gram on an ordinary balance in our work.
    $\ddagger$ The scales were forwarded to the Board for examination. The pyloric cæca of eac fish were also preserved (see p. 86).

[^6]:    * The figures given in Tables II, III, and IV denote the number of vertebro with perfect and imperfect hæmal arches. For details see pp. 80-82.

[^7]:    至
    

[^8]:    New series-rol. xi. No. 2. may, 1917.

[^9]:    * Hauls where total depth of waier is 2) fathoms and over.

[^10]:    * m. (=many) has been counted as 50, and v.m. (=very many) as 100. The figures for May and June are therefore approximations only

[^11]:    * Matthews, D. J., "On the Amount of Phosphoric Acid in the Sea-Water off Plymouth Sound.: This Jourual, xi., No. 1, p. 122, March, 1916.

[^12]:    * Lebour, Marie V., M.Sc., " The Microplankton of Plymouth Sound from the Region beyond the Breakwater." This Journal and Volume, p. 133.

[^13]:    The Association's Bankers hold on its heinalf $\mathfrak{t}^{4} 40 \mathrm{lis}$, sd.
    New לealand 4 Stock, 1913-63.

[^14]:    * It may be mentioned here that no second case of a red-cyed Gammarns arising independently has occurred up to the present time (September. i917), all the red-eyed animals used in the experiments being descendants of the original stock.
    $\dagger$ 'The term "Albino" is here nsed to designate those animals in which the eye possesses no coloured retinal pigment, but in which the chalk-white extra-retinal pigment is present. For eyes in which the coloured retinal pigment and the chalk-white extraretinal pigment are both absent we employ the term "colourless."

[^15]:    * We shall for convenience refer to the factor $c$, which on the bypothesis represents the absence of the colour factor ( $C$, as the " albino factor."

[^16]:    * Unless the young are examined and removed soon after they are extruded a certain number are lost through being eaten by the parents and the more delicate ones tend to disappear first. The albinos seem to be more delieate than the reds, and the reds than the blaeks, so that unless the broods are counted within a short time the proportions of the different eoloured eyes are liable to error. The fifures diven in the present paper INCLUDE ONLY SUCH broods As Were cousted withis forty-eitint hours of the time of extrusion, unless the contrary is definitely stated.
    $\dagger$ Of these 589 red-eyed and 191 albinos came from the mating of one pair. (I.F. $\times$ 1.E. Plate I. see p. 336).

[^17]:    * Figures between brackets are also given under the other member of the pair and must therefore not be included in the totals.

[^18]:    * (ommare footnote ]). 344. 'The exceptional numbers were specially noted at the time the brood was extruded, and there is no doult as to the aeeuracy of the recomb.

[^19]:    * Thi constitution was proved after Plate I was printed.

[^20]:    * In all the animals referred to in this paper as "alhino," the eyes hat the irregnlar, degenerate form figured on Plate VII, Fig. 4. If we take the view that, in the absence of red and black pigment, the regular'form is in itself sullicient to distinguish the " all white" eye (Plate VII, Fig. 7) from the imperfectly shaped "albino" eye, the following statement, the form of which we owe to Prof. R. C. Pumett, who has been good enough to read this paper in proof, puts the argoment against our Hypothesis I in a brief form. The letter P must be understood to represent the factor for either red or black pigment, p the absence of such a factor. Hypothesis I. That two complementary colour factors are conccrned, of which the "albino" female contains one, viz. I', and the "all white" male the other, viz. C.
    
    (Plate II)

    Allino of Black
    ecIP
    Males
    Cell' II.A., II.B., II.C. (Plate II) 20
    $\stackrel{0}{8}$
    $\stackrel{0}{8}$

    CCPP Ce PP CCPp Cc Ppr $\quad$ Kygotes of hrools CePP VIA.1., VI.A.2., VI.A.3., се P P VI.B.1., VI.B.2., VI.B.3, Cе Pp VI.C1., VI.C 2., VI.C 3. се PP (Plate II).

[^21]:    Sextos, E. W., and Wisa, M. B. Experiments on the Mendelan lnheritance of Eyecolour in the Amphipord Cíammerns chermexi. Journ. Mar. Riol. Assoc, NI, 1. 18. 1916.

    Abden, E. J., and Sextos, E. W. The Las of the Eyopigment in Vammarus cherment. Iomm. Mar. Biol, Assoc., N゙1, p. 278. 1917.

[^22]:    * In the diagran me brood only is shown from this mating, consisting of $\overline{7}$ black-eged and 2 red-eyed young.

[^23]:    ${ }^{1}$ The address was illustrated by lantern slides ant the graph was shown.
    NEW serite, - vor. xi. Ni. 3. heember, 1917.

[^24]:    * For a Plan of Plymouth Sound showing where the tow-nettings were taken, see Fige 7, 1. 459.

[^25]:    * The annual rings on the otoliths of Flounders are not so distinct as those of the Plaice, indeed Wallace and other workers on otoliths hold that age determination is uncertain from Flounder otoliths. The scales which I have examined from these fish exhibit maxima and minima as regularly and distinctly as do those of the Plaice.

[^26]:    * In the last column the word captured means the animal was taken straight from the sea, and did not live under experimental conditions
    before the seales were examined. A denotes that the animal lived in abundant tank; S in the scanty; H in the hot, and C in the cold tank before the scales were examined.

